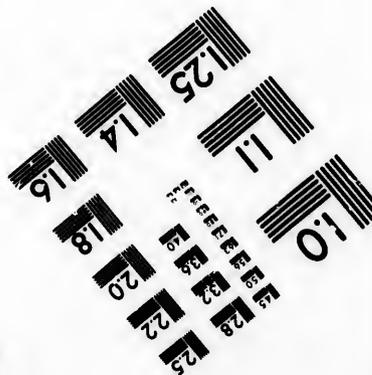
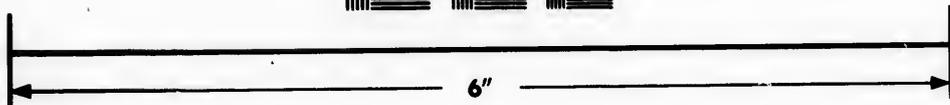
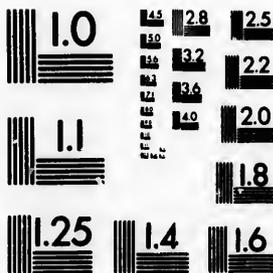


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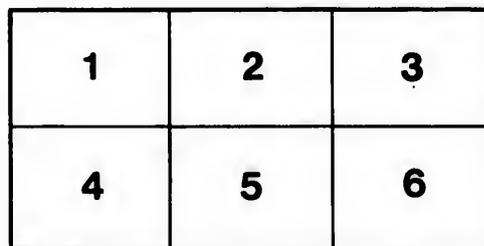
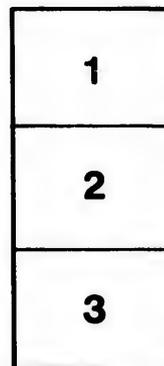
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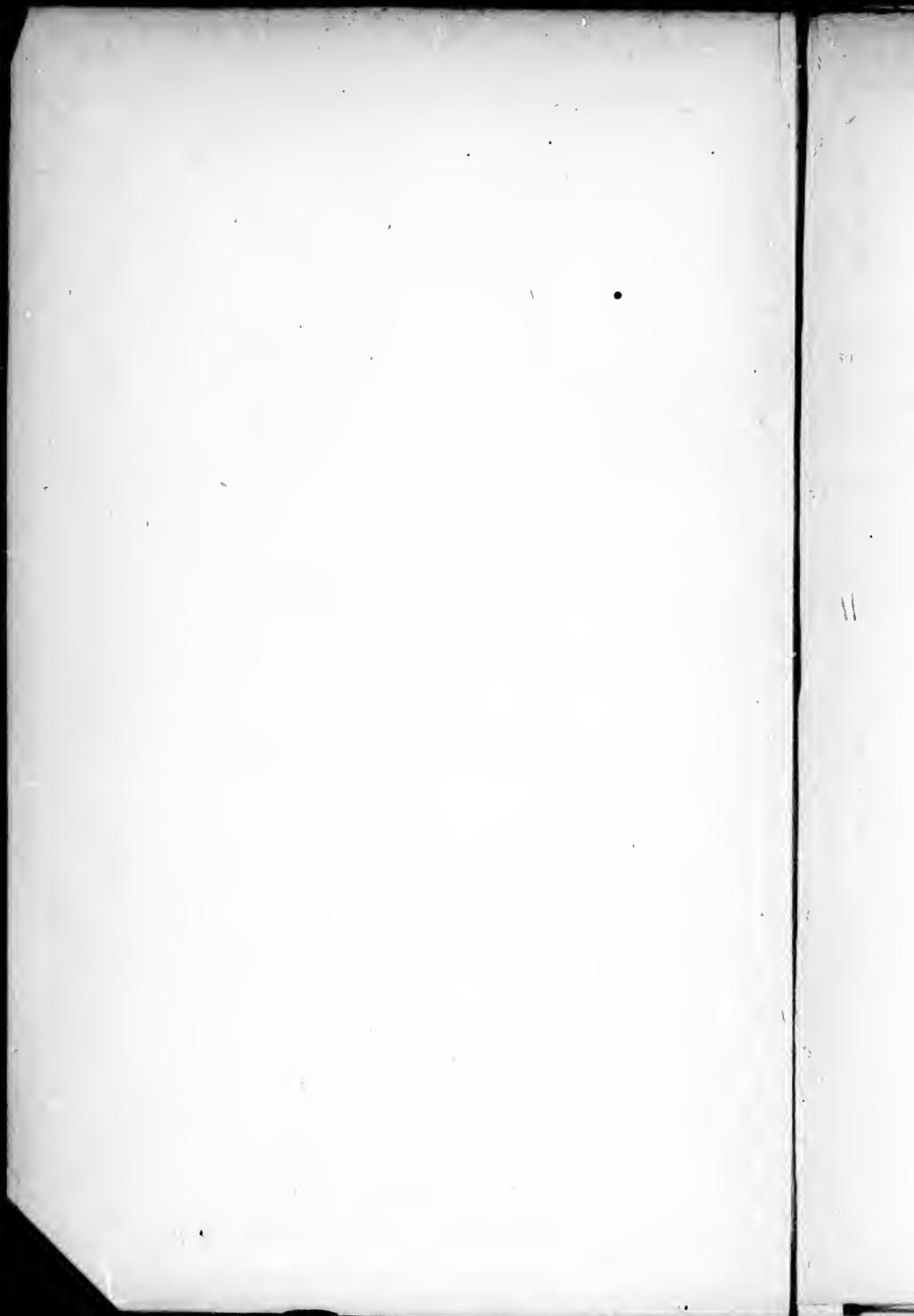
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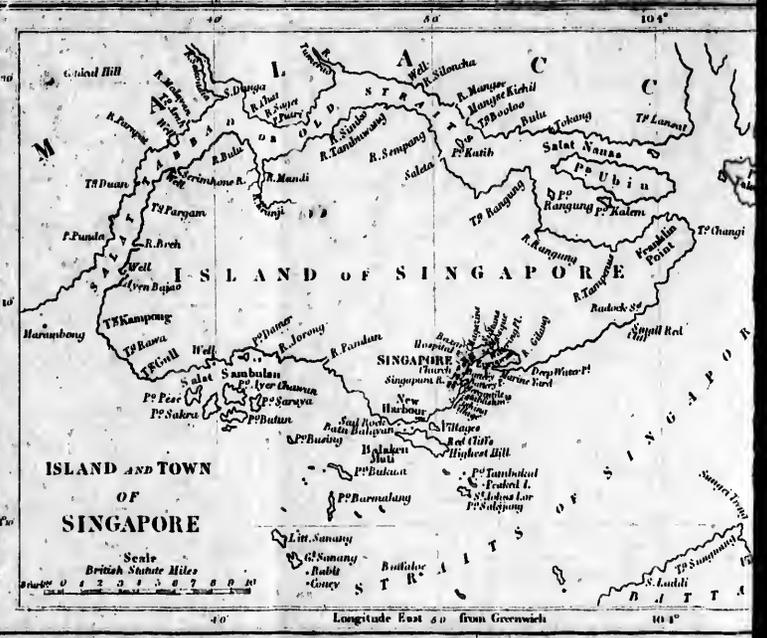
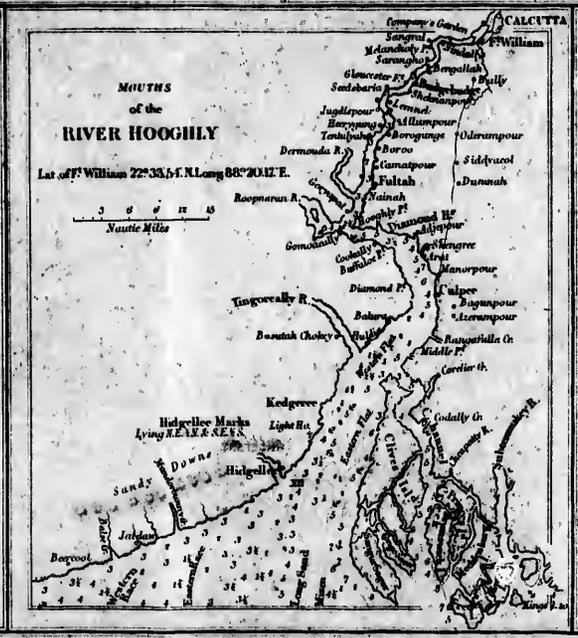
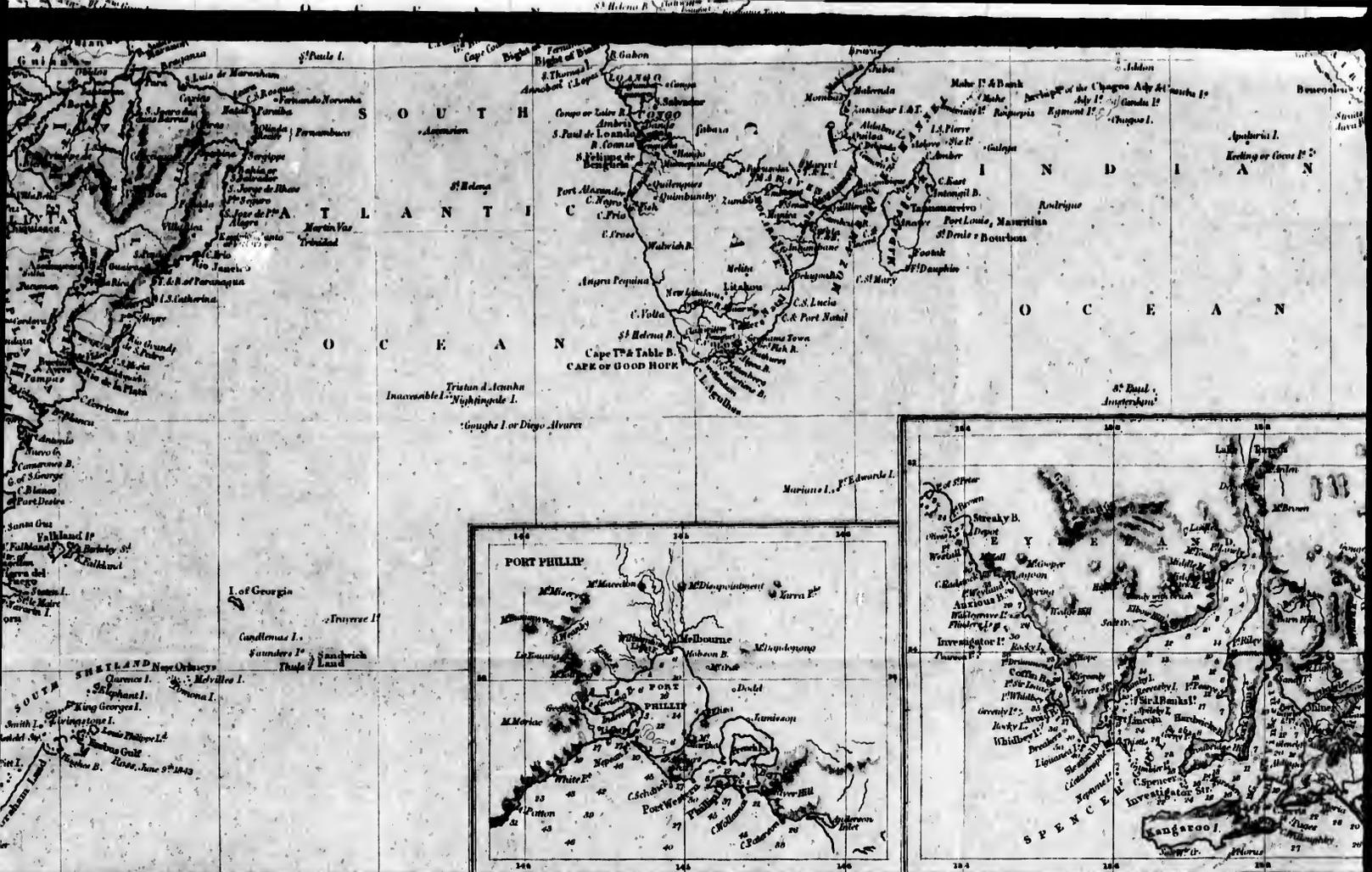
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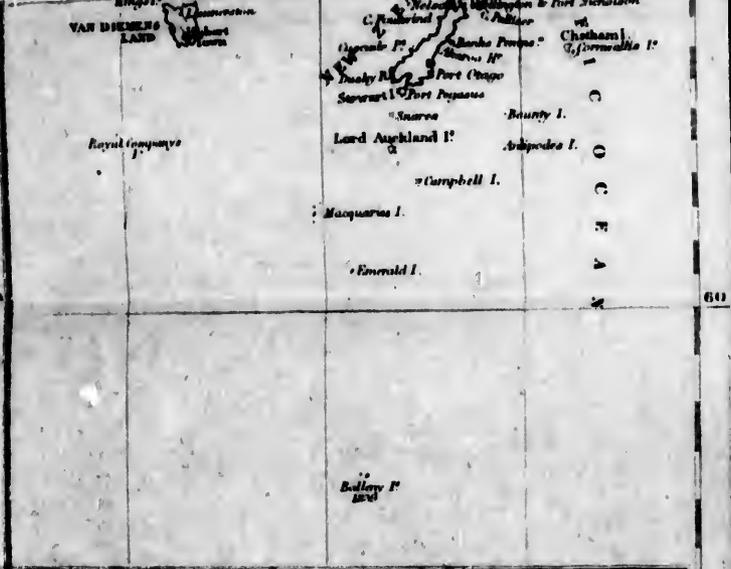
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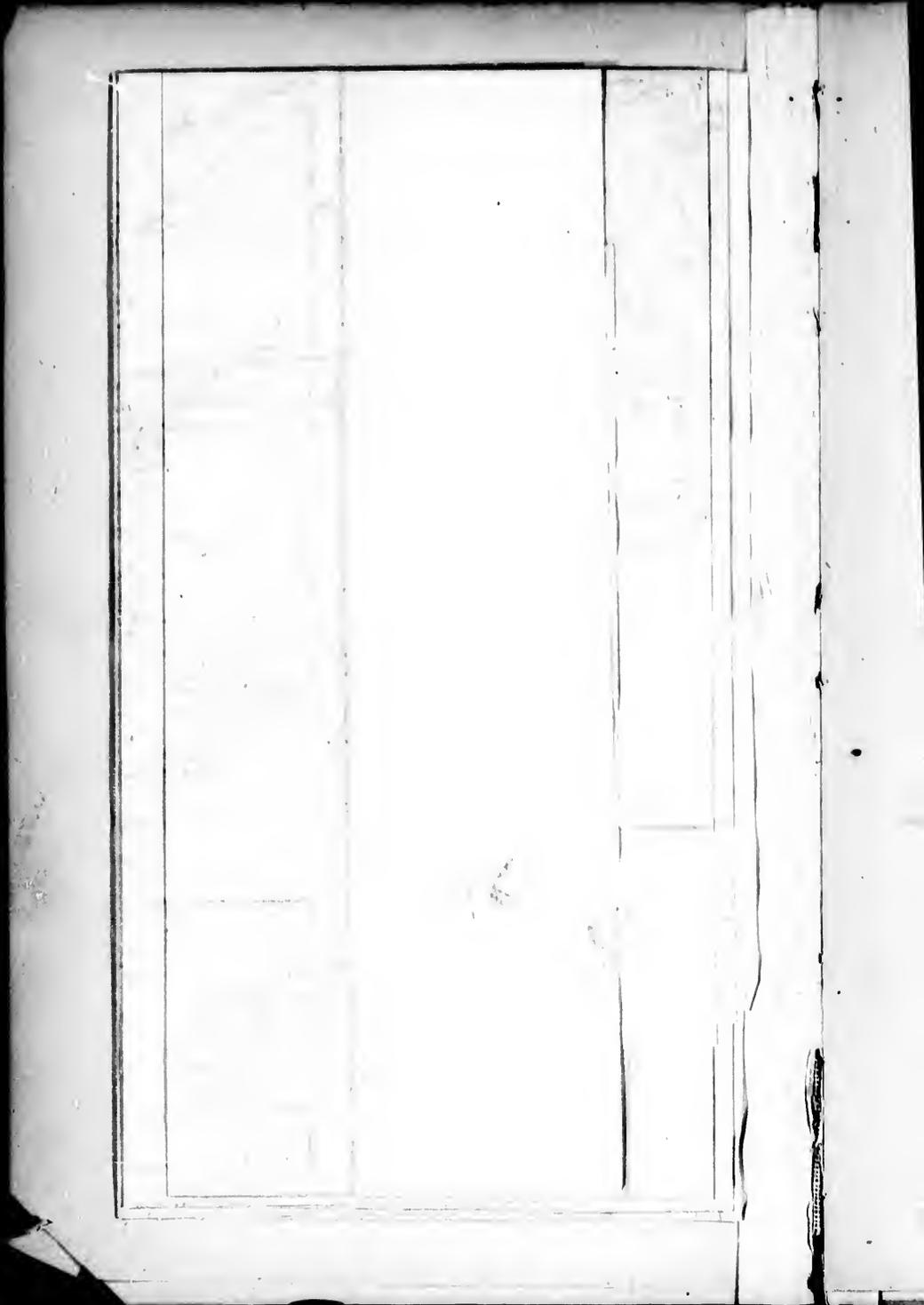








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DICTIONARY,
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OF
COMMERCE
AND
COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS AND PLANS.

BY
J. R. McCULLOCH, Esq.,
MEMBER OF THE INSTITUTE OF FRANCE.

A NEW EDITION,
CORRECTED, ENLARGED, AND IMPROVED;
WITH A SUPPLEMENT.

Tutte le invenzioni le più benefiche del genere umano, e che hanno sviluppato l'ingegno e la facoltà dell'animo nostro, sono quelle che accostano l'uomo all'uomo, e facilitano la comunicazione delle idee, dei bisogni, dei sentimenti, e riducono il genere umano a una sola famiglia.

LONDON:
LONGMAN, BROWN, GREEN, AND LONGMANS,
PATERNOSTER-ROW.
1850.

" Though immediately and primarily written for the merchants, this Commercial Dictionary will be of use to every man of business or of curiosity. There is no man who is not in some degree a merchant ; who has not something to buy and something to sell, and who does not therefore want such instructions as may teach him the true value of possessions or commodities. The descriptions of the productions of the earth and water which this volume contains, may be equally pleasing and useful to the speculatist with any other Natural History. The descriptions of ports and cities may instruct the geographer as well as if they were found in books appropriated only to his own science ; and the doctrines of funds, insurances, currency, monopolies, exchanges, and duties, is so necessary to the politician, that without it he can be of no use either in the council or the senate, nor can speak or think justly either on war or trade.

" We, therefore, hope that we shall not repent the labour of compiling this work, nor flatter ourselves unreasonably, in predicting a favourable reception to a book which no condition of life can render useless, which may contribute to the advantage of all that make or receive laws, of all that buy or sell, of all that wish to keep or improve their possessions, of all that desire to be rich, and all that desire to be wise."

JOHNSON, *Preface to Rolt's Dict.*

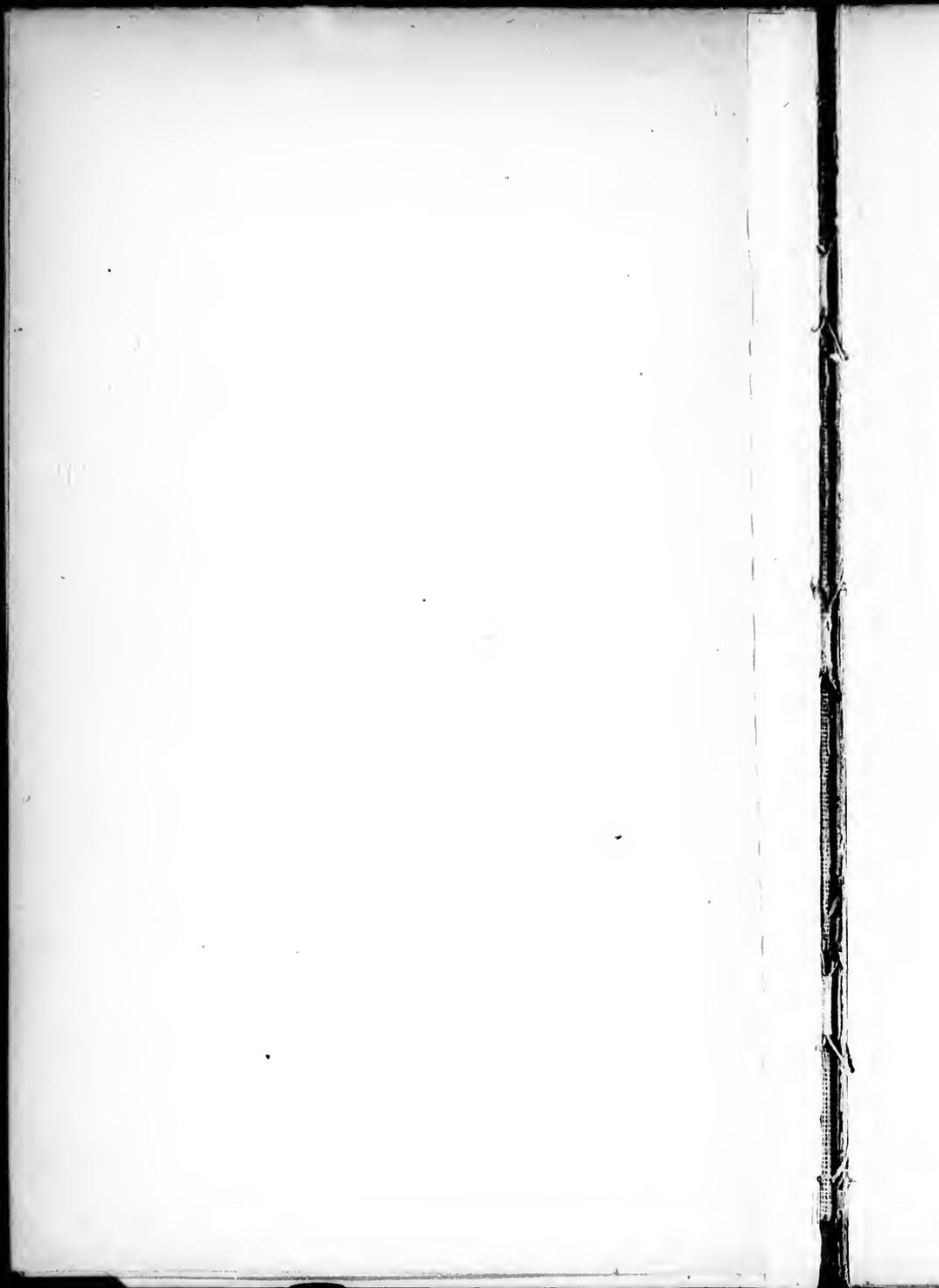
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THE principal changes which have taken place in the Commerce and commercial regulations of this and other countries, during the last three years, have been carefully noted in this edition. Of these, the repeal of the greater portion of the Navigation Laws has been the most important. Besides a full abstract of the new Navigation Act, we have endeavoured to exhibit the circumstances under which it originated, and to estimate its probable influence over the mercantile marine and well-being of the country. The articles Corn Laws and Corn Trade, and the articles on Dantzic, Galacz (SUPPLEMENT), New York, Odessa, Taganrog, &c., embrace a number of details illustrative of the Corn Trade during the four years ending with 1849. And though it would be wrong to speak with undue confidence on such a point, we confess that, after the most careful investigation, we see no grounds for thinking that the measures adopted in 1846 will be really injurious to agriculture.

Wherever it could be done, we endeavoured to introduce the new matter and amendments into the body of the work. But this was not always practicable; and the Supplement contains a good deal of late and valuable information. It embodies, for example, the most recent details in regard to the Corn and Cotton Trades, with the new Act regulating the Conveyance of Passengers from the U. Kingdom, the latest accounts of the trade of Calcutta, Canton, the U. States, &c.

We beg again earnestly to solicit our friends, in this and other countries, to point out such mistakes as they may happen to notice, and to supply us with the means of obviating them, and of rendering the work still better entitled to the public confidence.

London, 2d March, 1850.



PREFACE TO THE EDITION OF 1847.

THE last complete edition of this work, though published so lately as February, 1844, has already become all but obsolete. This has been occasioned by the extraordinary changes that have been made in the interval in our commercial policy and regulations. Of these the act of last session providing for the immediate modification and speedy abolition of the Corn Laws, is the most important. It was the crowning measure in the memorable administration of Sir Robert Peel; and went far to complete the great series of commercial reforms begun in 1842. The opening of the ports to the free importation of foreign cattle, sheep, and hogs, which had previously been wholly prohibited; the repeal of the Excise duty on glass, and of the Customs duties on about 500 different articles, including some of the greatest importance, and their reduction on many more; the vast improvement effected in our banking and monetary systems; and the measure respecting the Corn Laws, were all accomplished in the short space of four or five years; and, in as far as can at present be seen, not only with infinite advantage to the public, but without injury or even sensible inconvenience to any class! And it is obvious that such could not have been the case had not the determination to carry these measures been subordinate to the skill and ability with which they were prepared.

These, however, are not the only alterations that have taken place since February, 1844. New acts have been passed in that interval relating to navigation, the intercourse with the colonies, the importation and exportation of foreign and native produce, the hiring of seamen, the registry of shipping, &c., with the important act of last session in regard to the sugar duties. And in addition to the many fundamental changes that have taken place at home, a greatly improved Tariff has recently been enacted in the U. States; while minor changes have been effected in other parts of the commercial world.

The edition of this Dictionary now given to the public has been accommodated to this altered state of things. Wherever it was practicable we have introduced the new matter under its proper head; the circumstance of the work being stereotyped having generally enabled us to do this without resetting the types of the other portions. In most cases the space occupied by the articles that have been superseded afforded room for those by which they have been replaced; and where it happened that the new articles could not be confined within the former limits, the addition of extra pages, supplied the necessary accommodation. Hence, notwithstanding the great amount of matter inserted for the first time in this edition, the SUPPLEMENT added to it is of comparatively limited dimensions. The separate Supplement prepared for the use of the purchasers of the editions of 1844 and 1846 is considerably larger, inasmuch as it contains the more important portions of the new information dispersed throughout the present work.

The extreme difficulty of procuring recent and authentic information in relation to the commerce and commercial regulations of foreign and remote countries will, we venture to hope, be admitted as some excuse for the errors which, despite

every effort to be accurate, may, no doubt, be discovered in this book. We shall reckon it a favour if those by whom they may be detected will have the goodness to point them out; and we shall be still more obliged if they will, at the same time, supply us with matter available for their correction. We beg farther to state that whatever information may be communicated to us by gentlemen versed in any of the matters treated of in this work, will be most gratefully received; and that it will be employed to render it, what we are most anxious it should be, a digest of late, readily accessible, and *trustworthy* information on all matters relating to the commerce and commercial navigation of this country and of the world.

London, May, 1847.

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PREFACE
TO
THE EDITION OF 1844.

THE last edition of this work that underwent a complete revision was published in 1834. Since that epoch several considerable impressions have been exhausted; the more important changes in the commercial laws and regulations of this and other countries, and in the channels of commercial intercourse, that took place in the interval, having been specified in successive Supplements. These, however, notwithstanding the limited plan on which they were compiled, had become rather voluminous; and the changes made in our commercial policy by the Tariff Act of 1842, and the late acts for regulating the corn and colonial trades, &c., were so very important, and affected so many articles and interests, that it would have been difficult to notice them and the other subjects that required to be brought under the reader's eye in a new Supplement, without extending it to something like the size of the original work, which would thus have been rendered clumsy, costly, and inconvenient. Under these circumstances, we had no choice, except to abandon the work altogether, or to undertake the laborious task of its reconstruction. Having determined upon the latter, we have endeavoured to make it a Digest and Repertory of the most useful and authentic information respecting the past and present state of the commerce of this and most other countries, including the means and devices resorted to for facilitating commercial operations, and the laws and regulations under which they have been carried on. The various details are brought down to the latest period; and such additional subjects and statements have been introduced as had been overlooked in the former editions, or have since come into existence or grown of importance. We have tried to effect these improvements without adding, very materially, to the size of the work, by subjecting it to an unsparing retrenchment, and rejecting whatever was superseded by late changes, or appeared to be unnecessary.

It must, however, be admitted of works of this description, that they are less susceptible than most others of being improved in successive editions. An error in a bygone statement may, of course, be detected and rectified; but few comparatively of those who refer to a Commercial Dictionary care for historical notices or theoretical discussions. The practical details belonging to the present moment are the prime objects of interest with most men of business; and the same difficulties recur in attempting to give an account of commerce and commercial legislation in 1842 and 1843 that had to be encountered in describing their state in 1832 and 1833. The subject is not stationary but progressive, and variable in the extreme. The information, too, to which we have been compelled to resort, has been often very deficient; and when more abundant, it has not infrequently been obscure, contradictory, and but little to be depended upon. And even though it had been of a less ques-

tionable description, the all but endless variety of subjects we have had to notice, and the perpetual and often unmarked changes to which most of them are subject, prevent our flattering ourselves with the notion that we have been much more successful on this than on former occasions in avoiding mistakes. We have, however, resorted to every means within our reach by which accuracy was likely to be attained; and can honestly affirm that, in attempting to render our work worthy of the public confidence, we have shrunk from no labour nor grudged any reasonable expense.

Except in one or two instances, we have seen no reason to modify any general principle laid down in the previous editions. The freedom of industry and of trade appears to us, speaking generally, to be the only sound foundation on which the commercial legislation of any country can safely or permanently rest. But we are not of the number of those who think that this is a principle to which there can be no exception, and that it is to be enforced at all times, without regard to existing interests, or to the peculiar situation of the branches of industry to which it may be proposed to be applied. There are, in truth, no absolute principles; that is, there are no principles that can be safely and advantageously carried out to their full extent, at all hazards and under all circumstances, either in Commercial Economy or any thing else. In conducting national affairs, the interests, and even the unreasonable prejudices, of great classes must be consulted; and governments should frequently, or, perhaps, we might say, generally, adopt that line of conduct which may seem to be on the whole best fitted to conciliate and promote the varying interests of those for whom they legislate, in preference to that which may be more in accordance with principle. A policy of this sort, while it is consistent with the effectual reform of every abuse, makes all changes be carefully considered, and cautiously introduced; and provides for the permanent advantage of the community with as little immediate injury as possible to individuals.

It is not, therefore, as many appear to suppose, enough to prove that a rule or regulation is wrong, that it interferes with the absolute freedom of industry or of trade. Such interference may be justifiable or unjustifiable, according to the peculiar exigencies of the case. The decisions of men of sense are not to be guided, on topics of this sort, by clamour, or by a cuckoo-cry in favour of any general principle, however well-established, but by a comprehensive investigation of what is under the circumstances the wisest and best course of policy to be adopted. Who can doubt that the regulations with respect to the truck system, the exclusion of females from mines, and the employment of young people in factories, though interfering to a considerable extent with the freedom of industry, are highly judicious, and necessary for the protection of the largest and not least important portion of society?

It may be doubted whether the commercial code of any country was ever so much liberalised and improved in the same space of time as ours has been between the important reforms begun by Mr. Huskisson in 1825, and those effected by Sir Robert Peel in 1842. The more ardent reformers allege, indeed, that these were not sufficiently extensive, that they were introduced slowly and with greater diffidence than necessary, and that many abuses are still unredressed. But those who reflect on the difficulty, in an extremely artificial state of society, of correctly appreciating the remote influence of any considerable change, and the impossibility of retracing any false step, will probably be disposed to applaud the prudence manifested in effecting these reforms. The progress already made has, however, paved the way for farther advances; and the reforms that still remain to be undertaken may now be

attempted with comparatively little risk. The greater number of these are, we believe, pointed out in this work; and we have endeavoured to show how they may be best introduced, and the advantages which may be fairly anticipated from their being carried into effect.

Some of the most important subjects of which we have had to treat are, unfortunately, much mixed up with party politics, and the agitation of the day. But our pages, we trust, are not polluted by any factious or partisan taint. We have endeavoured to treat the subjects in question in the spirit of lookers on who have no wish to participate in the game, and not in that of the players, who may, perhaps, have staked their all on the result; and are not conscious of having been biased by political or personal predilections.

We firmly adhere to the opinion we have endeavoured to establish in the former editions of this work and elsewhere, that it would be sound policy to permit the importation of foreign corn at all times, under a moderate fixed duty accompanied by a corresponding drawback. A duty of this sort would not interpose any serious obstacle to our getting supplies of foreign corn when necessary; at the same time that it would tend to prevent any sudden shock being given to agriculture by the opening of the ports to free importation, and would countervail the peculiar burdens the agriculturists at present sustain, or which, at all events, they would most certainly have to sustain, were the ports open to importation without any duty. It appears to us that justice to all parties — to the manufacturers and merchants on the one hand, and to the agriculturists on the other, requires that some such method of settling this *vezata questio* should be attempted. It has been truly said, that what a mercantile country like Great Britain most requires is the adoption of "a decided and unflinching course of commercial policy." This is necessary to give those engaged in agricultural and commercial pursuits that feeling of security which lies at the bottom of all steady, vigorous, and prolonged exertion; and to make all classes bring their industry and capital into full activity. Unluckily, however, the most formidable obstacles appear to stand in the way of our entering upon such a course; and so long as one great class claim every thing, and another great class will concede nothing, our policy can inspire but little confidence. But we would fain hope that both parties, or at least that the more reasonable and considerate portions of both, may become sensible of the many pernicious consequences which cannot fail to result from prolonging the agitation with respect to the corn laws; and that these laws may be finally settled so as to reconcile and secure the just rights and interests of all classes. Unfounded anticipations of advantage on the one hand, and unfounded anticipations of loss on the other, are the only real obstacles to some such arrangement being effected; and it will be much to be deplored should the great interests of the empire be sacrificed to such delusions, and to the sinister designs of those who represent them as real, and exaggerate their magnitude.

We have thought it necessary to say thus much; for, though our work, being a Commercial Dictionary, might be supposed to be beyond the sphere of politics, we have been reluctantly compelled, on various occasions, in consequence of the way in which commercial and political questions are now mixed up, to engage in what may be called political discussion. And when such has been the case, we have not scrupled freely to state our opinions, and to censure such principles, laws, or regulations, as we believe to be injurious. But we have not done this wantonly, or without briefly stating the grounds on which we have presumed to found our conclusions. We have, also, as on former occasions, taken care to separate the theoretical and historical from the practical and legal parts of the

work. Those by whom it is consulted merely for mercantile information need not, therefore, trouble themselves about the other matters embodied in it. They are not forced on their attention; but they may easily be found, if, at any time, they should think it worth while to refer to them.

In preparing this edition we have met, as on former occasions, with every assistance from numerous official and private gentlemen. We are especially indebted to the Earl of Aberdeen for allowing us the perusal of many valuable consular Reports. To Mr. Porter, of the Board of Trade, so advantageously known by his statistical works, we owe various unpublished documents belonging to his department. Mr. Wood, the able and efficient chairman of the Board of Excise, Mr. Mayer, of the Colonial Office, and Mr. Walcott, secretary to the Emigration Commissioners, have, also, discovered on every occasion an anxious desire to add to the utility of our work, and have enriched it with various important returns. We regret our inability to notice the numerous private gentlemen who have, without regard to trouble or expense, exerted themselves to supply us with information not otherwise attainable. But, while we beg to return our best thanks to all, we cannot forbear mentioning the names of James Cook, Esq., of Mincing Lane; Archibald Hastie, Esq., M. P.; Jacob Herbert, Esq., of the Trinity House; Joshua Milne, Esq., of the Sun Life Assurance Office; William Ellis, Esq., of the Marine Indemnity Insurance Office; Robert Slater, Esq., of Fore Street; John Brown, Esq., of Liverpool; C. B. Fripp, Esq., of Bristol; David Maitland, Esq., of New York; and William Mure, Esq., of New Orleans; to all of whom we are under the greatest obligations. In fact, it is only by the assistance of individuals engaged in different lines of business, in different parts of the empire and of the world, that a work of this sort can be rendered of any real value. No diligence of inquiry can derive satisfactory information respecting the state of commerce from books and official returns, even when these exist and are accessible, which is frequently not the case: it can only be learned, if it is to be learned at all, from the communications of intelligent individuals engaged in and familiar with its details.

London, February, 1844.

PREFACE

TO

THE SECOND EDITION

THE first impression of this Dictionary, consisting of 2,000 copies, was entirely sold off in less than nine months from the date of its publication. We feel very deeply indebted to the public for this unequivocal proof of its approbation; and we have endeavoured to evince our gratitude, by labouring to render the work less undeserving a continuance of the favour with which it has been honoured. In the prosecution of this object, we have subjected every part of it to a careful revision; have endeavoured to eradicate the errors that had escaped our notice; to improve those parts that were incomplete or defective; and to supply such articles as had been omitted. We dare not flatter ourselves with the idea that we have fully succeeded in these objects. The want of recent and accurate details as to several important subjects, has been an obstacle we have not, in all cases, been able to overcome; but those in any degree familiar with such investigations will not, perhaps, be disposed severely to censure our deficiencies in this respect.

The changes in the law bearing upon commercial transactions have been carefully specified. Copious abstracts of the late Customs Acts are contained in the articles COLONIES AND COLONY TRADE, IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, NAVIGATION LAWS, REGISTRY, SMUGGLING, WAREHOUSING, &c.

The abolition of the East India Company's commercial monopoly, and the great and growing interest* that has in consequence been excited amongst all classes respecting the commercial capabilities and practices of India, China, and other Eastern countries, have made us bestow peculiar attention to this department. The articles BANGKOK, BATAVIA, BOMBAY, BUSHIRE, BUSSORAH, CALCUTTA, CANTON, COLUMBO, EAST INDIA COMPANY AND EAST INDIES, INDIGO, MACAO, MADRAS, MANILLA, MAULMAIN, MOCHA, MUSCAT, NANGASACKI, OPIUM, RANGOON, SINGAPORE, TATTA, TEA, &c. contain, it is believed, a greater mass of recent and well-authenticated details as to the commerce of the vast countries stretching from the Arabic Gulph to the Chinese Sea, than is to be found in any other English publication.

The article BANKING is mostly new. Besides embodying the late act prolonging the charter of the Bank of England, and the more important details given in the Report of the Select Committee on the Renewal of the Bank Charter, this article contains some novel and important information not elsewhere to be met with. No account of the issues of the Bank of England has hitherto been published, that extends farther back than 1777. But this deficiency is now, for the first time, supplied; the Directors having obligingly furnished us with an

* The recent events in China have added greatly to this interest, and have made us enter, in this edition, into several additional details.

account of the issues of the Bank on the 28th of February and the 31st of August of each year, from 1698, within four years of its establishment, down to the present time. We have also procured a statement, from authority, of the mode of transacting business in the Bank of Scotland; and have been able to supply several additional particulars, both with respect to British and to foreign banks.

We have made many additions to, and alterations in, the numerous articles descriptive of the various commodities that form the materials of commerce, and the historical notices by which some of them are accompanied. We hope they will be found more accurate and complete than formerly.

The Gazetteer department, or that embracing accounts of the principal foreign emporiums with which this country maintains a direct intercourse, was, perhaps, the most defective in the old edition. If it be no longer in this predicament, the improvement has been principally owing to official co-operation. The sort of information we desired as to the great sea-port towns could not be derived from books, nor from any sources accessible to the public; and it was necessary, therefore, to set about exploring others. In this view we drew up a series of queries, embracing an investigation of imports and exports, commercial and shipping regulations, port charges, duties, &c., that might be transmitted to any port in any part of the world. There would, however, in many instances, have been much difficulty in getting them answered with the requisite care and attention by private individuals; and the scheme would have had but a very partial success, had it not been for the friendly and effectual interference of Mr. Poulett Thomson. Alive to the importance of having the queries properly answered, he voluntarily undertook to use his influence with Lord Palmerston to get them transmitted to the Consuls. This the Noble Lord most readily did; and answers have been received from the greater number of these functionaries. There is, of course, a considerable inequality amongst them; but they almost all embody a great deal of valuable information, and some of them are drawn up with a degree of skill and sagacity, and display an extent of research and a capacity of observation, that reflect the highest credit on their authors.*

The information thus obtained, added to what we received through other but not less authentic channels, supplied us with the means of describing twice the number of foreign sea-ports noticed in our former edition; and of enlarging, amending, and correcting the accounts of such as were noticed. Besides much fuller details than have ever been previously published of the nature and extent of the trade of many of these places, the reader will, in most instances, find a minute account of the regulations to be observed respecting the entry and clearing of ships and goods, with statements of the different public charges laid on shipping, the rates of commission and brokerage, the duties on the principal goods imported and exported, the prices of provisions, the regulations as to quarantine, the practice as to credit, banking, &c., with a variety of other particulars. We have also described the ports; and have specified their depth of water, the course to be steered by vessels on entering, with the rules as to pilotage, and the fees on account of pilots, light-houses, &c. As it is very difficult to convey a sufficiently distinct idea of a sea-port by any description, we have given plans, taken from the latest and best authorities, of about a dozen of the principal foreign ports. Whether we have succeeded, is more than we can venture to say; but we hope we have said enough to satisfy the reader, that we have spared no pains to furnish him with authentic information in this important department.

* The returns furnished by the Consuls at Hamburg, Trieste and Venice, Naples, Danzig, Bordeaux, Christiania, Amsterdam, Elsinour, New York, Charleston, &c. are particularly good.

The **TARIFF**, or Table of Duties on Imports, &c., in this edition, is peculiarly valuable. It is divided into three columns: the first containing an account of the existing duties payable on the importation of foreign products for home use, as the same were fixed by the Act of last year, 3 & 4 Will. IV. cap. 56.; the next column exhibits the duties payable on the same articles in 1819, as fixed by the Act 59 Geo. III. cap. 52.; and the third and last column exhibits the duties as they were fixed in 1787 by Mr. Pitt's Consolidation Act, the 27 Geo. III. cap. 13. The duties are rated throughout in Imperial weights and measures; and allowances have been made for differences in the mode of charging, &c. The reader has, therefore, before him, and may compare together, the present customs duties with the duties as they stood at the end of the late war, and at its commencement. No similar Table is to be met with in any other work. We are indebted for it to J. D. Hume, Esq., of the Board of Trade, at whose suggestion, and under whose direction, it has been prepared. Its compilation was a work of much labour and difficulty; and could not have been accomplished by any one not well acquainted with the Customs Acts, and the various changes in the mode of assessing the duties.

On the whole, we trust it will be found that the work has been improved throughout, either by the correction of mistakes, or by the addition of new and useful matter. Still, however, we are well aware that it is in various respects defective; but we are not without hopes that those who look into it will be inducement enough to believe that this has been owing as much to the extreme difficulty, or rather, perhaps, the impossibility, of obtaining accurate information respecting some of the subjects treated of, as to the want of care and attention on our part. Even as regards many important topics connected with the commerce and manufactures of Great Britain, we have had to regret the want of authentic details, and been obliged to grope our way in the dark. The condition and habits of the English and Scotch are so very different from those of the Irish, that conclusions deduced from considering the trade or consumption of the United Kingdom *en masse*, are frequently of little value; and may, indeed, unless carefully sifted, be the most fallacious imaginable; while, owing to the want of any account of the cross-channel trade between the two great divisions of the empire, it is not possible accurately to estimate the consumption of either, or to obtain any sure means of judging of their respective progress in wealth and industry. As respects manufactures, there is a still greater deficiency of trustworthy details. The articles relating to them in this work have been submitted to the highest practical authorities; so that we incline to think they are about as accurate as they can well be rendered in the absence of official returns. It is far, however, from creditable to the country, that we should be obliged, in matters of such importance, to resort to private and irresponsible individuals for the means of coming at the truth. Statistical science in Great Britain is, indeed, at a very low ebb; and we are not of the number of those who suppose that it will ever be materially improved, unless government become more sensible, than it has hitherto shown itself to be, of its importance, and set machinery in motion, adequate to procure correct and comprehensive returns.

The statistical Tables published by the Board of Trade embrace the substance of hundreds of accounts, scattered over a vast mass of Parliamentary papers. They seem to be compiled with great care and judgment, and are a very valuable acquisition. We have frequently been largely indebted to them. But their arrangement, and their constantly increasing number and bulk, make them quite

unfit for being readily or advantageously consulted by practical men. Most part of the returns relating to the principal articles given in this work, go back to a much more distant period than those published by the Board of Trade.

We have seen no reason to modify or alter any PRINCIPLE or COMMERCIAL POLICY advanced in our former edition. In some instances, we have varied the exposition a little, but that is all. In every case, however, we have separated the practical, legal, and historical statements from those of a speculative nature; so that those most disposed to dissent from our theoretical notions will, we hope, be ready to admit that they have not been allowed to detract from the practical utility of the work.

The maps given with the former edition have been partially re-engraved, and otherwise improved. Exclusive of the plans already referred to, the present edition contains two new maps: one, of the completed and proposed canals and railroads of Great Britain and Ireland; exhibiting, also, the coal fields, the position of the different light-houses, &c.: the other map exhibits the mouths of the rivers Mersey and Dee, and the country from Liverpool to Manchester, with the various lines of communication between these two great and flourishing emporiums. Care has been taken to render them accurate.

We are under peculiar obligations to many official, mercantile, and private gentlemen in this and other countries, who have favoured us with communications. We hardly ever applied to any one, however much engaged in business, for any information coming within his department, which he did not readily furnish. We have not met with any mystery, concealment, or affectation of concealment. Every individual seemed disposed to tell us all that he knew; and several gentlemen have taken a degree of trouble with respect to various articles in this work, for which our thanks make but a poor return.

PREFACE

TO

THE FIRST EDITION.

It has been the wish of the Author and Publishers of this Work, that it should be as extensively useful as possible. If they be not deceived in their expectations, it may be advantageously employed, as a sort of *vade mecum*, by merchants, traders, ship-owners, and ship-masters, in conducting the details of their respective businesses. It is hoped, however, that this object has been attained without omitting the consideration of any topic, incident to the subject, that seemed calculated to make the book generally serviceable, and to recommend it to the attention of all classes.

Had our object been merely to consider commerce as a science, or to investigate its principles, we should not have adopted the form of a Dictionary. But commerce is not a science only, but also an *art* of vast practical importance, in the prosecution of which a very large proportion of the population of every civilised country is actively engaged. Hence, to be generally useful, a work on commerce should combine practice, theory, and history. Different readers may resort to it for different purposes; and every one should be able to find in it clear and accurate information, whether his object be to make himself familiar with details, to acquire a knowledge of principles, or to learn the revolutions that have taken place in the various departments of trade.

The following short outline of what this Work contains may enable the reader to estimate the probability of its fulfilling the objects for which it has been intended:—

I. It contains accounts of the various articles which form the subject matter of commercial transactions. To their English names are, for the most part, subjoined their synonymous appellations in French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, &c.; and sometimes, also, in Arabic, Hindoo, Chinese, and other Eastern languages. We have endeavoured, by consulting the best authorities, to make the descriptions of commodities as accurate as possible; and have pointed out the tests or marks by which their goodness may be ascertained. The places where they are produced are also specified; the quantities exported from such places; and the different regulations, duties, &c. affecting their importation and exportation, have been carefully stated, and their influence examined. The prices of most articles have been given, sometimes for a lengthened period. Historical notices are inserted illustrative of the rise and progress of the trade in the most important articles; and it is hoped that the information embodied in these notices will be found to be as authentic as it is interesting.

II. The Work contains a general article on COMMERCE, explanatory of its nature, principles, and objects, and embracing an inquiry into the policy of restrictions intended to promote industry at home, or to advance the public interests by excluding or restraining foreign competition. Exclusive, however, of this general

article, we have separately examined the operation of the existing restrictions on the trade in particular articles, and with particular countries, in the accounts of those articles, and of the great sea-port towns belonging to the countries referred to. There must, of course, be more or less of sameness in the discussion of such points, the principle which runs through them being identical. But in a Dictionary this is of no consequence. The reader seldom consults more than one or two articles at a time; and it is of infinitely more importance to bring the whole subject at once before him, than to seek to avoid the appearance of repetition by referring from one article to another. In this Work such references are made as seldom as possible.

III. The articles which more particularly refer to commercial navigation are **AVERAGE, BILLS OF LADING, BOTTOMRY, CHARTERPARTY, FREIGHT, INSURANCE (MARINE), MASTER, NAVIGATION LAWS, OWNERS, REGISTRY, SALVAOE, SEAMEN, SHIPS, TONNAGE, WRECK, &c.** These articles embrace a pretty full exposition of the law as to shipping: we have particularly endeavoured to exhibit the privileges enjoyed by British ships; the conditions and formalities, the observance of which is necessary to the acquisition and preservation of such privileges, and to the transference of property in ships; the responsibilities incurred by the masters and owners in their capacity of public carriers; and the reciprocal duties and obligations of owners, masters, and seamen. In this department, we have made considerable use of the treatise of Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping,—a work that does honour to the learning and talents of its noble author. The Registry Act and the Navigation Act are given with very little abridgment. To this head may also be referred the articles on the **COD, HERRING, PILCHARD, and WHALE** fisheries.

IV. The principles and practice of commercial arithmetic and accounts are unfolded in the articles **BOOK-KEEPING, DISCOUNT, EXCHANGE, INTEREST AND ANNUITIES, &c.** The article **BOOK-KEEPING** has been furnished by one of the official assignees under the new Bankrupt Act. It exhibits a view of this important art as actually practised in the most extensive mercantile houses in town. The tables for calculating interest and annuities are believed to be more complete than any hitherto given in any work not treating professedly of such subjects.

V. A considerable class of articles may be regarded as descriptive of the various means and devices that have been fallen upon for extending and facilitating commerce and navigation. Of these, taking them in their order, the articles **BANKS, BROKERS, BUOYS, CANALS, CARAVANS, CARRIERS, COINS, COLONIES, COMPANIES, CONSULS, CONVOY, DOCKS, FACTORS, FAIRS AND MARKETS, LIGHT-HOUSES, MONEY, PARTNERSHIP, PILOTAGE, POST-OFFICE, RAIL-ROADS, ROADS, TREATIES (COMMERCIAL), WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, &c.** are among the most important. In the article **BANKS**, the reader will find, besides an exposition of the principles of banking, a pretty full account (derived principally from official sources) of the Bank of England, the private banks of London, and the English provincial banks; the Scotch and Irish banks; and the most celebrated foreign banks: to complete this department, an account of Savings Banks is subjoined, with a set of rules which may be taken as a model for such institutions.* There is added to the article **COINS**, a Table of the assay, weight, and sterling value of the principal foreign gold and silver coins, deduced from assays made at the London and Paris Mints, taken, by permission, from the last edition of Dr. Kelly's *Cambist*. The article **COLONIES** is one of the most extensive in the work: it contains a sketch of the ancient and modern systems of colonisation; an examination of the principles of colonial policy; and a view of the extent, trade, population,

* Some of the improvements made on this article are noticed in the Preface to the Second Edition.

and resources of the colonies of this and other countries. In this article, and in the articles **CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, COLUMBO, HALIFAX, QUEBEC, SYDNEY, and VAN DIEMEN'S LAND**, recent and authentic information is given, which those intending to emigrate will find worth their attention. The map of the British possessions in North America is on a pretty large scale, and is second to none, of those countries, hitherto published in an accessible form. The article **COLONIES** is also illustrated by a map of Central America and the West Indies. An engraved plan is given, along with the article **DOCKS**, of the river Thames and the docks from Blackwall to the Tower; and the latest regulations issued by the different Dock Companies here and in other towns, as to the lloeking of ships, and the charges on that account, and on account of the loading, unloading, warehousing, &c. of goods, are given verbatim. The statements in the articles **LIGHT-HOUSES** and **PILOTAGE** have been mostly furnished by the Trinity House, or derived from papers printed by order of the Admiralty, and may be implicitly relied upon. In the article **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES** the reader will find tables of the equivalents of wine, ale, and Winchester measures, in Imperial measure.

VI. Besides a general article on the constitution, advantages, and disadvantages of Companies, accounts are given of the principal associations existing in Great Britain for the purpose of conducting commercial undertakings, or undertakings subordinate to and connected with commerce. Among others (exclusive of the Banking and Dock Companies already referred to) may be mentioned the **EAST INDIA COMPANY**, the **GAS COMPANIES**, the **INSURANCE COMPANIES**, the **MINING COMPANIES**, the **WATER COMPANIES**, &c. The article on the East India Company is of considerable length; it contains a pretty complete sketch of the rise, progress, and present state of the British trade with India; an estimate of the influence of the Company's monopoly; and a view of the revenue, population, &c. of our Indian dominions. We have endeavoured, in treating of insurance, to supply what we think a desideratum, by giving a distinct and plain statement of its principles, and a brief notice of its history; with an account of the rules and practices followed by individuals and companies in transacting the more important departments of the business; and of the terms on which houses, lives, &c. are commonly insured. The part of the article which peculiarly respects marine insurance has been contributed by a practical gentleman of much knowledge and experience in that branch.

VII. In addition to the notices of the Excise and Customs regulations affecting particular commodities given under their names, the reader will find articles under the heads of **CUSTOMS, EXCISE, IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, LICENCES, SMUGGLING, WAREHOUSING, &c.** which comprise most part of the practical details belonging to the business of the Excise and Customs, particularly the latter. The most important Customs Acts are given with very little abridgment, and being printed in small letter, they occupy comparatively little space. The article **TARIFF** contains an account of the various duties, drawbacks, and bounties, on the importation and exportation of all sorts of commodities into and from this country.— We once intended to give the tariffs of some of the principal Continental states; but, from the frequency of the changes made in them, they would very soon have become obsolete, and would have tended rather to mislead than to instruct. But the reader will notwithstanding find a good deal of information respecting foreign duties under the articles **CADIZ, HAVRE, NAPLES, NEW YORK, TRIESTE, &c.**

VIII. Among the articles of a miscellaneous description, may be specified **ALIENS, APPRENTICE, AUCTIONEER, BALANCE OF TRADE, BANKRUPTCY, CONTRABAND, CREDIT, HANSEATIC LEAGUE, IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, IM-**

PREMISES, IONIAN ISLANDS, MARITIME LAW, PASSENGERS, PATENTS, PAWN-BROKING, PIRACY, POPULATION, PRECIOUS METALS, PRICES, PRIVATEERS, PRUSSIAN OR GERMAN COMMERCIAL UNION, PUBLICANS, QUARANTINE, REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE, SLAVES AND SLAVE TRADE, TALLY TRADE, TRUCK SYSTEM, &c.*

IX. Accounts are given, under their proper heads, of the principal emporiums with which this country has any immediate intercourse; of the commodities usually exported from and imported into them; of their monies, weights, and measures; and of such of their institutions, customs, and regulations, with respect to commerce and navigation, as seemed to deserve notice. There are occasionally subjoined to these accounts of the great sea-ports, pretty full statements of the trade of the countries in which they are situated, as in the instances of ALEXANDRIA, AMSTERDAM, BORDEAUX, BUENOS AYRES, CADIZ, CALCUTTA, CANTON, COPENHAGEN, DANTZIC, GALACZ, GALVESTON, HAVANNAH, HAVRE, LIMA, MONTEVIDEO, NAPLES, NEW YORK, ODESSA, PALERMO, PETERSBURG, RIO DE JANEIRO, SMYRNA, STOCKHOLM, TRIESTE, VALPARAISO, VERA CRUZ, &c.* To have attempted to do this systematically would have increased the size of the Work beyond all reasonable limits, and embarrassed it with details nowise interesting to the English reader. The plan we have adopted has enabled us to treat of such matters as might be supposed to be of importance in England, and to reject the rest. We believe, however, that, notwithstanding this selection, those who compare this work with others, will find that it contains a much larger mass of authentic information respecting the trade and navigation of foreign countries than is to be found in any other English publication.

The reader may be inclined, perhaps, to think that it must be impossible to embrace the discussion of so many subjects in a single octavo volume, without treating a large proportion in a very brief and unsatisfactory manner. But, in point of fact, this single octavo contains about as much letter-press as is contained in two ordinary folio volumes, and more than is contained in Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, in four large volumes quarto, published at 8*l.* 8*s.*! This extraordinary condensation has been effected without any sacrifice of beauty or distinctness. Could we suppose that the substance of the book is at all equal to its form, there would be little room for doubt as to its success.

Aware that, in a work of this nature, accuracy in matters of fact is of primary importance, we have rarely made any statement without mentioning our authority. Except, too, in the case of books in every one's hands, or Dictionaries, the page or chapter of the works referred to is generally specified; experience having taught us that the convenient practice of stringing together a list of authorities at the end of an article is much oftener a cloak for ignorance than an evidence of research.

Our object being to describe articles in the state in which they are offered for sale, we have not entered, except when it was necessary to give precision or clearness to their description, into any details as to the processes followed in their manufacture.

Besides the maps already noticed, the work contains a map of the world, on Mercator's projection, and a map of Central and Southern Europe and the Mediterranean Sea. These maps are on a larger scale than those usually given with works of this sort; and have been carefully corrected, and compared with the best authorities.

Such is a rough outline of what the reader may expect to meet with in this

* Several of these articles have been inserted for the first time in this (the third complete) edition of the work; but we thought it most convenient to enumerate them with the others.

Dictionary. We do not, however, flatter ourselves with the notion that he will consider that all that has been attempted has been properly executed. In a work embracing such an extreme range and diversity of subjects, respecting many of which it is exceedingly difficult, if not quite impossible, to obtain accurate information, no one will be offended should he detect a few errors. At the same time we can affirm that neither labour nor expense has been spared to entitle the Work to the public confidence and patronage. The author has been almost incessantly engaged upon it for upwards of five years; and he may be said to have spent the previous part of his life in preparing for the undertaking. He has derived valuable assistance from some distinguished official gentlemen, and from many eminent merchants; and has endeavoured, wherever it was practicable, to build his conclusions upon official documents. But in very many instances he has been obliged to adopt less authentic data; and he does not suppose that he has had sagacity enough always to resort to the best authorities, or that, amidst conflicting and contradictory statements, he has uniformly selected those most worthy of being relied upon, or that the inferences he has drawn are always such as the real circumstances of the case would warrant. But he has done his best not to be wanting in these respects. Not being engaged in any sort of business, nor being under any description of obligation to any political party, there was nothing to induce us, in any instance, to conceal or pervert the truth. We have, therefore, censured freely and openly whatever we considered wrong; but the grounds of our opinion are uniformly assigned; so that the reader may always judge for himself as to its correctness. Our sole object has been to produce a work that should be generally useful, particularly to merchants and traders, and which should be creditable to ourselves. Whether we have succeeded, the award of the public will show; and to it we submit our labours, not with "frigid indifference," but with an anxious hope that it may be found we have not misemployed our time, and engaged in an undertaking too vast for our limited means.

The following notices of some of the most celebrated Commercial Dictionaries may not, perhaps, be unacceptable. At all events, they will show that there is at least room for the present attempt.

The *Grand Dictionnaire de Commerce*, begun and principally executed by M. Savary, Inspector of Customs at Paris, and completed by his brother, the Abbé Savary, Canon of St. Maur, was published at Paris in 1723, in two volumes folio: a supplemental volume being added in 1730. This was the first work of the kind that appeared in modern Europe; and has furnished the principal part of the materials for most of those by which it has been followed. The undertaking was liberally patronised by the French government, who justly considered that a Commercial Dictionary, if well executed, would be of national importance. Hence a considerable, and, indeed, the most valuable, portion of Savary's work is compiled from Memoirs sent him, by order of government, by the inspectors of manufactures in France, and by the French consuls in foreign countries. An enlarged edition of the *Dictionnaire* was published at Geneva in 1750, in six folio volumes. But the best edition is that of Copenhagen, in five volumes folio; the first of which appeared in 1759, and the last in 1765.

More than the half of this work consists of matter altogether foreign to its proper object. It is, in fact, a sort of Dictionary of Manufactures as well as of Commerce; descriptions being given, which are, necessarily perhaps, in most instances exceedingly incomplete, and which the want of plates often renders unintelligible, of the methods followed in the manufacture of the commodities described. It is also filled with lengthened articles on natural history, the

bye laws and privileges of different corporations, and a variety of subjects nowise connected with commercial pursuits. No one, however, need look into it for any development of sound principles, or for enlarged views. It is valuable as a repertory of facts relating to commerce and manufactures at the commencement of last century, collected with laudable care and industry; but it is pervaded by the spirit of a customs officer, and not of a merchant or a philosopher. "*Souvent dans ses réflexions, il tend plutôt à égarer ses lecteurs qu'à les conduire, et des maximes nuisibles au progrès du commerce et de l'industrie obtiennent presque toujours ses éloges et son approbation.*"

The preceding extract is from the Prospectus, in one volume octavo, published by the Abbé Morellet, in 1769, of a new Commercial Dictionary, to be completed in five or probably six volumes folio. This Prospectus is a work of sterling merit; and from the acknowledged learning and talent of its author, and his capacity for laborious exertion, there can be no doubt that, had the projected Dictionary been completed, it would have been infinitely superior to that of Savary. It appears (Prospectus, pp. 353—373.) that Morellet had been engaged for a number of years in preparations for this great work; and that he had amassed a large collection of books and manuscripts relative to national economy, and the commerce, navigation, colonies, arts, &c. of France and other countries. The enterprise was begun under the auspices of M. Trudaine, Intendant of Finance, and was patronised by Messrs. L'Averdy and Bertin, Comptrollers General. But whether it were owing to the gigantic nature of the undertaking, to the author having become too much engrossed with other pursuits, the want of sufficient encouragement, or some other cause, no part of the proposed Dictionary ever appeared. We are ignorant of the fate of the valuable collection of manuscripts made by the Abbé Morellet. His books were sold at Paris within these few years.

A Commercial Dictionary, in three volumes 4to, forming part of the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, was published at Paris in 1783. It is very unequally executed, and contains numerous articles that might have been advantageously left out. The editors acknowledge in their Preface that they have, in most instances, been obliged to borrow from Savary. The best parts of the work are copied from the edition of the *Traité Général du Commerce* of Ricard, published at Amsterdam in 1781, in two volumes 4to.*

The earliest Commercial Dictionary published in England was compiled by Malachy Postlethwayt, Esq., a diligent and indefatigable writer. The first part of the first edition appeared in 1751. The last edition, in two enormous folio volumes, was published in 1774. It is chargeable with the same defects as that of Savary, of which, indeed, it is for the most part a literal translation. The author has made no effort to condense or combine the statements under different articles, which are frequently not a little contradictory; at the same time that many of them are totally unconnected with commerce.

In 1761, Richard Rolt, Esq. published a Commercial Dictionary in one pretty large folio volume. The best part of this work is its Preface, which was contributed by Dr. Johnson. It is for the most part abridged from Postlethwayt; but it contains some useful articles pilloined from other works, mixed, however, with many alien to the subject.

In 1766, a Commercial Dictionary was published, in two rather thin folio volumes, by Thomas Mortimer, Esq., at that time Vice-Consul for the Netherlands. This is a more commodious and better arranged, but not a more valuable work than that of Postlethwayt. The plan of the author embraces, like that of his predecessors, too great a variety of objects; more than half the work being

* This, when published, must have been a very valuable work. It is now, however, in a great measure obsolete.

filled with geographical articles, and articles describing the processes carried on in different departments of manufacturing industry; there are also articles on very many subjects, such as architecture, the natural history of the ocean, the land-tax, the qualifications of surgeons, &c., the relation of which to commerce, navigation, or manufactures, it seems difficult to discover.

In 1810, a Commercial Dictionary was published, in one thick octavo volume, purporting to be by Mr. Mortimer. We understand, however, that he had but little, if any thing, to do with its compilation. It is quite unworthy of the subject, and of the epoch when it appeared. It has all the faults of those by which it was preceded, with but few peculiar merits. Being not only a Dictionary of Commerce and Navigation, but of Manufactures, it contains accounts of the different Arts: but to describe these in a satisfactory and really useful manner, would require several volumes, and the co-operation of many individuals: so that, while the accounts referred to are worth very little, they occupy so large a space that room has not been left for the proper discussion of those subjects from which alone the work derives whatever value it possesses. Thus, there is an article of twenty-two pages technically describing the various processes of the art of painting, while the general article on commerce is comprised in less than *two* pages. The articles on coin and money do not together occupy four pages, being considerably less than the space allotted to the articles on engraving and etching. There is not a word said as to the circumstances which determine the course of exchange; and the important subject of credit is disposed of in less than *two lines*! Perhaps, however, the greatest defect in the work is its total want of any thing like science. No attempt is ever made to explain the principles on which any operation depends. Every thing is treated as if it were empirical and arbitrary. Except in the legal articles, no authorities are quoted; so that very little dependence can be placed on the statements advanced.

In another Commercial Dictionary, republished within these few years, the general article on commerce consists of a discussion with respect to simple and compound demand, and simple and double competition: luckily the article does not fill quite a page; being considerably shorter than the description of the kaleidoscope.

Under these circumstances, we do think that there is room for a new Dictionary of Commerce and Commercial Navigation: and whatever may be thought of our Work, it cannot be said that in bringing it into the field we are encroaching on ground already fully occupied.

MR. M^cCULLOCH'S PUBLICATIONS.

Besides this Dictionary, Mr. M^cCULLOCH has published the following Works, viz. : —

1. A DICTIONARY, GEOGRAPHICAL, STATISTICAL, AND HISTORICAL, of the various Countries, Places, and principal Natural Objects in the World. Third and improved Edition. 2 thick vols. 8vo. Illustrated with Maps. London, 1849.
2. A DESCRIPTIVE AND STATISTICAL ACCOUNT of the BRITISH EMPIRE, exhibiting its Extent, Physical Capacities, Population, Industry, and Civil and Religious Institutions. Third, and greatly improved Edition, 2 thick vols. 8vo. London, 1847.
3. SMITH'S WEALTH OF NATIONS; with 1. Life of the Author, Notes, and Supplemental Dissertations, handsomely printed in 1 vol. 8vo., double columns, with Two Portraits. The Fourth and much improved Edition Edinburgh, 1850.
4. THE PRINCIPLES OF POLITICAL ECONOMY; with some Inquiries respecting their Application, and a Sketch of the Rise and Progress of the Science. Fourth and amended Edition. 1 vol. 8vo. Edinburgh, 1849.
5. A TREATISE ON THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICAL INFLUENCE OF TAXATION and the FUNDING SYSTEM. 1 vol. 8vo. London, 1845.
6. THE LITERATURE OF POLITICAL ECONOMY: a Classified Catalogue of Select Publications in the different Departments of that Science, with Historical, Critical, and Biographical Notices. 1 vol. 8vo. London, 1845.
7. A TREATISE ON THE SUCCESSION TO PROPERTY VACANT BY DEATH: including Inquiries into the Influence of Primogeniture, Entails, Compulsory Partition, Foundations, &c., over the Public Interests. 1 vol. 8vo. London, 1848.



CENTRAL & SOUTHERN

EUROPE

WITH THE

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

English Miles.



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Longitude East 5 from Greenwich

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МЕДИТЕРРАНЕАНИ ЗЕМ

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СЕМЛЈАТИ ЗОДНИ

A
DICTIONARY
OF
C O M M E R C E
AND
COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

AAM, AUM, or AHM, a measure for liquids, used at Amsterdam, Antwerp, Hamburg, Frankfort, &c. At Amsterdam it is nearly equal to 41 English wine gallons, at Antwerp to 36½ ditto, at Hamburg to 38½ ditto, and at Frankfort to 39 ditto.

ABANDONMENT, in commerce and navigation, is used to express the abandoning or surrendering of the ship or goods insured to the insurer.

It is held, by the law of England, that the insured has the right to abandon, and to compel the insurers to pay the whole value of the thing insured, in every case "where, by the happening of any of the misfortunes or perils insured against, the voyage is lost, or not worth pursuing, and the projected adventure is frustrated; or where the thing insured is so damaged and spoiled as to be of little or no value to the owner; or where the salvage is very high; or where what is saved is of less value than the freight; or where further expense is necessary, and the insurer will not undertake to pay that expense," &c. — (*Marshall*, book i. cap. 13. § 1.)

Abandonment very frequently takes place in cases of capture: the loss is then total, and no question can arise in respect to it. In cases, however, in which a ship and cargo are recaptured *within such a time that the object of the voyage is not lost*, the insured is not entitled to abandon. The mere *stranding* of a ship is not deemed of itself such a loss as will justify an abandonment. If by some fortunate accident, by the exertions of the crew, or by any borrowed assistance, the ship be got off and rendered capable of continuing her voyage, it is not a total loss, and the insurers are only liable for the expenses occasioned by the stranding. It is only where the stranding is followed by *shipwreck*, or in any other way renders the ship incapable of prosecuting her voyage, that the insured can abandon.

It has been decided, that damage sustained in a voyage to the extent of forty-eight per cent. of the value of the ship did not entitle the insured to abandon. If a cargo be damaged in the course of a voyage, and it appears that what has been saved is less than the amount of freight, it is held to be a total loss. — (*Park on Insurance*, cap. 9.)

When by the occurrence of any of the perils insured against the insured has acquired a right to abandon, he is at liberty either to abandon or not, as he thinks proper. He is in no case bound to abandon; but if he make an election, and resolve to abandon, he must abide by his resolution, and has no longer the power to claim for a partial loss. In some foreign countries specific periods are fixed by law within which the insured, after being informed of the loss, must elect either to abandon or not. In this country, however, no particular period is fixed for this purpose; but the rule is, that if the insured determine to abandon, he must intimate such determination to the insurers within a *reasonable period* after he has got intelligence of the loss, — any unnecessary delay in making this intimation being interpreted to mean that he has decided not to abandon.

No particular form or solemnity is required in giving notice of an abandonment. It may be given either to the underwriter himself, or the agent who subscribed for him.

The effect of an abandonment is to vest all the rights of the insured in the insurers. The latter become the legal owners of the ship, and as such are liable for all her future outgoings, and entitled to her future earnings. An abandonment, when once made, is irrevocable.

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In case of a shipwreck or other misfortune, the captain and crew are bound to exert themselves to the utmost to save as much property as possible; and to enable them to do this without prejudice to the right of abandonment, our policies provide that, "in case of any loss or misfortune, the insured, their factors, servants, and assigns, shall be at liberty to sue and labour about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the goods, and merchandises, and ship, &c., without prejudice to the insurance, to the charges whereof the insurers agree to contribute, each according to the rate and quantity of his subscription."

"From the nature of his situation," says Mr. Serjeant Marshall, "the captain has an implied authority, not only from the insured, but also from the insurers and all others interested in the ship or cargo, in case of misfortune, to do whatever he thinks most conducive to the general interest of all concerned, and they are all bound by his acts. Therefore, if the ship be disabled by stress of weather, or any other peril of the sea, the captain may hire another vessel for the transport of the goods to their port of destination, if he think it for the interest of all concerned that he should do so; or he may, upon a capture, appeal against a sentence of condemnation, or carry on any other proceedings for the recovery of the ship and cargo, provided he has a probable ground for doing so; or he may, upon the loss of the ship, invest the produce of the goods saved in other goods, which he may ship for his original port of destination; or for whatever is recovered of the effects insured, the captain is accountable to the insurers. If the insured neglect to abandon when he has it in his power to do so, he adopts the acts of the captain, and he is bound by them. If, on the other hand, the insurers, after notice of abandonment, suffer the captain to continue in the management, he becomes their agent, and they are bound by his acts."

As to the sailors, when a misfortune happens, they are bound to save and preserve the merchandise to the best of their power, and while they are so employed they are entitled to wages, so far, at least, as what is saved will allow; but if they refuse to assist in this, they shall have neither wages nor reward. In this the Rhodian law, and the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse Towns, agree.

The policy of the practice of abandonment seems very questionable. The object of an insurance is to render the insurer liable for whatever loss or damage may be incurred. But this object does not seem to be promoted by compelling him to pay as for a total loss, when, in fact, the loss is only partial. The captain and crew of the ship are selected by the owners, are their servants, and are responsible to them for their proceedings. But in the event of a ship being stranded, and so damaged that the owners are entitled to abandon, the captain and crew become the servants of the underwriters, who had nothing to do with their appointment, and to whom they are most probably altogether unknown. It is admitted that a regulation of this sort can hardly fail of leading, and has indeed frequently led, to very great abuses. We, therefore, are inclined to think that abandonment ought not to be allowed where any property is known to exist; but that such property should continue at the disposal of the owners and their agents, and that the underwriters should be liable only for the damage really incurred. The first case that came before the British courts with respect to abandonment was decided by Lord Hardwicke, in 1744. Mr. Justice Buller appears to have concurred in the opinion now stated, that abandonment should not have been allowed in cases where the loss is not total.

For further information as to this subject, see the excellent works of Mr. Serjeant Marshall (book i. cap. 13.), and of Mr. Justice Park (cap. 9.) on the Law of Insurance.

ABATEMENT, or REBATE, is the name sometimes given to a discount allowed for prompt payment; it is also sometimes used to express the deduction that is occasionally made at the custom-house from the duties chargeable upon such goods as are damaged, and for loss in warehouses. This allowance is regulated by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 32. No abatement is made from the duties charged on coffee, currants, figs, guineas-grains, lemons, opium, oranges, raisins, pepper, tobacco, and wine.

ACACIA. See **GUM ARABIC.**

ACAPULCO, a celebrated sea-port on the western coast of Mexico, in lat. 16° 50' 29" N., long. 99° 46' W. Pop. 4,000 (?). "It is," says Captain Hall, "the very best ideal of a harbour. It is easy of access; very capacious; the water not too deep; the holding ground good; quite free from hidden dangers; and as secure as the basin in the centre of Portsmouth dockyard."—(*South America*, ii. 172.) Previously to the emancipation of Spanish America, a galleon or large ship, richly laden, was annually sent from Acapulco to Manilla, in the Philippine Islands, and at her return a fair was held, which was much resorted to by strangers. But this sort of intercourse is no longer carried on, the trade to Manilla and all other places being now conducted by private individuals. The exports consist of bullion, cobineal, cocoa, wool, indigo, &c. The

* This is not quite accurate. There is one shoal on which a vessel was lost in 1781; but being laid down in the charts it is easily avoided.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, iv. 50.)

imports principally consist of cotton goods, hardware, articles of jewellery, raw and wrought silks, spices, and aromatics. Acapulco is extremely unhealthy; and though it be the principal port on the west coast of Mexico, its commerce is but inconsiderable. The navigation from Acapulco to Guayaquil and Callao is exceedingly tedious and difficult, so that there is but little intercourse between Mexico and Peru. The monies, weights, and measures are the same as those of Spain; for which see Cantz.

ACIDS, are a class of compounds which are distinguished from all others by the following properties. They are generally possessed of a very sharp and sour taste; reddens the infusions of blue vegetable colours; are often highly corrosive, and enter into combination with the alkalies, earths, and metallic oxides; forming compounds in which the characters of the constituents are entirely destroyed, and new ones produced differing in every respect from those previously existing. The quality or strength of an acid is generally ascertained either by its specific gravity, which is found by means of the hydrometer, if the acid be liquid, or by the quantity of pure and dry subcarbonate of potash or soda, or of carbonate of lime (marble), which a given weight of the acid requires for its exact neutralisation. This latter process is termed *Acidimetry*, or the ascertaining the quantity of *real acid* existing in any of the liquid or crystallised acids.

The principal acids at present known are, the Acetic, Benzoic, Boracic, Bromic, Carbonic, Citric, Chloric, Cyanic, Fluoric, Ferropurassic, Gallic, Hydrobromic, Hydriodic, Iodic, Lactic, Malic, Margarinic, Meconic, Muriotic or Hydrochloric, Nitrous, Nitric, Oleic, Oxalic, Phosphoric, Prussic or Hydrocyanic, Purpuric, Saccolactic, Suberlic, Sulphurous, Sulphuric, Tartaric, Uric, and many others which it would be superfluous to detail. It is the most important only of these, however, that will be here treated of, and more particularly those employed in the arts and manufactures.

Acetic or pyroligneous acid.—This acid, in its pure and concentrated form, is obtained from the fluid matter which passes over in distillation, when wood is exposed to heat in close iron cylinders. This fluid is a mixture of acetic acid, tar, and a very volatile ether; from these the acid may be separated, after a second distillation, by saturating with chalk, and evaporating to dryness; an acetate of lime is thus procured, which, by mixture with sulphate of soda (Glauber's salt), is decomposed, the resulting compounds being an insoluble sulphate of lime, and a very soluble acetate of soda; these are easily separated from each other by solution in water and filtration; the acetate of soda being obtained in the crystalline form by evaporation. From this, or the acetate of lime, some manufacturers employing the former, others the latter, the acetic acid is obtained by distillation with sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol), as thus procured. It is a colourless, volatile fluid, having a very pungent and refreshing odour, and a strong acid taste; its strength should be ascertained by the quantity of marble required for its neutralisation, as its specific gravity does not give a correct indication. It is employed in the preparation of the acetate of lead (sugar of lead), in many of the pharmaceutical compounds, and also as an antiseptic.

Vinegar is an impure and weakly diluted acetic acid, obtained by exposing either weak wines or infusions of malt to the air and a slow fermentation; it contains, besides the pure acid, a large quantity of colouring matter, some muckage, and a little spirit; from these it is readily separated by distillation. The impurities with which this distilled vinegar is sometimes adulterated, or with which it is accidentally contaminated, are oil of vitriol, added to increase the acidity, and oxides of tin or copper, arising from the vinegar having been distilled through tin or copper worms. These may be easily detected; the oil of vitriol by the addition of a little solution of muriate of barytes to the distilled vinegar, which, should the acid be present, will cause a dense white precipitate; and the oxides of tin or copper by the addition of water impregnated with sulphureted hydrogen. Vinegar is employed in many culinary and domestic operations, and also very largely in the manufacture of the carbonate of lead (white lead).

Benzoic acid—exists naturally, formed in the gum benzoïn, and may be procured either by submitting the benzoïn to repeated sublimations, or by digesting it with lime and water, straining off the clear solution, and adding muriatic acid, which enters into combination with the lime, and the benzoic acid, being nearly insoluble in water, falls as a white powder; this may be further purified by a sublimation. Benzoic acid is of a beautiful pearly white colour when pure, has a very peculiar aromatic odour, and an acrid, acid, and bitter taste; it is used in making pastilles and perfumed incense. This acid also occurs in the balsams of Tolu and Peru, and in the urine of the horse and cow.

Boracic acid—is found in an uncombined state in many of the hot springs of Tuscany, as also at Sasso in the Florentine territory, from whence it has received the name of Sassoïin. In Thibet, Peral, and South America, it occurs in combination with soda, and is imported from the former place into this country in a crystalline form, under the name of Tincal. These crystals are coated with a rancid, fatty substance, and require to be purified by repeated solutions and crystallisations, after which it is sold under the appellation of borax (bi-borate of soda); from a hot solution of this salt the boracic acid is readily obtained, by the addition of sulphuric acid in slight excess; sulphate of soda is formed, and the boracic acid crystallises as the solution cools. When pure, these crystals are white, and have an unctuous greasy feel; they are soluble in alcohol, communicating a green tinge to its flame; when fused it forms a transparent glass, and has been found by Mr. Faraday to unite with the oxide of lead, producing a very uniform glass, free from all defects, and well adapted for the purpose of telescopes and other astronomical instruments. Borax is much employed in the arts, particularly in metallurgical operations as a flux; also in enamelling, and in pharmacy. (See BORAX.)

Carbonic acid—This acid occurs very abundantly in nature, combined with lime, magnesia, barytes, acrid acid, fixed air, mephitic acid; from any of these it is easily separated by the addition of nearly any of the other acids. In its uncombined form it is a transparent, gaseous fluid, having a density of 1.53, atmospheric air being unity; it is absorbed to a considerable extent by water, and when the water is rendered slightly alkaline by the addition of carbonate of soda, and a large quantity of gas forced into it by pressure, it forms the well-known refreshing beverage soda water. This gas is also formed in very large quantities during combustion, respiration, and fermentation. Carbonic acid gas is destructive of animal life and combustion, and from its great weight accumulates in the bottoms of deep wells, cellars, caves, &c., which have been closed for a long period, and numerous fatal accidents arise frequently to persons entering such places incautiously; the precaution should always be taken of introducing a lighted candle prior to the ascent, or entrance of any one; for should the candle be extinguished, it would be dangerous to enter until properly ventilated. The combinations of carbonic acid with the alkalies, earths, and metallic oxides are termed carbonates.

Citric acid—exists in a free state in the juice of the lemon, lime, and other fruits, combined, however with muckage, and sometimes a little sugar, which renders it, if required to be preserved for a long period, very liable to ferment; on this account the crystallised citric acid is to be preferred. It is pre-

pared by saturating the lemon juice with chalk: the citric acid combines with the lime, forming an insoluble compound, while the carbonic acid is liberated; the insoluble citrate, after being well washed, is to be acted upon by dilute sulphuric acid, which forms sulphate of lime, and the citric acid enters into solution in the water; by filtration and evaporation the citric acid is obtained in colourless transparent crystals. The chief use to which it is applied is as a preservative of sea scurvy, and in making refreshing acidulous or effervescent drinks; for which latter purposes it is peculiarly fitted from its very pleasant flavour.

Fluoric acid—is found in the well-known mineral fluor spar in combination with lime; from which it is procured in the liquid form by distillation with dilute sulphuric acid in a leaden or silver retort; the receiver should be the same material as the retort, and kept cool by ice or snow. This acid is gaseous in its pure form, highly corrosive, and intensely acrid; it is rapidly absorbed by water, communicating its properties to that fluid. Its chief use is for etching on glass, which it corrodes with great rapidity. For this purpose a thin coating of wax is to be melted on the surface of the glass, and the sketch drawn by a fine hard-pointed instrument through the wax; the liquid acid is then poured on it, and after a short time, on the removal of the acid and coating, an etching will be found in the substance of the glass. A very excellent application of this property, possessed by fluoric acid, is in the roughing the shades for table lamps. All the metals, except silver, lead, and platinum, are acted upon by this acid.

Galic acid.—The source from which this acid is generally obtained is the nut gall, a hard protuberance produced on the oak by the puncture of insects. The most simple method of procuring the acid in its pure form is to submit the galls in fine powder to sublimation in a retort, taking care that the heat be applied slowly and with caution; the other processes require a very long period for their completion. When pure, gallic acid has a white and silky appearance, and a highly astringent and slightly acid taste. The nut galls, which owe their properties to the gallic acid they contain, are employed very extensively in the arts, for dyeing and staining silks, cloths, and woods of a black colour; this is owing to its forming with the oxide of iron a black precipitate. Writing ink is made on the same principle, a very excellent receipt of the late Dr. Black's is, to take 3 oz. of the best Aleppo galls in fine powder, 1 oz. sulphate of iron (green vitriol), 1 oz. logwood finely rasped, 1 oz. gum arabic, one pint of the best vinegar, one pint of soft water, and 8 or 10 cloves; in this case the black precipitate is kept suspended by the gum.

Hydriodic acid,—a compound of iodine and hydrogen,—in its separate form is of very little importance in the arts; its combinations with potash, soda, and other of the metallic oxides, will be treated of hereafter.

Malic acid—exists in the juices of many fruits, particularly the apple, as also in the berries of the service and mountain ash.

Meconic acid—is found in opium, in combination with morphia, forming the meconate of morphia, on which the action of opium principally depends.

Muriatic acid, or spiritus of acids.—This acid (the hydrochloric of the French chemists) is manufactured from the chloride of sodium (dry sea salt), by the action of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol). The most economical proportions are 20 pounds of fused salt, and 20 pounds of oil of vitriol previously mixed with an equal weight of water; these are placed in an iron or earthen pot, to which an earthen head and receiver are adapted, and submitted to distillation; the muriatic acid passes over in the vaporous form, and may be easily condensed. The liquid acid thus obtained should have a specific gravity of 1.17, water being equal to 100; it has a strong acid taste, and a slight yellow colour; this is owing to a small quantity of oxide of iron. By redistillation in a glass retort at a low temperature, it may be obtained perfectly pure and colourless. It sometimes contains a little sulphuric acid; this is detected by a solution of muriate of barytes. Muriatic acid, in its uncombined state, is an invisible elastic gas, having a very strong affinity for water; that fluid absorbing, at a temperature of 40° Fahrenheit, 400 times its volume, and the resulting liquid acid has a density of 1.2. So great is this action that water, when the gas is liberated into the air, it combines with the moisture always present in that medium, forming dense white vapours. Its combinations with the alkalies, &c., are termed muriates; those of the greatest importance are the muriates of tin, ammonia, barytes, and sea salt. The test for the presence of muriatic acid in any liquid is the nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), which causes a curdy white precipitate.

Nitric acid, or aquafortis.—This, which is one of the most useful acids with which the chemist is acquainted, is prepared by acting upon saltpetre (nitric or nitrate of potash) with oil of vitriol: the proportion best suited for this purpose are three parts by weight of nitre and two of oil of vitriol; or 100 nitre, and 60 oil of vitriol previously diluted with 20 of water; either of these proportions will produce a very excellent acid. When submitted to distillation, which should be conducted in earthen or glass vessels, the nitric acid passes over in the form of vapour, and a bisulphate of potash (sal mirum) remains in the retort.

Nitric acid of commerce has usually a dark orange-red colour, giving off copious fumes, and having a specific gravity of 150, water being 100. It is strongly acid and highly corrosive. It may be obtained perfectly colourless by a second distillation, rejecting the first portion that passes over. It is much employed in the arts, for etching on copper-plates for engraving; also, for the separation of silver from gold, in the process of quartation. In pharmacy and surgery it is extensively used, and is employed for destroying contagious effluvia. Combined with muriatic acid, it forms aqua regia (nitro-muriatic acid), used as a solvent for gold, platinum, &c. This acid is frequently contaminated with the muriatic and sulphuric acids; these may be detected by the following methods.—A portion of the suspected acid should be diluted with three or four times its volume of distilled water, and divided into two glasses; to one of which nitrate of silver (lunar caustic in solution) is to be added, and to the other nitrate of barytes: if muriatic acid be present, a white curdy precipitate will be thrown down by the former; and if sulphuric, a white granular precipitate by the latter.

Oxalic acid—occurs in combination with potash as bisulphate of potash in the different varieties of sorrel, from whence the most esteemed salt of potash has been derived. This acid is usually prepared by the action of nitric acid upon sugar, evaporating the solution, after the action has ceased, to the consistence of a syrup, and redissolving and recrystallising the crystals which are thus procured.

It is sold in small white acicular crystals, of a strongly acid taste and highly poisonous, and sometimes in its external appearance bears a strong similarity to Epsom salts (sulphate of magnesia), which it has been unfortunately frequently mistaken for. It is instantly distinguished from Epsom salts by placing a small crystal upon the tongue; when its strong acid taste, compared with the nauseous bitter of the sulphate of magnesia, will be quite a sufficient criterion. In cases of poisoning, however, by this acid, lime or chalk, mixed with water to form a cream, should be immediately administered, the combination of oxalic acid with these substances being perfectly inert. It is employed in removing ink-stains, iron-rusts, &c. from linen and leather; the best proportions for these purposes are 1 oz. of the acid to a pint of water. The most delicate test of the presence of oxalic acid is a salt of lime or lime-water, with either of which it forms a white precipitate, insoluble in water, but soluble in acids. Its combinations are termed oxalates.

Phosphoric acid—is of very little importance in a commercial point of view, except as forming with lime the earth of bones (phosphate of lime). It is prepared by heating bones to whiteness in a furnace; from this phosphoric acid is obtained by the action of sulphuric acid, still combined, however, with a small quantity of lime. The action of nitric acid upon phosphorus, the latter being added gradually and in small pieces, yields this acid in a state of purity; its combinations are termed phosphates.

Prussic acid, or hydrocyanic acid.—This acid, which is the most virulent and poisonous acid known, is contained in peach blossoms, bay leaves, and many other vegetable productions, which owe their peculiar

odour to the presence of prussic acid. For the purposes of medicine and chemistry, this acid is prepared either by distilling one part of the cyanuret of mercury, one part of muriatic acid of specific gravity 1.18, and six parts of water, six parts of prussic acid being collected; or, by dissolving a certain weight of cyanuret of mercury, and passing a current of sulphureted hydrogen through the solution, until the whole of the mercury shall be precipitated; if an excess of sulphureted hydrogen should be present, a little carbonate of lead (white lead) will remove it; on filtering, a colourless prussic acid will be obtained. By the first process, which is the one followed at Apothecaries' Hall, the acid has a density 995, water being equal to 1000; by the latter, it may be procured of any required strength, depending on the quantity of cyanuret of mercury dissolved. The best test for the presence of this acid is, first to add a small quantity of the protosulphate of iron (solution of green vitriol), then a little solution of potassa, and lastly diluted sulphuric acid; if prussic acid be present, prussian blue will be formed. Its combinations are called prussiates or hydrocyanates; when in its concentrated form, it is so rapid in its effects that large animals have been killed in the short space of 80 seconds, or from a minute to a minute and a half.

Sulphurous acid—is formed whenever sulphur is burnt in atmospheric air; it is a suffocating and pungent gas, strongly acid, bleaches vegetable colours with great rapidity, and arrests the process of vinous fermentation. For these purposes it is therefore very much employed, especially in bleaching woollen goods and straws. Fermentation may be immediately arrested by burning a small quantity of sulphur in casks, and then racking off the wine while still fermenting into them; this frequently gives the wine a very unpleasant taste of sulphur, which is avoided by the use of sulphate of potass, made by impregnating a solution of potass with sulphurous acid gas.

Sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol—called oil of vitriol from its having been formerly manufactured from green vitriol (sulphate of iron). In some parts of the Continent this process is still followed. The method generally adopted in this country is to introduce nine parts of sulphur, intimately mixed with one part of nitre, in a state of acety combustion, into large leaden chambers, the bottoms of which are covered with a stratum of water. Sulphurous and nitrous acid gases are generated, which entering into combination form a white crystalline solid, which falls to the bottom of the chamber; the instant that the water comes in contact with it, this solid is decomposed with a hissing noise and effervescence, sulphuric acid combines with the water, and nitrous gas is liberated, which combining with oxygen from the air of the chamber is converted into nitrous gas, and again combines with sulphurous acid gas, and again falls to the bottom of the chamber; this process continues as long as the combustion of the sulphur is kept up, or as long as atmospheric air remains in the chamber; the nitrous acid merely serving as a means for the transference of oxygen from the atmosphere to the sulphurous acid to convert it into sulphuric acid. The water is removed from the chamber when of a certain strength, and replaced by fresh. These acid waters are then evaporated in leaden boilers, and finally concentrated in glass or platine vessels. As this manufactured sulphuric acid is a dense oily fluid, colourless, intensely acid, and highly corrosive, and has a specific gravity of 1.846, water being equal to 1,000. This acid is the most important with which we are acquainted; it is employed in the manufacture of the nitric, muriatic, acetic, phosphoric, citric, tartaric, and many other acids; also in the preparation of chlorine, for the manufacture of the bleaching powder (oxy-muriate of lime or chloride of lime), for the preparation of sulphate of mercury, in the manufacture of calomel and corrosive sublimate, and in innumerable other chemical manufactures. In the practice of physic it is also very much employed. It usually contains a little oxide of lead, which is readily detected by diluting the acid with about four times its volume of water, and allowing the sulphate of lead to subside. Its combinations are denominated sulphates. The fuming sulphuric acid, as manufactured at Norwihusen, contains only one half the quantity of water in its composition.

Tartaric acid.—This acid is procured from the cream of tartar (bitartrate of potass), obtained by purifying the crust which separates during the fermentation of wines by solution and crystallization. When this purified bitartrate is dissolved, and lime or carbonate of lime added, an insoluble tartrate of lime falls, which after washing should be acted upon by sulphuric acid; sulphate of lime is thus formed, and the tartaric acid enters into solution, and may be obtained by evaporation and crystallisation. It is employed very much in the arts, in calico-printing, also in making effervescent draughts and powders in pharmacy.

Uvic acid—is an animal acid of very little importance, except in a scientific point of view; it exists in the excrement of serpents, to the amount of 95 per cent., and forms the basis of many of the urinary calculi and gravel.

N. B. This article, and that on alkalis, has been furnished by an able practical chemist.

ACORNS (Ger. *Eicheln*, *Eckern*; Fr. *Glandes*; It. *Ghiande*; Sp. *Bellotas*; Rus. *ledudii*; Lat. *Glandes*), the seed or fruit of the oak. Acorns formed a part of the food of man in early ages, and frequent allusion is made in the classics to this circumstance (*Virgil*, *Georg.* lib. i. lin. 8.; *Ovid*, *Met.* lib. i. lin. 106, &c.). In some countries they are still used, in periods of scarcity, as a substitute for bread. With us they are now rarely used except for fattening hogs and poultry. They are said to make, when toasted, with the addition of a little fresh butter, one of the best substitutes for coffee. Their taste is astringent and bitter.

ACRE, a measure of land. The Imperial or standard English acre contains 4 roods, each rood 40 poles or perches, each pole 272 square feet; and consequently each acre = 43,560 square feet. Previously to the introduction of the new system of weights and measures by the act 5 Geo. 4. cap 74., the acres in use in different parts of England varied considerably from each other and from the standard acre; but these customary measures are now abolished. The Scotch acre contains four roods, each rood 40 fells, and each fall 36 ells; the ell being equal to 37.06 Imperial inches. Hence the Imperial is to the Scotch acre nearly as 1 to 1½, one Scotch acre being equal to 1.261 Imperial acres. The Irish acre is equal to 1 acre, 2 roods, and 19½ poles; 30½ Irish being equal to 49 Imperial acres. (See WEIGHTS and MEASURES.)

ADJUSTMENT, in commercial navigation, the settlement of a loss incurred by the insured.

In the case of a total loss, if the policy be an *open one*, the insurer is obliged to pay the goods according to their *prime cost*; that is, the invoice price, and all duties and expenses incurred till they are put on board, including the premium of insurance. Whether they might have arrived at a good or a bad market, is held by the law of England to be immaterial. The insurer is supposed to have insured a constant and not a variable sum; and in the event of a loss occurring, the insured is merely to be put into the same situation in which he stood before the transaction began. If the policy be a *valued one*, the practice is to adopt the valuation fixed in it in case of a total loss, unless the insurers can show that the insured had a colourable interest only, or that the goods were greatly over-valued. In the case of all partial losses, the value of the goods must be proved.

"The nature of the contract between the insured and insurer is," says Mr. Justice Park, "that the goods shall come safe to the port of delivery; or, if they do not, that the insurer will indemnify the owner to the amount of the value of the goods stated in the policy. Wherever then the property insured is lessened in value by damage received at sea, justice is done by putting the merchant in the same condition (relation being had to the prime cost or value in the policy) in which he would have been had the goods arrived free from damage; that is, by paying him such proportion of the prime cost or value in the policy as corresponds with the proportion of the diminution in value occasioned by the damage. The question then is, how is the proportion of the damage to be ascertained? It certainly cannot be by any measure taken from the prime cost; but it may be done in this way:—Where any thing, as a hoghead of sugar, happens to be spoiled, if you can fix whether it be a third, a fourth, or a fifth worse, then the damage is ascertained to a mathematical certainty. How is this to be found out? Not by any price at the port of shipment, but it must be at the port of delivery, when the voyage is completed and the whole damage known. Whether the price at the latter be high or low, it is the same thing; for in either case it equally shows whether the damaged goods are a third, a fourth, or a fifth worse than if they had come sound; consequently, whether the injury sustained be a third, fourth, or fifth of the value of the thing. And as the insurer pays the whole prime cost if the thing be wholly lost, so if it be only a third, fourth, or fifth worse, he pays a third, fourth, or fifth, not of the value for which it is sold, but of the value stated in the policy. And when no valuation is stated in the policy, the invoice of the cost, with the addition of all charge, and the premium of insurance, shall be the foundation upon which the loss shall be computed."

Thus, suppose a policy to be effected on goods, the prime cost of which, all expenses included, amounts to 1,000*l.*; and suppose further, that these goods would, had they safely reached the port of delivery, have brought 1,200*l.*; but that, owing to damage they have met with in the voyage, they only fetch 800*l.*; in this case it is plain, inasmuch as goods that would otherwise have been worth 1,200*l.* are only worth 800*l.*, that they have been deteriorated *one third*; and hence it follows, conformably to what has been stated above, that the insurer must pay one third of their *prime cost* (1,000*l.*), or 333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to the insured.

In estimating the value of goods at the port of delivery, the *gross* and not the *net* proceeds of the sales are to be taken as the standard.

A ship is valued at the sum she is worth at the time she sails on the voyage insured, including the expenses of repairs, the value of her furniture, provisions, and stores, the money advanced to the sailors, and, in general, every expense of the outfit, to which is added the premium of insurance.

When an adjustment is made, it is usual for the insurer to indorse upon the policy "adjusted this loss at (so much) per cent.," payable in a given time, generally a month, and to sign it with the initials of his name. This is considered as a note of hand, and as such is *prima facie* evidence of the debt not to be shaken, but by proving a fault, or of some misapprehension, or that there was some misconception of the law or the fact upon which it was made. See, for a further discussion of this subject, the article *MARINA INSURANCE, Park on the Law of Insurance* (cap. 6.), and *Marshall* (book 1. cap. 14.).

ADMEASUREMENT. See **TONNAGE.**

ADVANCE, implies money paid before goods are delivered, or upon consignment. It is usual with merchants to advance from a half to two thirds of the value of goods consigned to them, on being required, on their receiving invoice, bill of lading, orders to insure them from sea risk, &c.

ADVERTISEMENT, in its general sense, is any information as to any fact or circumstance that has occurred, or is expected to occur; but, in a commercial sense, it is understood to relate only to specific intimations with respect to the sale of articles, the formation and dissolution of partnerships, bankruptcies, meetings of creditors, &c.

Previously to 1833 a duty of 3*s.* 6*d.* was charged upon every advertisement, long or short, inserted in the Gazette, or in any newspaper, or literary work published in parts or numbers. This duty added about 100 per cent. to the cost of advertising, for the charge (exclusive of the duty) for inserting an advertisement of the ordinary length in the newspapers rarely exceeds 3*s.* or 4*s.*; and having been in consequence much objected to, it was reduced in the above-mentioned year to 1*s.* 6*d.* We ventured in the former edition of this work, to express our conviction that this reduction would not be productive of any very serious injury to the revenue, and the result has not disappointed our expectations. In 1832, the last year of the high duty, the revenue from advertisements amounted to 170,650*l.*, and in 1841 it amounted to 131,004*l.* The measure has, therefore, been eminently successful. It were, however, much to be wished that the duty could be dispensed with. Its operation is necessarily most unequal, and in many instances oppressive. Can any thing be more unjust than to impose the same duty on a notice of the publication of a sixpenny pamphlet, or of a servant being out of place, as on an intimation of the sale of a valuable estate? But as it is altogether impossible to impose the duty on an *ad eorum* principle, this injustice cannot be obviated so long as it is maintained. In a commercial country, a duty on advertisements is peculiarly objectionable, inasmuch as it checks the circulation of information of much importance to mercantile men. We, therefore, hope that means may be found of repealing the tax, for an account of its operation on literature, see *Books*.

ADVICE, is usually given by one merchant or banker to another *by letter*, informing him of the bills or drafts drawn on him, with all particulars of date, or sight, the sum, to whom made payable, &c. Where bills appear for acceptance or payment, they are frequently refused to be honoured for *want of advice*. It is also necessary to give advice, as it prevents forgeries; if a merchant accept or pay a bill for the honour of any other person, he is bound to advise him thereof, and this should always be done under an *act of honour* by a notary public.

AGATE (popularly **CORNELIAN**). Ger. *Achat*; Du. *Achaat*; Fr. *Agate*; It. *Agata*; Rus. *Agat*; Lat. *Achatas*. A genus of semi-pellucid gems, so called from the Greek *axarax*, because originally found on the banks of the river of that name in Italy. It is never wholly opaque like jasper, nor transparent as quartz-crystal; it takes a very high polish, and its opaque parts usually present the appearance of dots, eyes, veins, zones, or bands. Its colours are yellowish, reddish, bluish, milk-white, honey-orange, or ochre-yellow, flesh-blood, or brick-red, reddish brown, violet blue, and brownish green. It is found in irregular rounded nodules, from the size of a pin's head to more than a foot in diameter. The lapidaries distinguish agates according to the colour of their ground; the finer semi-transparent kinds being termed oriental. The most beautiful

agates found in Great Britain are commonly known by the name of *Scotch pebbles*, and are met with in different parts of Scotland, principally on the mountain of Cairngorm; whence they are sometimes termed Cairngorms. The German agates are the largest. Some very fine ones have been brought from Siberia and Ceylon. They are found in great plenty at the eastern extremity of the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope; and are still met with in Italy. But the principal mines of agate are situated in the little principality of Rajpepla, in the province of Gujrat, fourteen miles distant from the city of Broach, where they are cut into beads, crosses, snuff-boxes, &c. They are exported in considerable quantities to other parts of India, and to this country; and hence, perhaps, the jewellers' term "broach."

AGENT. See FACTOR.

AGIO, a term used to express the difference, in point of value, between metallic and paper money; or between one sort of metallic money and another.

ALABASTER (Ger. *Alabaster*; It. *Alabastro*; Fr. *Albâtre*; Rus. *Alabastr*; Lat. *Alabastrites*). A kind of stone resembling marble, but softer. Under this name are confounded two minerals, the *gypseous* and *calcareous* alabasters; they are wholly distinct from each other when pure, but in some of the varieties are occasionally mixed together. The former, when of a white or yellowish or greenish colour, semi-transparent, and capable of receiving a polish, is employed by statuaries. It is very easily worked, but is not susceptible of a polish equal to marble. Calcareous alabaster is heavier than the former; it is not so hard as marble, but is notwithstanding susceptible of a good polish, and is more used in statuary. The statuaries distinguish alabaster into two sorts, the common and oriental. Spain and Italy yield the best alabaster. That produced at Montania, in the papal states, is in the highest esteem for its beautiful whiteness. Inferior sorts are found in France and Germany. Alabaster is wrought into tables, vases, statues, chimney-pieces, &c.

ALCOHOL (ARDENT SPIRIT), (Fr. *Esprit de Vin*; Ger. *Weingest*; It. *Spirito ardente*, *Spirito di Vino*, *Acquarzente*), the name given to the pure spirit obtainable by distillation, and subsequent rectification, from all liquors that have undergone the vinous fermentation, and from none but such as are susceptible of it. It is light, transparent, colourless; of a sharp, penetrating, agreeable smell; and a warm stimulating taste. It is quite the same, whether obtained from brandy, wine, whisky, or any other fluid which has been fermented. The specific gravity of alcohol when perfectly pure is from .792 to .800, that of water being 1,000; but the strongest spirit afforded by mere distillation is about .820; alcohol of the shops is about .835 or .840. Alcohol cannot be frozen by any known degree of cold. It boils at 174°. It is the only dissolvent of many resinous substances; and is extensively used in medicine and the arts. — (*Drs. A. T. Thomson, Ure, &c.*)

ALDER, the *Betula alnus* of botanists, a forest tree abundant in England and most parts of Europe. It thrives best in marshy grounds and on the banks of rivers. It rarely attains to a very great size; its wood is extremely durable in water or in wet ground; and hence it is much used for piles, planking, pumps, pipes, sluices, and generally for all purposes where it is kept constantly wet. It soon rots when exposed to the weather or to damp; and when dry, it is much subject to worms. The colour of the wood is reddish yellow, of different shades, and nearly uniform. Texture very uniform, with larger septa of the same colour as the wood. It is soft, and works easily. — (*Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry.*)

ALE and BEER, well known and extensively used fermented liquors, the principle of which is extracted from several sorts of grain, but most commonly from barley, after it has undergone the process termed malting.

1. *Historical Notice of Ale and Beer.*—The manufacture of ale or beer is of very high antiquity. Herodotus tells us, that owing to the want of wine the Egyptians drank a liquor fermented from barley (lib. ii. cap. 77.). The use of it was also very anciently introduced into Greece and Italy, though it does not appear to have ever been very extensively used in these countries. Mead, or metheglin, was probably the earliest intoxicating liquor known in the North of Europe. Ale or beer was, however, in common use in Germany in the time of Tacitus (*Morib. Germ. cap. 23.*). "All the nations," says Pliny, "who inhabit the West of Europe have a liquor with which they intoxicate themselves, made of corn and water (*frugs madida*). The manner of making the liquor is somewhat different in Gaul, Spain, and other countries, and it is called by many various names; but its nature and properties are every where the same. The people of Spain, in particular, brew this liquor so well that it will keep good for a long time. So exquisite is the ingenuity of mankind in gratifying their vicious appetites, that they have thus invented a method to make water itself intoxicate." — (*Hist. Nat. lib. xiv. cap. 22.*) The Saxons and Danes were passionately fond of beer; and the drinking of it was supposed to form one of the principal enjoyments of the heroes admitted to the hall of Odin. — (*Mallet's Northern Antiquities, cap. 6, &c.*) The manu-

facture of ale was early introduced into England. It is mentioned in the laws of Ina, King of Wessex; and is particularly specified among the liquors provided for a royal banquet in the reign of Edward the Confessor. It was customary in the reigns of the Norman princes to regulate the price of ale; and it was enacted, by a statute passed in 1272, that a brewer should be allowed to sell two gallons of ale for a penny in cities, and three or four gallons for the same price in the country.

The use of hops in the manufacture of ale and beer seems to have been a German invention. They were used in the breweries of the Netherlands, in the beginning of the fourteenth century; but they do not seem to have been introduced into England till 300 years afterwards, or till the beginning of the sixteenth century. In 1530, Henry VIII. enjoined brewers not to put hops into their ale. It would, however, appear that but little attention was paid to this order; for in 1552 hop plantations had begun to be formed. — (*Beckmann's Hist. Invent.* vol. iv. pp. 396—341. Eng. ed.) The addition of hops render ale more palatable, by giving it an agreeable bitter taste, while, at the same time, it fits it for being kept much longer without injury. Generally speaking, the English brewers employ a much larger quantity of hops than the Scotch.

3. *Distinction between Ale and Beer, or Porter.*—This distinction has been well elucidated by Dr. Thomas Thomson, in his article on Brewing, in the Encyclopædia Britannica:—"Both ale and beer are in Great Britain obtained by fermentation from the malt of barley; but they differ from each other in several particulars. Ale is light-coloured, brisk, and sweetish, or at least free from bitter; while beer is dark-coloured, bitter, and much less brisk. What is called *porter* in England is a species of beer; and the term 'porter' at present signifies what was formerly called *strong beer*. The original difference between ale and beer was owing to the malt from which they were prepared. Ale malt was dried at a very low heat, and consequently was of a pale colour; while beer or porter malt was dried at a higher temperature, and had of consequence acquired a brown colour. This incipient charring had developed a peculiar and agreeable bitter taste, which was communicated to the beer along with the dark colour. This bitter taste rendered beer more agreeable to the palate, and less injurious to the constitution than ale. It was consequently manufactured in greater quantities, and soon became the common drink of the lower ranks in England. When malt became high-priced, in consequence of the heavy taxes laid upon it, and the great increase in the price of barley which took place during the war of the French revolution, the brewers found out that a greater quantity of wort of a given strength could be prepared from pale malt than from brown malt. The consequence was that pale malt was substituted for brown malt in the brewing of porter and beer. We do not mean that the whole malt employed was pale, but a considerable proportion of it. The wort, of course, was much paler than before; and it wanted that agreeable bitter flavour which characterised porter, and made it so much relished by most palates. The porter brewers endeavoured to remedy these defects by several artificial additions. At the same time various substitutes were tried to supply the place of the agreeable bitter communicated to porter by the use of brown malt. Quassia, cocculus indicus, and we believe even opium, were employed in succession; but none of them was found to answer the purpose sufficiently. Whether the use of these substances be still persevered in we do not know; but we rather believe that they are not, at least by the London porter brewers."

3. *Adulteration of Ale and Beer—substitution of Raw Grain for Malt.*—The use of the articles other than malt, referred to by Dr. Thomson, has been expressly forbidden, under heavy penalties, by repeated acts of parliament. The act 56 Geo. 3. c. 58. has the following clauses:—

"No brewer or dealer in or retailer of beer shall receive or have in his possession, or make, or use, or mix with, or put into any worts or beer, any liquor, extract, calx, or other material or preparation for the purpose of darkening the colour of worts or beer; or any liquor, extract, calx, or other material or preparation other than brown malt, ground or unground, as commonly used in brewing; or shall receive, or have in his possession, or use, or mix with, or put into any worts or beer, any molasses, honey, liquorice, vitriol, quassia, cocculus indicus, grains of paradise, Guinea pepper, or opium, or any extract or preparation of molasses, honey, liquorice, vitriol, quassia, cocculus indicus, grains of paradise, Guinea pepper, or opium, or any article or preparation whatsoever, for or as a substitute for malt or hops, upon pain that all such liquor, extract, calx, molasses, honey, vitriol, quassia, cocculus indicus, grains of paradise, Guinea pepper, opium, extract, article, and preparation as aforesaid, and also the said worts and beer, shall be forfeited, together with the casks, vessels, or other packages, and may be seized by any officer of excise; and such brewer or dealer in, or retailer of beer, so offending, shall for each offence forfeit 200l."

"No druggist or vendor of or dealer in drugs, or chemist, or other person whatever, shall sell, send, or deliver to any licensed brewer of, or dealer in, or retailer of beer, knowing him to be so licensed, or reputed to be so licensed, or to any other person for, or on account of, or in trust for, or for the use of such brewer, dealer, or retailer, any colouring, from whatever material made, or any other material or preparation other than *unground brown malt*, for the purpose of darkening the colour of worts or beer; or any liquor or preparation heretofore or hereafter made use of for darkening the colour of worts or beer, or any molasses or other articles, as mentioned in the first section, for or as a substitute for malt or hops respectively; and if any druggist, or vendor of or dealer in drugs, or any chemist, or other person whatever, shall do, all such liquor called colouring, and material or preparation for the purpose aforesaid, and liquor and preparation used for darkening the colour of worts or beer, molasses, and article or pre-

paration to be used as a substitute for malt or hops, shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of excise; and the druggist, vendor, dealer, chemist, or other person so offending, shall forfeit 500*l*.

By the act 1 Will. 4. c. 51. for the repeal of the ale and beer duties, it is enacted (§ 17.), "that no brewer shall have in his brewery, or in any part of his entered premises, or in any mill connected with such brewery, any raw or unmaltered corn or grain; and all unmaltered corn or grain which shall be found in such brewing premises or mill, and all maltered corn or grain with which such unmaltered corn or grain may have been mixed, shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer, together with all vessels or packages in which such raw or unmaltered corn or grain shall be contained, or in which such unmaltered corn or grain, and the maltered corn or grain with which the same may have been mixed, shall be contained; and every brewer shall for every such offence forfeit 200*l*."

4. *Descriptions of Ale and Beer.* — Previously to 1823 there were only two sorts of beer allowed to be brewed in England, viz. *strong beer*, that is, beer of the value of 16*s*. and upwards the barrel, exclusive of the duty; and *small beer*, or beer of the value of less than 16*s*. a barrel, exclusive of the duty. In 1823, however, an act was passed (4 Geo. 4. c. 51.) authorising the brewing, under certain conditions, of an *intermediate beer*. But this sort of beer was either not suited to the public taste, or, which is more probable, the restrictions laid on the brewers deterred them from engaging extensively in its manufacture.

This limitation and classification of the different sorts of ale and beer, according to their strength, originated in the duties laid upon them; and now that these duties have been repealed, ale and beer may be brewed of any variety or degree of strength.

The brewing of ale has long constituted a principal, or rather, perhaps, we might say the principal, manufacturing employment carried on in Edinburgh. The best Edinburgh ale is of a pale colour, mild, glutinous, and adhesive. It is much stronger and more intoxicating than porter, from 4 to 5 bushels of malt being generally used in brewing a barrel of ale, with about 1 lb. of hops to a bushel of malt. At present (1843) the produce of the ale breweries of Edinburgh may be estimated at about 195,000 barrels a year. Very good ale is also made at Preston Pans, Alloa, and other Scotch towns. Considerable quantities of Edinburgh ale are sent to London; though this trade has latterly been decreasing. Very good ale may be produced by brewers on a small scale, but it is doubtful whether this be the case with porter; at all events the best porter is all produced in very large establishments.

Formerly it was not supposed that really good porter could be made any where except in London. Of late years, however, Dublin porter has attained to high and not unmerited reputation; though we certainly are not of the number of those who consider it equal to the best London porter.

Large quantities of a light, pale, and highly-hopped variety of ale have been for some considerable time past exported to the East Indies, where it is in high estimation; and it is now, also, rather extensively used in summer in this country.

5. *Regulations as to the Manufacture of Ale and Beer.* — Since the abolition of the beer duties, these regulations are very few and simple; and consist only in taking out a licence, entering the premises, and abstaining from the use of any article, other than malt, in the preparation of the beer. A brewer using any place, or mash-tun, for the purpose of brewing, without having made an entry thereof at the nearest excise office, forfeits for every such offence 200*l*; and all the worts, beer, and materials for making the same, together with the mash-tun, are forfeited, and may be seized by any officer. — Brewers obstructing officers shall, for every such offence, forfeit 100*l*. — (1 Will. 4. c. 51. §§ 15, 16.)

6. *Licence Duties.* — *Number of Brewers.* — The licence duties payable by brewers of ale and beer, and the numbers of such licences granted during the years 1841 and 1842 were as follows: —

Account showing the Number of Licences issued to Brewers in the Years 1841 and 1842, with the Rates of Duty charged thereon (supplied by the Excise).

	Sums charged for Licences.		Number of Licences granted.	
			1841.	1842.
	<i>l</i> .	<i>s</i> . <i>d</i> .		
Common brewers of strong beer, not exceeding 20 barrels	0	10 6	8,180	6,123
Exceeding 20 and not exceeding 50 barrels	3	11 0	8,789	8,255
— 50 — 100	1	11 0	6,818	8,712
— 100 — 1000	8	2 0	16,120	16,407
— 1000 — 2000	8	2 0	708	594
— 2000 — 5000	7	17 5	608	581
— 5000 — 7500	11	16 3	152	141
— 7500 — 10,000	16	15 0	94	81
— 10,000 — 20,000	21	10 0	78	82
— 20,000 — 30,000	47	8 0	26	24
— 30,000 — 40,000	63	0 5	0	5
Exceeding 40,000	78	15 0	22	22
Brewers of table beer only, not exceeding 20 barrels	0	10 6	72	131
Exceeding 20 and not exceeding 50 barrels	1	11 0	11	17
— 50 — 100	1	11 0	41	7
— 100 — 100	2	2 0	11	12
Retail brewers of strong beer	5	10 3	10	38
Total number of Licences			44,802	43,906

N. B. — The barrel contains 36 gallons, or 4 firkins of 9 gallons each, Imperial measure. It is enacted

(1 Will. 4. c. 51. § 7.), that, from the 10th of October, 1830, brewers are to pay their license duty according to the malt used by them in brewing, and that every brewer shall be deemed to have brewed *one* barrel of beer for every *two* bushels of malt used by such brewer.

Account of the Number of Brewers, Licensed Victuallers, Persons licensed for the Sale of Beer to be drunk on and off the Premises, &c., with the Quantities of Malt used by such Brewers, &c. in England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the Year 1842 (supplied by the Excise).

	Number of				Number who brew their own Beer.				Bushels of Malt consumed by each Class.			
	Brewers.	Victuallers.	Persons licensed to sell Beer.		Victuallers.	Persons licensed to sell Beer.		Brewers.	Victuallers.	Persons licensed to sell Beer.		
			To be drunk on the Premises.	Not to be drunk on the Premises.		To be drunk on the Premises.	Not to be drunk on the Premises.			To be drunk on the Premises.	Not to be drunk on the Premises.	
England	2,951	57,291	31,821	4,477	26,599	14,948	1,246	16,180,442	7,629,153	2,671,322	339,169	
Scotland	193	15,699	-	-	193	228	-	760,128	85,598	-	-	
Ireland	115	15,543	-	-	143	-	-	933,114	-	-	-	
United Kingdom	3,259	87,531	31,821	4,477	26,937	15,178	1,246	17,933,684	7,714,751	2,671,322	339,169	

It is enacted (1 Will. 4. c. 51.), that every person who shall sell any beer or ale in less quantities than four and a half gallons, or two dozen reputed quart bottles, to be drunk elsewhere than on the premises where sold, shall be deemed a dealer in beer.

7. *Progressive Consumption of Ale and Beer.* — Malt liquor early became to the labouring classes of England what the inferior sorts of wine are to the people of France, at once a necessary of life and a luxury, the taste for it was universally diffused. There are, however, no means by which an estimate can be formed of the quantity actually consumed previously to the reign of Charles II. But duties, amounting to 2s. 6d. a barrel on strong, and to 6d. a barrel on small ale or beer, were imposed, for the first time, in 1660. These duties being farmed until 1694, the amount of the revenue only is known; and as there are no means of ascertaining the proportion which the strong bore to the small beer, the quantities that paid duty cannot be specified. But, since the collection of the duty was entrusted to officers employed by government, accurate accounts have been kept of the quantities of each sort of beer on which duty was paid, as well as of the rate of duty and its amount. Now, it appears, that, at an average of the ten years from 1694 to 1698 inclusive, the amount of ale annually charged with duty was as follows: —

Strong ale - - - 4,567,293 barrels.
Small do. - - - 2,376,278 do.

Soon after the Revolution several temporary duties were imposed on ale and beer; but in 1694 they were consolidated, the established duties being then fixed at 4s. 9d. a barrel on the strong, and at 1s. 3d. on the small beer, instead of 2s. 6d. and 6d., which had been the rates previously to 1690. This increase of duty had an immediate effect on the consumption, the quantity brewed during the ten years from 1694 to 1703 being as follows: —

Strong ale - - - 3,374,604 barrels.
Small do. - - - 2,180,764 do.

The whole of this decrease must not, however, be ascribed to the increase of the beer duties only, the duties on malt and hops having been, at the same time, considerably increased, operated partly, no doubt, to produce the effect.

During the five years ending with 1750 the ale brewed amounted, at an average, to 3,803,580 barrels of strong, and 2,162,540 barrels of small. — (*Hamilton's Principles of Taxation*, p. 255.)

The ale brewed in private families for their own use has always been exempted from any duty; and it may, perhaps, be supposed that the falling off in the consumption, as evinced by the statements now given, was apparent only, and that the decline in the public brewery won't be balanced by a proportional extension of the private brewery. But, though there can be no doubt that the quantity of beer brewed in private families was increased in consequence of the peculiar taxes laid on the beer brewed for sale, it is abundantly certain that it was not increased in any thing like the ratio in which the other was diminished. This is established beyond all dispute, by the fact of the consumption of malt having continued *very nearly stationary*, notwithstanding the vast increase of population and wealth, from the beginning of the last century down to 1750, and, indeed, to 1830. — (See *MALD.*) Had the fact as to malt been different, or had the demand for it increased proportionally to the increase of population, it would have shown that the effect of the malt and beer duties had not been to lessen the consumption of beer, but merely to cause it to be brewed in private houses instead of public breweries; but the long continued stationary demand for malt completely negatives this supposition, and shows that the falling off in the beer manufactured by the public brewers had not been made up by any equivalent increase in the supply manufactured at home.

It appears from the following tables, that the quantity of strong beer manufactured by the public brewers had increased about a third between 1787 and 1830; but the quantity of malt consumed in 1787 was quite as great as in 1828, a fact which shows conclusively, either that the *quality* of the beer brewed in the public breweries had been deteriorated since 1787, or that less, comparatively, was then brewed in private families, or, which is most probable, that both effects had been produced.

ALE AND BEER.

I. An Account of the Quantity of the different Sorts of Beer made in England and Wales, in each Year from 1787 to 1825, both inclusive, the Rate of Duty, and the Total Produce of the Duties (English Ale Gallons).

Years ended 5th July.	Strong Beer.		Table Beer.		Small Beer.		Total Amount of Duty.
	Barrels.	Rate of Duty.	Barrels.	Rate of Duty.	Barrels.	Rate of Duty.	
1787	4,436,492	8s. 0d.	485,090	5s. 0d.	1,349,301	1s. 4d.	£1,032,924 10s. 6d.
1788	4,301,885	—	294,176	—	1,354,017	—	1,369,680 17 4
1789	4,437,831	—	211,000	—	1,314,045	—	1,055,353 18 0
1790	4,325,950	—	448,900	—	1,399,157	—	1,077,796 8 8
1791	4,754,688	—	370,749	—	1,347,086	—	1,078,602 4 8
1792	4,696,303	—	635,369	—	1,401,970	—	1,081,163 4 0
1793	4,107,850	—	620,017	—	1,414,855	—	1,024,452 14 4
1794	4,011,530	—	665,551	—	1,440,520	—	1,189,073 14 0
1795	4,037,894	—	276,496	—	1,465,628	—	1,109,469 5 4
1796	4,504,453	—	845,030	—	1,479,150	—	1,263,234 7 4
1797	4,830,637	—	864,648	—	1,518,932	—	1,561,748 4 0
1798	4,734,467	—	694,064	—	1,547,070	—	1,510,367 14 8
1799	4,774,311	—	611,161	—	1,507,130	—	1,507,872 19 8
1800	4,338,506	—	874,005	—	1,500,829	—	1,416,671 35 8
1801	4,735,374	—	800,985	—	1,610,950	—	1,616,695 7 0
1802	4,245,844	—	392,024	—	1,621,428	—	1,321,198 0 4
1803	4,599,516	—	1,650,989	—	1,620,989	—	1,779,265 15 4
1804	4,465,623	10s. 0d.	1,779,570	—	1,779,570	—	1,810,764 10 0
1805	4,413,131	—	1,776,907	—	1,776,907	—	1,868,746 4 0
1806	4,443,502	—	1,771,124	—	1,771,124	—	1,809,298 8 0
1807	4,277,178	—	1,736,719	—	1,736,719	—	1,861,659 0 0
1808	4,571,360	—	1,710,213	—	1,710,213	—	1,936,704 0 0
1809	4,415,111	—	1,694,699	—	1,694,699	—	1,924,216 8 0
1810	4,765,519	—	1,635,848	—	1,635,848	—	1,940,318 6 0
1811	4,582,903	—	1,619,664	—	1,619,664	—	1,916,607 16 0
1812	4,869,989	—	1,655,505	—	1,655,505	—	2,069,774 0 0
1813	4,539,916	—	1,436,759	—	1,436,759	—	1,857,048 18 0
1814	4,694,015	—	1,337,869	—	1,337,869	—	1,855,480 0 0
1815	4,150,244	—	1,216,802	—	1,216,802	—	1,827,102 4 0
1816	4,584,379	—	1,214,607	—	1,214,607	—	1,842,076 4 0
1817	4,636,048	—	1,058,960	—	1,058,960	—	1,788,436 0 0
1818	4,364,009	—	1,434,844	—	1,434,844	—	1,825,468 14 0
1819	4,599,210	—	1,460,344	—	1,460,344	—	1,960,644 8 0
1820	4,306,701	—	1,413,091	—	1,413,091	—	1,924,19 10 0
1821	4,275,830	—	1,439,070	—	1,439,070	—	1,951,912 0 0
1822	4,712,657	—	1,494,981	—	1,494,981	—	1,905,696 12 0
1823	4,177,371	—	1,416,980	—	1,416,980	—	1,830,364 8 0
1824	4,188,271	—	1,401,021	—	1,401,021	—	1,834,237 12 0
1825	4,500,664	—	1,465,750	—	Intermediate Beer, 0,659	—	3,401,296 15 0

II. An Account of the Quantity of all the different Sorts of Beer, stated in Barrels, made in each Year, from 5th of January 1825 to 5th of January 1830, the Rates of Duty per Barrel in each Year, and Total Amount thereof in each Year in England and Scotland. — (*Parl. Paper, No. 130, Sess. 1830.*)

Years ended 5th January	ENGLAND.						Total Amount of Duty.
	Number of Barrels, Imperial Measure.*						
	Strong.	Rate per Barrel.	Table.	Rate per Barrel.	Intermediate.	Rate per Barrel.	
1825	7,008,145	s. d.	1,606,809	s. d.	5,160	s. d.	£3,494,379 10 4
1826	4,172,225	9 0	1,040,290	1 11	7,707	4 11	3,265,441 14 6
1827	3,512,767	9 10	569,197	1 11	—	—	3,131,564 10 0
1828	3,805,266	9 0	980,827	1 11	—	—	3,124,439 10 0
1829	4,300,015	9 10	514,481	1 11	17,158	—	3,129,017 9 0
1830	3,941,319	9 0	977,099	1 11	62,617	—	3,217,812 2 11
1830	3,569,364	9 0	829,879	1 11	63,408	—	2,917,828 8 4
	3,579,030	9 0	809,200	1 11	—	—	
SCOTLAND.							
1826	153,963	s. d.	891,035	s. d.	—	s. d.	£1,731 2 2
1827	116,591	9 10	915,042	1 11	—	—	79,931 4 7
1828	6,545	9 10	51,013	1 11	—	—	—
1828	102,769	9 0	187,275	1 11	—	—	78,855 4 4
1829	9,900	9 10	63,801	1 11	—	—	—
1829	101,475	9 0	178,380	1 11	—	—	76,885 9 11
1830	17,848	9 10	169,013	1 11	—	—	—
1830	94,287	9 0	161,499	1 11	—	—	71,753 17 5
1830	16,260	9 10	87,490	1 11	—	—	—

N. B.—The duty on beer being repealed in 1830, there are no later accounts of the quantity brewed.

The stationary consumption of malt and beer during the greater part of last century is, most probably, in great part ascribable to the introduction and rapid diffusion of a taste for tea and coffee, and to the consequent change that was effected in the mode of living of the middle and upper classes. No doubt, however, the oppressive duties with which malt and beer were loaded in the latter part of last century and down to 1830 narrowed their consumption in an extraordinary degree. After various previous additions the duty on malt was raised in 1804 to 4s. 8d. per bushel, or 36s. 10d. a quarter, the beer duties being then also raised to 10s. per barrel (old measure); and as a quarter of malt produced about three or three and a half barrels of beer, it follows that the duty on malt used in breweries really amounted at that period to from 6s. 10d. to 70s. 10d. a quarter, making the duty on strong beer, exclusive of that on hops, about 20s. a barrel. The duty on malt continued at this exorbitant rate till 1816; and to show its influence it is only necessary to state that during the 12 years ending with 1816 the consumption of malt amounted to no more than 23,197,784 bushels a year, being, notwithstanding the vast increase of wealth and population in the interval, less than it had been a century previously, the consumption having amounted to 24,191,304

* The ale gallon contains 282 cubic inches, and the Imperial gallon 277½; the latter being 1/60th part less than the former.

bushels a year during the 12 years ending with 1730 1 — (See art. M.L.T.) The duties had, in fact, been completely overdone, and besides hindering the consumption of malt and malt liquors, they had the mischievous effect of violating the public taste and stimulating the consumption of ardent spirits, especially of those made from raw grain. In 1816, however, the duty on malt was reduced to 2s. 6d. a bushel, and since 1823 it has amounted to 2s. 7d. a bushel, or 20s. 8d. a quarter and the beer duty having been abolished in 1830, this has been the only duty with which malt liquor has since been affected. And though we are unable, from the want of subsequent returns, to state how much the consumption of beer has increased since 1830, the increase in the consumption of malt shows that it must be very considerable. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Malt brewed by the Twelve principal London Porter and Ale Brewers, during the 8 Years ending with October 1842 (from Slater's Brewers' Malt List).

	1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Qrs.	Gr.								
Barclay & Co.	107,455	112,276	112,561	115,561	115,561	108,345	114,090	114,090	114,090	114,090
Hanbury & Co.	80,110	81,008	81,008	80,410	80,410	80,410	80,410	80,410	80,410	80,410
Yentwood & Co.	45,469	21,978	21,978	55,822	55,822	51,427	51,427	51,427	51,427	51,427
Held & Co.	41,328	44,010	44,010	48,130	48,130	47,190	47,190	47,190	47,190	47,190
Mess & Co.	35,965	28,465	28,465	40,737	40,737	39,797	40,540	40,540	40,540	40,540
Combe & Co.	43,444	40,713	40,713	38,568	38,568	36,160	36,160	36,160	36,160	36,160
Calvert & Co.	21,922	21,028	21,028	20,372	20,372	20,615	20,680	20,680	20,680	20,680
Hoare & Co.	31,278	31,008	31,008	30,510	30,510	29,450	29,607	29,607	29,607	29,607
Killoe & Co.	22,000	22,000	22,000	22,255	22,255	22,272	22,272	22,272	22,272	22,272
Harrington & Co.	20,490	19,698	19,698	18,508	18,508	17,840	18,425	18,425	18,425	18,425
Taylor & Co.	37,200	37,200	37,200	37,355	37,355	37,474	37,474	37,474	37,474	37,474
Charge & Co.	10,723	10,456	10,456	11,532	11,532	11,549	11,549	11,549	11,549	11,549

* Those marked thus * brew porter only.

The duties on beer were even more indefensible from the mode in which they were charged than from their amount. They affected only that description of beer which was brewed for sale; and as all the higher classes brewed their own beer, the duty fell only on the lower and middle ranks of the community, and particularly the former. It is singular that a tax so grossly unequal and oppressive should have been so long submitted to.

But besides the obstacles to the consumption of beer arising from the oppressive duties with which it was burdened, the system formerly in force for granting licences for its sale opposed obstacles that were hardly less formidable. Previously to 1830 no one could open a house for the sale of beer without first obtaining a licence renewable annually from the magistrates; and as these functionaries were accustomed only to grant licences to the occupiers of particular houses, the brewers naturally endeavoured, in order to ensure the sale of their beer, either to buy up those houses or to lend money upon them: and in many extensive districts a few large capitalists succeeded in engrossing most of the public houses, so that even the appearance of competition was destroyed, and a ready market and good prices secured for the very worst beer. We, therefore, look upon the abolition of the beer duties, and the granting of leave to all persons to retail beer on their taking out proper licences, as highly advantageous measures. The conditions under which such licences are taken out, and the sale of beer conducted, are fixed by the acts 1 Will. 4. c. 64. and the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 85. Under the former the commissioners of excise, or other persons duly authorised, were bound to grant licences, costing 2*l.* 2*s.* a year, to all persons not excepted in the act, empowering them to sell ale, beer, porter, cider, &c. to be drunk indifferently either on or off the premises. But in consequence of the complaints (whether well or ill founded it is now needless to inquire) of the increase and bad character of beer shops the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 85. makes the obtaining of a licence to retail beer to be drunk on the premises contingent on the applicant being able to produce a certificate of good character, subscribed by certain persons rated at a certain amount to the poor; it also raised the cost of such licence to 3*l.* 3*s.*, and reduced the cost of a licence to sell beer not to be drunk on the premises to 1*l.* 1*s.* We subjoin an abstract of the acts—

Persons applying for a Licence to sell Beer to be drunk on the Premises, to deposit a Certificate of good Character, &c.—Every person applying for a licence to sell beer or cider by retail, to be drunk in the house or on the premises, shall annually produce to and deposit with the commissioners of excise, collector, or other person authorised to grant such licence within the parish or place in which the person applying intends to sell beer or cider by retail, a certificate signed by 6 persons residing in and being and describing themselves to be inhabitants of such parish, place, &c., and respectively rated therein to the poor at not less than 6*l.*, or occupying a house therein rated to the poor at not less than 6*l.*, none of whom shall be malsters, common brewers, or persons licensed to sell spirituous liquors or beer or cider by retail, nor owners or proprietors of any houses licensed to sell liquors, beer, or cider by retail, stating that the person applying for the licence is of good character; and at the foot of such certificate one of the owners of the parish, township, or place shall certify (if the fact be so) that such 6 persons are inhabitants respectively rated as aforesaid; and such certificate shall respectively be in the form of the schedule annexed to this act; provided always, that in any parish, township, or district maintaining its own poor, in which there are not 10 inhabitants rated to their relief to the amount of 6*l.* each, or not occupying houses respectively rated to the poor at 6*l.* each (not being malsters, common brewers, or persons licensed to sell spirituous liquors or beer or cider by retail), the certificate of the majority of the inhabitants of such parish, township, or district maintaining its own poor, as are rated to the amount of 6*l.* each, shall be deemed to be a sufficient certificate for the purposes of this act.—4 & 5 Will. 4. § 2.

Falsely or Otherwise.—Any overseer who shall, without due cause, refuse to certify that the persons who have signed the certificates are respectively rated to the poor's rate as aforesaid, to forfeit not more than 5*l.*—§ 3.

Beer drunk in Shops.—Any persons licensed under the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64., to sell beer, cider, &c. not to be consumed on the premises, who shall employ, permit, or suffer any person or persons to take or carry any beer, &c. from his house or premises, to be drunk or consumed for his benefit or profit, in any other house, tent, shed, &c. belonging to, or hired, used, or occupied by such licensed person, such beer, &c. shall be held to have been consumed on the premises, and the person selling the same shall be subject to the like forfeitures and penalties as if he had been actually drunk or consumed in a house or upon premises licensed only for the sale thereof.—§ 4.

Billeting.—Provisions for billeting soldiers under military acts to extend only to those licensed to sell beer or cider to be drunk in the house or on the premises, and not to extend to those licensed to sell beer not to be consumed on the premises.—§ 5.

Justices to regulate the Opening and Closing of Houses.—Justices in petty sessions are authorised to fix the hours at which houses and premises licensed to sell beer under this act shall be opened and closed; but any person thinking himself aggrieved by any such order may appeal at any time, within 4 months from its date, to the justices in quarter sessions, on giving the jus-

When making the order 14 days' notice of his intention; and the decision of the justices in quarter sessions shall be final; provided, however, that the hour to be fixed for opening any house shall not in any case be earlier than 5 o'clock in the morning, nor for closing the same later than 1 o'clock in the afternoon on Friday, Good Friday, Christmas Day, or any day appointed for a public fast or thanksgiving; and the hours so fixed by the justices, with reference to the clearance within their jurisdictions, shall be taken to be the hours to be observed and complied with under this act as fully as if the same had been specially appointed by the act.

Constables, &c. to seal Licensed Houses. — All constables and officers of police are authorized to enter into all houses licensed to sell beer or spirituous liquors to be consumed upon the premises whenever they shall think proper; and if any person licensed as aforesaid, or any servant or person in his employ, or by his direction, shall refuse to admit such constables, &c. into such house or premises, the person having the licence shall for the first offence forfeit and pay any sum not exceeding 5*l.*, together with the costs of conviction, to be recovered within 10 days before 1 or more justices; and it shall be lawful for any 1 or more justices, upon any person being convicted of such offence for the second time, to adjudge (if they think fit) that such offender be disqualified from selling beer, ale, porter, cider, or perry, by retail, for 3 years after such conviction, or for such shorter space as they may think proper. — § 8.

Penalty for making or using false Certificates. — Persons certifying any matter having reference to this act as true, who know the same to be false, or using any certificate, knowing the same to be forged, shall, on conviction of such offence before 2 or more justices, forfeit and pay the sum of 2*l.*; and every justice granted to any person making use of any certificate to obtain the same, such person knowing such certificate to be forged, or the matters certified therein to be false, shall be void to all intents and purposes; and any person using such certificate shall be disqualified for ever from obtaining a licence to sell beer or cider by retail. — § 9.

No Licence to be granted without a Certificate. — No licence for the sale of beer or cider by retail to be consumed or drunk in the house or on the premises shall be granted, except upon the certificate hereby required; provided, that in all extra-parochial places the certificate required by this act may be signed and given by inhabitants rated to the poor as *tithe*, in any adjoining parish or parishes. — § 10.

Returners to produce their Licences on Requisition of 2 Magistrates. — In case any complaint be laid before 2 justices against any licensed person for an offence against the tenor of his licence, or against this act or the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, the said justices may require such person to produce his licence before them for their examination; and if he willfully neglect or refuse so to do, he shall forfeit for such offence any sum, not exceeding 5*l.*, the said justices shall think proper; and such person may be convicted, proceeded against, and dealt with for such offence in the same manner, *mutatis mutandis*, as directed by the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, with regard to persons guilty of a first offence against said act; and the penalty imposed for such offence is to be applied in the manner that it penalty for a first offence against said act is directed to be applied. — § 10.

Continuance of Powers, &c. — The powers, provisions, and penalties of 1 Will. 4. c. 64, to apply to persons licensed under this act, and to their estates, &c. — § 11.

Duties on Beer Licences. — There shall be paid upon the licences hereby authorized to be granted the duties following; viz. For and upon every licence to be taken out by any person for the sale of beer by retail, not to be drunk or consumed in or upon the house or premises where sold, the annual sum of 2*l.*, 2*s.* — § 12.

The duties to be under the management of commissioners of excise, and to be recovered and accounted for under the provisions of the act 1 Will. 4. c. 61. — § 14.

Not to affect Duty on Licences to retail Cider and Perry. — Nothing in this act shall affect the amount of duty payable under the 1 Will. 4. c. 64, on licences to retail cider and perry; but every such licence shall specify whether it be granted for the sale of cider and perry by retail not to be drunk in the house or premises where sold, or for the retail of the same to be drunk in the house or premises where sold. — § 15.

Licences under this Act not to authorize Persons to sell Wine. — No licence granted under the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, and this act shall authorize any person to take out or hold any licence for the sale of wine, spirits, or wares or made wines, or mead or metheglin, and if any person licensed under the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, and this act shall permit or suffer any wine, spirits, &c. to be brought into his house or premises to be drunk or consumed there, or shall suffer them to be drunk or consumed in his house or premises, he shall forfeit and pay any sum, not exceeding 10*l.*, to be applied to the relief of the poor of the parish or town, &c. in which he may be subject to forfeit 10*l.*. — § 16.

Penalty on unlicensed Persons. — Such persons selling beer and cider by retail to be drunk off the premises, 10*l.*, to be drunk on the premises, 20*l.* — § 17.

Board over the Door. — Every person licensed to sell beer, cider, or perry, by retail, under the authority of the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, and this act, shall on the board required by the former act to be placed over his door, paint and keep thereon, after the words "Licensed to sell beer or cider by retail." The additional words, "not to be drunk on the premises," or "not to be drunk on the premises," as the case may be, on pain of forfeiting the penalty imposed by such act for not having such board over the door — § 18.

Wine to retailing of Beer, &c. — Every sale of beer, or of cider or perry, in any less quantity than 4*gals.* shall be deemed and taken to be a sale by retail. — § 19.

Penalties for selling Spirits or Wine without a Licence. — Persons licensed to sell beer or cider under the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64, and this act, who sell spirits or wine, wares, &c. without being licensed, are liable to the penalties imposed by the laws of excise for selling spirits or wine, wares, &c. without licence. — § 20.

Certificates not to be required for Houses in certain Situations, if Population exceed 5,000. — The before-mentioned certificate shall not be required as to the last parliamentary session taken in each city, town, &c. shall exceed 5,000; provided that the last bills of mortality, not within any city or town corporate, not within the distance of 1 mile from the place used as the place of election as the place of election or polling place of any town returning a member to parliament, provided that the population, determined according to the last parliamentary session taken in each city, town, &c. shall exceed 5,000; provided that no licence for the sale of beer, ale, porter, cider, or perry by retail on the premises in the cities of London and Westminster, or in any parish within the bills of mortality, or in any such city or town corporate, or town returning a member to parliament as before mentioned, shall be granted after the 31st day of April, 1856, unless the house or premises specified as those in which beer or cider is intended to be sold shall be of the value of 10*l.* per annum. — § 21.

Form of Certificate referred to in § 2.

We, the undersigned, being inhabitants of the parish [or township, as the case may be] of _____ and respectively rated to the poor at not less than 5*l.* per annum, and none of us being masters, common brewers, or persons licensed to sell spirituous liquors, or being licensed to sell beer or cider by retail, do hereby certify, That A. B., dwelling in street, [here specify the street, town, &c.]

[Here insert the day of signing the certificate.]

(Signed) B. F.

G. H.

J. K.

L. M.

P. Q.

[Here state the residence of each of the persons signing.]

I do hereby certify, That all the above-mentioned persons whose names are subscribed to this certificate are inhabitants of the parish [or township, &c.] of _____

(Overseer of the parish or township, &c.)

Date

In addition to the above the following clauses of the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64. are still in force: —

Persons trading in partnership, and in one house, shall not be obliged to take out more than one licence in any one year, provided also, that no one licence shall authorize any person to sell beer, in any other than the house mentioned in such licence. — § 10.

In case of riot or expected riot or tumult, every person licensed under this act, and keeping any house situate within their jurisdictions, shall close his house at any time which the justice or justices shall direct; and every such person who shall keep open his house at or after any hour at which such justice shall be so ordered or directed shall be deemed to be closed, shall be deemed to have no maintained good order and rule therein, and to be guilty of an offence against the tenor of his licence. — § 11.

Every person licensed to sell beer by retail, shall sell (except in quantities less than a half pint) by the gallon, quart, pint, or half pint measure, and not by any other measure; and he shall be liable to be convicted of such offence, if he is found to have sold any such measure, and pay not exceeding 10*l.*, together with the costs of the conviction, to be recovered within thirty days next after that on which such offence was committed, before two justices; such penalty to be over and above all penalties which the offender may be liable to under any other act. — § 12.

Every seller of beer by retail, having a licence under this act, who shall permit any person to be guilty of drunkenness or disorderly conduct, in the house mentioned in such licence, shall forfeit the same following: for the first offence, not more than 10*l.*, nor more than 5*l.*, as the justices, before whom such retailer shall be convicted, shall judge; and for the second offence, any sum not less than 5*l.*, nor more than 10*l.*; and for the third offence, any sum not less than 10*l.*, nor more than 50*l.*; and it shall be lawful for the justices, before whom any such conviction for such third offence shall take place, to adjudge, if they shall think fit, that such offender shall be disqualified from selling beer by retail for the space of two years next ensuing such conviction, and also that no beer shall be sold by retail, by any person in the house mentioned in the licence of such offender; and if any person so licensed shall, knowingly, sell any beer, ale or porter, made otherwise than from malt and hops, or shall mix, or cause to be mixed, any drug or other pernicious ingredients with any beer sold in his house, or shall fraudulently dilute, or

In any way adulterate; at such breach, each offender shall for the first offence forfeit not less than 10*l.*, nor more than 20*l.*, and for the second such offence each offender shall be adjudged to be disqualified from selling beer, ale, or porter, by retail, for the term of two years, or to forfeit not less than 20*l.*, nor more than 50*l.*, nor shall be subject to a like penalty at every house where he shall commit such offence; and if any person shall during any term in which it shall not be lawful for beer to be sold by retail on the premises of any offender, sell any beer by retail on such premises, knowing that it was not lawful to do so, such offender shall forfeit not less than 10*l.*, nor more than 20*l.*; every person authorizing the conditions of the licence to be infringed to be deemed guilty of disorderly conduct. — § 15.

Retailing houses not to be open before four in the morning, nor after ten in the evening; nor between the hours of ten in the forenoon and one in the afternoon, nor at any time between the hours of three and five in the afternoon, on any Monday, Good Friday, Christmas day, or any day appointed for a public fast, or of thanksgiving; and any person offending hereon shall forfeit 5*0s.* for every offence; every separate sale to be deemed a separate offence. — § 14.

All penalties under this act, except for selling beer by any person not duly licensed, shall be recovered, upon the information of any person before two justices in petty sessions; and every such penalty shall be prosecuted for within three calendar months next after the offence; and every person licensed under this act, who shall be convicted before two justices, shall, unless proof be adduced to the satisfaction of such justices, that such person had been theretofore convicted before two justices, within the space of twelve calendar months next preceding, be adjudged by such justices to be guilty of a first offence under this act, and to forfeit and pay any penalty by this act imposed for such offence, or if no specific penalty be imposed, then any sum not exceeding 10*l.*, together with the costs of conviction; and if such person had been previously convicted, within the space of twelve calendar months next preceding, of one such offence only, such person to be adjudged guilty of a second offence against this act, and to forfeit and pay any penalty by this act imposed for such offence, or if no specific penalty be so imposed, then any sum not exceeding 10*l.*, together with the costs of conviction; and if proof shall be adduced that such person had been previously convicted within the space of eighteen calendar months next preceding, of two such separate offences, and if proof be adduced that such person, so charged, is guilty of the offence charged against him, such person shall be adjudged to be guilty of a third offence against this act, and to forfeit and pay any penalty imposed by this act, in respect of such offence, or if no such specific penalty shall be imposed, then to forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*, together with the costs of conviction. — § 13.

The party, convicted of any such third offence, may appeal to the general sessions, or quarter sessions then next ensuing, unless held within twelve days after conviction, and in that case, to the then next subsequent sessions; and, in such case, the party convicted shall enter into a recognizance, with two persons to appear for him, to appear at the said general or quarter sessions, to abide the judgment of the court, and to pay such costs as shall be by the court awarded; or, in failure of the party convicted entering into such recognizance, such conviction shall remain good and valid; and the said justices who shall take such recognizance, are also required to examine the party convicted, and to be sworn to give evidence as each general or quarter sessions to hold, such party shall give evidence against the person charged, and, in like manner, to bind any other person who shall have any knowledge of such offence, and it shall be lawful for the said general or quarter sessions to adjudge such person to be guilty of such third offence against this act, and such adjudication shall be as lawful for such general or quarter sessions to make, as if such person were an offender by fine, not exceeding 100*l.*, together with the costs of such appeal, or to adjudge the licence to be forfeited, or that he nor he nor be sold by retail in the house for the term of two years, and if such licence shall be adjudged to be forfeited, it shall nevertheless be sold; and whenever in such case, the licence of such offender or of an adjudged to be void, such offender shall be deemed incapable of selling beer, ale, or porter, by retail, in any house kept by him, for the space of two years; to be computed from the time of such adjudication; and any licence granted to such person during such term shall be void. — § 16.

In default of payment of penalties, proceedings may be had against the sureties. — § 19.

Any person summoned as a witness, who shall neglect or refuse to appear, and not make such reasonable excuse for such neglect, &c. as shall be adjudged by such justices of sessions, or who, appearing, shall refuse to be examined, shall, on conviction, forfeit not exceeding 10*l.*. — § 20.

Offenders refusing or neglecting, within seven days after conviction, to pay the penalty imposed, and any costs assessed, such justices may issue their warrants to levy the amount by distress and sale, together with the costs of distress and sale; and in every such case, such offenders, if in custody, shall be forthwith discharged; but if the goods and chattels are not sufficient, such justices may commit the offender to the common goal or house of correction for not exceeding one calendar month; if the penalty shall not be above 5*l.*; for not exceeding three calendar months, if the penalty shall be above 5*l.*, and not more than 10*l.*; and for not exceeding six calendar months, if the penalty shall be above 10*l.*; provided, that whenever such offender shall pay to the gaoler or keeper, or to whomsoever such justices shall have appointed, the penalty and costs, together with all the costs of apprehension and conveyance to goal, at any time previous to the expiration of the time for which such offender shall have been committed, such offender shall be forthwith discharged. — § 21.

No conviction under this act, nor any adjudication made upon appeal therefrom, shall be quashed for want of form, nor removed by certiorari. — § 22.

Every action against any justice, constable, or other person, for any thing done in execution of his duty under this act, to be commenced within three calendar months, and not afterwards; and if any person be sued, he may plead the general issue, and give the special matter in evidence. — § 23.

This act not to affect the two universities, nor the vintners' company in London; nor to prohibit the sale of beer at fairs, as heretofore.

11. *Scotch Ale and Beer Duties.* — The duties on ale and beer in Scotland have been for a lengthened period the same as in England.

At the union in 1707, the English duties on ale and beer were introduced into Scotland. But, besides strong and small beer, the Scotch had an intermediate species, which they called *two-penny*, and which was their favourite beverage. The duty on this sort of beer was fixed, at the union, at 2*s.* 1*d.* a barrel. For thirty years after its imposition, the quantity of two-penny that paid duty was always above 400,000, and sometimes exceeded 500,000 barrels a year. But in 1760 the duty on two-penny was increased to 3*s.* 4*d.* and the consumption immediately fell off to between 100,000 and 200,000 barrels. The quantity that paid duty in 1800 amounted to 149,803 barrels. The manufacture of this species of beer ceased entirely in 1802.

No account has been kept of the quantity of beer brewed in Ireland since 1809, when it amounted to 960,200 barrels. — (*Morewood on Intoxicating Liquors* p. 353.) Perhaps it may now amount to from 1,000,000 to 1,200,000 barrels.

An Account of the Number of Barrels of Beer exported from the United Kingdom to Foreign Countries in 1841 and 1842; specifying the Countries to which they were principally sent. — (*Part. Papers*, No. 175. Sess. 1843.)

	To West Indies.	To Australia.	To East Indies.	To other Countries.	Total.
In 1841	34,252	47,632	54,376	34,415	166,975
In 1842	35,711	29,985	51,150	33,692	145,538

12. *Regulations as to the Exportation of Beer.* — Ale or beer exported to foreign parts as merchandise is allowed a drawback of 5*s.* the barrel of 36 gallons, Imp. mea. But before any drawback for the above drawback shall be paid, the exporter or principal clerk or manager shall make oath thereon, before the proper officer of excise, that such ale or beer was put on board the exporting ship or merchandise to be sent beyond seas, and no part thereof for the ship's use; and that, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, the same has been brewed wholly from malt which has been charged with and paid the duty of 2*s.* 7*d.* a bushel, and shall also specify in such oath the time when and the place where; and the brewer, being an entered and licensed brewer for sale, by whom such beer or ale was brewed, and that the quantity of malt used in brewing was not less than 4 bushels (Imp. mea.) for every 36 gallons of such beer or ale. Persons making false statements forfeit the sum of 200*l.*, and the delinquency is void. — 11 Will. 4. cap. 51. § 11.

ALEXANDRIA, so called from its illustrious founder, Alexander the Great, the principal seaport of Egypt, on the coast of the Mediterranean, about 14 miles W.S.W. of the Canopic mouth of the Nile; the lighthouse being in lat. 31° 11' 31" N., long. 29° 51' 28" E. The situation of this famous city was admirably chosen. Until the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, Egypt formed the centre of the commerce between the eastern and western worlds; and Alexandria was placed in the most favourable position in Egypt for an emporium, being the only port on its northern coast, where there is, at once, deep water, and security for shipping throughout the year. The ports of Rosetta and Damietta, the former on the west, and the

latter on the eastern arm of the Nile, are both difficult of entrance, each having a bar, upon which there is always a dangerous surf. Ships bound for Alexandria avoid this serious inconvenience; and by means of an artificial navigation, stretching from the city to the western branch of the Nile, it has almost the same facilities for internal navigation that are enjoyed by the cities referred to.

It may be proper, however, to mention that this artificial communication with the Nile has not always been open. It existed in antiquity, but fell into decay during the barbarism of more modern times. After being shut up for some centuries, it has been re-opened by Mehemet Ali, who dug the Mahmoudie canal from Alexandria to Atfeh on the Nile, about 27 miles above Rosetta. This important work is 44 miles in length, 90 feet in breadth, and from 15 to 18 feet deep. It was opened in 1819; but owing partly to the nature of the ground, partly to some defects in its construction, and partly to the mud deposited by the water of the Nile, it is difficult to keep in repair; and can only be navigated by boats that draw little water, and are not suitable for the navigation of the Nile. But, with all its defects, the construction of this canal has been of the greatest advantage, not to Alexandria only, but to Egypt and even Europe.

Pharos, &c.—The ancient city was situated a little more inland than the modern one, opposite to the small island of Pharos, on which was erected the lighthouse, so celebrated in antiquity.—(*Cæsar, de Bello Civili*, lib. iii. cap. 112.) This island was, partly by artificial means, and partly by natural causes, gradually joined to the land by a mound, and on this the modern town is principally built. The isthmus and island have now the form of a T, its head being N. E. and S. W. A square castle, or tower, built on a small lake or rock, at the extremity of a mole projecting from the north-east angle of the city, is still called the Pharos, and may, perhaps, occupy the site of the ancient lighthouse; a light was exhibited on it down to 1842, when it ceased. On each side of the city there is a port. That on the western, or African side, called the Old Port, the *Eumastos* of the ancients, is by far the largest and best. It stretches from the town westwards to Marabout, about 6 miles, and is about 1½ miles in width. It is bounded on the north by the great eastern tongue or angle of the island on which the city is situated, built, at the extremity of which is the new lighthouse, and partly by rocks and sand banks. It has three entrances. The first, or that nearest the city, having 17 feet water, is about ½ mile S. W. from the lighthouse; but it is too narrow and difficult to be attempted by any one not thoroughly acquainted with the port. The *enters* side of the second or middle entrance is marked by buoys which lie about 2½ miles S. W. from the lighthouse; it is about a quarter of a mile wide, and has, where shallowest, 27 feet water. The third or western entrance has its *western* boundary within about three-eighths of a mile from the east end of Marabout island; it is about half a mile wide, and has from 25 to 27 feet water in its shallowest places. This last is the best entrance. Ships, when in, may anchor close to the town in from 22 to 40 feet water, and there is good anchorage in deep water all along the shore. Foreigners were formerly excluded from this port; but this prohibition no longer exists, and it is now principally resorted to by the shipping frequenting the port.

What is called the New (though it be really the oldest) or Asiatic harbour is on the eastern side of the town. A rock called the Diamond lies a little to the east of the Pharos tower; and ships entering the port ought to have this rock about a cable's length on the right. If they get much further to the left, they will come in contact with a shoal which stretches westward from the Pharillon, or little tower, on the east side of the port. The water immediately within the port S. W. from the Pharos is from 30 to 40 feet deep; but the space for anchorage is very limited, and is exposed to the northerly gales; and the ground being foul and rocky, hempen cables are very apt to chafe, and several accidents have happened in consequence to ships unprovided with iron cables. Ordinary tides rise 2 feet; but during the overflow of the Nile the rise is 4 feet. Variation 139° west.—(See *Plan of Alexandria*, by Lieut. Falbe.)

Lighthouse.—The new lighthouse, on the most westerly point of the island (an *Pharos*) on which the city is partly built, was erected in 1842. It exhibits a fixed light, elevated 180 feet above the level of the sea, and is visible in clear weather at a distance of nearly 20 miles. This light must, of course, be kept on the left by ships entering the great eastern harbour, and on the right by those entering the small or western harbour. We may mention that a British vessel was totally lost in attempting to enter the W. harbour by night, in December, 1844. The captain trusted to a chart which identified the lighthouse with the old tower at the entrance to the E. harbour. But the light on the latter has, as already stated, ceased to be exhibited since 1842, and all charts should be corrected accordingly.

Ancient and Modern City.—Under the Ptolemies and Romans, Alexandria was the first commercial city in the world. It suffered greatly by its reduction by the Saracens in 640; but it continued to be a place of considerable commercial importance till the despotism of the Mamelukes and Turks, and the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope completed its ruin. Under the Ptolemies, the population is believed to have amounted to about 300,000, and the city was adorned by a vast number of magnificent structures. At present the population varies with the seasons of the year, but, when greatest, it is not supposed to exceed 60,000; and may vary between this amount and 45,000. The appearance of the modern town is most unpromising. "It may be justly said, that in the new city of Alexandria we find a poor orphan, whose sole inheritance has been the venerable name of its father. The vast extent of the ancient city is contracted in the new to a little neck of land, between the two ports. The most superb temples are changed into plain mosques; the most magnificent palaces into houses of a bad structure; the royal seat is become a prison for slaves; an opulent and numerous people has given way to a small number of foreign traders, and to a multitude of wretches, that are the servants of those on whom they depend; a place formerly so famous for the extent of its commerce, is no longer any thing more than a mere place of embarking; in fine, it is not a phoenix that revives from its own ashes. It is, at most, a reptile, sprung from the dirt, the dust, and corruption with which the Alcoran has infected the whole country."—(*Norden's Travels*, Eng. trans. 8vo. ed. p. 32.) But this striking description, though accurate at the time when it was written (1737), conveys too unfavourable an idea of the present state of Alexandria. The vigorous government of Mehemet Ali, by introducing comparative security and good order into Egypt, has latterly revived the commerce of Alexandria, which has again become a place of much importance in the trading world; and many new warehouses and other buildings have been constructed.

Trade of Alexandria.—The imports principally consist of cotton stuffs, timber, woollen and silk stuffs, iron and hardware, including copper and tin plates, jewellery, machinery, ammunition, paper and stationery, cutlery, &c. &c. The exports consist principally of raw cotton, rice, wheat and barley, beans, linseed, sesam, and other drugs and gums brought from the interior; indigo, opium, rich leathers, dates, soda, linen cloth, coffee from Arabia, &c. The exports of wheat, barley, and pulse have declined in consequence of the superior encouragement given to the growth of cotton; the culture of fax has also declined; formerly from 50,000 to 60,000 quarters of linseed have been exported from Alexandria in a single season, but the exports are now much less. Sugar has been long cultivated in Egypt; but not to any great extent, though the soil and climate of Upper Egypt are said to be especially favourable to its growth. Indigo and madder are among the articles of culture introduced by the Fuchs.

Cotton has been grown in Egypt from a very remote period; previously, however, to the ascendancy of Mehemet Ali it was but little cultivated, and that little was of an inferior quality, short-stapled, and closely resembling "Surats," under which name the small quantities exported from the country were usually sold. But, in 1820, a Frenchman of the name of Jumel accidentally observed a very valuable

variety of long-stapled cotton, raised from seeds brought from Dongola and Senaar, growing in the garden of Mahi Bey at Cairo. Jumel having represented its superiority to the Pacha, its cultivation was undertaken on a large scale on account of the latter; and has succeeded so well, that Mahi Bey's cotton has been for a lengthened period by far the principal article of export from Egypt. The other period seeds of the Sea-Island cotton were introduced, and for a while it also answered remarkably well; its produce, which in Egypt was called Senaar, and in England "Egyptian Sea-Island," ranking next in the estimation of the manufacturers to genuine "sea-Island." Unfortunately, however, this variety was found to degenerate, and its culture, which was never very extensive, as well as that of the old short-stapled variety, has, we believe, been wholly abandoned.—We subjoin

An Account of the Exports of Cotton from Egypt from 1831 to 1840, both inclusive.

Destination.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.
Trieste	47,733	64,774	33,031	16,723	33,368	43,838	56,162	55,981	9,308	17,010
Marseilles	36,408	30,771	36,777	14,846	33,818	44,118	35,865	39,398	13,800	12,705
London	36,274	38,795	5,269	8,298	31,709	17,864	49,495	25,719	15,274	29,581
Lybourn and Genoa	5,108	663	608	—	424	1,372	1,363	1,868	2,660	1,866
Havre and Ports	4,607	1,830	737	—	105	737	680	—	6,408	3,908
Total	137,094	111,953	85,718	35,097	96,502	114,001	136,604	110,501	64,018	66,549

N. B.—The gross weight of a bale of Egyptian cotton at Alexandria averages 230 cottol or 238-07 lbs., and allowing 10 cottol as tare for packing and cartage, the net weight of the bale will be about 210 lbs. The cantar of cotton was fixed in 1836 at 100 cottol. Exclusive of the cotton shipped from Egypt, about 20,000 cantars a year are supposed to have been annually wrought up in the Pacha's cotton factories at an average of the 10 years ending with 1838; but, owing to the failure of most of these establishments, the quantity is now much less.—(See the valuable Tract of George R. Ulidson, Esq. on the Cotton of Egypt.)

We doubt, however, whether the encouragement given to the culture of cotton has not been really injurious to Egypt.

At all events, we apprehend that the cotton of that country will have great difficulty in finding a profitable vent in the European markets in competition with American cotton, considering the extreme low price at which the latter can be sold. We have alluded to the degeneracy of the Sea-Island cotton in Egypt, and it is alleged that the Maha is also degenerating. We need not, therefore, be surprised should it be found necessary to abandon the culture of cotton in Egypt. But in the culture of wheat, beans, barley, and rice, Egypt has nothing to fear from any rivalry. In this department of industry she is, if not superior to every other country, inferior to none.

We subjoin some accounts illustrative of the trade and navigation of Alexandria in 1811 and 1842.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the different Articles from Alexandria in 1842.

Denominations.	Quantity.	Value.	Denominations.	Quantity.	Value.
Horns of Buffalo	Pieces 148	945,000	Barley	Ardebe 78,660	2,138,000
Cotton wool (Macko)	Cantars 111,030	39,096,300	Bones of Animals	Cantars 9,490	278,400
Chick-poise	Ardebe 12,570	767,500	Pepper	Cantars 3,410	233,500
Carnicels	Cantars 360	32,000	Salted Hides	—	87,140
Carolina Indico	Cantars 470	75,000	Swedish Feathers	—	9,750
Boys' wax	Cantars 33,370	658,000	Butter	Obes 17,000	325,500
Coffee	Cantars 6,490	1,925,000	Rice	Ardebe 60,810	16,255,400
Pot ashes	—	86,050	Rum, Egyptian	Obes 50,800	305,200
Dates	—	106,690	Senna	Cantars 4,433	1,349,000
Drugs of different descriptions	—	14,915	Sal-ammoniac	—	740
Elephant's Teeth, or Ivory	—	8,187,700	Seeds of different descriptions	Ardebe 740	740,000
Beans	Ardebe 387,530	13,569,900	Cotton seed	—	38,430
Iron assorted	Cantars 11,410	370,500	Banana ditto	—	33,430
Grains of different descriptions	—	1,960	Linned	—	32,820
Wheat	Ardebe 336,930	10,750,000	Mass	—	1,266,900
Indian Corn	—	9,610	Salt	Ardebe 44,700	167,000
Flax	—	9,610	—	Cantars 19,750	3,515,000
Income	—	16,150	—	—	294,000
Timonin	—	37,380	—	Cantars 4,150	430,000
Levella	Ardebe 400,000	1,229,400	—	Pieces 240,900	4,250,000
Loupine	—	19,580	—	—	1,810
Machines-of-Ford	Cantars 1,490	3,260,000	—	Obes 101,000	901,700
Hurdies	—	6,154,000	—	Cantars 4,418	580,400
Manufactures (Cotton Goods)	—	9,370	—	—	3,890
Musk and Oil of Rose	Cantars 25,485	3,048,900	—	—	260,000
Dates, raw	—	6,280	—	—	—
			Total		Flas. 181,411,920

Shipping.—The Arrivals of Vessels of all Nations in this Port during 1842 were,—

Flags.	Laden.	In Ballast.	Total.	Flags.	Laden.	In Ballast.	Total.
British	150	40	190	Egyptian	734	160	894
Austrian	96	36	132	Turkish	156	—	156
Russian	11	6	17	Neapolitan	132	3	135
French	91	13	104	Neapolitan	—	—	—
Sardinian	13	0	13	Jerusalem (with Greek crews)	138	1	139
Tuscan	23	0	23	Rolidavian	1	—	1
Samos	16	47	63	Prussian	1	—	1
Greek	119	8	127	Barbary	—	—	—
Haves or Christian Ottoman	186	6	192				
Belgian	5	—	5				
Forward	734	160	894	Total	1,168	164	1,332

In the above, Vessels of War and Packets are included.

The Arrivals of British merchant shipping in the 13 years ending with 1842 have been, exclusive of Packets,—

In 1830	89	In 1835	102	In 1840 (from 1st Jan. to 23d Sept.)	71
1831	116	1836	96	1841	95
1832	100	1837	84	1842	164
1833	119	1838	86		—
1834	88	1839	107		—

tween Asia and Europe that had at a more early period centered at Tyre, was gradually diverted to this new emporium. An intercourse between the ports on the eastern coast of Egypt, and those on the opposite coast of Arabia, had subsisted from a very early period. That between Egypt and India was more recent. It was at first carried on by ships, which having sailed down the Red Sea from Myos Hormos and Berenice, coasted along the Arabian shores till they reached Cape Rassegate, whence a short course brought them to India near the mouth of the river Indus. This was the course followed during the dynasty of the Ptolemies; but about 80 years after Egypt had been annexed to the Roman empire, Hippalus, the commander of an Egyptian ship trading to India, having observed the regular shifting of the trade winds, ventured to sail with the western monsoon from the Straits of Bab el Mandeb right across the Arabian Ocean; and was fortunate enough, after a prosperous voyage, to arrive at Musiris, in that part of India now known by the name of the Malabar coast. Having taken on board a cargo of Indian produce, Hippalus returned in safety with the eastern monsoon to Egypt. This discovery was deemed of so much importance, that the name of the discoverer was given to the wind which had carried him across the ocean to India; and how trifling soever this voyage may now appear, those who consider that Hippalus had no compass by which to direct his course, and that owing to this circumstance, and the otherwise imperfect state of the art of navigation, the ancients seldom ventured out of sight of land, even in seas with which they were well acquainted, will be forward to admit that his enterprize and daring were nowise inferior to his success; and that he was well entitled to the gratitude of his contemporaries, and the respect of posterity.

From the epoch of this discovery, fleets traded periodically from Egypt to Musiris, the products of Europe to India, and conversely. The Indian goods having been landed at Myos Hormos and Berenice were thence conveyed by caravans to Coptos (the modern Kenna), on the Nile, where they were put on board lighters and sent to Alexandria, whence they were distributed all over the western world. The goods sent to India were conveyed to Myos Hormos and Berenice by the same route. Myos Hormos was situated on the shore of the Arabian gulf, about a degree to the north of the modern port of Cosser. The distance from it to Coptos, in a straight line, is about 70 English miles. Berenice was situated a good way further south, being nearly under the tropic. It was built by Ptolemy Philadelphus. Its distance from Coptos is stated by Pliny at 258 Roman miles; the different resting-places on the road were determined by the wells, and the journey occupied about 12 days. Ptolemy seems to have preferred this station to Myos Hormos, though the land carriage to Coptos was so much further, from its greater proximity to the Straits of Bab el Mandeb, and its lessening the voyage up the Red Sea.

Pliny says that the cost of the Indian commodities brought to Rome through Alexandria was increased a hundred fold (*centuplicato venant*) by the expense of carriage, &c. We suspect, however, that this is a rhetorical exaggeration, meaning merely that their price was very materially enhanced. If the increase was anything like that mentioned, it must have been owing to the imposition of oppressive tolls and duties, for it could not possibly have been occasioned by the mere expense of conveyance.—(*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. vi. cap. 23; Amelikon, Commerce des Egyptiens, pp. 161—176, &c.; Robertson's Ancient India, note 20, &c.*)

Besides this important traffic, which supplied Rome and the western world with the silks, spices, precious stones, and other products of Arabia and India, a great trade in corn was carried on from Alexandria to Rome. Egypt, for a lengthened period, constituted the granary from which Rome, and afterwards Constantinople, drew the principal part of their supplies; and its possession was, on that account, reckoned of the utmost consequence. Augustus employed merchantmen of a larger size than any that had previously traded in the Mediterranean to convey the corn of Egypt to Ostia. They were escorted by ships of war. The fleet received the names of *aurora* and *felix emboca*; and enjoyed several peculiar privileges. The ships belonging to it were the only ones authorized to hoist the small bill called *supparum*, when they drew near the coasts of Italy. Some of the fast-sailing vessels attached to the fleet were sent on before, to give notice of its approach; and a deputation of senators went down to Ostia to receive the ships, which anchored amid the acclamations of an immense number of spectators. The captains were obliged to make oath that the corn on board their ships was that which had been delivered to them in Egypt, and that the cargoes were entire as shipped.—(*Hist. Commerce et Navigation des Anciens, cap. xlviii.; Seneca Epist. cap. lxxvii. &c.*)

Intercourse with India through Alexandria.—These few details will, perhaps, serve to give a faint idea of the importance of Alexandria in the commerce of antiquity. It is impossible, indeed, for any one to glance at a map of the world, or of the ancient hemisphere, and not to perceive that Egypt is the natural entrepôt of the commerce between Europe, and all the east countries stretching from Arabia to China. The discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, in 1498, must, no doubt, have, under any circumstances, diverted a considerable portion of the trade with the western states of Europe, and in the heavier and bulkier class of articles, into a new channel. It is, however, abundantly certain, that had the same facilities for conducting the trade with the East existed in Egypt in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, like that which it actually, she would have continued to be the centre of the trade for all the lighter and more valuable products, and the route of the greater number of the individuals passing between Europe and Asia. But the lawless and arbitrary dominion of the Mamelukes, who loaded all individuals passing through the country with oppressive exactions, at the same time that they treated all foreigners, and especially Christians, with injustice and contempt, put an entire stop to the intercourse so long carried on by this shortest, most direct, and most convenient route. Happily, however, a new era has begun, and Egypt has once more become the grand thoroughfare of the eastern and western worlds. After good order and a regular government had been introduced into Egypt by Mehemet Ali, it was seen that it might be again made the channel of communication with India; and the importance of facilitating the intercourse with that continent forcibly attracted the attention of the British government and the East India Company. We believe, however, that the public are principally

* In the 16th century, the cost of Indian commodities brought to Western Europe by way of Alexandria and Aleppo was about three times the cost of those brought by the Cape of Good Hope.—(See *put. East India Company, History of*.) But Egypt was then occupied by the Mamelukes and Turks, who threw every sort of obstacle in the way of commerce, and loaded it with the most oppressive exactions.

indebted to the exertions of Mr. Waghorn for the early and successful opening of what has been called the "over-land route" to India. At all events the establishment of a steam communication between Europe and Southern Asia, by way of Alexandria and Suez, is one of the most striking and important events in recent times. It has shortened the journey to India from England more than a half, and rendered it comparatively safe and expeditious. Steamers ascend the Nile as far as Cairo; and the passengers and mails are thence conveyed across the desert to Suez; and conversely, by horses and carriages, no fewer than 7 Inns or khans being established along this road, which is travelled with comfort and expedition! We subjoin the following details:—

OVERLAND MAILS (Inward.)	Dispatched from London.		Arrive at Alexandria about	Leave Suez about	Arrive in Bombay about
	Via Southampton.	Via Marseilles.	10th of every month.	21st of every month.	9th of every month.
	20th of every month by contract steamers.	24th of every month.	6th or 7th of every month.	9th or 10th of every month.	6th and 7th of every month.
					Arrive at Calcutta about
					6th and 7th of every month.

The steamers that take the Southampton mail call at Gibraltar, and arrive at Malta about the 30th. The mails from Marseilles leave that port by one of her Majesty's steamers about the 16th and 27th of each month, and arrive at Malta the 14th and 31st. At Malta the mails are transhipped, and conveyed by steamers to Alexandria.

OVERLAND MAILS.— Homeward.	Dispatched from Bombay about	Arrive at Suez about	Leave Alexandria about	Arrive in London about	
				Via Marseilles.	Via Southampton.
	1st of each month.	18th of each month.	21st of each month.	1st of each month.	
Dispatched from Calcutta.					
7th of each month. Dispatched from Bombay about 20th of each month.		8th of each month.	10th of each month.	21st of each month.	26th of each month.

The contract steamer with the outward mail waits at Alexandria for the homeward mail, and arrives at Malta about the 17th and 28th of every month, where the Marseilles portion is transferred to one of her Majesty's steamers, which carries it to Marseilles, whence it is sent by land to Paris and via Dover to London; the remaining portion is landed at Southampton, and is thence sent by railway to London. Average time to or from Bombay via Marseilles 31 days, and to or from Calcutta via Marseilles about 42 and 43 days, and via Southampton about 47 and 48 days. By ship round the Cape 4 months. The newspaper proprietors run expresses from Marseilles on the arrival of each mail, and thus are enabled to publish the news some 2 days before the letters arrive in London.

Time of starting.	Fare to Alexandria.	Alexandria to Suez.	Suez to Bombay.	From Suez to Ceylon, Madras, or Calcutta.
	1st Cabin. £ s. d.	1st Cabin. £ s. d.	1st Cabin. £ s. d.	1st Cabin.
Steamers leave Southampton (the 9th of every month), and call at Gibraltar and Malta, arriving at Alexandria about the 17th of every month.	40 0 0	12 0 0	55 0 0	61l. to 76l.

Sea Route, via Marseilles.—By steamer to Boulogne; railway to Paris and Chalons-sur-Saone; thence to Lyons, Ajaccio, and to Marseilles. Time occupied 3 days. French government steamers leave Marseilles the 9th, 19th, and 29th of every month, calling at Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, Naples, Malta, and Messina. French government steamers also leave Marseilles on the 6th and 23d of every month for Alexandria and Beyrout direct, calling at Malta on the way.

The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company has published the following Statements:—

Rates of Passage between England and Malta	First Class.		Second Class.		Servants.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
— Alexandria	27 10 0	18 18 0	15 15 0	15 15 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
— Alexandria	40 0 0	26 0 0	21 0 0	21 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0

Rates of Passage, exclusive of Expenses of Transit through Egypt, between England and	Aden.		Ceylon.		Madras.		Calcutta.		Bombay.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.						
A berth in the general cabin throughout for a gentleman	65 0 0	101 0 0	106 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0	112 0 0
For a gentleman and his wife in the same cabin	100 0 0	160 0 0	166 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0	172 0 0
<i>Children with their Parents.</i>										
Not exceeding two years	—	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.	Free.
Two years and under five	—	29 0 0	39 0 0	44 0 0	54 0 0	54 0 0	54 0 0	54 0 0	54 0 0	54 0 0
Five years and under ten	—	42 0 0	57 0 0	62 0 0	72 0 0	72 0 0	72 0 0	72 0 0	72 0 0	72 0 0
<i>Passengers' Servants.</i>										
European servants	—	27 0 0	36 0 0	42 0 0	52 0 0	52 0 0	52 0 0	52 0 0	52 0 0	52 0 0
Native servants	—	22 0 0	24 0 0	30 0 0	36 0 0	36 0 0	36 0 0	36 0 0	36 0 0	36 0 0

For large families an allowance will be made in the foregoing rates to Ceylon, Madras, and Calcutta.

N. B.—In addition to the above-mentioned rates of passage by the Company's steamers, the expenses of transit through Egypt will be charged at the Company's offices, at the time of securing the passage, for account of the Egyptian Government, in conformity with the subjoined extract from the

TRANSIT ADMINISTRATION TARIFF.

From Alexandria to Suez, and vice versa.

A Lady	12	In vans across the Desert.	Free.
A Gentleman	12		
A Child above ten years	12		
A Child of five years and under ten	6		
A Child of two years and under five	6		
A Child under two years	10		
A European Female Servant	8		
A European Male Servant or Mechanic	8		
A Native Female Servant	4		
A Native Male Servant on a dromedary or donkey	4		

The rates of passage include steward's fees and table, wine, &c., for first-class passengers. Bedding, linen, and all requisite cabin furniture, is provided in the Company's steamers, together with the attendance of experienced male and female servants.

Baggage.—First-class passengers are allowed, in the Company's steamers only on either side of the Isthmus, 5 cwt. of personal baggage free of freight, and children and servants 1½ cwt. each.

All baggage must be shipped on the day previous to sailing, except carpet bags or hat boxes. All other baggage received on board on the day of sailing will be considered as extra baggage, and charged freight as such. The charge for conveyance of extra baggage, should there be room in the vessel, will be 2½ per cwt. between Suez and India, and 1½ per cwt. between England and Alexandria.

Passengers will have to pay the Egyptian Transit Company in Egypt 15s. per cwt. for conveyance of baggage through, should it exceed, for first-class passengers, 2 cwt., and children and servants 1 cwt. No package of baggage should exceed 80 lbs. weight. The best dimensions for a trunk or portmanteau are, length, 2 ft. 3 in.—breadth, 1 ft. 2 in.—depth, 1 ft. 1 in.

Passengers taking articles of merchandise in their baggage will incur the risk of seizure by the Customs' authorities, and of detention for freight by the Company's agents.

Canal between the Nile and the Red Sea.—We are assured, that were it not for the hostilities in which the Pacha has been almost always engaged, he would have attempted to reopen the famous canal that formerly connected the Red Sea and the Nile. According to Herodotus, this canal was commenced by Nechos, king of Egypt, and finished by Darius (lib. ii. §. 158. iv. 39.). Under the Ptolemies, by whom, according to some authorities, it was completed, this canal became an important channel of communication. It joined the E., or Pelusiac branch of the Nile at Bubastis the ruins of which still remain; it thence proceeded E. to the bitter or natron lakes of Temrah and Cheik-Aneded, whence it followed a nearly S. direction to its junction with the Red Sea at Arsinoe, either at or near where Suez now stands. It is said by Strabo (lib. xvii. p. 805.) to have been 1000 stadia (122 m.) in length; but if we measure it on the best modern maps, it could hardly have exceeded from 85 to 95 miles. Herodotus says that it was wide enough to admit two triremes sailing abreast. This great work having fallen into decay after the downfall of the Ptolemiac dynasty, was renovated either by Trajan or Adrian; and it was finally renewed by Amrou, the general of the caliph Omar, the conqueror of Egypt, anno 639 (Herodote, par Larcher, iii. 450.). The French engineers traced the remains of this great work for a considerable distance, and it would be of singular advantage to Egypt and the commerce of the world were it reopened.

Marshal Marmont states that the ground has been carefully examined by M. Lepère, an able engineer, and that it presents no sort of difficulty that may not easily be overcome. This, indeed, might have been inferred from the fact of its former construction; for the ancients being unacquainted with the use of locks had to encounter difficulties in the construction and working of canals which are now obviated with the utmost facility. According to M. Lepère, the cost of constructing a navigable canal from the Nile to the Red Sea would not exceed 17,000,000 francs, or less than 700,000l. (Marmont, iv. 161.) The completion of this work need not, therefore, be despair'd of. The opening of the Mahmoudieh canal from Alexandria to Atfeh shows what the present government is able to achieve; and an enterprise like that now under consideration, though more difficult, would be of still greater importance to Egypt as well as to Europe and Asia. Marshal Marmont appears to think that the ground between Suez and Cairo is quite unsuitable for a railway, to which project the Pacha is, however, understood to be most favourable. In fact, a portion of the iron rails for this undertaking have been ordered from England, and are now in Egypt; but the attention of the Pacha having been diverted to other matters, the project has been, for the present, abandoned.

ALICANT, a sea-port town of Spain, in Valencia, lat. 38° 20' 41" N., long. 0° 30' W. Population about 14,000, and declining.

The port is an open and spacious bay, between Cape de la Huerta on the north-east, and Isla Plana on the south, distant from each other S. W. and N. E. about 10 miles. Ships may enter on any course between these points, steering direct for the castle, which stands on an eminence about 400 feet high. Those of considerable burden moor N. and S., distant from ½ to 1 mile from shore, in from 4 to 8 fathoms water; they are exposed to all winds, from E. N. E. to S. by W.; but the holding ground is good, and there is no instance during the last twenty years of a ship having been driven from her moorings. Small craft lie alongside the mole, which is already 320 yards in length, and is continuing to be projected still further into the sea. There are no pilots. The trade of Alicante, though still considerable, has declined much within the last few years; a consequence partly of the emancipation of America from the Spanish yoke, but more of the oppressive duties laid on the importation of most articles of foreign produce into Spain (see CADIZ), and the extensive smuggling carried on from Gibraltar, Algiers, &c.

Raisins form the principal article of export; and their produce, which amounts to nearly 200,000 cwt., has increased rapidly of late years. They are principally taken off by England, the shipments thither, in 1842, having been 146,436 cwt. But with this single exception all the other articles of export have declined. The principal are silk, wool, barilla, almonds, wine, salt, oil, lead, mats, saffron, brandy, anise, saffron, &c. The exportation of barilla, which formerly amounted to from 50,000 to 100,000 cwt., has declined, partly from its having been largely adulterated, but principally from its being to a great extent superseded by *soude factice* (artificial soda), to little more than 20,000 cwt. The imports consist principally of sugar, coffee, cocoa, and other colonial products; cotton, and linen stuffs, and other manufactured goods, from England and France; salted fish, tobacco, iron and hardware, deals and tar, &c. &c.; but it is impossible to form any estimate of the imports from official or other returns, as by far the largest portion are supplied clandestinely. Indeed, the whole population of this part of Spain are clothed in prohibited articles, which are sold as openly in the towns as if they were of Spanish manufacture! (Consul's Report for 1841.) An *Association Britannica* has recently been formed in this port for smelting and refining the rich argentiferous lead ores of Almagrera and other parts of the province of Murcia.

ALIENS.

Last year (1842) the produce amounted to 400,000 os. pure silver and 400 tons lead. The manufacture of woollens is carried on pretty extensively at Alcoy, 23 miles N. from Alicante; but they are coarse and of inferior quality.

Port Charges on Shipping entering and clearing out.
N. B.—A vessel of 300 tons pays the maximum rate. One of less burthen pays proportionally less.

Spanish Vessels of 300 Tons.				Foreign Vessels of 300 Tons.			
	Ra. Vn.	Mar.		Ra. Vn.	Mar.		
Anchorage	75		Anchorage	75			
Health visit and pratique	15	3	Health Visit, &c.	93			
Captain of Port	3		Captain of Port	3			
Bill of Health	4		Bill of Health	8			
Tonnage Duty (300 Tons), if loaded outwards	300		Tonnage Duty, if loaded outwards	300			
If cleared in Ballast	-		If cleared in Ballast	-		180	
Mole and Light Duty	24		Mole and Light Duty	-		423	18
Tarifa, Light in and out 24 Maravedis per Ton (300 tons)	211	96	Tarifa Light in and out 48 Maravedis per Ton (300 Tons)	-			
Equal to 6l. 10s. sterling.	647	28	Equal to 10l. 10s. sterling.	1019	18		

Account of Vessels entering inwards at Alicante in 1842; specifying the Countries to which they belonged their Tonnage, Crews, and the Invoice Value of their Cargoes.

Flags.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Flags.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.
				<i>L.</i>					
British	181	9,949	1,527	66,462	Carried forward	404	57,865	4,400	354,122
Spanish	116	15,578	1,608	279,389	American	4	1,580	56	36,300
French	32	3,336	355	5,600	Hannoverian	1	155	-	-
Portuguese	12	1,274	115	-	Hanoverian	1	251	10	60
Swedish	12	27,844	874	9,500	Dutch	6	716	53	182
Total	404	57,865	4,400	354,122	Total	416	60,560	4,530	391,102

Principal Articles in,orted into and exported from Alicante in 1842.

Principal Imports.	Invoice Value.	Whereof from England.	Whereof from France.	Principal Exports.	Invoice Value.	Whereof to England.	Whereof to France.
Newfoundland Fish 103,499	<i>L.</i> 62,355	62,355	<i>L.</i>	Barilla	<i>crs.</i> 19,480	<i>L.</i> 12,490	<i>L.</i>
Sugar from West Indies	83,760			Raisins	146,498	116,397	116,397
Cocoa	27,580			Silk	-	46,740	-
Manufactured Goods	158,160	33,700	71,960	Wool	-	41,450	-
Tobacco from America	36,300			Oil (to France and West Indies)	-	17,600	-
Duties and Tax (from Sweden)	9,350			Almonds	-	9,275	5,810
				Salt (to Sweden)	-	14,180	-

Custom-house Regulations.—A manifest of the cargo, the ship's tonnage, and number of crew, must be presented within 24 hours after pratique being given, when two officers are put on board to prevent smuggling. The consignee then makes entry of the articles consigned to them, and obtains an order to discharge from the collector, or custom-house authorities, a certificate of origin from the Spanish consul at the port of loading being no longer requisite. To load the whole or part of an outward cargo, the master reports his intention to the collector, who gives him order permitting goods to be shipped, and the shippers make their specific entries. When the vessel is loaded, the waiting officers make their return to the collector; who, on being presented with the receipts of the captain of the port and of the Pratique office for their respective charges, grants his clearance, upon which a bill of health is obtained, and the vessel is clear for sea.

Warehousing Duties.—Goods legally imported may be deposited in bonded warehouses for twelve months, paying, in lieu of all charges, 2 per cent. *ad valorem*, but at the end of the year they must be either taken for home consumption or re-shipped. The 2 per cent. is charged, whether the goods lie for a day or the whole year. In charging duties, no allowance is made for waste or damage in the warehouses.

Rates of Commission are usually 2½ per cent. on sales and purchases; ½ per cent. is commonly charged on the negotiation of bills. Goods are commonly sold at 3 months' credit. Ordinary discount at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum.

Vessels with foul bills of health, or coming from an infected or suspected place, though with clean bills, are usually ordered to FortMahon to perform quarantine. But vessels coming with clean bills obtain, under ordinary circumstances, immediate pratique.

Money.—Accounts are kept in libras of 20 soides; each soido containing 12 dineros; the libra, also called the peso, = 10 reals; and a real of Alicante = 27½ maravedis of plate, or 31½ maravedis vellon. The libra may be valued at 3s. 6d. sterling, and the real at 4½ d. ditto.

Weights and Measures.—The carga = 2½ quintals = 10 arrobas. The arroba consists either of 36 large pounds, or of 36 small ditto; the latter being 12 Castilla ounces to the pound, the former 15. The arroba = 27 lbs. 4 oz. avoirdupois; but at the Custom-house the arroba = 25 lbs. or 25 lbs. of 16 oz. each.

The principal corn measure is the cahiz or cahise, containing 12 barchillas, 96 medios, or 192 quartillos. The cahiz = 7 Winchester bushels nearly.

The principal liquid measure is the cantero of 8 medios, or 16 quartillos. The cantero = 3·08 English wine pailons. The tomecillo or ton contains 2 pipes, 50 arrobas, or 100 cantaros.

The yard or vara, divided into 4 palmos, is = 29·96, or very nearly 30 English inches.—(Consul's Reports to Foreign Office for 1841 and 1842; *Spain in 1830*, li. 394, &c.; *Kelly's Combia*, &c.)

ALIENS. According to the strict sense of the term, and the interpretation of the common law, all individuals born out of the dominions of the crown of England (*alibi natus*) are aliens or foreigners.

It is obvious, however, that this strict interpretation could not be maintained without very great inconvenience; and the necessity of making exceptions in favour of the children born of native parents resident in foreign countries was early recognised. The 25 Edw. 3. stat. 2. enacts, that all children born abroad, provided both the parents were at the time of their birth in allegiance to the king, and the mother had passed the seas by her husband's consent, might inherit as if born in England. And this relaxation has been carried still further, by several modern statutes: so that all children born out of the king's allegiance, whose fathers, or grandfathers by the father's side, were natural born subjects, are now deemed to be themselves natural born subjects; unless their ancestors were outlawed, or banished beyond sea for high treason, or were, at the birth of such children, in the service of a prince at enmity with Great Britain.

Naturalisation of Aliens.—Aliens may be naturalised by act of parliament, which puts them in exactly the same condition as natural-born subjects, except that they are incapable of being members of the privy council, of being elected to serve in parliament, or of holding any office of trust under the crown.

A *denizen* is an alien born, who has obtained letters patent, *ex donatione regis*, to make him an English subject. He occupies a kind of middle station between a natural-born subject and an alien. He may acquire lands by purchase or devise, but not by inheritance; and may transmit such lands to his children born after his denization, but not to those born before. — (*Blackstone's Com.* book 1, cap. 10.)

An alien may also be naturalised by serving on board any of his Majesty's ships of war, in time of war, for three years, or, if a proclamation has been issued to that effect, for two years. — (6 *Geo.* 4, cap. 109. §§ 16, 17.)

Influence of the Residence of Aliens. — There can be no doubt that, generally speaking, the resort of foreigners to a country, and their residence in it, are highly conducive to its interests. Those who emigrate in order to practise their calling in an old settled country are pretty uniformly distinguished for activity, enterprise, and good conduct. The native inhabitants have so many advantages on their side, that it would be absurd to suppose that foreigners should ever come into any thing like successful competition with them, unless they were acquainted with some branch of trade or manufacture of which the others were ignorant, or possessed superior skill, industry, or economy. But whether aliens practise new arts, or introduce more perfect processes into the old, or display superior economy, &c., their influx cannot fail to be of the greatest advantage. They practically instruct those among whom they reside in what it most concerns them to know, that is, in those departments of art and science in which they are inferior to others; and enable them to avail themselves of whatever foreign sagacity, skill, or practice has produced that is most perfect. It is not easy, indeed, to overrate the benefits conferred on most countries by the resort of aliens. Previously to the invention of printing, there was hardly any other way of becoming acquainted with foreign inventions and discoveries; and even now it is far easier to learn any new art, method, or process, from the example and instruction of those familiar with its details, than from the best possible descriptions. The experience, indeed, of every age and country shows that the progress of nations in the career of arts and civilisation depends more on the freedom of commerce, and on the liberality with which they have treated foreigners, than on almost any thing else.

English Legislation as to Aliens. — But, notwithstanding what has been stated above, an antipathy to resident foreigners seems to be indigenous to all rude and uncivilised nations. Whatever is done by them appears to be so much taken from the employment, and, consequently, from the subsistence of the citizens; while the advantages resulting from the new arts or improved practices they introduce, for the most part manifest themselves only by slow degrees, and rarely make any impression on the multitude. Hence the jealousy and aversion with which foreigners are uniformly regarded in all countries not far advanced in civilisation. The early Greeks and Romans looked upon strangers as a species of enemies, with whom, though not actually at war, they maintained no sort of friendly intercourse. "*Hostis*," says Cicero, "*apud majores nostros is dicebatur, quem nunc peregrinum dicimus.*" — (*De Off.* lib. 1. cap. 12.) It may, therefore, be considered as a striking proof of the good sense and liberality of those by whom it was framed, that a clause is inserted in Magna Charta which has the encouragement of commerce for its object; being to the effect, that "all merchants (if not openly prohibited before) shall have safe and sure conduct to depart out of and to come into England, to reside in and go through England, as well by land as by water; to buy and sell without any manner of evil tolls, by the old and rightful customs, except in time of war; and if they be of a land making war against us, and such be found in our nation at the beginning of the war, they shall be attached without harm of body or goods, until it be known unto us, or our chief justice, how our merchants be entreated in the land making war against us; and if our merchants be well entreated there, shall be so likewise here."

But until the era of Edward I. the stipulation in the Great Charter as to foreign merchants seems to have been little attended to. It is doubtful whether, previously to his reign, they could either hire houses of their own, or deal except through the medium of some Englishman. But this intelligent prince saw the advantage that would result to the trade and industry of his subjects from the residence and intercourse of Germans, Flemings, Italians, and other foreigners, who, at that time, were very superior to the English in most branches of manufactures and commerce. He, therefore, exerted himself to procure a repeal of some of the more oppressive restrictions on aliens, and gave them a charter which conveyed considerable privileges.* Down, however, to the reign of Edward III., it continued to be customary to arrest one stranger for the debt, and even to punish him for the crimes and misdemeanors of others! It may appear extraordinary that the gross injustice of this barbarous regulation ever permitted it to be adopted; and yet it was probably, at one period, the common law of most European states. As soon, however, as the foundations of good order and civilisation began to

* This charter was confirmed by Edward III. in 1328. Among other clauses, it has the following; viz. 1st, That on any trial between foreigners and Englishmen the jury shall be half foreigners; 2d, That a proper person shall be appointed in London to be justiciary for foreign merchants; and, 3d, That there shall be but one weight and measure throughout the kingdom. — (*Anderson*, anno 1302.)

be laid, its operation was seen to be most pernicious. In 1325, Edward II. entered into a convention with the Venetians, in which it was expressly stipulated that they should have full liberty to come to England to buy and sell commodities, without being liable for the debts or crimes of others. Conventions to the same effect were entered into with other foreigners. At length, in 1353, this disgraceful practice was put an end to by 27 Edward 3. stat. 2. cap. 17.; it being provided in this statute, not only that no stranger shall be impeached for the trespass or debt of another, but that, in the event of a war breaking out with any foreign power, its subjects, residing amongst us, shall be warned thereof by proclamation, and be allowed forty days to arrange their affairs, and to depart out of the kingdom; and that, under special circumstances, this term may be extended. There are few acts in the statute-book that reflect more credit on their proposers, or that have been more advantageous than this.

In consequence of the encouragement given by Edward III. to such of the woollen manufacturers of Flanders as chose to immigrate to England, a good many came over; and it is from their immigration that we may date the improvement and importance of the woollen manufacture in this country.—(See WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE.) But this policy, however wise and judicious, was exceedingly unpopular. The foreigners were openly insulted, and their lives endangered, in London and other large towns; and a few of them in consequence returned to Flanders. Edward, however, was not to be driven from his purpose by an unfounded clamour of this sort. A proclamation was issued, in which every person accused of disturbing or attacking the foreign weavers was ordered to be committed to Newgate, and threatened with the utmost severity of punishment. In a parliament held at York, in 1335, an act was passed for the better protection and security of foreign merchants and others, by which penalties were inflicted on all who gave them any disturbance. This seems to have had the effect, for a while at least, of preventing any outrages.

The corporations of London, Bristol, and other great towns, have been at all times the principal enemies to the immigration of foreigners. Perhaps, indeed, they were not more hostile to them than to such of their own countrymen, belonging to another part of the kingdom, as should have attempted to settle amongst them without being free of their corporation. But in denouncing foreigners they had the national prejudice on their side; and their attempts to confirm and extend their monopolies by their exclusion were regarded as the noblest efforts of patriotism! Edward III. was fully aware of the real motives by which they were actuated, and steadily resisted their pretensions. But in the reigns of his successors they succeeded better: some of these were feeble and unfortunate, whilst others enjoyed the crown only by a disputed title, and in defiance of powerful competitors. The support of the great towns was of the utmost consequence to such princes, who, whatever might be their own opinion as to its policy, could hardly venture to resist the solicitations of such powerful bodies to exclude strangers, and to impose restrictions on commerce. From the death of Edward III. to the reign of Elizabeth, the progress made by the country was not inconsiderable, but it was little promoted by legislative enactments. Throughout the whole of this period, the influence of corporations seems to have predominated in all matters relating to trade and the treatment of foreigners; and our legislation partook of the selfish, monopolising character of the source whence it was principally derived. Were the acts and proceedings as to aliens the only memorials of our policy from 1377 to 1560, we should certainly seem to have retrograded materially during the interval. Some of these acts were passed with so little consideration, and were so very absurd, that they had to be immediately repealed. Of this sort was the statute of the 8 Henry 6. cap. 24., to the effect "that no Englishman shall within this realm sell, or cause to be sold, hereafter, to any merchant alien, any manner of merchandises, but only for ready payment in hand, or else in merchandises for merchandises, to be paid and contented in hand, upon pain of forfeiture of the same." But as an enactment of this sort was very speedily found to be more injurious to ourselves than to the foreigner, it was repealed in the following session.

The more tyrannical their conduct in other respects, the more were our princes disposed to humour the national prejudice against foreigners. If not a cheap, it was, at least, an easy method of acquiring popularity. In the very first parliament after the accession of Richard III., a statute was passed full of the most ridiculous, contradictory, and unfounded allegations as to the injury sustained by the influx of foreigners, and laying them under the most oppressive restraints. Considering, indeed, the sort of treatment to which aliens were then exposed, it may excite surprise that they should ever have thought of visiting the country; and, in point of fact, it appears that the resort of foreign merchants to our ports was materially impaired by the statutes referred to, and others of the same description. This is evident from the act 19 Henry 7. cap. 6., where it is stated that "woollen cloth is not sold or uttered as it hath been in divers parts," and that "foreign commodities and merchandises are at so dear and exceeding

high price that the buyer cannot live thereon." But in despite of this authoritative exposition of the mischiefs arising from the restraints on aliens, and on trade, they were both increased in the reign of Henry VIII. And it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that the pretensions of the corporations seem to have been disregarded, and an attempt made to act, not by starts, but consistently, on the policy of Edward III.

The influx of foreigners during the reign of Elizabeth was occasioned chiefly by the persecutions of the Duke of Alva and the Spaniards in the Low Countries. The friends of the reformed religion, which, at the time, was far from being firmly established, and the government, were glad to receive such an accession of strength; and from the superiority of the Flemings in commerce and manufactures, the immigrants contributed materially to the improvement of the arts in England. It would seem, however, that the ministers of Elizabeth contented themselves, perhaps that they might not excite the public prejudice, with declining to enforce the laws against aliens, without taking any very active steps in their favour.

In the reign of James I. the corporation of London renewed with increased earnestness their complaints of aliens. In 1622, a proclamation was issued, evidently written by James himself, in which, under pretence of keeping "a due temperment" between the interests of the complainants and those of the foreigners, he subjects the latter to fresh disabilities.

Since the revolution, more enlarged and liberal views as to the conduct to be followed with respect to aliens have continued to gain ground: several of the restraining statutes have fallen into disuse, while others have been so much modified by the interference of the courts, which have generally been inclined to soften their severity, that their more offensive provisions are become inoperative. In 1708, an act was passed, notwithstanding the strenuous opposition of the corporations, for the general naturalisation of all foreign protestants; but the prejudice against them was still so powerful that it was repealed within about three years. Some unsuccessful attempts have since been made to carry a similar measure. One of these, about the middle of last century, occasioned the publication by Dr. Tucker of two excellent pamphlets, in which the policy of the naturalisation act is most ably vindicated, and the arguments against it successfully exposed.* But no such statute has hitherto been passed, and aliens still continue subject to various disabilities.

Disabilities of Aliens. — The principal of these regards the possession of fixed property. It is ruled that lands purchased by an alien for his own use may be seized by the king. "If," says Blackstone, "he could require a permanent property in lands, he must owe an allegiance, equally permanent with that due to the king of England, which would probably be inconsistent with that which he owes to his own natural liege lord; besides that, thereby the nation might in him be subject to foreign influence, and feel many other inconveniences. Wherefore by the civil law such contracts were made void, but the prince had no such advantage of forfeiture thereby as with us in England." — (*Commentaries*, book i. cap. 10.)

An alien cannot take a benefice without the king's consent, nor can he enjoy a place of trust, or take a grant of lands from the crown. Aliens may, however, acquire property in money, goods, or other personal estate, and may have houses for the purpose of their habitation, and for carrying on their business. They may bring actions as to their personal effects, and may dispose of them by will. The *droit d'aubaine* (*Jus albinatus*, i. e. *alibi natus*), or the right of the crown to succeed to the effects of an alien at his death, so long the custom in France, never obtained in England. If an alien abroad die intestate, his whole property here is distributed according to the law of the country where he resided; but such residence must have been stationary, and not occasional, otherwise the foreign municipal regulations will not apply to the property.

Aliens may trade as freely as natives; and for these many years past the duties of *package* and *scavage* in the port of London, repealed in 1833, were the only peculiar duties with which they were burdened. The statutes of Henry VIII. restraining alien artificers from working for themselves are understood to have been repealed by the stat. 5 Ell. c. 7., and they are quite at liberty to employ themselves as they please.

Aliens indicted for felony or misdemeanor are tried by a jury of which half are foreigners, a privilege they have enjoyed, as already seen, with some partial interruptions, from the reign of Edward I.

Conditions of Residence. — During the late war aliens were placed under the surveillance of the police; they were obliged to send frequent reports of their residence, and of the mode in which they were employed, and were liable to be sent out of the kingdom at any moment by an order from the secretary of state. The conditions under which they now reside amongst us are embodied in the 6 Will. 4. c. 11.

Every master of a ship arriving from foreign ports shall, to the best of his knowledge and belief, immediately declare, in writing, to the chief officer of customs, the name or names, rank, occupation, &c. of any alien or aliens on board his ship, or who may have landed therefrom at any place within the realm, under a penalty of 20*l.* for omission or false declaration, and of 10*l.* for every alien omitted in the declaration. This regulation does not, however, extend to foreign mariners navigating the vessel. — § 2.

On arrival in this country the alien is to declare his name, description, &c. and to produce his passport; which declaration is to be registered by the officer of customs, who is to deliver a certificate in the alien. A copy of this declaration is to be transmitted, within two days, to the secretary of state, or (if the alien land in Ireland) to the chief secretary of the lord lieutenant. The original certificate given to the alien is to be transmitted to the secretary of state on his leaving the country. New certificates to be granted in lieu of such as may be lost, without fee, under a penalty of 20*l.* Forging certificates, or falsely personating aliens, punishable by imprisonment, not exceeding three months, or by fine, not exceeding 100*l.* — §§ 3, 4, 5, &c.

Policy of the Laws as to Aliens. — The reasons assigned by Mr. Justice Blackstone and others for preventing aliens from acquiring fixed property seem to be very unsatis-

* Historical Remarks on the late Naturalisation Bill, 1751; Queries occasioned by the late Naturalisation Bill, 1752.

factory. In small states there might be grounds, perhaps, for fearing lest the easy admission of aliens to the rights of citizenship should give them an improper bias; but in a country like England, such apprehensions would be quite futile. In this respect the example of Holland seems quite decisive. Notwithstanding the comparatively limited population of that country, it was "the constant policy of the republic to make Holland a perpetual, safe, and secure asylum for all persecuted and oppressed strangers; no alliance, no treaty, no regard for; no solicitation of any potentate whatever, has at any time been able to weaken or destroy, or make the state recede from protecting, those who have fled to it for their own security and self-preservation."—(*Proposals for amending the Trade of Holland*, printed by authority. Lond. 1751.)

A short residence in the country, and a small payment to the state, was all that was required in Holland to entitle a foreigner to every privilege enjoyed by a native. And it is of importance to remark, that it has not been so much as insinuated that this liberal conduct was in any instance productive of a mischievous result. On the contrary, all the highest authorities consider it as one of the main causes of the extraordinary progress made by the republic in wealth and commerce. It is said in the official paper just quoted, that "Throughout the whole course of all the persecutions and oppressions that have occurred in other countries, the steady adherence of the republic to this fundamental law has been the cause that many people have not only fled hither for refuge, with their whole stock in ready cash, and their most valuable effects, but have also settled and established many trades, fabrics, manufactures, arts, and sciences, in this country; notwithstanding the first materials for the said fabrics and manufactures were almost wholly wanting in it, and not to be procured but at a great expense from foreign parts."—(*Ibid.*)

With such an example to appeal to, we are warranted in affirming that nothing can be more idle than to suppose that any number of foreigners which it is at all likely should ever come to England under the most liberal system, could occasion any political inconvenience; and in all other respects their immigration would be advantageous. A general naturalisation act would, therefore, as it appears to us, be a wise and politic measure. It might be enacted, that those only who had resided three or four years in the country, and given proofs of their peaceable conduct, should be entitled to participate in its advantages.

(Some parts of this article have been borrowed from the *Treatise on Commerce*, written for the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge by the author of this Work.)

ALKALIES. The distinguishing characters of these bodies are, a strong acrid and powerfully caustic taste; a corrosive action upon all animal matter, destroying its texture with considerable rapidity; exposed to the atmosphere, when in their caustic state, they absorb carbonic acid with great rapidity, and become carbonated (or mild). Their action upon vegetable colours also affords us means by which the presence of an uncombined or carbonated alkali may be detected; the yellow colour of turmeric is changed to a red brown tint when immersed into solutions containing them; the blue colour of the litmus, after being reddened by an acid, is again restored; the infusions of the red cabbage, the violet, and many other purple vegetable colours, are converted to green. Litmus paper reddened by carbonic acid is, however, the most delicate test of the presence of an alkali. With the various acids they also combine, forming the very important and extensive class of compounds generally called salts; a salt being any compound formed by the union of an acid with an alkali or a metallic oxide.

Alkalimetry.—The method by which the value of the alkalies, or carbonated alkalies, is determined, being of considerable importance in a commercial point of view, we shall here treat it somewhat in detail. It is an established fact, that 49 parts by weight of oil of vitriol of the specific gravity of 1.8485 are exactly equivalent to the neutralisation of 70 parts by weight of pure carbonate of potash, or 45 of pure potash, or 54 of carbonate of soda, or 32 of soda, and that 70 parts of oil of vitriol will therefore be necessary to neutralise 100 parts of carbonate of potash. Hence, by employing a glass tube of about two ounces' capacity, and accurately divided into 100 equal parts, taking 70 grains of oil of vitriol, and diluting it with water, to make the 100 measures complete, every measure of this dilute acid must be equal to a grain of pure carbonate of potash. The per-centage of real carbonate of potash existing in any sample of pearlash may be at once ascertained by taking 100 grains of the sample, dissolving it in hot water, straining, and adding by degrees 100 measures of the test acid above mentioned; the point of neutralisation (when it ceases to affect litmus paper or reddened litmus) being accurately ascertained, the residual acid will give the per-centage of impurities; for instance, say that 75 measures of the dilute acid have been employed to render 100 grains of a sample of pearlash perfectly neutral, then we have ascertained that it contains 25 per cent. impurities. The same process of course must be followed in examining samples of barilla or kelp, except that the alkali contained in them, being carbonate of soda, 90.75 of oil of vitriol must be employed instead of 70. The process recommended by Mr. Paraday, and in which he uses only one test acid, is as follows:—Into a tube about three quarters of an inch in diameter, and nine and a half long, and as cylindrical as possible throughout its whole length, 1,500 grains of water are to be weighed, and the space occupied marked on the tube by a fine file; this space is then divided from above downwards into 100 equal parts. At 32.44, or 76.56 parts from the bottom an extra line should be made, and soda marked opposite to it; at 48.96 potash should be marked in the same way; at 54.03 carbonate of soda; and at 66 carbonate of potash. A diluted acid is now to be prepared, which shall have a specific gravity 1.127, and this is made by mixing intimately together 19 parts by weight of oil of vitriol and 81 of water. The method to be followed in the employment of this acid is as follows:—The diluted acid is to be measured in the tube up to the line opposite to which the alkali sought for is marked; if barilla, which contains carbonate of soda, 54.63

measures are to be taken. The 100 measures are then made up by the addition of water, and is then ready for use, following the method before stated.

The alkalies are four in number, namely, ammonia (or volatile alkali), potass (or vegetable alkali), soda (or mineral alkali), and lithia; which last is of so little importance that we shall not treat of it here.

The combinations of these alkalies with the various acids, whenever they form compounds of any importance, will be noticed.

Ammonia, or Spirit of Hartshorn, or Volatile Alkali, in its uncombined form, is an elastic gaseous body, having a very pungent and suffocating odour, destroys animal life, converts the yellow of turmeric paper to a brown, which, from the volatility of the alkali, is again restored by a gentle heat to its original colour. This gas is rapidly absorbed by water, which takes into solution about 780 times its volume, forming the liquid ammonia, or what is commonly called hartshorn. Ammonia is liberated whenever any of the compounds of this alkali are acted upon by potass, soda, lime, and many other alkaline earths. Lime, from its being the most economical, is generally employed; the best proportion for its preparations are equal weights of sal ammoniac (muriate of ammonia), and fresh slaked lime. When these are introduced into a retort, and heat applied, ammonia is liberated in the gaseous form, and is conducted by a Welter's safety tube into a vessel of water, by which the gas is instantly absorbed. Muriate of lime remains in the retort; sometimes water is added to the mixture, and then distilled. As thus obtained, it has a specific gravity of 930 or 940, water being equal to 1000. The most concentrated solution of ammonia has the specific gravity 875.

Carbonate of Ammonia, or Volatile Salt, or Subcarbonate of Ammonia.— This salt, which is very much employed in various processes of the arts, was formerly obtained by the action of chalk (carbonate of lime) upon muriate of ammonia; a double decomposition takes place. Carbonic acid and ammonia are sublimed in vapour, and muriate of lime remains in the vessel. A much less expensive process is, however, now followed, namely, from the waste gas liquors obtained in the purification of coal gas; these are evaporated, and the black impure sulphuric acid added. By this means a sulphate of ammonia is formed, and the carbonate procured by the action of powdered chalk, as in the former process.

Its uses are principally in forming other compounds of ammonia, as smelling salts; and it is likewise employed rather extensively by pastry-cooks for making light pastry, which is caused by the volatile carbonate of ammonia escaping and raising up the pastry by the heat of the oven. It is entirely dissipated during the baking, so that no ill effect can arise from its use.

Both this compound and the preceding act as violent stimulants on the animal system.

Muriate of Ammonia, or Sal Ammoniac, was formerly brought to this country from Egypt, where it was procured by submitting the soot of camels' dung (there employed for fuel) to sublimation in closed vessels; it is, however, at present manufactured in very large quantities in this country in a variety of ways. The most economical processes are either submitting sulphate of ammonia mixed intimately with muriate of soda (see salt) to sublimation, or by substituting the bittern of sea water, which consists chiefly of muriate of magnesia, for the sea salt. In the first process a sulphate of soda is formed, and the muriate of ammonia, which, being volatile, rises in the vaporous form, and is condensed in the cool parts of the apparatus; in the latter process a sulphate of magnesia (Epsom salt) results. It is generally from this salt (muriate of ammonia) that the liquid ammonia is manufactured; it is also employed in tinning and soldering, to preserve the metals from oxidation. It is a semi-transparent, tough salt, having an acrid acid taste, and is usually met with in the form of hemispherical masses. Sal ammoniac is made at Calcutta, and is thence exported to Great Britain, the United States, and the Arabian and Persian gulfs. In 1824-25 the exports amounted to 114 tons.

Sulphate of Ammonia.— The preparation of the sulphate has been already given under the head of ammonia; it is employed in the manufacture both of the carbonate and muriate.

Acetate of Ammonia.— The spirit of Mindererus is obtained by acting upon the carbonate of ammonia by acetic acid; the carbonic acid escapes with effervescence, and an acetate of ammonia is formed; it is employed in medicine as a febrifuge.

All these salts of ammonia have the following properties;— they are volatile at a low red heat; the fixed alkalies decompose them, combining with their acids, and the ammonia is liberated.

When combined with a fixed acid, such as the benzoic or phosphoric, they are decomposed, the ammonia alone being volatilized, and the acid remaining pure. This process was described for obtaining pure phosphoric acid.

Potass, or Vegetable Alkali.— The original source of this alkali is in the vegetable kingdom, whence it derived its name of vegetable alkali. When wood is burnt, and the ashes lixiviated with water, boiled, strained, and evaporated to dryness, an intensely alkaline mass is obtained, which is known by the name of potash, from this process being conducted in iron pots. It is then removed to a reverberatory furnace, and submitted to heat, and a current of air. This burns out extractive matter and other impurities, and the salt assumes a pearly white colour, and is hence called pearl-ashes. Care should be taken, during this process, that the potashes do not enter into fusion, as this would destroy the full effect of the operation.

Pearl-ashes.— Pearl-ashes generally contain about from 60 to 83 or 84 per cent. of pure carbonate of potass. Its uses in manufactures are numerous and important. It is employed in making flint-glass, of which it constitutes about one sixth of the materials employed; in soap-making, especially for the softer kinds of soap; for this purpose, however, it is first rendered caustic by means of lime. In the rectification of spirits large quantities are employed to combine with the water previously in union with the spirit.

Subcarbonate of Potass, or Salt of Tartar, is used in preparing the subcarbonate of potass of the Pharmacopœia (carbonate of potass of the chemical nomenclature), and likewise in rendering hard spring waters soft, and in cleansing substances from grease: it is sometimes called salt of wormwood. When made by the deliquation of two parts of tartar of argol and one of nitre, it is called black flux, and is used extensively in metallurgical operations.

From the subcarbonate of potash the pure and uncombined potash is obtained, by adding an equal weight of fresh burnt lime, previously slaked, and boiling them with half their weight of water. By this process the lime combines with the carbonic acid, and the potash remains in solution in its caustic state; by boiling the clear solution rapidly in iron vessels, and submitting it to fusion, we obtain the fused potash.

If it is required perfectly pure for chemical purposes, it is necessary to evaporate in silver vessels, and dissolve in strong alcohol. This takes up the pure potash, and leaves any portion of the subcarbonate that may not have been acted upon by the lime; then the alcohol is to be distilled off, and the potash fused at a red heat, and poured out in its liquid state on a cold slab. As thus procured, it is a white, brittle mass, highly deliquescent, absorbing moisture and carbonic acid rapidly from the atmosphere. When evaporated in iron vessels it has a dirty colour, and lets fall a quantity of oxide of iron, when dissolved in water from its having acted upon the iron boilers.

Potass acts with great rapidity upon animal substances, destroying their texture, and is on this account employed as a caustic, and was formerly called *lapis infernalis*.

Carbonate (or, in the chemical nomenclature, Bicarbonate) of Potass, is prepared by passing carbonic acid gas through a solution of the subcarbonate, and evaporating at a temperature below 212°, and crystallizing. It is used in making effervescing draughts. It loses one proportion of its carbonic acid when heated, and is converted into the subcarbonate.

Sulphate of Potass, or Sal Polychrest, or Vitriolated Tartar, is obtained by submitting the salt, which remains after the manufacture of nitric acid from nitre and sulphuric acid, to a red heat, or by neutralizing the excess of acid contained in that salt by subcarbonate of potass.

Bisulphate of Potass, or Sal Enizum.— This is the salt mentioned above, as the residue from the process for obtaining nitric acid. It is employed, in very large quantities, in the manufacture of alum; and also in tinning iron, for sometimes also used as a flux.

Nitrate of Potash, Nitre, or Salpêtre.— This salt, which is of so much importance in every branch of the arts, is found native in many parts of the world, especially in the East Indies. It is obtained from soils composed of decomposing granite, the felspar of which gives rise, as is supposed, to the potass. The nitric acid is not so easily accounted for, except it is by a union of the nitrogen and oxygen gases in the atmosphere taking place in these hot countries; for, from authenticated accounts, no decaying animal or vegetable matter exists in the nitre districts of India. By lixiviation with water the nitre is dissolved from the soil, which is again thrown out into the air, to be washed the following year; so that it is formed continually. These lixiviations are then evaporated; and when of a certain strength, a quantity of common salt separates, which is removed as it falls; and the nitre is then crystallised and imported to this country, always containing a certain quantity of impurities, which are deducted in the purchase of large quantities of the article, being termed its refraction. It is generally used for the manufacture of gunpowder and pure nitric acid, refined or re-crystallised.

Nitre may be also made artificially, in beds of decaying vegetable or animal substances, mixed with old mortar, or other refuse calcareous earth; these are watered occasionally, too much moisture being hurtful; after a certain period, depending on the rapidity with which the process has gone on, the whole is submitted to lixiviation together with wood-ashes, which contain subcarbonate of potass, and which decomposes any nitrate of lime formed, of which there is generally a considerable quantity. After the lixiviation is complete, which takes some time, the solution is separated and boiled down; the salt separates as in the other process, and the nitre is then crystallised. It was from this source that the whole of the nitre, nearly, employed by the French during the long protracted war with the continental powers was obtained.

Nitre has a cold, penetrating, and nauseous taste; enters into igneous fusion at a gentle heat, and is then moulded into round cakes called sal prunella. It is employed in the manufacture of nitric acid; of gunpowder, which is composed of 75 parts by weight of nitre, 16 of charcoal, and 5 of sulphur (the nitre for this purpose being of great purity); in the manufacture of oil of vitriol; as a preservative of the most powerful we possess; it is also used for the preservation of animal food, and in making frigorific mixtures: 1 oz. of nitre dissolved in 5 os. of water lowers its temperature 15 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. — (See SALTPETRE.)

Oxalate and Bisoxalate of Potass.— The bisoxalate of potass, or salt of lemon, or sorrel, by both which last names it is very commonly known, is procured from the juice of the common sorrel (*Rumex Acetosella*), or the wood sorrel (*Oxalis Acetosella*), by crystallisation, after the feculent matter has been separated by standing a few days. Its chief uses are, in removing ink spots or iron moulds; and also as a refreshing beverage when mixed with sugar and water.

The neutral oxalate is obtained from this salt by combining the excess of acid which it contains with a solution of subcarbonate of potass. Is very much used in chemistry, as the best test of the presence of lime.

Tartrate and Bitartrate of Potass.— Bitartrate of potass, or cream of tartar, is, when in its crude and impure state, called argol, and is deposited in the interior of wine casks during fermentation, and from this source the whole of the cream of tartar is obtained. It is generally of a very dark brown colour, but may be purified and rendered perfectly white by solution and crystallisation. It is employed very extensively in dyeing, hat-making, and in the preparation of tartaric acid, and many of the compounds of tartaric acid, as tartar emetic, soluble tartar (tartrate of potass); when heated to redness it is converted into carbonate of potass and charcoal; mixed with half its weight of nitre and thrown into a red hot crucible it forms the black flux, and with its own weight of nitre the white flux, both of which are very much employed in metallic operations. The tartaric acid is made by the addition of a certain amount of potass to a solution of the bitartrate until perfectly neutral: it is used in medicine as a mild purgative.

Ferrocyanate or Prussiate of Potass.— This salt is obtained by the action of subcarbonate of potass, at a low red heat, upon refuse animal matter, such as hoofs, horns, skin, &c., in the proportion of two of subcarbonate to four or five of the animal matter. But the process recommended by M. Gaultier is preferable; he finds that when animal matter is heated with nitre, it yields a much larger quantity of the ferrocyanate than when either potass or subcarbonate of potass are employed; the proportions he finds most economical are, 1 part by weight of nitre, 3 parts of dry blood, and iron scales or filings equal to a fiftieth of the blood employed.

The coagulum of blood is mixed intimately with the nitre and iron filings, and dried by exposure to the air; they are then submitted to a very low red heat, in deep iron cylinders, as long as vapours continue to be liberated; when cold, the contents are dissolved in 12 or 15 times their weight and strained. On evaporation till of the specific gravity 1.284, and allowing it to cool, a large quantity of bicarbonate of potass crystallises, and by further evaporation till of the specific gravity 1.306, the ferrocyanate of potass crystallises on cooling. This is to be re-crystallised. It is a beautiful yellow salt, very tough, having a tenacity similar to gum-mastic, and is decomposed at a red heat. It is employed very extensively in dyeing blues, and in calico printing; also in the manufacture of Prussian blue, which is a compound of the ferrocyanic acid and oxide of iron, prepared by adding 1 part of the ferrocyanate of potass dissolved in water, to 1 part of copperas, and 4 parts of alum in solution.

Chromate of Potass.— This salt is obtained from the native chromate of iron by the action of nitre at a full red heat in equal proportions. By solution, filtration, and evaporation, a beautiful lemon-yellow coloured salt results. It is very much employed in dyeing, calico printing, and calico making, from its producing bright yellow precipitates with solutions of lead.

Bichromate of Potass— is prepared from the above-mentioned salt, by the addition of nitric acid to the yellow solution obtained from the heated mass by the action of water; on evaporating this, a dark red coloured salt crystallises, which is the bichromate. This is also very largely employed by the calico printers, and when mixed in solution with nitric acid possesses the property of destroying vegetable colours; on this account it is of great importance, as it at the same time removes a vegetable colour, and forms a base for a yellow dye.

Chlorate or Hyperozygmarate of Potass.— The preparation of this salt is attended with some little difficulty, and requires a great deal of nicety. It is obtained by passing a current of chlorine gas through a solution of caustic potass; then boiling and evaporating; the first salt that separates is the chlorate of potass; and by further evaporation, muriate of potass is obtained. It is used in making matches for instantaneous light boxes, which are prepared by first dipping the wood in melted sulphur, and then into a thin paste, formed of 3 parts chlorate of potass, 2 parts starch, and a little vermilion; with sulphur it forms a very explosive compound; generally employed for filling the percussion caps of fowling-pieces.

Soda, or Mineral Alkali.— The sources of this alkali in nature are various. It is obtained in combination with carbonic acid, when plants which grow by the sea-side are burnt. The ashes thus obtained are called barilla and kelp; and also in some countries it is found as an efflorescence upon the surface of the earth, and is called nitrum or natron; this occurs particularly in Egypt and South America. Trona is also another native carbonate of soda, and is exported from Tripoli. In combination with muriatic acid it is also found in immense abundance, forming the rock salt, and sea salt or muriate of soda. It is obtained from the carbonate exactly in the same way as potass is obtained from its carbonate, namely, by boiling it with fresh burnt lime previously slaked, decanting the clear solution, and evaporating and filtering. It is a white brittle substance, and by exposure to the air becomes converted into a dry carbonate. Its uses in the arts and manufactures are of considerable importance. In soap-making it is

employed in very large quantities, and for this purpose is generally procured from barilla or kelp, by mixing them with lime, and by the infusion of water procuring a caustic soda ley; this is mixed with oil and fatty matters in various proportions, and boiled; the saponification of the fatty matter takes place, and the soap formed rises to the surface; the ley is then drawn from beneath, and fresh leys added, until the soap is completely free from oil; it is then allowed to dry. Soda is also employed in the manufacture of plate, crown, and bottle glass, though for this purpose it is generally in the form of carbonate or sulphate.

Subcarbonate of Soda. (In the chemical nomenclature it is called *carbonate*.)—This is generally prepared from barilla, which contains about 16 to 24 per cent. Barilla is procured by incinerating the *salata* soda, and other sea-side plants; it is made in large quantities on the coast of Spain. Kelp is another impure carbonate of soda, but does not contain more than 4 or 5 per cent.; it is the ashes obtained from sea weeds by incineration, and is made on the northern shores of Scotland. From these, the crystallised carbonate (or subcarbonate, as it is more frequently called) is made by the addition of a small quantity of water, boiling, straining, evaporating, and skimming off the common salt as it forms on the surface; on cooling, the subcarbonate of soda crystallises. Another method is by heating the sulphate of soda with carbonate of lime and charcoal, and then dissolving out the soluble carbonate; also, by the action of carbonate of potash (pearlash) upon solutions of sea salt. — (See *BARILLA* and *KELP*.)

Bicarbonate of Soda—is procured by driving a current of carbonic acid gas through solutions of the carbonate, and then evaporating at a temperature below 32° Fahrenheit; it is chiefly employed in making soda water powders. This is the carbonate of soda of the Pharmacopœia. By the application of a red heat it loses carbonic acid, and is converted into the subcarbonate.

Sulphate of Soda, or Glauber Salts.—This salt, which has received the name of Glauber, from its discoverer, is the residue of a great many chemical processes; for instance, when muriate of soda is acted upon by oil of vitriol, muriatic acid and sulphate of soda result; in making chlorine gas for the manufacture of the chloride of lime, or bleaching powder, sulphate of soda and sulphate of manganese result; the materials employed being sea salt, sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol), and black oxide of manganese; also, in the preparation of acetic acid from the acetate of soda, and in the preparation of muriate of ammonia from sea salt and sulphate of ammonia. Sulphate of soda is a colourless, transparent salt, effloresces readily when exposed to the air, and becomes converted into a dry powder; it has a cold, bitter taste; it is used for the preparation of carbonate of soda, and as a medicine. It is found native in some countries, particularly in Persia and South America—frequently as an efflorescence upon new walls.

Nitrate of Soda.—This salt is found native in some parts of the East Indies, and is called, from its square form, cubic nitre; it is, however, very little used.

Muriate of Soda, or Sea Salt.—This compound is found in immense quantities in the earth, and is called from this circumstance rock salt, or sal grom. The mines of Cheshire and Droltwelt, in this country, and those in Poland, Hungary, and Spain, and many others, afford immense quantities of this compound. It is also obtained by the evaporation of sea water, both spontaneously in pits formed for the purpose, and in large iron boilers; the uncrystallisable fluid is called the bittern; basket salt is made by placing the salt after evaporation in conical baskets, and passing through it a saturated solution of salt, which dissolves and carries off the muriate of magnesia or lime. Pure salt should not become moist by exposure to the air; it decrepitates when heated; it is employed for the preparation of muriatic acid, carbonate of soda, muriate of ammonia, and many other operations; also in glazing stone-ware, pottery, &c.; and from its great antiseptic properties, is used largely for the preservation of animal food; as a flux also in metallurgy.

Borate of Soda, or Borax.—This salt is found in Tibet and Persia, deposited from saline lakes; it is called tincal, and is imported into this country, where it is purified by solution; the fatty matter with which the tincal is always coated being removed, and the solution evaporated and crystallised; its principal uses are as a flux, from its acting very powerfully upon earthy substances.

ALKANET, or ANCHUSA (Ger. *Orkanet*; Du. *Ossetong*; Fr. *Orcanette*; It. *Ancusa*; Sp. *Arcaneta*), a species of bugloss (*Anchusa tinctoria* Lin.). It has been cultivated in England; but is found of the finest quality in Siberia, Spain, and more particularly in the South of France, in the vicinity of Montpellier. The roots of the plant are the only parts that are made use of. When in perfection, they are about the thickness of the finger, having a thick bark of a deep purplish red colour. This, when separated from the whitish woody pith, imparts a fine deep red to alcohol, oils, wax, and all unctuous substances. To water it gives only a dull brownish hue. It is principally employed to tint wax, pomatum, and unguents, oils employed in the dressing of mahogany, rose-wood, &c. The alkanet brought from Constantinople yields a more beautiful but less permanent dye than that of France.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Magnien, Dictionnaire des Productions*.)

The duty, which was previously very oppressive, was reduced in 1832 to 2s. a cwt.; and by the tariff of last year (1843) to 1s. a cwt. The imports are inconsiderable. The price varies from 2s. to 3s. a cwt.

ALLOWANCES, TARES, &c. In selling goods, or in paying duties upon them, certain deductions are made from their weights, depending on the nature of the packages in which they are inclosed, and which are regulated in most instances by the custom of merchants, and the rules laid down by public offices. These allowances, as they are termed, are distinguished by the epithets *Draft*, *Tare*, *Tret*, and *Cloff*.

Draft is a deduction from the original or gross weight of goods, and is subtracted before the tare is taken off.

Tare is an allowance for the weight of the bag, box, cask, or other package, in which goods are weighed. **Real or open tare** is the actual weight of the package.

Customary tare is, as its name implies, an established allowance for the weight of the package. **Computed tare** is an estimated allowance agreed upon at the time.

Average tare is when a few packages only among several are weighed, their mean or average taken, and the rest tared accordingly.

Super-tare is an additional allowance, or tare, where the commodity or package exceeds a certain weight. When tare is allowed, the remainder is called the net weight; but if tret be allowed, it is called the *uttle weight*.

Tret is a deduction of 4 lbs. from every 104 lbs. ofuttle weight. This allowance, which is said to be for dust or sand, or for the waste or wear of the commodity, was formerly made on most foreign articles sold by the pound avoirdupois; but it is now nearly discontinued by merchants, or is allowed in the price. It is wholly abolished at the East India warehouses in London; and neither tret nor draft is allowed at the Custom-house.

Cloff, or Clough, is another allowance that is nearly obsolete. It is stated in arithmetical books to be a deduction of 2 lbs. from every 3 cwt. of the *seconduttle*; that is, the remainder after tret is subtracted;

but merchants, at present, know cloff only as a small deduction, like draft, from the original weight, and this only from two or three articles.—(See *Kelly's Cambist*, art. "London.")
For an account of the tares and allowances at London, see TARA; for the tares and allowances at the great foreign trading towns, see their names.

ALMONDS (Ger. *Mandeln*; Du. *Amandelen*; Fr. *Amandes*; It. *Mandorli*; Sp. *Almendras*; Port. *Amendo*; Rus. *Mindal*; Lat. *Amygdala amara, dulces*), a kind of medicinal fruit, contained in a hard shell, that is enclosed in a tough sort of cotton skin. The tree (*Amygdalus communis*) which produces this fruit nearly resembles the peach both in leaves and blossoms; it grows spontaneously only in warm countries, as Spain, and particularly Barbary. It flowers early in the Spring, and produces fruit in August. Almonds are of two sorts, sweet and bitter. They are not distinguishable from each other but by the taste of the kernel or fruit. "The Valencia almond is sweet, large, and flat-pointed at one extremity, and compressed in the middle. The Italian almonds are not so sweet, smaller, and less depressed in the middle. The Jordan almonds come from Malaga, and are the best sweet almonds brought to England. They are longer, flatter, less pointed at one end and less round at the other, and have a paler cuticle than those we have described. The sweet almonds are imported in mats, casks, and boxes; the bitter, which come chiefly from Mogadore, arrive in boxes."—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

Previously to 1832, almonds were grossly overtaxed; but the duties were then considerably reduced, and they were also still further reduced in 1842. At an average of the years 1840 and 1841, the entries for home consumption amounted to 8,019 cwt. They are mostly imported from Spain and Northern Africa. The (1843) duties are, almonds, not Jordan or bitter, 10s. a cwt.; Jordan, 2s. per ditto; bitter, 2s. per ditto. Almonds were quoted in bond in London, in January 1843, Jordan (sweet), 150s. a cwt.; Valencia (sweet, shipped from Alicante,) 78s. per ditto; African bitter, 65s. per ditto; African sweet, 46s. to 47s. per ditto.

ALOES (Du. *Aloe*; Fr. *Alôës*; Ger. and Lat. *Aloe*; Rus. *Алоэ*; Sp. *Alôe*; Arab. *Mucibar*), a bitter, gummy, resinous, inspissated juice, obtained from the leaves of the plant of the same name. There are four sorts of aloes met with in commerce; viz. *Socotrine*, *Hepatic*, *Caballine*, and *Cape*.

1. *Socotrine*—so called from the island of Socotra, in the Indian Ocean, not very distant from Cape Guardafui, where the plant (*Aloe spicata*), of which this species is the produce, grows abundantly. It is in pieces of a reddish brown colour, glossy as if varnished, and in some degree pellicid. When reduced to powder, it is of a bright golden colour. Its taste is extremely bitter; and it has a peculiar aromatic odour, not unlike that of the russet apple decaying. It softens in the hand, and is adhesive; yet is sufficiently pulverulent. It is imported by way of Smyrna and Alexandria, in chests and casks, but is very scarce in England.

2. *Hepatic*.—The real hepatic aloes, so called from its liver colour, is believed to be the produce of the *Aloe perfoliata*, which grows in Yemen in Arabia, from which it is exported to Bombay whence it finds its way to Europe. It is duller in the colour, bitterer, and has a less pleasant aroma than the Socotrine aloes, for which, however, it is sometimes substituted. Barbadoes aloes, which is often passed off for the hepatic, is the produce of the *Aloe vulgaris*. It is brought home in calabashes, or large gourd shells, containing from 60 to 70 lbs. It is dusker in its hue than the Bombay, or real hepatic aloes, and the taste is more nauseous, and intensely bitter. The colour of the powder is a dull olive yellow.

3. *Caballine* or *Horse Aloes* seems to be merely the coarsest species or refuse of the Barbadoes aloes. It is used only in veterinary medicine; and is easily distinguished by its rank fetid smell.

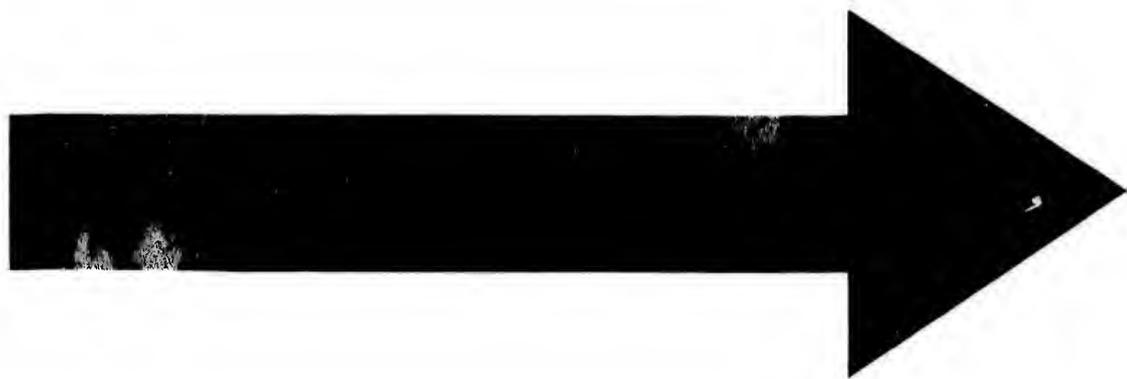
4. *Cape Aloes* is the produce of the *Aloe spicata*, which is found in great abundance in the interior of the Cape colony, and in Melinda. The latter furnishes the greater part of the extract sold in Europe under the name of Socotrine aloes. The odour of the Cape aloes is stronger and more disagreeable than that of the Socotrine; they have, also, a yellower hue on the outside; are less glossy; softer, and more pliable; the colour of the powder is more like that of gamboge than that of the true Socotrine aloes.—(*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Thomson's Dispensatory* and *Mat. Medica*.)

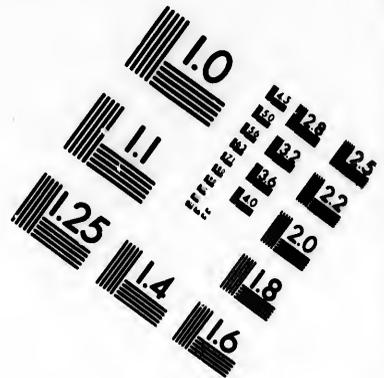
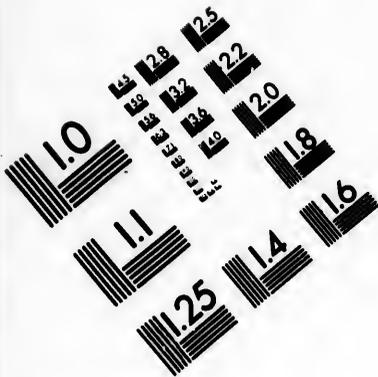
The entries of aloes for home consumption amounted, at an average of the years 1841 and 1842, to 170,780 lbs. a year. Previously to 1842 the duties were 2d. per lb. on those from a British possession, and 6d. on those from a foreign country; but they were then reduced to 1d. and 2d. per lb.

ALOES-WOOD (Ger. *Aloeholz*; Du. *Aloëhout*, *Paradyshout*; Fr. *Bois d'Alôës*; It. *Legno di Aloe*; Sp. *Alôe chino*; Lat. *Lignum Aloes*; Sans. *Aguru*; Malay, *Agila*; Siam. *Kiana*), the produce of a large forest tree, to be found in most of the countries between China and India, from the 24th degree of north latitude to the equator.

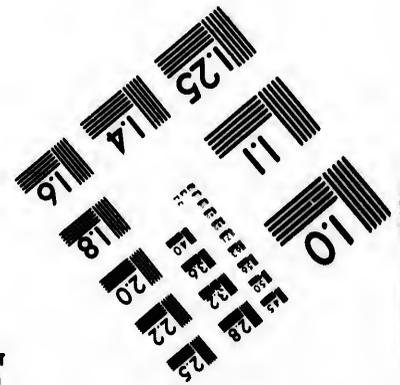
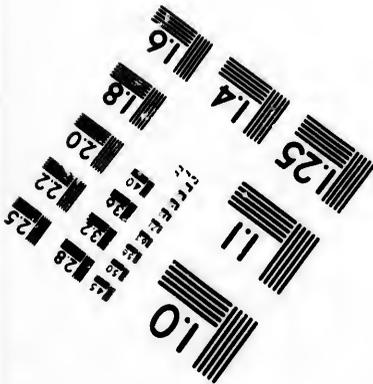
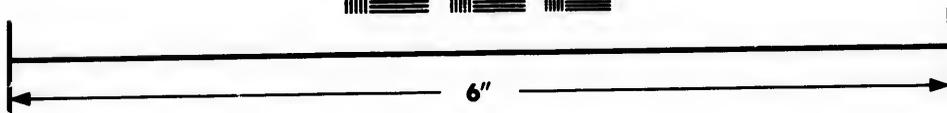
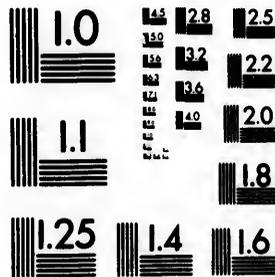
It seems to be the result of a diseased action confined to a small part of a few trees, of which the rest of the wood is wholly valueless. It appears to be more or less frequent according to soil and climate, and from the same causes to differ materially in quality. It is produced both in the greatest quantity and perfection in the countries and islands on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam. This article is in high repute for fumigations, and as incense, in all Hindu, Mohammedan, and Catholic countries. It formerly brought a very high price, being at one time reckoned nearly as valuable as gold. It is now comparatively cheap, though the finest specimens are still very dear. The accounts of this article in most books, even of good authority, are singularly contradictory and inaccurate. This is more surprising, as La Loubère has distinctly stated, that it consisted only of "certaines endroits corrompus dans des arbres d'une certaine espèce. Toute arbre de cette espèce n'est pas; et ce qui est corrompu, ne les ont pas tous en même endroits."—(Royaume de Siam, t. 1. p. 45. 12mo. ed.) The difficulty of finding the trees which happen to be diseased, and of getting at the diseased portion, has given rise to the fables that have been current as to its origin. The late Dr. Roxburgh introduced the tree which yields this production into the Botanical Garden at Calcutta, from the hills to the eastward of Sylhet, and described it under the name of *Aguilaria Agalocha*.

ALUM (Ger. *Alaun*; Du. *Aluin*; Fr. *Alun*; It. *Allume*; Sp. *Allumbre*; Rus. *Квасцъ*; Lat. *Alumen*; Arab. *Sheb*), a salt of great importance in the arts, consisting of a ternary compound of *aluminium*, or pure argillaceous earth, potash, and sulphuric acid. Alum is sometimes found native; but by far the greater part of that which is met with in commerce is artificially prepared. The best alum is the Roman, or that which is manufactured near Civita Vecchia, in the Papal territory. It is in irregular,





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octahedral, crystalline masses, about the size of a walnut, and is opaque, being covered on the surface with a farinaceous efflorescence. The Levant, or Roch alum, is in fragments, about the size of the former, but in which the crystalline form is more obscure; it is externally of a dirty rose-colour, and internally exhibits the same tinge, but clearer. It is usually shipped for Europe from Smyrna; but it was anciently made at Roccha, or Edessa, in Syria; and hence its name Roch alum. English alum is in large, irregular, semi-transparent, colourless masses, having a glassy fracture; not efflorescent, and considerably harder than the others. It is very inferior to either the Roman or Roch alum. The principal use of alum is in the art of dyeing, as a mordant for fixing and giving permanency to colours which otherwise would not adhere at all, or but for a very short time; but it is also used for a great variety of other purposes.

Beckmann has shown (*History of Inventions*, vol. 1, art. "Alum") that the ancients were unacquainted with alum, and that the substance which they designated as such was merely vitriolic earth. It was first discovered by the Orientals, who established alum works in Syria in the thirteenth or fourteenth century. The oldest alum works in Europe were erected about the middle of the fifteenth century. Towards the conclusion of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Thomas Chaloner established the first alum work in England, in the vicinity of Whitby, in Yorkshire, where the principal works of the sort in this country are still carried on; the shipments of alum from Whitby in 1641 amounted to 3,537 tons. There is, also, a large alum work at Hurler, near Paisley, the produce of which may be estimated at about 1,200 tons a year. Alum is largely manufactured in China, and is thence exported to all the western Asiatic countries. In 1837, 35,643 piculs (2,120 tons) were exported from Canton.

AMBER (Ger. *Bernstein*; Du. *Barnsteen*; Da. *Bernsteen*, *Rav.*; Fr. *Ambr jaune*; It. *Ambra gialla*; Sp. *Ambar*; Rus. *Jantar*; Pol. *Bursztyn*; Lat. *Succinum, Electrum*), a brittle, light, hard substance, usually nearly transparent, sometimes nearly colourless, but commonly yellow, or even deep brown. It has considerable lustre. Specific gravity 1.065. It is found in nodules or rounded masses, varying from the size of coarse sand to that of a man's hand. It is tasteless, without smell, except when pounded or heated, when it emits a fragrant odour. It is highly electric. Most authors assert that amber is bituminous; but Dr. Thomson states, that "it is undoubtedly of a vegetable origin; and though it differs from resins in some of its properties, yet it agrees with them in so many others, that it may without impropriety be referred to them."—(*Chemistry*, vol. iv. p. 147. 5th ed.)

Pieces of amber occasionally enclose parts of seeds and insects in their substance, which are beautifully preserved. It is principally found on the shores of Eomerania and Polish Prussia; but it is sometimes dug out of the earth in Ducal Prussia. It is also met with on the banks of the river Giarretta, in Sicily. Sometimes it is found on the east coast of Britain, and in gravel pits round London. The largest mass of amber ever found was got near the surface of the ground in Lithuania. It weighs 18 lbs., and is preserved in the royal cabinet at Berlin. Most of the amber imported into this country comes from the Baltic, but a small quantity comes from Sicily. Amber was in very high estimation among the ancients, but is now comparatively neglected.

AMBER-GRIS, or AMBER-GREASE (Ger. *Amber*; Du. *Amber*; Fr. *Ambergris*; It. *Ambra-grigia*; Sp. *Ambar-gris*; Lat. *Ambra, Ambra grisea*), a solid, opaque, generally ash-coloured, fatty, inflammable substance, variegated like marble, remarkably light, rugged and uneven in its surface, and has a fragrant odour when heated; it does not effervesce with acids, melts freely over the fire into a kind of yellow resin, and is hardly soluble in spirit of wine. It is found on the sea-coast, or floating on the sea, near the coasts of India, Africa, and Brazil, usually in small pieces, but sometimes in masses of 50 or 100 lbs. weight. "Various opinions have been entertained respecting its origin. Some affirmed that it was the concrete juice of a tree, others thought it a bitumen; but it is now considered as pretty well established that it is a concretion formed in the stomach or intestines of the *Physeter macrocephalus*, or spermaceti whale."—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.) Ambergris ought to be chosen in large pieces, of an agreeable odour, entirely grey on the outside, and grey with little black spots within. The purchaser should be very cautious, as this article is easily counterfeited with gums and other drugs.

AMETHYST (Ger. *Amethyst*; Fr. *Amethyste*; It. *Amatista*; Sp. *Ametista*; Lat. *Amethystus*), a precious stone, of which there are two species differing widely in quality and value.

The *Oriental amethyst* is a gem of the most perfect violet colour, and of extraordinary brilliancy and beauty. It is said to be as hard as the sapphire or ruby, with which it also corresponds in its form and specific gravity—(see *SAPPHIRE*), differing in colour merely. It has been met with in India, Persia, Siam, and other countries; but it is exceedingly scarce. That found in India is said by Pliny to be the best. (*Principatum amethysti Indice tenent*.—Nat. Hist. lib. xxxvii. cap. 9.) Mr. Mawe says he had rarely seen an oriental amethyst offered for sale, unless small and inferior in colour. Mr. Hope, the author of *Anastasis*, had in his cabinet the finest gem of this sort in Europe. This exquisite specimen exceeds an inch in its greatest diameter; in daylight it exhibits the most beautiful violet colour, while by candlelight it is a decided blue.

The *Occidental amethyst* is merely coloured crystal or quartz.—"When perfect, its colour resembles that of the violet, or purple grape; but it not unfrequently happens that the tinge is confined to one part of the stone only, while the other is left almost colourless. When it possesses a richness, clearness, and uniformity of hue, it is considered a gem of exquisite beauty; and as it occurs of considerable size, it is suited to all ornamental purposes. In specific gravity and hardness it bears no comparison with the oriental amethyst; it is also inferior in beauty and lustre; though I have often seen the common amethyst offered for sale as oriental. Brazil, Siberia, and Ceylon produce very fine amethysts: they are found in rolled pieces in the alluvial soil, and finely crystallised in fissures of rock. From the first of these localities, they have lately been imported in such quantities as considerably to diminish their

value; but as they are the only coloured stones, except garnets, that are worn with mourning, they still retain, when perfect, a distinguished rank among the precious gems. The present price of inferior light-coloured stones, in the rough state, is about 50s. per pound, whilst those of good quality sell at 10s. or 12s. per ounce. Amethysts calculated for brooches or seals may be purchased at from 15s. to two or three guineas each, for which, ten years ago, treble that sum would have been given."—(*Musee on Diamonds*, 3d ed. pp. 115—117.)

AMIANTHUS, ASBESTOS, or **MOUNTAIN FLAX**, a mineral of which there are several varieties, all more or less fibrous, flexible, and elastic. It is incombustible by a high degree of heat; and in antiquity the art was discovered of drawing the fibres into threads, and then weaving them into cloth. Pliny says that he had seen napkins made of this substance, which, when soiled, were thrown into the fire, and that they were better cleaned by this means than they could have been by washing! Hence it obtained from the Greeks the name of *Apuarros* (undefiled). Its principal use, as stated by Pliny, was to wrap the bodies of the dead previously to their being exposed on the funeral pile, that the ashes of the corpse might not be mixed with those of the wood. And in corroboration of this statement we may mention, that in 1702, a skull, some calcined bones, and a quantity of ashes, were found at Rome, in a cloth of amianthus nine Roman palms in length by seven in width. Its employment in this way was, however, confined to a few of the very richest families, incombustible cloth being very scarce, and bringing an enormously high price. *Rarum inventum, difficile textu propter brevitatem. Cùm inventum est, aequat pretia excellentium margaritarum.*—(Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xix. cap. 1.) The disuse of the practice of cremation, or of burning the dead, caused the manufacture of amianthine cloth to be neglected. Several moderns have, however, succeeded in making it; but, if it be not lost, the art is now rarely practised.—(For further particulars, see *Rees's Cyclopædia*.)

AMMONIACUM (Fr. *Gomme Ammoniaque*; It. *Gomma Ammoniac*; Sp. *Goma Ammoniac*; Lat. *Ammoniacum*; Arab. *Feshook*), a concrete resinous juice obtained from a plant resembling fennel, found in the north of Africa, Arabia, Persia, the East Indies, &c. Pliny says that it derived its name from its being produced in the vicinity of the temple of Jupiter Ammon in Africa.—(Hist. Nat. lib. xii. cap. 23.) It has a faint but not ungrateful smell; and a bitter, nauseous, sweet taste. The fragments are yellow on the outside and white within, brittle, and break with a vitreous fracture; their specific gravity is 1.207. The best ammoniacum is brought from Persia by Bombay and Calcutta, packed in cases and chests. It is in large masses, composed of small round fragments or tears; or in separate dry tears, which is generally considered a sign of its goodness. The tears should be white internally and externally, and free from seeds or other foreign substances. Reject that which is soft, dark-coloured, and foul. It is used principally in the materia medica, and the quantity imported is but small.—(*Rees's Cyclopædia*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Milburn's Orient. Com. &c.*)

AMMONIAC (SAL). See **ALKALIES** (*Muriate of Ammonia*).

AMMUNITION, a term expressive of the various implements used in war.

No ammunition can be imported into the United Kingdom by way of merchandise, except by licence from his Majesty, for furnishing his Majesty's stores only, under penalty of forfeiture.—(3 & 4 *Will. 4*. cap. 52. § 58.) His Majesty may forbid, by order in council, the exportation of any saltpetre, gunpowder, or any sort of ammunition. Any master of a vessel exporting ammunition when so forbidden, shall for every such offence forfeit 100*l.*—(29 *Geo. 2*. c. 16.)

AMSTERDAM, the principal city of Holland, situated on the Y, an arm of the Zuyder Zee, in lat. 52° 22' 17" N., long. 4° 53' 15" E. From 1580 to 1750, Amsterdam was, perhaps, the first commercial city of Europe; and though her trade has experienced a great falling off since the last-mentioned epoch, it is still very considerable. In 1785, the population is said to have amounted to 235,000; in 1815 it had declined to 180,179; but its increase in the interval has been such, that it amounted in 1840 to 210,077. The harbour is spacious and the water deep; and it has recently been much improved by the construction of docks, two of which are already completed, and a third in a very advanced state. Owing, however, to a bank (the Pampus) where the Y joins the Zuyder Zee, large vessels going or coming by that sea are obliged to load and unload a part of their cargoes in the roads. The navigation of the Zuyder Zee is also, by reason of its numerous shallows, very intricate and difficult; and as there were no hopes of remedying this defect, it became necessary to resort to other means for improving the access to the port. Of the various plans suggested for this purpose, the preference was given to the scheme for cutting a canal capable of admitting the largest class of merchantmen, from the north side of the port of Amsterdam to Newdiep, opposite to the Texel, and a little to the east of the Helder. This canal has fully answered the views of the projectors, and has proved of signal service to Amsterdam, by enabling large ships to avoid the Pampus, as well as the difficult navigation of the Zuyder Zee, where they were frequently detained for three weeks, and to get to and from Newdiep without any sort of risk in less than 24 hours. The canal was begun

in 1819, and completed in 1825. It has 5 sluices large enough to admit ships of the line; the dues and charges on account of towing, &c. being at the same time very moderate. At Newdiep the water is deeper than in any other port on the coast of Holland, and ships are there in the most favourable position for getting expeditiously to sea.—(See CANALS.) The imports principally consist of sugar, coffee, spices, tobacco, cotton, tea, indigo, cochineal, wine and brandy, wool, grain of all sorts, timber, pitch and tar, hemp and flax, iron, hides, linen, cotton and woollen stuffs, hardware, rock salt, tin plates, coal, dried fish, &c. The exports consist partly of the produce of Holland, partly and principally of the produce of her possessions in the East and West Indies, and other tropical countries, and partly of commodities brought to Amsterdam, as to a convenient *entrepôt* from different parts of Europe. Of the first class are cheese and butter (very important articles), madder, clover, rape, hemp, and linseeds, rape and linseed oils, Dutch linen, &c. Geneva is principally exported from Schiedam and Rotterdam; oak bark principally from the latter. Of the second class are spices, coffee, and sugar, principally from Java, but partly also from Surinam, Brazil, and Cuba; indigo, cochineal, cotton, tea, tobacco, and all sorts of eastern and colonial products. And of the third class, all kinds of grain, linens from Germany, timber and all sorts of Baltic produce; Spanish, German, and English wools; French, Rhenish, and Hungarian wines, brandy, &c. The trade of Amsterdam may, indeed, be said to comprise every article that enters into the commerce of Europe. Her merchants were formerly the most extensive dealers in bills of exchange; and though London be now, in this respect, far superior to Amsterdam, the latter still enjoys a respectable share of this business.

The Bank of the Netherlands was established at Amsterdam in 1814. It is not, like the old Bank of Amsterdam, which ceased in 1796, merely a bank of deposit, but a bank of deposit and circulation formed on the model of the Bank of England. Its capital, which originally amounted to 5,000,000 fl., was doubled in 1819. It has the exclusive privilege of issuing notes. Its original charter, which was limited to 25 years, was prolonged in 1838 for 25 years more.

For an account of the Dutch fisheries, see the articles HERRING FISHERY and WHALE FISHERY.

About 250 or 260 large ships belong to Amsterdam; they are employed in the East and West India trades, and in trading to the Baltic, the Mediterranean, &c. There is comparatively little coasting trade at Amsterdam, the communication with most other ports in the vicinity being principally kept up by canals, and that with Friesland by regular packets.

The following account (No. II.) of the value of the trade of Amsterdam in 1840 (given in Macgregor's Tariff for Holland) was derived from returns transmitted by the French consul at Amsterdam to his government. We do not know the precise degree of credit to which it may be entitled, though we are inclined to think that it is not far from accurate. This, however, is certainly not the case with the account taken by Mr. Macgregor from the same source of the navigation of Amsterdam in 1840. It states, for example, that 4,177 ships, of which 1,062 were English, entered the port in the course of that year; whereas in point of fact only 2,198 ships entered the port, and of these (though we have no exact return), the English were considerably under 300.—(Private communications from Holland.) It is really, however, not a little difficult to get any authentic information as to the present state of Dutch commerce. Government rarely publishes any statements having reference to it; and those of private parties are not always to be depended on.

1. Account of the Value of the Principal Articles Imported into and exported from Amsterdam, in 1840.

Imports.	Fl.		L.		Exports.	Fl.		L.	
Sugar	84,170,000	4,014,185			Sugar (Refined)	23,890,000	1,985,000		
Coffee	80,900,800	1,985,355			Sugar (Raw)	1,894,000	149,533		
	854,800	71,235			Coffee	9,469,950	788,511		
Cotton					Cotton	6,459,000	586,500		
Wool	758,500	61,518			Wool	907,500	73,668		
Thread and Twist of	133,000	16,068			Thread and Twist of	11,000,000	68,117		
Silk	18,000	1,093			Wool	147,500	12,024		
Other Articles	8,718,500	78,963			Other Articles	136,900	11,350		
Tobacco	4,657,900	404,925			Other Articles	7,271,500	608,958		
Dyes and Colours	4,681,900	585,967			Cheese and Butter				
Metals, raw and manufactured	895,800	68,800			Metals, raw and manufactured	857,900	69,767		
Nails, Iron Wire, and Ironmongery	3,128,000	269,420			Nails, Iron Wire, and Ironmongery	2,708,800	225,590		
Other Metals	2,767,500	219,848			Other Metals	3,141,500	261,799		
Grain (Wheat, Rye, and Meal)	185,800	11,211			Oils	8,011,000	659,917		
Barley, Oats, &c.	2,902,150	465,038			Dyes and Colours	709,000	58,067		
Seed, oleaginous	8,798,400	235,185			In Leaves (exotic)	792,000	65,028		
Woods, manufactured		139,987			In Stalks (indigenous)	450,000	35,835		
Wine	1,919,850	96,499			Spices and Provisions	1,245,000	117,065		
Spirits (Brandy and Alcohol)	517,150	86,499							
Spices and Provisions	1,921,650	180,177							
Wine	1,785,000	143,817							
Leather and Hides	1,735,500	145,799							
Cotton and Wool	1,380,150	118,019							
Tea	1,145,800	86,497							
Hemp and Linen	1,045,000	85,117							

II. An Account of the Value of Imports into and Exports from Amsterdam, in 1840; distinguishing those from and to each Country.

Countries.	Imports, in Florins and Sterling.		Exports, in Florins and Sterling.	
	Fl.	£.	Fl.	£.
Germany and the Rhine	4,871,800	732,600	24,156,500	2,015,748
England	5,141,600	498,467	3,847,750	76,838
Hanse Towns	6,271,500	780,958	6,177,850	601,471
United States	2,571,500	423,533	1,115,500	92,938
Tlascany	174,850	14,229		
Sardinian States	146,000	12,167		
Italy	29,150	3,229	6,315,000	692,750
Austria				
Two Sicilies				
Roman States				
West India	8,017,750	668,148	488,400	40,700
Cuba and Porto Rico	185,850	10,281		
Haiti				
Other Places				
Prussia	4,287,850	263,813	4,241,400	363,483
France	3,807,600	217,300	4,795,100	399,492
Hanover	2,248,500	218,125	1,475,500	145,292
Russia	3,141,850	261,921		
South America	1,052,150	87,679	61,700	6,148
Brazil				
Rio de la Plata				
Other Places				
Norway	3,118,500	259,875	407,400	33,980
Sweden	406,150	23,846	315,700	25,208
Denmark	1,839,600	111,030	776,100	61,745
Portugal	995,400	89,958	379,000	31,000
Spain and Canary Isles	639,500	44,058	441,000	36,750
China	565,500	47,123		
Belgium	484,500	25,263		
Turkey	13,000	1,000		
Other Countries (Foreign)	189,850	16,219		
Dutch India	85,176,000	2,859,667	6,139,500	761,625
Eastern			1,907,500	154,938
Western	6,286,600	468,875		
Total	95,339,500	7,944,938	74,701,000	6,225,083

How deficient soever, the previous statements show that Amsterdam still continues to preserve no inconsiderable portion of her former importance as a commercial city. The extent of her transit trade cannot fail to attract the reader's attention; the more especially as Rotterdam, from her situation on the Meuse, and her greater facilities of communication with the interior, has very superior advantages for the prosecution of this department of commercial industry. Subjoined is

An Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce (exclusive of Manufactured Goods) imported into Amsterdam, in 1842.

Ashes	7,563	barls.	Sprits, Spirit 3-4ths		373	cacks.	
Barley	2,699	lasts.	Brandy		294	cacks.	
Buckwheat	648	lasts.	Arrack		510	cacks.	
Cinnamon	212	pkgs.	Rum		623	pkunch.	
Cloves	51	sur.	Sugar, E. I.	14,028	mts.	1,021	bx.
Cochnial	21	sur.	Peruina			105,892	ba.
Cocoa	29	barls.	Havana			510	ba.
Cod Oil	13,723	barls.	Brazil	570	baggs.	7,403	barls.
Coffee, E. I.	215	barls.	W. I.			4,227	cacks.
W. I. & Bras.	210	barls.	Tar			21,600	barls.
Surinam	498	barls.	Tin			15,028	pkgs.
Copper	80,743	baggs.	Tin			49,180	ba.
Cotton	30,903	balcs.	Tobacco, American			17,432	blnds.
Cow-hair	1,272	balcs.	W. I.			8,153	balcs.
Hides	116,811	pces.	Java			6,249	balcs.
Indigo	18	sur.	Turmeric			200	baggs.
Iron, Swed. & Russian	12,224	bars.	Turpentine			1,024	barls.
English	160,904	bars.	Whale Oil			54,000	hect.
Lead	16,739	slabs.	Wheat			3,086	lasts.
Mace	310	cacks.	Spanish			5,266	blnds.
Nutmegs	721	cacks.	Languedoc			1,245	cacks.
Olive Oil	671	cacks.	Oporto			61	cacks.
Peachy	89,000	busb.	Teneriffe	542	barls.	1,078	pps.
Palm Oil	978	cacks.	Sapan			599	pps.
Pepper	5,936	baggs.	Woods, Log			1,218	tons.
Pitch	1,800	barls.	Fustic			266	tons.
Pimento	803	baggs.	Japan			250	tons.
Quercitron Bark	201	cacks.	Rio de la Hacha			200	tons.
Raisins	6,480	drms.	Lima Nicaragua			35	tons.
Rice, Java	40,222	baggs.	Red Saunders			216	tons.
American	5,353	cacks.	Brazil			10	tons.
Rosin	10,434	barls.	Wool			3,748	balcs.
Rye	8,472	lasts.					

These imports were effected by 2,156 vessels; viz. 2 from China and Manila; 96 from Java, &c.; 74 from Surinam, &c.; 20 from South America; 28 from Cuba, &c.; 73 from the United States; 61 from the Levant, Italy, Spain, and Portugal; 85 from Franca; 66 from Liverpool and London, &c. — (From the Brokers Returns.)

Expenses of Ships in Amsterdam. — The expenses of a ship of 300 English tons, or 158 Dutch lasts, with a mixed cargo on board, inwards and outwards, coming and departing by the canal, were, in 1842, nearly as follows: —

	Arriving from Great Britain.			Arriving from the Mediterranean.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Lock dues in the canal, and charges — inwards	4	10	0	8	10	0
Ditto " " outwards	1	10	0	5	10	0
Measuring the ship	1	10	0	1	10	0
Tonnage dues, inwards and outwards	25	18	0	25	18	0
A charge called port money	1	18	0	0	0	0
Haven money	0	13	6	0	13	6
Quay or lay money	1	8	0	1	8	0
Permit to consume provisions free of excise dues	0	8	0	0	8	0
Clearance	0	6	0	0	12	6
Expenses of clearing, &c.	2	18	0	2	18	0
Total	£.41	0	6	£.48	16	0

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in 1840.

£.
985,000
140,322
789,281
286,000
75,698
68,112
12,224
16,350
608,938
69,767
24,250
261,792
260,917
55,267
66,058
35,833
112,083

There is besides, the merchants' and brokers' commission on receiving and preparing freight, generally settled by agreement. The average duty is 45 cents (1d.) the Netherlands ton (nearly equal to the British) inwards, and the same outwards, with the addition of the franchise duty of 15 cents per ton on native ships, and by ships belonging to countries which have reciprocity treaties with Holland. Others pay 57½ cents (11½d.) per ton inwards, and the same outwards, every way.

The charge called port money is payable half on entry, and half on departure; and that called haven money the same. The hire of a berth for towing along the whole line of the canal amounts to 18 flor. 40 cents, or about 11s.

Quarantine. — The quarantine station is at the island of Wieringen, near the Heider. Commission. — The usual rate of the commission or brokerage on the purchase or sale of goods is 3 per cent., and on bill transactions 1 and 1½ per cent., according to their nature.

Profits of the firms are abundant at Amsterdam, and reasonably cheap. The wages of ships' carpenters vary from 1 flor. 20 cents to 1 flor. 40 cents a day, from about 12s. to 1s. 4s. a day.

For an account of the coin trade of Amsterdam, see COIN TRADE AND COIN LAWS. Custom-house Regulations. — Captains of ships are bound to make within 24 hours of their arrival at Amsterdam, or any Dutch port, a declaration in writing of the goods of which their cargo consists. If the captain be not acquainted with the goods of which the cargo consists, they must make their declaration under the general term of *warenhout*, and exhibit the bill of lading along with the declaration. The Custom-house officers are instructed to inform the captain of all formalities required by law.

The ships entering Amsterdam during each of the 6 years ending with 1848 have been, —

Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.
1847	- 1,033	1849	- 2,335	1841	- 2,131
1848	- 2,074	1840	- 2,198	1840	- 2,166

Of these ships by far the largest number come from ports on the Baltic and the North Sea. The numbers entering in 1848 from the more distant countries are specified above.

The warehousing system has long been established in Amsterdam; and all goods, whether for home consumption or transit, may be deposited in bonded warehouses. It is, however, material to observe that merchandise re-exported by sea or by the Rhine has no transit duty to pay; whereas a small transit duty is payable on all merchandises re-exported by roads, canals, or otherwise than by the Rhine, for the interior; but the impression is that this duty will at no distant period be repealed. Speaking generally, goods can only be kept in bonded warehouses for two years; but grain of all kinds may be kept for an unlimited period. The warehouse rent chargeable per month on a quarter of wheat is, on an upper loft, 1d. and 3-6ths on an under loft. On a ton (Eng.) of sugar the charge is 1s. 1 in large lots.

The docks and its adjacent warehouses, belonging to the *Entrepté General*, or establishment for warehousing goods imported by sea or intended to be re-exported by sea or by the Rhine, are large and commodious. The dock has water to float the largest ships, and the dues and other charges are exceedingly moderate. Merchants may employ their own men or those of the dock in loading and unloading; and may either place their property in separate vaults or floors of which they keep the key, or entrust it to the care of the dock officers.

Dutch Trading Company. — A large proportion of the foreign trade of Holland has been for a considerable period engrossed by the large trading company called the *Nederlandsche Handelsmaatschappij*, created in 1694. Its capital, which consisted originally of 37 millions flor., was reduced in 1824 to 34 millions do.; but as the company borrowed 10 millions flor. in 1836, and 13 millions more in 1837, its capital consists at present of 47 millions fl. At first it extended its operations to America and the West Indies, as well as to the East Indies. But it has latterly very much contracted the scale of its operations; and having lent 40 millions of its capital to government, it is now merely the agent employed by the latter to bring home and sell that part of the produce of Java which, under the new colonial system, belongs to the state, and to carry on the trade with Japan, which, however, is of little or no value. The company has no ships of its own, but chartered those of private individuals. Its charges on importation are limited to certain fixed rates.

This company is believed to be principally indebted for its existence to the late king, who held a tenth part of the shares, and who, to encourage the undertaking, guaranteed the shareholders a dividend of 4½ per cent. It is, however, to be little doubted that it were better had it never existed. Government might have directly chartered the ships of private parties to bring home the produce of Java, on any conditions it might have chosen to specify, under a system of open competition, which would have been ten times more advantageous to itself and to the public. It has no doubt been said, that owing to the demand of the company the trade and shipping of Holland have increased so much; that while Holland and Belgium had together in 1820 only 1,76 vessels (exclusive of fishing boats) of the burden of 146,000 tons, Holland alone had on the 1st of January, 1840, no fewer than 1,524 vessels of the burden of 370,676 tons. But this is altogether illusory; the company has, in fact, had nothing to do with this increase, which, as every body knows, has been wholly a consequence of the astonishing increase of produce in Java, and of the plan pursued of bringing it home to Holland for sale. The privileges conferred upon or usurped by the company are so many encroachments on the rights of individuals, and obstruct that private enterprise and free competition that are the soul of trade. It seems, indeed, to be the general opinion of all the most intelligent persons in Holland unconnected with the company, that the sooner it is dissolved the better; and now that it has lost its most powerful protector, this event is probably not very distant.

The business of insurance is extensively practised at Amsterdam; the premiums are moderate, and the security unexceptionable. The high duty imposed in this country on policies of insurance has contributed to the increase of this business in Holland.

Credit Discount, &c. — Holland is, and has always been, a country of short credit. A discount is usually given for prompt payment, at the rate of 1 per cent. for six weeks, and of 2 per cent. for two months; but the terms of credit on most articles, and the discount allowed for ready money, have been fixed by usage, and are regulated as essential conditions in every bargain. Some of the more important of these terms and discounts are specified in the following table. In consequence of the preference given in Holland to ready money transactions, it is not a country in which adventures without capital have much chance of speedily making a fortune. *« Rien en effet, de plus facile que d'établir à Amsterdam un malin et plus difficile que de s'y enlever sans des grandes ressources. Dans cette ville, où l'argent abonde, où on le prête contre les arbres à élim marche, il est cependant impossible de se faire un grand crédit, et il n'y a que de rares possibilités d'y parvenir, que de trouver quelque un qui veuille se charger d'un papier nouveau qui se sert pas appuyé d'un crédit que l'opinion, la protection, ou des autres raisons soient valoir à la bourse. Les Hollandais suivent la même des maximes très sages, même à l'égard des maisons d'usure considérables qu'ils ont fondées. Commerce, &c. p. 623. »* But this equality to not a disadvantage, but the reverse. It prevents commerce from degenerating, as it has too often done in other places, into gambling adventures, and places it on a comparatively solid foundation. And it should be mentioned to the honour of the Dutch, and as a proof of the excellence of this system, that notwithstanding its strictness and loss of trade consequent on the invasion and occupation of their country by the French, the bankruptcies in 1795 and subsequent years were not, comparatively, so numerous as in England in ordinary seasons. The regulations in the Code Napoleon as to bankruptcy are enforced in Holland.

It has long been the practice in Holland to melt, on certain articles, considerable deductions from their weight, particularly from those of large bulk, as compared with their value. These rates and drafts, as they are termed, are now fixed by ancient usage; and the most important amongst them are here specified.

Tare and Allowance on the principal Articles sold at Amsterdam.		Coffee, East and West	
Tare.	Allowance.	India in general	bag 3 per cent., 10 lbs. real tare.
Ashes	48 lbs per cask	Bourbon	10 lbs. per original; 4 lbs. per punny; 10 lbs. per bale.
Barilla	per cent.	Cotton, Surat and Bengal	2 per cent. — 2 per cent.
Cocoa, Camero	48 lbs.	all other kinds	2 per cent.
Marrubian	ditto	Cotton yarn twist	1 per cent.
Myrrine	ditto	Indigo, Bengal	real tare
Nativique	ditto		
Surinam	6 per cent.		

Cochineal.....	3 & 4 lbs.	4 per cent. and 1 per cent. deduct.
Galls.....	6 lbs. or 30 lbs.	1 per cent.
Gums, Benzoin.....	6 lbs., 14 lbs. or 21 lbs.	2 per cent. and 2 per cent.
Harbury.....	14 lbs. or 30 lbs.	1 per cent.
Indigo.....	2 and 8 per cent.	2 per cent.
Resin, Benzoin, Myrrh, &c.....	12 lbs. per hide	2 per cent. and 1 per cent.
Linens, Flemish.....	—	1 per cent.
Oil, all other kinds.....	—	1 per cent.
Rice, Carolina.....	real tare	2 per cent. and 2 per cent.
East India.....	6 lbs.	1 per cent.
Saltpetre.....	5 & 14 lbs.	1 per cent. and 1 1/2 per cent.
Liquorice.....	real tare and 4 lbs.	2 per cent. and 1 per cent.
Spices, pepper.....	25 lbs. or 12 lbs.	1 per cent.
cinnamon.....	45 lbs. and above	1 per cent.
nutmeg.....	15 per cent.	1 per cent.
ginger.....	12 lbs. & 16 lbs.	2 per cent.
Sugars, Martinique.....	18 per cent.	2 per cent.
St. Domingo.....	—	2 per cent.
St. Croix.....	—	2 per cent.
Surinam.....	—	2 per cent.
English Colonies.....	20 per cent.	2 per cent. and 2 per cent.
Demerara.....	—	2 per cent.
Berbice.....	—	2 per cent.
Essequibo.....	—	2 per cent.
Brazil, white.....	—	2 per cent.
Ditto, Muscovado.....	—	18 months' discount, 2 per cent. and 2 per cent.
Havannah.....	80 lbs.	2 per cent. and 2 per cent.
Java.....	48 lbs.	2 per cent.
Salt.....	100 lbs.	2 per cent.
Tea, bohea.....	—	1 per cent.
ouchong.....	21 lbs. & 24 lbs.	—
camphir.....	18 lbs.	1 per cent.
hyson.....	18 lbs. & 49 lbs.	—
peltoc.....	—	2 per cent. and 1 per cent. damaged, and 1 per cent.
tonquin.....	—	1 per cent.
Tobacco, Maryland.....	casks tared	2 per cent. and 1 per cent. damaged, and 1 per cent.
Virginia.....	2 and 8 per cent.	—
Tin plates.....	2 per cent.	21 months' discount, and 1 per cent.
Wool, Spanish.....	bags tared, and 24 lbs. per 175 lbs.	1 per cent.
Wines.....	—	1 per cent. per cask, and 2 per cent.
Madder.....	casks tared.....	2 per cent. and 4 per cent.
Herrings.....	5 or 2 per cent.	2 per cent.
Smalts.....	56 lbs.	1 per cent.
Flax, hams, seeds, &c.....	—	1 per cent.
Nerve, grain.....	—	none.
Butter.....	—	2 and 1 per cent.
Hides.....	—	2 per cent.
Cheese, Dutch.....	—	1 per cent.
Golds.....	—	1 per cent.

The above are the customary terms and other allowances made by the merchants in their transactions with each other. But in paying the import duties at the Custom-house, the tare upon goods paying duty by weight is, with the exceptions un-dermentioned, fixed at 15 per cent. for such as are in casks or barrels, and at 8 per cent. for such as are in packages, canisters, mats, barrels, &c. Merchants dissatisfied with these allowances may pay the duty according to the real weight, ascertained by the customs officers at their expense.

Exemption.—The tare upon gold imported in sacks is fixed at 2 per cent.
Porcelain, 15 per cent.
Indigo in chests, 25 per cent.
 in barrels, 15 per cent.
 chests from Havannah 12 per cent., other places 20 per cent.
Sugar in casks, 10 per cent.
 cansets and packages, 15 and 8 per cent. The tare upon sugar refined in the interior and exported, is 12 per cent. per barrel, 5 per cent. per package.
Allowance for Sackage are made upon all liquids, including treacle and honey, as follows, viz. 1. 1 per cent.
Coming from England, the northern parts of Europe, and France, by inland navigation, 6 per cent.
From France by sea, and from other countries by the rivers Rhine and Waal, 12 per cent.

We subjoin an account illustrative of the amount of the trade of the United Kingdom with Holland. The greater part of this trade is, however, carried on with Rotterdam, which is more favourably situated for the intercourse with this country than Amsterdam. (See Table next page.)

Magnitude of the Commerce of Holland in the Seventeenth Century.—Causes of its Prosperity and Decline.—We believe we need make no apology for embracing this opportunity to lay before our readers the following details with respect to the commerce and commercial policy of Holland. It forms one of the most instructive topics of investigation; and it is to be regretted that so little attention should have been paid to it in this country.

From any other port or place, 14 per cent. Finally, from whatever place the same may come, upon trials of 12 per cent. 1 bladder, 6 per cent.

In case liquids shall have experienced, upon the voyage, such leakage as shall cause the importer to be dissatisfied with the allowance before specified, he is permitted to pay the duty upon the actual quantity, to be ascertained by the officers at the importer's option.

Money.—Accounts used to be kept at Amsterdam by the pound Flemish = 8 florins = 100 schillings = 100 stivers = 240 grains = 1,280 pennies. But in 1820 the decimal system was introduced. In order, however, to cause as little inconvenience as possible, the former mode of weighing was made the unit of the new system. The florin is supposed to be divided into 100 equal parts or cents; and the other silver coins are equal multiples or sub-multiples of it. The new gold coin is called the *florin piece*, and is worth 104. very nearly. But accounts are still sometimes kept in the old way, or by the pound Flemish. For of exchange between Amsterdam and London is 11 flor. 50 cents per pound sterling.

Weights and Measures.—In 1820, the French system of weights and measures was introduced into the Netherlands, the names only being changed.

The *pond* is the unit of weight, and answers to the French *livre*. Its divisions are the *once*, *loot*, *wijgje*, and *korrel*.

The *elle*, which is the unit or element of long measure, equals the French *metre*. Its decimal divisions are the *palm*, *quain*, and *strop*; and its decimal multiples, the *roede* and *mille*.

The *vierkante elle*, or square ell, is the unit of superficial measure; and answers to the *are* of the *metre* of France. Its divisions are the *viertje palm*, *viertje quain*, and the *viertje strop*; and its multiples, the *viertje roede* and *viertje mille*.

The *kubieke elle* is the unit of measure or capacity; and equals the French *stere*. Its divisions are the *kubieke palm*, *kubieke quain*, and *kubieke strop*.

The term *voet* is given to a kubieke elle of fire-wood.

The *rop* is the unit of measure for dry ware, and is the cube of the *palm*; answering to the French *hecto*. Its divisions are the *maatje*, and its multiples the *schepel* and *mudder*; the latter is also called the *sak*, and equals the French *hecto*.

30 mudders make 1 last.

The *ton* is the unit for liquid measure, and is the cube of the *palm*; it corresponds to the French *hecto*. Its divisions are the *maatje* and *vingerhoed*, and 100 *maatje* make a *vat* or *cask*, which equals the French *hecto*.

The apothecary's new pound is 15 ounces, 96 drachms, 258 scruples, or 5,760 grains; and answers to 375 grammes, or 5,760 English grains.

By the old method of calculating, which is not yet entirely superseded, the pound of Amsterdam was = to 1.09 lb. avoirdupois, or 100 lb. Amsterdam = 109.923 lb. avoirdupois; and the last or measure for corn = 37 mudden = 10 quarts. 64 bushels Winchester measure. The *aan* liquid measure = 4 ankers = 8 scheekens = 21 vierkante = 64 scoops or stoppen = 281 mingles = 256 pint = 41 English wine gallons.

The *strop* contains 5 1/2 pint English measure. 100 mingles are equal to 34 English wine gallons, or 65 1/2 English beer gallons, or 33 3/4 Imperial gallons.

French wine is sold per *hoppel* of 180 mingles. Spanish and Portuguese wine, per *strop* of 49 ditto.

French brandy per *hoppel* of 20 vierkante. Beer, per *barrel* (equal to the *aan*) 180 ditto.

Vegetable oil, per *aan*, of 180 ditto. Whale oil, per *ditto*, 18 ditto.

Rain is sold per *oster* of 9 stecken = 10 English wine gallons. The foot of Amsterdam = 11 1/7-th English inches.

The *Rijnland* foot = 19 cm. The *eil*, cloth measure = 27 1/4 ditto.

Rick sack is sold per *honderd* of 400 maaten, making 20 tons, or 4,000 lbs. Dutch.

Red coal is sold per *hond* of 36 maaten; nine honds are five chaldrons of Newcastle, or six honds are five chaldrons of London.

Butter is sold per *barrel*; the barrel of Leyden is 380 lb. nett — that of Friesland 30 lb. nett — and the common Dutch barrel 326 lb. gross.

A last of herrings is reckoned at 12, 15, or 14 barrels. A last of fish is 12 barrels.

A last of tar, 13 barrels. A bag of seed = 24 Winchester quarters.

A last for freight is reckoned 4,000 lbs., equal to two English tons.

Eight hoppels (or *onhoes*) of wine Twelve barrels of pitch are reckoned Thirteen barrels of tar as one last

Twenty chests of lemons, &c. 4,000 lbs. of iron, copper, and colonial produce of the freight 4,000 lbs. of almonds 4,000 lbs. of wool or feathers

A last of wheat is considered 10 per cent. higher than one of rye, and the latter 20 per cent. higher than oats, and 12 per cent. higher than seed. A last of ballast is only 2,000 lbs.

These details have been derived from the answers by the British consuls to the circular queries of the *Dictionnaire de Commerce* (Ency. Method.), tom. II. pp. 554—560.; *Kelly's Cambist*, private information, &c.

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles imported into the United Kingdom from Holland in 1839, 1840, and 1841; and of the Quantities and Declared Value of the Principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the United Kingdom to Holland in 1839, 1840, and 1841.

IMPORTS FROM HOLLAND.								
Articles.	1839.	1840.	1841.	Articles.	1839.	1840.	1841.	
	Quantities.	Quantities.	Quantities.		Quantities.	Quantities.	Quantities.	
Bark for Tanning or Dyeing	cwt. 194,153	171,785	136,379	Madder	cwt. 50,969	47,375	32,334	
Butter	—	179,329	187,908	164,658	Nutmegs	—	25,148	28,909
Cheese	—	899,547	878,937	853,540	Clover Seed	—	18,008	21,190
Corn, Wheat	—	118,160	50,618	101,983	Flaxseed and Linseed	bush. 25,198	26,727	49,344
Barley	—	13,037	5,584	8,358	Silk, Raw and Waste	—	84,118	89,860
Oats	—	101,336	50,615	11,850	Genera Optina	—	975,554	676,404
Pean and Beans	—	19,109	19,684	11,079	Rhenish Wine	—	79,889	79,849
Flax and Tow, or Cordilla of Hemp and Flax	cwt. 160,48	117,108	120,065					

EXPORTS TO HOLLAND.						
Articles.	1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Brass and Copper Manufactures	cwt. 23,555	£. 114,675	25,819	£. 111,164	30,406	£. 179,176
Coals, Culin, and Cinders	—	180,318	64,533	305,577	175,378	28,333
Cotton Manufactures, entered by the yard	—	27,515,446	605,613	25,335,489	640,746	28,317,244
Cotton Hosiery, Lace, and Sewal Wares	—	70,983	—	61,475	—	19,438
Cotton Twist and Yarn	—	21,195,319	1,739,480	21,774,633	1,644,119	21,739,383
Earthenware of all Sorts	—	2,339,039	25,230	5,201,532	38,905	4,101,144
Hardware and Cutlery	—	7,363	25,656	7,436	34,916	5,947
Iron and Steel, Wrought and Unwrought	—	35,658	299,498	26,014	234,769	36,846
Lead and Shot	—	313	8,069	1,154	27,533	1,719
Linen Yarn	—	2,187,577	695,028	2,396,998	66,154	2,284,811
Machinery and Mill Work	—	799,166	11,635	1,109,940	14,923	1,111,094
Salt	—	725,165	61,498	215,513	25,635	1,964,080
Woolen and Worsted Yarn	—	145,496	227,623	135,187	228,950	175,887
Manufactures entered by the Piece	—	330,575	19,488	251,306	32,003	436,898
All other Articles	—	—	169,133	—	174,410	—
Total Declared Value		£. 2,563,798		£. 5,616,190		£. 5,610,877

Previously to the commencement of the long-continued and glorious struggle made by the Dutch to emancipate themselves from the blind and brutal despotism of Old Spain, they had a considerable marine, and had attained to distinction by their fisheries and commerce; and the war, instead of being injurious to the trade of the republic, contributed powerfully to its extension. After the capture of Antwerp by the Spaniards, in 1585, the extensive commerce of which it had been the centre was removed to the ports of Holland, and principally to Amsterdam, which then attained to the distinction she long enjoyed, of the first commercial city of Europe.

In 1602, the Dutch East India Company was formed; and notwithstanding the pernicious influence of that association, the Indian trade increased rapidly in magnitude and importance. Ships fitted either for commercial or warlike purposes, and having a considerable number of soldiers on board, were sent out within a few years of the establishment of the company. Amboyna and the Moluccas were first wrested from the Portuguese, and with them the Dutch obtained the monopoly of the spice trade. Factories and fortifications were in no long time established, from Bussorah, near the mouth of the Tigris, in the Persian Gulph, along the coasts and islands of India as far as Japan. Alliances were formed with several of the Indian princes; and in many parts, particularly on the coasts of Ceylon, and in various districts of Malabar and Coromandel, they were themselves the sovereigns. Batavia, in the large and fertile island of Java, the greater part of which had been conquered by the Dutch, formed the centre of their Indian commerce; and though unhealthy, its port was excellent, and it was admirably situated for commanding the trade of the Eastern Archipelago. In 1651, they planted a colony at the Cape of Good Hope, which had been strangely neglected by the Portuguese.

Every branch of commerce was vigorously prosecuted by the Dutch. Their trade with the Baltic was, however, by far the most extensive and lucrative of which they were in possession. Guicciardini mentions that the trade with Poland, Denmark, Prussia, &c., even before their revolt, was so very great, that fleets of 300 ships arrived twice a year at Amsterdam from Dantzic and Livonia only; but it increased prodigiously during the latter part of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries. The great population of Holland, and the limited extent and unfruitful nature of the soil, render the inhabitants dependent on foreigners for the greater part of their supplies of corn. The countries round the Baltic have always furnished them with the principal part of those supplies; and it is from them that they have been in the habit of bringing timber, iron, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, tallow, ashes, and other bulky articles required in the building of their houses and ships, and in various ma-

manufactures. Nothing, however, redounds so much to the credit of the Dutch, as the policy they have invariably followed with respect to the trade in corn. They have, at all times, had a large capital embarked in this business. The variations which are perpetually occurring in the harvests, early led them to engage very extensively in a sort of speculative corn trade. When the crops happened to be unusually productive, and prices low, they bought and stored up large quantities of grain, in the expectation of profiting by the advance that was sure to take place on the occurrence of an unfavourable year. Repeated efforts were made, in periods when prices were rising, to prevail on the government to prohibit exportation; but they steadily refused to interfere. In consequence of this enlightened policy, Holland has long been the most important European *entrepôt* for corn; and her markets have on all occasions been furnished with the most abundant supplies. Those scarcities which are so very disastrous in countries without commerce, or where the trade in corn is subjected to fetters and restraints, have not only been totally unknown in Holland, but became a copious source of wealth to her merchants, who then obtained a ready and advantageous vent for the supplies accumulated in their warehouses. "Amsterdam," says Sir Walter Raleigh, "is never without 700,000 quarters of corn, none of it of the growth of Holland; and a dearth of only one year in any other part of Europe enriches Holland for seven years. In the course of a year and a half, during a scarcity in England, there were carried away from the ports of Southampton, Bristol, and Exeter alone, nearly 200,000*l*.; and if London and the rest of England be included, there must have been 2,000,000*l*. more." — (*Observations touching Trade and Commerce with the Hollander*, Miscel. Works, vol. ii.)

The very well informed author of the *Richesse de la Hollande*, published in 1778, observes, in allusion to these circumstances, "Que la disette de grains regne dans les quatre parties du monde; vous trouverez du froment, du seigle, et d'autres grains à Amsterdam; *ils n'y manquent jamais*." — (Tome i. p. 376.)

The Bank of Amsterdam was founded in 1609. The principal object of this establishment was to obviate the inconvenience and uncertainty arising from the circulation of the coins imported into Amsterdam from all parts of the world. The merchants who carried coin or bullion to the Bank obtained credit for an equal value in its books: this was called bank-money; and all considerable payments were effected by writing it off from the account of one individual to that of another. This establishment continued to flourish till the invasion of the French in 1795.

Between the years 1651 and 1672, when the territories of the republic were invaded by the French, the commerce of Holland seems to have reached its greatest height. De Witt estimates its increase from the treaty with Spain, concluded at Munster in 1643, to 1669, at fully a half. He adds, that during the war with Holland, Spain lost the greater part of her naval power; that since the peace, the Dutch had obtained most of the trade to that country, which had been previously carried on by the Hanseatic merchants and the English; that almost all the coasting trade of Spain was carried on by Dutch shipping; that Spain had even been forced to hire Dutch ships to sail to her American possessions; and that so great was the exportation of goods from Holland to Spain, that all the merchandise brought from the Spanish West Indies was not sufficient to make returns for them.

At this period, indeed, the Dutch engrossed, not by means of any artificial monopoly, but by the greater number of their ships, and their superior skill and economy in all that regarded navigation, almost the whole carrying trade of Europe. The value of the goods exported from France in Dutch bottoms, towards the middle of the fourteenth century, exceeded 40,000,000 livres; and the commerce of England with the Low Countries was, for a very long period, almost entirely carried on in them.

The business of marine insurance was largely and successfully prosecuted at Amsterdam; and the ordinances published in 1551, 1563, and 1570, contain the most judicious regulations for the settlement of such disputes as might arise in conducting this difficult but highly useful business. It is singular, however, notwithstanding the sagacity of the Dutch, and their desire to strengthen industrious habits, that they should have prohibited insurance upon lives. It was reserved for England to show the advantages that might be derived from this beautiful application of the science of probabilities.

In 1690, Sir William Petty estimated the shipping of Europe at about 2,000,000 tons, which he supposed to be distributed as follows:—viz. England, 500,000; France, 100,000; Hamburg, Denmark, Sweden, and Dantzic, 250,000; Spain, Portugal, and Italy, 250,000; that of the Seven United Provinces amounting, according to him, to 900,000 tons, or to nearly one half of the whole tonnage of Europe! No great dependence can, of course, be placed upon these estimates; but the probability is, that, had they been more accurate, the preponderance in favour of Holland would have been greater than it appears to be; for the official returns to the circulars addressed in 1701 by the commissioners of customs to the officers at the different ports, show that

the whole mercantile navy of England amounted at that period to only 261,222 tons, carrying 27,196 men. — (*Macpherson's Annals of Commerce, anno 1701.*)

It may, therefore, be fairly concluded that during the seventeenth century the foreign commerce and navigation of Holland was greater than that of all Europe besides; and yet the country which was the seat of this vast commerce had no native produce to export, nor even a piece of timber fit for ship-building. All had been the fruit of industry, economy, and a fortunate combination of circumstances.

Holland owed this vast commerce to a variety of causes: partly to her peculiar situation, the industry and economy of her inhabitants, the comparatively liberal and enlightened system of civil as well as of commercial policy adopted by the republic; and partly also to the wars and disturbances that prevailed in most European countries in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and prevented them from emulating the successful career of the Dutch.

The ascendancy of Holland as a commercial state began to decline from about the commencement of last century. After the war terminated by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the attention of the government of Holland was forcibly attracted to the state of the shipping and foreign commerce of the republic. The discovery of means by which their decline might be arrested, and the trade of the republic, if possible, restored to its ancient flourishing condition, became a prominent object in the speculations of every one who felt interested in the public welfare. In order to procure the most correct information on the subject, the Stadtholder, William IV., addressed the following queries to all the most extensive and intelligent merchants, desiring them to favour him with their answers: —

“ 1. What is the actual state of trade? And if the same should be found to be diminished and fallen to decay, then, 2. To inquire by what methods the same may be supported and advanced, or, if possible, restored to its former lustre, repute, and dignity?”

In discussing these questions, the merchants were obliged to enter into an examination, as well of the causes which had raised the commerce of Holland to the high pitch of prosperity to which it had once attained, as of those which had occasioned its subsequent decline. It is stated that, though not of the same opinion upon all points, they, speaking generally, concurred as to those that were most important. When their answers had been obtained, and compared with each other, the Stadtholder had a dissertation prepared from them, and other authentic sources, on the commerce of the republic, to which proposals were subjoined for its amendment. Some of the principles advanced in this dissertation apply to the case of Holland only; but most of them are of universal application, and are not more comprehensive than sound. We doubt, indeed, whether the benefits resulting from religious toleration, political liberty, the security of property, and the freedom of industry, have ever been more clearly set forth than in this dissertation. It begins by an enumeration of the causes which contributed to advance the commerce of the republic to its former unexampled prosperity: these the authors divide into three classes, embracing under the first those that were natural and physical; under the second, those they denominated moral; and under the third, those which they considered adventitious and external; remarking on them in succession as follows: —

“ I. The natural and physical causes are the advantages of the situation of the country, on the sea, and at the mouth of considerable rivers; its situation between the northern and southern parts, which, by being in a manner the centre of all Europe, made the republic become the general market, where the merchants on both sides used to bring their superfluous commodities, in order to barter and exchange the same for other goods they wanted.

“ Nor have the barrenness of the country, and the necessities of the natives arising from that cause, less contributed to set them upon exerting all their application, industry, and utmost stretch of genius, to fetch from foreign countries what they stand in need of in their own, and to support themselves by trade.

“ The abundance of fish in the neighbouring seas put them in a condition not only to supply their own occasions, but with the overplus to carry on a trade with foreigners, and out of the produce of the fishery to find an equivalent for what they wanted, through the sterility and narrow boundaries and extent of their own country.

“ II. Among the moral and political causes are to be placed. The unalterable maxim and fundamental law relating to the free exercise of different religions; and always to consider this toleration and connivance as the most effectual means to draw foreigners from adjacent countries to settle and reside here, and so become instrumental to the peopling of those provinces.

“ The constant policy of the republic to make this country a perpetual, safe, and secure asylum for any persecuted and oppressed strangers. No alliance, no treaty, no regard for or solicitation of any potentate whatever, has at any time been able to weaken or destroy this law, or make the state recede from protecting those who have fled to it for their own security and self-preservation.

“ Throughout the whole course of all the persecutions and oppressions that have occurred in other countries, the steady adherence of the republic to this fundamental law has been the cause that many people have not only fled hither for refuge, with their whole stock in ready cash, and their most valuable effects, but have also settled, and established many trades, fabrics, manufactures, arts, and sciences in this country, notwithstanding the first materials for the said fabrics and manufactures were almost wholly wanting in it, and not to be procured but at a great expence from foreign parts.

“ The constitution of our form of government, and the liberty thus accruing to the citizen, are further reasons to which the growth of trade, and its establishment in the republic, may fairly be ascribed; and all her policy and laws are put upon such an equitable footing, that neither life, estates, nor dignities, depend on the caprice or arbitrary power of any single individual; nor is there any room for any person,

who, by care, frugality, and diligence, has once acquired an affluent fortune or estate, to fear a deprivation of them by any act of violence, oppression, or injustice.

"The administration of justice in the country has, in like manner, always been clear and impartial, and without distinction of superior or inferior rank, whether the parties have been rich or poor, or were this a foreigner and that a native; and it were greatly to be wished we could at this day boast of such impartial quickness and despatch in all our legal processes, considering how great an influence it has on trade.

"To sum up all, amongst the moral and political causes of the former flourishing state of trade may be likewise placed the wisdom and prudence of the administration, the intrepid firmness of the councils, the faithfulness with which treaties and engagements were wont to be fulfilled and ratified, and particularly the care and caution practised to preserve tranquillity and peace, and to decline instead of entering on a scene of war, merely to gratify the ambitious views of gaining fruitless or imaginary conquests.

"By these moral and political maxims were the glory and reputation of the republic so far spread, and foreigners animated to place so great a confidence in the steady determinations of a state so wisely and prudently conducted, that a concourse of them stocked this country with an augmentation of inhabitants and useful hands, whereby its trade and opulence were from time to time increased.

"III. Amongst the adventitious and external causes of the rise and flourishing state of our trade may be reckoned —

"That at the time when the best and wisest maxims were adopted in the republic as the means of making trade flourish, they were neglected in almost all other countries; and any one reading the history of those times may easily discover that the persecutions on account of religion, throughout Spain, Brabant, Flanders, and many other states and kingdoms, have powerfully promoted the establishment of commerce in the republic.

"To this happy result, and the settling of manufacturers in our country, the long continuance of the civil wars in France, which were afterwards carried on in Germany, England, and divers other parts, have also very much contributed.

"It must be added, in the last place, that during our most burthensome and heavy wars with Spain and Portugal (however ruinous that period was for commerce otherwise), these powers had both neglected their navy; a neglect of the navy of the republic, by a consequent directly the reverse, was at the same time formidable; and in a capacity not only to protect the trade of its own subjects, but to annoy and crush that of their enemies in all quarters."

We believe our readers will agree with us in thinking that these statements reflect the greatest credit on the merchants and government of Holland. Nothing, as it appears to us, could be conceived more judicious than the account they give of the causes which principally contributed to render Holland a great commercial commonwealth. The central situation of the country, its command of some of the principal inlets to the Continent, and the necessity under which the inhabitants have been placed, in consequence of the barrenness of the soil and its liability to be overflowed, to exert all their industry and enterprise, are circumstances that seem to be in a great degree peculiar in Holland. But though there can be no doubt that their influence has been very considerable, no one will pretend to say that it is to be compared for a moment with the influence of those free institutions, which, fortunately, are not the exclusive attributes of any particular country, but have flourished in Phœnicia, Greece, England, and America, as well as in Holland.

Many dissertations have been written to account for the decline of the commerce of Holland. But, if we mistake not, its leading causes may be classed under two prominent heads: viz. first, the natural growth of commerce and navigation in other countries; and, second, the weight of taxation at home. During the period when the republic rose to great eminence as a commercial state, England, France, and Spain, distracted by civil and religious dissensions, or engrossed wholly by schemes of foreign conquest, were unable to apply their energies to the cultivation of commerce, or to withstand the competition of so industrious a people as the Dutch. They, therefore, were under the necessity of allowing the greater part of their foreign, and even of their coasting trade, to be carried on in Dutch bottoms, and under the superintendance of Dutch factors. But after the accession of Louis XIV. and the ascendancy of Cromwell had put an end to internal commotions in France and England, the energies of these two great nations began to be directed to pursuits of which the Dutch had hitherto enjoyed almost a monopoly. It was not to be supposed that when tranquillity and a regular system of government had been established in France and England, their active and enterprising inhabitants would submit to see one of their most valuable branches of industry in the hands of the foreigners. The Dutch ceased to be the carriers of Europe, without any fault of their own. Their performance of that function necessarily terminated as soon as other nations became possessed of a mercantile marine, and were able to do for themselves what had previously been done for them by their neighbours.

Whatever, therefore, might have been the condition of Holland in other respects, the natural advance of rival nations must inevitably have stripped her of a large portion of the commerce she once possessed. But the progress of decline seems to have been considerably accelerated, or rather, perhaps, the efforts to arrest it were rendered ineffectual, by the extremely heavy taxation to which she was subjected, occasioned by the unavoidable expenses incurred in the revolutionary struggle with Spain, and the subsequent wars with France and England. The necessities of the state led to the imposition of taxes on corn, on flour when it was ground at the mill, and on bread when it came from the oven; on butter, and fish, and fruit; on income and legacies; the sale of

• The Dissertation was translated into English, and published at London in 1751. We have quoted from the translation.

houses; and, in short, almost every article of either necessity or convenience. Sir William Temple mentions that in his time—and taxes were greatly increased afterwards—one fish sauce was in common use, which directly paid no fewer than *thirty* different duties of excise; and it was a common saying at Amsterdam, that every dish of fish brought to table was paid for *once* to the fishermen, and *six* times to the state.

The pernicious influence of this heavy taxation has been ably set forth by the author of the *Richesses de la Hollande*, and other well-informed writers; and it has also been very forcibly pointed out in the Dissertation already referred to, drawn up from the communications of the Dutch merchants. "Oppressive taxes," it is there stated, "must be placed at the head of all the causes that have co-operated to the prejudice and discouragement of trade; and it may be justly said, that it can only be attributed to them that the trade of this country has been diverted out of its channel, and transferred to our neighbours, and must daily be still more and more alienated and shut out from us, unless the progress thereof be stopped by some quick and effectual remedy; nor is it difficult to see, from these contemplations on the state of our trade, that the same will be effected by no other means than a *diminution of all duties*."

"In former times this was reckoned the only trading state in Europe; and foreigners were content to pay the taxes, as well on the goods they brought hither, as on those they came here to buy; without examining whether they could evade or save them, by fetching the goods from the places where they were produced, and carrying others to the places where they were consumed; in short, they paid us our taxes with pleasure, without any farther inquiry."

"But, since the last century, the system of trade is altered all over Europe: foreign nations, seeing the wonderful effect of our trade, and to what an eminence we had risen only by means thereof, they did likewise apply themselves to it; and, to save our duties, sent their superfluous products beside our country, to the places where they are most consumed; and in return for the same, furnished themselves from the first hands with what they wanted."

But, notwithstanding this authoritative exposition of the pernicious effects resulting from the excess of taxation, the necessary expenses of the state were so great as to render it impossible to make any sufficient reductions. And, with the exception of the transit trade carried on through the Rhine and the Meuse, which is in a great measure independent of foreign competition, and the American trade, most of the other branches of the foreign trade of Holland, though still very considerable, continue in a comparatively depressed state.

In consequence principally of the oppressiveness of taxation, but partly, too, of the excessive accumulation of capital that had taken place while the Dutch engrossed the carrying trade of Europe, profits in Holland were reduced towards the middle of the seventeenth century, and have ever since continued extremely low. This circumstance would of itself have sapped the foundations of her commercial greatness. Her capitalists, who could hardly expect to clear more than two or three per cent. of nett profit by any sort of undertaking carried on at home, were tempted to vest their capital in other countries, and to speculate in loans to foreign governments. There are the best reasons for thinking that the Dutch were, until very lately, the largest creditors of any nation in Europe. It is impossible, indeed, to form any accurate estimate of what the sums owing them by foreigners previously to the late French war, or at present, may amount to; but there can be no doubt that at the former period the amount was immense, and that it is still very considerable. M. Demeunier (*Dictionnaire de l'Economie Politique*, tom. iii. p. 720.) states the amount of capital lent by the Dutch to foreign governments, exclusive of the large sums lent to France during the American war, at *seventy-three* millions sterling. According to the author of the *Richesses de la Hollande* (ii. p. 292.), the sums lent to France and England only, previously to 1778, amounted to 1,500,000 livres tournois, or sixty millions sterling. And besides these, vast sums were lent to private individuals in foreign countries, both regularly as loans at interest, and in the shape of goods advanced at long credits. So great was the difficulty of finding an advantageous investment for money in Holland, that Sir William Temple mentions, that the payment of any part of the national debt was looked upon by the creditors as an evil of the first magnitude. "They receive it," says he, "with tears, not knowing how to dispose of it to interest with such safety and ease."

Among the subordinate causes which contributed to the decline of Dutch commerce, or which have, at all events, prevented its growth, we may reckon the circumstance of the commerce with India having been subjected to the trammels of monopoly. De Witt expresses his firm conviction, that the abolition of the East India Company would have added very greatly to the trade with the East; and no doubt can now remain in the mind of any one, that such would have been the case.* The interference of the

* For proofs of this, see the article on the Commerce of Holland in the Edinburgh Review, No. 102., from which most part of these statements have been taken.

administration in regulating the mode in which some of the most important branches of industry should be carried on, seems also to have been exceedingly injurious. Every proceeding with respect to the herring fishery, for example, was regulated by the orders of government, carried into effect under the inspection of officers appointed for that purpose. Some of these regulations were exceedingly vexatious. The period when the fishery might begin was fixed at five minutes past twelve o'clock of the night of the 24th of June; and the master and pilot of every vessel leaving Holland for the fishery were obliged to make oath that they would regulate the regulation. The species of salt to be made use of in curing different sorts of herrings was also fixed by law; and there were endless regulations with respect to the size of the barrels, the number and thickness of the staves of which they were to be made; the gutting and packing of the herrings; the branding of the barrels, &c. &c.—(*Histoire des Pêches, &c. dans les Mers du Nord*, tom. I. chap. 24.) These regulations were intended to secure to the Hollanders that superiority which they had early attained in the fishery, and to prevent the reputation of their herrings from being injured by the bad faith of individuals. But their real effect was precisely the reverse of this. By tying up the fishers to a system of routine, they prevented them from making any improvements; while the facility of counterfeiting the public marks opened a much wider door to fraud, than would have been opened had government wisely declined interfering in the matter.

In despite, however, of the East India monopoly, and the regulations now described, the commercial policy of Holland has been more liberal than that of any other nation. And in consequence, a country not more extensive than Wales, and naturally not more fertile, conquered, indeed, in a great measure from the sea, has accumulated a population of upwards of two millions; has maintained wars of unexampled duration with the most powerful monarchies; and, besides laying out immense sums in works of utility and ornament at home, has been enabled to lend hundreds of millions to foreigners.

During the occupation of Holland by the French, first as a dependent state, and subsequently as an integral part of the French empire, her foreign trade was almost entirely destroyed. Her colonies were successively conquered by England; and, in addition to the loss of her trade, she was burdened with fresh taxes. But such was the vast accumulated wealth of the Dutch, their prudence, and energy, that the influence of these adverse circumstances was far less injurious than could have been imagined; and, notwithstanding all the losses she had sustained, and the long interruption of her commercial pursuits, Holland continued, at her emancipation from the yoke of the French in 1814, to be the richest country in Europe! Java, the Moluccas, and most of her other colonies were then restored, and she is now in the enjoyment of a large foreign trade. Her connection with Belgium was an unfortunate one for both countries. The union was not agreeable to either party, and was injurious to Holland. Belgium was an agricultural and manufacturing country; and was inclined, in imitation of the French, to lay restrictions on the importation of most sorts of raw and manufactured produce. A policy of this sort was directly opposed to the interests and the ancient practice of the Dutch. But though their deputies prevented the restrictive system from being carried to the extent proposed by the Belgians, they were unable to prevent it from being carried to an extent that materially affected the trade of Holland. Whatever, therefore, may be the consequences as to Belgium, there can be little doubt that the separation of the two divisions of the kingdom of the Netherlands will redound to the advantage of Holland. It must ever be for the interest of England, America, and all trading nations, to maintain the independence of a state by whose means their productions find a ready access to the great continental markets. It is to be hoped that the Dutch, profiting by past experience, will adopt such a liberal and conciliatory system towards the natives of Java, as may enable them to avail themselves to the full of the various resources of that noble island. And if they do this, and freely open their ports, with as few restrictions as possible, to the ships and commodities of all countries, Holland may still be the centre of a very extensive commerce, and may continue to preserve a respectable place among mercantile nations. Even at this moment, after all the vicissitudes they have undergone, the Dutch are, beyond all question, the most opulent and industrious of European nations. And their present, no less than their former state, shows that a free system of government, security, and the absence of restrictions on industry, can overcome almost every obstacle; "can convert the standing pool and lake into fat meadows, cover the barren rock with verdure, and make the desert smile with flowers."

ANCHOR (*Fr. Ancre; Lat. Anchora; Gr. Ἀγκυρα*), a well-known maritime instrument used in the mooring or fastening of ships. It consists of a shank having two hooked arms at one end, and at the other end a bar, or stock, at right angles to the arms, with a ring to which the cable is fastened. The arms, shank, and ring should be made of the very best and toughest iron; the stock is for the most part of oak, but it

is frequently also, especially in the smaller anchors, made of iron. On being let go, or cast into the water, the anchor sinks rapidly to the bottom, and is thrown by the stock into such a position that the *flukes*, or point of one of the arms, is sure to strike the ground perpendicularly, and being kept in that direction, unless the bottom be particularly hard or rocky, sinks into it, and cannot be dislodged, where the ground is not soft or oozy, without a violent effort. When the anchor is dislodged, it is said, by the sailors, to *come home*.

Seeing that the safety and preservation of ships and crews are very frequently dependent on their anchors and cables, it is needless to say that it is of the utmost importance that these should be of the most approved quality and construction.

Every ship has, or ought to have, three principal anchors; viz. 1st, the *sheet anchor*, the largest of all, and only let down in cases of danger, or when the vessel is riding in a gale of wind; 2d, the *best bower anchor*; and, 3d, the *small bower anchor*. There are, besides, smaller anchors for mooring in rivers, ports, &c. The largest class of men-of-war have six or seven anchors. The weight of an anchor is determined principally by the tonnage; it being usual to allow, for every 20 tons of a ship's burden, 1 cwt. for the weight of her best bower anchor; so that this anchor in a ship of 400 tons should weigh about 20 cwt., or a ton.

To *cast, or let go, the anchor*, is to let the anchor fall from the ship's bows into the water, so that it may take hold of the ground.

To *drag the anchor*, is to make it come home; that is, to dislodge it from its bed, and to drag it over or through the ground. This may be occasioned by the anchor being too light, by the violent straining of the cable in a storm or a current, by the too great hardness or softness of the ground, &c.

To *weigh the anchor*, is to dislodge it from its hold, and heave it up by means of the capstan, &c.

Laws as to Anchors let or parted from, &c.—By the 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. pilots and other persons taking possession of anchors, cables, and other ship materials parted with, cut from, or left by any vessel, whether in distress or otherwise, shall give notice of the same to a deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, within forty-eight hours, on pain of being considered as receivers of stolen goods; and if any person shall knowingly and wilfully purchase any such anchor, &c. that shall have been so obtained, without its being so reported, he shall be held to be a receiver of stolen goods, and suffer the like punishment as for a misdemeanour at common law, or be liable to be transported for seven years, at the discretion of the court. Any master of a ship or vessel outward-bound finding or taking on board any anchor, &c. shall make a true entry of the circumstance in the log-book of such ship or vessel, reporting the same by the first possible opportunity to the Trinity House, and on his return shall deliver the article to the deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, nearest to the port where he shall arrive, under a penalty of not more than 100*l.*, nor less than 30*l.*, on conviction before a magistrate on the oath of one witness, one half to go to the informer, the other half to the Merchant Seamen's Society, established by 20 Geo. 3. c. 28.; he shall also forfeit double the value of the article to the owner. And every pilot, hoveler, boatman, &c. who shall convey any anchor, &c. to any foreign harbour, port, creek, or bay, and sell and dispose of the same, shall be guilty of felony, and be transported for any term not exceeding seven years.—(See SALVAGE.)

Invention of the Anchor.—This instrument, admirable alike for its simplicity and effect, is of very considerable antiquity. It was not, however, known in the earliest ages. The President de Goguet has shown that it was not used by the Greeks till after the Trojan war; and that they were then accustomed to moor their ships by means of large stones cast into the sea, a practice which still subsists in some rude nations.—(*Origin of Laws*, vol. ii. p. 330. Eng. trans.) Pliny ascribes the invention of the anchor to the Tyrrhenians.—(*Hist. Nat. lib. vii. cap. 56.*) At first it had only one arm, the other being added at a subsequent period; some authors say, by Anacharsis the Scythian.—(*Origin of Laws*, vol. i. p. 293.) Since this remote epoch, the form and construction of the instrument seem to have undergone very little change.

ANCHORAGE, or ANCHORING GROUND. Good anchoring ground should neither be too hard nor too soft; for, in the first case the anchor is apt not to take a sufficient hold, and in the other to drag. The best bottom is a stiff clay, and next to it a firm sand. In a rocky bottom the flukes of the anchor are sometimes torn away, and hempen cables are liable to chafe and be cut through. It is also essential to a good anchorage that the water be neither too deep nor too shallow. When too deep, the pull of the cable, being nearly perpendicular, is apt to jerk the anchor out of the ground; and when too shallow, the ship is exposed to the danger, when riding in a storm, of striking the bottom. Where a ship is in water that is land-locked, and out of the tide, the nature of the ground is of comparatively little importance.

The anchorage of ships, especially ships of war, being a subject of great importance to the naval and commercial interests of the kingdom, several statutes have been enacted with respect to it. The first which it is necessary to notice here is 19 Geo. 3. c. 22. It prohibits masters of ships from casting out ballast, or rubbish of any kind, into any harbour or channel, except on the land where the tide never comes, on pain of forfeiting not more than 5*l.*, nor less than 5*0s.*, on conviction before a justice on view, or on the oath of one witness, or of being committed to prison for two months; which penalty is increased to 10*l.*, over and above the expense of removing the same, by 54 Geo. 3. c. 109. In pursuance of the same object, 54 Geo. 1. c. 109. enables the Lords of the Admiralty to establish regulations for the preservation of the king's moorings or anchorages, as well as for those of merchant ships, in all the ports, harbours, channels, &c. of the United Kingdom, as far as the tide flows, where or near to which his Majesty has, or may hereafter have, any docks, dock-yards, arsenals, wharfs, or moorings. It prohibits all descriptions of private ships from being moored or anchored, or placed in any of his Majesty's moorings, &c. without special licence obtained from the Admiralty, or other persons appointed to grant such licences, on pain of forfeiting not exceeding 10*l.*, one moiety to his Majesty, the other to the informer, on conviction before any justice of the peace or commissioner of the navy.

It further prohibits the breaching of private vessels in such places otherwise than appointed by the said authority of the Admiralty; and the receiving or having gunpowder, beyond a certain limited quantity,

under a penalty of *l.* for every five pounds' weight of such powder beyond the quantity allowed. It prohibits likewise all such private vessels in any such places having any guns on board shotted or loaded with ball, as well as firing and discharging any such before sun-rising and after sun-setting, under a penalty of *l.* for every gun so shotted, and *l.* for every gun so fired. It further gives to every officer of vessels of war, to harbour-masters, and others in their aid, a right of search in all private vessels so moored in such places, and inflicts a penalty of *l.* on resistance.

ANCHORAGE also means a duty laid on ships for the use of the port or harbour.

ANCHOVY (Fr. *Anchois*; It. *Acciughe*; Lat. *Engrauliscopus*), a small fish (*Clupea nasusculcus* Linn.), common in the Mediterranean, resembling the sprat. Those brought from Gurgona in the Tuscan Sea are esteemed the best. They should be chosen small, fresh pickled, white outside and red within. Their backs should be round. The sardine, a fish which is flatter and larger than the anchovy, is frequently substituted for it. About 190,000 lbs. are annually entered for home consumption.

ANGELICA, a large umbelliferous plant, with hollow jointed stalks, of which there are several varieties. It grows wild, and is cultivated in moist places near London, and in most European countries from Lapland to Spain. Its roots are thick, fleshy, and resinous; have a fragrant agreeable smell, and a bitterish pungent taste, mixed with a pleasant sweetness glowing on the lips and palate for a long time after they have been chewed. To preserve them, they must be thoroughly dried, and kept in a well-aired place. The other parts of the plant have the same taste and flavour as the roots, but in an inferior degree. The leaves and seeds do not retain their virtues when kept.

The London confectioners make a sweetmeat of the tender stems. The faculty used to direct that none but the roots of Spanish angelica should be kept by the druggists. In Norway the roots are sometimes used as bread, and in Iceland the stalks are eaten with butter. Here the plant is used only in confectionary and the materia medica. — (*Lewie's Mat. Med.*; *Rees's Cyclopadia*, &c.)

The duty of *4s.* per cwt. on Angelica produced, in 1840, 88*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*, showing that 441 cwt. had been entered for home consumption.

ANISEED (Fr. *Anis*; It. *Anise*; Lat. *Anisum*), a small seed of an oblong shape. It is cultivated in Germany, but the best comes from Alicante in Spain. It is also a product of China, whence it is exported. It should be chosen fresh, large, plump, newly dried, of a good smell, and a sweetish aromatic taste.

The duty of *8s.* a cwt. on aniseed produced, in 1840, 78*l.* 5*s.* 10*d.*, showing that 315 cwt. had been entered for consumption.

ANKER, a liquid measure at Amsterdam. It contains about 10½ gallons English wine measure.

ANNOTTO, or **ARNOTTO** (Fr. *Rocou*; Ger. *Orlean*; It. *Oriana*), a species of red dye formed of the pulp enveloping the seeds of the *Bixa Orellana*, a plant common in South America, and the East and West Indies; but dye is made, at least to any extent, only in the first. It is prepared by macerating the pods in boiling water, extracting the seeds, and leaving the pulp to subside; the fluid being subsequently drawn off, the residuum, with which oil is sometimes mixed up, is placed in shallow vessels and gradually dried in the shade. It is of two sorts, viz. *flag* or *eake*, and *roll* annotto. The first, which is by far the most important article in a commercial point of view, is furnished almost wholly by Cayenne. It is imported in square cakes, weighing 2 or 3 lbs. each, wrapped in banana leaves. When well made, it should be of a bright yellow colour, soft to the touch, and of a good consistence. It imparts a deep but not durable orange colour to silk and cotton, and is used for that purpose by the dyers. Roll annotto is principally brought from Brazil. The rolls are small, not exceeding 2 or 3 oz. in weight; it is hard, dry, and compact, brownish on the outside, and of a beautiful red colour within. The latter is the best of all ingredients for the colouring of cheese and butter; and is now exclusively used for that purpose in all the British and in some of the continental dairies. In Gloucestershire it is the practice to allow an ounce of annotto to a cwt. of cheese; in Cheshire, 8 dwts. are reckoned sufficient for a cheese of 60 lbs. When genuine, it neither affects the taste nor the smell of cheese or butter. The Spanish Americans mix annotto with their chocolate, to which it gives a beautiful tint. (*Gray's Supplement to the Pharmacopœias*; *Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*, and *private information*.)

At an average of the years 1840 and 1841, 296,821 lbs. annotto were entered for home consumption. Previously to 1839 the duty on flag annotto was 18*s.* 8*d.* a cwt., and on other sorts 8*l.* 12*s.*; but the duty was then reduced to 1*s.* a cwt. on the former, and to 4*s.* on the latter, and is now 1*s.* a cwt. on both sorts. The price of flag annotto varies in the market from 6*d.* to 7*d.* per lb., and of roll from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.*

ANNUITIES. See **INTEREST** and **ANNUITIES**.

ANTIMONY (Ger. and Du. *Spiegelas*; Fr. *Antimoine*; It. *Antimonio*; Rus. *Antimonia*; Lat. *Antimonium*), a metal which, when pure, is of a greyish white colour, and has a good deal of brilliancy, showing a radiated fracture when broken; it is converted by exposure to heat and air into a white oxide, which sublimes in vapours. It is found in Saxony and the Harz, also in Cornwall, Spain, France, Mexico, Siberia, the Eastern

Islands, and Martaban in Pegu. We are at present wholly supplied with this metal from Singapore, which receives it from Borneo; it is imported in the shape of ore, and commonly as ballast. It is about as hard as gold; its specific gravity is about 6.7; it is easily reduced to a very fine powder; its tenacity is such that a rod of $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch diameter is capable of supporting 10 lbs. weight. Antimony is used in medicine, and in the composition of metal types for printing. The ores of antimony are soft, and vary in colour from light lead to dark lead grey; their specific gravity varies from 4.4 to 6.8; they possess a metallic lustre, are brittle, and occur in the crystallized massive forms. (*Thomson's Chemistry, and private information.*)

ANTWERP, the principal sea-port of Belgium, lat. 51° 13' 16" N., long. 4° 24' 10" E. A large, well-built, and strongly fortified city, on the Scheldt. Pop. in 1836, 75,363. Previously to its capture by the Spaniards, under Farnese, in 1585, Antwerp was one of the greatest commercial cities of Europe; but it suffered much by that event. In 1648, at the treaty of Westphalia, it was stipulated by Spain and Holland, that the navigation of the Scheldt should be shut up; a stipulation which was observed till the occupation of Belgium by the French, when it was abolished. In 1803, the improvement of the harbour was begun, and extensive new docks and warehouses have since been constructed. Ships of the largest burden come up to the town, and goods destined for the interior are forwarded with the greatest facility by means of canals and railways. Almost all the foreign trade of Belgium is at present centred in Antwerp, which has again become a place of much commercial importance.

Goods may be warehoused in Antwerp *en entrepôt*, at the rates of charge specified in a fixed tariff. The exports chiefly consist of flax, cotton and linen manufactured goods, refined sugar, glass, zinc, oak-bark, grain and seeds, lace, &c. The imports consist principally of coffee, sugar, and other colonial products, cotton stuffs, and other manufactured goods, corn, raw cotton, leather, timber, tobacco, wool, rice, dye-stuffs, salt, wines, fruits, &c. A large proportion of the imports not being intended for home consumption, but for transit to other countries, their amount is always much greater than the amount of the exports. Of the total value of the articles imported into Antwerp in 1833, amounting to 97,960,200 fr. (3,518,468 sterling), those supplied by England were worth very near 30,000,000 fr.; ditto by Russia, 14,366,900 fr.; ditto by the United States, 4,217,800 fr.; ditto by France, 7,630,200 fr.; &c. The principal articles were coffee, worth 14,745,500 fr.; grain and seeds, 13,936,800 fr.; sugar, 11,430,800 fr.; woven fabrics, 11,339,100 fr.; raw cotton, 5,225,200 fr.; metals, 4,972,300 fr., &c. The total value of the articles exported during the same year was 55,630,000 fr. (1,425,440), whereof those sent to England were worth 14,349,100 fr.; ditto to Holland, 5,777,500 fr.; the Hanse Towns, 4,320,200 fr.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—The French system of monies, weights, and measures has been adopted in Belgium. Formerly accounts were kept in florins worth 1s. 8d. sterling. The quotal formerly in use, and still sometimes referred to, = 1033 lbs. avoirdupois. In 1837 the Commercial Bank, a joint-stock association, was founded in Antwerp. It has a capital of 25,000,000 fr. (1,000,000 sterling), divided into 25,000 shares of 1,000 fr. each, and transacts all sorts of banking business. Here also are two considerable insurance companies. The railway from Antwerp to Brussels, 24½ miles in length, has been signally successful, and has been of great advantage to both cities, but especially to Antwerp.

Custom-house Regulations.—Captains of ships arriving at Antwerp, or any of the Belgian ports, must make, within 24 hours, a declaration in writing of the goods of which their cargo consists, specifying the marks and numbers of the bales, parcels, &c., their value, according to the current price at the time when the declaration is made, the name of the ship or vessel, as well as that of the captain, and of the country to which she belongs, &c.

Port Charges.—These, as will be seen from the subjoined statement, are rather heavy.

Account of Port Charges at Antwerp on a national Ship, or on a foreign privileged Ship of 250 Tons, arriving with a Cargo, discharging the same, and clearing out in Ballast.

	fr. cts.		fr. cts.
1. Custom-house officers from Flushing, about 24	0	11. For the cooking-houses in the dock, four	18
2. Pilotage from sea to Flushing, 15 Dutch feet	156	12. Ballast, 100 lasts, at 2 fr. per last	200
3. Pilot, for moving the vessel into the dock	2	13. Surveyor's visit of the vessel outwards in ballast	15
4. Charges for clearing in at Flushing	36	14. To pilot, for moving the vessel into the river	2
5. Leads put to the hatches by the Custom-house, and sealing the ship's provisions, about	12	15. Water-bull's certificate, in and out	25
6. Harbour dues and quay money	0	16. Charterparty and stamps (if required)	8
7. Tonnage duty on 250 tons, at 1 fr. 80 centimes per ton, and additional duty 13 centimes, and stamps 12 fr.	591	17. Brokerage on 250 tons, at 35 cent. per ton	187
8. Clearance, passport of the tonnage duty, measuring, and stamps	21	18. To the excise, for town dues on ship's provisions, clearance in and out	16
9. Custom-house clearance, certificate outwards	30	19. Pilotage to Flushing on 12 feet	112
10. Dock duty on 250 tons, at 52 centimes for three months	130	20. Ditto from Flushing to sea, and clearing charges there	110
		21. Cancelling custom-house bonds, postage, and small expenses	7
		22. Pilotage-office for hooking the vessel	7

N. B. All vessels leaving Antwerp must be provided with a surveyor's certificate that they are seaworthy. When in ballast, this certificate costs from 6 fr. to 13 fr. 50 cent.; when loaded, from 10 fr. to 30 fr., according to the burden of the vessel, besides 11 fr. 40 cent. for certificate of tribunal. The cooking-house duties depend on the size of the vessel, and must be paid whether the house be used or not.

Shipping.—In 1839 there entered the port of Antwerp 1182 ships of the burden of 202,038 tons, whereof 237 ships were from England, 231 from Russia, 109 from France, 44 from the United States, &c. In 1839 there belonged to Antwerp 61 vessels (of which 2 were steamers) of the burden of 9,557 tons. From 4,000 to 5,000 passengers arrive annually at the city by the steam-packets from England. We subjoin a Statement of the Imports, &c. (See Table, next page.)

Conditions under which Goods are sold.—On goods generally 2 per cent. is allowed for payment in 30 days, and 1½ per cent. on credit of 6 weeks or 2 months. On cottons, at 20 days' credit, 3 per cent. are allowed, and 1½ per cent. on a credit of 2 or 3 months. On ashes, hides, and sugar, 3 per cent. for 20 days, and 1½ per cent. for three months' credit.

For further information as to the trade, &c. of Antwerp, see Houschling, *Statistique Générale de la Belgique*; Macgregor's Commercial Tariff, art. BRUXELLES; the *Revue Commerciale et Maritimee d'Anvers*, &c.

Statement of the Imports and Sales of some of the principal Articles imported into Antwerp in 1840, 1841, and 1842, with the Stocks on hand on the 31st of December each Year.

	Imports in			Sales in			Stocks on 31st Dec.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Almonds United States	11,021	10,028	15,887	15,221	9,898	11,587	1,000	1,800	3,500
Coffee	1,056	1,900	917	1,520	1,750	1,097	700	950	100
Coffees	15,000	12,800	21,700	18,500	14,100	18,400	5,000	3,700	5,000
Cotton	56,227	40,367	35,478	42,827	34,442	36,403	17,000	24,225	22,000
Hides, South American	289,840	684,629	21,021	275,440	551,732	509,431	14,000	143,250	60,000
Indigo, from Holland	467	644	525	485	609	508	193	227	78
—	112	222	515	109	149	356	80	45	84
Pimento	2,414	375	440	1,714	1,075	843	600	800	400
Pepper	6,478	7,187	19,828	8,778	5,987	11,738	1,800	2,400	10,500
Rice	9,136	6,370	8,227	9,336	6,730	7,578	800	350	1,000
Tobacco	30,051	31,388	29,225	27,511	25,589	26,125	6,000	11,000	5,000
Sugar	17,000	15,500	15,500	16,500	11,900	16,900	4,000	4,000	3,000
Tea	758	1,500	3,360	1,058	1,400	3,510	300	530	600
Tobacco	2,401	3,228	12,808	2,128	2,371	19,560	75	1,792	3,100
Campachy Logwood	4,430	3,800	3,310	1,880	3,200	3,140	750	1,450	630
Pursh	175	800	780	295	530	520	140	330	660
South-Sea Oil	27,540	19,000	19,000	17,540	29,000	18,240	11,000	2,000	2,500
—	7,000	3,500	3,700	received from Holland by the Interior.					

APPLES, the fruit of the *Pyrus Malus*, or apple tree. It is very extensively cultivated in most temperate climates. An immense variety and quantity of excellent apples are raised in England, partly for the table, and partly for manufacturing into cider. Those employed for the latter purpose are comparatively harsh and austere. The principal cider counties are Hereford, Monmouth, Gloucester, Worcester, Somerset, and Devon. Mr. Marshall estimated the produce of the first four at 30,000 hlds. a year, of which Worcester is supposed to supply 10,000; but it is now probably much greater. Half a hogsheaf of cider may be expected, in ordinarily favourable seasons, from each tree in an orchard in full bearing. The number of trees on an acre varies from 10 to 40, so that the quantity of cider must vary in the same proportion, that is, from 5 to 20 hlds. The produce is, however, very fluctuating; and a good crop seldom occurs above once in three years. — (*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture, &c.*)

Besides the immense consumption of native apples, we import, for the table, considerable supplies of French and American apples, especially the former. Owing, however, to the duty previously to 1842 having been an *ad valorem* one of 5 per cent., we are unable to specify the quantities imported. They must, however, have been very considerable, as their declared value amounted, in 1841, to 41,197*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.* In 1842, the duty was fixed at 6*d.* per bushel on raw, and 2*s.* per do. on dried apples. The apples produced in the vicinity of New York are universally admitted to be the finest of any; but unless selected and packed with care, they are very apt to spoil before reaching England. The exports of apples from the United States, during the year ended the 30th of September, 1841, amounted to 25,216 barrels, valued at 48,396 dollars. Of these, 5,059 barrels were shipped for the United Kingdom. — (*Papers laid before Congress*, 21st of July, 1842.)

APPRENTICE, a person of either sex, bound by indenture to serve some particular individual, or company of individuals, for a specified time, in order to be instructed in some art, science, or trade.

According to the common law of England, every one has a right to employ himself at pleasure in every lawful trade. But this sound principle was almost entirely subverted by a statute passed in the fifth year of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, commonly called the Statute of Apprenticeship. It enacted that no person should, for the future, exercise any trade, craft, or mystery, at that time exercised in England and Wales, unless he had previously served to it an apprenticeship of seven years at least; so that what had before been a bye-law of a few corporations, became the general and statute law of the kingdom. Luckily, however, the courts of law were always singularly disinclined to give effect to the provisions of this statute; and the rules which they established for its interpretation served materially to mitigate its injurious operation. But though its impolicy had been long apparent, it was continued till 1814, when it was repealed by the 54 Geo. 3. c. 96. This act did not interfere with any of the existing rights, privileges, or bye-laws of the different corporations; but wherever these do not interpose, the formation of apprenticeships, and their duration, is left to be adjusted by the parties themselves.

The regulations with respect to the taking of apprentices on board ship, the only part of this subject that properly comes within the scope of this work, are embodied in the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. They are as follow:—

The master of every ship belonging to any subject of the United Kingdom of the burden of 80 tons and upwards (except pleasure yachts), shall have on board thereof, on clearing from, and when absent from, the U. K., one apprentice or more, in the following proportion to the number of tons of her admeasurement, according to the certificate of registry, viz.—

For every vessel of 80 tons and under 200 tons, 1 apprentice at least.	
— 200 — 400 — 2 —	
— 400 — 500 — 3 —	
— 500 — 700 — 4 —	
— 700 and upwards — 5 —	

all of whom, at the period of being bound, shall be above 12 and under the age of 17 years, and shall be duly indentured for at least four years; and all masters neglecting to have on board such number of apprentices shall forfeit 10*l.* for every apprentice that may be deficient. — § 37.

Indentures and assignments of apprentices are to be registered in books kept for that purpose by the registrar in London, and by the collector and comptroller at any other port; and masters neglecting to register indentures within 10 days after the binding or assignment, shall for every such offence forfeit 10*l*. Masters permitting apprentices to quit their service or the service of the ships to which they belong, except for the purpose of entering H. M.'s service, shall, for every such offence, forfeit 30*l*.—§ 43. See the act at length, art. ШЛАХЕН.

AQUA FORTIS. See ACID (Nitric).

AQUAMARINE. See BEAUV.

AQUA VITÆ (Ger. *Aquavit*; Fr. *Eau de vie*; It. *Acqua vite*; Sp. *Agua de vida*; Rus. *Wodka*; Lat. *Aqua vita*), a name familiarly applied to all native distilled spirits; equivalent to the *eau de vie*, or brandy, of the French, the *whisky* of the Scotch and Irish, the *geneva* of the Dutch, &c. In this way it is used in the excise laws relating to the distilleries.

ARANGOES, a species of beads made of rough carnelian. They are of various forms, as barrel, bell, round, &c., and all drilled. The barrel-shaped kind, cut from the best stones, are from two to three inches long, and should be chosen as clear as possible, whether red or white, having a good polish, and free from flaws. The bell-shaped are from one to two inches long, being in all respects inferior. Considerable quantities were formerly imported from Bombay, for re-exportation to Africa; but since the abolition of the slave trade, the imports and exports of Arangoes are comparatively trifling.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ARCHANGEL, the principal commercial city of the north of Russia, in lat. 64° 39' 8" N., long. 40° 33' E., on the right bank of the Dwina, about 35 English miles above where it falls into the White Sea. Pop. 24,500. The harbour is at the island of Sollenbole, about a mile from the town. The bar at the mouth of the Dwina has from 13 to 14½ feet water; so that ships drawing more than this depth must be partially loaded outside the bar from lighters. The Dwina being a navigable river, traversing a great extent of country, and connected by canals with the Wolga on the one hand, and the Neva on the other, Archangel is a considerable *entrepôt*. It was discovered in 1554, by the famous Richard Chancellor, the companion of Sir Hugh Willoughby in his voyage of discovery; and from that period, down to the foundation of Petersburg, was the only port in the Russian empire accessible to foreigners. Though it has lost its ancient importance, it still enjoys a pretty extensive commerce. The principal articles of export are grain, tallow, flax, hemp, timber, linseed, iron, potash, mats, tar, &c. Deals from Archangel, and Onega in the vicinity of Archangel, are considered superior to those from the Baltic. Hemp not so good as at Riga, but proportionally cheaper. Tallow is also inferior. Iron same as at Petersburg, sometimes cheaper and sometimes dearer. The quality of the wheat exported from Archangel is about equal to that from Petersburg. The imports, which are not very extensive, consist principally of sugar, coffee, spices, salt, woollens, hardware, &c.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the various Articles exported from Archangel in 1847, specifying the Quantities of each sent to the different Countries to which they were exported, with the total Value of the Exports to such Countries, and the aggregate Value of the Exports:—

Articles exported.	Great Britain.	Holland.	Hanseatic Towns.	France.	Belgium.	Denmark.	Norway.	America.	Total Exports.	Value of Exports.
Linseed — qrs.	10,154	19,757	—	—	2,005	—	—	—	40,896	70,108
Oats — —	307,596	—	1,768	—	—	—	64	—	309,332	324,772
Rye — —	26,579	141,955	49,928	—	14,403	—	—	—	229,075	331,606
Wheat — —	43,586	—	—	—	—	2,408	2,801	—	48,395	50,640
Barley — —	9,163	10,212	—	—	—	—	—	—	19,375	23,533
Flax — —	4,138	—	—	2,105	—	—	—	98	6,243	229,072
Tow Cordage — —	5,022	—	—	1,150	—	—	—	—	6,172	174,718
Tallow — —	100	88	—	73	—	—	3	—	263	8,700
Train Oil — —	56	52	644	—	—	—	—	—	752	19,592
Candles — cwt.	812	—	154	—	—	—	19	—	965	17,718
Butter — —	272	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	272	972
Cordage — —	—	—	—	—	—	—	85	—	85	3,808
Iron — —	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	26	214
Horse Manes — cwt.	166	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	166	418
Bristles — —	167	—	—	—	25	—	—	—	192	3,762
Girts — —	46	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	46	5,291
Rye Flour — —	374	—	—	—	—	—	2,970	—	3,344	21,122
Wheat Flour — bags	60	400	—	—	—	—	—	—	460	564
Salt Beef — barrels	1,631	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,631	4,869
Tar — —	81,132	5,971	888	—	600	—	30	—	88,521	27,753
Fitch — —	3,547	5,437	1,748	1,960	1,300	10	200	—	11,532	7,428
Mats — —	620,559	96,410	58,857	4,316	8,733	—	530	445	13,500	881,831
Calf skins — —	48,815	459	29,619	—	—	—	—	—	79,893	7,378
Deals — —	—	—	—	4,970	—	—	—	—	4,970	21,083
Total Value of Exports £	866,336	356,226	90,724	124,640	28,038	3,392	30,810	5,124	—	1,410,880

The total value of the exports from Archangel, in 1841, was 2,873,733 silver rubles, and that of the imports, in the same year, only 356,889 do. The value of the flax exported, in 1841, was estimated at 851,863 silver rubles, and that of the linseed at 758,163 do. (*Russian Official Returns.*)

The trade of Archangel has latterly been declining. It is much influenced by the demand from the more southerly parts of Europe, and especially from England, for corn. When a brisk demand is anticipated, oats are brought in large quantities from the interior, sometimes even from a distance of 1,600 miles, in covered barks capable of holding several hundred quarters. But as there are few extensive mercantile establishments here, the supplies are scanty, except when a large demand is expected for some time previously to the season for bringing them down.—(*Osby's European Commerce, and private information.*)

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Petersburg; which see.

ARGOL, ARGAL, or TARTAR (Ger. *Weinstein*; Du. *Wynstein*; Fr. *Tartre*; It. *Sp.* and Port. *Tartaro*; Rus. *Winnoi kamen*; Lat. *Tartarus*), a hard crust formed on the sides of the vessels in which wine has been kept; it is red or white according to the colour of the wine, and is otherwise impure. On being purified, it is termed *cream* or *crystals of tartar*. It consists principally of bitartrate of potash. White argol is preferable to red, as containing less drossy or earthy matter. The marks of good argol of either kind are, its being thick, brittle, hard, brilliant, and little earthy. That brought from Bologna is reckoned the best, and fetches the highest price. Argol is of considerable use among dyers, as serving to dispose the stuffs to take their colours the better. Pure argol, or cream of tartar, is extensively used in medicine. It has an acid and rather unpleasant taste. It is very brittle, and easily reduced to powder: specific gravity 1.95.

The duty on argol, which is 6d. per cwt., produced, in 1840, 551*l.*, showing that 22,040 cwt. had been entered for consumption. The price of argol in the London market, in January, 1843, varied, Bologna, from 50*s.* to 52*s.* per cwt., Leghorn, 4*s.* to 4*s.* per ditto, Oporto, 2*s.* to 3*s.*, Rheinish, 3*s.* to 4*s.*

ARISTOLOCHIA (Fr. *Serpentaire*; Ger. *Schlangenwurz*; It. *Serpentaria*; Lat. *Aristolochia serpentaria*), the dried root of Virginia snake-root, or birthwort: it is small, light, and bushy, consisting of a number of fibres matted together, sprung from one common head, of a brownish colour on the outside, and pale or yellow within. It has an aromatic smell something like that of valerian, but more agreeable; and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste, very much resembling camphor.—(*Ency. Metrop.*)

ARMS. See **FIXE-ARMS.**

ARRACK, or RACK (Fr. *Arac*; Ger. *Arrack, Rack*; Du. *Arak, Rak*; It. *Araco*; Sp. *Arak*; Port. *Araca*; Rus. *Arak*), a spirituous liquor manufactured at different places in the East.

Arrack is a term applied in most parts of India, and the Indian islands, to designate every sort of spirituous liquor; a circumstance which accounts for the discrepancy in the statements as to the materials used in making it, and the mode of its manufacture. The arrack of Goa and Batavia is in high estimation; that of Colombo or Ceylon has been said to be inferior to the former; but this is doubtful. Goa and Colombo arrack is invariably made from the vegetable juice, *toddy*, which flows by incision from the cocoa-nut tree (*Cocos nucifera*). After the juice is fermented, it is distilled and rectified. It usually yields about an *eighth* part of pure spirit. Batavia or Java arrack is obtained by distillation from molasses and rice, with only a small admixture of toddy. When well prepared, arrack is clear and transparent; generally, however, it is slightly straw-coloured. Its flavour is peculiar; but it differs considerably, no doubt in consequence of the various articles of which it is prepared, and the unequal care taken in its manufacture. In England, arrack is seldom used except to give flavour to punch; formerly the imports were quite inconsiderable; but they have recently been a good deal greater, though, as they are mixed up in the official returns with rum from India, it is impossible to state their exact amount. The duty on rack from a British possession is 9*s.* 4*d.* a gallon, and on that from a foreign country 22*s.* 10*d.* per gallon. In the East its consumption is immense. It is issued to the soldiers in India as part of the established rations; and it is supplied, instead of rum, to the seamen of the royal navy employed in the Indian seas. It is one of the principal products of Ceylon. Its prime cost in that island varies from 8*d.* to 10*d.* a gallon; and large quantities are exported to India and elsewhere. It is sold in Ceylon by the legger of 150, and in Java by the legger of 160 gallons. In 1841 the exports from the latter amounted to 4,672 leggers, or 747,520 gallons, valued at 286,313 florins. Batavia arrack sold in bond in London in January, 1843, at from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* per gallon.

Pariah-arrack is a phrase used to designate a spirit distilled in the peninsula of India, which is said to be often rendered unwholesome by an admixture of *ganga* (*Cassia sativa*), and a species of *Datura*, in the view of increasing its intoxicating power. But it is not clear whether the term pariah-arrack be meant to imply that it is an inferior spirit, or an adulterated compound. This liquor is sometimes distilled from cocoa-nut toddy, and sometimes from a mixture of jaggery, water, and the barks of various trees.—(See *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; and *Mr. Marshall's valuable Essay on the Cocoa Nut Tree*, p. 18.)

ARROW-ROOT, the pith or starch of the root *Maranta arundinacea*. It has received its common name from its being supposed to be an antidote to the poisoned arrows of the Indians. The powder is prepared from roots of a year old. It is reckoned a very wholesome nutritious food: it is often adulterated, when in the shops, with the starch or flour of potatoes. It is a native of South America; but has been long intro-

Value of Exports.
 70,109
 394,772
 331,606
 90,640
 13,585
 255,674
 174,718
 5,700
 19,599
 904
 214
 2,808
 614
 416
 8,092
 2,691
 21,188
 664
 4,869
 57,733
 7,208
 25,947
 7,374
 11,063
 410,880

duceo into the West Indies, where it forms a pretty important article of cultivation. An excellent kind of arrow-root, if it may be so called, is now prepared in India from the root of the *Curcuma angustifolia*. The plant is abundant on the Malabar coast, where the powder is made in such quantities as to be a considerable object of trade. Some of it has been brought to England. The *Maranta arundinacea* has been carried from the West Indies to Caylon, where it thrives extremely well, and where arrow-root of the finest quality has been manufactured from it.—(*Ainslie's Med. Indica*.)

At an average of the years 1840 and 1841, the entries of arrow-root for home consumption amounted to 484,600 lbs. a year. The duty on arrow-root from a British possession is 1s., and from a foreign country, 2s. a cwt. It was quoted in the London market, in Jan. 1843, at from 8d. to 12s. 6d. per lb.

ARSENIC (*Ger. Arsenik*; *Fr. Arsenic*; *It. and Sp. Arsenico*; *Rus. Mischak*; *Lat. Arsenicum*). This metal has a bluish white colour not unlike that of steel, and a good deal of brilliancy. It has no sensible smell while cold, but when heated it emits a strong odour of garlic, which is very characteristic. It is the softest of all the metallic bodies, and so brittle that it may easily be reduced to a very fine powder by trituration in a mortar. Its specific gravity is 5.76.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Metallio arsenic is not used in the arts, and is not, therefore, extracted from the ore, except for the purposes of experiment or curiosity. The arsenic of commerce is the white oxide, or *arsenious acid* of chemists. It is a white, brittle, compact substance, of a glassy appearance; is inodorous; has an acrid taste, leaving on the tongue a sweetish impression; and is highly corrosive. In its metallic state arsenic exerts no action on the animal system; but when oxidized, it is a most virulent poison. The arsenic of the shops is sometimes adulterated with white sand, chalk, or gypsum; the fraud may be detected by heating a small portion of the suspected powder, when the arsenic is dissipated, leaving the impurities, if there be any, behind. Though the most violent of all the mineral poisons, the white oxide of arsenic, or the arsenic of the shops, is yet, when judiciously administered, a medicine of great efficacy. It is also used for various purposes in the arts. It is principally imported from Saxony and Bohemia.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

ASAFETIDA (*Ger. Teufelsdröck*; *Du. Duivelsdröck*; *Fr. Asa-fetida*; *Sp. Asa-fetida*; *Lat. asa-fetida*; *Per. Ungoash*), a gum resin, consisting of the inspissated juice of a large umbelliferous plant, the *Ferula asafetida*. It is produced in the southern provinces of Persia, and in the territory of Sindh, or country lying at the mouth of the Indus.

It is exported from the Persian gulf to Bombay and Calcutta, whence it is sent to Europe. It has a nauseous, somewhat bitter, biting taste, and an excessively strong, fetid, alliaceous smell; the newer it is, it possesses its smell and other peculiar properties in the greater perfection. It is imported, packed in irregular masses, in mats, casks, and cases; the last being, in general, the best. It should be chosen clean, fresh, strong-scented, of a pale reddish colour, variegated with a number of fine, white tears; when broken, it should somewhat resemble marble in appearance; and, after being exposed to the air, should turn of a violet red colour. That which is soft, black, and foul, should be rejected. The packages should be carefully examined, and ought to be tight, to prevent the smell from injuring any other article. Neither the imports nor the quantities cleared for consumption are considerable, though the latter are probably greater than might have been expected, amounting to about 9,000 lbs. a year. The duty is 1s. a cwt. In this country, it is used only in the materia medica. In France, it is used both in that way, and, to some extent, also as a condiment. It is worth, in bond, in the London market, from 25s. to 30s. per cwt.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Earl. Papers*; and *private information*.)

ASH (COMMON), the *Fraxinus excelsior* of botanists, a forest tree of which there are many varieties. It is abundant in England, and is of the greatest utility.

The ash is of very rapid growth; and, unlike most other trees, its value is rather increased than diminished by this circumstance. Like the chestnut, the wood of young trees is most esteemed. It grows on a great variety of soils, but is best where the growth has been most vigorous. It is inferior to the oak in stiffness, and is more easily split; but in toughness and elasticity it is far superior to the oak, or to any other species of timber. Hence its universal employment in all those parts of machinery which have to sustain sudden shocks, such as the circumference, teeth, and spokes of wheels, ship-blocks, &c., and in the manufacture of agricultural implements; in the latter, indeed, it is almost exclusively made use of. The want of prolonged durability is its greatest defect; and it is too flexible to be employed in building. The wood of old trees is of a dark brown colour, sometimes beautifully figured; the wood of young trees is brownish white, with a shade of green. The texture is alternately compact and porous; where the growth has been vigorous, the compact part of the several layers bears a greater proportion to the spongy, and the timber is comparatively tough, elastic, and durable. It has neither taste nor smell; and, when young, is difficult to work. The mountain ash (*Pyrus aucuparia*) is quite a different tree from the common ash, and its timber is far less valuable.—(*Fredgold's Principles of Carpentry*; *Timber Trees and Fruits*; in *Lib. of Entertaining Knowledge*, &c.)

ASHES (*Fr. Cendres*; *Ger. Weidasche*; *Du. Weedas*; *Da. Veedsake*; *It. Fecola bruciata*; *Sp. Alumbre de hez*; *Rus. Weidasch*; *Lat. Cineres infectioris*), the residuum, or earthy part, of any substance after it has been burnt. In commerce, the term is applied to the ashes of vegetable substances; from which are extracted the alkaline salts called potash, pearlsh, barilla, kelp, &c.; which see.

ASPHALTUM. See BITUMEN.

ASSETS, in commerce, a term used to designate the stock in trade, and the entire property of all sorts, belonging to a merchant or to a trading association. It is also applied to goods or property placed, for the discharge of some particular trust or obligation, in the hands of executors, assignees, &c.

ASSIENTO, a Spanish word signifying a contract. In commercial history, it means the contract or agreement by which the Spanish government ceded first to a company of French, and afterwards (by the treaty of Utrecht) to a company of English merchants, the right to import, under certain conditions, a specified number of slaves into the

Spanish colonies.—(For full particulars with respect to this contract see Mr. Bandinel's valuable work on the Slave Trade.)

ASSIGNEE, a person appointed by competent authority to do, act, or transact some business, or exercise some particular privilege or power, for or on account of some specified individual or individuals.

Assignees may be created by deed, or by law: by deed, where the lessee of a farm assigns the same to another; by law, where the law makes an assignee, without any appointment of the person entitled, as an executor is assignee in law to the testator, and an administrator to an intestate. The term is most commonly applied to the official assignees appointed to manage bankrupt estates.—(See **BANKRUPT**.)

ASSIZE. See **BREAD**.

ASSURANCE. See **INSURANCE**.

AUCTION, a public sale of goods to the highest bidder. Auctions are generally notified by advertisement, and are held in some open place. The biddings may be made either by parties present, or by the auctioneer under authority given to him; the sale is usually terminated by the fall of a hammer.

The duties on property sold by auction were repealed in the course of the present year, (1845). We observed upon them in our Treatise on Taxation, as follows:—

"The auction duties, which were first imposed in 1777, consist of duties proportioned to its value, charged on certain descriptions of property when sold by auction. They amount to 7d. per pound sterling on the value of estates, houses, annuities, shares in public companies, ships, funds, and some other articles; and to 1s. per pound on the value of household furniture, books, horses, carriages, and all other goods and chattels. The exemptions are, however, very numerous, comprising various descriptions of movable property, with all sorts of property sold by order of the Courts of Chancery and Exchequer, or for behoof of creditors, or under distress for rent, &c. These duties were strongly, and, we think, justly objected to by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry. As it is admitted on all hands that the exposure of property to sale by auction affords the readiest means of ascertaining its value, it seems unreasonable, by imposing duties on auctions, to prevent resort being had to them in the disposal of property. Certainly, however, the duties materially lessen the number of auctions; and very many, perhaps we might say the greater number, of the estates put up to auction, are merely exposed in the view of ascertaining their value; being, to avoid the duty bought in by the exposers, and then sold by private bargain. But it is not easy to see why, if a duty is to be laid on the transfer of fixed property, it should not be made to press equally on it whatever be the mode of its transfer, or why it should be made to fall heaviest on what has been transferred by auction. We, therefore, are inclined to approve of the suggestion made to the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry, and sanctioned by them, for commutating the duties on the sale of estates and other fixed property by auction for a small *ad valorem* duty upon all transfers of such property conveyed by deed or written instrument, without regard to the mode in which the transfer has been brought about. And were such commutation effected, the duty on sales of other property might be advantageously relinquished; for, while it is of no great importance to the revenue, it presses, from the number of exemptions, severely and unjustly on certain individuals."—(p. 240.)

The commutation suggested above was not, however, adopted, the duty being unconditionally repealed by the act 8 Vict. c. 15.

AUCTIONEER, a person who conducts sales by auction. It is his duty to state the conditions of sale, to declare the respective biddings, and to terminate the sale by *knocking down* the thing sold to the highest bidder. An auctioneer is held to be lawfully authorised by the purchaser to sign a contract for him, whether it be for lands or goods. And his writing down the name of the highest bidder in his book is sufficient to bind any other person for whom the highest bidder purchased, even though such person be present, provided he do not object *before entry*. The following provisions with respect to auctioneers are embodied in the 8 Vict. c. 15.

Every auctioneer must take out a licence (renewable annually on the 5th of July), for which he is to be charged 10s.

The statute then goes on to enact:

Auction Licences not necessary in certain Cases.—It shall not be necessary for any person selling any goods or chattels by auction in any of the cases herein-after mentioned to take out the licence by this act required, viz. any person selling any goods or chattels by auction under a distress for nonpayment of rent or tithes to less amount than 20s.; or under authority of the act 8 Geo. 4. c. 48., "For the Recovery of Small Debts in Scotland;" or under authority of the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 76., intitled "An Act to extend the Jurisdiction and regulate the Proceedings of the Civil Bill Courts in Ireland;" and the act 7 Will. 4. & 1 Vict. c. 43., intitled "An Act to amend the Laws for the Recovery of Small Debts by Civil Bill in Ireland;" or under authority of the act 7 Will. 4. & 1 Vict. c. 41., intitled "An Act for the more effectual Recovery of Small Debts in the Sheriff Courts, and for regulating the Establishment of Circuit Courts for the Trial of Small Debt Causes by the Sheriffs in Scotland;" or under authority of any other act or acts of parliament now in force in which the like exemption as by the act specified is given to the proper officers of court executing the process of such court to sell the effects seized by him by auction, without taking out or having any licence as an auctioneer, provided the sum for which such process is enforced is under 20s.—§ 8.

6 Geo. 4. c. 51. s. 8. repealed, and 1 Excise Licence to be sufficient.—So much of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 51. as enacts "that every person exercising or carrying on the trade or business of an auctioneer, or selling any goods or chattels, lands, tenements, or hereditaments by auction shall, over and above any licence taken out to him or her granted as an auctioneer, take out such licence as is required by law to deal in or retail, or to vend, trade in, or sell, any goods or commodities, for the dealing in or retailing or vending, trading in or selling of which an excise licence is specially required, before he or she shall be permitted or authorised to sell such goods or commodities by auction; and if any such person shall sell any such goods or commodities as aforesaid by auction without having taken out such licence as aforesaid for that purpose, he or she shall be subject and liable to the penalty in that behalf imposed upon persons dealing in or retailing, vending, trading, or selling any such goods or commodities without licence, notwithstanding any licence taken out to him or her before granted as aforesaid for the purpose of exercising or carrying on the trade or business of an auctioneer, or selling any goods or chattels, lands, tenements, or hereditaments by auction, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding," together with the proviso thereto attached, and so much of any other act or acts of parliament by which it is required that a separate and distinct licence shall be taken out by any auctioneer selling by auction gold or silver plate or patent medicines, or any other articles, are hereby repealed; and any auctioneer having at the time in force a licence on which the duty under the provisions of this act has been paid may sell by auction any such property, goods, or commodities, without taking out any other licence in such respect, any other act or acts to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.—§ 6.

Clause 7. orders that every auctioneer, before he shall commence any sale, shall suspend or affix a ticket or board containing his full Christian name and surname and place of residence in large letters to some conspicuous part of the room or place where the auction is held, under a penalty of 20*l*.

Clause 8. enacts that every person acting as auctioneer shall produce his licence, or make a deposit of 10*l*., on pain of 1 month's imprisonment, on the demand of any sale by auction of any officer of excise, customs, or stamps and taxes.

An auctioneer who declines to disclose the name of his principal at the time of sale makes himself responsible. But if he disclose the name of his principal, he ceases to be responsible, either for the soundness of or title to the thing sold, unless he have expressly warranted it on his own responsibility.

If an auctioneer pay over the produce of a sale to his employer, after receiving notice that the goods were not the property of such employer, the real owner of the goods may recover the amount from the auctioneer.

It has long been a common practice at certain auctions (called for that reason *mock* auctions) to employ *puffers*, or mock bidders, to raise the value of the articles sold by their apparent competition, and many questions have grown out of it. It was long ago decided, that if the owner of an estate put up to sale by auction employ puffers to bid for him, it is a fraud on the real bidder, and the highest bidder cannot be compelled to complete his contract.—(6 *T. Rep.* p. 642.) But it would seem as if the mere employment of puffers under any circumstances were now held to be illegal. "The inclination of the courts at the present time is, that a sale by auction should be conducted in the most open and public manner possible; that there should be no reserve on the part of the seller, and no collusion on the part of the buyers. Puffing is illegal, according to a late case, even though there be only one puffer; and it was then decided that the recognised practice at auctions, of employing such persons to bid upon the sale of horses, could not be sustained."—(*Woolrych on Commercial Law*, p. 262.)

A party bidding at an auction may retract his offer at any time before the hammer is down. Another clearly established principle is, that verbal declarations by an auctioneer are not to be suffered to control the printed conditions of sale; and these, when pasted up under the box of the auctioneer, are held to be sufficiently notified to purchasers.

Auctioneers, like all other agents, should carefully observe their instructions. Should those who employ them sustain any damage through their carelessness or inattention, they will be responsible. They must also answer for the consequences, if they sell the property intrusted to their care for less than the price set upon it by the owners, or in a way contrary to order.

An auctioneer who has duly paid the licence duty is not liable, in the city of London, to the penalties for acting as a *broker* without being admitted agreeably to the 6 Anne, c. 16.

The establishment of mock auctions is a common practice among swindlers in London. Persons are frequently placed at the doors of such auctions, denominated *barkers*, to invite strangers to come in; and puffers are in wait to bid up the article much beyond its value. A stranger making an offer at such an auction is almost sure to have the article knocked down to him. Plated goods are often disposed of at these auctions; but it is almost needless to add, that they are of very inferior quality. Attempts have sometimes been made to suppress mock auctions, but hitherto without much success. (For an account of the produce of the late duties on auctions, see head of next page.)

AVERAGE, a term used in commerce and navigation to signify a contribution made by the individuals, when they happen to be more than one, to whom a ship, or the goods on board it, belong, or by whom it or they are insured; in order that no particular individual or individuals amongst them, who may have been forced to make a sacrifice for the preservation of the ship or cargo, or both, should lose more than others. "Thus," says Mr Serjeant Marshall, "where the goods of a particular merchant are thrown overboard in a storm to save the ship from sinking; or where the masts, cables, anchors, or other furniture of the ship, are cut away or destroyed for the

Account of the Produce of the Auction Duties in each of the 3 Years ending the 5th of January, 1843, distinguishing the Amount paid under separate Heads.

	Amount of Auction Duties on the Sale of														
	Estates, Houses, Annuities, Ships, Plate, Jewels, &c.			Household Furniture, Horns, Carriages, and all other Goods and Chattels.			Sheep's Wool.		Foreign Produce (First Sale thereof.)			Total Produce.			
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
England - - -	127,443	12	10	156,192	12	0	21	2	0	2,963	14	9	286,680	2	19
Scotland - - -	5,820	4	8	14,924	3	1	3	4	7	301	4	9	20,080	19	7
Ireland - - -	2,383	4	10	10,791	14	0	0	8	2	-	-	-	15,377	5	2
Year ended 5th of January, 1841	135,659	1	10	181,009	10	1	23	19	6	3,169	19	6	320,038	11	6
England - - -	121,080	8	4	155,956	1	7	19	13	3	3,722	11	6	279,848	14	24
Scotland - - -	5,877	12	1	14,904	19	7	3	2	1	137	10	5	20,823	4	2
Ireland - - -	2,018	15	2	10,318	8	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	15,335	6	2
Year ended 5th of January, 1842	129,974	10	11	181,179	9	2	22	15	4	2,930	9	0	314,067	5	7
England - - -	101,526	13	9	155,829	16	6	17	10	6	3,565	16	2	280,329	16	11
Scotland - - -	5,067	8	10	14,897	8	5	1	19	7	74	12	3	19,841	9	2
Ireland - - -	6,747	10	1	10,144	9	3	0	5	5	11	1	3	16,963	6	2
Year ended 5th of January, 1843	113,331	9	3	180,861	8	4	19	15	6	2,951	9	3	296,964	3	6

preservation of the whole; or money or goods are given as a composition to pirates to save the rest; or an expense is incurred in reclaiming the ship, or defending a suit in a foreign court of admiralty, and obtaining her discharge from an unjust capture or detention; in these and the like cases, where any sacrifice is deliberately and voluntarily made, or any expense fairly and *bona fide* incurred, to prevent a total loss, such sacrifice or expense is the proper subject of a general contribution, and ought to be rateably borne by the owners of the ship, freight, and cargo, so that the loss may fall equally on all, according to the equitable maxim of the civil law — no one ought to be enriched by another's loss: *Nemo debet locupletari aliena factura.*"

Upon this fair principle is founded the doctrine of average contributions; regulations with respect to which having been embodied in the Rhodian law, were thence adopted into the Roman law; and form a prominent part of all modern systems of maritime jurisprudence. The rule of the Rhodian law is, that "if, for the sake of lightening a ship in danger at sea, goods be thrown overboard, the loss incurred for the sake of all, shall be made good by a general contribution." — (*Dig. lib. 14. tit. 2. § 1.*; *Schomberg on the Maritime Laws of Rhodes*, p. 60.)

Formerly it was a common practice to ransom British ships when captured by an enemy, the ransom being made good by a general average. But this practice having been deemed disadvantageous, it was abolished by statute 22 Geo. 3. c. 25., which declares, "That all contracts and agreements which shall be entered into, and all bills, notes, and other securities, which shall be given by any person or persons, for ransom of any ship or vessel, merchandize, or goods, captured by the subjects of any state at war with his Majesty, or by any person committing hostilities against his Majesty's subjects, shall be absolutely void in law, and of no effect whatever;" and a penalty of 500*l.* is given to the informer, for every offence against this act.

Average is either *general* or *particular*; that is, it either affects all who have any interest in the ship and cargo, or only some of them. The contributions levied in the cases mentioned above, come under the first class. But when losses occur from ordinary wear and tear, or from the perils naturally incident to a voyage, without being *voluntarily* encountered, such as the accidental springing of masts, the loss of anchors, &c., or when any peculiar sacrifice is made for the sake of the *ship only*, or of the *cargo only*, these losses, or this sacrifice, must be borne by the parties immediately interested, and are consequently defrayed by a *particular* average.

There are also some small charges called *petty* or *accustomed* averages; it is usual to charge one third of them to the ship and two thirds to the cargo.

No general average ever takes place, except it can be shown that the danger was imminent, and that the sacrifice made was *indispensable*, or *supposed to be indispensable*, by the *captain and officers*, for the *safety of the ship and cargo*. The captain, on coming on shore, should immediately make his protests; and he, with some of the crew, should make oath that the goods were thrown overboard, masts or anchors cut away, money paid, or other loss sustained, for the preservation of the ship and goods, and of the lives of those on board, and for no other purpose. The average, if not settled before, should then be adjusted, and it should be paid before the cargo is landed; for the owners of the ship have a *lien* on the goods on board, not only for the freight, but also to answer *all averages and contributions that may be due*. But though the captain should neglect his duty in this respect, the sufferer would not be without a remedy, but might bring an action either against him or the owners.

The laws of different states, and the opinions of the ablest jurists, vary as to whether

the loss incurred in defending a ship against an enemy or pirate, and in the treatment of the wounded officers and men, should be made good by general or particular average. The Ordinance of the Hanse Towns (art. 35.), the Ordinance of 1681 (liv. iii. tit. 7. § 6.), and the *Code de Commerce* (art. 400. §. 6.), explicitly declare that the charges on account of medicine, and for attendance upon the officers and seamen wounded in defending the ship, shall be general average. A regulation of this sort seems to be founded on reason. But other codes are silent on the subject; and though the contrary opinion had been advanced by Mr. Serjeant Marshall, and by Mr. Justice Park in the earlier editions of his work, the Court of Common Pleas has unanimously decided that in England neither the damage done to a ship, nor the ammunition expended, nor the expense of healing sailors wounded in an action with an enemy or pirate, is a subject of general average. — (*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. cap. 8.)

Much doubt has been entertained, whether expenses incurred by a ship in an intermediate port in which she has taken refuge, should be general average or fall only on the ship. But on principle, at least, it is clear, that if the retreat of the ship to port be made in order to obviate the danger of foundering, or some other great and imminent calamity, the expenses incurred in entering it, and during the time she is forced by stress of weather, or adverse winds, to continue in it, ought to belong to general average. But if the retreat of the ship to port be made in order to repair an injury occasioned by the unskillfulness of the master, or in consequence of any defect in her outfit, such, for example, as deficiencies of water, provisions, sails, &c., with which she ought to have been sufficiently supplied before setting out, the expenses should fall wholly on the owners.

When a ship (supposed to be *seaworthy*) is forced to take refuge in an intermediate port, because of a loss occasioned by a peril of the sea, as the springing of a mast, &c., then, as the accident is not ascribable to any fault of the master or owners, and the retreat to port is indispensable for the safety of the ship and cargo, it would seem that any *extraordinary expense* incurred in entering it should be made good by general average.

Supposing, however, that it could be shown, that the ship was not, at her outset, seaworthy, or in a condition to withstand the perils of the sea; that the mast, for example, which has sprung, had been previously damaged; or supposing that the mischief had been occasioned by the incapacity of the master; the whole blame would, in such a case, be ascribable to the owners, who, besides defraying every expense, should be liable in damages, to the freighters for the delay that would necessarily take place in completing the voyage, and for whatever damage might be done to the cargo.

These, however, are merely the conclusions to which, as it appears to us, those must come who look only to principles. The law with respect to the points referred to differs in different countries, and has differed in this country at different periods. "A doubt," says Lord Tenterden, "was formerly entertained as to the expenses of a ship in a port in which she had taken refuge, to repair the damage occasioned by a tempest; but this has been removed by late decisions. And it has been held, that the wages and provisions of the crew during such a period must fall upon the ship alone. But if a ship should necessarily go into an intermediate port for the purpose only of repairing such a damage as is in itself a proper object of general contribution, possibly the wages, &c. during the period of such detention, may also be held to be general average, on the ground that the accessory should follow the nature of its principal." — (*Law of Ship.*, pt. iii. c. 8.)

Perhaps the reader who reflects on the vagueness of this passage will be disposed to concur with Lord Tenterden's remark in another part of the same chapter, "That the determinations of the English courts of justice furnish less of authority on this subject (average) than on any other branch of maritime law."

The question, whether the *repairs* which a ship undergoes that is forced to put into an intermediate port ought to be general or particular average, has occasioned a great diversity of opinion; but the principles that ought to regulate our decision with respect to it seem pretty obvious. Injuries voluntarily done to the ship, as cutting away masts, yards, &c. to avert some impending danger, are universally admitted to be general average. It seems, however, hardly less clear, and is, indeed, expressly laid down by all the great authorities, that injuries done to the ship by the violence of the winds or the waves should be particular average, or should fall wholly on the owners. The ship, to use the admirable illustration of this principle given in the civil law, is like the tool or instrument of a workman in his trade. If in doing his work he break his hammer, his anvil, or any other instrument, he can claim no satisfaction for this from his employer. — (*Dig. lib. xiv. tit. 2. § 2.*) The owners are bound, both by the usual conditions in all charterparties, and at common law, to carry the cargo to its destination; and they must consequently be bound, in the event of the ship sustaining any accidental or natural damage during the voyage, either to repair that damage at their own expense, or to provide another vessel to forward the goods. In point of fact, too, such subsidiary ships have often been provided; but it has never been pretended that their hire was a subject of general average, though it is plain it has quite as good a right to be so considered

as the cost of repairing the damage done to the ship by a peril of the sea. Hence, when a ship puts into an intermediate port for the common safety, the charges incurred in entering the port, and down to the earliest time that the wind and weather become favourable for leaving it, ought to be general average; but the repair of any damage she may have sustained by wear and tear, or by the mere violence of the storm, or an accidental peril, and the wages of the crew, and other expenses incurred after the weather has moderated, should fall wholly on the owners.

It has been, however, within these few years, decided, in the case of a British ship that had been obliged to put into port in consequence of an injury resulting from her accidentally coming into collision with another, that so much of the repair she then underwent as was absolutely necessary to enable her to perform her voyages should be general average. The Judges, however, spoke rather doubtfully on the subject; and it is exceedingly difficult to discover any good grounds for the judgment. — (Plummer and Another v. Wildman, 3 M. & S. 482.) — It seems directly opposed to all principle, as well as to the authority of the laws of Rhodes (*Dig.* 14. tit. 2.), of Oleron (art. 9.), of Wisby (art. 12.), and to the common law with respect to freight. Lord Tenterden has expressed himself as if he were hostile to the judgment. It is, indeed, at variance with all the doctrines he lays down; and the terms in which he alludes to it, "*yet in one case*," appear to hold it forth as an exception (which it certainly is) to the course of decisions on the subject.

It is now usual in this country, when a vessel puts into port on account of a damage belonging to particular average, which requires to be repaired before she can safely proceed on her voyage, to allow in general average the expense of entering the port and unloading, to charge the owners of the goods or their underwriters with the warehouse rent and expenses attending the cargo, and to throw the expense of reloading and departure on the freight.

Considerable doubts have existed in regard to the policy of making the loss of goods stowed upon the deck and thrown overboard the subject of general average. The French Ordinance of 1681, proceeding on the assumption that deck stowage is in all cases improper, has expressly excluded goods so stowed from the benefit of such average. — (*Liv.* iii. tit. 8. § 13.) This, however, is plainly a matter in regard to which no invariable rule can be safely laid down; for, though speaking generally, stowage on the deck be improper and dangerous in most distant voyages, it may not be so, at least in certain seasons of the year, and in certain descriptions of vessels, in the coasting or cross-channel trades, or in over-sea voyages to contiguous countries. And such being the case, the preferable plan would seem to be to leave cases of the jettison of the deck cargo to be decided according to the practice of the peculiar trade in which they may happen to take place. This, too, we infer, though the point has not been judicially determined, is, in fact, the law of England at this moment. *Primâ facie*, deck goods are excluded from the benefit of general average; but if it can be shown that stowage on deck is the usage of the trade in which a jettison takes place, and the custom of the parties engaged in it, the general presumption against the practice would be defeated, and the goods would be admitted to the benefit of general average. — (See Mr. Serjeant Shee's valuable edition of Lord Tenterden's work on the Law of Shipping, pp. 481 — 489.)

A late statute, the 5 Vict. 2 sess. c. 17., makes it illegal for ships laden with timber and clearing out from any port in British N. America between the 1st of November and the 1st of May to have any portion of the cargo on deck. But, with this exception, the propriety of stowing goods on the deck must be determined by the opinions of those engaged in the particular trade in which it may have occurred.

According to the law of England, when a ship is injured by coming into collision with or running foul of another, if the misfortune has been accidental, and no blame can be ascribed to either party, the owners of the damaged ship have to bear the loss. In cases where a collision has taken place through the fault of one party only, of course, is responsible for the consequences; but where both parties are to blame, without its being possible to discriminate the precise culpability of each, the loss or damage is to be defrayed equally by both parties. And this, also, is the rule laid down by the laws of Oleron and Wisby, and the famous French Ordinance of 1681, in reference to accidental collisions. The *Code de Commerce* (art. 407.), however, throws the loss resulting from accidental collisions on the suffering party, harmonising in this respect with the law of England. — (See COLLISION, in Supplement.)

The ship and freight, and every thing on board, even jewels, plate, and money, except wearing apparel, contribute to general average. But the wages of seamen do not contribute because, had they been laid under this obligation, they might have been tempted to oppose a sacrifice necessary for the general safety.

Different states have adopted different modes of valuing the articles which are to contribute to an average. In this respect the law of England has varied considerably at different periods. At present, however, the ship is valued at the price she is worth on

her arrival at the port of delivery. The value of the freight is held to be the clear sum which the ship has earned after seamen's wages, pilotage, and all such other charges as come under the name of petty averages, are deducted. It is now the settled practice to value the goods lost, as well as those saved, at the price they would have fetched in ready money, at the port of delivery, on the ship's arrival there, freight, duties, and other charges being deducted. Each person's share of the loss will bear the same proportion to the value of his property, that the whole loss bears to the aggregate value of the ship, freight, and cargo. The necessity of taking the goods lost into this account is obvious; for otherwise their owner would be the only person who would not be a loser.

When the loss of masts, cables, and other furniture of the ship, is compensated by general average, it is usual, as the new articles will, in all ordinary cases, be of greater value than those that have been lost, to deduct *one third* from the value of the former, leaving two thirds only to be contributed.

But the mode of adjusting an average will be better understood by the following example, extracted from Chief Justice Tenterden's valuable work on the *Law of Shipping*, part iii. cap. 8.

"The reader will suppose that it became necessary, in the Downs, to cut the cable of a ship destined for Hull; that the ship afterwards struck upon the Goodwin, which compelled the master to cut away his mast, and cast overboard part of the cargo, in which operation another part was injured; and that the ship, being cleared from the sands, was forced to take refuge in Ramsgate harbour, to avoid the further effects of the storm.

Amount of Losses.		Value of Articles to contribute.	
	L.		L.
Goods of A. cast overboard	500	Goods of A. cast overboard	500
Damage of the goods of B. by the jettison	300	Sound value of the goods of B., deducting freight and charges	1,000
Freight of the goods cast overboard	100	Goods of C.	500
Price of a new cable, anchor, and mast	L.300	— D.	5,000
Deduct one third	100	— E.	5,000
Expence of bringing the ship off the sands	300	Value of the ship	1,000
Pilotage and port duties going into the harbour and out, and commission to the agent who made the disbursements	100	Clear freight, deducting wages, victuals, &c.	500
Expence there	25		
Adjusting this average	4		
Portage	1		
Total of losses	L. 1,150	Total of contributory values	L. 11,600

Then, 11,600L. : 1,150L. :: 100L. : 10L.

That is, each person will lose 10 per cent. upon the value of his interest in the cargo, ship, or freight. Therefore, A. loses 50L., B. 100L., C. 50L., D. 300L., E. 500L., the owners 300L.; in all, 1,150L. Upon this calculation, the owners are to lose 300L.; but they are to receive from the contribution 360L., to make good their disbursements, and 100L. more for the freight of the goods thrown overboard; or 460L. minus 300L.

They, therefore, are actually to receive

A. is to contribute 50L., but has lost 300L.; therefore A. is to receive L. 200

B. is to contribute 100L., but has lost 300L.; therefore B. is to receive 100

Total to be actually received L. 750

On the other hand, C., D., and E. have lost nothing, and are to pay as before; viz. { C. L. 500

. { D. 300

. { E. 500

Total to be actually paid L. 900

which is exactly equal to the total to be actually received, and must be paid by and to each person in rateable proportion.

"In the above estimate of losses, I have included the freight of the goods thrown overboard, which appears to be proper, as the freight of the goods is to be paid, and their supposed value is taken clear of freight, as well as other charges. In this country, where the practice of insurance is very general, it is usual for the broker, who has procured the policy of insurance, to draw up an adjustment of the average, which is commonly paid in the first instance by the insurers without dispute. In case of dispute, the contribution may be recovered either *by a writ in equity*, or by an action at law, instituted by each individual entitled to receive, against each party that ought to pay, for the amount of his share. And in the case of a general ship, where there are many consignees, it is usual for the master, before he delivers the goods, to take a bond from the different merchants for payment of their portions of the average when the same shall be adjusted."

The subject of average does not necessarily make a part of the law of insurance; though as insurers, from the terms of most policies, are liable to indemnify the insured against those contributions which are properly denominated *general average*, its consideration very frequently occurs in questions as to partial losses. But in order to confine assurances to that which should be their only object, namely, an indemnity against real and important losses arising from a peril of the sea, as well as to obviate disputes respecting losses arising from the perishable quality of the goods insured, and all trivial subjects of difference and litigation, it seems to be the general law of all maritime states, and is expressly, indeed, provided by the famous Ordinance of 1681 (see liv. iii. tit. 6. § 47., and the elaborate commentary of M. Valin), that the insurer shall not be liable to any demand on account of average, unless it exceed *one per cent.* An

article (No. 408.) to the same effect is inserted in the *Code de Commerce*; and, by stipulation, this limitation is frequently extended in French policies to three or four per cent. A similar practice was adopted in this country in 1749. It is now constantly stipulated in all policies, that upon certain enumerated articles of a quality peculiarly perishable, the insurer shall not be liable for any partial loss whatever; that upon certain others liable to partial injuries, but less difficult to be preserved at sea, he shall only be liable for partial losses above five per cent.; and that as to all other goods, and also the ship and freight, he shall only be liable for partial losses above three per cent. This stipulation is made by a memorandum inserted at the bottom of all policies done at Lloyd's, of the following tenour:—"N. B. Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seeds are warranted free from average, unless general, or the ship be stranded; sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins are warranted free from average under five per cent.; and all other goods free from average under three per cent, unless general, or the ship be stranded."

The form of this memorandum was universally used, as well by the Royal Exchange and London Assurance Companies as by private underwriters, till 1754, when it was decided that a ship having run aground, was a stranded ship within the meaning of the memorandum; and that although she got off again, the underwriters were liable to the average or partial loss upon damaged corn. This decision induced the two Companies to strike the words "or the ship be stranded" out of the memorandum; so that now they consider themselves liable to no losses which can happen to such commodities, except general averages and total losses. The old form is still retained by the private underwriters.—(See STRANDING.)

The reader is referred, for the further discussion of this important subject, to the article MARINE INSURANCE; and to *Mr. Stearns's Essay on Average*; *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. cap. 8.; *Marshall on Insurance*, book i. cap. 12. s. 7.; *Park on Insurance*, cap. 7.; and *Mr. Bensch's* elaborate and able work on the *Principles of Indemnity in Marine Insurance*.

AVOIRDUPOIS, a weight used in determining the gravity of bulky commodities. See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

B.

BACON and HAMS. The former is made from the sides and belly of the pig, and the latter from its hind legs. The process of curing may be effected indifferently by the employment of salt or sugar, or both; but the first is by far the most commonly used: after being impregnated with salt or sugar, and allowed to remain a certain time in the solution, the bacon and hams are taken out, dried, and smoked. The counties of England most celebrated for bacon and hams are York, Hants, Berks, and Wilts. Ireland produces great quantities of both; but they are coarse, and not so well cured as the English, and much lower priced. Of the Scotch counties, Dumfries, Wigtown, and Kirkcudbright are celebrated for the excellence of their bacon and hams, of which they export large quantities, principally to the Liverpool and London markets.

The imports of bacon and hams from Ireland have increased rapidly of late years. The average quantity imported during the three years ending the 25th of March, 1800, only amounted to 41,948 cwt.; whereas during the three years ending with 1820, the average imports amounted to 204,380 cwt.; and during the three years ending with 1825, they had increased to 338,218 cwt. In 1825, the trade between Ireland and Great Britain was placed on the footing of a coasting trade; and bacon and hams are imported and exported without any specific entry at the Custom-house. We believe, however, that the imports of these articles into Great Britain from Ireland amount, at present, to little less than 600,000 cwt. a year. The quantity of bacon and hams exported from Ireland to foreign countries is inconsiderable.

Previously to 1842 the duty on bacon and hams being 3s. a cwt. was in effect prohibitory of the former, and little or none was imported. It was then, however, reduced to 1s. a cwt. (9 & 6 Vict. c. 47.), and there can be little doubt that this reduction will occasion a considerable increase of importation.

The exports of bacon and hams from the United States during the year ended the 30th September 1841 amounted to 2,794,817 lbs. (*Papers printed by order of Congress*, 21 July 1842, p. 210.); and it was stated during the discussions on the tariff in the House of Commons in 1842, that large quantities of American bacon and hams would, most probably, be imported into this country. It is doubtful, however, whether such will be the case. At present American bacon is very inferior, the exports going principally to Cuba and other West India islands, where it is mostly employed in feeding slaves; and unless it be very much improved, the presumption is that it will not be sent to our markets. It is highly probable, however, that America will henceforth supply us with considerable quantities of salted pork, the duty on which is now only 8s. a cwt.

The old duty on hams produced, in 1840, 2,882s., showing that only 1,710 cwt. had been imported. But there can be no doubt that the imports will in future be largely increased. Westphalia hams being of a very superior quality, it is probable that they will be principally imported. Virginia hams are, also, of good quality.

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BAGGAGE, in commercial navigation, the wearing apparel and other articles destined for the sole use or accommodation of the crews and passengers of ships. The following are the Custom-house regulations with respect to baggage:—

Baggage and apparel accompanied by the proprietor, worn and in use (not made up for the purpose of being introduced into this country), exempted from all duty on importation.

Articles in baggage subject to duty or prohibited may be left in custody of the officers of customs for a period of six months, to give the party an opportunity of paying the duty or taking them back.—(Customs Order, August 6, 1822.)

If unaccompanied by proprietor, proof must be made by the party that it is as aforesaid, and not imported as merchandise, otherwise it is subject to a duty of 20 per cent.

If not cleared at the expiration of six months from the date of landing, it is liable to be sold for duty and charges, the residue (if any) to be paid to the right owner on proof being adduced to the satisfaction of the honourable Board.

One fowling-piece and one pair of pistols accompanying the party, *bond fide* in use, free per Customs Order, July 8, 1825.

Spirits being the remains of passengers' stores may be admitted to entry.—(G. Geo. 4. c. 107. § 107.)

One pint of drinkable spirits of whatever strength, or half a pint of cordial or Cologne water, in baggage for private use—free.—(Treasury Order, October 20, 1820.)

Carriages of British manufacture, in use—free.—(Treasury Order, September 26, 1817.)

Glass, in dressing or medicine cases of British manufacture, free upon proof that no drawback has been received.—(Treasury Order, December 6, 1821.)—(Nyrén's Tables.)

Passengers denying having Foreign Goods in their Possession.—The following clause in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 65, has reference to this subject:—“If any passenger or other person, on board any vessel or boat, shall, upon being questioned by any customs officer whether he or she has any foreign goods upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, deny the same, and any such goods shall, after such denial, be discovered upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, such goods shall be forfeited, and such person shall forfeit treble the value of such goods.”—§ 37.

BAHIA, on **ST. SALVADOR**, a large city (formerly the capital) of Brazil, contiguous to Cape St. Antonio, which forms the right or eastern side of the entrance of the noble bay of Todos os Santos, or All-Saints. According to the observations of M. Roussin, the light-house on the Cape is in lat. 13° 0' 30" S., long. 38° 30' W. The opposite side of the entrance to the bay is formed by the island of Tapocira, distant from Cape St. Antonio about 2½ leagues. But a bank along the shore of the island narrows the passage for large ships to about two thirds this distance. Another bank runs S. S. W. from Cape St. Antonio about 1½ league. Within, the bay expands into a capacious basin, having several islands and harbours, the depth of water varying from 8 and 10 to 40 fathoms, affording ample accommodation and secure anchorage for the largest fleets.

There is another entrance to the bay, partly exhibited in the annexed plan, on the west side of the island of Tapocira; but it is narrow, intricate, and at its mouth has not more than 6 feet water. Several rivers have their embouchure in the bay, which generally occasions a current to set from the north end of the island by Cape St. Antonio; when the rivers are flooded, this current is sometimes very strong. The light-house at the extremity of the cape has no great elevation, and cannot be seen at a distance of more than 3 or 3½ leagues. The usual place of anchorage is abreast of the city, north and south of Fort do Mar.

The city is partly built on the beach, but principally on pretty high ground immediately contiguous. The public buildings, particularly the churches, are numerous, and some of them magnificent; but the streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy. Population estimated at from 125,000 to 160,000. The city is defended by several forts, but none of them are of very great strength.

Account of the Quantities, Prices, &c. of the principal Articles exported from and imported into Bahia in 1841.

Principal Exports.	Quantities.	Average Price.		Principal Imports.	Average Price.		Value as per Customs Tariff.
		Reis.	Duties.		Reis.	Duties.	
Sugar	61,247 casks 536 boxes	White	1,900 p. arroba	Meats salted and preserved	-	-	847,759,152
		Brown	1,825 do.		Leather	-	-
Cotton	15,281 bales 12,597 bags	-	5,874 —	Salt	-	410 p. alg.	218,211,497
		-	2,950 —	Flour	-	-	358,809,116
Coffee	2,531 rolls 28,397 mangetos	-	1,740 —	Iron, Wrought	-	Hoops 7,000 p. quint.	177,214,481
		-	3,450 —	Glass and earthenware	-	-	-
Tobacco	1,648 bales 4,242 pipes	each	3,925 —	Glass Bott. 500 p. doz.	-	485 p. lb.	100,840,831
		-	540 p. Canada	Butter	-	-	149,518,500
Rum	5,838 tons 7,034 boxes	Rees	65,000 p. dozen	Manufactured goods	-	-	5,499,150,013
		-	19,000 p. 1000	Salt fish	-	-	216,297,941
Rose and other woods	7,034 boxes	-	-	Soup	{ Yellow 100 p. lb. } { Medier. 160 — }	142,175,550	
Cocoa Nuts (Cauillon)	2,935,612	-	1,900 —	Wines	-	-	308,068,094
Hor. s.	55,168	-	6,000 p. 100				
Total value of exports in 1841		Reis.	8,440,554,480	Duties.	567,870,881		
1840			5,391,000,000		284,000,000		
Increase in 1841			3,049,554,480		283,870,881		
				Total value of imports in 1841	-	7,836,840,332	1,486,327,669
				There being a decrease in the amount of imports as compared with 1832 of	-	8,000,000,000	
				Of the above imports Gt. Britain furnished	-	-	Reis. 2,838,260,784

The above table shows that the trade of Bahia is very considerable. The principal exports amount, at present (1842), to about 52,000 chests (13 cwt. each) of sugar;

16,000 bags (170 lbs. each) of cotton; 12,500 bags (160 lbs. each) of coffee, with hides, tobacco, rice, dye and fancy woods, bullion, &c. The imports consist principally of cottons and other manufactured goods, provisions, flour, salt, salt fish, soap, wines, &c.

The exports from Bahia have rather decreased of late years; in consequence, as is alleged, of the greater obstructions thrown in the way of importing slaves; and the greater scarcity and high price of labour.

No articles are prohibited to be imported, nor are there any privileges in favour of ships belonging to any country. The exporting trade is exclusively carried on by Brazilian vessels.

There is no difference made in the duty on goods, whether imported in native or foreign vessels.

All foreign goods imported, pay 10 per cent. on the valuations of the Custom-house tariff, with the exception of wines, liquors, gunpowder, and tea, which pay as follows:—

White and spirituous liquors (except produce of Great Britain, which pay only 15) - - - - - 45 per cent.
Gunpowder - - - - - 50
Tea - - - - - 50

An additional 5 per cent. is invariably charged under the plea of warehouse rent, &c.

Vessels putting into Bahia in distress pay no tonnage dues. Those which discharge or take in cargo, pay 30 reis per ton

per day, Brazilian measurement; but should a vessel remain in port more than 30 days, this payment ceases to be entered.

Port Dues on Vessels.

Brazilian hospital for each man specified in muster-roll - - - - - 640 reis
Bills of health - - - - - 3,200
English, Portuguese, and Brazilian vessels pay - - - - - 6,720
Lighthouses, &c. - - - - - 10,210

Vessels of other nations ditto - - - - - 10,210

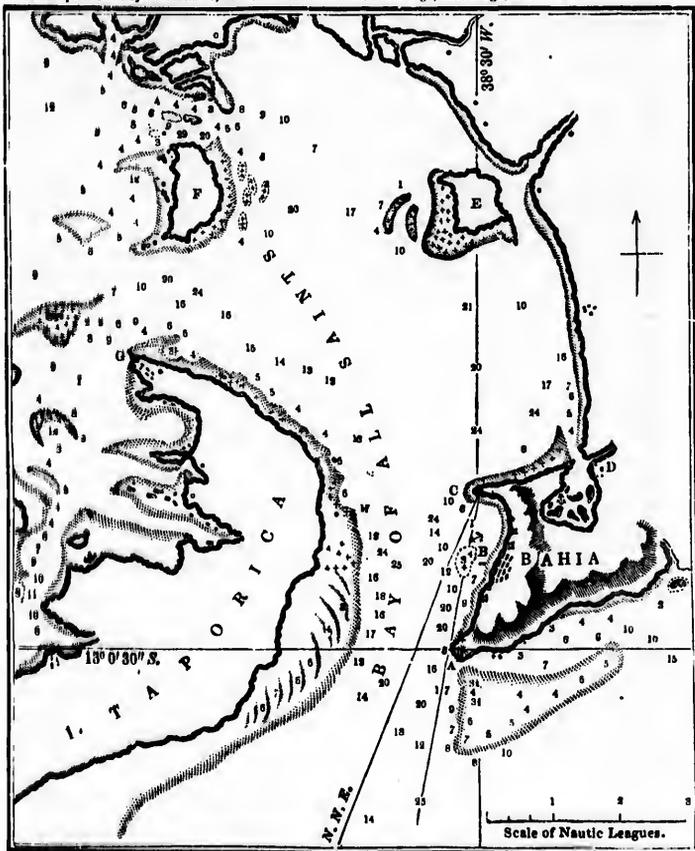
Bahia is the only port of this province where goods may be warehoused on importation, and afterwards exported. A duty is charged thereon at the rate of 4 per cent. on tariff valuation.

The duty of 15 per cent. formerly levied on chronometers and other nautical instruments, in use on board vessels has been recently abolished.

Average Sarcenage, 30L. per 1000 reis.

Weights and Measures.
1 quintal = 4 arrobas - - - - - 1 arroba = 32 lbs.
1 Canada = 2 imperial gallons. 1 square = 7 1/2ths of a bushel.
(Consider Returns, and private information.)

Plan. — The subjoined wood-cut conveys a clearer and better idea of this celebrated bay than could be acquired from any description. It is copied, without any reduction, from a revised edition of a Portuguese chart published by Mr. Laurie, and exhibits the banks, soundings, anchorage, &c.



References to the Plan. — A, Cape, light-house, and fort of St. Antonio; B, Fort do Mar; C, Fort St. Philip; D, Tapagippe; E, Isla do Mar; F, Isla dos Frades; G, Fort Besumont. The figures in the plan are the soundings in fathoms.

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principal
sugar;

BALACHONG, an article consisting of pounded or bruised fish. It consists principally of small fish, with prawns and shrimps. Though fetid and offensive to strangers, this substance, used as a condiment to rice, is largely consumed in all the countries to the east of Bengal, including the southern provinces of China, and the islands of the Eastern Archipelago. Its distribution gives rise to an extensive internal traffic.

BALANCE, in accounts, is the term used to express the difference between the debtor and creditor sides of an account.

BALANCE, in commerce, is the term commonly used to express the difference between the value of the exports from and imports into a country. The balance is said to be favourable when the value of the exports exceeds that of the imports, and unfavourable when the value of the imports exceeds that of the exports. According to the Custom-house returns, the official value of the exports from Great Britain, exclusive of foreign and commercial merchandise, during the year ending 5th of January, 1842, amounted to 102,180,517*l.*; and the official value of the imports during the same year amounted 64,377,962*l.*; leaving a favourable balance of 37,802,555*l.*

The attainment of a favourable balance was formerly regarded as an object of the greatest importance. The precious metals, in consequence of their being used as money, were long considered as the only real wealth that could be possessed either by individuals or nations. And as countries without mines could not obtain supplies of these metals except in exchange for exported products, it was concluded, that if the value of the commodities exported exceeded that of those imported, the balance would have to be paid by the importation of an equivalent amount of the precious metals; and conversely. A very large proportion of the restraints imposed on the freedom of commerce, during the last two centuries, grew out of this notion. The importance of having a favourable balance being universally admitted, every effort was made to attain it; and nothing seemed so effectual for this purpose as the devising of schemes to facilitate exportation, and to hinder the importation of almost all products, except gold and silver, that were not intended for future exportation. But the gradual though slow growth of sounder opinions with respect to the nature and functions of money, showed the futility of a system of policy having such objects in view. It is now conceded on all hands that gold and silver are nothing but commodities; and that it is in no respect necessary to interfere either to encourage their importation, or to prevent their exportation. In Great Britain they may be freely exported and imported, whether in the shape of coin or bullion. — (See *COIN*.)

The truth is, however, that the theory of the balance of trade is not erroneous merely from the false notions which its advocates entertained with respect to money; but proceeds on radically mistaken views as to the nature of commerce. The mode in which the balance is usually estimated is, indeed, completely fallacious. Supposing, however, that it could be correctly ascertained, it would be found, in opposition to the common opinion, that the imports into every commercial country generally exceed the exports; and that when a balance is formed, it is only in certain cases, and those of rare occurrence, that it is cancelled by a bullion payment.

I. The proper business of the wholesale merchant consists in carrying the various products of the different countries of the world, from the places where their value is least to those where it is greatest; or, which is the same thing, in distributing them according to the effective demand. It is clear, however, that there could be no motive to export any species of produce, unless that which it was intended to import in its stead were of greater value. When an English merchant commissions a quantity of Polish wheat, he calculates on its selling for so much more than its price in Poland, as will be sufficient to pay the expense of freight, insurance, &c., and to yield, besides, the common and ordinary rate of profit on the capital employed. If the wheat did not sell for this much, its importation would obviously be a loss to the importer. It is plain, then, that no merchant ever did or ever will export, but in the view of importing something more valuable in return. And so far from an excess of exports over imports being any criterion of an advantageous commerce, it is directly the reverse; and the truth is, notwithstanding all that has been said and written to the contrary, that unless the value of the imports exceeded that of the exports, foreign trade could not be carried on. Were this not the case—that is, were the value of the exports always greater than the value of the imports—merchants would lose on every transaction with foreigners, and the trade with them would be speedily abandoned.

In England, the rates at which all articles of export and import are officially valued were fixed so far back as 1696. But the very great alteration that has since taken place, not only in the value of money, but also in the cost of most part of the commodities produced in this and other countries, has rendered this official valuation, though valuable as a means of determining their quantity, of no use whatever as a criterion of the true value of the exports and imports. In order to remedy this defect, an account of the *real*

or declared value of the exports is annually prepared, from the declarations of the merchants, and laid before parliament: there is, however, no such account of the imports; and, owing to the difficulties which high duties throw in the way, it is, perhaps, impossible to frame one with anything like accuracy. It has also been alleged, and apparently with some probability, that merchants have not unfrequently been in the habit of exaggerating the value of articles entitled to drawbacks on exportation; but the recent extension and improvement of the warehousing system, and the diminution of the number of drawbacks, must materially lessen whatever fraud or inaccuracy may have arisen from this source. Most articles were formerly charged with an *ad valorem* duty of 10s. per cent. on exportation, so that, if anything, their value was probably rather under than over-rated; but now that this duty has been repealed (5 and 6 Vict. cap. 47. § 40.), the presumption is that their declared value comes very near the truth; at least, sufficiently so for all practical purposes.

Now the declared value of the exports in 1841 was 51,634,623*l.*, being only about half their official value, and nearly 13,000,000*l.* under the official value of the imports. What the excess of the latter might be, had we the means of comparing their real value with that of the exports, it is impossible to say: but there can be no manner of doubt, that, generally speaking, it would be very considerable. The value of an exported commodity is estimated at the moment of its being sent abroad, and *before* it is increased by the expense incurred in transporting it to the place of its destination; whereas the value of the commodity imported in its stead is estimated *after* it has arrived at its destination, and, consequently, after it has been enhanced by the cost of freight, insurance, importer's profits, &c.

In the United States, the value of the imports, as ascertained by the Custom-house returns, always exceeds the value of the exports. And although our practical politicians have been in the habit of considering the excess of the former as a certain proof of a disadvantageous commerce, "it is nevertheless true," says Mr. Pitkin, "that the real gain of the United States has been nearly in proportion as their imports have exceeded their exports."—(*Commerce of the United States*, 2d. ed. p. 280.) The great excess of American imports has in part been occasioned by the Americans generally exporting their own surplus produce, and, consequently, receiving from foreigners not only an equivalent for their exports, but also for the cost of conveying them to the foreign market. "In 1811," says the author just quoted, "flour sold in America for nine dollars and a half per barrel, and in Spain for fifteen dollars. The value of the cargo of a vessel carrying 5,000 barrels of flour would, therefore, be estimated at the period of its exportation at 47,500 dollars; but as this flour would sell, when carried to Spain, for 75,000 dollars, the American merchant would be entitled to draw on his agent in Spain for 27,500 dollars more than the flour cost in America; or than the sum for which he could have drawn, had the flour been exported in a vessel belonging to a Spanish merchant. But the transaction would not end here. The 75,000 dollars would be vested in some species of Spanish or other European goods fit for the American market; and the freight, insurance, &c., on account of the return cargo, would probably increase its value to 100,000 dollars, so that, in all, the American merchant might have imported goods worth 52,500 dollars more than the flour originally sent to Spain." It is as impossible to deny that such a transaction as this is advantageous, as it is to deny that its advantage consists entirely in the excess of the value of the goods imported over the value of those exported. And it is equally clear that America might have had the real balance of payments in her favour, though such transactions as the above had been multiplied to any conceivable extent.

II. In the second place, when a balance is due by one country to another, it is but seldom that it is paid by remitting bullion from the debtor to the creditor country. If the sum due by the British merchants to those of Holland be greater than the sum due by the latter to them, the balance of payments will be against Britain; but this balance will not, and indeed cannot, be discharged by an exportation of bullion, *unless bullion be, at the time, the cheapest exportable commodity*; or, which is the same thing, *unless it may be more advantageously exported than anything else*. To illustrate this principle, let us suppose that the balance of debt, or the excess of the value of the bills drawn by the merchants of Amsterdam on London over those drawn by the merchants of London on Amsterdam, amounts to 100,000*l.*: it is the business of the London merchants to find out the means of discharging this debt with the least expense; and it is plain, that if they find that any less sum, as 96,000*l.*, 97,000*l.*, or 99,900*l.*, will purchase and send to Holland as much cloth, cotton, hardware, colonial produce, or any other commodity, as will sell in Amsterdam for 100,000*l.*, no gold or silver will be exported. The laws which regulate the trade in bullion are not in any degree different from those which regulate the trade in other commodities. It is exported only when its exportation is advantageous, or when it is more valuable abroad than at home. It would, in fact, be quite as reasonable to expect that water should flow from a low to a high level, as it is

to expect that bullion should leave a country where its value is great to go to one where it is low! It is never sent abroad to destroy, but always to find, its level. The balance of payments might be ten or a hundred millions against a particular country, without causing the exportation of a single ounce of bullion. Common sense tells us that no merchant will remit 100*l.* worth of bullion to discharge a debt in a foreign country, if it be possible to invest any smaller sum in any species of merchandise which would sell abroad for 100*l.* exclusive of expenses. The merchant who deals in the precious metals is as much under the influence of *self-interest*, as he who deals in coffee or indigo: and what merchant would attempt to extinguish a debt, by exporting coffee which cost 100*l.*, if he could effect his object by sending abroad indigo which cost only 99*l.*?

The argument about the balance of payment is one of those that contradict and confute themselves. Had the apparent excess of exports over imports, as indicated by the British Custom-house books for the last hundred years, been always paid in bullion, as the supporters of the old theory contend is the case, there should at this moment be about 450,000,000 or 500,000,000 of bullion in the country, instead of 50,000,000 or 60,000,000, which it is supposed to amount to! Nor is this all. If the theory of the balance be good for anything—if it be not a mere idle delusion—it follows, as every country in the world, with the single exception of the United States, has its favourable balance, that they must be paid by an annual importation of bullion from the mines corresponding to their aggregate amount. But it is certain, that the entire produce of the mines, though it were increased in a *tenfold* proportion, would be insufficient for this purpose! This *reductio ad absurdum* is decisive of the degree of credit that should be attached to conclusions respecting the flourishing state of the commerce of any country drawn from the excess of the exports over the imports!

Not only, therefore, is the common theory with respect to the balance of trade erroneous, but the very reverse of that theory is true. In the *first* place, the value of the commodities imported by every country which carries on an advantageous commerce (and no other will be prosecuted for any considerable period), invariably exceeds the value of those which she exports. Unless such were the case, there would plainly be no fund whence the merchants and others engaged in foreign trade could derive either a profit on their capital, or a return for their outlay and trouble; and in the *second* place, whether the balance of debt be for or against a country, that balance will neither be paid nor received in bullion, unless it be at the time the commodity by the exportation or importation of which the account may be most profitably settled. Whatever the partisans of the doctrine as to the balance may say about money being a preferable product, or *merchandise par excellence*, it is certain it will never appear in the list of exports and imports, while there is any thing else with which to carry on trade, or cancel debts, that will yield a larger profit, or occasion a less expense to the debtors.

It is difficult to estimate the mischief which the absurd notions relative to the balance of trade have occasioned in almost every commercial country;—here they have been particularly injurious. It is principally to the prevalence of prejudices to which they have given rise, that the restrictions on the trade between this country and France are to be ascribed. The great, or rather the only, argument insisted upon by those who prevailed on the legislature, in the reign of William and Mary, to declare the trade with France a *nuisance*, was founded on the statement that the value of the imports from that kingdom considerably exceeded the value of the commodities we exported to it. The balance was regarded as a *tribute* paid by England to France; and it was sagaciously asked, what had we done, that we should be obliged to pay so much money to our natural enemy? It never occurred to those who so loudly abused the French trade, that no merchant would import any commodity from France, unless it brought a higher price in this country than the commodity exported to pay it; and that the profit of the merchant, or the national gain, would be in exact proportion to this excess of price. The very reason assigned by these persons for prohibiting the trade affords the best attainable proof of its having been a lucrative one; nor can there be any doubt that an unrestricted freedom of intercourse between the two countries would still be of the greatest service to both.

BALE, a pack, or certain quantity of goods or merchandise; as a *bale* of silk, cloth, &c.

Bales are always marked and numbered, that the merchants to whom they belong may know them, and the marks and numbers correspond to those in the bills of lading, &c. Selling under the *bale*, or under the *cords*, is a term used in France and other countries for selling goods wholesale, without sample or pattern, and unopened.

BALKS, large pieces of timber.

BALLAST (Du. *Ballast*; Fr. *Lest*; Ger. *Ballast*; It. *Savorra*; Sp. *Lastre*; Sw. *Ballast*), a quantity of iron, stones, sand, gravel, or any other heavy material laid in a ship's hold, in order to sink her deeper in the water, and to render her capable of carry-

ing sail without being overset. All ships clearing outwards, having no goods on board other than the personal baggage of the passengers, are said to be in ballast.

The quantity of ballast required to fit ships of equal burden for a voyage, is often materially different; the proportion being always less or more, according to the sharpness or fitness of the ship's bottom, called, by seamen, the *floor*.

The proper ballasting of a ship deserves peculiar attention, for, although it be known that ships in general will not carry sufficient sail, till they are laden so that the surface of the water nearly glances on the extreme breadth midships, more than this general knowledge is required. If the ship have a great weight of heavy ballast, as lead, iron, &c. in the bottom, the centre of gravity will be too low in the hold; this no doubt will enable her to carry a press of sail, but it will, at the same time, make her sail heavily, and roll so violently, as to run the risk of being dismasted.

The object in ballasting a ship is, therefore, so to dispose of the ballast or cargo, that she may be duly poised, and maintain a proper equilibrium on the water, so as neither to be too stiff, nor too *crank*, qualities equally pernicious. If too stiff, she may carry much sail, but her velocity will not be proportionally increased; whilst her masts are endangered by sudden jerks and excessive labouring. If too crank, she will be unfit to carry sail without the risk of upsetting.

Stiffness in ballasting is occasioned by disposing a too great quantity of heavy ballast, as lead, iron, &c., in the bottom, which throws the centre of gravity very near the keel; and this being the centre about which the vibrations are made, the lower it is placed, the more violent is the rolling.

Crankness, on the other hand, is occasioned by having too little ballast, or by disposing the ship's lading so as to raise the centre of gravity too high; this also endangers the masts when it blows hard; for when the masts cease to be perpendicular, they are raiu on the shrouds in the nature of a lever, which increases as the sine of their obliquity; and it is superfluous to add, that a ship that loses her masts is in great danger of being lost.

Hence the art of ballasting consists in placing the centre of gravity to correspond with the trim and shape of the vessel, so as to be neither too high nor too low; neither too far forward, nor too far aft; and to lade the ship so deep, that the surface of the water may nearly rise to the extreme breadth midships; she will then carry a good quantity of sail, incline but little, and ply well to windward. — (See *Falmer's Marine Dictionary*.)

The mischievous consequences of not attending to the circumstances now mentioned are often experienced by ships loading barilla, brimstone, and such heavy articles, on the coast of Sicily and Spain. The habit there is to cut large quantities of brushwood and taggots, and to spread them in the hold, to hinder the cargo from sinking the centre of gravity too low, and causing the ship to labour violently; but it very frequently happens that the pressure of the cargo on this sort of dunnage is so great as to squeeze it into a much smaller space than could at first have been supposed; so that ships after getting to sea are sometimes obliged to return to port, to unload a part of their cargo, to prevent their foundering. In such cases firm dunnage, such as oak staves, should, if possible, be always employed. — (See *Jackson's Commerce of Mediterranean*, p. 125—128.)

Ships that have cargoes of light goods on board require a quantity of ballast; increasing, of course, according to the greater lightness of the goods. The following table shows the average quantity of ballast allowed to ships of war:—

Ballast allowed to the following Ships.

Guns.	Tonnage.	Iron, Tons.	Shingles, Tons.	Guns.	Tonnage.	Iron, Tons.	Shingles, Tons.
110	2,250	180	370	36	870	65	160
100	2,050	180	370	32	700	65	140
98	2,110	160	350	28	600	60	100
90	1,870	160	350	24	500	60	50
80	1,620	140	300	22	450	60	70
74	1,700	80	270	20	400	50	60
64	1,370	70	260	Sloop - -	300	50	40
50	1,100	65	170	Brig - -	160	30	15
44	900	65	160	Cutter - -	—	—	—
38	830	70	170	Sloop - -	—	—	—

The iron ballast is first stored fore and aft, from bulk-head to bulk-head; then the shingle ballast is spread and levelled over the iron.

The soil of the river Thames from London Bridge to the sea is vested in the Trinity House corporation, and a sum of 10*l.* is to be paid for every ton of ballast taken from the channel of the river without due authority from the said corporation. Ships may receive on board land ballast from the quarries, pits, &c. east of Woolwich, provided the quantity taken in a year do not exceed the number of tons notified to the Trinity corporation. Land ballast must be entered, and 1*d.* paid per ton on entering. No ballast is to be put on board before entry at the ballast office, under a penalty of 5*l.* a ton. The Trinity corporation is authorised by the 3 Geo. 4. c. 111. to charge the following rates for all ballast demanded and entered at the ballast office, viz:—

- For every ton (20 cwt.) of ballast, not being washed ballast, carried to any ship or vessel employed in the coal trade, the sum of 1*s.*
- For every such ton carried to any other British ship or vessel, the sum of 1*s.* 3*d.*
- For every such ton carried to any foreign ship or vessel, the sum of 1*s.* 7*d.*
- For every ton of washed ballast carried to any ship or vessel employed in the coal trade, the sum of 2*s.*
- For every ton of washed ditto carried to any other British ship or vessel, the sum of 2*s.* 6*d.*
- For every ton of washed ditto carried to any foreign ship or vessel, the sum of 3*s.* 2*d.*
- And for every ton of ballast delivered or unladen from the inward West India Dock, the further sum of 10*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the Outward West India Dock, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the London Docks, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the inward East India Dock, the further sum of 10*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the Outward East India Dock, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the Commercial Dock, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the East Country Dock, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the City Canal, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the Surrey Canal, the further sum of 4*d.*; and for every ton of ballast delivered in or unladen from the Regent's Canal, the further sum of 4*d.*

Which further rates or prices shall be payable and paid over and above the respective rates first mentioned.

The ballast of all ships or vessels coming into the Thames, is to be unladen into a lighter, at the charge of 6*s.* a ton. If any ballast be thrown or unladen from any ship or vessel into the Thames, the captain, master, &c. shall for every such offence forfeit 20*l.* No ballast is to be received on board otherwise than from a lighter. By the stat. 54 Geo. 3. c. 149. it is enacted, that no person shall, under a penalty of 10*l.* over and above all expenses, discharge any ballast, rubbish, &c. in any of the ports, harbours, roadsteads, navigable rivers, &c. of the United Kingdom; nor take ballast from any place prohibited by the Lords of the Admiralty.

The masters of all ships clearing out in ballast, are required to answer any questions that may be put to them by the collectors or comptrollers, touching the departure and destination of such ships.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 80.)

If a foreign ship clear out in ballast, the master may take with him British manufactured goods of the value of 20*l.*, the mate of the value of 10*l.*, and 5*l.* worth for each the crew.—§ 87.

BALSAM (Ger. *Balsam*; Du. *Balsam*; Fr. *Baume*; It. and Sp. *Balsamo*; Lat. *Balsamum*). Balsams are vegetable juices, either liquid, or which spontaneously become concrete, consisting of a substance of a resinous nature, combined with benzoic acid, or which are capable of affording benzoic acid by being heated alone, or with water. The liquid balsams are copaiva, opobalsam, balsam of Peru, storax, and Tolu; the concrete are benzoin, dragon's blood, and red or concrete storax.—(Ure.)

1. *Copaiva* (Fr. *Baume de Copahu*; Ger. *Kopaiwa Balsam*; Sp. *Copaywa*), obtained from a tree (*Copaifera*) growing in South America and the West India islands. The largest quantity is furnished by the province of Para in Brazil. It is imported in small casks, containing from 1 to 1½ cwt. Genuine good copaiva or copaiwa balsam has a peculiar but agreeable odour, and a bitterish, hot, nauseous taste. It is clear and transparent; its consistence is that of oil; but when exposed to the action of the air it becomes solid, dry, and brittle, like resin.—(Thomson's Dispensatory.)

2. *Opobalsam* (Fr. *Balsamier de la Mecque*; It. *Opobalsamo*; Vat. *Balsamum seruum album, Egyptianum*; Egypt. *Balsam*), the most precious of all the balsams, commonly called Balm of Gilead. It is the produce of a tree (*Amirya Gileadensis*), indigenous to Arabia and Abyssinia, and transported at an early period to Europe. It is obtained by cutting the bark with an axe at the time that the juice is in the strongest circulation. The true balsam is of a pale yellowish colour, clear and transparent, about the consistence of Venice turpentine, of a strong, penetrating, agreeable, aromatic smell, and a slightly bitterish pungent taste. By age it becomes yellower, browner, and thicker, losing by degrees, like volatile oils, some of its finer and more subtle parts. It is rarely if ever brought genuine into this country; dried Canada balsam being generally substituted for it. It was in high repute among the ancients; but it is now principally used as a cosmetic by the Turkish ladies.—(Drs. Ure and Thomson.)

The Canada balsam, now referred to, is merely *fine turpentine*. It is the produce of the *Picea balsamea*, and is imported in casks, each containing about 1 cwt. It has a strong, but not a disagreeable odour, and a bitterish taste; is transparent, whitish, and has the consistence of copaiwa balsam.—(See TURPENTINE.)

3. *Saafa* and *Beder* are the only places in the Hedjaz where the balsam of Mecha, or Balaesam, can be procured in a pure state. The tree from which it is collected grows in the neighbouring mountains, but principally upon Djebel Sobh, and is called, by the Arabs, *Baehem*. It was informed that it is from 10 to 15 feet high, with a smooth trunk, and thin bark. In the middle of summer small incisions are made in the bark and the juices, which immediately issues, is taken off with the thumb nail, and put into a vessel; the gum appears to be of two kinds, one of a white, and the other of a yellowish white colour; the first is the most esteemed. I saw here some of the latter sort in a small sheep-skin, which the Bedouins use in bringing it to market; it had a strong turpentine smell, and its taste was bitter. The people of Saafa usually adulterate it with sesamum oil and tar. When they try its purity, they dip their finger into it and then set it on fire; if it burns without hurting or leaving a mark on the finger, they judge it to be of good quality, but if it burn the finger as soon as it is set on fire, they consider it to be adulterated. I remember to have read, in Bruce's Travels, an account of the mode of trying it, by letting a drop fall into a cup filled with water, the good balsam falling conglobated to the bottom, and the bad dissolving and swimming on the surface. I tried this experiment, which was unknown to the people here, and found the drop swim upon the water. I tried also their test by fire upon the finger of a Bedouin, who had to regret his temerity; I therefore regarded the balsam sold here as adulterated; it was of less density than honey. I wished to purchase some; but neither my own baggage, nor any of the shops of Saafa could furnish any thing like a bottle to hold it; the whole skin was too large. The Bedouins, who bring it here, usually demand two or three dollars per pound for it when quite pure; and the Saafa Arabs resell it to the heads of the great caravan at between 8 and 12 dollars per pound in an adulterated state. It is bought up principally by Persians.—(Burckhardt's Travels in Arabia, vol. ii. p. 123.)

3. *Balsam of Peru* (Fr. *Baume de Peru*; Ger. *Peruvianscher Balsam*; Sp. *Balsamo de Quinquina*; Lat. *Balsamum Peruvianum*), the produce of a tree (*Myroxylon Peruvianum*) growing in the warmest parts of South America. The balsam procured by incisions made in the tree is called *white liquid balsam*; that which is found in the shops is obtained by boiling the twigs in water; it is imported in jars, each containing from 30 to 40 lbs. weight. It has a fragrant aromatic odour much resembling that of benzoin, with a warm bitterish taste. It is viscid, of a deep reddish brown colour, and of the consistence of honey.—(Thomson's Dispensatory.)

4. *Storax* (Fr. *Storax*; Ger. *Styraxbroom*; It. *Storace*; Sp. *Asumbhar*; Lat. *Syrax*; Arab. *Usterak*), the produce of a tree (*Syrax officinale*) growing in the south of Europe and the Levant. Only two kinds are found in the shops: storax in tears, which is pure, and storax in the lump, or red storax, which is mixed with sawdust and other impurities. Both kinds are brought from the Levant in chests and boxes. Storax has a fragrant odour, and a pleasant, sub-nutritious, slightly pungent, and aromatic taste; it is of a reddish brown colour, and brittle.—(Thomson's Dispensatory.)

5. *Tolu Balsam* (Fr. *Baume de Tolu*; Ger. *Tolantischer Balsam*; Sp. *Balsamo de Tolu*). The tree which yields this balsam is the same as that which yields the balsam of Peru, it being merely the white balsam of Peru hardened by exposure to the air.

6. *Benzoin*, or *Benjamin* (Fr. *Benzoin*; Ger. *Benzoin*; Sp. *Bengui*; It. *Benzino*; Lat. *Benzoinum*; Arab. *Liban*; Hind. *Endam*; Ev. *Benoin*; Malay, *Campina*), is an article of much greater commercial importance than any of these balsams previously mentioned. It is obtained from a tree (*Syrax Benzoin*) cultivated in Sumatra and Borneo, but particularly the former. The plants produce in the seventh year. The balsam is obtained by making incisions in the bark, when it exudes, and is scraped off. During the first three years the balsam is of a clear white colour, after which it becomes brown. Having borne 10 or 12 years, the tree is cut down, every inferior article being obtained by scraping the wood. The balsams procured in these different stages are distinguished in commerce, and differ widely in value. Benzoin has a very agreeable, fragrant odour, but hardly any taste. It is imported in large masses, packed in chests and casks. It should be chosen full of clear, light-coloured, and white spots, having the appearance of white marble when broken; it is rarely, however, to be met with in so pure a state, but the nearer the approach to it the better. The worst sort is blackish, and full of impurities.—(Mebius's *Orbit. Com.* and private information.) The price of Benjamin in bond varied in the London market in February, 1843, from 3*l.* to no less than 46*l.* per cwt. 1

Mr. Crawford has given the following interesting and authentic details with respect to this article:—“Benzoin, or frankincense, called in commercial language Benjamin, is a more general article of commerce than camphor, though its production is confined to the same islands. Benzoin is divided in commerce, like camphor, into three sorts (head, belly, foot), according to quality, the comparative value of which may be expressed by the figures 106, 45, 18. Benzoin is valued in proportion to its whiteness, semi-transparency, and freedom from adventitious matters. According to its purity, the first sort may be bought at the *emporion* to which it is brought, at from 80 to 100 dollars per picul (133½ lbs.), the second

from 25 to 45 dollars, and the worst from 8 to 20 dollars. According to Linschoten, bensoin in its true cost, in the market of Sunda Calapa or Jacatra, from 15 to 25 Spanish dollars the picul. By Niebuhr's account, the worst bensoin of the Indian islands is more esteemed by the Arabs than their own best *olibanum*, or frankincense. In the London market, the best bensoin is fourteen times more valuable than *olibanum*, and even the worst 2 1/2 times more valuable. Bensoin usually sells in England at 10s. per pound. The quantity generally imported into England in the time of the monopoly was 312 cwt. The principal use of this commodity is as incense, and it is equally in request in the religious ceremonies of Catholics, Mohammedans, Hindus, and Chinese. It is also used as a luxury by the great in fumigations in their houses, and the Japanese chiefs are fond of smoking it with tobacco. Its general use among nations in such various states of civilization, and the steady demand for it in all ages, declare that it is one of those commodities the taste for which is inherent in our nature, and not the result of a particular caprice with any individual people, as in the case of Malay camphor with the Chinese." — (*Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 418.) The imports of bensoin, which are not specified in the Customs' returns, amount to about 40,000 lbs. a year.

An inferior description of bensoin, the produce of a different tree from the *Syrax bensoin*, is produced in Slam. It is comparatively cheap and abundant.

7. *Dragon's blood* (Fr. *Sang-Dragon*; Lat. *Sanguis Draconis*; Arab. *Damsidkhwan*; Hind. *Nerakuly*), the produce of a large species of rattan (*Calamus Draco*) growing on the north and north-east coast of Sumatra, and in some parts of Borneo. It is largely exported to China, and also to India and Europe. It is either in oval drops, wrapped up in flag-leaves, or in large and generally more impure masses composed of smaller tears. It is externally and internally of a deep dusky red colour, and when powdered it should become of a bright crimson: if it be black, it is worth little. When broken and held up against a strong light, it is somewhat transparent: it has little or no smell or taste; what it has of the latter is resinous and astringent. Dragon's blood in drops is much preferable to that in cakes, the latter being more friable, and less compact, resinous, and pure than the former. Being a very costly article, it is very apt to be adulterated. Most of its alloys dissolve like gums in water, or crackle in the fire without proving inflammable, whereas the genuine dragon's blood readily melts and catches flame, and is scarcely acted on by watery liquors. It sells in the market of Singapore at 15 to 35 dollars per picul, according to quality; but the Chinese have the art of purifying and refining it, when it sells at 80 to 100 dollars per picul. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Craufurd's East. Archip.*; and *private information*.) The price of dragon's blood in bond in the London market varied, in February, 1843, from 3l. to 7l. per cwt.

BALTIMORE, a large and opulent city of the United States, in Maryland, on the north side of the Patapoco river, about 14 miles above its entrance into Chesapeake bay, lat. 39° 17' N., long. 76° 36' W. Population in 1840, 102,313. The harbour is spacious, convenient, and the water deep. The exports principally consist of wheat-flour and wheat, tobacco, Indian corn and meal, rice, bacon, pork, beef, lard, butter, cheese, and other articles of provision, with tallow, staves, shingles, &c. The imports principally consist of cottons and woollens, sugar, coffee, tea, wine, brandy, silk goods, spices, rum, &c. The registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage belonging to Baltimore, in June, 1847, amounted to 100,456 tons, of which about a half were employed in the coasting trade. The total value of the articles imported into Maryland, in the year ending the 30th of June, 1847, almost the whole of which were through Baltimore, was 4,432,314 dollars; the total value of the exports during the same year being 9,762,244 ditto. (*Papers laid before Congress*, 14th of December, 1847.) In Maryland the dollar is worth 7s. 6d. currency, 1l. sterling being = 1l. 13s. 4d. currency. For an account of the currency of the different states of the Union, with a table of the value of the dollar in each, see New York; and to it also the reader is referred for an account of the foreign trade of the United States. Weights and measures same as those of England.

Summary View of the Condition of the Banks of the City of Baltimore on the 4th of January 1847, with their Dividends in the course of that Year.

Banks.	Capital.	Investment in Stocks.	Discounts.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Dividends.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	per cent.
Merchants' - - -	1,500,000	150,878	2,900,739	452,130	205,880	408,092	6
Baltimore - - -	1,200,000	151,169	1,271,795	504,305	306,598	561,774	6
Union - - -	916,500	15,258	1,237,669	124,315	163,340	298,210	6
Farmers' and Pioneers' - - -	600,000	38,200	1,047,759	255,050	406,076	375,274	7
Mechanics' - - -	689,812	7,211	1,037,012	306,319	204,818	375,810	6 1/2
Commercial & Farmers' - - -	415,560	58,421	825,458	229,830	171,769	361,068	8
Farmers' & Merchants' - - -	323,550	158,203	486,960	83,905	99,803	108,208	6 1/2
Chesapeake - - -	337,098	120,244	507,787	69,644	102,478	235,066	6
Marine - - -	309,400	75,274	437,410	99,184	118,730	304,498	7
Western - - -	308,636	11,524	521,214	187,556	25,960	170,736	6
Franklin - - -	301,850	17,183	370,617	25,186	31,801	54,765	6
	6,989,389	647,900	10,082,435	1,814,308	1,983,248	3,261,998	

Account of the Quantities of Wheat, and Wheat Flour, Indian Corn, and Indian Meal, Rice, Biscuits, Tobacco, Bacon, Pork, Beef, Lard, Butter, and Cheese, exported from Baltimore in 1847, distinguishing the Quantities shipped for the U. Kingdom.

	Wheat.	Flour.	Indian Corn.	Indian Meal.	Rice.	Biscuits.	Tobacco.
	bushels.	bbls.	bush.	bbls.	tiercs.	bbls.	Ads.
Total Exports - - -	184,614	594,589	1,486,602	102,616	2,275	23,208	54,574
Whereof to U. Kingdom - - -	83,608	245,315	1,205,682	68,429	16	1,687	807
	Bacon.	Pork.	Beef.	Lard.	Butter.	Cheese.	Manufac. Tobacco.
	lbs.	bbls.	bbls.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
Total Exports - - -	1,756,897	87,228	10,209	1,429,124	568,099	76,718	462,981
Whereof to U. Kingdom - - -	1,280,049	1,156	4,486	408,583	-	5,048	47,230

Inspection of Wheat Flour in 1860 and 10 preceding Years.

	Brits.	Half Brits.	Total in Brits.		Brits.	Half Brits.	Total in Brits.
1840 - - -	766,981	61,966	728,947	1854 - - -	481,735	17,964	463,771
1849 - - -	450,998	16,777	467,775	1855 - - -	594,490	18,278	612,768
1854 - - -	480,654	19,289	500,943	1856 - - -	514,274	17,544	531,818
1857 - - -	691,576	14,775	706,351	1857 - - -	544,275	11,237	555,512
1858 - - -	385,984	17,583	403,567	1858 - - -	547,875	19,450	567,325
1859 - - -	610,500	81,553	692,053				

The number of arrivals by sea in 1859, which is of course exclusive of bay and river craft and vessels through canals, were ships 70, barges 60, brigs 374, schooners 175, and sloops 11. Total, 1561 vessels. (Statements derived from private information, and from *Muse's Commercial Magazines*.)

BAMBOO (Fr. *Bambou*, *Bambouchés*; Ger. *Indianischer Rohr*; It. *Bambu*; Hind. *Rass*; Malay, *Báláh*; Jav. *Prenng*), a species of cane, the *Bambos arundinacea* of botanists. It grows every where within the tropics, and is of the greatest utility: strictly speaking, it is a gigantic grass with a ligneous stem. It often rises to the height of 40 or 50 feet, and sometimes to even double those heights. Like most plants long and extensively cultivated, it diverges into many varieties. Some of these are dwarfish, while others, instead of being hollow canes, are solid. The bamboo is of rapid growth, and in four or five years is fit for many uses, but does not bear fruit or grain till it be 25 years old, after which it perishes. The grain makes tolerable bread. The young, but gigantic shoots, as they spring from the earth, make a tender and good esculent vegetable. The mature bamboo is employed in an immense variety of ways, in the construction of houses, bridges, boats, agricultural implements, &c. Some varieties grow to such a size as to be, in the largest part, near two feet in circumference, and single knees of these are used as pails or buckets. The Chinese are believed to fabricate their cheap and useful paper of macerated bamboo. The canes used in Europe as walking sticks are not bamboos, but rattans—a totally distinct class of plants. Bamboos are never used for that purpose. — (*Private information*.)

BANDANAS, silk handkerchiefs, generally red spotted with white. They were formerly manufactured only in the East Indies; but they are now manufactured of a very good quality at Glasgow and other places.

BANK.—BANKING. Banks are establishments intended to serve for the safe custody and issue of money; for facilitating its payment by one individual to another; and, sometimes, for the accommodation of the public with loans.

- I. BANKING (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).
- II. BANK OF ENGLAND (ACCOUNT OF).
- III. BANKS (ENGLISH PRIVATE AND PROVINCIAL).
- IV. BANKS (SCOTCH).
- V. BANKS (IRISH).
- VI. BANKS (FOREIGN).
- VII. BANKS (SAVINGS).

I. BANKING (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).

Banks are commonly divided into the two great classes of *banks of deposit* and *banks of issue*. This, however, appears at first sight to be rather an imperfect classification, inasmuch as almost all banks of deposit are at the same time banks of issue, and almost all banks of issue also banks of deposit. But there is in reality no ambiguity; for, by banks of deposit are meant banks for the custody and employment of the money deposited with them or intrusted to their care by their customers, or by the public; while by banks of issue are meant banks which, besides employing or issuing the money intrusted to them by others, issue money of their own, or notes payable on demand. The Bank of England is our principal bank of issue; but it, as well as the other banks in the different parts of the empire that issue notes, is also a great bank of deposit. The private banking companies of London, and the various provincial banks that do not issue notes of their own, are strictly banks of deposit. Banking business may be conducted indifferently by individuals, by private companies, or by joint stock companies or associations.

(1.) *Utility and Functions of Banks of Deposit.*—Banks of this class execute all that is properly understood by banking business; and their establishment has contributed in no ordinary degree to give security and facility to commercial transactions. They afford, when properly conducted, safe and convenient places of deposit for the money that would otherwise have to be kept, at a considerable risk, in private houses. They also prevent, in a great measure, the necessity of carrying money from place to place to make payments, and enable them to be made in the most convenient and least expensive manner. A merchant or tradesman in London for example, who employs a banker, keeps but very little money in his own hands, making all his considerable payments by drafts or checks on his banker; and he also sends the various

checks, bills, or drafts payable to himself in London, to his bankers before they become due. By this means he saves the trouble and inconvenience of counting sums of money, and avoids the losses he would otherwise be liable to, and would no doubt occasionally incur, from receiving coins or notes not genuine. Perhaps, however, the great advantage derived by the merchant or tradesman from the employment of a banker, consists in its relieving him from all trouble with respect to the presentation for payment of due bills and drafts. The moment these are transferred to the banker, they are at his risk. And if he either neglect to present them when due, or to have them properly noted in the event of their not being paid, he has to answer for the consequences.

"This circumstance alone must cause an immense saving of expense to a mercantile house in the course of a year. Let us suppose that a merchant has only two bills due each day. These bills may be payable in distant parts of the town, so that it may take a clerk half a day to present them; and in large mercantile establishments it would take up the whole time of one or two clerks to present the due bills and the drafts. The salary of these clerks is, therefore, saved by keeping an account at a banker's; besides the saving of expense, it is also reasonable to suppose that losses upon bills would sometimes occur from mistakes, or oversights—from miscalculation as to the time the bill would become due—from errors in marking it up—from forgetfulness to present it—or from presenting it at the wrong place. In these cases the indorsers and drawees are exonerated; and if the acceptor do not pay the bill, the amount is lost. In a banking house such mistakes occur sometimes, though more rarely; but when they do occur, the loss falls upon the banker, and not upon his customer."—(*Gilbart's Practical Observations on Banking.*)

It is on other grounds particularly desirable for a merchant or tradesman to have an account with a banking house. He can refer to his bankers as vouchers for his respectability; and in the event of his wishing to acquire any information with respect to the circumstances, or credit, of any one with whom he is not acquainted, his bankers render him all the assistance in their power. In this respect they have great facilities, it being the common practice amongst bankers in London, and most other trading towns, to communicate information to each other as to the credit and solvency of their customers.

To provide for the public security, the statute 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29. § 49. "for the punishment of embezzlement committed by agents intrusted with property," enacts, "That if any money, or security for the payment of money, shall be intrusted to any banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or other agent, with any direction in writing to apply such money, or any part thereof, or the proceeds, or any part of the proceeds of such security, for any purpose specified in such direction, and he shall, in violation of good faith, and contrary to the purpose so specified, in any wise convert to his own use or benefit such money, security, or proceeds, or any part thereof respectively, every such offender shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and being convicted thereof shall be liable, at the discretion of the court, to be transported beyond seas, for any term not exceeding fourteen years, nor less than seven years, or to suffer such punishment by fine or imprisonment, or by both, as the court shall award; and if any chattel or valuable security, or any power of attorney for the sale or transfer of any share or interest in any public stock or fund, whether of this kingdom, or of Great Britain, or of Ireland, or of any foreign state, or in any fund of any body corporate, company or society, shall be intrusted to any banker, merchant, broker, attorney, or other agent, for safe custody, or for any special purpose, *without any authority* to sell, negotiate, transfer, or pledge, and he shall, in violation of good faith, and contrary to the object or purpose which such chattel or security, or power of attorney, shall have been intrusted to him, sell, negotiate, transfer, pledge, or in any manner convert to his own use or benefit such chattel or security, or the proceeds of the same, or any part thereof, or the share or interest in stock or fund to which such power of attorney shall relate, or any part thereof, every such offender shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and being convicted thereof shall be liable, at the discretion of the court, to any of the punishments which the court may award, as heretofore last mentioned."

This act is not to affect trustees and mortgagees, nor bankers receiving money due upon securities, nor securities upon which they have a lien, claim, or demand, entitling them by law to sell, transfer, or otherwise dispose of them, unless such sale, transfer, or other disposal shall extend to a greater number or part of such securities or effects than shall be requisite for satisfying such lien, claim, &c.—§ 50.

Nothing in this act is to prevent, impeach, or lessen any remedy at law or in equity, which any party aggrieved by any such offence might or would have had, had it not been passed. No banker, merchant, &c. shall be convicted as an offender against this act, in respect of any act done by him, if he shall at any time previously to his being indicted for such offence have disclosed such act on oath, in consequence of any compulsory process of any court of law or equity, in any action *bonâ fide* instituted by any party aggrieved, or if he shall have disclosed the same in any examination or deposition before any commissioner of bankrupt.—§ 52.

The Bank of England, and the private banking companies of London, as well as some of the English provincial banks, charge no commission on the payments made and received on account of those who deal with them. And until the recent introduction of joint-stock banks, none of the London bankers, except in peculiar cases, allowed interest on deposits; nor is it yet allowed by the great majority of the metropolitan private bankers. It is also either stipulated or distinctly understood that a person employing a banker should, besides furnishing him with sufficient funds to pay his drafts, keep an average *balance* in the banker's hands, varying, of course, according to the amount of business done on his account; that is, according to the number of his checks or drafts to be paid, and the number of drafts and bills to be received for him. The bankers then calculate, as well as they can, the probable amount of cash that it

will be necessary for them to keep in their coffers to meet the ordinary demands of their customers, and employ the balance in discounting mercantile bills, in the purchase of securities, or in some other sort of profitable adventure; so that their profits consist of the sum they realize from such part of the monies lodged in their hands as they can venture to employ in an advantageous way, after deducting the various expenses attendant on the management of their establishments. A bank of deposit would never be established if it had to depend on its own capital; it makes no profit, in its capacity of bank, till it begins to employ the capital of others.

The directors of the Bank of England do not allow any individual to overdraw his account. They answer drafts to the full extent of the funds deposited in their hands; but they will not pay a draft if it exceed their amount. Private bankers are not generally so scrupulous; most of them allow respectable individuals in whom they have confidence to overdraw their accounts, those who do so paying interest at the rate of 5 per cent. on whatever sums they overdraw. The possession of this power of overdrawing is often a great convenience to merchants, while it is rarely productive of loss to the banker. The money which is overdrawn is usually replaced within a short period; sometimes, indeed, in a day or two. The directors of the Bank of England decline granting this facility, from a disinclination on their part to come into competition in a matter of this sort with private bankers, who transact this kind of business better, probably, than it could be done by a great establishment like the Bank.

Banks afford great facilities to the public in the negotiation of bills of exchange, or in the making of payments at distant places. Many of the banking companies established in different districts have a direct intercourse with each other, and they have all correspondents in London. Hence an individual residing in any part of the country, who may wish to make a payment in any other part, however distant, may effect his object by applying to the bank nearest to him. Thus, suppose A. of Penzance has a payment to make to B. of Inverness: to transmit the money by letter would be hazardous; and if there were fractional parts of a pound in the sum, it would hardly be practicable: how then will A. manage? He will pay the sum to a banker in Penzance, and his debtor in Inverness will receive it from a banker there. The transaction is extremely simple: the Penzance banker orders his correspondent in London to pay to the correspondent of the Inverness banker the sum in question on account of B., and the Inverness banker, being advised in course of post of what has been done, pays B. A small commission charged by the Penzance banker, and the postages, constitute the whole expense. There is no risk whatever, and the whole affair is transacted in the most commodious and cheapest manner.

Recently, however, the facilities given to the transmission of money by means of post-office orders have materially interfered with this branch of banking business, especially in the transmission of small sums, and are a great convenience to the public. —(See *POST OFFICE*.)

By far the largest proportion both of the inland bills in circulation in the country, and also of the foreign bills drawn upon Great Britain, are made payable in London, the grand focus to which all the pecuniary transactions of the empire are ultimately brought to be adjusted. And in order still further to economise the use of money, the principal bankers of the metropolis are in the habit of sending a clerk each day to the *clearing house* in Lombard-street, who carries with him the various bills in the possession of his house that are drawn upon other bankers; and having exchanged them for the bills in the possession of those others that are drawn upon his constituents, the balance on the one side or the other is paid in cash or Bank of England notes. By this contrivance the bankers of London are able to settle transactions to the extent of several millions a day, by the employment of not more, at an average, than from 200,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* of cash or bank notes. —(See *CLEARING HOUSE*.)

In consequence of these and other facilities afforded by the intervention of bankers for the settlement of pecuniary transactions, the money required to conduct the business of an extensive country is reduced to a trifle only, compared with what it would otherwise be. It is not, indeed, possible to form any very accurate estimate of the total saving that is thus effected; but, supposing that 50 or 60 millions of gold and silver and bank notes are at present required, notwithstanding all the devices that have been resorted to for economising money, for the circulation of Great Britain, it may, one should think, be fairly concluded that 200 millions would, at the very least, be required to transact an equal extent of business but for those devices. If this statement be nearly accurate, and there are good grounds for thinking that it is rather under than over rated, it strikingly exhibits the vast importance of banking in a public point of view. By its means 50 or 60 millions are rendered capable of performing the same functions, and in an infinitely more commodious manner, that would otherwise have required four times that sum; and supposing that 20 or 30 millions are employed by the bankers as a capital in their establishments, no less than 120 or 130 millions will be

altogether disengaged, and are to be employed as an instrument of circulation, and made available for employment in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.

The security afforded by a bank of deposit is a matter as to which there must always be more or less of doubt. When, indeed, a banking company confines itself to its proper business, and does not embark in speculations of unusual hazard, or from which its funds cannot be easily withdrawn, in the event of any sudden run or demand, it can hardly ever fail of being in a situation to meet its engagements; whilst the large private fortunes that most commonly belong to the partners afford those who deal with it an additional guarantee. Much, however, depends on the character of the parties, and on a variety of circumstances with respect to which the public can never be correctly informed; so that though there can be no doubt that the security afforded by many private banks of deposit is of the most unexceptionable description, this may not be the case with others.

All joint-stock banks, or banks having more than six partners, whether for deposit and issue, or for deposit merely, are ordered, by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 83., to send quarterly returns of the number and names of their partners to the stamp office. But this act does not apply to private banks, or banks not having more than six partners, though we see no good reason why similar returns should not, and several why they should, be required from them as well as from others. At present few have any certain knowledge of the partners in private banks. Individuals often appear in the names of firms who have been dead for many years; and it has not unfrequently been found in cases of bankruptcy that parties of large fortune, who were supposed to have belonged to the concern, had withdrawn long previously. All uncertainty and obscurity of this kind might, however, be easily put an end to by making periodical declarations of the names of the partners; and provided this were done, and the names made sufficiently public, we doubt whether any other step should be taken for interfering in any way with banks of deposit. There is in this respect a wide difference between them and banks of issue. It is the duty of the government to take care that the value of the currency shall be as invariable as possible; but it has never been pretended that it is any part whatever of its duty to inquire into the security given by the borrowers to the lenders of money, any more than into the security given by the borrowers to the lenders of any thing else. Government very properly obliges a goldsmith to have his goods stamped, this being a security to the public that they shall not be imposed on in buying articles of the quality of which they are generally ignorant; but it does not require that the persons to whom the goldsmith sells or lends his goods should give him a guarantee for their payment. This is a matter as to which individuals are fully competent to judge for themselves; and there neither is nor can be any reason why a lender or depositor of bullion or notes should be more protected than a lender or depositor of timber, coal, or sugar. Gold being the standard or measure of value, government is bound to take effectual precautions that the currency shall truly correspond in the whole and in all its parts with that standard, — that every pound note shall be worth a sovereign, and that the amount and value of the aggregate notes in circulation shall vary exactly as a gold currency would do were it substituted in their stead. But this is all that government is called upon to do. If A. trust a sum of money in the hands of B., it is their affair, and concerns no one else. Provided the money afloat correspond with the standard, it is of no importance, in a public point of view, into whose hands it may come. The bankruptcy of a deposit bank, like that of a private gentleman who has borrowed largely, may be productive of much loss or inconvenience to its creditors. But if the paper in circulation be equivalent to gold, such bankruptcies cannot affect either the quantity or value of money, and are therefore injurious only to the parties concerned.

(2.) *Substitution of Notes for Coins — Banks of Issue — Means by which the Value of Notes may be kept on a Level with the Value of the Precious Metals.* — Notwithstanding the precious metals are in many respects admirably fitted to serve as media of exchange (see art. MONNY), they have two very serious drawbacks — their cost, and the difficulty and expense of carrying them from place to place. If the currency of Great Britain consisted only of gold, it would amount to at least sixty millions of sovereigns; and the expense attending such a currency, allowing only $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. for wear and tear and loss of coins, could not be reckoned at less than 3,250,000*l.* a year. The weight of 1000 sovereigns exceeds 21 lbs. troy; so that were there nothing but coins in circulation, the conveyance of large sums from place to place to discharge accounts would be a very laborious process, and even small sums could not be conveyed without considerable difficulty. Hence it is that most commercial and civilised nations have fabricated a portion of their money of less costly and heavy materials, and resorted to various devices for economising the use of coin. Of the substitutes for the latter hitherto suggested, paper is in all respects the most eligible. When governments are sufficiently powerful and intelligent to enforce the observance of contracts, individuals

possessed of written promises from others that they will pay certain sums at specified periods begin to assign them to those to whom they are indebted; and when those by whom such obligations are subscribed are persons of whose solvency no doubt can be entertained, they are readily accepted in payment of the debts due by one individual to another. But when the circulation of obligations or bills in this way has continued for a while, individuals begin to perceive that they may derive a profit by issuing them in such a form as to fit them for being readily used as a substitute for money in the ordinary transactions of life. Hence the origin of bank notes or paper money. An individual in whose wealth and discretion the public have confidence being applied to for a loan, say of 5,000*l.*, grants the applicant his bill or note payable on demand for that sum on his receiving adequate security for its repayment with interest. Now, as this note passes, in consequence of the confidence placed in the issuer, currently from hand to hand as cash, it is quite as useful to the borrower as if he had obtained an equivalent amount of gold; and supposing that the rate of interest is 4 per cent., it will yield, so long as it continues to circulate, a revenue of 200*l.* a year to the issuer. A sense of the advantages that might, in this way, be derived from the circulation of bills or notes led to the formation of banks for their regular issue. Those who issue such notes, coin as it were their credit. They derive the same revenue from the loan of their written promises to pay certain sums that they would derive from the loan of the sums themselves; and while they thus increase their own income, they at the same time contribute to increase the wealth of the society. Besides being incomparably cheaper, bank notes are also incomparably more commodious than a metallic currency. A bank note for 1,000*l.* or 100,000*l.* may be carried about with as much facility as a single sovereign. It is of importance, too, to observe, that its loss or destruction, whether by fire, shipwreck, or otherwise, would be of no greater importance, in a public point of view, than the loss or destruction of as much paper. No doubt it might be a serious calamity to the holder; but to whatever extent it injured him, it would proportionally benefit the issuer, whereas the loss of coin is an injury to the holder without being of service to any one else; it is, in fact, so much abstracted from the wealth of the community.

To obviate the endless inconveniences that would arise from the circulation of coins of every weight and degree of purity, were there no restrictions on their issue, all governments have forbidden the circulation of coins except they be of a certain specified or standard weight and fineness. And the recurrence of similar inconveniences from the issue of notes for varying sums, and payable under varying conditions, has led, in all countries in which paper money is made use of, to the enacting of regulations forbidding the issue of notes below a certain amount, and laying down rules for their payment. In England at this moment no note payable to bearer on demand can be issued for less than five pounds, and they must all be paid the moment they are presented. In Scotland and Ireland the minimum value of bank notes is fixed at one pound, the regulations as to payment being the same as in England. In order to preserve the monopoly of the London circulation to the Bank of England, no notes payable to bearer on demand are allowed to be issued by individuals or associations, other than the Bank of England, within sixty-five miles of St. Paul's. But beyond these limits every one who complies with the above regulations as to the minimum amount of notes, and who promises to pay them on demand, may, on paying the stamp-duty, and making returns of the issues to the stamp office, circulate any amount of notes he can succeed in getting the public to take off.

But though the condition that they shall be paid on demand, and the belief that this condition will be complied with, be necessary to sustain the value of notes issued by private parties or associations, it is not necessary to sustain the value of paper money, properly so called, or of notes which have been made *legal tender*. The only thing required to sustain the value of the latter description of currency is, that it should be issued in *limited quantities*. Every country has a certain number of exchanges to make; and whether these are effected by the employment of a given number of coins of a particular denomination, or by the employment of the same number of notes of the same denomination, is, in this respect, of no importance whatever. Notes which have been made legal tender, and are not payable on demand, do not circulate because of any confidence placed in the capacity of the issuers to retire them; neither do they circulate because they are of the same real value as the commodities for which they are exchanged; but they circulate because, having been selected to perform the functions of *money*, they are, as such, readily received by all individuals in payment of their debts. Notes of this description may be regarded as a sort of tickets or counters to be used in computing the value of property, and in transferring it from one individual to another. And as they are nowise affected by fluctuations of credit, their value, it is obvious, must depend entirely on the quantity of them in circulation as compared with the payments to be made through their instrumentality, or the business they have to perform. By reducing the supply of notes below the supply of coins that would circulate in their

place were they withdrawn, their value may be raised above the value of gold; while, by increasing them to a greater extent, it is proportionally lowered.

Hence, supposing it were possible to obtain any security other than immediate convertibility into the precious metals, that notes declared to be legal tender would not be issued in excess, but that their number afloat would be so adjusted as to preserve their value as compared with gold nearly uniform, the obligation to pay them on demand might be dispensed with. But it is needless to say that no such security can be obtained. Wherever the power to issue paper, not immediately convertible, has been conceded to any set of persons, it has been abused; or, which is the same thing, such paper has uniformly been over-issued, and its value depreciated from excess. And it is now admitted on all hands to be quite indispensable, for the prevention of injurious fluctuations in the value of money, that all notes be made payable, at the pleasure of the holder, in an unvarying quantity of gold or silver.

But though such be the law in this and most other countries, it is, we are sorry to say, operative only on the richest, most cautious, and respectable bankers; and is found to afford no real security against the roguery and misconduct of others. This security is, however, the more indispensable, seeing that the issue of notes is, of all businesses, that which seems to hold out the greatest prospect of success to the schemes of those who attempt to get rich by preying on the public. The circumstances that excite the public confidence in the first instance, and that afterwards keep it up, are often of the most treacherous description. The cost of engraving and issuing notes is also but an inconsiderable item, compared with the sums for which they are issued, and provided they be got into anything like extensive circulation, they become at once considerably productive. They are seldom issued, except on the deposit of bills or other securities yielding a considerable rate of interest; so that if an individual, or set of individuals, with little or no capital, contrive, by fair appearances, promises, and similar devices, to insinuate himself or themselves into the public confidence, and can maintain 20,000*l.*, 50,000*l.*, or 100,000*l.* in circulation, he or they secure a good income in the mean time; and when the bubble bursts, and the imposture is detected, they are no worse off than when they set up their bank. On the contrary, the presumption is that they are a great deal better off; and that they have taken care to provide, at the cost of the credulous and deceived public, a reserve stock for their future maintenance. Hence, seeing the facilities for committing fraud are so very great, the propriety, or rather necessity, of providing against them.

It must not be imagined that this is mere hypothetical reasoning. On the contrary, as every body knows, innumerable instances have occurred of the population of extensive districts having suffered severely from the insolvency of bankers in whom they placed the utmost confidence. In 1793, 1814-16, and 1825-26, a very large proportion of the provincial banks stopped payments, and produced by their fall an extent of bankruptcy and ruin that has seldom been equalled in any other country. But when such gigantic disasters had already happened, and were on the eve of again happening in 1837-38, it became the bounden duty of government to hinder, by every means in its power, their recurrence. It is no exaggeration to affirm that we have sustained a thousand times more injury from the circulation of worthless paper, or paper issued by persons without the means of retiring it, than from the issue of spurious coin.

It has been supposed that the objections to the issue of notes because of the risk of non-payment might be obviated, were they issued only by associations or joint stock companies. But there is no real foundation for any such supposition. There cannot, in fact, be a greater error than to suppose that because a bank has a considerable number of partners it will necessarily be either rich or well managed. It may be neither the one nor the other. A single individual may possess more wealth than a number of individuals associated together; and the chances are, that if he engage in banking or any other business it will be better managed than by a company. Under our present system, (and it cannot be prevented under any system,) the partners in joint stock banks, as in others, may be men of straw, or persons without property, and unable to fulfil their engagements. It is of the essence of a secure and well established paper currency that the notes of which it consists should be of the exact value of the gold or silver they profess to represent, and that, consequently, they should be paid the moment they are presented. But it is not enough to order that this condition shall be uniformly complied with. Such order is obeyed only by the opulent, prudent, and conscientious banker, and forms little or no check on the proceedings of those of a contrary character. It is the latter class, however, that it is especially necessary to look after; and it is needless to say that any system that permits notes to be issued without let or hindrance by speculative, ignorant, or unprincipled adventurers, must be essentially vicious.

It has sometimes been contended, in vindication of the plan of allowing any individual, or set of individuals, how bankrupt soever in fortune and character, to issue notes

without check or limitation of any kind other than the promise to pay them on demand, that they are essentially *private paper*; that their acceptance in payment is optional; and that as they may be rejected by every one who either suspects or dislikes them, there is no room or ground for interfering with their issue! But every body knows that, whatever notes may be in law, they are in most parts of the country *practically and in fact legal tender*. The bulk of the people are totally without power to refuse them. The currency of many extensive districts consists in great part of country notes, and such small farmers or tradesmen as should decline taking them would be exposed to the greatest inconveniences. Every one makes use of or is a dealer in money. It is not employed by men of business only, but by persons living on fixed incomes; by women, labourers, minors; in short, by every class of individuals, very many of whom are necessarily, from their situation in life, quite unable to form any estimate of the solidity of the different banks whose paper is in circulation. Such parties are uniformly severe sufferers by the failure of banks. The paper that comes into their hands is a part of the currency or money of the country; and it is quite as much the duty of Government to take measures that this paper shall be truly and substantially what it professes to be, as that it should take measures to prevent the issue of spurious coins or the use of false or deficient weights and measures.

The fact is, that the paper currency of the country cannot be on a perfectly sound footing until the issue of notes, whether by joint stock banks or private individuals, be suppressed. It has been proposed to obviate any recurrence of the wide-spread ruin that has so frequently resulted from the bankruptcy of banks of issue, to compel them to give security for the payment of their notes; and the adoption of such a regulation would, no doubt, have been a vast improvement on the late system.* But though the exacting of security would have materially mitigated, it would not have eradicated the vices of a system which allowed banks to be established at the pleasure of individuals. A paper currency is not in a sound or wholesome state, unless, 1st, means be taken to insure that each particular note or parcel of such currency be paid immediately on demand; and unless, 2nd, the whole currency vary in amount and value exactly as a metallic currency would do were the paper currency withdrawn and coins substituted in its stead. The last condition is quite as indispensable to the existence of a well-established currency as the former; and it is one that cannot be fully realised otherwise than by confining the issue of paper to a single source.

It is easy to see that were paper issued only by the Bank of England, or some one source in London, and then only *in exchange for bullion*, the currency would be in its most perfect state, and would fluctuate exactly as it would do were it wholly metallic. But at present, the currency is supplied by hundreds of individuals and associations, all actuated by different and frequently conflicting views and interests. The issues of the Bank of England, previously to the late changes, were generally, though not always, governed by the state of the exchange, or rather by the influx and efflux of bullion, increasing when it flowed into, and decreasing when it flowed out of the country. But it was quite otherwise with the provincial bankers. Their issues were not regulated by any such standard, but by the state of credit and prices in the districts in which they happened to be situated. If their managers supposed that these were good or improving, they rarely hesitated about making additional issues. Hence, when the state of the exchange and the demand on the Bank of England for bullion showed that the currency was redundant, and ought to be contracted, the efforts of the Bank to effect its diminution were often impeded, and met by a contrary action on the part of the country banks. This was not owing to the ignorance of the latter. Under the supposed circumstances, the country bankers saw, speaking generally, that they ought also to contract; but being a very numerous body, comprising several hundred establishments scattered over all parts of the country, each was impressed with the well founded conviction that all that he could do in the way of contraction would be next to imperceptible; and no one ever thought of attempting it, so long as he felt satisfied of the stability of those with whom he dealt. On the contrary, every banker knew, were he to withdraw a portion of his notes, that some of his competitors would most likely have embraced the opportunity of filling up the vacuum so created; and that consequently he should have lost a portion of his business, without in any degree lessening the amount of paper afloat. Hence, in nineteen out of twenty instances, the country banks went on increasing their aggregate issues long after the exchange had been notoriously against the country, and the Bank of England had been striving to pull up. But the moment the pressure extended to them they ran headlong into the opposite extreme, and unreasonable suspicion took the place of blind unthinking confidence. The cry of *sauses qui pout* then became all but universal. A recoil seldom took place without destroying more or fewer of the provincial banks, involving those who held their notes or had deposits in

* We stated at length the grounds on which such security might be demanded in the previous edition of this dictionary.

their hands, in bankruptcy and ruin; and provided the others succeeded in securing themselves, little attention was usually paid to the interests of those they had taught to look to them for help, who were commonly destroyed by thousands. (See post.)

It is exceedingly difficult to prevent the issue of forged notes. Various schemes have been suggested for this purpose; and though it be hardly possible to suppose that an *inimitable* note will ever be produced, it is contended that by judiciously combining different sorts of engraving, forgery may be rendered so difficult, as to be but rarely attempted. But however this may be, during the period from 1797 to 1819, when the Bank of England issued 1*l.* notes, their forgery was carried on to a great extent. And the desire to check this practice, and to lessen the frequency of capital punishments, appears to have been amongst the most prominent circumstances which led to the return to specie payments in 1821, and the suppression of 1*l.* notes.

(5.) *Bank of England Notes legal tender.*—According to the law as it stood previously to 1834, all descriptions of notes were legally payable at the pleasure of the holder in fulfilment of the standard weight and purity. But the policy of such a regulation was very questionable; and we regard the enactment of the stat. 3 & 4 W^m. 4. c. 98., which makes Bank of England notes legal tender, every where except at the Bank and its branches, for all sums above 5*l.*, as a great improvement. The unjust liabilities imposed upon the Bank of England by the old system, placed her in a situation of great difficulty and hazard. They obliged her to provide a supply of coin and bullion, not for her own exigencies only, but for those of *all* the country banks; and, what is harder still, they exposed her to be deeply injured by any misconduct on the part of the latter, as well as by the distress in which they might accidentally be involved. In consequence, her free action was at all times in some degree impeded; and her power to render assistance to the banking and mercantile interests in periods of discredit materially diminished. The country banks kept but a small supply of coin in their coffers. They were all, however, holders, to a greater or less extent, of government securities; and whenever any circumstance occurred to occasion a demand upon them for coin, they immediately sold or pledged the whole or a portion of their stock, carried the notes to the Bank to be exchanged, and then carried the specie to the country. Hence, when any suspicions were entertained of the credit of the country banks, or when a panic originated amongst the holders of their notes, as was the case in 1793 and 1825, the whole of them retreated upon the Bank of England, and 700 or 800 *comptes* were opened, to draw off the specie of that establishment, which was thus, it is evident, exposed to the risk of stoppage without having done anything wrong. It was not the drain for gold from abroad, but the drain for gold from the country, that nearly exhausted the Bank's coffers in 1825, and forced her to issue about a million of 1*l.* and 5*l.* notes. The currency could not be in a sound healthy state, while the Bank of England, and, through her, public credit, were placed in so perilous a situation. But the making of Bank of England notes legal tender at all places except the Bank, has tended materially to protect her from the injurious consequences of panics or runs among the holders of country bank paper; and while it does this, it has not, as it appears to us, anyway impaired the securities against over-issue or depreciation.

It has, no doubt, been contended that the measure now referred to might lead to the depreciation of provincial paper; inasmuch as the expense of sending notes from a distance to London, to be exchanged for gold, would prevent any one from demanding Bank of England notes from country banks in good credit, till the value of the notes issued by them was so much depreciated below the value of gold that the difference would more than pay the expense of sending them to London, and bringing gold back. There cannot, however, be the least difference, as respects value, in the provinces, between Bank of England paper, now that it is legal tender, and gold. London being the place where the exchanges are adjusted, the value of money in every part of the empire must depend on its value in it; and *this*, it is plain, is not in any degree affected by the measure under consideration. Formerly the provincial currency, gold as well as paper, might be, and indeed frequently was, depreciated. This was brought about either by an over-issue on the part of the country banks, generally in the first instance the effect, but always in the end the cause, of a rise of prices; or by the issues of the Bank of England being, in consequence of an adverse exchange, narrower or more rapidly than those of the country banks. In either case, the provincial currency being redundant as compared with that of the metropolis, there was a demand on its issuers for bills on London; but it is material to observe, that, unless their credit was suspected, there was not, in such cases, any demand upon them for gold. It is, indeed, obvious that a redundancy of the currency is a defect that cannot be obviated by getting gold from the country banks, unless (as hoarding is out of the question) it be intended to send it abroad; and that may always be done *better and cheaper* by getting from them Bank of England notes, or bills on London. A

local redundancy of the currency may take place now as it has done formerly; and its occurrence cannot be prevented, even though paper were wholly banished from circulation, so long as the whole currency is not supplied from *one* source, and as London is the focus where the exchanges with foreign countries are adjusted. But the statements now made show that it is a radical mistake to suppose that it can take place more readily, or to a greater extent, under the present system than formerly. In this respect no change was made in 1834. And while our ancient security against over-issue was maintained unimpaired, the arrangements then made increased the stability of the Bank of England, and consequently improved our pecuniary system.

If any doubt could possibly remain as to the operation of this system, it would be removed by referring to Scotland. Gold has been practically banished from that country for a long series of years; and yet no one pretends to say that prices are higher in Scotland than in England, or that her currency is depreciated. The Scotch currency is kept at its proper level, not by the check of gold payments, but by the demand for bills on London; and it is as effectually limited in this way as it would be were the banks universally in the habit of exchanging notes for gold. On what grounds, then, is it to be apprehended that the obligation to give Bank of England notes or bills on London will be less effectual in restraining over-issue in Yorkshire or Durham than in Scotland?

A banker who issues notes must keep beside him such a stock of cash and bullion as may be sufficient to answer the demands of the public for their payment. If the value of the cash and bullion in his coffers were equal to the value of his notes in circulation, he would not, it is plain, make any profit; but if he be in good credit, a third, a fourth, or even a fifth part of this sum, will probably be sufficient; and his profit consists of the excess of the interest derived from his notes in circulation over the interest of the sum he is obliged to keep dormant in his strong box, and the expenses of managing his establishment. The Bank of England, as will be afterwards seen, keeps an average stock of coin and bullion equal to a third of her liabilities.

(4.) *Legal description of Bank Notes.*—Bank notes are merely a species of promissory notes. They are subscribed either by the parties on whose account they are issued, or by some one in their employment, whose signature is binding upon them. A Bank of England note for 5*l.* is as follows:—

Bank of England.

*I promise to pay Mr. Matt^w Marshall, or Bearer,
on Demand, the Sum of Five Pounds.*

1846 Dec^r 9 London 9 Dec^r 1846.

For the Gov^r and Comp^y of the

£ five.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

A. B.

No particular form of words is necessary in a bank note. The essential requisites are, that it should be for a definite sum (in England and Wales not less than 5*l.*, and in Scotland and Ireland not less than 1*l.*), that it should be payable to bearer on demand, and that it should be properly stamped. Promissory notes, though issued by bankers, if not payable to bearer on demand, do not come under the denomination of bank notes; they are not, like the latter, taken as cash in all ordinary transactions; nor are they, like them, assignable by mere delivery.

The circulation of notes for less than 5*l.* was restrained by law (stat. 15 Geo. 3. c. 51.) from 1766 to 1797. In 1808, it was enacted by stat. 48 Geo. 3. c. 88., that all bank notes, promissory notes, or other negotiable instruments for less than 20*s.*, should be absolutely void: a penalty of from 20*s.* to 5*l.*, at the discretion of the justices, being imposed on their issuers. It was enacted by the 7 Geo. 4. c. 6., that the issue of all bank notes or promissory notes for less than 5*l.* by the Bank of England, or by any licensed English bankers, and stamped on the 5th of February, 1826, or previously (after which period such notes were not stamped), should terminate on the 5th of April, 1829.

The stamp duties on bank notes or promissory notes payable on demand are—

Not exceeding	# s. d.	Exceeding	# s. d.	and not exceeding	# s. d.	Exceeding	# s. d.	10 0 0 and not exceeding	# s. d.	100 0 0	# s. d.
	1 1 0		2 2 0		5 5 0		10 0 0		20 0 0		50 0 0
	1 1 0		2 2 0		5 5 0		10 0 0		20 0 0		50 0 0
	1 1 0		2 2 0		5 5 0		10 0 0		20 0 0		50 0 0

Which notes may be reissued after payment, as often as shall be thought fit, provided

they be issued by a banker or person who has taken out a licence, renewable annually, and costing 30*l.*, to issue notes payable to bearer on demand. Any banker or other person issuing such reissuable notes, without being duly licensed, shall forfeit 100*l.* for every offence.—(55 Geo. 3. c. 184. § 27.)

These conditions do not apply to the Bank of England. The stamp duties on the notes of that establishment were formerly compounded for at the rate of 3,500*l.* per million of those in circulation; but the act 7 and 8 Vict. c. 32. has wholly exempted them from all charge on account of stamp duties.

Notes or bills not payable to bearer on demand are not reissuable, under a penalty of 50*l.* For the stamp duties affecting them, see EXCHANGE.

By the 9 Geo. 4. c. 23., English bankers not in the city of London, or within three miles thereof, are authorised to issue promissory notes, and to draw and issue bills of exchange, on unstamped paper, for any sum of 5*l.* or upwards, expressed to be payable to the bearer on demand, or to order at any period not exceeding 7 days after sight (bills may also be drawn at any period not exceeding 21 days after date), upon obtaining licences, costing 30*l.*, to that effect; provided such bills of exchange be drawn upon bankers in London, Westminster, or Southwark; or provided such bills be drawn by any banker or bankers at the place where he or they shall be licensed to issue unstamped notes and bills, upon himself or themselves, or his or their copartner or copartners, payable at any other place where such banker or bankers shall be licensed to issue such notes and bills. Bankers having such licences are to give security, by bond, that they will keep a true account of all promissory notes and bills so issued, and account for the duties on them at the rate of 3*s.* 6*d.* for every 100*l.*, and also for the fractional parts of 100*l.* of the average value of such notes and bills in circulation. Persons post-dating unstamped notes or bills shall, for every such offence, forfeit 100*l.*

(5.) *Legal Effect of the Payment of Bank Notes.*—Notes of the bank of England were not, previously to the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98., like bills of exchange, mere securities, or documents of debt, but were treated as money or cash in the ordinary course or transactions of business; the receipts given upon their payment being always given as for money. Now, however, they are legal tender, everywhere except at the Bank, for all sums above 5*l.* All notes payable to bearer are assignable by delivery. The holder of a bank note is *prima facie* entitled to its prompt payment, and cannot be affected by the previous fraud of any former holder in obtaining it, unless evidence be given to show that he was privy to such fraud. Such privity may, however, be inferred from the circumstances of the case. To use the words of Lord Tenterden, "If a person take a bill, note, or any other kind of security, under circumstances which ought to excite suspicion in the mind of any reasonable man acquainted with the ordinary affairs of life, and which ought to put him on his guard to make the necessary inquiries, and he do not, then he loses the right of maintaining possession of the instrument against the lawful owner."—(Guildhall, 25th October, 1826.)

Country bank notes are usually received as cash. But though taken as such, if they be presented *in due time* and not paid, they do not amount to a payment, and the deliverer of the notes is still liable to the holder. It is not easy to determine what is a due or reasonable time, inasmuch as it must depend in a great measure on the circumstances of each particular case. On the whole, the safest rule seems to be to present all notes or drafts payable on demand, if received in the place where they are payable, on the day on which they are received, or as soon after as possible. When they have to be transmitted by post for payment, no unnecessary delay should be allowed to intervene.—(*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. p. 590.; and the art. CHECK in this Dictionary.)

6. *Distinction between Bank Notes and Bills of Exchange.*—It is common with those who object to any restrictions being laid on the issue of bank notes to represent them as substantially identical with ordinary bills of exchange, and to contend that if it would be imprudent or impracticable to interfere with the issue of the latter, the issue of the former should also be left to the discretion of the parties. The cases, however, are not parallel. It is true that bills of exchange perform in some respects the functions of money; and being transferred from one individual to another make payments much in the same way as if they were bank notes. But though there are, no doubt, certain points in which bills of exchange and bank notes closely resemble each other, there are others, and those too of the greatest importance, in which there is a distinct and material difference between them. Bank notes are issued only by parties licensed for the purpose, or by bankers; they are uniformly payable on demand, or when presented; they are not indorsed by the holder on his paying them away; the party receiving has no claim on the party from whom he received them in the event of the failure of the issuer*; and every one is thus encouraged, reckoning

* Practically speaking, this is the fact; but, as seen above, a person paying away a country bank note is liable to be recalled upon for repayment, should the bank fail before it was in the power of the party

on the facility of passing them to others, to accept bank notes, "even though he should doubt the ultimate solvency of the issuers."—(*Thornton on Paper Credit*, p. 172.) Bills, on the contrary, may be drawn by all individuals; they are mostly all made payable at some distant period; and those into whose hands they come, if they be not in want of money, prefer retaining them in their possession, in order that they may get the interest accruing upon them. But the principal distinction between notes and bills is, that the latter are not assignable by mere delivery, but that every individual, in passing a bill to another, has to indorse it, and by doing so makes himself responsible for its payment. "A bill circulates," says Mr. Thornton, "in consequence chiefly of the confidence placed by each receiver of it in the last indorser, his own correspondent in trade; whereas the circulation of a bank note is owing rather to the circumstance of the name of the issuer being so well known as to give it an universal credit." (P. 40.) Nothing, then, can be more inaccurate than to represent bills and notes in the same point of view. If A. pay to B. 100*l.* in satisfaction of a debt, there is an end of the transaction; but if A. pay to B. a bill of exchange for 100*l.*, the transaction is not completed; and, in the event of the bill not being paid by the person on whom it is drawn, B. will have recourse upon A. for its value. It is clear, therefore, that a great deal more consideration is always required, and may be fairly presumed to be given, before any one accepts a bill of exchange in payment, than before he accepts a bank note. The note is payable on the instant, without deduction—the bill not until some future period; the note may be passed to another without incurring any risk or responsibility, whereas every fresh issuer of the bill makes himself responsible for its value. Notes form the currency of all classes, not only of those who are, but also of those who are not engaged in business, very many of whom are, as already seen, without the power to refuse them, and without the means of forming any correct conclusion as to the solvency of the issuers. Bills, on the other hand, pass only, with very few exceptions, among persons engaged in business, who, being fully aware of the risk they run in taking them, reject such as they apprehend might involve them in loss. There is plainly, therefore, a wide and obvious distinction between the two species of currency; and it would be ridiculous to argue that because government is bound to interfere to regulate the issue of the one, it should also regulate the issue of the other.

II. BANK OF ENGLAND (ACCOUNT OF).

(1.) *Historical Sketch of the Bank.*—This great establishment, which has long been the principal bank of deposit and circulation, not in this country only, but in Europe, was founded in 1694. Its principal projector was Mr. William Paterson, an enterprising and intelligent Scotch gentleman, who was afterwards engaged in the ill-fated colony at Darien. Government being at the time much distressed for want of money, partly from the defects and abuses in the system of taxation, and partly from the difficulty of borrowing, because of the supposed instability of the revolutionary establishment, the bank grew out of a loan of 1,200,000*l.* for the public service. The subscribers, besides receiving eight per cent. on the sum advanced as interest, and 4,000*l.* a year as the expense of management, in all 100,000*l.* a year, were incorporated into a society denominated the *Governor and Company of the Bank of England*. The charter is dated the 27th of July, 1694. It declares, amongst other things, that they shall "be capable in law to purchase, enjoy, and retain to them and their successors, any manors, lands, rents, tenements, and possessions whatsoever; and to purchase and acquire all sorts of goods and chattels whatsoever, wherein they are not restrained by act of parliament; and also to grant, demise, and dispose of the same.

"That the management and government of the corporation be committed to the governor, deputy governor, and twenty-four directors, who shall be elected between the 25th day of March and 25th day of April, each year, from among the members of the Company duly qualified.

"That no dividend shall at any time be made by the said Governor and Company, save only out of the interest, profit, or produce arising by or out of the said capital stock or fund, or by such dealing as is allowed by act of parliament.

"They must be natural-born subjects of England, or naturalised subjects; they shall have in their own name and for their own use, severally, viz.—the governor at least 4,000*l.*, the deputy governor 3,000*l.*, and each director 2,000*l.* of the capital stock of the said corporation.

"That thirteen or more of the said governors and directors (of which the governor or deputy governor must be always one) shall constitute a court of directors, for the management of the affairs of the Company, and for the appointment of all agents and servants which may be necessary, paying them such salaries as they may consider reasonable.

to whom it was paid, using ordinary diligence, to present it. The responsibility seldom exceeds a couple of hours, and can hardly in any case exceed a couple of days. In practice it is never adverted to.

"Every elector must have in his own name and for his own use, 500*l.* or more capital stock, and can only give one vote. He must, if required by any member present, take the oath of stock; or the declaration of stock, in case he be one of the people called Quakers.

"Four general courts to be held in every year; in the months of September, December, April, and July. A general court may be summoned, at any time, upon the requisition of nine proprietors, duly qualified as electors.

"The majority of electors in general courts have the power to make and constitute by-laws and ordinances for the government of the corporation, provided that such by-laws and ordinances be not repugnant to the laws of the kingdom, and be confirmed and approved, according to the statutes in such case made and provided."

The corporation is prohibited from engaging in any sort of commercial undertaking other than dealing in bills of exchange, and in gold and silver. It is authorised to advance money upon the security of goods or merchandise pledged to it; and to sell by public auction such goods as are not redeemed within a specified time.

It was also enacted in the same year in which the Bank was established, by statute 6 William and Mary, c. 20., that the Bank "shall not deal in any goods, wares, or merchandises (except bullion), or purchase any lands or revenues belonging to the crown, or advance or lend to their Majesties, their heirs or successors, any sum or sums of money by way of loan or anticipation, or any part or parts, branch or branches, fund or funds of the revenue, now granted or belonging, or hereafter to be granted to their Majesties, their heirs and successors, other than such fund or funds, part or parts, branch or branches of the said revenue only, on which a credit of loan is or shall be granted by parliament." And in 1697 it was enacted, that the "common capital and principal stock, and also the real fund of the Governor and Company, or any profit or produce to be made thereof, or arising thereby, shall be exempted from any rates, taxes, assessments, or impositions whatsoever, during the continuance of the Bank; and that all the profit, benefit, and advantage, from time to time arising out of the management of the said corporation, shall be applied to the uses of all the members of the said corporation of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, rateably and in proportion to each member's part, share, and interest in the common capital and principal stock of the said Governor and Company hereby established.

It was further enacted, in 1697, that the forgery of the Company's seal, or of any sealed bill or bank note, should be felony without benefit of clergy, and that the making of any alteration or erasure in any bill or note should also be felony.

In 1696, during the great recoinage, the Bank was involved in considerable difficulties, and was even compelled to suspend payment of her notes, which were at a heavy discount. Owing, however, to the judicious conduct of the directors, and the assistance of government, the Bank got over the crisis. But it was at the same time judged expedient, in order to place her in a situation the better to withstand any adverse circumstances that might afterwards occur, to increase her capital from 1,200,000*l.* to 2,201,171*l.* In 1708, the directors undertook to pay off and cancel one million and a half of Exchequer bills they had circulated two years before, at 4½ per cent., with the interest on them, amounting in all to 1,775,028*l.*; which increased the permanent debt due by the public to the Bank, including 400,000*l.* then advanced in consideration of the renewal of the charter, to 3,375,028*l.*, for which they were allowed 6 per cent. The Bank capital was then also doubled or increased to 4,402,343*l.* But the year 1708 is chiefly memorable, in the history of the Bank, for the act that was then passed, which declared, that during the continuance of the corporation of the Bank of England, "it should not be lawful for any body politic, erected or to be erected, other than the said Governor and Company of the Bank of England, or for any persons whatsoever, united or to be united in covenant or partnership, exceeding the number of 6 persons, in that part of Great Britain called England, to borrow, owe, or take up any sum or sums of money on their bills or notes payable on demand, or in any less time than 6 months from the borrowing thereof."—This proviso, which has had so powerful an operation on banking in England, is said to have been elicited by the Mine-venture Company having commenced banking business, and begun to issue notes.

It has been pretty generally imagined, from the private banking companies in the metropolis not issuing notes, that they were legally incapacitated from doing so. But the clause in the act of 1708, which has been the only restriction on the issue of notes, applied generally to all England, and had no peculiar reference to London. The fact that banks with 6 or fewer partners have not issued notes in the metropolis, as well as in the provinces, is, therefore, ascribable either to their being aware that their notes would obtain no considerable circulation concurrently with those of a great association like the Bank of England, or from their believing that their issue would not be profitable.

We subjoin

An Account of the successive Renewals of the Charter, of the Conditions under which these Renewals were made, and of the Variations in the Amount and Interest of the Permanent Debt due by Government to the Bank, exclusive of the Dead Weight.

Year of Renewal.	Conditions under which Renewals were made, and Permanent Debt contracted.	Permanent Debt.
		£ s. d.
1694.	Charter granted under the act 5 & 6 Will. 3. c. 30., redeemable upon the expiration of 12 months' notice after the 1st of August, 1703, upon payment by the public to the Bank of the demands therein specified. Under this act the Bank advanced to the public 1,300,000 <i>l.</i> , in consideration of their receiving an annuity of 100,000 <i>l.</i> a year, viz. 4 per cent. interest, and 4,000 <i>l.</i> for management	1,300,000 0 0
1697.	Charter continued by the 8 & 9 Will. 3. c. 20. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1710, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank took up and added to their stock 1,001,171 <i>l.</i> Exchequer bills and tallies.	
1708.	Charter continued by 7 Anne, c. 7. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1733, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank advanced 400,000 <i>l.</i> to government, without interest; and delivered up to be cancelled 1,775,027 <i>l.</i> 17 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> Exchequer bills, in consideration of their receiving an annuity of 106,501 <i>l.</i> 13 <i>s.</i> being at the rate of 8 per cent.	2,175,027 17 10
1713.	Charter continued by 12 Anne, stat. 1. c. 11. till 12 months' notice after 1st August, 1743, on payment, &c. In 1716, by the 3 Geo. 1. c. 8., Bank advanced to government, at 5 per cent. And by the same act, the interest on the Exchequer bills cancelled in 1708 was reduced from 6 to 5 per cent. In 1721, by 6 Geo. 1. c. 21., the South Sea Company were authorised to sell 300,000 <i>l.</i> government annuities, and corporations purchasing the same at 36 years' purchase were authorised to add the amount to their capital stock. The Bank purchased the whole of these annuities at 30 years' purchase Interest was payable on this sum to Midsummer, 1727, and thereafter, 4 per cent. At different times between 1727 and 1738, both inclusive, the Bank received from the public, on account of permanent debt, 2,375,027 <i>l.</i> 17 <i>l.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> , and advanced to it on account of ditto, 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> ; difference	3,000,000 0 0 4,000,000 0 0 2,375,027 17 10 275,027 17 10
1743.	Debt due by the public in 1738 - - - - - Charter continued by 13 Geo. 2. c. 13. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1764, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank advanced 1,600,000 <i>l.</i> without interest, which being added to the original advance of 1,300,000 <i>l.</i> , and the 400,000 <i>l.</i> advanced in 1710, bearing interest at 6 per cent., reduced the interest on the whole to 3 per cent. In 1746, under authority of 10 Geo. 2. c. 6., the Bank delivered up to be cancelled 986,000 <i>l.</i> of Exchequer bills, in consideration of an annuity of 39,472 <i>l.</i> , being at the rate of 3 per cent. In 1749, the 23 Geo. 2. c. 6. reduced the interest on the 4 per cent. annuities held by the Bank to 3 per cent. for 7 years from the 30th of December, 1750, and thereafter to 3 per cent.	9,100,000 0 0 1,600,000 0 0 986,000 0 0
1764.	Charter continued by 4 Geo. 3. c. 23. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1786, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank paid into the Exchequer 110,000 <i>l.</i> free of all charge.	
1781.	Charter continued by 21 Geo. 3. c. 60. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1812, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank advanced 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> for the public service for 3 years at 3 per cent.	
1800.	Charter continued by 40 Geo. 3. c. 28. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1833, on payment, &c. Under this act the Bank advanced to government 3,000,000 <i>l.</i> for 6 years without interest; but in pursuance of the recommendation of the committee of 1807, the advance was continued without interest till 6 months after the signature of a definitive treaty of peace. In 1816, the Bank, under authority of the act 56 Geo. 3. c. 96., advanced 3 per cent. to be repaid on or before 1st of August, 1833.	
1833.	Charter continued by 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98. till 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1855, with a proviso that it may be dissolved on 12 months' notice after 1st of August, 1845, on payment, &c. This act directs that in future the Bank shall deduct 120,000 <i>l.</i> a year from their charge on account of the management of the public debt, and that a fourth part of the debt due by the public to the Bank, or 3,671,700 <i>l.</i> , be paid off Permanent advance by the Bank to the public, bearing interest at 3 per cent., independent of the advances on account of dead weight, &c.	3,000,000 0 0 14,686,800 0 0 3,671,700 0 0
1844.	Charter continued by 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32. till 12 months after the 1st of August, 1855, on payment, &c. This act, an abstract of which is given in a subsequent part of this article, exempts the notes of the bank from all charge on account of stamp-duty, and directs that in future the bank shall deduct 120,000 <i>l.</i> a year from the charge on account of the management of the public debt. It also separates the banking from the issuing department of the establishment, and effects other important changes.	11,018,100 0 0

The charter of the Bank of England, when first granted, was to continue for eleven years certain, or till a year's notice after the 1st of August, 1703. The charter was further prolonged in 1697. In 1708, the Bank having advanced 400,000*l.* for the

public service, without interest, the exclusive privileges of the corporation were prolonged till 1733. And in consequence of various arrangements made at different times, the exclusive privileges of the Bank have been continued by successive renewals, till a year's notice after the 1st of August, 1855. — (See table opposite.)

(For further details as to this subject, see the *Appendix No. 1. of the Report of 1833 on the Renewal of the Bank Charter*, and the Acts of Parliament referred to in it; see also *Postlethwait's History of the Revenue*, pp. 301—310; and *Fairman on the Funds*, 7th ed. pp. 88—89, &c.)

The capital of the Bank on which dividends are paid has never exactly coincided with, though till of late it seldom differed very materially from, the permanent advance by the Bank to the public. We have already seen that it amounted, in 1708, to 4,402,343*l*. Between that year and 1727 it was increased to near 9,000,000*l*. In 1746, it amounted to 10,780,000*l*. From this period it underwent no change till 1782, when it was increased 8 per cent., or to 11,642,400*l*. It continued stationary at this sum down to 1816, when it was raised to 14,553,000*l*. by an addition of 25 per cent. from the profits of the Bank, under the provisions of the act 56 Geo. 3. c. 96. The act for the renewal of the charter, in 1833, the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98., directed that the sum of 3,671,700*l*. of the debt due to the bank should be repaid by the public, giving the directors power, if they thought fit, to deduct it from the bank capital. But this was not done; the sum being reinvested in a government annuity, terminable in 1860.

The Bank of England has been frequently affected by panics amongst the holders of its notes. In 1745, the alarm occasioned by the advance of the Highlanders under the Pretender as far as Derby, led to a run upon the Bank; and in order to gain time to concert measures for averting the run, the directors adopted the device of paying in shillings and sixpences! But they derived a more effectual relief from the retreat of the Highlanders; and from a resolution agreed to at a meeting of the principal merchants and traders of the city, and very numerous signed, declaring the willingness of the subscribers to receive Bank notes in payment of any sum that might be due to them, and pledging themselves to use their utmost endeavours to make all their payments in the same medium.

During the tremendous riots in June, 1780, the Bank incurred considerable danger. Had the mob attacked the establishment at the commencement of the riots, the consequences might have proved fatal. Luckily, however, they delayed their attack till time had been afforded for providing a force sufficient to insure its safety. Since that period a considerable military force is nightly placed in the interior of the Bank, as a protection in any emergency that may occur.

In the latter part of 1792 and beginning of 1793, there was in consequence of a previous over-issue on their part, a general run on most of the private banks; and about a *third* part of these establishments were forced to stop payments. This led to a considerable demand for coin from the Bank.

The year 1797, is, however, the most important epoch in the recent history of the Bank. Owing partly to events connected with the war in which we were then engaged — to loans to the Emperor of Germany — to bills drawn on the treasury at home by the British agents abroad — and partly, and chiefly, perhaps, to the advances most unwillingly made by the Bank to government, which prevented the directors from having a sufficient control over their issues, — the exchanges became unfavourable in 1795, and in that and the following year large sums in specie were drawn from the Bank. In the latter end of 1796 and beginning of 1797, considerable apprehensions were entertained of invasion, and rumours were propagated of descents having been actually made on the coast. In consequence of the fears that were thus excited, runs were made on the provincial banks in different parts of the country; and some of them having failed, the panic became general, and extended itself to London. Demands for cash poured in upon the Bank from all quarters; and on Saturday, the 25th of February, 1797, she had only 1,272,000*l* of cash and bullion in her coffers, with every prospect of a violent run taking place on the following Monday. In this emergency an order in council was issued on Sunday the 26th, prohibiting the directors from paying their notes in cash until the sense of parliament had been taken on the subject. And after parliament met, and the measure had been much discussed, it was agreed to continue the restriction till six months after the signature of a definitive treaty of peace.

As soon as the order in council prohibiting payments in cash appeared, a meeting of the principal bankers, merchants, traders, &c. of the metropolis, was held at the Mansion House, when a resolution was agreed to and very numerous signed, pledging, as had been done in 1745, those present to accept, and to use every means in their power to cause Bank notes to be accepted as cash in all transactions. This resolution tended to allay the apprehensions that the restriction had excited.

Parliament being sitting at the time, a committee was immediately appointed to examine into the affairs of the Bank; and their report put to rest whatever doubts might have been entertained with respect to the solvency of the establishment, by

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showing that at the moment when the order in council appeared the Bank was possessed of property to the amount of 15,513,690*l.*, after all claims upon her had been deducted.

Much difference of opinion has existed with respect to the policy of the restriction in 1797; but, considering the peculiar circumstances under which it took place, its expediency seems abundantly obvious. The run did not originate in any over-issue of Bank paper; but grew entirely out of political causes. So long as the alarms of invasion continued, it was clear that no Bank paper immediately convertible into gold would remain in circulation. And as the Bank, though possessed of ample funds, was without the means of instantly retiring her notes, she might, but for the interference of government, have been obliged to stop payment; an event which, had it occurred, must have produced consequences in the last degree fatal to the public interests.

It had been generally supposed previously to the passing of the Restriction Act, that Bank notes would not circulate unless they were immediately convertible into cash; but the event showed, conformably to principles that have since been fully explained, that this was not really the case. Though the notes of the Bank of England were not, at the passing of the Restriction Act, publicly declared to be legal tender, they were rendered so in practice, by being received as cash in all transactions on account of government, and of the vast majority of individuals. For the first three years of the restriction, their issues were so moderate that they not only kept on a par with gold, but actually bore a small premium. In the latter part of 1800, however, their quantity was so much increased that they fell to a discount of 8 per cent. as compared with gold, but they soon after rose nearly to par; and it was not until 1808 that the decline of their value excited any considerable attention. Early in 1810, they were at a discount of about 13½ per cent; and this extraordinary fall having attracted the attention of the legislature, the House of Commons appointed a committee to inquire into the circumstances by which it had been occasioned. The committee examined several witnesses; and in their report, which was drawn up with considerable ability, they justly ascribed the fall to the over-issue of Bank paper, and recommended that the Bank should be obliged to resume cash payments within two years. This recommendation was not, however, acted upon; and the value of Bank paper continued to decline, as compared with gold, till 1814.

At the period when the restriction on cash payments took place in 1797, it is supposed that there were about 280 country banks in existence; but so rapidly were these establishments multiplied, that they amounted to above 900 in 1813. The price of corn, influenced partly by the depreciation of the currency, and the facility with which discounts were obtained, but far more by deficient harvests, and the unprecedented difficulties which the war threw in the way of importation, had risen to an extraordinary height during the five years ending with 1813. But the harvest of that year being unusually productive, and the intercourse with the Continent being then also renewed, prices, influenced by both circumstances, sustained a very heavy fall in the latter part of 1813, and the beginning of 1814. And this fall having ruined a considerable number of farmers, and produced a general want of confidence, such a destruction of provincial paper took place as has rarely been paralleled. In 1814, 1815, and 1816, no fewer than 240 country banks stopped payment; and *eighty-nine* commissions of bankruptcy were issued against these establishments, being at the rate of *one* commission against every *ten and a half* of the total number of banks existing in 1813.

The great reduction that had been thus suddenly and violently brought about in the quantity of country bank paper, by extending the field for the circulation of Bank of England paper, raised its value in 1817 nearly to a par with gold. The return to cash payments being thus facilitated, it was fixed, in 1819, by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 78., commonly called Sir Robert Peel's Act, that they should take place in 1823. But to prevent any future over-issue, and at the same time to render the measures as little burdensome as possible, it was enacted, in pursuance of a plan suggested by the late Mr. Ricardo, that the Bank should be obliged, during the interval from the passing of the act till the return to specie payments, to pay her notes, if required, in bars of standard bullion of not less than sixty ounces weight. This plan was not, however, acted upon during the period allowed by law; for, a large amount of gold having been accumulated at the Bank, the directors preferred recommencing specie payments on the 1st of May, 1821.—(See Table I. for an account of the price of bullion, the depreciation of paper, &c. from 1800 to 1821.)

A great diversity of opinion has been entertained with respect to the policy of the return to the old standard, in 1819. By one party it has been represented as a wise and politic measure; they contend that Sir Robert Peel's Act not only put an end to those fluctuations in the value of money, which had previously been productive of great mischief, and gave effect to the solemn engagements into which the public had entered

with the national creditor, but that it did this without adding anything material to the national burdens. But another, and also a very numerous party, take a totally different view of this measure; they contend that the public was not really bound to return to cash payments at the old standard at the termination of the war; that the return has very greatly enhanced the value of the currency; and that this enhancement, by adding proportionally to the fixed burdens laid on the industrious classes, has been most injurious to their interests. It will, however, be found in this, as in most cases of the sort, that the statements of both parties are exaggerated; and that if, on the one hand, the measure has not been so advantageous as its eulogists represent, neither, on the other, has it been nearly so injurious as its enemies would have us believe.

In discussing this question, it is material to observe that the value of paper, which had been in 1815 and 1816 about 16½ per cent. below that of gold, rose in 1817 and 1818, from the causes already mentioned, without any interference whatever on the part of government, to within little more than 2½ per cent. of the value of gold; and that in 1819 the depreciation only amounted to 4½ per cent.—(See Table I.) It is, therefore, quite ludicrous to ascribe to the act of 1819, as is often done, the whole rise that has taken place in the value of the currency since the peace, seeing that the currency had been for three years previously to its enactment from 12½ to 14½ per cent. above its value in 1815, and from 21 to 23 per cent. above its value in 1814! The main object which the promoters of the act of 1819 had in view, was to sustain the value of the currency at the point to which it had recovered itself without legislative interference. This, however, could not be done without recurring to specie payments; and the difference of 4½ per cent. that obtained in 1819 between the value of gold and paper, was not deemed sufficiently considerable to warrant a departure from the old standard, and from the acts engaging to restore it.

But it is alleged that those who suppose that the act of 1819 added only 4½ per cent. to the value of the currency mistake altogether the effect of the measure. It is admitted, indeed, that paper was then only 4½ per cent. less valuable than gold; but by reverting to specie payments, we made an unexpected purchase of thirty millions of gold; and it is affirmed that this novel and large demand, concurring simultaneously with the contraction of paper in several of the Continental states, and with a falling off in the supply of bullion from the mines, had the effect of adding very greatly to the value of gold itself, and consequently to that of the currency. It is very difficult, or rather, perhaps, impossible, to determine the precise degree of credit that should be attached to this statement; but, while we incline to think that it is well founded to a certain extent, we see no grounds for believing that it is so to anything like the extent that has been stated. The gold imported into Great Britain, to enable the Bank to resume specie payments, was not taken from any particular country or district, but was drawn from the market of the world; and considering the vast extent of the supply whence it was derived, it is against all reason to suppose that its value could be materially influenced by our purchases. We doubt, too, whether the contraction of the paper currency of some of the Continental states, and the substitution of specie in its stead, was not more than balanced by the cessation of the demand for specie for the military chests of the different armies, by the stoppage of the practice of hoarding, and the greater security consequent to the return of peace. And with respect to the falling off in the supplies from the mines, it is not a circumstance, supposing it to have had a considerable influence, that parliament could take into account. It could neither determine the extent to which bullion had been raised, nor at what point the rise would stop, nor how soon it might again begin to decline. The diminution in the supply of bullion had then continued for too short a period, and its influence on the value of gold was much too uncertain, to make it a ground for interfering in any degree with the standard. And notwithstanding the falling off in the productiveness of the American mines still continues, the diminution thence arising has been since more than compensated by the extraordinary increase that has taken place of late years in the produce of the Russian mines and washings.

The decline in the price of most articles that has taken place since the peace has been often referred to, as a conclusive proof of the great enhancement in the value of bullion. But the inference is by no means so certain as has been represented. The prices of commodities are as much affected by changes in the cost of their production, as by changes in the quantity of money afloat. Now, there is not one of the great articles of commerce the cost of which has not been considerably reduced, or which has not been supplied from new and more productive sources, within the last few years. The growth of corn, for example, has been vastly extended in France, Prussia, and generally throughout the Continent, by the splitting of large estates, and the complete subversion of the feudal system; and the reduction of its price in this country has been wholly owing to the astonishing improvements made in agriculture, and to the increase of

imports from Ireland. The fall in the price of wool is satisfactorily accounted for by the introduction and rapid multiplication of Merino sheep in Germany, where they seem to succeed even better than in Spain; and by the large and rapidly growing imports from Australia, where little more than 50 years ago there was not a single sheep! And a very large portion, if not the whole, of the fall in the price of colonial products, is admitted, on all hands, to be owing to the destruction of the monopoly system, and the vast extension of cultivation in Cuba, Brazil, Java, Louisiana, &c. Although, therefore, we do not deny that the falling off in the supply of bullion from the mines must, at first, have had some influence over prices, we hold it to be the greatest imaginable error to ascribe to it the entire fall that took place after the peace. Were its effect rated at from 5 to 10 per cent., we believe it would be very considerably overstated.—(See art. *PRECIOUS METALS*.)

On the whole, therefore, we are disposed to approve of the conduct of those who framed the act of 1819. That it added somewhat to the burdens of the industrious classes, and has been in so far hostile to the public interests, it seems impossible to doubt; but it has not been so in anything like the degree which its enemies represent. The period, too, when it was passed is now so distant, that the existing engagements amongst individuals have almost all been formed with reference to the altered value of the currency; so that whatever injury it may have occasioned in the first instance must be nearly gone by. To modify or change the standard at this late period, would not be to repair injustice, but to commit it afresh. At the end of the war, the circumstances were considerably different. The standard had been really abandoned for the previous 18 years; and perhaps we may now say, that it would have been better, all things considered, had the mint price of bullion been raised in 1815, to the market price. But having surmounted all the difficulties attendant upon the restoration of the old standard, and maintained it since 1821, it would be in the last degree impolitic to subject it to new alterations. Should the country become, at any future period, unable to make good its engagements, it will better consult its honour and its interest by fairly compounding with its creditors, than by endeavouring to slip from its engagements by resorting to the underhand and dishonest expedient of enfeebling the standard.

The price of corn, which had been very much depressed in 1821 and 1822, rallied in 1823; and this circumstance contributed, along with others peculiar to that period, to promote an extraordinary rage for speculation. The issues of the country banks being in consequence far too much extended, the currency became redundant in the autumn of 1824; and the exchanges having been depressed, a drain for gold began to operate upon the Bank of England. But the directors of the Bank having entered, in the early part of that year, into an engagement with government to pay off such holders of 4 per cent. stock as might dissent from its conversion into a 3½ per cent. stock, they were obliged to advance a considerable sum on this account after the depression of the exchange. This tended to counteract the effect of the drain on the Bank for gold; and, in consequence, the London currency was not very materially diminished till September, 1825. When, however, the continued demand of the public on the Bank for gold had rendered money scarce in the metropolis, the pressure speedily extended to the country. Such of the provincial banks—and they were a numerous class—as had been originally established without sufficient capital, or had conducted their business upon erroneous principles, began to give way the moment they experienced an increased difficulty of obtaining pecuniary accommodations in London. The alarm, once excited, soon became general; and confidences and credit were, for a while, almost wholly suspended. In the short space of 6 weeks, above 70 banking establishments were destroyed, notwithstanding the very large advances made to them by the Bank of England; and the run upon the Bank for cash to supply the exigencies of the country banks was so heavy, that she was well nigh drained of all the coin in her coffers, and obliged, as already remarked, to issue about a million of 1*l.* and 2*l.* notes.

To guard against a recurrence of the wide-spread mischief and ruin produced by this and the previous bankruptcies of the country banks, it was resolved, in 1826, with consent of the Bank of England, to make a change in the law of 1708, limiting the number of partners in banking establishments to 6 only. And it was accordingly enacted, that thenceforth any number of partners might form themselves into associations to carry on the business of banking, including the issue of notes, any where not within *sixty-five miles* of London. The directors of the Bank of England came, at the same time, to the resolution of establishing branches in some of the principal towns; and these have since been established in Gloucester, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Bristol, Exeter, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Hull, Norwich, &c.

The branch banks have been highly useful, but the benefits which it was supposed would result from the formation of joint-stock banks have not been so great as was anticipated.—(See *post*, *BANKS (ENGLISH PROVINCIAL)*.) At best, the

formation of joint-stock banks was but a feeble palliative of inveterate disorders. It was quite illusory to expect to make any real improvement upon the system of country banking in England, by the mere introduction of a plan for *allowing* banking establishments with large capitals to be set on foot. There had always been, and were at the moment, a great number of such establishments in England. What we really wanted was the adoption of a system that should suppress all local issues, or exclude the possibility of notes being discredited, by *preventing* all individuals or associations from issuing such as had not been previously guaranteed.

Besides attempting to lessen the frequency of bankruptcy among the country banks by repealing the law limiting the number of partners, it was further resolved, in 1826, to prohibit the issue of 1*l.* notes. The policy and effects of this measure gave rise to much dispute. It seems clear that it went far to shut up one of the most convenient channels by which the inferior class of country bankers contrived to get their notes into circulation, and must, in so far, have done good. But there were many other channels still open to them; and to imagine that this measure was to place the provincial currency on that solid basis on which it should be placed, was quite visionary. There were no notes under 5*l.* in circulation in 1792; and yet fully *one third* part of the country banks then in existence became bankrupt! The truth is, as already stated, that it is not possible to guard against loss and fraud from the proceedings of the country bankers, otherwise than by compelling them to give security for their issues; and as security may as easily be given for 1*l.* notes as for those of 5*l.*, the suppression of the former does not appear to be essential. No doubt can, however, be entertained, that the representations of the extreme injury occasioned by the withdrawal of 1*l.* notes were greatly exaggerated; — though it is at the same time obvious that the means of the bankers to make advances, as well as the profit derived from making them, must both have been diminished by the suppression of the small notes; and it would be foolish to deny that this circumstance must have occasioned some loss and inconvenience to many individuals.

These remarks are meant to apply only to the case of the country banks. The extraordinary extent to which the forgery of the 1*l.* notes of the Bank of England was carried affords a sufficient vindication of the policy of their suppression. But the comparatively limited circulation of the country banks, and perhaps we may add the greater attention paid to the manner in which their notes were engraved, hindered their forgery from becoming injuriously prevalent.

(3.) *New System of 1844.* — The defects inherent in the old system were again fully developed in 1836 and 1837. It is needless now to enter upon any investigation of the circumstances which led to the overtrading of these years; but it was carried to a great extent both here and in the U. States. In nothing, however, was this more strikingly evinced, than in the rapid increase of joint-stock banks; their number, which in 1834-35 had amounted in England and Wales to 55, having risen in 1835-36 to no fewer than 100! Many of these were banks of issue, and in consequence of the large additions that were thus suddenly made to the number of notes afloat, and still more to the number of bills, checks, and other substitutes for money, the currency became redundant and the exchange depressed; and the deficient harvests of 1838 and 1839, conspiring with this redundancy, occasioned a farther fall in the exchange, and a severe drain upon the Bank of England for gold. But while the latter was narrowing her issues by supplying the exporters of bullion with gold in exchange for notes, the country banks went on increasing their issues! What the former did by contracting on the one hand, the latter more than undid by letting out on the other. The vacuum created by the withdrawal of Bank of England paper, was immediately filled up, and made to overflow, by the issue of a more than equal amount of provincial paper; so that had it not been for the rise in the rate of interest, and the other repressive measures adopted by the Bank, the probability is that she might have gone on paying away bullion for notes, till she was drained of her last sixpence, without in any degree affecting the exchange; and as it was, the bullion in her coffers in August 1839 was reduced to 2,420,000*l.*, so that we narrowly escaped a tremendous crisis.

This perilous experience having again forcibly attracted the public attention to the state of our banking system, Sir Robert Peel was encouraged to attempt its improvement. The clause in the act 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 98, for the renewal of the charter in 1833, which gave to parliament power to revise or cancel it in 1845, afforded a legitimate opportunity for the introduction of the new system. But, however desirable, the total suppression of the issue of notes by joint stock and private banking companies, would have been a measure too much opposed to popular prejudices, and to the real or supposed interests of a large and powerful class, to have had any chance of being carried; and there also would have been great, though inferior, difficulties in the way of the plan for taking security. It was, indeed, indispensable in attempting to obviate the defects inherent in our banking system, to proceed cautiously, to respect, in as

far as possible, existing interests, and to avoid taking any step that might excite the fears or suspicions of the public; the grand difficulty being to reconcile the introduction of such a course with the adoption of any plan that would obviate in any considerable degree the defects complained of. Happily this difficult problem has been dexterously and satisfactorily solved by Sir Robert Peel; the measures he introduced and carried through Parliament in 1844 and 1845, for the improvement of our banking system, having been so skillfully contrived as to provoke little opposition, at the same time that they effected very extensive and (as we think) most beneficial changes.

The measures in question consist of the Act 7 and 8 Vict. c. 32., which refers to the Bank of England, and the English country banks; and the acts 8 & 9 Vict. c. 37, 38., referring to the banks of Scotland and Ireland. The principal object of these statutes has been to obviate the chances of over-issue and of sudden fluctuations in the quantity and value of money, by limiting the power to issue notes payable on demand, and by making the amount of such notes in circulation vary more nearly than previously with the amount of bullion in the possession of the issuers. Sir Robert Peel adopted, in dealing with the Bank of England, the proposal made by Mr. Loyd, in 1837, for effecting a complete separation between the issuing and banking departments of that establishment. And while the directors are left at liberty to manage the latter at discretion, their management of the former, or issue department, is subjected to what seems to be a well-devised system of restraint. The Bank is allowed to issue 14,000,000*l.* of notes upon securities (of which the debt of 11,015,100*l.* lent by her to government is a part); and whatever paper the issue department may at any time issue over and above this maximum amount of securities, it must have an equal amount of coin and bullion in its coffers.* Hence it is impracticable for the issue department to increase its issues without, at the same time, proportionally increasing its stock of coin and bullion; or to diminish the latter without proportionally diminishing the amount of paper supplied to the public and the banking department. And, therefore, if the latter issued the whole notes assigned to it, the total amount issued by the issue department and the amount in circulation would be identical; and it might under such circumstances be truly said that, in so far as the currency consists of Bank of England notes payable on demand, it varied in amount and value as it would do were it wholly metallic, and, consequently, by being so closely identified with the standard, realised the *beau idéal* of a paper currency.

But, though the currency approaches to, it has not arrived at this degree of perfection. The public does not deal alone with the issue, but also, and to a far greater extent, with the banking department. And this latter department retained such a portion of the notes issued to it by the former, under the 2nd clause of the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32., as was supposed at the time to be sufficient to carry on its business, their amount having since varied with the varying demands for bullion, the sales and purchases of securities, &c. But it is sufficient, in illustration of what is now stated, to observe that during the week ended the 4th of November, 1848, notes to the amount of 26,796,660*l.* had been issued to the public and the banking department, of which the latter had 8,242,575*l.* in its coffers, making the sum in the hands of the public 18,554,085*l.* And as it is sometimes supposed that the banking department might issue this sum of 8,242,575*l.*, or the spare notes at any time in its coffers, in the discount of bills, or any other way, it is concluded that there is still room for some, though but little, derangement of the currency from mistaken proceedings on the part of the Bank; and this, no doubt, may be sometimes true, at least to some extent. But it is idle to suppose that the banking department could carry on business without a large reserve of notes or of coin. This department may have, owing to a variety of circumstances, to meet a drain for deposits; and as it is very unsafe to trust to the sale of securities in periods of discredit, a very considerable supply of notes or of bullion, or of both, can never be advantageously or safely dispensed with.

This shows the little weight to be attached to the statements of those who contend that the late measure has laid no real restraint on the issues of the Bank, because, say they, she has a large reserve of unissued notes which she might legitimately throw on the market. But in truth and reality she can do nothing of the sort. A reserve is indispensable, not only to her safety, but to her ability to carry on banking business; and it is at present (November, 1848) sufficiently narrow. More vigilance and caution are now required on the part of the Bank Directors than formerly; for otherwise the banking department of the Bank may be reduced to the greatest difficulties, without its being possible for it to obtain any assistance from the issue department, how able soever the latter might be to render it. This was strikingly evinced in the autumn of

* A clause is inserted in the act allowing the Bank to increase her issue upon securities in the event of her notes being used instead of those of any or all of the existing banks of issue.

1847; and nothing but the exercise of a proper degree of foresight and caution can prevent its recurrence. The gold can now be obtained from the issue department except in exchange for notes; nor can the latter be obtained from it except in exchange for gold. Hence it is no longer, as formerly, in the power of the Bank to create paper money at pleasure to supply the place of cash in any emergency in which she may be involved; and instead of less she requires to act with more circumspection under the new system than under the old.

But though the check on the over-issue of Bank notes be thus nearly effectual, it appears rather singular that no check should be established on the issue of bank post-bills, which amounted to 1,048,503*l.* on the 4th November, 1848, and which are and may be substituted for notes. No doubt, however, were the Bank (which is hardly to be imagined) to abuse the privilege of issuing post-bills, by making advances in them which she could not have made in notes, measures would be taken to prevent the abuse; and perhaps, on the whole, it was as well to postpone devising means for the prevention of what seems so unlikely to occur.

Weekly returns are now published of the issues of the Bank, and of the securities, bullion, &c., in her possession. The sum to be deducted by the Bank from the charge on account of the management of the national debt is in future to be 180,000*l.* instead of 120,000*l.* a year, as fixed by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98. The charter is to be continued till twelve months' notice after the 1st of August, 1855.

The provisions made in this act for restraining the country circulation were, perhaps, still more important. The maximum future issue of the joint-stock and other banks in England and Wales was limited to the average amount of the circulation of each during the twelve months preceding the 27th of April, 1844. It was further enacted that no new bank shall be established for the issue of notes, and that the names of the partners in joint-stock and other banks shall be periodically published.

The regulations in the statutes relating to banking in Scotland and Ireland are nearly similar. The maximum amount of notes to be issued by the banks of both countries is, in time to come, not to exceed the average amount which each bank had in circulation during the twelve months ending the 1st of May, 1845. Certain returns, including amongst others the amount of gold and silver coin held by the banks, the names of the partners, &c., are to be periodically published. The small-note currency of Scotland has not been affected by the measure.

It is impossible to doubt that these regulations interpose a formidable obstacle to over issue; and that, consequently, they discourage overtrading, and tend to reduce both the number and the violence of those commercial revolutions and changes in the value of money, that have always been, and must necessarily continue to be, productive of the greatest mischief. No one ever pretended to say that these or any other measures which could be adopted with respect to the currency would wholly prevent unsafe speculation and overtrading. These may originate in an endless variety of circumstances; but in times past the tendency to speculation and gambling, when once set on foot, was, in most cases, powerfully stimulated by the facility which banks then possessed of issuing additional quantities of paper; and of that facility they are now all but deprived. It is, perhaps, true, that the fair and legitimate influence of the acts now referred to may be in some degree counterbalanced by the circulation to a greater extent than formerly of bills and other sorts of paper not payable on demand but at short dates; and it is not improbable that sooner or later the question may arise, whether any regulations should be adopted in regard to the issue of such paper. In so far, however, as respects the issue of *paper money*, or notes payable on demand, the regulations in the act of 1844 appear to have left little to be desired. No doubt, also, numbers of the private and other banks that now issue notes will from time to time wind up their affairs; and as no new banks of issue can be established in their stead, the vacuum caused by the withdrawal of their notes will be supplied by those of the Bank of England; so that a gradual progress will be made towards the desirable consummation of having only one bank of issue.

It is sometimes contended, by those opposed to the policy of limiting the issues, that they never can be in excess so long as they are payable on demand. Such, however, is not the case; notes payable, and *really paid*, on demand cannot, it is true, fall below the value of specie in the country in which they are issued; but the check of payment in specie does not, in fact, begin to operate till their over-issue has depreciated the value of the whole currency, gold as well as paper, in such country, below its level in the surrounding countries, and till, consequently, the exchange becomes unfavourable, and it is of advantage to export gold. Then, of course, the over-issue is stopped, but such stoppage is almost always accompanied by a great deal of public distress and inconvenience; while it by no means necessarily follows that any considerable portion of the loss thence arising will fall on those banks by whose misconduct or over-issue the fall in the exchange and the demand for bullion may have been occasioned.

The measures adopted in 1844, though they deeply affected many powerful private interests, were, as already stated, passed with little difficulty, and were very generally approved of. In this respect, however, the public opinion has, to some extent, changed; and the act of 1844 has been charged with having aggravated the pressure experienced by the mercantile world in 1847. But we are satisfied that there is no real room or ground for any such imputation. The crisis of 1847 was a consequence, partly of the railway mania of the previous year, and partly of the failure of the potato crops of 1845 and 1846. The failure in the latter year deprived fully two-thirds of the people of Ireland, and a considerable portion, also, of those of Great Britain, of their accustomed supplies of food. In consequence of this deficiency, and of Government having come forward to provide the means for its relief, there was an unprecedented importation of all sorts of corn; and the demand for bullion for exportation to meet this importation, occurring simultaneously with a vast railway expenditure, pecuniary accommodations were obtained with the greatest difficulty, and the rate of interest rose to an extraordinary height. Instead, however, of being increased by the act of 1844, it is abundantly certain that the operation of the latter contributed to alleviate the severity of the crisis. The restraints it imposed on the issues of the country banks had hindered them from embarking on any great extent in railway adventures, so that they were better able to assist their customers; and it also prevented the Bank of England from attempting to meet the exigencies of the case, otherwise than by raising the rate of interest, and restricting her issues. And besides being the natural and proper, these were, in fact, the only means by which the value of bullion could be raised in this country, its demand for foreign remittance checked, and the exchange turned in our favour. A great many mercantile houses that had been trading upon very insufficient capitals, or which had previously been virtually insolvent, were, of course, swept off during the crisis; and the alarm that was thereby occasioned, though for the most part without any good foundation, gave rise to a species of panic. During the prevalence of the latter, Government consented (25th October, 1847) to a temporary suspension of the act of 1844; but there is now, we believe, little doubt that this was an unwise proceeding. When it took place the violence of the crisis had abated. The drain for gold for exportation had not only ceased, but had begun to set in our favour; and the probability is, that in a very few days all alarm would have passed off, without the dangerous precedent which was set by the interference of ministers. Hence, in our view of the matter, the experience afforded by the crisis of 1847 tells strongly in favour of the act of 1844. But for its influence, it is most probable that the Bank would have attempted to meet the demand for bullion without raising the rate of interest, at least to the extent to which she did raise it; and if so, we should have been exposed to the imminent risk of a suspension of cash payments. If, therefore, the act of 1844 should be subjected to any modifications, it is to be hoped that they may be such as may tend to carry out and strengthen the principles on which it is founded.

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT 7 & 8 VIOT. c. 32. FOR REGULATING THE ISSUE OF BANK NOTES, AND FOR GIVING TO THE BANK OF ENGLAND CERTAIN PRIVILEGES FOR A LIMITED PERIOD. 19 JULY, 1844.

Bank to establish a separate Department for the Issue of Notes.—Whereas it is expedient to regulate the issue of bills or notes payable on demand: and whereas the act 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 98. gave to the corporation of the governor and company of the Bank of England certain privileges for a limited period, under certain conditions; and it is expedient that the privileges of exclusive banking therein mentioned should be continued to the said governor and company of the bank of England, with such alterations as are herein contained, upon certain conditions: be it therefore enacted, that from and after the 31st day of August, 1844, the issue of promissory notes of the governor and company of the bank of England, payable on demand, shall be separated and thenceforth kept wholly distinct from the general banking business of the said governor and company; and the business of and relating to such issue shall be thenceforth conducted and carried on by the said governor and company in a separate department, to be called "The Issue Department of the Bank of England," subject to the rules and regulations hereinafter contained; and it shall be lawful for the court of directors of the said governor and company, if they shall think fit, to appoint a committee or committees of directors for the conduct and management of such issue department of the bank of England, and from time to time to remove the members, and define, alter, and regulate the constitution and powers of such committee, as they shall think fit, subject to any bye-laws, rules, or regulations which may be made for that purpose: provided nevertheless, that the said issue department shall always be kept separate and distinct from the banking department of the said governor and company.—§ 1.

Management of the Issue by Bank of England.—Upon the 31st August, 1844, there shall be transferred, appropriated, and set apart by the said governor and company to the issue department of the bank of England securities to the value of 14,000,000*l.*, whereof the debt due by the public to the said governor and company shall be and be deemed a part; and there shall also at the same time be transferred, appropriated and set apart by the said governor and company to the said issue department so much of the gold coin and gold and silver bullion then held by the bank of England as shall not be required by the banking department thereof; and thereupon there shall be delivered out of the said issue department into the said banking department of the bank of England such an amount of bank of England notes as, together with the bank of England notes then in circulation, shall be equal to the aggregate amount of the securities, coin, and bullion so transferred to the said issue department of the bank of England; and the whole amount of bank of England notes then in circulation, including those delivered to the banking department of the bank of England as aforesaid, shall be deemed to be issued on the credit of such securities, coin, and bullion so appropriated and set apart to the said issue department; and from thenceforth it shall not be lawful for the said governor and company to increase the amount of securities

for the time being in the said issue department, save as herein-after is mentioned, but it shall be lawful for the said governor and company to diminish the amount of such securities, and again to increase the same to any sum not exceeding in the whole the sum of 14,000,000L., and so from time to time as they shall see occasion; and from and after such transfer and appropriation to the said issue department as aforesaid it shall not be lawful for the said governor and company to issue bank of England notes, either into the banking department of the bank of England or to any persons or person whatsoever, save in exchange for the bank of England notes or for gold or silver bullion received or purchased for the said issue department under the provisions of this act, or in exchange for securities acquired and taken in the said issue department under the provisions herein contained: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the said governor and company in their banking department to issue all such bank of England notes as they shall at any time receive from the said issue department or otherwise, in the same manner in all respects as such issue would be lawful to any other person or persons:—§ 3.

Proportion of Silver Bullion to be retained in the Issue Department.—Whereas it is necessary to limit the amount of silver bullion on which it shall be lawful for the issue department of the bank of England to issue bank of England notes; be it therefore enacted, that it shall not be lawful for the bank of England to retain in the issue department of the said bank at any one time an amount of silver bullion exceeding 1-11th part of the gold coin and bullion at such time held by the bank of England in the issue department:—§ 3.

All Persons may demand of the Issue Department Notes for Gold Bullion.—From and after the 31st day of August, 1844, all persons shall be entitled to demand from the issue department of the bank of England bank of England notes in exchange for gold bullion, at the rate of 37. 17s. 3d. per ounce of standard gold provided always, that the said governor and company shall in all cases be entitled to require such gold bullion to be melted and assayed by persons approved by the said governor and company at the expense of the parties tendering such gold bullion:—§ 4.

Power to increase Securities in the Issue Department, and issue additional Notes.—If any banker who is at the time of the passing of this act issuing his own bank notes shall cease to issue, his own bank notes, it shall be lawful for H. M. in council at any time after the cessation of such issue, upon the application of the said governor and company, to authorise and empower the said governor and company to increase the amount of securities in the said issue department beyond the total sum or value of 14,000,000L., and to empower to issue additional bank of England notes to an amount not exceeding such increased amount of securities specified in such order in council, and so from time to time: provided always, that such increased amount of securities specified in such order in council shall in no case exceed the proportion of 1-11th the amount of bank notes which the banker so ceasing to issue may have been authorized to issue under the provisions of this act; and every such order in council shall be published in the next succeeding London Gazette:—§ 5.

Account to be rendered by the Bank of England.—An account of the amount of bank of England notes issued by the issue department of the bank of England, and of gold coin and of gold and silver bullion respectively, and of securities in the said issue department, and also an account of the capital stock, and the deposits, and of the money and securities belonging to the said governor and company in the banking department of the bank of England, on some day in every week to be fixed by the commissioners of stamps and taxes, shall be transmitted by the said governor and company weekly to the said commissioners in the form prescribed in the schedule hereto annexed marked (A), and shall be published by the said commissioners in the next succeeding London Gazette in which the same may be conveniently inserted:—§ 6.

Bank of England exempted from Stamp Duty upon their Notes.—From and after the said 31st day of August, 1844, the said governor and company of the bank of England shall be released and discharged from the payment of any stamp duty, or composition in respect of stamp duty, upon or in respect of their promissory notes payable to bearer on demand; and all such notes shall nevertheless be and continue free and wholly exempt from all liability to any stamp duty whatsoever:—§ 7.

Bank to allow 180,000L. per Annum.—From and after the said 31st day of August, 1844, the payment or deduction of the annual sum of 180,000L., made by the said governor and company under the provisions of the said act passed in the 4th year of the reign of his late Majesty King William IV., out of the sums payable to them for the charges of management of the public unredeemed debt, shall cease, and in lieu thereof the said governor and company, in consideration of the privileges of exclusive banking, and the exemption from stamp duties, given to them by this act, shall, during the continuance of such privileges and such exemption respectively, but no longer, deduct and allow to the public, from the sums now payable by law to the said governor and company for the charges of management of the public unredeemed debt, the annual sum of 180,000L., any thing in any act or acts of parliament, or in any agreement, to the contrary notwithstanding: provided always, that such deduction shall in no respect prejudice or affect the rights of the said governor and company to be paid for the management of the public debt at the rate and according to the terms provided in the act 48 G. 3. c. 4., intitled "An Act to authorise the advancing for the Public Service, upon certain Conditions, a proportion of the balance remaining in the Bank of England, for the Payment of Unclaimed Dividends, Annuities, and Lottery Prizes, and for regulating the Allowances to be made for the Management of the National Debt:—§ 8.

Bank to allow the Public the Profits of increased Circulation.—In case, under the provisions hereinafore contained, the securities held in the said issue department of the bank of England shall at any time be increased beyond the total amount of 14,000,000L., then and in each and every year in which the same shall happen, and so long as such increase shall continue, the said governor and company shall, in addition to the said annual sum of 180,000L., make a further payment or allowance to the public, equal in amount to the net profit derived in the said issue department during the current year from such additional securities, after deducting the amount of the expenses occasioned by the additional issue during the same period, which expenses shall include the amount of any and every composition or payment to be made by the said governor and company to any banker in consideration of the discontinuance at any time of the issue of bank notes by such banker; and such further payment or allowance to the public by the said governor and company shall, in every year while the public shall be entitled to receive the same, be deducted from the amount by law payable to the said governor and company for the charges of management of the unredeemed public debt, in the same manner as the said annual sum of 180,000L. is hereby directed to be deducted therefrom:—§ 9.

No new Bank of Issue.—From and after the passing of this act no person other than a banker who on the 31st day of May, 1844, was lawfully issuing his own bank notes shall make or issue bank notes in any part of the U. K.:—§ 10.

Restriction against Issue of Bank Notes.—From and after the passing of this act it shall not be lawful for any banker to draw, accept, make, or issue, in England or Wales, any bill of exchange or promissory note or engagement for the payment of money payable to bearer on demand, or to borrow, owe, or take up, in England or Wales, any sums or sum of money on the bills or notes of such banker payable to bearer on demand, save and except that it shall be lawful for any banker who was on the 6th day of May, 1841, carrying on the business of a banker in England or Wales, and was then lawfully issuing, in England or Wales, his own bank notes, under the authority of a licence to that effect, to continue to issue such notes to the extent and under the conditions herein-after mentioned, but not further or otherwise; and the right of any company or partnership to continue to issue such notes shall not be in any manner prejudiced or affected by any change which may hereafter take place in the personal composition

of such company or partnership, either by the transfer of any shares or share therein, or by the admission of any new partner or member thereto, or by the retirement of any present partner or member therefrom; provided always, that it shall not be lawful for any company or partnership now consisting of only 6 or less than 6 persons to issue bank notes at any time after the number of partners therein shall exceed 6 in the whole.—§ 11.

Bankers ceasing to issue Notes may not resume.—If any banker in any part of the U. K. who after the passing of this act shall be entitled to issue bank notes shall become bankrupt, or shall cease to carry on the business of a banker, or shall discontinue the issue of bank notes, either by agreement with the governor and company of the bank of England or otherwise, it shall not be lawful for such banker at any time thereafter to issue any such notes.—§ 12.

Existing Banks of issue to continue under certain Limitations.—Every banker claiming under this act to continue to issue bank notes in England or Wales shall, within 1 month next after the passing of this act, give notice in writing to the commissioners of stamps and taxes at their head office in London of such claim, and of the place and name and firm at and under which such banker has issued such notes during the 12 weeks next preceding the 27th day of April last; and thereupon the said commissioners shall ascertain if such banker was, on the 6th day of May, 1844, carrying on the business of a banker, and lawfully issuing his own bank notes in England or Wales, and if it shall so appear, then the said commissioners shall proceed to ascertain the average amount of the bank notes of such banker which were in circulation during the said period of 12 weeks preceding the 27th day of April last, according to the returns made by such banker in pursuance of the act 4 & 5 Vict. c. 60, intitled "An Act to make further provision relative to the Returns to be made by Banks of the Amount of their Notes in circulation," and the said commissioners or any 2 of them shall certify under their hands to such banker the said average amount, when so ascertained as aforesaid; and it shall be lawful for every such banker to continue to issue his own bank notes after the passing of this act; provided nevertheless, that such banker shall not at any time after the 10th day of October, 1844, have in circulation upon the average of a period of 4 weeks, to be ascertained as herein-after mentioned, a greater amount of notes than the amount so certified.—§ 13.

Provision for united Banks.—If it shall be made to appear to the commissioners of stamps and taxes that any 2 or more banks have, by written contract or agreement (which contract or agreement shall be produced to the said commissioners), become united within the 12 weeks next preceding such 27th day of April as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to ascertain the average amount of the notes of each such bank in the manner herein-before directed, and to certify the average amount of the notes of the 2 or more banks so united as the amount which the united bank shall thereafter be authorised to issue subject to the regulations of this act.—§ 14.

Duplicate Certificate to be published in the Gazette.—The commissioners of stamps and taxes shall, at the time of certifying to any banker such particulars as they are herein-before required to certify, also publish a duplicate of their certificate in proof in the next succeeding London Gazette in which the same may be conveniently inserted; and the Gazette in which such publication shall be made shall be conclusive evidence in all courts whatsoever of the amount of bank notes which the banker named in such certificate or duplicate is by law authorised to issue and to have in circulation as aforesaid.—§ 15.

If Banks become united, Commissioners to certify the Amount of Bank Notes which each Bank was authorised to issue.—In case it shall be made to appear to the commissioners of stamps and taxes, at any time hereafter, that any 2 or more banks, each such bank consisting of not more than 6 persons, have, by written contract or agreement (which contract or agreement shall be produced to the said commissioners), become united subsequent to the passing of this act, it shall be lawful to the said commissioners upon the application of such united bank, to certify, in manner herein-before mentioned, the aggregate of the amounts of bank notes which such separate banks were previously authorised to issue, and so from time to time; and every such certificate shall be published in manner herein-before directed, and from and after such publication the amount therein stated shall be and be deemed to be the limit of the amount of bank notes which such united bank may have in circulation; provided always, that it shall not be lawful for any such united bank to issue bank notes at any time after the number of partners therein shall exceed 6 in the whole.—§ 16.

Penalty on Banker issuing in excess.—If the monthly average circulation of bank notes of any banker, taken in the manner herein-after directed, shall at any time exceed the amount which such banker is authorised to issue and to have in circulation under the provisions of this act, such banker shall in every such case forfeit a sum equal to the amount by which the average monthly circulation, taken as aforesaid, shall have exceeded the amount which such banker was authorised to issue and to have in circulation as aforesaid.—§ 17.

Issuing Bank to render Accounts.—Every banker in England and Wales who, after the 10th day of October, 1844, shall issue bank notes, shall on some 1 day in every week after the 19th day of October, 1844 (such day to be fixed by the commissioners of stamps and taxes) transmit to the said commissioners an account of the amount of the bank notes of such banker in circulation on every day during the week ending on the next preceding Saturday, and also an account of the average amount of the bank notes of such banker in circulation during the same week; and on completing the first period of 4 weeks, and so on completing each successive period of 4 weeks, every such banker shall annex to such account the average amount of bank notes of such banker in circulation during the said 4 weeks, and also the amount of bank notes which such banker is authorised to issue under the provisions of this act; and every such account shall be verified by the signature of such banker or his chief cashier, or, in the case of a company or partnership, by the signature of a managing director or partner or chief cashier of such company or partnership, and shall be made in the form to this act annexed marked (B); and so much of the said return as states the weekly average amount of the notes of such bank shall be published by the said commissioners in the next succeeding London Gazette in which the same may be conveniently inserted; and if any such banker shall neglect or refuse to render any such account in the form and at the time required by this act, or shall at any time render a false account, such banker shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* for every such offence.—§ 18.

Mode of ascertaining the average Amount of Bank Notes of each Banker.—For the purpose of ascertaining the monthly average amount of bank notes of each banker in circulation, the aggregate of the amount of bank notes of each such banker in circulation on every day of business during the first complete period of 4 weeks next after the 10th day of October, 1844, such period ending on a Saturday, shall be divided by the number of days of business in such four weeks, and the average so ascertained shall be deemed to be the average of bank notes of each such banker in circulation during such period of 4 weeks, and so in each successive period of 4 weeks, and such average is not to exceed the amount certified by the commissioners of stamps and taxes as aforesaid.—§ 19.

Commissioners empowered to cause the Books of Bankers to be inspected.—Whereas, in order to insure the rendering of true and faithful accounts of the amount of bank notes in circulation, as directed by this act, it is necessary that the commissioners of stamps and taxes should be empowered to cause the books of bankers issuing such notes to be inspected, as herein-after mentioned, be it therefore enacted, that all and every the book and books of any banker who shall issue bank notes under the provisions of this act, in which shall be kept, contained, or entered any account, minute, or memorandum or relating to the bank notes issued or to be issued by such banker, or of or relating to the amount of such notes in circulation from time to time, or any account, minute, or memorandum the sight or inspection whereof may tend to secure the rendering of true accounts of the average amount of such notes in circulation, as directed by this act, or to test the truth of any such account, shall be open for the inspection and

examination, at all seasonable times, of any officer of stamp duties authorised in that behalf by writing, signed by the commissioners of stamps and taxes or any 2 of them; and every such officer shall be at liberty to take copies of any such book or account as aforesaid; and if any banker or other person keeping any such book, or having the custody or possession thereof, or power to produce the same, shall, upon demand made by any such officer, showing (if required) his authority in that behalf, refuse to produce any such book to such officer for his inspection and examination, or to permit him to inspect and examine the same, or to take copies thereof or extracts therefrom, or of or from any such account, minutes or memorandum, as aforesaid, contained, or entered therein, every such banker or other person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided always, that the said commissioners shall not exercise the powers aforesaid without the consent of the Lords of the Treasury. — § 20.

All Bankers to return Names once a Year to the Stamp Office. — Every banker in England and Wales who is now carrying on or shall hereafter carry on business as such, shall, on the 1st day of January in each year, or within 15 days thereafter, make a return to the commissioners of stamps and taxes at their head office in London of his name, residence, and occupation, or, in the case of a company or partnership, of the name, residence, and occupation of every person composing or being a member of such company or partnership, and also the name of the firm under which such banker, company, or partnership carry on the business of banking, and of every place where such business is carried on; and if any such banker, company, or partnership shall omit or refuse to make such return within 15 days after the said 1st day of January, or shall wilfully make other than a true return of the persons as herein required, every banker, company, or partnership so offending shall forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*: and the said commissioners of stamps and taxes shall on or before the 1st day of March in every year publish in some newspaper circulating within each town or county respectively a copy of the return so made by every banker, company, or partnership carrying on the business of bankers within such town or county respectively, as the case may be. — § 21.

Bankers to take out a separate Licence for every Place at which they issue Notes or Bills. — Every banker who shall be liable by law to take out a licence from the commissioners of stamps and taxes to authorise the issuing of notes or bills, or a separate and distinct licence for every town or place in which he shall, by himself or his agent, issue any notes or bills requiring such licence to authorise the issuing thereof, any thing in any former act contained to the contrary thereof notwithstanding; provided always, that no banker who on or before the 6th day of May, 1844, had taken out four such licences, which on the said last-mentioned day were respectively in force, for the issuing of any such notes or bills at more than 4 separate towns or places, shall at any time hereafter be required to take out or to have in force at one and the same time more than 4 such licences to authorise the issuing of such notes or bills at all or any of the same towns or places specified in such licences in force on the said 6th day of May, 1844, and at which towns or places respectively such bankers had on or before the said last-mentioned day issued such notes or bills in pursuance of such licences or any of them respectively. — § 22.

Compensation to certain Bankers named in the Schedule. — Whereas the several bankers named in the schedule hereto annexed marked (C) have ceased to issue their own bank notes under certain agreements with the governor and company of the bank of England; and it is expedient that such agreements should cease and determine on the 31st day of December next, and that such bankers should receive by way of compensation such composition as hereafter mentioned; and a list of such bankers, and a statement of the maximum sums in respect of which each such banker is to receive compensation, hath been delivered to the commissioners of stamps and taxes, signed by the chief cashier of the bank of England; be it therefore enacted, that the several agreements subsisting between the said governor and company and the several bankers mentioned in the schedule hereto relating to the issue of bank of England notes shall cease and determine on the 31st day of December next; and from and after that day the said governor and company shall pay and allow to the several bankers named in the schedule hereto marked (C), so long as such banker shall be willing to receive the same, a composition at and after the rate of 1*l.* per cent per annum on the average amount of the bank of England notes issued by such bankers respectively and actually remaining in circulation, to be ascertained as follows; (that is to say,) on some day in the month of April, 1845, to be determined by the said governor and company, an account shall be taken of the bank of England notes delivered to such bankers respectively by the said governor and company within 3 months next preceding, and of such of the said bank of England notes as shall have been returned to the bank of England, and the balance shall be deemed to be the amount of the bank of England notes issued by such bankers respectively and kept in circulation; and a similar account shall be taken at the expiry of 3 calendar months; and the average of the balances ascertained on taking 4 such accounts shall be deemed to be the average amount of bank of England notes issued by such bankers respectively and kept in circulation during the year 1845, and on which amount such bankers are respectively to receive the aforesaid composition of 1 per cent. for the year 1845; and similar accounts shall be taken in each succeeding year; but in each year such accounts shall be taken in different months from those in which the accounts of the last preceding year were taken, and on different days of the month, such months and days to be determined by the said governor and company; and the amount of the composition payable as aforesaid shall be paid by the said governor and company out of their own funds; and in case any difference shall arise between any of such bankers and the governor and company of the bank of England in respect of the composition payable as aforesaid, the same shall be determined by the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the time being, or by some person to be named by him, and the decision of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, or his nominee, shall be final and conclusive; provided always, that it shall be lawful for any banker named in the schedule hereto annexed marked (C) to discontinue the receipt of such composition as aforesaid, but no such banker shall by such discontinuance as aforesaid thereby acquire any right or title to issue bank notes. — § 23.

Bank of England to be allowed to compound with Issuing Banker. — It shall be lawful for the said governor and company to agree with every banker who under the provisions of this act shall be entitled to issue bank notes, to allow to such banker a composition at the rate of 1 per cent. per annum on the amount of bank of England notes which shall be issued and kept in circulation by such banker, as a consideration for his relinquishment of the privilege of issuing his own bank notes; and all the provisions herein contained for ascertaining and determining the amount of composition payable to the several bankers named in the schedule hereto marked (C) shall apply to all such other bankers with whom the said governor and company are hereby authorized to agree as aforesaid; provided that the amount of composition payable to such bankers as last aforesaid shall in every case in which an increase of securities in the issue department shall have been authorized by any order in council be deducted out of the amount payable by the said governor and company to the public under the provisions herein contained; provided always, that the total sum payable to any banker under the provisions herein contained by way of composition as aforesaid, in any 1 year, shall not exceed, in case of the bankers mentioned in the schedule hereto marked (C), 1 per cent. on the several sums set against the names of such bankers respectively in the list and statement delivered to the commissioners of stamps as aforesaid, and in the case of other bankers shall not exceed 1 per cent. on the amount of bank notes which such bankers respectively would otherwise be entitled to issue under the provisions herein contained. — § 24.

Compositions to cease on 1st August 1856. — All the compositions payable to the several bankers mentioned in the schedule hereto marked (C), and such other bankers as shall agree with the said governor and company to discontinue the issue of their own bank notes as aforesaid, shall, if not previously determined by the act of such banker as herein-before provided, cease and determine on the 1st day of August, 1856, or on any earlier day on which parliament may prohibit the issue of bank notes. — § 25.

Banks within Sixty-five Miles of London may accept, &c. Bills.—From and after the passing of this act it shall be lawful for any society or company or any persons in partnership, though exceeding six in number, carrying on the business of banking in London, or within six miles thereof, to draw, accept, or endorse bills of exchange, not being payable to bearer on demand, any thing in the herein-before recited act passed in the 4th year of the reign of his said majesty King William IV., or in any other act, to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 26.

Bank to enjoy Privileges, subject to Redemption.—The said governor and company of the bank of England shall have and enjoy such exclusive privilege of banking as is given by this act, upon such terms and conditions, and subject to the termination thereof at such time and in such manner as by this act is provided and specified; and all and every the powers and authorities, franchises, privileges, and advantages, given or recognised by this act recited act, 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98, as belonging to or enjoyed by the said governor and company of the bank of England, or by any subsequent act or acts of parliament, shall be and the same are hereby declared to be in full force, and continued by this act, except so far as the same are altered by this act; subject nevertheless to redemption upon the terms and conditions following; viz. at any time upon 12 months' notice to be given after the 1st day of August, 1856, and upon repayment by parliament to the said governor and company or their successors of the sum of 11,015,100*l.*, being the debt now due from the public to the said governor and company, without any deduction, discount, or abatement whatsoever, and upon payment to the said governor and company and their successors of all arrears of the sum of 100,000*l.* per annum, in the last-mentioned act mentioned, together with the interest or annuities payable upon the said debt or in respect thereof, and also upon repayment of all the principal and interest which shall be owing unto the said governor and company and their successors upon all such tallies, exchequer orders, exchequer bills, or parliamentary funds which the said governor and company or their successors shall have remaining in their hands or be entitled to at the time of such notice to be given as last aforesaid, then and in such case, and not till then, the said exclusive privileges of banking granted by this act shall cease and determine at the expiration of such notice of 12 months; and any vote or resolution of the house of commons, signed under the hand of the speaker of the said house in writing, and delivered at the public office of the said governor and company, shall be deemed and adjudged to be a sufficient notice.—§ 27.

Interpretation Clause.—The term "bank notes" used in this act shall extend and apply to all bills or notes for the payment of money to the bearer on demand other than bills or notes of the governor and company of the bank of England; and the term "bank of England notes" shall extend and apply to the promissory notes of the governor and company of the bank of England payable to bearer on demand; and the term "banker" shall extend and apply to all corporations, societies, partnerships, and persons, and every individual person carrying on the business of banking, whether by the issue of bank notes or otherwise, except only the governor and company of the bank of England; and the word "person" used in this act shall include corporations; and the singular number in this act shall include the plural number, and the plural number the singular, except where there is any thing in the context repugnant to such construction; and the masculine gender in this act shall include the feminine, except where there is any thing in the context repugnant to such construction.—§ 28.

SCHEDULE A.

An Account pursuant to the Act 7 & 8 Vict. cap. 92. for the Week ending on Saturday the 9th of January, 1847.

<i>Issue Department.</i>			
Notes issued	- 27,552,100	Government debt	- 11,015,100
		Other securities	- 2,284,200
		Gold coin and bullion	- 11,481,448
		Silver bullion	- 2,769,552
			- 27,552,100

Dated the 14th of January, 1847.

(Signed) M. MARSHALL, Chief Cashier.

Banking Department.

Proprietors' capital	- 14,255,000	Government securities (including Dead Weight Annuity)	- 12,757,326
Reserve	- 5,280,048	Other securities	- 6,710,255
Public deposits (to include Exchequer, savings banks, commission of national debt, and dividend accounts)	- 5,860,631	Gold and silver coin	- 755,972
Other deposits	- 9,724,757		- 254,693,451
Seven day and other bills	- 275,065		
	- 254,693,451		

Dated the 14th of January, 1847.

(Signed) M. MARSHALL, Chief Cashier.

SCHEDULE B.

Name and title as set forth in the license of the licensee	bank.	[To be annexed to this Account of the End of each Period of 4 Weeks.]
Name of the firm	firm.	
Inners head office or principal place of issue	place.	Amount of notes authorised by law
At a notice pursuant to the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 92. § 18. of the notes of the said bank in circulation during the week ending Saturday the _____ day of _____ 18		Average amount in circulation during the week ending _____ day of _____ 18
Monday	_____	1, being (the banker, chief cashier, managing director, or partner of the bank, as the case may be), do hereby certify, that the above is a true account of the notes of the said bank in circulation during the week above written.
Tuesday	_____	
Wednesday	_____	Dated the _____ day of _____ 18
Thursday	_____	
Friday	_____	
Saturday	_____	
Average of the week	_____	

SCHEDULE C. (Amended to January 1847.)

Banks which have ceased to issue their own Bank Notes under certain Agreements with the Governor and Company of the Bank of England.

- Ames, Ballis, and Co., Bristol.
- Ashby, Thomas, and Co., Bealms.
- Bank of Liverpool.
- J. Barrow and Co.
- Biddulph, Brothert, and Co.
- Birmingham Banking Company.
- Birmingham Town and District Bank.
- Birmingham and Midland Banking Company.
- Burgess and Son.
- Coopers and Furnon.
- Cobb and Co., Margate.
- Comfith, Brooks, and Co.
- Deans, Littlehales, and Deane.
- Dandy, Conroy, and Co.
- Devis and Cornwall Banking Company.
- Fisher, Thomas, and Son, Cambridge.
- Hewitt and Gillman.
- Hunter and Sons, Bishop Waltham.
- Hampshire Banking Company.
- James W. R. Hall.
- J. M. Head and Co.
- Hewitt, Uperton, and Olliver.
- Thomas Kinnersly and Sons.
- W. H. Lambton and Co.

- Liverpool Commercial Banking Co. vany.
- Liverpool Union Bank.
- Liverpool Borough Bank.
- Lloyd, R. M., Wrexham.
- Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company.
- Manchester and Stafford Banking Company.
- Monmouth and Glamorgan Banking Company.
- Moss and Company.
- Newcastle Commercial Banking Company.
- North of England Joint Stock Banking Company.
- Northumberland and Durham District Bank.
- Portsmouth and South Hants Bank Company.
- T. and M. Raikes and Co.
- Robinson and Brotham.
- Sheffield Union Bank.
- Sturminster Joint Stock Banking Company.
- T. Agnew and Co.
- Union Bank of Manchester.
- Ulmer, Thomas and Son, Cambridge.
- Vivian, Kitson, and Co.
- Watts, Whitway, and Co.
- and J. C. Wright and Co.
- Webb, Spencer, and Co.

BANK OF ENGLAND.

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I.—An Account of the Notes, Securities, Bullion, &c. of the Bank of England, as published Weekly in the "Gazette," from the passing of the Act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 23., to the 19th December, 1846.

		LIABILITIES DEPARTMENT.				
Week ending		Notes.	Government Debt.	Other Securities.	Bullion.	
					Gold.	Silver.
1844, December	7	27,817,505	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,225,104	1,293,811
	14	28,005,705	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,410,094	1,293,811
	21	28,161,780	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,595,119	1,293,811
	28	28,301,165	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,664,524	1,293,811
1845, January	4	28,387,055	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,493,444	1,293,811
	11	28,163,180	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,545,099	1,293,811
	18	28,159,600	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,490,558	1,293,811
	25	28,198,210	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,425,197	1,293,811
February	1	28,224,485	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,549,405	1,293,811
	8	28,147,833	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,526,401	1,293,811
	15	28,237,455	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,639,987	1,293,811
	22	28,179,590	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,735,567	1,293,811
March	1	28,058,105	11,015,100	2,984,900	12,941,915	1,293,811
	8	28,040,075	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,046,960	1,293,811
	15	28,19,090	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,161,728	1,293,811
	22	28,215,595	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,171,831	1,293,811
	29	28,471,110	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,296,953	1,293,811
April	5	28,358,145	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,466,843	1,293,811
	12	28,218,950	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,445,330	1,293,811
	19	28,118,280	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,195,247	1,293,811
	26	28,253,813	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,180,678	1,293,811
May	3	28,187,095	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,098,142	1,293,811
	10	28,298,358	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,191,113	1,293,811
	17	28,240,425	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,217,993	1,293,811
	24	28,411,543	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,208,515	1,293,811
	31	28,19,735	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,332,703	1,293,811
June	7	28,729,600	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,603,716	1,293,811
	14	28,917,115	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,790,460	1,293,811
	21	28,018,610	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,811,607	1,293,811
	28	28,047,470	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,907,487	1,293,811
July	5	28,891,355	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,761,932	1,293,811
	12	28,689,660	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,848,457	1,293,811
	19	28,598,700	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,894,306	1,293,811
	26	28,613,560	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,841,195	1,293,811
August	2	28,196,760	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,806,991	1,293,811
	9	28,181,605	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,761,836	1,293,811
	16	28,190,905	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,688,106	1,293,811
	23	28,025,310	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,623,541	1,293,811
	30	28,009,005	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,619,004	1,293,811
September	6	28,19,300	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,689,590	1,293,811
	13	28,790,195	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,619,486	1,293,811
	20	28,798,820	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,603,507	1,293,811
	27	28,19,890	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,713,160	1,293,811
October	4	28,535,670	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,614,780	1,293,811
	11	28,628,880	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,684,999	1,293,811
	18	28,778,855	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,611,447	1,293,811
	25	28,415,690	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,798,159	1,293,811
November	1	28,187,115	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,661,601	1,293,811
	8	28,074,585	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,670,674	1,293,811
	15	28,19,560	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,478,728	1,293,811
	22	28,723,810	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,441,931	1,293,811
	29	28,840,490	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,659,981	1,293,811
December	6	28,196,550	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,699,631	1,293,811
	13	28,819,390	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,640,465	1,293,811
	20	28,771,510	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,789,484	1,293,811
	27	28,674,985	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,811,869	1,293,811
1816, January	3	28,841,300	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,601,137	1,293,811
	10	28,575,910	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,625,596	1,293,811
	17	28,734,095	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,674,471	1,293,811
	24	28,587,355	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,628,245	1,293,811
February	1	28,698,680	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,640,210	1,293,811
	8	28,800,345	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,777,882	1,293,811
	15	28,075,255	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,646,120	1,293,811
	22	28,015,295	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,633,063	1,293,811
March	7	28,079,870	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,647,040	1,293,811
	14	28,117,805	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,607,584	1,293,811
	21	28,384,475	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,541,194	1,293,811
	28	28,869,445	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,536,964	1,293,811
April	4	28,181,990	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,480,415	1,293,811
	11	28,030,855	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,608,300	1,293,811
	18	28,031,610	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,650,593	1,293,811
	25	28,049,610	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,666,880	1,293,811
May	2	28,072,895	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,679,130	1,293,811
	9	28,144,995	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,661,830	1,293,811
	16	28,080,415	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,633,619	1,293,811
	23	28,706,865	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,794,463	1,293,811
June	6	28,993,880	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,668,297	1,293,811
	13	28,223,090	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,629,710	1,293,811
	20	28,005,160	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,699,413	1,293,811
	27	28,19,105	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,619,378	1,293,811
July	4	28,282,800	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,603,071	1,293,811
	11	28,986,360	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,644,442	1,293,811
	18	28,19,905	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,603,482	1,293,811
	25	28,312,945	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,676,243	1,293,811
August	1	28,296,290	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,654,615	1,293,811
	8	28,880,805	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,620,458	1,293,811
	15	28,456,335	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,696,918	1,293,811
	22	28,629,290	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,645,719	1,293,811
	29	28,973,890	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,599,102	1,293,811
September	5	28,760,870	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,637,897	1,293,811
	12	28,861,690	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,614,888	1,293,811
	19	28,738,815	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,640,770	1,293,811
	26	28,853,855	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,630,614	1,293,811
October	3	28,649,795	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,658,754	1,293,811
	10	28,078,153	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,600,631	1,293,811
	17	28,781,695	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,622,882	1,293,811
	24	28,437,845	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,668,090	1,293,811
	31	28,309,835	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,703,084	1,293,811
November	7	28,133,985	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,734,111	1,293,811
	14	28,848,295	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,639,683	1,293,811
	21	28,317,840	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,611,392	1,293,811
	28	28,135,765	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,607,067	1,293,811
December	5	28,969,105	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,768,417	1,293,811
	12	28,410,735	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,635,818	1,293,811
	19	28,413,900	11,015,100	2,984,900	13,643,980	1,293,811

of this act in number, or certified copy, to be sent to the Bank of England, for the purpose of being entered in the books of the Bank, and for the purpose of being published in the "Gazette," from the passing of the Act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 23., to the 19th December, 1846.

An Account of the Notes, Securities, Bullion, &c. of the Bank of England, as published Weekly in the "Gazette," from the passing of the Act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 82., to the 10th December, 1846.

Week ending	BALANCE DEPARTMENT.									
	Capital.	Res.	Deposits.		Seven Days' and other Bills.	Securities.		Notes.	Coin.	
			Public.	Private.		Public.	Other.			
1844, Dec. 7	14,583,000	8,110,000	3,795,478	8,473,809	906,455	13,440,010	10,135,718	8,990,103	687,458	
14	14,583,000	8,103,898	3,862,634	8,241,188	994,174	13,340,010	10,093,153	8,745,240	840,880	
21	14,583,000	8,110,511	3,775,258	8,246,728	967,084	13,440,010	10,076,777	8,959,864	731,411	
28	14,583,000	8,109,507	3,811,805	8,365,070	994,240	13,440,010	10,101,801	8,778,811	878,811	
1845, Jan. 4	14,583,000	8,107,878	3,766,843	8,037,290	1,016,168	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,818,135	714,066	
11	14,583,000	8,104,004	3,819,866	8,077,978	1,019,098	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,778,630	818,709	
18	14,583,000	8,098,159	3,809,473	8,303,270	1,073,811	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,844,747	824,747	
25	14,583,000	8,099,969	3,787,323	8,174,204	1,058,737	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,718,075	881,989	
Feb. 1	14,583,000	8,098,184	3,839,184	8,115,000	1,063,000	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,695,731	749,435	
8	14,583,000	8,098,908	3,715,171	8,739,108	1,068,046	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,188,500	700,748	
15	14,583,000	8,098,136	4,300,847	8,944,608	1,051,094	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,385,005	770,818	
22	14,583,000	8,097,901	4,307,289	8,941,436	1,062,000	13,440,010	10,146,908	8,887,915	775,785	
Mar. 1	14,583,000	8,075,171	4,476,984	10,235,799	983,338	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,998,043	777,959	
8	14,583,000	8,077,987	4,378,753	9,984,384	1,014,471	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,940,815	808,265	
15	14,583,000	8,079,499	4,321,985	9,944,478	980,278	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,941,363	796,311	
22	14,583,000	8,081,884	4,390,181	10,439,423	999,199	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,977,805	786,869	
29	14,583,000	8,084,004	4,381,658	10,713,000	1,023,277	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,747,883	732,810	
April 5	14,583,000	8,085,119	4,384,106	10,445,000	1,023,189	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,929,800	724,057	
12	14,583,000	8,087,276	4,333,166	11,759,029	1,080,909	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,901,434	679,977	
19	14,583,000	8,087,901	4,319,450	11,811,687	1,119,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,900,000	686,873	
26	14,583,000	8,087,901	4,319,450	10,781,637	1,117,247	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,911,770	691,913	
May 3	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	681,159	
10	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
17	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
24	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
31	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
June 7	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
14	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
21	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
28	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
July 5	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
12	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
19	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
26	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
Aug. 2	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
9	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
16	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
23	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
30	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
Sept. 6	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
13	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
20	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
27	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
Oct. 4	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
11	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
18	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
25	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
Nov. 1	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
8	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
15	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
22	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
29	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
Dec. 6	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
13	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	
20	14,583,000	8,088,817	4,313,081	10,655,690	1,139,000	13,474,370	11,107,403	8,916,873	686,731	

Previously to the late changes, the Bank directors endeavoured, as a general rule, to have as much coin and bullion in their coffers as might together amount, when the exchange was at par, to a third part of the Bank's liabilities, including deposits as well as issues; so that, in the event of the notes afloat, and the public and private deposits in the coffers of the Bank, amounting to 27,000,000*l.* or 30,000,000*l.*, they did not consider the establishment in a perfectly satisfactory state, unless she was, generally speaking, possessed of about 9,000,000*l.* or 10,000,000*l.* of coin and bullion.

The issues of the Bank were then wholly governed, at least in ordinary cases, by what Mr. Horsley Palmer expressly called "the action of the public;"—that is, they were increased during a favourable exchange, or when bullion was sent to the Bank to be exchanged for notes; and diminished during an unfavourable exchange, or when notes were sent to the Bank to be paid. But the vice of the old system was that this rule was not strictly enforced, and that the directors were every now and then compelled to relax it. But under the present system such relaxation is practicable only to a very limited extent, and can be but little abused, which formerly was not always the case.

It is frequently said that the value of money, and consequently that the price of all sorts of property, depends on the fiat of the Bank, by which it is capriciously elevated at one time and depressed at another. But the account previously given of the mode in which the issues of the Bank are regulated completely disproves such statements; and independently of this, every one who knows that the Bank must pay her notes in coin when presented, and that coin may be at all times obtained from the Mint without any charge, in exchange for bullion, must know that the very supposition of their being true involves a contradiction.

Bank of England in its Connection with Government and the Public.—The Bank of England conducts the whole banking business of the British government. "It acts not only," says Dr. Smith, "as an ordinary bank, but as a great engine of state. It receives and pays the greater part of the annuities which are due to the creditors of the public; it circulates Exchequer bills; and it advances to government the annual amount of the land and malt taxes, which are frequently not paid till some years thereafter."

Advances by the Bank in Discounts, &c.—The greater part of the paper of the Bank has generally been issued in the way of advances or loans to government, upon security of certain branches of the revenue, and in the purchase of Exchequer bills and bullion; but her issues through the medium of discounts to individuals have, notwithstanding, been at all times considerable, while during war, and in periods of distress, they have been occasionally very great. Generally speaking, however, the director, do not think it advisable to enter into competition with private bankers in the transacting of ordinary banking business, or in the discounting of mercantile paper. Mr. Horsley Palmer is decidedly of opinion, that all banking business, apart from the issue of notes, is better transacted by private bankers than by public bodies.—(*Min. of Evidence, Report of 1832, p. 37.*) He also thinks, that were the Bank to come fairly into competition, at all times, with the private bankers and other individuals, in discounting, it would be very apt to lead, every now and then, to an excess of the currency, and a fall of the exchange, producing fluctuations that could not fail to be injurious. At present, therefore, and generally since the peace, the rate of interest charged by the Bank for loans has been somewhat above the market rate. The consequence is, that, in ordinary periods, very few applications are made to her for discounts. But, at the same time, every one who has any reasonable security to offer, knows where they may always be had; while the rate of interest charged by the Bank necessarily forms a *maximum* rate which no other establishment can exceed. When, however, any circumstances occur to occasion a pressure in the money market, or a difficulty of obtaining accommodations in the usual channels, the market rate of interest immediately rises to the rate fixed by the Bank; and on such occasions the private bankers, and the public generally, resort to the Bank for aid. She then becomes, as it were, a *bank of support*; and has, as such, on many trying occasions, particularly in 1793, 1815 and 1816, 1825–26, and 1838, rendered essential service to public credit, and to the commercial interests of the country. The usual limited amount of the Bank's discounts does not therefore proceed, as has been absurdly enough stated, from any indisposition on the part of the directors to render every assistance in their power to the commercial classes, but is, in fact, the effect of such disposition. They consider, and we believe justly, that, except under peculiar circumstances, the business of discounting and banking is best conducted by private parties; and that by abstaining from coming into competition with them, they are better able to act as a bank of support in seasons of distress and difficulty. This is not to neglect the interests of the mercantile classes, but to promote them in the best and most efficient manner, even though it should be at the expense of the Bank.

At the same time, however, it must be admitted that the interference of the Bank in assisting the commercial interest is a matter that requires the greatest consideration,

Weekly in

Notes.	Coin.
9,100	897,468
35,940	840,389
39,530	791,617
7,900	678,951
23,135	711,966
6,890	618,709
98,083	694,747
18,077	591,598
18,735	566,145
38,330	700,748
35,983	770,912
95,813	773,783
98,245	777,059
40,213	836,365
61,383	795,581
75,805	786,969
47,406	738,819
99,500	798,037
101,434	874,977
93,993	806,690
01,770	831,913
93,993	641,610
40,050	638,721
74,045	658,945
91,663	865,306
89,443	778,843
102,509	779,486
102,509	896,603
137,174	881,705
77,870	654,431
47,406	820,927
108,970	819,489
94,485	883,838
94,485	649,998
849,783	603,451
93,993	819,449
404,905	603,896
478,855	580,695
88,613	263,237
455,505	473,538
430,700	595,597
430,700	246,319
846,699	607,703
435,515	569,275
93,993	511,254
376,510	411,330
819,775	583,377
437,130	617,597
437,130	595,283
437,130	665,401
476,983	579,531
392,243	305,608
437,130	338,570
506,245	648,941
708,240	630,458
437,130	594,378
418,410	605,247
437,130	595,483
303,740	665,466
418,380	677,053
6,586,405	633,107
4,963,695	637,025
9,974,076	867,477
4,963,695	679,478
4,984,483	760,502
7,076,695	707,965
7,218,130	717,365
7,076,695	700,338
4,984,483	700,338
7,076,695	717,365
7,218,130	641,778
6,738,130	717,365
7,218,130	806,317
6,738,130	681,418
7,218,130	681,418
7,218,130	684,461
7,218,130	706,478
8,408,130	704,318
8,408,130	686,691
8,408,130	736,231
8,408,130	885,619
8,408,130	748,254
8,408,130	830,458
8,408,130	596,306
8,408,130	630,492
8,408,130	596,306
8,408,130	510,833
8,408,130	638,405
8,408,130	686,960
8,408,130	593,678
8,408,130	490,176
8,408,130	518,837
8,408,130	488,888
8,408,130	536,658
8,408,130	568,497
8,408,130	456,831
8,408,130	506,259
8,408,130	401,403
8,408,130	456,661
8,408,130	438,134
8,408,130	594,591
8,408,130	604,458
8,408,130	603,338
8,408,130	894,587
8,408,130	735,759
8,408,130	745,718
8,408,130	745,698

and that it can only be safely undertaken under very peculiar circumstances. It should always be borne in mind that however a drain for gold may originate, the fact of its existence is of itself a conclusive proof that gold is more valuable abroad than here, and consequently that the currency is redundant and ought to be diminished. Under such circumstances it is the imperative duty of the Directors, in order to provide for the safety of the Bank, to prevent the vacuum caused by the exchange of bullion for notes from being again filled up by the issue of fresh notes. This may be done in various ways; but the best and surest way is by raising the rate of discount so as to lessen the number of applicants for loans.—(See post.) It is at such periods, however, that the applications for assistance are the most urgent; and it is exceedingly difficult to yield to them, and at the same time to enforce that systematic and continuous reduction of the issues that is now indispensable to reduce the currency to its proper level and to restore the exchange to par. Unquestionably the Bank allowed the stock of bullion in her coffers to be reduced in 1839 a great deal too low. And though, perhaps, as things turned out, less hardship was in the end inflicted on individuals than if the directors had adhered more to the stern path of duty, still it is extremely hazardous to trust in matters of such vast importance to the chapter of accidents; and we incline to think that in this, as in most other cases, the safest plan, or the systematic reduction of the issues whenever the exchange becomes unfavourable, is that also which, speaking generally, is most advantageous to all classes. And this, as already seen, is now all but imperative on the Bank.

In 1839, and we believe, also, on a previous occasion, the Bank negotiated credits abroad, and endeavoured to restore the exchange to par by selling bills on the Continent. The policy of this device gave rise to a good deal of discussion at the time; but in the particular cases it appears to us to have been most judicious; and we incline, also, to think that under the old system the same course might and should have been followed on various occasions. This device is now less necessary; but we may still easily conceive occasions when it might be advantageous. What merchants want during an adverse exchange is good foreign bills, it being only in default of such that they export bullion; and the Bank, by supplying them with such bills, and getting, of course, her notes in exchange, is able to diminish her issues quite as effectually as if her notes were sent in for bullion. Another advantage of this plan is, that no one knows when it is in operation, and, consequently, that it goes far to obviate that internal discredit and alarm that are apt to be produced when the stock of bullion in the Bank is reduced unusually low. In fact, had the Bank not acted, in part at least, on this plan in 1839, the probability is that she must have suspended payments.

No doubt the Bank would be exposed, if she adopted this plan, to the contingency of losing by her foreign securities in the event of the breaking out of hostilities, or of the occurrence of any event by which their value might be reduced. These events may, however, be in general foreseen and provided against; and if the Bank's investments were judiciously made, not in one only but in several quarters, the risk they would involve does not appear to be at all equivalent to the advantage. Perhaps, as the law now stands, there may be legal objections to the Bank's holding foreign securities; but if it be expedient that she should do so, the law might be easily altered.

The amount of the discounts of private paper at the Bank and her branches varies, as already seen, greatly in different periods; and depends, indeed, wholly on contingent and accidental circumstances. Thus on the 1st of January, 1839, the bills discounted in London amounted to only 396,000*l.*, whereas on the 3d of December of the same year they amounted to 3,926,000*l.*

The annual average loss by bad debts on the discounts of the Bank of England in London, from 1791 to 1831, both inclusive, was 31,698*l.*—(*Appen. to Rep. on Bank Charter, No. 60.*)

Advances by the Bank to Government.—These are made on account of the produce of taxes not yet received, and on the security of the Exchequer bills, &c. They varied, from 1792 down to 1810, from about 10,000,000*l.* to about 16,000,000*l.* During the remainder of the war, and down to 1820, they were a good deal larger; but in 1819 provision was made for reducing the amount of these advances; and they do not at present, excluding the permanent advance on account of the dead weight, exceed a fourth part of their amount in 1820. They are represented by the Exchequer bills and deficiency bills in the hands of the Bank.

Balances of Public Money.—In point of fact, however, a very large part of these advances has been nominal only, or has been virtually cancelled by the balances of public money in the hands of the Bank. Thus, from 1806 to 1810, both inclusive, the average advances to government amounted to 14,492,970*l.* But the average balance of public money in possession of the Bank during the the same period amounted to about 11,000,000*l.*; so that the real advance was equal only to the difference between these two sums, or to about 3,500,000*l.* This statement completely negatives, as Mr. Tooke

has justly stated, the supposition so commonly entertained and reasoned upon as a point beyond doubt, that the Bank was rendered, by the restriction, a mere engine in the hands of government for facilitating its financial operations.—(*First Letter to Lord Grenville*, p. 64.)

The Bank being enabled to employ the greater part of the balances of public money in her hands as capital, they have formed one of the main sources of the profit she has derived from her transactions with the public. This subject was brought very prominently forward in the Second Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Public Expenditure in 1807. And it was agreed in the same year, that the Bank should, in consideration of the advantages derived from the public balances, continue the loan of 3,000,000*l.* made to government in 1800 for 6 years, without interest, on the same terms, till 6 months after the signature of a definitive treaty of peace. In 1816, this sum was finally incorporated with the debt due by government to the Bank, at an interest of 3 per cent.

Management of Public Debt.—Previously to 1786, the Bank received an allowance on this account—that is, for trouble in paying the dividends, superintending the transfer of stock, &c., of 562*l.* 10*s.* a million. In 1786, this allowance was reduced, to 450*l.* a million, the Bank being, at the same time, entitled to a considerable allowance for her trouble in receiving contributions on loans, lotteries, &c. This, however, though long regarded as a very improvident arrangement on the part of the public, was acquiesced in till 1808, when the allowance on account of management was reduced to 340*l.* per million on 600,000,000*l.* of the public debt; and to 300*l.* per million on all that it exceeded that sum, exclusive of some separate allowances for annuities, &c. The impression, however, was still entertained, that the allowances for management should be further reduced. In consequence the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98. directed that 120,000*l.* a year should be deducted from their amount; and the late act, the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32. directs that this deduction shall be increased to 180,000*l.* During the year ended the 5th of January 1846 the Bank received 93,111*l.* 19*s.* 10*d.* for the management of the public debt, and annuities.

It should be observed, that the responsibility and expense incurred by the Bank in managing the public debt are very great. The temptation to the commission of fraud in transferring stock from one individual to another, and in the payment of the dividends, is well known; and notwithstanding the skilfully devised system of checks adopted by the Bank for its prevention, she has frequently sustained very great losses by forgery and otherwise. In 1803, the Bank lost, through a fraud committed by one of her principal cashiers, Mr. Astlett, no less than 340,000*l.*; and the forger, Fauntleroy the banker cost her a still larger sum! At an average of the 10 years ending with 1831, the Bank lost, through forgeries on the public funds, 40,204*l.* a year.*—(*Report on Bank Charter*, Appen. p. 165.)

The total sums paid by the public to the Bank on account of the loans raised, Exchequer bills undred, transfer of 3½ per cent. stock, &c. from 1793 to 1820, both included, amounted to 426,795*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.*—(*Parl. Paper* No. 81. Sess. 1822.)

Dead Weight.—Besides the transactions alluded to, the Bank entered, on the 20th of March, 1823, into an engagement with government with respect to the public pensions and annuities, or, as they have been more commonly termed, the *dead weight*. At the end of the war, the naval and military pensions, superannuated allowances, &c. amounted to above 5,000,000*l.* a year. They would, of course, have been gradually

* We subjoin an abstract of the principal provisions of the statute 1 Will. 4. c. 66., with respect to the forgery of bank notes, powers of attorney, &c.

It is enacted, that if any person shall forge or alter, or shall offer, utter, dispose of, or put off, knowing the same to be forged or altered, any Exchequer bill or Exchequer debenture, or any indorsement on or assignment of any such bill or debenture, or any East India bond, or indorsement upon or assignment of the same, or any note or bill of the bank of England, or a bank post bill, or any indorsement on or assignment of any bank note, bank bill of exchange, or bank post bill, with intent to defraud any person whatsoever, he shall be guilty of felony, and shall upon conviction suffer death as a felon.—§ 3.

Persons making false entries in the books of the Bank of England, or other books in which accounts of public stocks or funds are kept, with intent to defraud, shall suffer death as felons.—§ 5.

By the same act, the forging of any transfer of any share of, or interest in, or dividend upon, any public stock, or of a power of attorney to transfer the same, or to receive dividends thereon, is made capital. If any person, falsely personating the owner of any share, interest, or dividend of any of the public funds, thereby transfer such share, &c., and receive the money due to the lawful owner, he shall upon conviction suffer death as a felon.—§ 6.

And any person endeavouring by such false personation to procure the transfer of any share, interest, &c. in the public funds, may, upon conviction, be transported beyond seas for life, or for any term not less than seven years, or be imprisoned for any term not more than four nor less than two years.—§ 7.

The forgery of the attestation of any power of attorney for the transfer of stock is to be punished by transportation for seven years, or by imprisonment for not more than two and not less than one year.—§ 8.

Clerks or servants of the Bank of England knowingly making out or delivering any dividend warrant for a greater or less amount than the party in whose behalf such warrant is made out is entitled to, may, upon conviction, be transported beyond seas for the term of seven years, or imprisoned for not more than two nor less than one year.—§ 9.

lessened and ultimately extinguished by the death of the parties. But it was resolved in 1822 to attempt to spread the burden equally over the whole period of *forty-five* years, during which it was calculated the annuities would continue to decrease. To effect this purpose, it was supposed that, upon government offering to pay 2,800,000*l.* a year for 45 years, capitalists would be found who would undertake to pay the entire annuities, according to a graduated scale previously determined upon, making the first year a payment of 4,900,000*l.*, and gradually decreasing the payments until the forty-fifth and last year, when they were to amount to only 300,000*l.* This supposition was not, however, realised. No capitalists were found willing to enter into such distant engagements. But in 1823 the Bank agreed, on condition of receiving an annuity of 585,740*l.* for *forty-four* years, commencing on the 5th of April, 1823, to pay, on account of the pensions, &c., at different specified periods, between the years 1823 and 1828, both inclusive, the sum of 13,089,419*l.*—(4 Geo. 4. c. 22.)

Rate of Discount.—The bank discounted private bills at 5 per cent. during nearly the whole period from her establishment till 1824, when the rate was reduced to 4 per cent. It was again raised to 5 per cent. on the 13th December 1825, since which period the variations have been as under :

From 13 Dec. 1825, to 5 July 1827	- - - 5 per cent.	55 days to run, and on 8 June 1841 again extended to bills of 20 days.	
5 July 1827, to 31 July 1828	- - - 4	From 7 April 1842 to 3 Sept. 1844	- - - 4 per cent.
31 July 1828 to 1 Sept. 1836	- - - 4½	3 Sept. 1844 to 13 March 1845	bills ½ notes 3
1 Sept. 1836 to 15 Feb. 1838	- - - 5	13 March to 16 Oct. 1845	minimum rate 2½
15 Feb. 1838 to 16 May 1839	- - - 4	16 Oct. 1845 to 6 Nov. 1845	- - - 3
16 May 1839 to 20 June 1839	- - - 5	6 Nov. 1845 to 27 Aug. 1846	- - - 3½
20 June 1839 to 1 Aug. 1839	- - - 5½	27 Aug. 1846 to 14 Jan. 1847	- - - 5 and
1 Aug. 1839 to 23 Jan. 1840	- - - 6	On the 14 Jan. 1847 raised to	- - - 5½
23 Jan. 1840, to 7th April 1849	- - - 5		

Limited on the 15 Oct. 1840 to bills not having more than

When the currency happens, from any cause, to become redundant, its contraction, always a matter of some difficulty, is to be effected only (if she hold no foreign securities) by the sale of bullion or public securities by the Bank, or by a diminution of the usual discounts, or both. But were the Bank to throw any considerable amount of public securities upon the market, the circumstance would be apt to excite alarm; and, even though it did not, it would be difficult to dispose of them without a heavy loss. Hence, when a reduction is determined upon, it is most commonly effected, in part at least, by a contraction of discounts; and it is plain that such contraction cannot be made except by rejecting altogether some of the bills sent in for discount, or, which is in effect the same thing, by shortening their dates, or by raising the rate of interest, so that fewer may be sent in. Of these methods, the last seems to be in every respect the most expedient. When bills are rejected for no other reason than that the currency may be contracted, the greatest injury is done to individuals, who, entertaining no doubt of getting their usual accommodation from the Bank, may have entered into transactions which they are thus deprived of the means of completing. When the reduction is made by raising the rate of interest, it principally affects those who are *best able to bear it*; at the same time that its operation, instead of being, like the rejection of bills, arbitrary and capricious, is uniform and impartial. It does, therefore, seem that the Bank should seldom or never throw out good bills that she may contract her issues; but that, when she has resolved upon such a measure, she should, provided the contraction cannot be made by the sale of bullion and public securities, raise the rate of discount so as to lessen the demands upon her for loans.

The dividends on Bank stock, from the establishment of the Company to the present time, have been as follows:—

Years.	Dividend.	Years.	Dividend.
1694	8 per cent.	Lady-day - 1747	5 per cent.
1697	9	Ditto - 1753	4½
1708 ?	Varied from 9 to	Michaelmas - 1764	5
1729 }	5½ per cent.	Ditto - 1767	5½
Lady-day - 1730	6	Ditto - 1781	6
Michaelmas - 1730	5½	Lady-day - 1788	7
Lady-day - 1731	6	Ditto - 1807	10
Michaelmas - 1731	5½	Ditto - 1823	8
Lady-day - 1732	6	Lady-day - 1839	7
Michaelmas - 1732	5½		

Previously to 1759, the Bank of England issued no notes for less than 20*l.* She began to issue 10*l.* notes in 1759; 5*l.* notes in 1793; and 1*l.* and 2*l.* notes in March, 1797. The issue of the latter may be said to have ceased in 1821; though they were again issued on the emergency in 1825.

Interest on Deposits.—The Bank of England does not allow, either in London or at her branches, any interest on deposits; but it would be exceedingly desirable if she could safely make some alteration in this respect. The want of the power readily to invest small sums productively, and, at the same time, with perfect security, tends to weaken the motives to save and accumulate. Nothing has contributed more to diffuse

a spirit of economy, and a desire to save, amongst all classes of the population of Scotland, than the readiness with which deposits of small sums are received by banks of undoubted solidity in that part of the country, and the allowance of interest upon them.—(See BANKS (SCOTCH).) This advantage is now, however, in some degree secured in England, not only by the institution of savings banks, but by the joint stock banks that have been opened in most parts of the country. The receiving of deposits is indeed an essential part of the proper business of a bank. "A banker is a dealer in capital, an intermediate party between the borrower and the lender. He borrows of one party and lends to another; and the difference between the terms at which he borrows and those at which he lends is the source of his profit. By this means, he draws into active operation those small sums of money which were previously unproductive in the hands of private individuals, and at the same time furnishes accommodation to another class, who have occasion for additional capital to carry on their commercial transactions."—(See *Gilbart's Practical Observations on Banking*, p. 52.)

In further corroboration of what has now been stated, it may be mentioned that it is estimated by the best authorities that the deposits in the Scotch banks may amount at present (1846) to about 30,000,000*l.*, of which more than a half consists of sums of from 10*l.* to 200*l.*! This is a most satisfactory proof of the vast importance of the system. Perhaps it is not going too far to affirm, that but for the receiving of deposits by the banks, and the allowing of interest upon them, not a third part of the sums under 200*l.*, and not a half of those above it, would ever have been accumulated. (See BANKS (SCOTCH).)

We are not, however, able to say whether the Bank of England could offer interest on deposits without having so large a sum forced upon her as might in periods of distress seriously endanger her stability. And it were better that the system should continue as at present, than that any risk of this sort should be incurred.

Since 1826, the private deposits in the hands of the Bank have been greatly augmented. Their increase is mainly ascribable to the preceding panic, and the loss that was then occasioned by the failure of private banks.

Method of conducting Business at the Bank.—All accounts kept at the Bank with individuals are termed *drawing accounts*; those with whom they are opened being entitled to draw checks upon them, and to send the bills and drafts in their favour to be presented by the Bank, exactly as if they dealt with private bankers. There is no fixed sum with which an individual must open a drawing account; nor is there any fixed sum which the Bank requires him to keep at his credit to indemnify them for their trouble in answering his drafts, &c. Mr. Horsley Palmer gave in his evidence, in 1832, the following statement as to the facilities granted by the Bank in drawing accounts since 1825:—

1. The Bank receives dividends by power of attorney for all persons having drawing accounts at the Bank.
2. Dividend warrants are received at the Drawing-office for ditto.
3. Exchequer bills and other securities are received for ditto; the bills exchanged, the interest received, and the amount carried to their respective accounts.
4. Checks may be drawn for 5*l.* and upwards, instead of 10*l.* as heretofore.
5. Cash-boxes taken in, contents unknown, for such parties as keep accounts at the Bank.
6. Bank notes are paid at the counter, instead of drawing tickets for them on the pay clerks as heretofore.
7. Checks on city bankers paid in by three o'clock may be drawn for between four and five; and those paid in before four will be received and passed to account the same evening.
8. Checks paid in after four are sent out at nine o'clock the following morning, received and passed to account, and may be drawn for as soon as received.
9. Dividend warrants taken in at the Drawing-office until five in the afternoon, instead of three as heretofore.
10. Credits paid in to account are received without the Bank book, and are afterwards entered therein without the party claiming them.
11. Bills of exchange accepted payable at the Bank are payable with or without advice; heretofore with advice only.
12. Notes of country bankers payable in London are sent out the same day for payment.
13. Checks are given out in books, and not in sheets as heretofore.

A person having a drawing account may have a *discount account*; but no person can have the latter without, at the same time, having the former. When a discount account is opened, the signatures of the parties are entered in a book kept for the purpose, and powers of attorney are granted, empowering the persons named in them to act for their principals. No bill of exchange drawn in the country is discounted by the Bank in London under 20*l.* nor London note under 100*l.*, nor for a longer date, under existing regulations, than three months.

The number of holidays formerly kept at the Bank has recently been reduced about a half, in the view, as stated by the directors, of preventing the interruption of business. There are no holidays in the months of March, June, September, and December, excepting Christmas; Easter Monday and Tuesday are no longer kept.

We subjoin an account of the days for transferring stock, and when the dividends are due at the Bank, the South Sea House, and the East India House:—

Transfer Days of the Bank.		Dividends	Dividends	
Bank Stock.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.		Jan. 5.	18th Annuity, if transferred between April 5. and July 5., or between Oct. 10. and Jan. 5.	April 5.
3 per Cent. Red.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.	Oct. 10.	Jan. 5.	July 5., or between Oct. 10. and Jan. 5.	Oct. 10.
3 per Cent. Blue.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.	July 5.	Jan. 5.	At the South Sea House.	
Long Annuity to Jan. 1860.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.	April 5.	Jan. 5.	3. S. Stock.— Mond. Wed. and Frid.	Jan. 5.
New 2½ per Cent. Annuity.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.	Oct. 10.	Jan. 5.	3 per Cent. Old Annuity.— Mond. Wed. and Frid.	Oct. 10.
New 5 per Cent. Annuity.— Tues. Wed. Thurs. and Frid.	Jan. 5.	Jan. 5.	3 per Cent. New Annuity.— Tues. Thurs. and Sat.	Jan. 5.
Annuities for Terms of Years, some payable on	April 5.	Jan. 5.	3 per Cent. 1721.— Tues. and Thurs.	July 5.
Ditto, others on	Oct. 10.	Jan. 5.	At the East India House.	
18th Annuity, if transferred between Jan. 5. and April 5., or between July 5. and Oct. 5.	Jan. 5.	Jan. 5.	India Stock.— Tues. Thurs. and Sat.	Jan. 5.
	Jan. 5.	Jan. 5.	Interest on India Bonds, &c.	Jan. 5.
	Jan. 5.	Jan. 5.		18th. 21.
	Jan. 5.	Jan. 5.		18th. 21.

Tickets for preparing transfer of stock must be given in at each office before one o'clock; at the East India House, before two o'clock. Private transfers may be made at other times than as above, the books not being shut, by persons of the Bank and India House, &c. extra for such transfer; at the South Sea House, &c. &c.

Transfer at the Bank must be made by half-past two o'clock; at the India House, by three; at the South Sea House, by two.

Expenses of transfer in Bank Stock, for 25*l.* and under, 6*o.*; above that sum, 1*2s.*

India Stock for 10*l.* 1*l.* 10*s.*

South Sea Stock, if under 100*l.* 5*o.* 6*d.*

Powers of attorney for the sale or transfer of stock to be left at the Bank, &c. for examination, one day before they can be acted upon; if for receiving dividends, they may be left at any time.

The expense of a power of attorney is 1*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* for each stock; but for Bank, India, and South Sea stock, 1*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* If wanted for the same day, half-past twelve o'clock is the latest time for receiving orders. The losses for receiving powers of attorney for sale close at two.

Probates of wills, letters of administration, and other proofs of decease, must be left at the Bank, &c. for registration, from two to three clear days, exclusive of holidays.

Stock cannot be added to any account (whether single or joint) in which the decrease of the individual, or one or more of a joint party, has taken place; and the decrease to be proved as soon as practicable. Powers of attorney, in case of the death of the party or parties granting them, become void.

The unaltered possession of 500*l.* or upwards Bank stock, for six months clear, gives the proprietor a vote.

Branch Banks of the Bank of England.—The Bank of England, as already observed, has within these few years established branch banks at several of the most considerable towns throughout the country. The mode and terms of conducting business at these establishments have been described as follows:—

“The branch bank at Swansea (and the same is true of those established in other places) is to be a secure place of deposit for persons having occasion to make use of a bank for that purpose; such persons are said to have *drawing accounts*; to facilitate to the mercantile and trading classes the obtaining discounts of good and unexceptionable bills, founded upon real transactions, two approved names being required upon every bill or note discounted; these are called *discount accounts*. The applications of parties who desire to open discount accounts at the branch are forwarded to the parent establishment for approval, and an answer is generally received in about ten days. When approved, good bills may be discounted at the branch without reference to London. Bills payable at Swansea, London, or any other place where a branch is established, are discounted under this regulation. The dividends on any of the public funds, which are payable at the Bank of England, may be received at the branch, by persons who have opened ‘drawing accounts,’ after signing powers of attorney for that purpose, which the branch will procure from London. No charge is made in this case, except the expense of the power of attorney and the postages incurred in transmitting it. Purchases and sales of every description of government securities are effected by the branch at a charge corresponding to that made by the local bankers where the branch is situated. A commission, including brokerage in London, and all expenses of postage, is charged on paying at the Bank of England bills accepted by persons having drawing accounts at Swansea, such bills to be advised by the branch; also for granting letters of credit on London, or on the other branches. The branch grants bills on London, payable at seven days’ date, without acceptance, for sums of 10*l.* and upwards. Persons having drawing accounts at Swansea may order money to be paid at the Bank in London to their credit at Swansea, and *vice versa*, at a charge of 6*d.* in lieu of postage. The branch may be called upon to change any notes issued and dated at Swansea; but they do not change the notes of the Bank in London, nor receive them in payment, unless as a matter of courtesy where the parties are known. Bank post bills, which are accepted and due, are received at the branch from parties having drawing accounts, and taken to account without any charge for postage; but unaccepted bank post bills, which must be sent to London, are subject to the charge of postage, and taken to account when due. No interest is allowed on deposits. No advance is made by the branch upon any description of landed or other property, nor is any account allowed to be over-drawn. The notes are the same as those issued by the parent establishment, except being dated Swansea, and made payable there and in London. No note issued exceeds the sum of 500*l.*, and none are for a less amount than 5*l.*”

The following clauses of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 98. are still in force.

No Banking Company of more than 6 Persons to issue Notes payable on Demand within London or 65 Miles thereof.—That during the continuance of the said privilege, no body politic or corporate, and no society or company, or persons united or to be united in covenant or partnership, exceeding 6 persons, shall make or issue in London, or within 65 miles thereof, any bill of exchange or promissory note, or engagement for the payment of money on demand, or upon which any person holding the same may obtain payment on demand; provided always, that nothing herein or in the said act of the 7 Geo. 4. c. 46. contained shall be construed to prevent any body politic or corporate, or any society or company.

or incorporated company or corporation, or co-partnership, carrying on and transacting banking business at any greater distance than 65 miles from London, and not having any issue of business or establishment of bankers in London, or within 65 miles thereof, (except as hereinafter mentioned,) to make and issue their bills and notes, payable on demand or otherwise, at the place at which the same shall be issued, being more than 65 miles from London, and alien in London, and to have an agent or agents in London, or at any other place at which such bills or notes shall be made payable, for the purpose of payment only, but no such bill or note shall be for any sum less than £1, or be re-issued in London, or within 65 miles thereof. — §3.

Companies or Partnerships may carry on Banking in London, or within 65 Miles thereof. — And whereas the intention of this act is, that the Bank of England should, during the period therein in this act (subject nevertheless to such redemption as is described in this act), continue to hold and enjoy all the exclusive privileges of banking given by the act 39 & 40 Geo. 3, c. 28, as regulated by the act 7 Geo. 4, c. 66, or any prior or subsequent act or acts of parliament, but no other or further exclusive privilege of banking; and whereas doubts have arisen as to the construction of the said acts, and as to the extent of such exclusive privilege; and it is expedient that all such doubts should be removed, be it therefore declared and enacted, that any body politic or corporate, or society, or company, or partnership, although consisting of more than 6 persons, may carry on the trade or business of banking in London, or within 65 miles thereof, provided that such body politic or corporate, or society, or company, or partnership, do not borrow, owe, or take up in England any sum or sums of money on their bills or notes payable on demand, or at any less time than 6 months from the borrowing thereof, during the continuance of the privileges granted by this act to the said Governor and Company of the Bank of England. — §3. But this last condition is repealed by the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32, § 30.

All Bank of England Notes payable on Demand issued out of London payable at the Place where they are issued, &c. — From and after the 1st of August, 1834, all promissory notes payable on demand of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England issued at any place in England out of London, where the trade and business of banking shall be carried on for and on behalf of the said Governor and Company, shall be made payable at the place where such promissory notes shall be issued; and it shall not be lawful for the said Governor and Company, or any committee, agent, cashier, officer, or servant of the same to issue at any place out of London any promissory note payable on demand not made payable at the place where the same shall be issued, any thing in the said act 7 Geo. 4, c. 46, to the contrary notwithstanding. — §4.

Bank Notes to be legal Tender, except at the Bank and Branch Banks. — From and after the 1st of August, 1834, unless and until parliament shall otherwise direct, a tender of a note or notes of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, expressed to be payable to bearer on demand, shall be a legal tender to the amount expressed in such note or notes, and shall be taken to be valid as a tender to such amount for all sums above £1, on all occasions on which any tender of money may be legally made, so long as the Bank of England shall continue to pay on demand their said notes in legal coin; provided always, that no such note or notes shall be deemed a legal tender of payment by the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, or any branch bank of the said Governor and Company; but the said Governor and Company are not to become liable or be required to pay and satisfy, at any branch bank of the said Governor and Company, any note or notes of the said Governor and Company not made specially payable at such branch bank; but the said Governor and Company shall be liable to pay and satisfy at the Bank of England in London all notes of the said Governor and Company, or of any branch thereof. — §5.

Bills not bearing more than 3 months to run not subject to Usury Laws. — No bill of exchange or promissory note made payable out of London, any promissory note payable on demand not made payable to run, shall, by reason of any interest taken thereon or secured thereby, or any agreement to pay or receive or allow interest in discounting, negotiating, or transferring the same, be void; nor shall the liability of any party to any bill of exchange or promissory note be affected by reason of any statute or law in force for the prevention of usury; nor shall any person or persons drawing, accepting, indorsing, or signing any such bill or note, or lending or advancing any money, or taking more than the present rate of legal interest in Great Britain and Ireland respectively for the loan of money on any such bill or note, be subject to any penalties under any statute or law relating to usury, or any other penalty or forfeiture; any thing in any law or statute relating to usury in any part of the United Kingdom to the contrary notwithstanding. — §7.

Clause 10 authorized the proprietors, if they saw fit, to reduce the Bank capital from 14,558,000, to 10,914,750, but this clause has not been acted upon.

Tables exhibiting a view of the Circulation, Deposit, Profits, &c. of the Bank of England.

No. 1. — An Account of the Average Market Price of Bullion in each Year, from 1800 to 1821 (taken from Official Documents) of the Average Value per Cent. of the Currency, estimated by the Market Price of Gold for the same Period; and of the Average Depreciation per Cent.

Years.	Average Price of Gold per oz.			Average per Cent. of the Value of the Currency.			Years.	Average Price of Gold per oz.			Average per Cent. of the Value of the Currency.			Average Depreciation per Cent.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1800	3	17	10½	100	0	0	1811	4	4	6	92	3	2	16	10	
1801	4	3	0	91	12	4	1812	4	5	6	79	5	3	29	11	
1802	4	0	0	82	14	3	1813	5	1	0	77	2	0	22	18	0
1803	4	0	0	67	6	10	1814	5	4	0	74	17	6	25	2	6
1804	4	0	0	67	6	10	1815	4	13	6	83	5	9	16	14	3
1805	4	0	0	67	6	10	1816	4	13	6	83	5	9	16	14	3
1806	4	0	0	67	6	10	1817	4	0	0	97	6	10	2	13	2
1807	4	0	0	67	6	10	1818	4	0	0	97	6	10	2	13	2
1808	4	0	0	67	6	10	1819	4	1	6	95	11	0	4	9	0
1809	4	0	0	67	6	10	1820	3	19	11	97	8	0	3	13	0
1810	4	10	0	66	10	6	1821	3	17	10½	100	0	0			

No. 11. — An Account of the Profits of the Bank of England, in the Year ending the 29th of February, 1821; stating the Description of the Securities held by the Bank, and the Sources from which the said Profits have accrued. — (No. 15. *Appendix to Report.*)

Interest on commercial bills	130,695
Interest on Exchange bills	204,109
Annuity for 45 years (the dead-weight account)	43,416
Interest on capital received from government	446,502
Allowance received for management of the public debt	231,896
Interest on loans on mortgages	60,000
Interest on stock in the public funds	15,075
Interest on private loans	66,941
Profit on bullion, commission, rent, receipts on discounted bills unpaid, management of the business of the Banks of Ireland, of Scotland, and Royal Bank of Scotland, and sundry items	71,859
	41,689,176

BANK OF ENGLAND.

No. III. — The following is an Account of all Distributions made by the Bank of England amongst the Proprietors of Bank Stock, whether by Money Payments, Transfer of 5 per Cent. Annulles, or otherwise, under the Heads of Bonus, Increase of Dividend, and Increase of Capital, betwixt the 26th of February, 1797, and 31st of March, 1832, in addition to the ordinary Annual Dividend of 7 per Cent. on the Capital Stock of that Corporation, exhibiting in 1797, including therein the whole Dividend paid since June 1816, on their increased Capital, stating the Period when such Distributions were made, and the Aggregate Amount of the Whole. — (Appen. No. 59.)

Denomination and Periods of Distribution.	Amount.
In June, 1799: 10s. per cent. bonus in 2 per cents. 1797, on 11,648,400 <i>l.</i>	1,164,240
May, 1801: 5 <i>l.</i> per cent. ditto, in Navy 2 per cents. ditto	582,150
November, 1801: 2 <i>l.</i> 10s. per cent. ditto, ditto	231,000
October, 1804: 5 <i>l.</i> per cent. ditto, cash, ditto	582,150
October, 1808: 5 <i>l.</i> per cent. ditto, ditto	582,150
October, 1808: 5 <i>l.</i> per cent. ditto, ditto	582,150
From April, 1807, to Oct. 1812, both inclusive	8,584,538
1812, both inclusive	2,910,500
From April, 1823, to Oct. 1829, both inclusive	1,891,880
In June, 1819	2,095,458
From Oct. 1816, to Oct. 1827, both inclusive	417,516,070
From April, 1823, to Oct. 1831, both inclusive	4314,968
Aggregate amount of the whole	41,455,900
Annual dividend payable on Bank stock in 1797, on a capital of 11,648,400 <i>l.</i> , at the rate of 7 <i>l.</i> per cent. per annum	41,164,940
Annual dividend payable since June, 1816, on a capital of 14,555,000 <i>l.</i> , to October, 1832, inclusive, at the rate of 10 <i>l.</i> per cent. per annum	41,164,940
Annual dividend payable from April, 1823, to the 31st of March, 1832, both inclusive, on a capital of 14,555,000 <i>l.</i> , at the rate of 8 <i>l.</i> per cent. per annum	41,164,940

WILLIAM SMEE, Dep. Act.

Bank of England, 27th of June, 1832.

No. IV. — An estimated Account of Profit derived by the Bank from Circulation of Promissory Notes and from Government Business. — (Appen. No. 28.)

Circulation - - - - - 20,000,000
 Government deposits - - - - - 4,000,000
 24,000,000, of which two-thirds are estimated to be invested in securities, and one-third in bullion.

	£	£	£
Securities of 18,000,000 <i>l.</i> vis.			
2,000,000 Exchequer bills	at 2 <i>l.</i> per cent.	40,000	
800,000 stock	— 3	24,000	
1,000,000 advances for circulation on discount	— 5	50,000	
4,000,000 country discount	— 4	160,000	
18,000,000		254,000	
Deduct:			
Expense of circulation		105,000	
Expense of government deposits		10,000	
Stamp duty on circulation		70,000	
1 per cent. on capital (held by government at 5 per cent.)		147,000	
		332,000	154,476
The Public Debt.			
Amount received from gov. for management of the public debt, for the year ending 31st of April, 1832, incl. ling life annuities		251,000	
Management of life annuities, supposed to be transferred		5,000	348,000
Expense for management of the national debt		164,000	
Average of forgone per annum, during the last ten years		40,000	
		304,000	44,000
Estimated profit			4174,878

No. V. — Account of the Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of England (exclusive of the Sum lent by the Bank to the Public, on the 7th of January 1843), exhibiting the Amount of the Bank Notes in Circulation in Town and Country, of public and private Deposits, and of public and private Securities, Bullion, &c. in the Possession of the Bank.

Liabilities.		Assets.	
	£	£	£
Circulation:		Public Securities.	
London	12,304,000	Advances on Exchequer Bills:	8,000,000
Country	5,214,000	Deficiency	nil
	18,518,000	Other Exchequer Bills	235,000
Deposits, Public, vis.:		Exchequer Bills purchased	11,285,000
Exchequer accounts	693,000	Stock and Annuities	18,706,000
For payment of dividends	3,289,000	Private Securities.	
Foreign banks	17,000	Bills discounted:	808,000
West India compensation	5,000	London	3,700,000
Other public accounts	1,754,000	Country	149,000
	1,058,000	East India Bonds	1,234,000
Deposits, Private, vis.:		City Bonds, &c.	774,000
London bankers	767,000	Mortgages	1,488,000
East India Company	444,000	Bills of Exchange	294,000
Bank of Ireland, Royal Bank of Scotland, &c.	85,000	Exchequer Bills, Stock, &c.	3,907,000
Other deposits	3,857,000		
Deposits at branches	907,000		
	5,478,000		
	435,058,000	Bullion	86,706,000
			10,048,000
			437,888,000

BANK OF ENGLAND.

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No. VI. — An Account of the Notes, Post Bills, &c. of the Bank of England in Circulation, on the 28th of February and 31st of August in each year, from 1835 to 1892 both included, as near as the same can be made up.

Year.	28th Feb.		31st Aug.		Year.	28th Feb.		31st Aug.		Year.	28th Feb.		31st Aug.	
	£	s.	£	s.		£	s.	£	s.		£	s.	£	s.
1835	1,221,250		1,260,400		1732	2,265,640		2,006,430		1745	3,383,720		3,242,500	
1836	1,248,450		1,195,160		1733	2,516,110		2,482,210		1746	4,107,420		3,652,210	
1837	1,290,240		1,214,420		1734	2,529,830		2,857,710		1747	3,894,630		3,762,210	
1838	1,304,800		1,208,800		1735	2,734,480		2,343,400		1748	3,737,110		4,183,800	
1839	1,330,730		1,200,000		1736	3,076,850		3,182,340		1749	5,064,970		4,318,490	
1840	1,358,760		1,214,040		1737	3,688,180		4,677,540		1750	4,122,160		4,195,210	
1841	1,391,900		1,266,010		1738	4,174,920		4,615,790		1751	4,444,960		4,760,850	
1842	1,426,810		1,248,160		1739	4,182,890		4,192,510		1752	4,401,860		4,490,280	
1843	1,460,840		1,205,410		1740	3,958,280		4,416,870		1753	4,062,370		4,081,280	
1844	1,496,800		1,234,800		1741	4,451,720		5,249,880		1754	3,940,650		4,115,280	
1845	1,534,800		1,266,040		1742	4,261,660		4,892,400		1755	4,106,750		4,516,860	
1846	1,574,800		1,314,800		1743	3,886,060		4,648,000		1756	5,219,180		5,149,940	
1847	1,614,800		1,354,800		1744	4,203,070		4,571,330		1757	6,220,600		6,864,110	
1848	1,654,800		1,394,800		1745	4,627,960		4,738,650		1758	4,686,840		4,809,790	
1849	1,694,800		1,434,800		1746	5,007,750		5,077,870		1759	4,969,250		4,936,980	
1850	1,734,800		1,474,800		1747	5,215,010		4,414,690		1760	5,632,350		5,686,980	
1851	1,774,800		1,514,800		1748	4,786,260		4,609,420		1761	5,741,000		5,866,580	
1852	1,814,800		1,554,800		1749	4,728,010		4,192,490		1762	5,729,910		5,714,690	
1853	1,854,800		1,594,800		1750	4,850,960		4,444,000		1763	5,501,300		5,210,680	
1854	1,894,800		1,634,800		1751	4,841,840		4,084,450		1764	5,316,670		5,256,490	
1855	1,934,800		1,674,800		1752	4,471,510		4,911,390		1765	5,617,570		5,246,410	
1856	1,974,800		1,714,800		1753	4,654,890		4,250,180		1766	5,510,950		4,885,840	
1857	2,014,800		1,754,800		1754	4,203,610		4,370,890		1767	5,779,390		5,418,380	
1858	2,054,800		1,794,800		1755	4,279,610		4,465,330		1768	5,707,190		5,411,450	

No. VI. — No previously published table of the circulation of the Bank of England extends further back than 1777; we are indebted to the Court of Directors for being able to supply the striking defect, and to exhibit, for the first time, the circulation of the Bank, from within four years of its establishment down to the present day.

No. VII. — Statement exhibiting the Town and Country Circulation, Deposits, Securities, Bullion, &c. of the Bank of England, on the undermentioned days of the following years.

Date.	Notes in Circulation.		Deposits.	Total Liabilities.	Securities.	Bullion.	Total Assets.	Balance of Assets over Liabilities.
	In London.	In the Country.						
	£	£						
1835 July 1	14,868,000	7,254,000	8,554,000	33,566,000	21,320,000	6,616,000	37,816,000	2,185,000
1836 January 1	14,939,000	5,774,000	12,725,000	33,901,000	31,917,000	10,096,000	31,874,000	4,178,000
1837 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1838 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1839 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1840 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1841 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1842 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1843 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1844 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1845 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1846 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1847 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1848 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1849 July 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000
1850 January 1	15,175,000	5,159,000	12,836,000	34,778,000	32,668,000	11,291,000	34,071,000	3,896,000

No. VIII. — A Return of the Average Aggregate Amount of Promissory Notes, payable to Bearer on Demand, in circulation in the United Kingdom in the Months of January and July, distinguishing those circulated by the Banks of England and Ireland, and by Private and Joint Stock Banks in England, Scotland, and Ireland, together with the Bullion in the Bank of England, from September, 1833, to January, 1843.

Date.	England.					Ireland.		Total Issues in the United Kingdom.	Bullion in the Bank of England.
	Bank of England.	Private Banks.	Joint Stock Banks.	Unreturned.	Private and Joint Stock Banks.	Bank of Ireland.			
						£	£		
1833 September	19,214,000	8,165,537	1,115,591	3,207,086	8,644,490	5,678,800	1,112,153	56,838,244	10,944,450
1834 January	19,294,980	6,841,285	1,460,543	1,195,999	5,003,983	4,017,690	1,380,276	59,743,500	9,952,500
1835 July	19,488,480	6,808,182	1,537,511	1,038,514	5,110,239	3,638,560	1,194,754	57,939,800	8,406,600
1836 January	19,581,000	6,670,888	1,619,492	1,020,573	5,256,463	3,658,460	1,029,062	57,439,800	6,853,200
1837 July	19,664,750	6,535,263	1,330,968	1,011,510	5,038,043	3,491,175	1,076,289	57,178,500	6,989,500
1838 January	19,653,000	6,648,603	1,277,967	1,020,881	5,110,468	3,617,800	1,073,701	57,333,000	6,623,000
1839 July	19,581,750	6,716,520	1,241,948	1,012,848	5,230,068	3,330,600	1,010,276	56,254,400	6,284,450
1840 January	19,735,000	6,811,721	1,267,659	1,040,883	5,149,315	3,487,150	1,143,261	56,949,100	3,990,600
1841 July	19,774,000	6,971,000	1,266,111	1,045,890	5,271,338	3,591,300	1,444,748	56,516,476	6,847,000
1842 January	19,945,000	6,659,898	1,253,187	1,041,498	5,000,398	3,316,000	1,246,644	56,801,379	9,911,600
1843 July	20,049,400	6,768,330	1,236,383	1,050,719	5,181,698	3,494,300	1,296,788	56,743,000	9,600,000
1844 January	20,239,000	6,797,190	1,266,368	1,046,369	5,146,633	3,561,330	1,369,646	56,479,356	8,316,000
1845 July	20,407,800	6,847,014	1,248,419	1,041,821	5,163,781	3,133,178	1,274,438	56,208,172	3,116,800
1846 January	20,513,000	6,866,274	1,261,507	1,036,276	5,075,885	3,465,500	1,150,845	56,008,137	4,364,200
1847 July	20,681,000	6,936,934	1,260,000	1,036,276	5,136,463	3,561,330	1,176,631	56,008,137	3,116,800
1848 January	20,839,300	6,901,092	1,267,519	1,041,821	5,174,535	3,215,910	1,266,254	56,000,437	3,965,400
1849 July	20,977,000	6,907,988	1,261,507	1,041,821	5,181,394	3,561,330	1,266,616	56,444,785	3,011,000
1850 January	21,115,000	6,978,119	1,267,519	1,041,821	5,070,073	3,425,875	1,216,277	56,563,615	4,959,000
1851 July	21,253,000	6,966,881	1,267,519	1,041,821	5,114,600	3,425,875	1,216,277	56,563,615	4,959,000
1852 January	21,391,000	6,955,643	1,267,519	1,041,821	5,114,600	3,425,875	1,216,277	56,563,615	4,959,000

No. IX.—Account of the Circulation, Deposits, Securities, Bullion, and Surplus, (exclusive of Capital,) of the Assets over the Liabilities of the Bank of England at (or as near thereto as the accounts can be made up) the under-mentioned Dates in each of the following Years.—(Compiled principally from the *Parl. Paper* No. 580. *Seas.* 1842.)

Date.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Securities.	Bullion.	Rest or Surplus of Assets over Liabilities.
1785 February 28	11,858,910	5,546,450	14,005,350	4,010,680	2,750,570
August 31	10,865,050	5,449,810	14,809,890	5,232,010	5,232,530
1794 February 28	10,744,980	7,931,810	14,544,850	6,987,110	5,572,580
August 31	10,286,780	6,535,710	13,446,480	6,770,110	4,398,660
1795 February 28	14,017,810	6,975,080	16,811,540	6,137,790	3,948,550
August 31	10,862,830	6,184,980	16,063,080	6,126,550	5,109,090
1796 February 28	10,789,840	5,079,560	17,139,840	5,239,630	5,247,590
August 31	9,446,780	6,656,390	17,025,470	5,113,880	5,844,510
1797 February 28	9,674,780	4,891,550	15,851,750	4,086,170	5,357,610
August 31	11,114,120	7,765,550	18,461,170	4,089,780	5,471,590
1798 February 28	15,065,850	6,118,900	18,795,200	5,588,840	5,383,710
August 31	12,160,810	6,300,710	17,548,640	6,546,100	5,144,410
1799 February 28	13,959,800	6,131,830	17,039,030	7,565,900	5,511,510
August 31	12,369,490	7,434,340	16,380,440	6,007,740	5,499,490
1800 February 28	15,841,470	7,063,680	21,494,050	6,144,420	5,261,150
August 31	15,017,180	6,535,090	21,138,180	6,150,430	5,306,830
1801 February 28	16,745,840	6,745,840	22,494,750	6,640,190	4,103,730
August 31	14,556,110	6,133,830	22,809,670	4,355,860	5,834,890
1802 February 28	15,186,840	6,838,810	21,939,890	4,189,850	4,067,880
August 31	17,097,830	9,797,140	23,917,360	5,272,140	5,357,510
1803 February 28	15,519,830	6,050,210	23,914,900	5,776,750	4,821,480
August 31	15,963,730	6,917,240	26,918,840	5,292,600	4,710,770
1804 February 28	15,977,830	8,676,830	26,698,970	5,272,140	4,618,450
August 31	17,153,890	8,715,530	25,856,580	6,879,180	4,436,450
1805 February 28	17,871,170	12,086,580	28,625,580	6,883,800	4,930,400
August 31	16,638,400	14,619,850	27,663,950	6,883,800	5,194,510
1806 February 28	17,730,180	9,980,790	26,591,070	6,987,190	4,867,550
August 31	21,027,870	9,586,530	26,475,100	6,883,800	6,267,350
1807 February 28	16,650,680	11,829,390	27,406,460	6,149,840	4,771,260
August 31	19,678,560	11,789,400	29,936,950	6,484,250	4,953,740
1808 February 28	18,186,660	11,261,060	27,368,060	6,506,910	5,068,390
August 31	17,111,890	15,014,510	29,344,090	6,015,240	5,136,250
1809 February 28	16,542,860	9,992,950	29,118,300	4,488,770	5,081,090
August 31	18,437,800	12,637,180	31,437,870	5,262,660	6,227,310
1810 February 28	21,010,690	13,457,310	33,378,580	5,201,410	5,403,080
August 31	26,735,990	15,471,590	40,277,770	5,191,850	6,154,110
1811 February 28	23,260,830	11,453,550	37,156,540	5,262,660	6,194,510
August 31	23,868,450	11,075,660	37,043,280	5,243,500	6,264,070
1812 February 28	23,408,280	11,595,290	35,685,890	5,263,180	6,005,060
August 31	23,026,880	11,849,910	35,819,100	5,118,880	6,203,500
1813 February 28	25,210,530	11,408,160	37,859,950	5,284,500	6,536,340
August 31	24,897,800	11,191,730	40,106,860	5,262,660	6,267,350
1814 February 28	24,801,080	14,455,460	41,969,910	5,201,430	6,207,800
August 31	26,308,290	14,849,940	44,545,960	5,097,690	7,282,410
1815 February 28	27,402,850	11,708,250	44,558,600	5,036,910	7,331,510
August 31	27,848,670	12,606,000	44,834,180	5,030,040	8,214,550
1816 February 28	27,013,690	12,988,900	45,491,510	4,940,880	8,639,680
August 31	26,848,720	11,856,380	45,376,640	5,652,910	8,227,310
1817 February 28	27,397,900	10,825,810	34,278,650	6,880,970	7,130,090
August 31	29,545,780	9,084,290	36,665,550	6,068,260	6,618,280
1818 February 28	27,775,870	7,697,530	34,963,400	6,262,660	6,194,510
August 31	26,802,150	7,927,270	32,370,760	7,363,160	4,604,040
1819 February 28	25,126,700	6,113,730	31,453,000	4,413,880	5,267,350
August 31	25,423,890	6,301,160	31,705,250	5,595,560	5,773,060
1820 February 28	25,144,110	6,003,550	36,817,490	4,911,020	5,290,880
August 31	20,825,500	4,980,910	33,816,140	5,262,660	5,336,350
1821 February 28	23,881,940	5,824,890	30,796,970	11,869,900	5,136,260
August 31	20,825,500	5,818,450	18,475,540	11,233,390	5,495,580
1822 February 28	18,565,550	4,620,310	16,975,680	11,057,160	6,074,940
August 31	17,464,790	6,299,440	17,390,510	10,097,860	5,424,840
1823 February 28	18,394,840	7,181,100	18,219,750	10,384,320	6,130,890
August 31	19,823,240	7,617,350	17,667,670	12,658,240	6,067,090
1824 February 28	19,736,990	10,097,850	18,974,000	13,810,660	5,247,220
August 31	20,152,180	6,075,810	20,301,550	11,767,450	5,680,090
1825 February 28	20,757,870	10,198,760	19,895,830	8,773,100	5,407,800
August 31	19,598,440	5,410,650	25,106,050	6,634,320	5,230,850
1826 February 28	25,467,910	6,635,940	32,919,580	5,459,510	5,774,840
August 31	21,665,660	7,189,860	25,085,650	6,774,450	6,074,660
1827 February 28	21,830,610	6,801,860	35,592,520	10,169,090	5,998,280
August 31	22,447,600	6,699,090	35,199,860	10,463,770	6,268,400
1828 February 28	21,960,710	6,198,140	35,681,970	10,547,890	7,197,710
August 31	21,557,610	10,401,890	25,995,250	10,498,840	5,845,690
1829 February 28	19,870,850	6,553,960	26,833,750	6,835,070	7,294,860
August 31	19,447,590	6,035,070	24,681,810	6,785,330	6,754,890
1830 February 28	20,050,750	10,763,150	34,006,390	9,171,000	6,681,510
August 31	21,426,000	11,890,690	34,663,890	11,560,480	6,267,350
1831 February 28	19,690,140	11,815,530	25,038,980	8,817,030	5,612,360
August 31	16,559,650	9,069,510	25,005,080	6,189,760	7,136,850
1832 February 28	16,051,170	6,937,170	24,333,490	6,545,140	6,267,350
August 31	16,320,090	10,478,090	25,439,000	7,214,400	5,236,000
1833 February 28	19,515,000	12,180,000	28,865,000	10,865,000	6,267,350
August 31	19,925,000	11,927,000	25,845,000	10,671,000	5,264,000
1834 February 28	19,050,000	15,087,000	25,819,000	9,225,000	5,200,000
August 31	20,150,000	15,330,000	27,785,000	9,225,000	5,200,000
1835 February 28	18,510,000	10,071,000	24,895,000	5,269,000	5,605,000
August 31	18,085,000	15,725,000	26,175,000	6,225,000	6,118,000
1836 February 28	18,141,000	14,010,000	27,369,000	7,487,000	6,267,350
August 31	18,018,000	14,040,000	27,697,000	6,830,000	5,269,000
1837 February 28	18,185,000	10,007,000	27,297,000	6,077,000	6,079,000
August 31	18,887,000	10,040,000	26,648,000	6,648,000	6,267,350
1838 February 28	18,075,000	10,888,000	21,958,000	10,471,000	5,269,000
August 31	19,485,000	8,928,000	21,011,000	8,840,000	5,711,000
1839 February 28	18,098,000	7,739,000	21,380,000	8,269,000	5,267,350
August 31	17,982,000	6,488,000	25,141,000	2,420,000	5,091,000
1840 February 28	16,504,000	5,566,000	21,611,000	4,511,000	5,267,350
August 31	17,470,000	5,694,000	20,899,000	4,299,000	5,994,000
1841 February 28	16,399,000	6,007,000	21,244,000	4,356,000	5,275,000
August 31	17,370,000	6,590,000	21,690,000	4,899,000	5,267,350
1842 February 28	16,950,000	4,432,000	23,121,000	6,119,000	5,094,000
August 31	20,378,000	6,690,000	29,159,000	9,799,000	5,666,000
1843 February 28	20,818,000	11,250,000	25,564,000	11,016,000	5,274,000

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No. X.—Expenses of the Bank of England, for the Year ending 29th of February, 1832.

	Dr.		£		Cr.	
National debt department	-	-	164,143	Salaries and pensions	-	218,008
Bank notes	-	-	105,021	House expenses	-	39,171
Banking department	-	-	69,165	Directors' allowance	-	8,000
				Rent	-	40,000
				Expenses at eleven branches, arising from the banking department	-	5,708
				Expenses attending the circulation of 2,500,000 <i>l.</i> of branch Bank of England notes, at eleven branches	-	25,508
			4389,400			4389,400

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Besides charging the usual rate of interest on bills discounted, the provincial bankers are mostly in the habit of charging 5*s.* or 6*s.* per cent. as commission. They also charge a commission on all payments, and derive a profit from charges for the transmission of money, &c. They usually allow from 2 to 3 per cent. on money deposited; but the numerous failures that have taken place amongst them have, by generating a feeling of insecurity in the minds of the depositors, confined this branch of their business within comparatively narrow limits. When their customers overdraw their accounts, they are charged with interest at the rate of 5 per cent.

Country banks, established by individuals possessed of adequate funds, and managed with due discretion, are productive of the greatest service. They form commodious reservoirs, where the floating and unemployed capital of the surrounding districts is collected, and from which it is again distributed, by way of loan, to those who will employ it to the best advantage. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance, in a public point of view, that these establishments should be based upon solid foundations. But in England, unfortunately, this, till recently, has been but little attended to; and the destruction of country banks has, upon three different occasions,—in 1792, in 1814, 1815, and 1816, and in 1825 and 1826,—produced an extent of bankruptcy and misery that has never perhaps been equalled, except by the breaking up of the Mississippi scheme in France. Government is bound to interfere to hinder such disastrous results, and we have already given some account of the measures adopted in this view.—(See *anté*, p. 64, &c.)

The following is an account of the number of commissions of bankruptcy issued against country bankers in England from 1809 to 1830, both inclusive:—

Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.
1809	4	1815	25	1821	10	1826	43
1810	20	1816	37	1822	9	1827	8
1811	4	1817	3	1823	9	1828	3
1812	17	1818	3	1824	10	1829	3
1813	8	1819	13	1825	37	1830	14
1814	27	1820	4				

(Appen. to Report on Bank Charter, p. 116.)

Exclusive of the above, many banks stopped payments, to the great injury of their creditors, and the public, that afterwards resumed them; at the same time that the affairs of some bankrupt concerns were arranged without a commission. During the whole of this period not a single Scotch bank gave way.

The stamp duties on country bank notes have been already specified (p. 72.).

Besides the stamp duties payable on notes, each individual or company issuing them must take out a licence, renewable annually, which costs 30*l.* This licence specifies the names and places of abode of the body corporate, person or persons, in the firm to whom it is granted, the name of such firm, the place where the business is carried on, &c.; and a separate licence is to be taken out for every town or place where any notes shall be issued by or on account of any banker, &c. Unless the licence granted to persons in partnership set forth the names and places of abode of all persons concerned in the partnership, whether their names appear on the notes issued by them or not, such licence shall be absolutely void.—(55 Geo. 3. c. 184. s. 24.) For the regulations as to the issue of unstamped notes, see *anté*, p. 69.

The issue of notes for less than 5*l.* was prohibited in England, as previously shown, from 1777 to 1797; but they continued to be issued from the latter period down to the 5th of April, 1829, when their further issue ceased, in consequence of an act passed in 1826. This act did not extend to Scotland or Ireland, and was intended to give greater stability to the system of country banking in England, by shutting up one of the principal channels through which the inferior class of bankers had been in the habit of getting their notes into circulation.

The joint-stock banks established in different parts of England and Wales, under the provisions of the act 7 Geo. 4. c. 46. authorising their establishment, consist of bodies of partners, varying from seven, the minimum, to any greater number. Each partner



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holds one or more shares of the company's stock, and is individually liable for the entire debts and engagements of the company; so that a person holding a 50*l.* or 100*l.* share in a joint-stock bank, may, in the event of its becoming bankrupt, be called upon to make payment of as many thousands of pounds! They are uniformly almost managed by boards of directors appointed by, and generally responsible to, the body of shareholders. The conditions of co-partnership vary materially in different associations; but the above are distinguishing features common to them all. The shares in many joint-stock banks are very small, few being above 100*l.*, the greater number not exceeding 50*l.*, whilst many are only 25*l.*, and some not more than 10*l.* and even 5*l.*! Generally, too, it is understood or rather it is distinctly set forth in the prospectus, that not more than five, ten, or twenty per cent. of these shares is to be called for; so that an individual who has ten or twenty shillings to spare may become a shareholder in a bank. And owing to a practice, or rather a flagrant abuse, introduced into the management of various banks, by which they make large advances or discounts on the credit of the stock held by the shareholders, not a few individuals in doubtful or even desperate circumstances, take shares in them, in the view of obtaining loans, and bolstering up their credit! The great danger arising from such banks is obvious; and were one of them to stop payment, it is plain, even though the claims on it should be ultimately made good, that they could be so only at the cost, and perhaps ruin, of such of its proprietors as had abstained from the abusive practices resorted to by others. It may well excite astonishment, that any one who can really afford to make a *bond fide* purchase of shares in a bank should be foolhardy enough to embark in such concerns.

No doubt a joint-stock bank, if it possess adequate capital and be discreetly managed, may afford ample security to its shareholders and the public. But there is no foundation for the notion, that because a bank has 50 or 100 partners, it will, therefore, be better managed than if it had only 5 or 10. On the contrary, the fair presumption is that it will not be so well managed. A few wealthy individuals engaged in banking, or any other sort of business, must, if they would protect themselves from ruin, pay unremitting attention to their concerns, and act in a discreet and cautious manner. But the partners and managers of a great joint-stock company act under no such direct and pressing responsibility. "I think," said the highest authority on such subjects, "that joint-stock banks are deficient in every thing requisite for the conduct of banking business, except extended responsibility; the banking business requires peculiarly persons attentive to all its details, constantly, daily, and hourly watchful of every transaction, much more than mercantile or trading businesses. It also requires immediate, prompt decisions, upon circumstances when they arise,—in many cases a decision that does not admit of delay for consultation; it also requires a discretion to be exercised with reference to the special circumstances of each case. Joint-stock banks being, of course, obliged to act through agents, and not by a principal, and therefore under the restraint of general rules, cannot be guided by so nice a reference to degrees of difference in the character or responsibility of parties; nor can they undertake to regulate the assistance to be granted to concerns under temporary embarrassment by so accurate a reference to the circumstances, favourable or unfavourable, of each case."—(*Evidence of S. J. Loyd, Esq., before the Committee of 1832 on the Renewal of the Bank Charter.*)

In fact more than nine tenths of the partners in joint-stock banks are wholly ignorant of banking business, and have nothing better to trust to than the supposed honesty and intelligence of the directors; and, even if they were acquainted with the business, the result would be nearly the same, as it would not be possible for any one, by a mere cursory inspection of the books of any bank (if such were permitted), to form any accurate estimate of its condition, or of the mode in which it transacted business. And hence the directors in these establishments are practically all but absolute. If they be worthy of the confidence placed in them, all goes on smoothly; and this also is the case when they are most unworthy, till they have involved the concern in inextricable difficulties! The history of the Norwich Bank, of the Northern and Central Bank, the Marylebone Bank, the Manchester Bank, and a host of others, sufficiently attests the truth of what has now been stated. The responsibility of the directors to the shareholders has not been found, in any of these instances (and it is, indeed, ludicrous to suppose that it ever should be otherwise), to have been any check whatever, over their frauds and improvidence. The whole paid up capital of the Manchester Bank, amounting to about 750,000*l.*, had been wasted in the most improvident speculations, and additional debts incurred, before the great body of the shareholders had the least suspicion that the company was otherwise than prosperous!

We may observe, by the way, that the mischief occasioned by an establishment of this sort, when perverted from its proper objects, and mismanaged, is not to be estimated by the ruin it entails on its partners, and probably, also, on its customers. It becomes, in fact, a public nuisance, and entails privations on many who might be supposed to be beyond the sphere of its influence. Within the ten years ending with

1849, we believe it may be moderately estimated that about 1,500,000*l.* of banking capital was wholly dissipated in Manchester and its immediate vicinity. And as nine tenths of this enormous loss was occasioned by advances made to manufacturers who had little or no capital of their own, it is not easy to imagine what a ruinous stimulus it must have given to reckless competition, and how very injurious it must have been to parties trading on their own capital. Indeed no inconsiderable portion of the distress in Manchester, in 1842 and 1843, may be traced to this source.

A knowledge of the agency by which certain joint-stock banks had been established, of the way in which some of them were conducted, and a well-founded anticipation of the evils of which they would, most likely, be productive, led in 1836 to the appointment of a secret committee by the House of Commons, to inquire into the operation of the act 7 Geo. 4. cap. 46., permitting the establishment of joint-stock banks; and whether it was expedient to make any alteration in its provisions. The report of this committee, and portions of the evidence taken before it, were afterwards published, and confirmed all the conclusions of those who had contended that the existing system required material amendment. The committee state that—

" Subject to the local restrictions imposed for the protection of the privilege of the Bank of England, it is open to any number of persons to form a company for joint-stock banking, whether for the purpose of deposit, or of issue, or of both.

" 1. The law imposes on the joint-stock banks no preliminary obligation beyond the payment of a licence duty, and the registration of the names of shareholders at the Stamp Office.

" 2. The law does not require that the deed of settlement shall be considered or revised by any competent authority whatever; and no precaution is taken to enforce the insertion in such deeds of clauses the most obvious and necessary.

" 3. The law does not impose any restrictions upon the amount of nominal capital. This will be found to vary from 5,000,000*l.* to 100,000*l.*; and in one instance an unlimited power is reserved of issuing shares to any extent.

" 4. The law does not impose any obligation that the whole or any certain amount of shares shall be subscribed for before banking operations commence. In many instances banks commence their business before one half of the shares are subscribed for, and 10,000, 50,000, and 20,000 shares are reserved to be issued at the discretion of the directors.

" 5. The law does not enforce any rule with respect to the nominal amount of shares. These will be found to vary from 1,000*l.* to 5*l.* The effects of this variation are strongly stated in the evidence.

" 6. The law does not enforce any rule with respect to the amount of capital paid up before the commencement of business. This will be found to vary from 10*l.* to 5*l.*

" 7. The law does not provide for any publication of the liabilities and assets of these banks, nor does it enforce the communication of any balance-sheet of the proprietors at large.

" 8. The law does not impose any restrictions by which care shall be taken that dividends are paid out of banking profits only, and that bad or doubtful debts are first written off.

" 9. The law does not prohibit purchases, as *ca.*, and speculative traffic on the part of these companies in their own stock, nor advances to be made on the credit of their own shares.

" 10. The law does not provide that the guarantee fund shall be kept apart and invested in government or other securities.

" 11. The law does not limit the number of branches, or the distance of such branches from the central bank.

" 12. The law is not sufficiently stringent to insure to the public that the names registered at the Stamp Office are the names of persons *bond fide* proprietors, who have signed the deed of settlement, and who are responsible to the public.

" 13. The provisions of the law appear inadequate, or, at least, are disregarded, so far as they impose upon banks the obligation of making their notes payable at the places of issue. All these separate questions appear to your committee deserving of the most serious consideration, with a view to the future stability of the banks throughout the United Kingdom, the maintenance of commercial credit, and the preservation of the currency in a sound state."

Remedial Measures that should be adopted.—The act of 1844, 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32. (see *anté*, p. 84.) has successfully obviated some of the defects formerly existing in the joint-stock and private banking system, especially by limiting the extent of their issues—but in other respects the system is still open to serious objections; and our readers may not, perhaps, be displeased if we retain the remarks made upon it in our former edition, before the act of 1844 was passed. "We do not, however, think that it would be at all necessary, in providing for a secure system of joint-stock banking, to make any regulations with respect to many of the points noticed by the committee as to which the law is silent. At present every partner in a joint-stock bank is liable to the public for the whole debts of the firm; and this may be truly said to be the saving principle of the system, and without which it would be an unmixed evil. No individual should, however, by merely withdrawing from a joint-stock concern, get rid of his liabilities in connection with it. To prevent fraud, and to ensure due caution, these ought to continue for a period of three years at least after he has publicly withdrawn his name. The public, too, are clearly entitled to know the partners in joint-stock associations; that is, to be informed who the individuals are with whom they are dealing, and who are responsible to them. But, unluckily, no effective means are taken for supplying this necessary information, or, consequently, of properly discriminating between one establishment and another. The act of 1833 (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 83.) directed that an account of the places where they carry on business, and of the names and residences of the partners, should be quarterly transmitted to the Stamp Office. But doubts have been entertained as to the correctness of these returns, and comparatively little use has been, or, indeed, can be made of them. The accounts of the names and residences of the proprietors are not published, but are

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secluded from the public eye in the repositories of Somerset House! It is true that these lists may be seen, by those who choose to apply at the office, for a small fee, and that certified copies may be procured at no great expense. But few know that such returns exist; and fewer still have the opportunity, or think of availing themselves of them as sources of information. To render them of any real utility, they should be brought under the public eye, by being hung up in the offices of the banks to which they refer, and periodically published in the newspapers of the places where they carry on business. By this means the public would know exactly to whom they had to look, and would act accordingly. They would not be deceived, as they are liable to be at present; by supposing that, because a bank has a number of partners, some of them must be opulent and trustworthy. They would know the precise state of the fact; and if it were seen, from the quarterly returns, that opulent and intelligent individuals were withdrawing from a bank, every one would be put on his guard, and would naturally conclude that the parties had very sufficient reasons for quitting the concern. Thus far publicity may be made effectual, and would be of the greatest importance. Neither is it possible to allege a single plausible objection to this proposal. It interferes in no degree, nor in any way, with the proceedings of the parties; all that it does is to declare who and what they are; and to this degree of publicity no honest man will object." And we are glad to have to state that this is now effected by the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 52. § 21. See *anté*, p. 84.

"But we have great doubts whether it be possible to carry publicity farther than this. The committee state that 'the law does not provide for any publication of the liabilities and assets of these banks, nor does it enforce the publication of any balance-sheet to the proprietors at large;' and it has been proposed to compel the periodical publication of a statement of this sort; but it is very questionable whether any such publication would not be a great deal worse than useless. It is not proposed that commissioners should be appointed to inspect the accounts of the different banks, and to see that the returns are accurate; this would be too inquisitorial, too cumbersome, and too costly a plan to be thought of for a moment. There would be nothing for it, in fact, but to trust entirely to the honour of the parties! Hence, in all cases in which a disclosure would be really useful, the publication of an account of assets and liabilities would afford the means of deceiving the public, and of representing a bankrupt concern as being in a prosperous condition. Supposing, however, that the parties were, in all instances, perfectly honest, still the publication of a balance-sheet would be good for nothing. Every one knows how sanguine people are in relation to their own affairs; and that debts and obligations that other parties would hardly reckon worth any thing, are estimated by them as if they were so much bullion. But, independently of this, the futility of the thing is obvious. A bank with a capital of 100,000*l.*, discounts bills and other obligations to the extent, perhaps, of 300,000*l.* or 400,000*l.*; the fact that it has discounted them shows that it believes these bills and obligations to be good; and they will, consequently, be reckoned among its assets. But should a revulsion take place, or any circumstance occur to shake credit, these bills may not be worth 100,000*l.*; and those who have dealt with the bank, on the hypothesis of its having capital and assets more than enough to meet all its obligations, may find, to their cost, that it is not possessed of a single shilling, out is, on the contrary, some 200,000*l.* or 300,000*l.* worse than nothing!

"The committee seem to think that some regulation should be enacted, providing that a certain portion of its capital should be paid up before a bank begins business. But the better way would be to prohibit all advertising of *nominal* capital. This, in fact, is a mere device by which to entrap and delude the public. A bank is announced with a capital of 1,000,000*l.*, 2,000,000*l.*, or 3,000,000*l.*; and a great number of people, perhaps the majority, immediately conclude that there can be no risk in dealing with an establishment possessed of so great an amount of property. But what is the fact? The capital advertised is nominal merely; not more perhaps than a tenth or a fifth part of it has been received into the coffers of the bank, and we have nothing better than the statement of the bank proprietors, or their agents, that they will pay up the remainder, if necessary; of which necessity they of course are to be the only judges! Practically this is neither more nor less than a fraud upon the public; it is a contrivance for making 10,000*l.* pass in the public estimation for 100,000*l.*, and for procuring the same degree of credit to its holders. This, however, is not all. Where is the security that if a greater amount of capital were really required, it would be forthcoming? The notion that the bulk of the shareholders in many, we are pretty sure we might safely say most, of the joint-stock banks now in existence, could pay up the full amount of their shares, is too ludicrous to deserve notice. We might as well call upon a man worth 5*l.* to extinguish a debt of 500*l.*

"There can be no doubt, therefore, unless it be meant to affirm that deception and fallacious statements are indispensable to the success of joint-stock banking schemes, that

all advertising of nominal capitals should be put an end to; and that no association should be allowed to represent its capital as exceeding the sum actually paid up by the proprietors. But though this would obviate one source of fraud and deception, there would still be abundant means of practising on the credulity of the public at the disposal of parties inclined to use them. Admit that a bank has a capital of 500,000*l.* actually received into its coffers, what is to hinder the directors from lending out the whole of this sum, or even more, to themselves or to partners in the bank? or supposing them not to do this, who can tell whether the entire capital, or some considerable part of it, be not wholly engulfed in ruinous speculations? It is indeed alleged, and truly too, that this could not happen with any 'respectable' bank; that 'gentlemen of character' would not lend themselves to such transactions! Unluckily, however, there are no decisive marks or tests by which the public can, *a priori*, say what is or what is not a 'respectable' bank, or who is or is not a 'gentleman of character;' and it is not a little hazardous in such matters to indulge in speculative remarks. Hence it is that the Marylebone Bank, the Bank of Manchester, and indeed all banks, are held to be respectable, that is, solvent, till the event prove the contrary; and that all gentlemen connected with banks are held to be 'men of character,' paragons, in fact, of honour, honesty, and intelligence, till their fraud or ignorance has involved hundreds or thousands in bankruptcy and ruin.

"We do not state these circumstances in order to raise any prejudice against joint-stock banks or other associations, for they apply equally to banks with one or a small number of partners; but we state them to show the folly of placing any reliance on statements as to the capital of any bank, or the character of its managers. Such statements may be either true or false; but, as the public cannot tell which, they are plainly good for nothing. The only real security is to be found, if it exist at all, in the names of the partners responsible for the debts and obligations of the bank. The number of such partners is a very inferior consideration. There cannot, in truth, be a greater error than to suppose that because a bank has a great number of partners, its security may be safely depended upon. A single individual worth 100,000*l.* is an incomparably better security than fifty individuals worth 2,000*l.* each; and a hundred individuals worth 1,000*l.* would hardly be any security at all; at least for a sum of 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* A private bank with six may be a safer place of deposit than a joint-stock bank with six hundred partners. Every thing depends upon the *available wealth* of those responsible for the debts of the concern; and hence the propriety and justice, whether the firm consist of one or of many partners, of publicly declaring and specifying their names.

"We are decidedly hostile to a proposition we have heard mooted, and which seems to be countenanced by the committee on joint-stock banks, for obliging all banks to establish a guarantee fund; that is, for obliging them to accumulate a *portion of their profits* as a reserve stock. Where is the security that such reserve would be always deducted from profits? The truth is, that bankrupt and fraudulent concerns, and none else, would gain by such a regulation; inasmuch as it would enable them, by appearing to be prosperous, the better to deceive the public, and to blind them to the real state of their affairs. It is worse than absurd to induce the public to depend on guarantees that cannot be enforced, and which, consequently, must be good for nothing. The knowledge of whom the partners in banks really consist, and their unlimited responsibility, are the only securities that, speaking generally, are worth a pinch of snuff. If these cannot protect the public from fraud or loss, nothing else will; and the question will come to be, not whether the system should be reformed, but whether it should be abated as an incurable nuisance. On this ground also we should be disposed to dissent from any attempt to prevent, by legislative enactment, the making of loans upon the credit of bank stock. We do not question the advantage of such a regulation, provided it were honestly carried into effect. But it is useless to say that, whenever the parties were disposed to defeat such a regulation, it would be quite inoperative.

"Some of the joint-stock banks have an extraordinary number of branches; and the multiplication of these subordinate establishments all over the country is not one of the least striking features of the system. Neither is it very difficult to discover why banks of issue, at least, are so very anxious about the formation of these outworks. They are bound, it seems, by the present law to pay their notes *only at the parent establishment*; so that by issuing them at a branch bank, perhaps a hundred miles distant from the head bank, the chances are ten to one that they will continue for a much longer period in circulation, and that they will consequently be able to carry on business with a less amount of capital, than if they were, as they ought to be, obliged to pay their notes at the branches as well as at the principal office. It is obvious, indeed, that the convertibility of the paper, even of first-class banks, into either cash or Bank of England notes, is at present exceedingly imperfect; and that very great facilities are afforded for getting the worst class of notes into circulation, and for keeping

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them aloft, even after their quality may be suspected. This defect in the law should, undoubtedly, be amended, by obliging all banks that issue notes to pay them indifferently at any of their offices. But we incline to think that parliament might go further than this; and that it should enact that no branch be established, whether for the issue of notes or otherwise, beyond a certain distance (say fifty miles) from the head office.

"Several of the points recapitulated by the committee, as to which the law is silent, respect the rights and interests of the partners in joint-stock banks, in relation to each other, and not as between them and the public. But it is always a very difficult matter to interfere to dictate the footing on which parties in any undertaking should stand among themselves. Much should, in such cases, be left to the judgment of the parties; and public regulations, if enforced at all, should only go to prevent obvious and acknowledged abuse; the parties may, in most cases, be safely left to take care of themselves. The protection of the public interest is the paramount consideration; and we do not well know what can be done to effect this, in the case at least of such banks as do not issue notes, other than the making known who their partners are.

"The joint-stock banks formed in the city of London offer a fair rate of interest for deposits; and if they go on successfully in doing this, they will confer no slight advantage on the community, and will become, as it were, so many savings banks for the middle classes, and for the rich as well as the poor. But the responsibilities this system will bring along with it are neither few nor small. A bank with a numerous body of partners of undoubted wealth and integrity that should give 2 per cent. interest on all deposits of 10*l.* and upwards, how short soever the period for which the deposit might remain in the bank, would, there is little doubt, speedily have ample funds at its disposal. In quiet and prosperous times, the system would work exceedingly well; and the bank and the public would be vastly well pleased with each other. But when the cycle of prosperity has gone by, and the cycle of adversity has begun; when the waters are out and the winds begin to blow,—it is doubtful whether either the bank or its depositors may feel quite at ease. The former will probably raise the rate of interest; but it is doubtful whether that will have the wished-for effect. Should the exchange set against us, and the Bank of England be forced to narrow her issues, and should bankruptcy and a feeling of insecurity begin to prevail, as they have done hitherto on all similar occasions, a run for deposits may, and most probably will, be made upon the bank; and in such a case her situation, however well she may have been managed, will be most critical. She will be compelled to dispose of or pledge securities in a market where they may be all but unsaleable; and it will be impossible for her suddenly to pull up in discounting, without exposing herself to the imminent danger of extra loss, by bringing on the stoppage of those who have been accustomed to trust to her for loans.

"It will be said, perhaps, that this is all imaginary, and that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Scotland! But it would really be about as much to the purpose to say that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Japan. London is the pivot on which the foreign exchanges turn, and when they become depressed many of the London depositors will do what the Scotch depositors never so much as dreamed of; that is, they will demand their deposits, convert them into gold, and either send this gold abroad, or get a profit from those who will. From this source of annoyance and loss the Scotch banks are perfectly free; and this, by exhausting the resources of the London banks, and subjecting the weaker ones to difficulties, occasions discredit, and, in the end, runs or panics. Nothing, therefore, can be more perfectly futile than to contend that because this system has proved profitable for the Scotch banks, it will also be profitable for the London banks. We do not presume to affirm that such will not, and we hope that it may, be the case. But it would be rather illogical to affirm, because wheat succeeds remarkably well in the vale of Gloucester, that it will succeed equally well on the Welsh mountains.

"The joint-stock banks may, if they do not already, endeavour to obviate some of the difficulties now stated, by declining to pay interest on deposits unless they lie for a certain time, or by stipulating for a certain notice before they are paid. But either the one condition or the other is subversive of what is meant by granting interest on deposits, and goes far to make the announcements to that effect little better than a hoax upon the public. All, or nearly all, the existing banks are banks of deposit in this sense of the word; that is, they give interest on deposits of a certain amount, provided they be not called for till after the lapse of an agreed-on period, and that the depositors give them no farther trouble. But it is doubtful whether money deposited at 2 per cent. under such conditions, and still more under an engagement to give notice of demand, be as well laid out as if it were deposited with the Bank of England, or any other bank of undoubted solidity, at no interest, but payable on demand. Most men of business would, undoubtedly, prefer the latter. Nobody, indeed, not wishing to get into difficulties, would be disposed to deal with any bank that required notice of demand; and it is questionable whether any such stipulation should be sanctioned by law.

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"The committee on joint-stock banks omitted all reference to what is by far the most prominent evil in our banking system—we mean the power conceded to all private and joint-stock banks and companies, whether with or without property or character, to issue paper money or notes payable on demand, without let or hindrance of any sort. This abuse should certainly be put down;" and we have already seen that this power can now be but little abused.

"Responsibility ought not, in any case, to be limited.—We protest against the proposal for allowing the partners in banks not issuing notes to limit their responsibility. Such a measure would be good for nothing, except to serve as a premium on every species of fraud. What check would there be, under such a system, to hinder the partners of a bank going on for a series of years dividing large profits, when perhaps they were really incurring a loss, until every farthing of its capital and deposits was absorbed? To talk of subjecting such persons to punishment as fraudulent bankrupts, on evidence derived from their books, is absurd; for, supposing that it was the intention of the parties to defraud, they might easily keep their books so that they could afford no information that was not false or misleading. The annexed list of joint-stock banking companies shows that there is no disinclination on the part of individuals to engage in such concerns, even with the present unlimited responsibility. And the way in which some of them are conducted proves sufficiently, if such proof were wanted, that the serious liabilities incurred by the partners are not more than enough for the protection of the public. To lessen them would be an act of gratuitous folly. If we are to interfere, let them be increased, not diminished. But in the case of banks not issuing notes, enough is done if measures be taken to prevent deception, by letting the public know the partners in them, and making sure that they shall have no means of evading the responsibility attaching to their engagements. The first object may be secured by compelling all banking associations whatever to publish annually a list of the names and addresses of their partners, with the amount of their paid-up capital; and to accomplish the latter object, we have merely to abstain from interference, and to let the law take its natural course."

The existing Regulations in regard to private and joint-stock Bankers in England and Wales are embodied in clauses 11—26 of the stat. 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32., of which we have given a very full abstract. (See *anté*, p. 84.)

Drawing on London.—The act 3 and 4 Will. 4. c. 83. repeals the regulation in the 7 Geo. 4. c. 46., prohibiting banks with more than 6 partners from drawing on London on demand, or otherwise, for sums of less than 50*l.*—§ 2.

An Account of the Number of Private and Joint Stock Banks registered in each Year, from 1820 to 1842, both inclusive.—(*Parl. Paper No. 85. Session 1843.*)

Year.	Number of Private Banks.	Number of Joint Stock Banks.	Year.	Number of Private Banks.	Number of Joint Stock Banks.
1820 to 1821	521	—	1831 to 1832	424	25
1821 to 1822	538	—	1832 to 1833	413	25
1822 to 1823	547	—	1833 to 1834	418	47
1823 to 1824	547	—	1834 to 1835	411	25
1824 to 1825	544	—	1835 to 1836	407	100
1825 to 1826	554	—	1836 to 1837	351	107
1826 to 1827	556	6	1837 to 1838	341	104
1827 to 1828	456	7	1838 to 1839	328	108
1828 to 1829	460	11	1839 to 1840	322	113
1829 to 1830	439	12	1840 to 1841	321	115
1830 to 1831	436	19	1841 to 1842	311	118

A List of the Joint Stock Banking Companies existing in England and Wales in 1846; specifying the Dates of their Establishment, the Number of their Partners, the Amount of their paid-up Capital, the Situation of their head Offices, and of their Branches, when they have any, with the fixed issue of those authorised to issue Notes.*

Banks.	When established.	No. of Partners.	Paid up Capital.	Where situated.	Amount of fixed issue.
Ashton, Stalybridge, Ilk., and Glassop Bank.	18 June 1836	251	37,140	Ashton-under-Lyne.	—
Bank of Bolton	May 1836	150	—	Bolton.	—
Bank of Stockport	May 1836	201	—	Stockport.	—
Bank of Westportland	June 1837	150	—	Kendal.	12,325
Bank of Whitehaven	Jan. 1837	115	50,000	Head Office, Whitehaven; Branch, Wigan.	24,681
Bank of Liverpool	May 1851	458	625,000	Liverpool	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Barnley Banking Company	Feb. 1838	98	37,500	Ramsley	8,063
Berks Union Banking Company	July 1811	56	36,000	Head Office, Newbury; Branches, Reading, Abingdon, Wallingford, and Wallington Agency.	No issue.
Illston District Bank	5 Sept. 1836	98	30,575	Wolverhampton	9,418
Birmingham Town and District Bank.	1 July 1836	231	69,075	Birmingham	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Birmingham Banking Company	30 Sept. 1819	305	200,000	Head Office, Birmingham; Branch, Dudley.	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Birmingham and Midland Bank.	15 Aug. 1836	101	90,000	Birmingham	Bk. of Eng. Notes.

* We are indebted for this table to a valuable publication, the *Banker's Almanack for 1847*; we have also derived much useful information from the *Banker's Magazine*, by the intelligent author of the almanack.

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Joint Stock Banks in England and Wales—continued.

Banks.	When established.	No. of Partners.	Paid-up Capital.	Where situated.	Amount of Issue.
Bradford Commercial Joint Stock Bank.	Feb. 1833	150	-	Bradford (Yorkshire)	80,084
Bradford Banking Company - Burton, Uttoxeter, and Ashbourne Union Bank.	7 July 1837 16 Oct. 1839	151 188	154,000	Bradford (Yorkshire) - Head Office, Burton-upon-Trent; Branches, Uttoxeter and Ashbourne.	49,324 60,701
Bury Banking Company - Carlisle City and District Banking Company.	June 1836 20 Feb. 1837	90	88,000	Bury - Head Office, Carlisle; Branch, Cockermouth.	19,972
Carlisle and Cumberland Banking Company.	8 Oct. 1836	336	51,925	Head Office, Carlisle; Branches, Warton and Appleby.	25,610
Christiansham and Gloucestershire Bank.	19 May 1836	150	40,000	Head Office, Christiansham; Branch, Tewkesbury.	12,786
Chesterfield and North Derbyshire Banking Company, Commercial Bank of London	1 Jan. 1834 1840	96	25,380	Chesterfield - Head Office, Atherston; Branch, Colshill.	10,421
County of Gloucester Bank	1 Aug. 1836	256	31,700	Lechbury and Henrietta Street, Covent Garden.	No Issu.
Coventry Union Banking Company.	12 May 1836	119	36,000	Head Office, Cheltenham; Branches, Burford, Gloucester, Northleach, Cirencester, Faringdon, Durdley, Tetbury, Highworth, Swindon, Stroud.	144,328
Coventry and Warwickshire Banking Company.	Dec. 1835	210	-	Head Office, Atherston; Branch, Colshill.	16,351
Cumberland Union Banking Company.	16 Feb. 1839	158	50,000	Head Office, Workington; Branches, Lockerburn, Maryport, Penrith, Wigton, and Kewick.	25,734
Darlington District Bank	Dec. 1831	290	-	Head Office, Darlington; Branches, Stockton, Stokesley, Northallerton, Harward Castle.	35,290
Derby and Derbyshire Banking Company, Devon and Cornwall Banking Company.	28 Dec. 1833 3 Jan. 1839	137 227	44,650 105,525	Head Office, Derby; Branch, Belgap.	29,134 20,095
Dudley and West Bromwich Bank.	Dec. 1833	160	-	Head Office, Plymouth; Branches, Devonport, Exeter, Collymore, Newton, Tonsme, Kingsbridge, Tavistock, Liskeard, St. Austell, Bodmin, and Looe.	37,696
East of England Bank	Dec. 1835	300	105,000	Head Office, Dudley; Branch, West Bromwich.	25,095
Glanorganshire Banking Company, Gloucestershire Banking Company.	Sept. 1836 28 June 1831	170 284	71,625 120,000	Head Office, Norwich; Branches, East Dereham, Fakenham, North Walsham, Banbury, Halesworth, Harleston, Swaffham, Yarmouth, and Lynn.	155,980
Halifax Joint Stock Bank, Halifax Commercial Banking Company, Halifax and Huddersfield Union Bank.	11 Nov. 1829 21 June 1836 1 July 1836	182 147 314	65,000 67,000 189,000	Head Office, Gloucester; Branches, Cheltenham, Tewkesbury, Stroud, Newnham, Evesham, Cirencester, and Snow-on-the-Wold.	16,534 13,735
Hampshire Banking Company	April 1834	180	60,000	Head Office, Halifax; Branch, Huddersfield.	44,137
Helston Banking Company - Herefordshire Banking Company.	Aug. 1836 5 Aug. 1836	13 88	485,571 10s.	Hd. Office, Southampton; Branches, Fareham, Newport, Kinsley and Ryde.	1,205 25,047
Huddersfield Banking Company	June 1827	293	140,000	Head Office, Hereford; Branches, Leominster, Evesham, and Hay.	37,354
Hull Banking Company	Nov. 1833	290	-	Hd. Office, Huddersfield; Branches, Holmthorpe and Dewsbury.	29,333
Kingsbridge Joint Stock Bank - Knaresborough and Claro Banking Company, Lancaster Banking Company	Dec. 1841 Sept. 1831 29 Oct. 1836	- 140 128	- - 97,200	Head Office, Hull; Branches, Barton, Beverley, and Grimsby.	5,358 29,609
Leeds Banking Company - Leeds Commercial Bank (ceased business), Leeds & West Riding Banking Company (do.)	29 Nov. 1828 June 1836 Nov. 1835	334 184 160	130,000 - -	Head Office, Knaresborough; Branches, Eastwold and Ripon.	64,511
Leicestershire Banking Company	28 Aug. 1829	198	90,400	Head Office, Lancaster; Branches, Kirby Lonsdale, Ulverston, and Preston.	25,076 15,914
Leamington Bank - Leamington Priors and Warwickshire Bank	May 1833 Aug. 1835	120 80	- -	Head Office, Leeds; Branch, Bradford.	18,937
Lincoln and Lindsay Bank	Aug. 1833	200	77,000	Head Office, Leicester; Branches, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Hinckley, Market Harborough, Melton Mowbray, Market Bosworth, and Abenotens.	86,060
Liverpool Borough Bank - Liverpool Banking Company - Liverpool Commercial Bank	1 July 1836 Mar. 1836 Dec. 1832	328 150 278	416,050 - 338,600	Head Office, Leamington; Branches, Banbury, Kenilworth, Southam, and Warwick.	18,673
Liverpool Royal Bank - Liverpool Union Bank	April 1836 1 May 1835	250 279	600,000 260,150	Head Office, Lincoln; Branches, Alford, Brigg, Gainsborough, Horncastle, Louth, Market Hallam, Stamford, Spilsby.	51,680
London and County Joint Stock Bank.	Jan. 1829	414	200,000	Liverpool - Head Office, London; Branches, Arundel, Ashford, Aylesbury and Thame, Banbury, Bishops Cleeve, and Seffron Walden, Braintree, Brighton, Buckingham, Cambridge, Canterbury, Chatham, Chelmsford, Chichester, Coggeshall, Cranbrook, Croydon, Dover, Gravesend, Greenwich, Halstead, Herford and Ware, Hornham and Dorking, Huntingdon and St. Ives, Lighton Buzzard, Lewes, Luton, Dunstable and Hitchin, Malden, Malden, Malden, Oxford and Wincey,	8,000

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Joint Stock Banks in England and Wales—continued.

Amount of Issue.	Bank.	When established.	No. of Partners.	Paid-up Capital.	Where situate.	Amount of Issue.
30,084					Peersfield, Potworth and Midhurst, Romford and Chipping Ongar, Ry, Sandwich, Seven Oaks, St. Neots, Stoney Stratford and Newport, Farnell, Tantenford, Cambridge, Wellingborough, Woolwich, Worthing, Wrotham.	
48,399					Head Office, Princess Street; Branch, 69, Pall Mall, London.	No issue.
80,701					Head Office, Lombury; Branches: St. James's Square; 114, High Holborn; 3, Wellington Street, Borough; 187, High Street, Whitechapel; and 4, Stratford Place, Oxford Street.	No issue.
19,972	London Joint Stock Bank	Nov. 1836	-	600,000		
25,610	London and Westminster Bank	Mar. 1834	1,083	800,000		
12,786						
10,421						
No issue.	Lodow and Terbury Bank	Nov. 1840	11	-	Lodow	10,315
144,322	Manchester and Suffolk Bank	15 Aug. 1836	156	255,900	Manchester	£k. of Eng. Notes.
	Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company.	23 Nov. 1839	617	750,000	Head Office, Manchester; Branches, Liverpool, Stockport, Oldham, Hanley, Nantwich, Ashton-under-Lyne, Warrington, Bury, Blackburn, Stretford, Wigan, Stalybridge, Rochdale, Marple, Field Sub-Branches connected with Hanley, Leek, Chesley, Burslem; with Nantwich, Market Drayton; with Ashton, Pilsley, Glossop; with Rochdale, Tottonmorden.	£k. of Eng. Notes.
16,251						
22,734						
35,263						
26,134	Monmouthshire and Gloucestershire Bank.	July 1836	330	192,370	Head Office, Newport; Branches, Abergavenny, Monmouth, Chepstow, Pontypool, Tredegar, and Lida.	£k. of Eng. Notes.
20,093						
£k. of Eng. Notes.	Moore and Robinson's Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	10 Oct. 1836	145	72,000	Nottingham	35,318
37,696	National Provincial Bank of England.	Dec. 1833	650	450,000	Head Office, London; Branches, Abergavenny, Alnwick, Banquet, Barnstable, Bath, Bielefeld, Birmingham, Blandford, Boston, Brecon, Bristol, Bury St. Edmunds, Cardiff, Cheltenham, Darlington, Dartmouth, Deal, Devonport, Dorchester, Dover, Dudley, Exeter, Gloucester, Hereford, Holywell, London, Llantrisant, Ipswich, Leicester, Locomotive, Lichfield, Manchester, Newport, Isle of Wight, Newport (Isle), Newtown, Northwich, Peterborough, Plymouth, Portsea, Portsmouth, Fulwell, Ramsgate, Rugby, Rugeley, Shrewsbury, Sherbourne, South Molton, Southampton, Stockton, Tintern, Tiverton, Torrington, Totton, Wem, Whitechurch, Wimbome, Wisbech, Worcester, Wotton-under-Edge, Yarmouth Sub-Branches, Isla, Bannard Castle, Bridgend, Bromyard, Chipping Norton, Cowbridge, Cryfan, Denbigh, Folestone, Haleworth, Hartlepool, Huy, Llangefeli, Llanwr, Long Mutton, Llanwrst, March, Machynlleth, Mold, Oshampton, Poole, Portmadoc, Ramsey, Ryde, Isle of Wight, Sandwich, Spalding, Stockley, Sturminster, Treginnis, Wrexham, Whitliffe, and Woodbridge.	442,371
35,025						
155,290						
18,534						
13,733						
44,137						
£k. of Eng. Notes.	Newcastle Commercial Banking Company.	1 Aug. 1836	198	50,000	Newcastle-upon-Tyne	£k. of Eng. Notes.
25,076	Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland Union Joint Stock Banking Company.	1 July 1836	505	152,400	Head Office, Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Branches, North Shields, South Shields, Sunderland, Hartlepool, Durham, Alnwick, and Berwick-on-Tweed.	84,130
37,354						
29,333						
3,958						
28,059						
64,311						
£k. of Eng. Notes.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne Banking Company (ceased business).	June 1836	130	-	Newcastle	£k. of Eng. Notes.
13,914	North of England Banking Company.	Nov. 1839	860	-	Head Office, Newcastle; Branches, Alnwick, Berwick-on-Tweed, Durham, Hesham, Morpeth, North and South Shields, Hlyth, Sunderland, and Wooler.	£k. of Eng. Notes.
18,937						
86,060						
18,875	Northamptonshire Banking Company.	13 May 1836	221	51,205	Head Office, Northampton; Branches, Daventry, Wellingborough, Sitemford.	26,401
51,620	Northamptonshire Union Bank	1 July 1836	444	107,500	Head Office, Northampton; Branches, Wellingborough and Daventry.	84,356
£k. of Eng. Notes.	Northumberland and Durham District Banking Company.	23 May 1836	378	300,000	Head Office, Newcastle-upon-Tyne; Branches, Alnwick, Hesham, Morpeth, North Shields, Sunderland, Durham, South Shields.	£k. of Eng. Notes.
£k. of Eng. Notes.	North and South Wales Bank	April 1836	291	215,450	Head Office, Liverpool; Branches, Abergavenny, Bangor, Bishop's Castle, Carnarvon, Chester, Denbigh, Dolgelly, Festiniog, Holyhead, Holywell, Llangefeli, Llanwr, Mold, Newtown, Oswestry, Portmadoc, Pwllheli, Ruthin, Walspool, Wrexham, Birkenshead, Cardigan, Conway.	63,301
£k. of Eng. Notes.	North Wilts Banking Company	9 Nov. 1833	193	40,000	Head Office, Melksham; Branches, Chippenham, Bradford, Malmesbury, Marlborough, Swindon, Wootton Bassett, Highworth, Wensbury.	63,608

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Joint Stock Banks in England and Wales—*continued.*

Bank.	When established.	No. of Partners.	Paid-up Capital.	Where situate.	Amount of fixed issue.
Nottingham and Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	18 April 1834	890	196,647	Head Office, Nottingham; Branches, Newark, Mansfield, Worksop, East Retford, and Loughborough.	29,477
Oldham Banking Company.	Sept. 1838	50	-	Oldham.	-
Parva Leicestershire Banking Company.	12 Mar. 1836	115	109,921	Head Office, Leicester; Branches, Hinckley, Loughborough, Leicestershire, Melton Mowbray.	50,300
Portsmouth, Portsea, Homport, and South Hants Banking Company.	April 1839	60	-	Head Office, Portsea; Branch, Gosport.	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Freston Banking Company - (ceased business).	Sept. 1838	83	45,000	Freston.	-
Sheffield Union Banking Company.	June 1843	73	27,040	Head Office, Sheffield; Branch, Retford.	12,744
Huddersworth Banking Company.	June 1838	86	-	Head Office, Huddersfield; Branches, Ashburton-under-Lyne and Oldham.	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Sheffield and Rotherham Bank.	June 1836	240	-	Head Office, Sheffield; Branches, Rotherham and Halesworth.	2,112
Sheffield Banking Company.	1 July 1851	159	109,576	Head Office, Sheffield; Branches, Rotherham.	58,496
Sheffield and West Yorkshire Bank.	20 May 1851	426	123,425	Head Office, Sheffield; Branches, Sheffield.	25,242
Shropshire Banking Company.	27 May 1838	220	43,000	Head Office, Shifnal; Branches, Wellington, Newport, Colebrook Dale.	47,981
South Lancashire Bank - Stamford, Spalding, and Boston Bank.	May 1830 Dec. 1831	250 78	-	Manchester. Head Office, Stamford; Branches, Spalding, Boston, Dundee, Uppingham, and Housay; Agencies, Crowland, Deeping, Melton, Oakham, Wainthorpe, and Sleaford.	55,721
Stourbridge and Kidderminster Banking Company.	10 April 1834	190	73,000	Head Office, Stourbridge; Branches, Kidderminster and Stratford-on-Avon; Agencies, Bromsgrove, Redditch, Henley-in-Arden, Shipston-on-Strou, Chipping Norton, Merton-in-Marsh.	56,830
Stockton and Durham County Bank.	Dec. 1838	150	-	Stockton-on-Tees and Guisborough.	8,900
Stores and Thomas' Bank, Shaftesbury.	Feb. 1840	14	-	Shaftesbury and Gillingham.	9,714
Stuckey's Banking Company.	Oct. 1839	54	-	Head Office, Bristol; Branches, Abridge, Bath, Bridgewater, Bruton, Castle Cary, Chard, Chewton, Frome, Glastonbury, Ilchester, Ilminster, Langport, Midsomer Norton, Weston Mallet, Somerton, South Fisherton, Taunton, Wellington, Wells, Weston-super-Mare, Williston, Wincanton, and Yeovil.	356,976
Sunderland Joint Stock Banking Company.	4 Aug. 1836	112	73,000	Sunderland.	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
Uxaleale and Wansleydale Banking Company.	30 Dec. 1836	304	53,400	Head Office, Richmond; Branches, Leyburn, Bedale, and Hawes.	54,372
Union Bank of London.	4 Feb. 1839	630	422,900	Head Office, Princes Street, Mansion House; Branches, Argyll Place, and Pall Mall.	No issue.
Union Bank of Manchester.	May 1836	330	-	Manchester.	Bk. of Eng. Notes.
West Riding Union Bank.	Dec. 1832	460	-	Head Office, Huddersfield; Branches, Dewsbury, and on Fridays at Wakefield.	84,029
Whitechurch and Ellensmere Banking Company.	Jan. 1840	32	-	Head Office, Whitechurch; Branch, on Tuesdays at Ellensmere.	7,470
Wakefield and Barnsley Union Bank.	25 Oct. 1832	160	40,000	Head Office, Wakefield; Branch, Barnsley.	14,604
Warwick and Leamington Banking Company.	1 Sep. 1834	85	22,800	Head Office, Warwick; Branches, Leamington, Stratford-on-Avon, and Southam.	37,184
West of England and South Wales District Bank.	23 Dec. 1834	478	267,327.10s	Head Office, Bristol; Branches, Bath, Barnstaple, Bridgewater, Cardiff, Exeter, Newport, Taunton, Wells, Abridge, Merthyr Tydfil, and Gwent.	85,555
Whitehaven Joint Stock Bank.	June 1839	220	42,373	Head Office, Whitehaven; Branch, Penrith.	31,916
Wills and Dorset Bank.	Jan. 1838	400	-	Head Office, Salisbury; Branches, Axminster, Blandford, Chippenham, Christchurch, Devizes, Dorchester, Fordingbridge, Freeton, Lynton, Malmesbury, Marlborough, Mera, Sherborne, Trowbridge, Warminster, Wimborne, Wootton Bassett, Yeovil.	76,168
Worcester City and County Bank.	Nov. 1840	84	-	Worcester.	6,848
Wolverhampton and Staffordshire Banking Company.	2 Jan. 1832	217	50,000	Wolverhampton.	35,378
Yorkshire Banking Company (late Yorkshire District Bank).	6 July 1843	408	144,964	Head Office, Leeds; Branches, York, Hull, Doncaster, Selby, Thirsk, Bradford, Freeton, Ripon, Huddersfield, Beverley, Bettis Wharfedale.	122,539
York City and County Bank.	Mar. 1830	varies.	100,000	Head Office, York; Branches, Boroughbridge, Goolds, Howden, Ripon, Scarborough, Selby, Whitby, and Malton.	54,695
York Union Bank.	April 1830	280	66,000	Head Office, York; Branches, Barnlington, Driffield, Thirsk, Malton; Sub-Branches, Helmsley, Kirby Moorside, Market Weighton, Pickering, Pocklington, Tadcaster.	71,940
Total of Joint Stock Issues.					3,418,277

IV. BANKS (SCOTCH).

The act of 1708, preventing more than 6 individuals from entering into a partnership for carrying on the business of banking, did not extend to Scotland. In consequence of this exemption, several banking companies, with numerous bodies of partners, have always existed in that part of the empire.

Bank of Scotland.—This institution was projected by Mr. John Holland, merchant, of London, and was established by act of the Scotch parliament (Will. 3. Parl. 1. § 5.) in 1695, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of Scotland. Its original capital was 1,200,000*l.* Scotch, or 100,000*l.* sterling, distributed in shares of 1000*l.* Scotch, or 83*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling, each. The act exempted the capital of the bank from all public burdens, and gave it the exclusive privilege of banking in Scotland for 21 years. The objects for which the bank was instituted, and its mode of management, were intended to be, and have been, in most respects, similar to those of the Bank of England. The responsibility of the shareholders is limited to the amount of their shares.

The capital of the bank was increased to 200,000*l.* in 1744, and was enlarged by subsequent acts of parliament, the last of which (44 Geo. 3. c. 23.) was passed in 1804, to 1,500,000*l.*, its present amount. Of this sum, 1,000,000*l.* has been paid up. The last-mentioned act directed that all sums relating to the affairs of the bank should henceforth be rated in sterling money; that the former mode of dividing bank stock by shares should be discontinued; and that, for the future, it should be transferred in any sums or parcels. On the union of the two kingdoms in 1707, the Bank of Scotland undertook the recoinage, effected the exchange of the currency in Scotland: it was also the organ of government in the issue of the new silver coinage in 1817.

The Bank of Scotland is the only Scotch bank constituted by act of parliament. It began to establish branches in 1696, and issued notes for 1*l.* so early as 1704. The Bank also began, at a very early period, to receive deposits on interest, and to grant credit on cash accounts; a minute of the directors with respect to the mode of keeping the latter being dated so far back as 1729. It is, therefore, entitled to the credit of having introduced and set on foot the distinctive principles of the Scotch banking system, which, whatever may be its defects, is probably superior to every other system hitherto established. Generally speaking, the Bank of Scotland has always been conducted on sound and liberal principles; nor can there be a doubt that it has been productive, both directly and as an example to other banking establishments, of much public utility and advantage.

It may be worth mentioning, that the act of Will. 3., establishing the Bank of Scotland, declared that all foreigners who became partners in the Bank should, by doing so, become, to all intents and purposes, naturalised Scotchmen. After being for a long time forgotten, this clause was taken advantage of in 1818, when several aliens acquired property in the bank in order to secure the benefit of naturalisation. But after being suspended, the privilege was finally cancelled in 1822.

We subjoin an *official* abstract of the constitution and objects of the Bank of Scotland, printed for the use of the proprietors;—the terms and mode of transacting business are, of course, sometimes altered, according to circumstances.

I. The Bank of Scotland is a public national establishment; erected and regulated by the legislature alone; and expressly as a public bank in this kingdom; for the benefit of the nation, and for the advancement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures; and for other objects of public policy.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.; 14 Geo. 3. c. 32.; 24 Geo. 3. c. 8.; 32 Geo. 3. c. 25.; 34 Geo. 3. c. 19.; 44 Geo. 3. c. 23.)

II. The statutory capital is at present 1,500,000*l.* sterling. It is raised by voluntary subscription; and has been subscribed for, 1,000,000*l.* has been called for, and paid in.—(44 Geo. 3. c. 23.)

III. Subscribers, if not under obligation to the Bank, may, at pleasure, transfer their right. If under obligation to the Bank, the obligation must be previously liquidated; or the proceeds of the sale, at a price to the satisfaction of the directors, must be applied towards such liquidation. Transfers are made by a short assignment and acceptance thereof, both in a register appointed for that purpose. The expense, beside the government stamp, is 1*l.*—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.)

IV. Bank of Scotland stock may be acquired, in any portions by any person, community, or other lawful party whatsoever; without selection, exclusion, or limitation of numbers.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5., 44 Geo. 3. c. 23.)

V. Bank of Scotland stock may be conveyed by will, and, if specially mentioned, without expense of confirmation. It cannot be arrested: the holder's right may be adjudged. Dividends may be arrested.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.)

VI. The Bank of Scotland is a public corporation by act of parliament. The Bank's transactions are distinct from those of the stockholders; and theirs from those of the Bank.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.)

VII. The establishment is expressly deferred from any other business than that of banking.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.)

VIII. The management is vested, by statute, in a governor, deputy governor, twelve ordinary, and twelve extraordinary directors. They are chosen annually, on the last Tuesday of March, by the stockholders having 250*l.* of stock or upwards. Those above 250*l.* have a vote for every 250*l.*, to 5,000*l.*, or 20 votes. No person can have more than 20 votes. The governor must hold, at least, 2,000*l.* of stock; the deputy governor 1,000*l.* and each director 750*l.* They swear to be equal to all persons; and cannot hold any inferior office in the Bank.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.; 14 Geo. 3. c. 23.; 44 Geo. 3. c. 23.)

IX. The executive part is conducted by a treasurer, secretary, and other public officers, all sworn. Those having the official charge of cash find due security.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 5.)

X. The Board of directors sits for the general administration of the Bank, at the Bank's Public Head

Office in Edinburgh. The local business of that district is also conducted at that office. For the local business in the other parts of the kingdom, the Bank has its regular public offices in the principal towns. At each of these offices there is the bank agent or cashier, who gives due security, and conducts the Bank's business for that district in the manner after mentioned. There is also the bank's accountant for that office, who is appointed by the directors.—(Will. Parl. 1. § 8.)

XI. The Bank takes in money, at all its public offices, on deposit receipts or promissory notes, or on current deposit account.* At the head office, draughts on London, or on any of the agencies, are given at each agency, draughts on London, or on the Head Office, are given. All these documents are on the Bank's check (and sealed with the Bank's seal †). They bear, in words, to be "For the Bank of Scotland," or, "For the Governor and Company of the Bank of Scotland." These documents are signed, if at Edinburgh, by the treasurer, and countersigned by the principal accountant; if at an agency, they must be signed by the Bank's agent as agent, and countersigned by the Bank's accountant for that agency; otherwise they infer no obligation on the Bank.—(Resolution of Court, 23d Feb. 1788.)

XII. Bills on London, Edinburgh, or any town where the Bank has its official correspondents, are discounted and purchased at all the Bank's public offices. The Bank's agents Judge, in ordinary cases, of the bills presented, so that parties meet with no delay. The Bank does not sell, at any of its offices, the bills which it has discounted and purchased. Its agents cannot indorse its bills, unless officially to the treasurer.—(Resolution of Court, 23d Feb. 1788.)

XIII. Government stock and other public funds, transferable in London, may be purchased or sold, and dividends thereon may be received through the Bank.

XIV. The Bank gives credit on cash accounts at any of its offices, on bond, with security. The security may be personal co-obligants, conjunctly and severally; or Bank of Scotland stock; or both; or such other security as may be specially agreed on. Applications for cash accounts are given in to the office where the cash account is wanted, and must specify the credit desired, and the security proposed; and the individual partners, where copartneries are proposed. Cash accounts are granted by the directors only, and are not recalled unless by their special authority. It is understood that these credits are not used as dead loans, to produce interest only. In the fair course of business, the advantage of the Bank is secured by an active circulation of its notes, and by frequent repayments to it in a way least affecting the circulation.—(Resolutions of Court, 6th Nov. 1795, and 23d Feb. 1788.)

XV. The Bank's dividend of profits has been for some considerable period 6 per cent. per annum, on its paid-up capital of 1,000,000 sterling. The dividends are paid regularly twice a year, without expense. They may be drawn either at the Bank's Head Office, or at any of its other offices, as most agreeable to the stockholder.

Most of the other Scotch banks are conducted on the same principles and in the same way as the Bank of Scotland, so that the details as to its management will nearly apply to them all.

The Royal Bank of Scotland was established in 1727. Its original capital of 151,000*l.* has been increased to 2,000,000*l.*

The British Linen Company was incorporated in 1746, for the purpose, as its name implies, of undertaking the manufacture of linen. But the views in which it originated were speedily abandoned; and it became a banking company only. Its capital amounts to 800,000*l.*

None of the other banking companies established in Scotland are chartered associations, with limited responsibility; the partners being jointly and individually liable, to the whole extent of their fortunes, for the debts of the firms. Some of them, such as the National Bank, the Commercial Banking Company, the Dundee Commercial Bank, the Perth Banking Company, &c., have very numerous bodies of partners. Their affairs are uniformly conducted by a Board of Directors, annually chosen by the shareholders.

The Bank of Scotland began, as already stated, to issue 1*l.* notes so early as 1704; and their issue has since been continued without interruption. "In Scotland," to use the statement given in the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons of 1826 on the Promissory Notes of Scotland and Ireland, "the issue of promissory notes payable to the bearer on demand, for a sum of not less than 20*s.*, has been at all times permitted by law; nor has any act been passed limiting the period for which such issue shall continue legal in that country. In England, the issue of promissory notes for a less sum than 5*l.* was prohibited by law from the year 1777 to the epoch of the Bank Restriction in 1797. It has been permitted since 1797; and the permission will cease, as the law at present stands, in April, 1829."

There have been comparatively few bankruptcies among the Scotch banks. In 1793 and 1825, when so many of the English provincial banks were swept off, there was not a single establishment in Scotland that gave way. This superior stability seems to be ascribable partly to the formation of so many banks with numerous bodies of partners, which tends to prevent any company with only a few partners, unless they are known to possess considerable fortunes, from getting paper into circulation; partly to the less risk attending the business of banking in Scotland; and partly to the facility afforded by the law of Scotland of attaching a debtor's property, whether it consist of land or moveables, and making it available to the payment of his debts.

In the Report already quoted, the last-mentioned topic is touched upon as follows:—"The general provisions of the law of Scotland bearing upon this subject are calculated to promote the solidity of banking establishments, by affording to the creditor great facilities of ascertaining the pecuniary circumstances of individual partners, and

* The Bank has always allowed interest on deposits. The rate allowed varies, of course, with the variations in the market rate. During the greater part of the late war it was as high as 4 per cent.; but at present (January 1847) it is only 3 per cent.

† The seal is now dispensed with, except on the Bank's notes.

by making the private fortunes of those partners available for the discharge of the obligations of the bank with which they are connected. There is no limitation upon the number of partners of which a banking company in Scotland may consist; and, excepting in the case of the Bank of Scotland and the two chartered banks, which have very considerable capitals, the partners of all banking companies are bound jointly and severally, so that each partner is liable, to the whole extent of his fortune, for the whole debts of the company. A creditor in Scotland is empowered to attach the real and heritable, as well as the personal estate of his debtor, for payment of personal debts, among which may be classed debts due by bills and promissory notes; and recourse may be had, for the purpose of procuring payment, to each description of property at the same time. Execution is not confined to the real property of a debtor merely during his life, but proceeds with equal effect upon that property after his decease.

"The law relating to the establishment of records gives ready means of procuring information with respect to the real and heritable estate of which any person in Scotland may be possessed. No purchase of an estate in that country is secure until the seisin (that is, the instrument certifying that actual delivery has been given) is put on record, nor is any mortgage effectual until the deed is in like manner recorded.

"In the case of conflicting pecuniary claims upon real property, the preference is not regulated by the date of the transaction, but by the date of its record. These records are accessible to all persons; and thus the public can with ease ascertain the effective means which a banking company possesses of discharging its obligations; and the partners in that company are enabled to determine, with tolerable accuracy, the degree of risk and responsibility to which the private property of each is exposed."

Deposits. — As was previously observed, all the Scotch banks receive deposits of so low a value as 10*l.*, and sometimes lower, and allow interest upon them.

"The interest," says the committee, "allowed by the Bank upon deposits varies, from time to time, according to the current rate of interest which money generally bears. At present (1826) the interest allowed upon deposits is 4 per cent." (At this moment (1846) the interest allowed on deposits is 3 per cent.) "It has been calculated that the aggregate amount of the sums deposited with the Scotch banks amounts to about 20,000,000*l.* or 21,000,000*l.*" (It is believed to be now (1846) little, if any thing, under 28,000,000 or 30,000,000*l.*) "The precise accuracy of such an estimate cannot of course be relied on. The witness by whom it was made thought that the amount of deposits could not be less than 16,000,000*l.*, nor exceed 25,000,000*l.*, and took an intermediate sum as the probable amount. Another witness, connected for many years with different banks in Scotland, and who has had experience of their concerns at Stirling, Edinburgh, Perth, Aberdeen, and Glasgow, stated that more than one half of the deposits in the banks with which he had been connected were in sums from ten pounds to two hundred pounds. Being asked what class of the community it is that makes the small deposits, he gave the following answer; from which it appears that the mode of conducting this branch of the banking business in Scotland has long given to that country many of the benefits derivable from the establishment of savings banks.

"*Question.* What class of the community is it that makes the smallest deposits?—*Answer.* They are generally the labouring classes in towns like Glasgow: in country places like Perth and Aberdeen, it is from servants and fishermen, and that class of the community, who save small sums from their earnings till they come to be a bank deposit. There is now a facility for their placing money in the Provident Banks, which receive money till the deposit amounts to 10*l.* When it comes to 10*l.* it is equal to the minimum of a bank deposit. The system of banking in Scotland is an extension of the Provident Bank system. Half-yearly or yearly these depositors come to the bank, and add the savings of their labour, with the interest that has accrued upon the deposits from the previous half-year or year, to the principal; and in this way it goes on, without being at all reduced, accumulating (at compound interest) till the depositor is able either to buy or build a house, when it comes to be 100*l.*, or 200*l.*, or 300*l.*, or till he is able to commence business as a master in the line in which he has hitherto been a servant. A great part of the depositors of the bank are of that description, and a great part of the most thriving of our farmers and manufacturers have arisen from such beginnings."

Cash Accounts or Credits.—The loans or advances made by the Scotch banks are either in the shape of discounts, or upon cash credits, or, as they are more commonly termed, *cash accounts.*

This species of account does not differ in principle from an over-drawing account at a private banker's in England. A cash credit is a credit given to an individual by a banking company for a limited sum, seldom under 100*l.* or 200*l.*, upon his own security, and that of two or three individuals approved by the bank, who become sureties for its payment. The individual who has obtained such a credit is enabled to draw the whole sum, or any part of it, when he pleases, replacing it, or portions of it, according as he

finds it convenient; interest being charged upon such part only as he draws out. "If a man borrows 5,000*l.* from a private hand, besides that it is not always to be found when required, he pays interest for it whether he be using it or not. His bank credit costs him nothing, except during the moment it is of service to him, and this circumstance is of equal advantage as if he had borrowed money at a much lower rate of interest."—(*Hume's Essay on the Balance of Trade.*) This, then, is plainly one of the most commodious forms in which advances can be made. Cash credits are not, however, intended to be a *dead loan*; the main object of the banks in granting them is to get their notes circulated, and they do not grant them except to persons in business, or to those who are frequently drawing out and paying in money.

The system of cash credits has been very well described in the Report of the Lords' Committee of 1826 on Scotch and Irish Banking. "There is also," say their lordships, "one part of their system, which is stated by all the witnesses (and, in the opinion of the committee, very justly stated) to have had the best effects upon the people of *Scotland*, and particularly upon the middling and poorer classes of society, in producing and encouraging habits of frugality and industry. The practice referred to is that of cash credits. Any person who applies to a bank for a cash credit is called upon to produce two or more competent sureties, who are jointly bound; and, after a full inquiry into the character of the applicant, the nature of his business, and the sufficiency of his securities, he is allowed to open a credit, and to draw upon the bank for the whole of its amount, or for such part as his daily transactions may require. To the credit of the account he pays in such sums as he may not have occasion to use, and interest is charged or credited upon the daily balance, as the case may be. From the facility which these cash credits give to all the small transactions of the country, and from the opportunities which they afford to persons who begin business with little or no capital but their character, to employ profitably the minutest products of their industry, it cannot be doubted that the most important advantages are derived to the whole community. The advantage to the banks who give these cash credits arises from the call which they continually produce for the issue of their paper, and from the opportunity which they afford for the profitable employment of part of their deposits. The banks are indeed so sensible that, in order to make this part of their business advantageous and secure, it is necessary that their cash credits should (as they express it) be frequently operated upon, that they refuse to continue them unless this implied condition be fulfilled. The total amount of their cash credits is stated by one witness to be 5,000,000*l.*, of which the average amount advanced by the banks may be one third."

The expense of a bond for a cash credit of 500*l.* is 4*l.* stamp duty, and a charge of from 5*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* per cent. for filling it up.

Law in regard to Banking in Scotland. We subjoin a full abstract of the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 38., regulating the issue of bank notes in Scotland.

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT, 8 & 9 VICT. c. 38., TO REGULATE THE ISSUE OF BANK NOTES IN SCOTLAND.

Bankers claiming to issue Bank Notes to give Notice to Commissioners of Stamps and Taxes.—Whereas by the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 32. s. 10., intitled "An Act to regulate the Issue of Bank Notes, and for giving to the Bankers and Company of the Bank of England certain Privileges for a limited Period," it was enacted, that, from and after the passing of that act no person, other than a banker who on the 6th day of May, 1844, was lawfully issuing his own bank notes, should make or issue bank notes in any part of the U. K.: and whereas it is expedient to regulate the issue of bank notes by such bankers as are now by law authorized to issue the same in Scotland: be it therefore enacted, that every banker claiming to be entitled to issue bank notes in Scotland shall, within 1 month next after the passing of this act, give notice in writing to the commissioners of stamps and taxes, at their head office in London, of such claim, and of the place and name and firm at and under which such banker has issued such notes in Scotland during the year next preceding the 1st day of May, 1845, and thereupon the said commissioners shall ascertain if such banker was on the 6th day of May, 1844, and from thence up to the 1st day of May, 1845, carrying on the business of a banker and lawfully issuing his own bank notes in Scotland, and if it shall so appear, then the said commissioners shall proceed to ascertain the average amount of the bank notes of such banker which were in circulation during the said period of 1 year preceding the 1st day of May, 1845, according to the returns made by such banker in pursuance of the act 4 & 5 Vict. c. 50., intitled "An act to make further Provision relative to the Returns to be made by Banks of the Amount of their Notes in circulation;" and the said commissioners, or any 2 of them, shall certify under their hands to such banker the average amount when so ascertained as aforesaid, omitting the fractions of a pound, if any; and it shall be lawful for every such banker to continue to issue his own bank notes after the 31st day of December, 1845, to the extent of the amount so certified, and of the amount of gold and silver coin held by such banker at the head office or principal place of issue of such banker, in the proportion and manner herein-after mentioned, but not to any further extent; and from and after the 6th day of December, 1845, it shall not be lawful for any banker to make or issue bank notes in Scotland, save and except only such bankers as shall have obtained such certificate from the commissioners of stamps and taxes.—§ 1.

Provision for united Banks.—If it shall be made to appear to the commissioners of stamps and taxes that any 2 or more banks have by written contract or agreement (which contract or agreement shall be produced to the said commissioners) become united within the year next preceding such 1st day of May, 1845, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to ascertain the average amount of the notes of each such bank in the manner herein-before directed, and to certify a sum equal to the average amount of the notes of the 2 or more banks so united, as the amount which the united bank shall thereafter be authorized to issue, subject to the regulations of this act.—§ 2.

Duplicate of Certificate to be published in the Gazette.—The commissioners of stamps and taxes shall, at the time of certifying to any banker such particulars as they are herein-before required to certify, also

publish a duplicate of their certificate thereof in the next succeeding London Gazette in which the same may be conveniently inserted; and the Gazette in which such publication shall be made shall be conclusive evidence in all courts whatsoever of the amount of bank notes which the banker named in such certificate or duplicate is by law authorized to issue and to have in circulation as aforesaid, exclusive of an amount equal to the monthly average amount of the gold and silver coin held by such banker as herein provided.—§ 3.

If Banks become United.—Commissioners to certify the Amount of Notes which each Bank was authorized to issue.—In case it shall be made to appear to the commissioners of stamps and taxes, at any time hereafter, that any 2 or more banks have by written contract or agreement (which contract or agreement shall be produced to the said commissioners) become united subsequently to the passing of this act, it shall be lawful to the said commissioners, upon the application of such united bank, to certify in manner herein-before mentioned the aggregate of the amount of bank notes which such separate banks were previously authorized to issue under the separate certificates previously delivered to them, and so from time to time; and every such certificate shall be published in manner herein-before directed, and from and after such publication the amount therein stated shall be and be deemed to be the limit of the amount of bank notes which such united bank may have in circulation, exclusive of an amount equal to the monthly average amount of the gold and silver coin held by such bank, as herein provided.—§ 4.

Issue of Notes for fractional Parts of a Pound prohibited.—All bank notes to be issued or re-issued in Scotland shall be expressed to be for payment of a sum in pounds sterling, without any fractional parts of a pound; and if any banker in Scotland shall, from and after the 6th day of December, 1845, make, sign, issue, or re-issue any bank note for the fractional part of a pound sterling, or for any sum together with the fractional part of a pound sterling, every such banker so making, signing, issuing, or re-issuing any such note as aforesaid shall for each note so made, signed, issued, or re-issued forfeit or pay the sum of 20l.—§ 5.

Limitation of Bank Notes in circulation.—From and after the 6th day of December, 1845, it shall not be lawful for any banker in Scotland to have in circulation, upon the average of a period of 4 weeks, to be ascertained as herein-after mentioned, a greater amount of notes than an amount composed of the sum certified by the commissioners of stamps and taxes as aforesaid and the monthly average amount of gold and silver coin held by such banker at the head office or principal place of issue of such banker during the same period of 4 weeks, to be ascertained in manner herein-after mentioned.—§ 6.

Issuing Banks to render Accounts weekly.—Every banker who after the 6th day of December, 1845, shall issue bank notes in Scotland shall, on some one day in every week after the 13th day of December, 1845, (such day to be fixed by the commissioners of stamps and taxes), transmit to the said commissioners a just and true account of the amount of bank notes of such banker in circulation at the close of the business on the next preceding Saturday, distinguishing the notes of M. and upwards, and the notes below M., and also an account of the total amount of gold and silver coin, held by such banker at the head office or principal place of issue in Scotland of such banker at the close of business on each day of the week ending on the same Saturday, and also an account of the total amount of gold and silver coin in Scotland held by such banker at the close of business on that day; and on completing the first period of 4 weeks, and so on completing each successive period of 4 weeks, every such banker shall annex to such account the average amount of bank notes of such banker in circulation during the said 4 weeks, distinguishing the bank notes of M. and upwards and the notes below M., and the average amount of gold and silver coin respectively held by such banker at the head office or principal place of issue in Scotland of such banker during the said 4 weeks, and also the amount of bank notes which such banker is, by the certificate published as aforesaid in the London Gazette, authorized to issue under the provisions of the act; and every such account shall specify the head office or principal place of issue in Scotland of such banker, and shall be verified by the signature of such banker or his chief cashier, or in case of a company or partnership by the signature of the chief cashier or other officer duly authorized by the directors of such company or partnership, and shall be made in the form to this act annexed marked (A); and if any such banker shall neglect or refuse to render or send any such account in the form and at the time required by this act, or shall at any time render a false account, such banker shall forfeit the sum of 100l. for every such offence.—§ 7.

What shall be deemed to be Bank Notes in circulation.—All bank notes shall be deemed to be in circulation from the time the same shall have been issued by any banker, or any servant or agent of such banker, until the same shall have been actually returned to such banker, or some servant or agent of such banker.—§ 8.

Commissioners of Stamps and Taxes to make a monthly Return.—From the returns so made by each banker to the commissioners of stamps and taxes the said commissioners shall, at the end of the first period of 4 weeks after said 6th day of December, 1845, and so at the end of each successive period of 4 weeks, make out a general return in the form to this act annexed marked (B) of the monthly average amount of bank notes in circulation of each banker in Scotland during the last preceding 4 weeks, and of the average amount of all the gold and silver coin held by such banker, and certifying under the hand of any officer of the said commissioners duly authorized for that purpose, in the case of each such banker, whether such banker has held the amount of coin required by law during the period to which the said return shall apply, and shall publish the same in the next succeeding London Gazette in which the same can be conveniently inserted.—§ 9.

Mode of ascertaining the average Bank Notes of each Banker in circulation and Gold Coin, during the first Four Weeks after 31st December, 1845.—For the purpose of ascertaining the monthly average amount of bank notes of each banker in circulation, the aggregate of the amount of bank notes of each such banker in circulation at the close of the business on Saturday of each week during the first complete period of 4 weeks next after the 6th day of December, 1845, shall be divided by the number of weeks, and the average so ascertained shall be deemed to be the average of bank notes of each such bank in circulation during such period of 4 weeks, and so in each successive period of 4 weeks; and the monthly average amount of gold and silver coin respectively held as aforesaid by such banker shall be ascertained in like manner from the amount of gold and silver coin held by such banker at the head office or principal place of issue in Scotland of such banker at the close of business on Saturday in each week during the same period; and the monthly average amount of bank notes of each such banker in circulation during any such period of 4 weeks is not to exceed a sum made up by adding the amount certified by the commissioners of stamps and taxes as aforesaid and the monthly average amount of gold and silver coin held by such banker as aforesaid during the same period.—§ 10.

In taking the Account of Coin held by Bankers, Silver Coin not to exceed the Proportion of One-fourth of Gold.—In taking account of the coin held by any such banker as aforesaid, with respect to which bank notes to a further extent than the sum certified as aforesaid by the commissioners of stamps and taxes may, under the provisions of this act, be made and issued, no amount of silver coin exceeding 1-4th part of the gold coin held by such banker as aforesaid shall be taken into account, nor shall any banker be authorized to make and issue bank notes in Scotland on any amount of silver coin held by such banker exceeding the proportion of 1-4th part of the gold coin held by such banker as aforesaid.—§ 11.

Commissioners of Stamps and Taxes empowered to cause the Books of Bankers to be inspected.—Whereas in order to ensure the rendering of true and faithful accounts of the amount of bank notes in circulation, and the amount of gold and silver coin held by such banker, as directed by this act, it is necessary that the commissioners of stamps and taxes should be empowered to cause the books of bankers issuing such notes, and the gold and silver coin held by such bankers as aforesaid, to be inspected as herein-after mentioned; be it therefore enacted, that all and every the book and books of any banker who shall issue

bank notes under the provisions of this act, in which shall be kept, contained, or entered any account, minute, or memorandum of or relating to the bank notes issued or to be issued by such banker, or of or relating to the amount of such notes in circulation from time to time, or of or relating to the gold and silver coin held by such banker from time to time, or any account, minute, or memorandum the sight or inspection whereof may tend to secure the rendering of true accounts of the average amount of such notes in circulation and gold and silver coin held as directed by this act, or to test the truth of any such account, shall be open for the inspection and examination at all reasonable times of any officer of stamp duties authorized in that behalf by writing signed by the commissioners of stamps and taxes, or any two of them; and every such officer shall be at liberty to take copies of or extracts from any such book or account as aforesaid, and to inspect and ascertain the amount of any gold or silver coin held by such banker; and if any banker or other person keeping any such book, or having the custody or possession thereof or power to produce the same, shall, upon demand made by any such officer showing (if required) his authority in that behalf, refuse to produce any such book, or such officer for his inspection and examination, or to permit him to inspect and examine the same, or to take copies thereof or extracts therefrom, or of or from any such account, minute, or memorandum as aforesaid, kept, contained, or entered therein, or if any banker or other person having the custody or possession of any coin belonging to such banker shall refuse to permit or prevent the inspection of such gold and silver coin as aforesaid, every such banker or other person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided always, that the said commissioners shall not exercise the powers aforesaid without the consent of the Lords of the Treasury. — § 12.

All Bankers to return their Names once a Year to the Stamp Office. — Every banker in Scotland who is now carrying on or shall hereafter carry on business as such, other than the Bank of Scotland, the Royal Bank of Scotland, and the British Linen Company, shall, on the 1st of January in each year, or within 15 days thereafter, make a return to the commissioners of stamps and taxes, at their head office in London, of his name, residence, and occupation, or, in the case of a company or partnership, of the name, residence, and occupation of every person composing or being a member of such company or partnership, and also the name of the firm under which such banker, company, or partnership carry on the business of banking, and where such business is carried on, and any such banker, company, or partnership shall omit or refuse to make such return within 15 days after the said 1st of January, or shall wilfully make other than a true return of the persons as herein required, every banker, company, or partnership so offending shall forfeit or pay the sum of 50*l.*; and the said commissioners of stamps and taxes shall on or before the 1st of March in every year publish in some newspaper circulating within each town or county to which the head office or principal place of issue of any bank or bank company shall be situated a copy of the return so made by every banker, company, or partnership carrying on the business of bankers within such town or county respectively, as the case may be. — § 13.

Penalty on Bankers issuing in excess. — If the monthly average circulation of bank notes of any banker, taken in the manner herein directed, shall at any time exceed the amount which such banker is authorized to issue and to have in circulation under the provisions of this act, such banker shall in every such case forfeit a sum equal to the amount by which the average monthly circulation, taken as aforesaid, shall have exceeded the amount which such banker was authorized to issue and to have in circulation as aforesaid. — § 14.

Bank of England Notes not a legal Tender in Scotland. — Whereas by an act passed in the 3 & 4 Will. 4. intitled "An Act for giving to the Corporation of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England certain Privileges for a limited Period, under certain Conditions," it was enacted, that from and after the 1st of August, 1834, unless and until parliament should otherwise direct, a tender of a note or notes of the governor and company of the Bank of England, expressed to be payable to bearer on demand, should be a legal tender to the amount expressed in such note or notes, and should be taken to be valid as a tender to such amount for all sums above 5*l.* on all occasions on which any tender of money may be legally made, so long as the Bank of England should continue to pay on demand their said notes in legal coin; provided always, that no such note or notes should be deemed a legal tender of payment by the governor and company of the Bank of England, or any branch bank of the said governor and company; and whereas doubts have arisen as to the extent of the said enactment; for removal whereof be it enacted and declared, that nothing in the said last-mentioned act contained shall extend or be construed to extend to make the tender of a note or notes of the governor and company of the Bank of England a legal tender in Scotland; provided always, that nothing in this act contained shall be construed to prohibit the circulation in Scotland of the notes of the governor and company of the Bank of England, as heretofore. — § 15.

*Notes for less than 20*l.* not negotiable in Scotland.* — All promissory or other notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of any sum or sums of money, or any orders, notes, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the delivery of any goods, specifying their value in money less than the sum of 20*l.* in the whole, heretofore made or issued, or which shall hereafter be made or issued in Scotland, shall, from and after the 1st day of January, 1846, be and the same are hereby declared to be absolutely void and of no effect, any law, statute, usage, or custom to the contrary thereof in anywise notwithstanding; and if any person or persons shall, after the 1st day of January, 1846, by any art, device, or means whatsoever publish or utter in Scotland any such notes, bills, drafts, or engagements as aforesaid for a less sum than 20*l.*, or on which less than the sum of 20*l.* shall be due, and which shall be in anywise negotiable or transferable, or shall negotiate or transfer the same in Scotland, every such person shall forfeit and pay for every such offence any sum not exceeding 20*l.* nor less than 5*l.*, at the discretion of the justice of the peace who shall hear and determine such offence. — § 16.

*Notes of 20*l.* or above, and less than 5*l.*, to be drawn in certain Form.* — All promissory or other notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of 20*l.*, or any sum of money above that sum and less than 5*l.*, or on which 20*l.*, or above that sum and less than 5*l.*, shall remain undischarged, and which shall be issued within Scotland, any time after the 1st day of January, 1846, shall specify the names and places of abode of the persons respectively to whom or to whose order the same shall be made payable, and shall bear date before or at the time of drawing or issuing thereof, and not on any day subsequent thereto, and shall be made payable within the space of 21 days after the day of the date thereof, and shall not be transferable or negotiable after the time hereby limited for payment thereof, and every endorsement to be made thereon shall be made before the expiration of that time, and to bear date at or not before the time of making thereof, and shall specify the name and place of abode of the person or persons to whom or to whose order the money contained in every such note, bill, draft, or undertaking is to be paid; and the signing of every such note, bill, draft, or undertaking, and also of every such endorsement, shall be attested by 1 subscribing witness at the least; and which said notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, may be made or drawn in words to the purport or effect as set out in the schedules to this act annexed marked (C) and (D); and all promissory or other notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of 20*l.*, or any sum of money above that sum and less than 5*l.*, or in which 20*l.*, or above that sum and less than 5*l.*, shall remain undischarged, and which shall be issued in Scotland at any time after the said 1st day of January, 1846, in any other manner than as aforesaid, and also every endorsement on any such note, bill, draft or other undertaking to be negotiated under this act, other than as aforesaid, shall and the same are hereby declared to be absolutely void, any law, statute, usage, or custom to the contrary thereof in anywise notwithstanding; provided always, that nothing in this clause contained shall be construed to extend to any such bank notes as shall be lawfully issued by any banker in Scotland authorized by this act to continue the issue of bank notes. — § 17.

Joint Stock Banking Companies in Scotland—*continued*.

Banks.	When established.	No. of Partners.	Paid-up Capital.	Where situated.	Amount of Fixed Issues.
Commercial Bank of Scotland.	1810	- -	600,000	Head Office, Edinburgh; Branches, Aberdeen, Alloa, Annan, Arbroath, Banff, Beith, Biggarr, Blairgowrie, Cambuslang, Colinton, Crieff, Cromarty, Cupar, Dalry, Dalkeith, Dumfries, Dundee, Dundee, Dunfermline, Dunkeld, Elgin, Eyemouth, Falkirk, Forfar, Grangemouth, Glasgow, Hamilton, Hawick, Inverness, Kelso, Kilmarnock, Kirkcaldy, Kirkwall, Lanark, Leith, Leven, Linlithgow, Musselburgh, Newburgh, Perth, Peterhead, Strirling, Tain, Thurso, Wick, Invergordon, Pitlochry, Turriff; Sub-Branches, Bonhill, Kinross, Kilmarnock, Markinch, and Menzies.	374,880
Clydesdale Banking Co.	1858	1377	807,000	Head Office, Glasgow; Branches, Edinburgh, Alexandria, Arran, Cupar, Campbellton, Falkirk, Greenock, Port Glasgow, Rothesay, Boness, Strirling, St. Andrews, and Girvan.	101,048
Dundee Bank	-	-	-	Head Office, Dundee; Branch, Forfar.	53,451
Eastern Bank of Scotland	1838	510	400,000	Head Office, Dundee; Branches, Ayr, Struthers, Invercleving, and Montrose.	33,636
Edinburgh and Glasgow Bank.	31 Dec. 1838	1589	1,000,000	Head Office, Edinburgh; Branches, Ayr, Dalkeith, Dollar, Dumfries, Galashiels, Glasgow, Kinross, Leith, Locherly, Melrose, Midcalders, New Galloway, Newton Stewart, Penicuik, St. Andrews, Strirling, Strathroy, Tilloch, Whitburn, and Wigton.	136,657
National Bank of Scotland	21 Mar. 1825	1497	1,000,000	Head Office, Edinburgh; Branches, Aberdeen, Airdrie, Arbroath, Banff, Bathgate, Burntisland, Castle Douglas, Dalkeith, Dingwall, Dumfries, Dundee, East Linton, Falkirk, Forfar, Fort William, Galashiels, Glasgow, Grantown, Inverness, Inverury, Islay, Jedburgh, Kelso, Kirkcaldy, Kirkwall, Langholm, Leith, Montrose, Nairn, Oban, Perth, Portree, Strirling, Stormroy, Stronness, and Whitburn.	297,024
North of Scotland Banking Company.	11 Oct. 1856	1504	282,565	Head Office, Aberdeen; Branches, Auchincloche, Banff, Beaulieu, Dufftown, Elgin, Fraserburgh, Huntly, Inverness, Invergordon, Keith, Macduff, Peterhead, Portree, Strathaven, Tain, Turriff; Sub-Branches, Allon, Banchoy, Aberchirler, Elton, Inch, Oldmeldrum, Old Deer, New Deer, Strichen, Terland, Buckie, Fortrose, and Rhynie.	154,519
North British Bank Perth Banking Company	- 1766	- 181	- 100,000	Head Office, Glasgow.	38,458
Royal Bank of Scotland	1727	901	2,000,000	Head Office, Edinburgh; Branches, Dalkeith, Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Fort Glasgow, and Rothesay.	183,000
Union Bank of Scotland, (late Glasgow Union Bk.)	8 April, 1844 5 April, 1850	606	1,000,000	Head Offices, Edinburgh and Glasgow; Branches, Alloa, Auchtermuchty, Ayr, Barchess, Bathgate, Beith, Doune, Dumblane, Galston, Girvan, Greenock, Irvine, Inverary, Johnstone, Kinross, Kilmarnock, Kirkcaldy, Lerwick, Lochalsh, Maybole, Moffat, Neilston, Paisley, Fort Glasgow, Stewarton, Strirling, Strathgry, Strathaven, Thornhill, and Troon.	327,223
Western Bank of Scotland	11 Oct. 1852	1156	1,700,000	Head Office, Glasgow; Branches, Airdrie, Alloa, Arbroath, Birt, Brechin, Carnwath, Campsie, Coatbridge, Dalry, Dumfries, Dumfries, Dundee, Edinburgh, Forfar, Gatehouse, Greenock, Haddington, Hamilton, Helensburgh, Killybeg, Kirkcaldy, Kirktullock, Lanark, Largo, Leuchalsh, Leuchinoch, Leuchrie, Millport, Moffat, Montrose, Musselburgh, North Berwick, Paisley, Pollok, Portobello, Rothesay, Tubermore, Beith, Boness, Fort Glasgow, Greenock Bank, Greenock, Ayr, Ardrossan, Cairn, Dumfries, Irvine, Kilmarnock, Maybole, Muirkirk, Newmill, Saltcoats, Stewarton, Troon, Oban, Cupar, Elgin, Dunfermline, Dunoon, and Eagleshaw.	337,938
				Total	3,087,249

V. BANKS (IRISH).

"In no country, perhaps," says Sir Henry Parnell, "has the issuing of paper money been carried to such an injurious excess as in Ireland. A national bank was established in 1783, with similar privileges to those of the Bank of England, in respect to the restriction of more than 6 partners in a bank; and the injury that Ireland has sustained from the repeated failure of banks may be mainly attributed to this defective regulation. Had the trade of banking been left as free in Ireland as it is in Scotland, the want of paper money that would have arisen with the progress of trade would, in all probability, have been supplied by joint-stock companies, supported with large capitals, and governed by wise and effectual rules.

"In 1797, when the Bank of England suspended its payments, the same privilege was extended to Ireland; and after this period the issues of the Bank of Ireland were rapidly increased. In 1797, the amount of the notes of the Bank of Ireland in circulation was 621,917*l.*; in 1810, 2,266,471*l.* and in 1814, 2,986,999*l.*

"These increased issues led to corresponding increased issues by the private banks, of which the number was 50 in the year 1804. The consequence of this increase of paper was a great depreciation of it; the price of bullion and guineas rose to 10 per cent. above the mint price, and the exchange with London became as high as 18 per cent., the par being 8*½*. This unfavourable exchange was afterwards corrected, not by any reduction in the issues of the Bank of Ireland, but by the depreciation of the British currency in the year 1810, when the exchange between London and Dublin settled again at about par.

"The loss that Ireland has sustained by the failure of banks may be described in a few words. It appears by the Report of the Committee on Irish Exchanges in 1804, that there were at that time in Ireland 50 registered banks. Since that year a great many more have been established; but *the whole have failed*, one after the other, involving the country from time to time in immense distress, with the following exceptions:—first, a few that withdrew from business; secondly, four banks in Dublin; thirdly, three at Belfast; and, lastly, one at Mallow. These eight banks, with the New Provincial Bank, and the Bank of Ireland, are the only banks now existing in Ireland.

"In 1821, in consequence of 11 banks having failed nearly at the same time in the preceding year in the south of Ireland, government succeeded in making an arrangement with the Bank of Ireland by which joint-stock companies were allowed to be established at a distance of 50 miles (Irish) from Dublin, and the Bank was permitted to increase its capital 500,000*l.* The act of 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 72. was founded on this agreement.

"But ministers having omitted to repeal in this act various restrictions on the trade of banking that had been imposed by 33 Geo. 2. c. 14., no new company was formed. In 1824 a party of merchants of Belfast, wishing to establish a joint-stock company, petitioned parliament for the repeal of this act of Geo. 2., and an act was accordingly passed in that session repealing some of the most objectionable restrictions of it (the 5 Geo. 4. c. 73.).

"In consequence of this act the Northern Bank of Belfast was converted into a joint-stock company, with a capital of 500,000*l.*, and commenced business on the 1st of January, 1825. But the remaining restrictions of 33 Geo. 2., and certain provisions contained in the new acts of 1 & 2 Geo. 3. and 5 Geo. 4., obstructed the progress of this company, and they found it necessary to apply to government to remove them; and a bill was accordingly introduced which would have repealed all the obnoxious clauses of the 33 Geo. 2., had it not been so altered in the committee as to leave several of them in force. In 1825 the Provincial Bank of Ireland commenced business, with a capital of 2,000,000*l.*; and the Bank of Ireland has of late established branches in all the principal towns in Ireland.

"The losses that have been sustained in Ireland by abusing the power of issuing paper have been so great, that much more is necessary to be done, by way of protecting the public from future loss, than the measure proposed last session (1826) by ministers of abolishing small notes, and the measure already adopted of allowing joint-stock companies to be established in the interior of the country. As the main source of the evil consists in the interference of the law in creating a national bank with exclusive privileges, the first step that ought to be taken for introducing a good system into Ireland is the getting rid of such a bank, and opening the trade of banking in Dublin. The next measure should be the requiring of each bank to give security for the amount of paper that is issued; for after the experience of the ignorance with which the Irish banks have conducted their business, and the derangement of the natural course of the trade by the long existence of the Bank of Ireland, it would be unwise to calculate upon a sound system of banking speedily supplanting that which has been established.

"Under the circumstances in which Ireland is placed, nothing would so much contri-

Amount of
and Issues.

774,880

101,028

55,451

33,636

136,657

297,024

154,519

38,156

185,000

327,223

337,938

5,047,219

bute to her rapid improvement in wealth as the introducing of the Scotch plan of cash credits, and of paying interest on deposits. By cash credits the capital which now exists would be rendered more efficient, and the paying of interest on small deposits would lead to habits of economy, and to the more rapid accumulation of new capital."—(*Observations on Paper Money, &c.*, by Sir Henry Parnell, pp. 171—177.)

The capital of the Bank of Ireland at its establishment in 1783 amounted to 600,000*l.*; but it has been increased at various periods, and has, since 1821, amounted to 3,000,000*l.* The Bank of Ireland draws on London at 10 days' date. She neither grants cash credits, nor allows any interest on deposits. She discounts at the rate of 5*l.* per cent.

In 1828 the currency of Ireland was assimilated to that of Great Britain. Previously to that period the currency of the former was 8*l.* per cent. less valuable than that of the latter.

Subjoined is

A Statement exhibiting the Amount of the Liabilities and of the Assets of the Bank of Ireland on the 20th February, 1841.

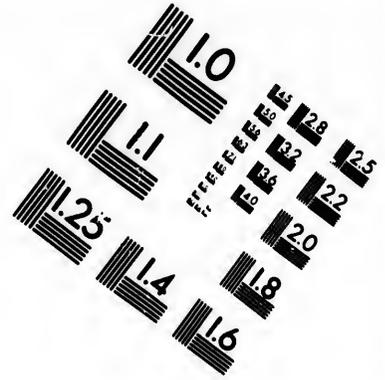
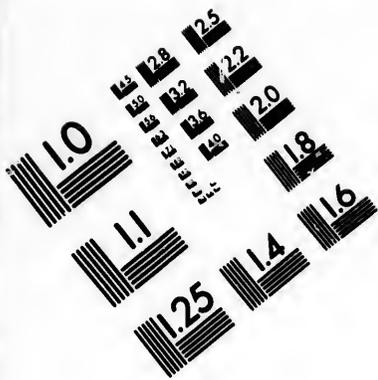
Liabilities.		Assets.	
	£		£
Circulation		Securities:	
£5 and above	1,833,500	Public	2,772,900
Under	1,411,000	Private, viz.	
	3,244,500	Notes and bills discounted	2,580,800
Deposits:		All other private securities	697,100
Public	894,400		3,177
Private, and sundry balances	1,865,100	Specie	1,116,300
	2,699,500		27,066 <i>l.</i>
	25,944,000		
Excess of Assets over Liabilities		£1,122,400, exclusive of the capital of the Bank.	

Provincial Bank of Ireland.—This important establishment was, as already stated, founded in 1825. Its subscribed capital consists of 2,000,000*l.*, divided into 20,000 shares of 100*l.* each, of which 25 per cent., or 500,000*l.*, has been paid up. Its head office is in London; and at present it has subordinate offices in Cork, Limerick, Clonmel, Londonderry, Sligo, Wexford, Waterford, Belfast, Galway, Armagh, Athlone, Coleraine, Kilkenny, Ballina, Tralee, Youghall, Enniskillen, Monaghan, Banbridge, and Ballymena. The last 5 have been opened since 1831. The entire management of the establishment is vested in the court of directors in London. The business of the branch banks is conducted, under the control of the head office, by the managers, with the advice and assistance of 2 or more gentlemen of respectability in the district, each holding 10 shares in the bank. The business consists of discounting bills; granting cash credits after the manner of the Scotch banks; receiving deposits, on which interest, varying according to circumstances, is allowed; in drawing and giving letters of credit on other places of Ireland, Great Britain, &c.; and of other details incident to banking. It has had several pretty severe runs to sustain. In the course of a single week, in October, 1828, about 1,000,000*l.* in gold was sent from England to Ireland on account of the Provincial Bank! This prompt and ample supply effectually maintained the credit of the establishment, and did much to restore confidence.

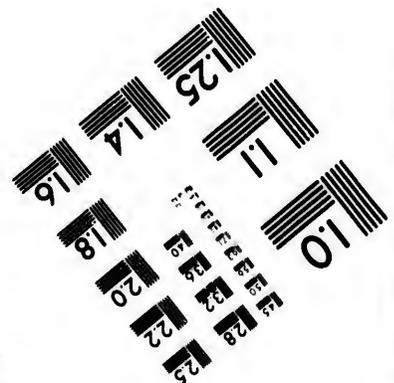
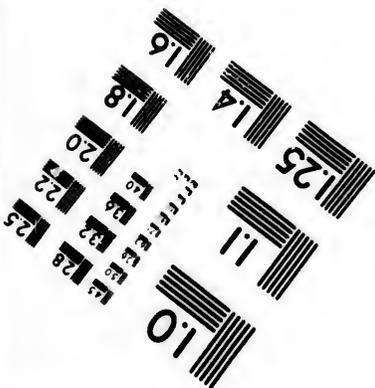
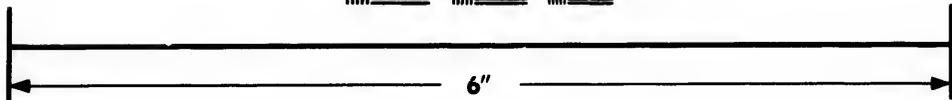
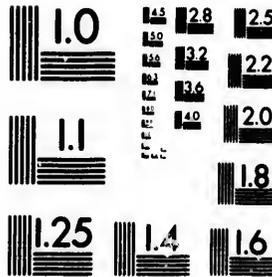
The notes of the Provincial Bank have always been payable at the places where they are issued. The Bank of Ireland began to establish branches in 1825; but the notes issued by her branches were not, at first, payable except at the head office in Dublin. This distinction, which tended to throw the principal pressure of runs in the country on the Provincial Bank and other private companies, was abolished by the act 9 Geo. 4. Several joint-stock banks have been established in Ireland since 1825, especially in 1836. But the greatest of these, the Agricultural and Commercial Bank, which had nearly 4,000 partners and 28 branches, was in no long time obliged to suspend payments, and is now in the course of having its affairs wound up. Some of the others have also been abandoned. There are comparatively few private banks in Ireland.

The provisions in the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 37., with regard to banking in Ireland, do not differ materially from those in the preceding act relating to Scotland. The prohibition that formerly existed against joint-stock banks carrying on business in Dublin or anywhere within 50 miles thereof is repealed; the charter of the Bank of Ireland is prolonged till January, 1855, when it may be dissolved on notice; notes of the Bank of England are declared not to be legal tender in Ireland; and notes for less than 20*l.* are not to be negotiable.





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

1.5 2.8 2.5
1.6 3.2 2.2
1.8 2.0
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1.0

shares. The affairs of the bank are managed by a president, secretary, and 5 directors, who are chosen every 6 months, but may be indefinitely re-elected. This bank discounts bills of exchange with three responsible signatures; it takes continuations on stock, and sometimes lends on bullion at such a rate of interest and to such an extent as may be agreed upon. It occasionally, also, makes loans on merchandise, but never at less than 5 per cent. Its notes vary from 1,000 florins to 25 florins; that is, from 83*l.* to 2*l.* The dividends have varied from 3 to 7 per cent. The shares are each 1,000 florins. The responsibility of the shareholders is limited to the amount of their stock. Its original charter, which was limited to 25 years, was prolonged in 1838 for 25 years more.

The *Bank of Hamburg* is a deposit bank, and its affairs are managed according to a system that insures the fullest publicity. It receives no deposits in coin, but only in bullion of a certain degree of fineness. It charges itself with the bullion at the rate of 442 schillings the mark, and issues it at the rate of 444 schillings; being a charge of $\frac{1}{10}$ ths, or nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., for its retention. It advances money on jewels to $\frac{1}{10}$ ths of their value. The city is answerable for all pledges deposited with the bank; they may be sold by auction, if they remain 1 year and 6 weeks without any interest being paid. If the value be not claimed within 3 years, it is forfeited to the poor. The Bank of Hamburg is universally admitted to be one of the best managed in Europe.

The *Bank of France* was founded in 1803. The exclusive privilege of issuing notes payable to bearer was granted to it for 40 years, and was continued by a law passed in 1840 till 1867. This law was preceded by a very able Report, drawn up by M. Dufaure, in which, among other questions, the policy of having only one bank of issue in Paris is examined, and decided in the affirmative. The capital of the bank consisted at first of 45,000,000 fr.; but it was subsequently increased to 90,000,000 fr., divided into 90,000 shares or *actions* of 1,000 fr. each. Of these shares 67,900 are in the hands of the public: 22,100 having been purchased up by the bank out of her profits were subsequently cancelled; so that her capital consists at present of 67,900,000 fr. (2,716,000*l.*) exclusive of a reserve fund of 10,000,000 fr. represented by 500,000 fr. 5 per cent. rentes. The capital of the bank was divided on the 1st of January, 1840, among 4,207 shareholders. The notes issued by the bank are for 1,000 and 500 fr. The dividend varies from 4 to 5 per cent. Bonuses of 200 fr. and 132 fr. a share were paid out of this reserve to the shareholders in 1820 and 1831. No bills are discounted that have more than three months to run. The customary rate of discount is 4 per cent., but it varies according to circumstances. The discounts in 1839 amounted to 1,188,719,400 fr., of which 136,640,000 fr. were by the bank's branches. At an average of the 10 years ending with 1838, the bank notes in circulation amounted to 213,730,000 fr., and the average amount of the specie in reserve in the bank's coffers during the same period amounted to 188,706,000 fr. The bank is obliged to open a *compte courant* for every one who requires it, and performs services for those who have such accounts similar to those rendered by the private banks of London to their customers. She is not allowed to charge any commission upon current accounts, so that her only remuneration arises out of the use of the money placed in her hands by the individuals whose payments she makes. This branch of the business is said not to be profitable. The bank advances money on pledges of different kinds, such as foreign coin or bullion, government or other securities, &c. It also undertakes the care of valuable articles, as plate, jewels, title-deeds, &c. The charge is $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the value of each deposit for every period of 6 months or under.

The administration of the bank is vested in a council-general of 20 members, viz. a governor and deputy governor, nominated by the king; and 15 directors and 3 censors, chosen by the general body of the shareholders. We beg to subjoin

A Statement of the Liabilities and Assets of the Bank of France, on the 25th of December, 1842, deduced from the Official Statement of the Situation of the Bank published in the *Moniteur*.

Liabilities.		Assets.	
	France, Cents.		France, Cents.
Bank notes in circulation	241,254,658 40	Cash in hand	197,835,667 78
Due on Treasury accounts current	126,109,896 19	Commercial bills discounted	186,574,773 45
Idem on accounts current of merchants	57,711,950 48	Advances made on deposits of bullion	4,730,600 0
Deposit notes payable at sight	2,010,000 0	Advances made on deposits of public securities	16,497,088 50
Dividends becoming due	6,715,142 73	To be received on accounts current	97,786,541 99
Outstanding drafts of branch banks	429,768 94	Capital of branch banks	36,000,000 0
Due on sundry heads	1,871,297 8	Reserve according to law at par	10,000,000 0
		Cash vested in public securities	50,801,736 40
Balance, being the capital of the Bank, consisting of 67,900 shares (1194 <i>f.</i> 25 <i>c.</i> per share)	407,925,811 71	Hotel and furniture of the bank	4,000,000 0
	81,000,000 0	Sundries	136,860 65
	488,925,811 71		488,925,811 71

Commercial Operations of the Bank of France during the Last Quarter of 1842.

France.		France.	
Commercial bills discounted	250,000,000	Received from the Treasury	116,108,500
Cash advanced on bullion	7,885,600	Paid to the Treasury	114,284,400
Cash advanced on public securities	9,759,500	Cash received	84,350,000
Cash received on sundry accounts	1,000,650,000	Bills received	487,565,300
Cash paid on ditto	1,003,556,700	Cash paid	382,180,500

(For farther information as to the Bank of France, see the Report of M. Dufaure, already referred to, in the Appendix (p. 356), of the Report of 1840 on Banks of Issue; with the *Comptes Rendus* of different years; the returns in the *Monteur*, &c.)

Banks have also been established in Berlin, Copenhagen, Vienna, and Petersburg. Those who wish for detailed information with respect to these establishments, may consult the 4th vol. of the *Cours d'Economie Politique* of M. Storch, which contains a good account of the paper money of the different Continental states. The objects we have in view will be accomplished by laying before our readers the following details with respect to the *Commercial Bank of Russia*, established in 1818:—

This bank receives deposits in gold and silver, foreign as well as Russian coin, and in bars and ingots. It has a department for transferring the sums deposited with it, on the plan of the Hamburg Bank. It discounts bills, and lends money on deposits of merchandise of Russian produce or origin. Its capital consists of 8,571,429 silver rubles. It is administered by a governor and 4 directors, appointed by government; and 4 directors, elected by the commercial body of Petersburg. The property in the bank is protected against all taxation, sequestration, or attachment; and it is enacted, that subjects of countries with which Russia may be at war shall be entitled at all times to receive back their deposits without any reservation. It is also declared, that at no time shall the bank be called upon for any part of its capital to assist the government. All deposits must be made for 6 months at least, and be repayable at or before that period, and not be less than 500 paper rubles: sums so deposited to pay 4 per cent. The deposits, if in bars, ingots, or foreign specie, are estimated in Russian silver coin, and so registered in the attestation; and if not demanded back within 15 days of the expiration of 6 months, or the necessary premium paid for the prolongation, the owner loses the right of claiming his original deposit, and must take its estimated value in Russian silver coin. No bills are discounted that have less than 8 days or more than 6 months to run. The rate of discount is 6 per cent. No interest is allowed on money deposited in the bank, unless notice be given that it will be allowed to lie for a year, and 3 months' notice be given of the intention to draw it out, when *six* per cent. interest is allowed. This bank has branches at Archangel, Moscow, Odessa, Riga, &c.

By means of its capital and deposits, which in 1839 amounted together to 161,381,530 silver rubles, the Bank effected in that year the following operations:—

	Rbla.	Cop.
1. Repayments on deposits in transfer	21,366,101	45
2. Transfers from one city to another	49,985,515	96
3. Drafts purchased	7,532,651	64
4. Repayment of deposits at interest	81,283,778	91
5. Discount of bills of exchange	17,117,541	7
6. Advances on deposits of merchandise	1,248,601	68

7. Advances on the notes of other banks	Rbla.	Cop.
	350,001	13
8. Discount of notes of the Lombard		1,929,271
	43	
9. Advanced on fixed property by branch at Kiev		174,070
		89
The net profit during the same year amounted to 656,561 silv. rbla., and the reserve capital of the bank was then also 1,379,976 silv. rbla. (See <i>Suppl. to the Journal de St. Petersbourg</i> for 1839, p. 67.)		

American Banks.—The system of banking in America has attracted a great deal of attention in this country; principally, perhaps, from the extent to which English capital has been embarked in it; but partly, also, from the peculiar principles on which it has been founded, and the mode in which it has been conducted. And certainly it deserves to be carefully studied and meditated, were it only for the incontestable evidence which it affords that, how flourishing soever in other respects, a country cursed with a vicious banking system may be every now and then involved in the greatest difficulties, and reduced almost to a state of bankruptcy. Considering the peculiarly favourable circumstances under which the United States are placed, the boundless extent of their fertile and unoccupied lands, the lightness of their public burdens, and the intelligence, enterprise, and economy of the people, it might be presumed that distress and bankruptcy would be all but unknown in the Union, and that she would be exempted from those revulsions which so seriously affect less favourably situated communities. But the very reverse of all this is the fact: discredit and bankruptcy are incomparably more prevalent in America than in any European country; and all sorts of industrious undertakings and monied fortunes are infinitely more secure in Russia, and even in Turkey, than in the United States! This anomalous and apparently inexplicable state of things is entirely a consequence of the American banking system, which seems to combine within itself every thing that can make it an engine of unmixed evil. Had a committee of clever men been selected to devise means by which the public might be tempted to engage in all manner of absurd projects, and be most easily duped and swindled, we do not know that they could have hit upon any thing half so likely to effect their object as the existing American banking system. It has no one redeeming quality about it, but is from beginning to end a compound of quackery and imposture. Our own banking system is bad enough,

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France.	Credit.
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4,780,500	0
18,497,468	60
27,736,541	69
20,000,000	0
10,000,000	0
60,000,736	40
4,000,000	0
136,880	65
88,925,211	71

certainly; but it is as superior to the American as can well be imagined. A radical reform of the latter, or, if that cannot be effected, its entire suppression, would be the greatest boon that can be conferred on the Union, and would be no small advantage to every nation with which the Americans have any intercourse.

The American banks are all joint-stock associations. But instead of the partners being liable, as in England, for the whole amount of the debts of the banks, they are in general liable only for the amount of their shares, or for some fixed multiple thereof. It is needless to dwell on the temptation to commit fraud held out by this system, which has not a single countervailing advantage to recommend it. The worthlessness of the plan on which the banks are founded was evinced by the fact, that between 1811 and the 1st of May, 1830, no fewer than 195 banks became altogether bankrupt, many of them paying only an insignificant dividend; and this exclusive of a much greater number that stopped for a while, and afterwards resumed payments.—(*Report from Secretary of the Treasury of the United States*, 12th February, 1841.) The wide-spread mischief resulting from such a state of things led to the devising of various complicated schemes for insuring the stability and prudent management of banks; but, as they all involved regulations which it was impossible to enforce, they have been practically worse than useless. In Massachusetts, for example, it was provided that no bank for the issue of notes should go into operation in any way until at least half its capital stock had been paid in gold and silver into the bank, and been lodged in its coffers, and seen in them by inspectors appointed for that purpose; and the cashier of every bank was bound to make specific returns once a year of its debts and assets, on being required to do so by the secretary of state. But our readers need hardly be told that these elaborately contrived regulations are really good for nothing, unless it be to afford an easy mode of cheating and defrauding the public. Instances have occurred of banks having borrowed an amount of dollars equal to half their capital for a single day, and of such dollars having been examined by the inspectors appointed for that purpose, and reported by them, and sworn by a majority of the directors, to be the first instalment paid by the stockholders of the bank, and intended to remain in it!—(*Gouge's Paper Money and Banking in the United States*.) We do not of course imagine that such disgraceful instances can be of common occurrence; but what is to be thought of a system which permits a company for the issue of paper money, founded on such an abominable fraud, to enter on business with a sort of public attestation of its respectability? The publicity, too, to which the American banks are subject is injurious rather than otherwise. Those who are so disposed may easily manufacture such returns as they think most suitable to their views; and the more respectable banks endeavour, for a month or two previously to the period when they have to make their returns, to increase the amount of bullion in their coffers by temporary loans, and all manner of devices. The whole system is, in fact, bottomed on the most vicious principles. But it is unnecessary, after what has recently occurred, to insist further upon the gross and glaring defects of American banking. Perhaps no instance is to be found in the history of commerce of such a wanton over-issue of paper as took place in the United States in 1835 and 1836. The result was such as every man of sense might have anticipated. The revulsion to which it necessarily led, after producing a frightful extent of bankruptcy and suffering in all parts of the Union, compelled, in May, 1837, every bank within the States, without, we believe, a single exception, to suspend specie payments! In 1838, such of them as were not entirely swept off resumed specie payments; but in 1839, by far the larger number of them, with the Bank of the United States at their head, again suspended payments; and this institution, with many of the others, has been found to be altogether insolvent.

It is stated, in the Report referred to above by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, that between 1830 and 1840, 150 banks, having an aggregate capital of 45,000,000 dol., became entirely insolvent; and it farther appears that between the date of the above Report and the 1st of September, 1842, no fewer than 161 additional banks had failed, having (including the Bank of the United States) an aggregate capital of 132,362,339 dol., with notes in circulation to the amount of 43,320,554 dol. (See the list of these banks in *Downe's American Almanac* for 1843, pp. 293-295.) And if we add to the losses thus occasioned the depression in the value of the stocks of the other banks and the diminution of their circulation, the bankruptcy of a vast number of railway, canal, and other joint-stock associations, the discredit of the stocks of most of the States, the avowed bankruptcy of some of those most able to pay their debts, and the violent shock given to all private credit, we may form some faint idea of the injury inflicted on the Union by this revulsion. But the loss to individuals in a pecuniary point of view, vast as it has been, is nothing to the influence of this wretched system on public morals. It bids fair to convert the whole people of America into a nation of gamblers and swindlers. "The greatest injury to society," says a writer in the *American Almanac*, "resulting from this state of things, is in the

upheaving of the elements of social order, and the utter demoralisation of men by the temptation to speculation, which ends in swindling to retain ill-gotten riches. In illustration, the Journal of Banking chronicles thirty odd millions of plunder by bank defalcations in this single revulsion, as far as they have been discovered and have reached the eye of the editor."—(P. 257.)

Here the writer stops; but he might have added, that "swindling to retain ill-gotten riches" is no longer confined to bank clerks and bank agents. It infects and pollutes every order of society. The repudiating legislatures of Pennsylvania and other states may come into competition for the palm of dishonesty with the worst agents of the worst banking schemes in the Union.

The United States Bank, originally incorporated by Congress in 1816 for 20 years, had a paid-up capital of 35,000,000 dollars, or of more than seven millions sterling. The question, whether the charter should be renewed, was debated with extraordinary vehemence in all parts of the Union. The then president, General Jackson, was violently opposed to the re-incorporation of the bank; and rejected a bill for that purpose that had been approved by the other branches of the legislature. He also followed up this blow by removing the government deposits from the bank in 1833. But, notwithstanding this hostility on the part of the executive government, the credit of the institution continued unimpaired; and, in 1835 and 1836, the Bank of the United States, like other banks in the Union, made enormous additions to her issues; which went on increasing till the issue of the famous treasury circular of the 11th of July, 1836, directing that all deposits of money on sales of public lands (the speculations in which had been pushed to an unprecedented extent) should be paid in specie. This may be said to have been the first step in that extraordinary reaction that has overspread America with public and private bankruptcy, and from the effects of which she has not yet recovered (1843), and will not speedily recover.

But, despite the opposition of the president, the Bank of the United States succeeded, in 1836, in obtaining a charter of incorporation from the legislature of Pennsylvania. But there can be no doubt that its capital had been seriously impaired before it received this charter; and this diminution of its strength, combined with the reckless improvidence with which it made advances on state stocks, the stocks of public companies, and the cotton and other products of private individuals, completed its ruin. We have seen no very late statement of its affairs on which we should be inclined to place any reliance; but it is certain that the bankruptcy is of the very worst description, and that all, or nearly all, the capital belonging to the bank has been lost.

Out of the 350,000 shares into which the capital stock of the Bank of the United States was divided, it is understood that in the latter period of its existence about 84,000 were held by foreigners, and mostly by Englishmen. The question, whether the charter will be adequate to protect these parties in their limited liability, is one that may not improbably be mooted, should the bank not be able to discharge the various claims upon her. If they are protected, we incline to think that the sooner the law is changed the better.

Had the United States Bank not opened an agency office here, the case would have been different; but having opened an office, and transacted a large amount of business in London, it became to all intents and purposes an English establishment; and the partners belonging to it in England must, one should think, be amenable to English law, and not to the law of Pennsylvania. If this be not the case, it will necessarily follow that any institution, though consisting wholly of Englishmen, that obtained a charter from any foreign state, even though it were not generally known that it was chartered, as the foreign law might not require this to be divulged, might open places of business in London and Liverpool, and, after getting some hundreds of thousands of pounds into debt, might suspend payments, and laugh at the credulous dupes they had reduced to beggary and ruin. The legislature of England has wisely refused to allow of partnerships (excepting in extraordinary cases) being instituted here with limited responsibility, being well convinced that, despite every possible precaution, they would be sure, in many instances, to be perverted to the basest purposes. And is it to be endured that foreigners should acquire privileges in this country denied to natives? or that foreign governments should have power to organise and establish institutions amongst us on a principle which parliament justly regards as most objectionable? If the law of England authorise *this*, it is most certainly high time that it were amended, and that a check were given to what must otherwise be one of the safest and most profitable species of swindling. But we hardly think that such can be the law. British subjects who embark their capital in foreign trading associations may, in so far as respects their interest in them, be amenable only to the foreign law, provided the associations to which they belong restrict their operations to foreign countries. But should these associations send agents here, and open offices and carry on business within the United Kingdom, the case is altogether different: the legislature of Pennsylvania may be omnipotent at home, but it is luckily

impotent in England; it may, if it choose, institute trading companies with limited responsibility, or with no responsibility at all; but if these be joined by Englishmen, make England the scene of their operations, and issue their balance sheets in the city of London, what are they in practice but English companies? And such of our countrymen as have embarked in them would seem to have but slender grounds of complaint, should they be taught that they are responsible to our law; that the law of a foreign country cannot protect them; and that they will be made liable, in the event of the concern becoming bankrupt, to the utmost shilling of their fortunes for its liabilities to British subjects.

Owing to the privilege claimed by the different states, and exercised without interruption from the Revolution downwards, it is, we fear, impossible to effect the suppression of local paper in America, or to establish a paper currency which should at all times vary in amount and value, as if it were metallic. But the states have it in their power to do that which is next best; they may compel all banks which issue notes to give security for their issues. This, though it would not prevent oscillations in the amount and value of the currency, would, at all events, prevent those ruinous and ever-recurring stoppages and bankruptcies of the issuers of paper money that render the American banking system one of the severest scourges to which any people was ever subjected. Common sense and experience alike demonstrate the inefficacy of all the regulations enacted by the American legislatures to prevent the abuse of banking. It is in vain for them to lay it down that the issues shall never exceed a certain proportion of the capital of the bank, and so forth. Such regulations are all very well, provided the banks choose to respect them; but there are no means whatever of insuring their observance, and their only effect is to make the public look for protection and security to what is altogether impotent and worthless for any good purpose. If the suppression of local issues be impossible in America, there is nothing left but to take security from the issuers of notes. The reader may be assured that all schemes for the improvement of banks, by making regulations as to the proportion of their issues and advances to their bullion, capital, &c., are downright delusion and quackery.

Owing to the extensive destruction of bank paper, and the still more extensive destruction of bills and other substitutes for money, occasioned by the total prostration of private credit, there has lately been a great scarcity of currency in the Union, and very large quantities of specie have been imported, most of which has found its way into the coffers of the existing banks. We may, therefore, at no distant day, expect a revival of credit and of all sorts of speculations in the Union. Whether Englishmen will be again stupid enough to adventure their money in the new projects that will then, no doubt, be set on foot, remains to be seen; but if they do, they will certainly deserve to lose every farthing they may so invest. They may be assured that unless the present banking system be cut up by the roots, of which there is not the smallest prospect, an increase of specie in the banks is only giving them the means of entering on a new career of over-issue and swindling.

Comparative View of the Condition of all the Banks in the United States, near the Commencement of each Year, from 1835 to 1st September 1842.

	According to Returns nearest 1st January.							
	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Whole number of banks and branches in operation	704	718	758	829	840	801		
Capital paid in	\$31,930,337	\$31,875,292	\$90,773,091	\$17,536,778	\$27,129,518	\$58,448,690	\$35,469,514	\$63,107,185
Loans and discounts	\$61,108,754	\$47,546,061	\$11,708,483	\$3,127,697	\$98,478,015	\$63,969,293		\$30,000,000
Specie	\$4,977,072	\$0,019,694	\$7,010,310	\$5,144,112	\$5,179,673	\$3,105,150	\$7,131,572	\$6,819,951
Circulation	\$103,097,159	\$10,461,038	\$49,142,890	\$16,138,910	\$35,170,990	\$106,968,272	\$115,905,518	\$5,874,790
Deposits	\$5,218,100	\$16,106,440	\$17,897,185	\$4,561,184	\$0,240,148	\$5,896,857		\$0,000,000

It is seen from this table that while the loans and discounts, specie, circulation, and deposits, amounted near the 1st of Jan. 1836, to 709,891,521 doll., they did not amount, in September 1842, to 460,000,000 (for the estimated numbers are known to be very near the truth), showing a decrease of no less than 349,000,000 doll.

VII. BANKS FOR SAVINGS.

Are banks established for the receipt of small sums deposited by the poorer class of persons, and for their accumulation at compound interest. They are managed by individuals who derive no benefit whatever from the deposits. All monies paid into any Savings Bank established according to the provisions of the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 92. are ordered to be paid into the Banks of England and Ireland, and vested in Bank annuities or Exchequer bills. The interest payable to depositors is not to exceed 2½ per cent. per diem, or 3½ per cent. per annum. No depositor can contribute more than 40s. exclusive of compound interest, to a Savings Bank in any one year; and the total

deposits to be received from any individual are not to exceed 150*l.*; and whenever the deposits, and compound interest accruing upon them, standing in the name of any one individual, shall amount to 200*l.*, no interest shall be payable upon such deposit so long as it shall amount to 200*l.* The commissioners for the reduction of the national debt have the disposal of the sums vested in the public funds on account of Savings Banks.

This system began in 1817; and on the 20th of November, 1842, there was due to depositors, including interest accruing on deposits, 25,319,336*l.* It farther appears that from the 6th of August, 1815, down to the 20th of November, 1842, the public paid on account of interest and charges on the sums due to Savings Banks and Friendly Societies under the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 92., 14,070,341*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*, and that the dividend received during the same period on the stock and other public securities in which the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt invested the said sums, amounted to 12,039,781*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.*, leaving a balance of 2,030,559*l.* 14*s.*, which consequently may be said to be the sum which the system has cost the public. — (*Parl. Paper No. 258. Sess. 1843.*)

The principle and object of Savings Banks cannot be too highly commended. In the metropolis, and many other parts of England, public banks do not receive small deposits, and until recently they did not pay any interest on them. And even in Scotland, where the public banks allow interest upon deposits, they do not generally receive less than 5*l.* or 10*l.* But few poor persons are able to save even this much except by a lengthened course of economy. The truth, therefore, is, that until Savings Banks were established, the poorest classes were every where without the means of securely and profitably investing those small sums they are not unfrequently in a condition to save; and were consequently led, from the difficulty of disposing of them, to neglect opportunities for making savings, or, if they did make them, were tempted, by the offer of high interest, to lend them to persons of doubtful characters and desperate fortunes, by whom they were, for the most part, squandered. Under such circumstances, it is plain that nothing could be more important, in the view of diffusing habits of forethought and economy amongst the labouring classes, than the establishment of Savings Banks, where the smallest sums are placed in perfect safety, are accumulated at compound interest, and are paid, with their accumulations, the moment they are demanded by the depositors. The system is yet little more than in its infancy; but the magnitude of the deposits already received, sets its powerful and salutary operation in a very striking point of view.

We subjoin a copy of the rules of the St. Pancras Savings Bank, which may be taken as a model for similar institutions, inasmuch as they have been drawn up with great care, and closely correspond with the provisions in the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 92.

1. *Management.* — This bank is under the management of a president, vice-presidents, trustees, and not less than fifty managers, none of whom are permitted to derive any benefit whatsoever, directly or indirectly, from the deposits received, or the produce thereof. One or more of the managers attend when the Bank is open for business.

2. *Superintending Committee.* — A committee of not less than ten managers, three of whom form a quorum, is empowered to superintend, manage, and conduct the general business of this Bank; to add to their number from among the managers; to fill up vacancies in their own body, and to appoint a treasurer or treasurers, agent or agents, auditors, an actuary and clerks, and other officers and servants, and to withdraw any such appointments, and to appoint others, should it be considered necessary so to do. — The proceedings of this committee are regularly laid before the general meetings of the Bank.

3. *Elections.* — The superintending committee is empowered to add to the number of managers, until they amount to one hundred and twenty, exclusively of the president, vice-presidents, and trustees. And any vacancies of president, vice-presidents, and trustees are to be filled up at a general meeting.

4. *General Meetings.* — A general meeting of the president, vice-presidents, trustees, and managers of this Bank shall be held once a year, in the month of February. The superintending committee shall lay before every such meeting a report of the transactions of the Bank, and state of the accounts. The superintending committee for the succeeding year shall be elected at such general meeting; and failing such election, the former committee shall be considered as reappointed.

5. *Special Meetings.* — The superintending committee are authorized to call special general meetings when they think proper; and also, on the requisition of any ten managers, delivered in writing to the actuary, or to the manager in attendance at the bank; and of such meeting seven days' notice shall be given.

6. *Liability of Trustees, Managers, Officers, &c.* — No trustee or manager shall be personally liable except for his own acts and deeds, nor for any thing done by him in virtue of his office, except where he shall be guilty of wilful neglect or default; but the treasurer or treasurers, the actuary, and every officer intrusted with the receipt or custody of any sum of money deposited for the purposes of this institution, and every officer, or other person, receiving salary or allowance for their services from the funds thereof, shall give good and sufficient security, by bond or bonds, to the clerk of the peace of the county of Middlesex, for the just and faithful execution of such office of trust.

7. *Investments and Limitation of Deposits.* — Deposits of not less than one shilling, and not exceeding thirty pounds in the whole, exclusive of compound interest, from any one depositor, or trustee of a depositor, during each and every year ending on the 20th of November, will be received and invested, pursuant to 9 Geo. 4. c. 92. s. 11., until the same shall amount to one hundred and fifty pounds in the whole; and when the principal and interest together shall amount to two hundred pounds, then no interest will be payable on such deposit, so long as it shall continue to amount to that sum. But depositors, whose accounts amounted to, or exceeded, two hundred pounds, at the passing of the said act, on the 20th of July, 1829, will continue to be entitled to interest and compound interest thereon.

8. *Interest to be allowed to Depositors.* — In conformity with the 9th clause of the 9 Geo. 4. c. 92., an interest at the rate of 3*q*d. per cent. per day, being 3*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* per cent. per annum (the full amount authorized by the said act), will be allowed to depositors, and placed to their accounts as a cash deposit, in the month of November in each year. Depositors demanding payment of the whole amount of their

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514	65,874,790
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deposits in this Bank, will be allowed the interest due on such deposits up to the day on which notice of withdrawing shall be given, but no interest will be allowed, in any case, on the fractional parts of a pound sterling.

9. *Descriptions and Declaration.*—Every person desirous of making any deposit in this Bank, shall, at the time of making their first deposit, and at such other times as they shall be required so to do, declare their residence, occupation, profession, or calling, and sign (either by themselves, or, in case of infants under the age of seven years, by some person or persons to be approved of by the trustees or managers, or their officer), a declaration that they are not directly or indirectly entitled to any deposit in, or benefit from, the funds of any other Savings Bank in England or Ireland, nor to any sum or sums standing in the name or names of any other person or persons in the books of this Bank. And in case any such declaration shall not be true, every such person (or the person on whose behalf such declaration may have been signed) shall forfeit and lose all right and title to such deposits, and the trustees and managers shall cause the sum or sums so forfeited to be paid to the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt; but no depositor shall be subject or liable to any such forfeiture, on account of being a trustee on behalf of others, or of being interested in the funds of any Friendly Society legally established.

10. *Trustees on behalf of others.*—Persons may act as trustees for depositors, whether such persons are themselves depositors in any Savings Bank or not, provided that such trustee or trustees shall make such declaration on behalf of such depositor or depositors, and be subject to the like conditions in every respect, as are required in the case of persons making deposits on their own account, and the receipt and receipts of such trustee or trustees, or the survivor of them, or the executors or administrators of any sole trustee, or surviving trustee with or without (as may be required by the managers) the receipt of the person on whose account such sum may have been deposited, shall be a good and valid discharge to the trustees and managers of the institution.

11. *Minors.*—Deposits are received from, or for the benefit of, minors, and are subject to the same regulations as the deposits of persons of 21 years of age and upwards.

12. *Friendly and Charitable Societies.*—Friendly Societies, legally established previous to the 28th of July, 1826, may deposit their funds through their treasurer, steward, or other officer or officers, without any limitation as to the amount. But Friendly Societies formed and enrolled after that date are not permitted to make deposits exceeding the sum of 300*l.*, principal and interest included; and no interest will be payable thereon, whenever the same shall amount to, or continue at, the said sum of 300*l.* or upwards.

Deposits are received from the trustees or treasurers of Charitable Societies, not exceeding 100*l.* per annum, provided the amount shall not at any time exceed the sum of 300*l.*, exclusive of interest.

13. *Deposits of Persons unable to attend.*—Forms are given at the office, enabling persons to become depositors, who are unable to attend personally; and those who have previously made a deposit, may send additional sums, together with their book, by any other person.

14. *Depositors' Book.*—The deposits are entered in the books of the Bank at the time they are made, and the Depositor receives a book with a corresponding entry therein; which book must be brought to the office every time that any further sum is deposited, also when notice is given for withdrawing money, and at the time the repayment is to be made, so that the transactions may be duly entered therein.

15. *Withdrawing Deposits.*—Depositors may receive the whole or any part of their deposits on any day appointed by the managers, not exceeding fourteen days after notice has been given for that purpose; but such deposits can only be repaid to the depositor personally, or to the bearer of an order under the hand of the depositor, signed in the presence of either the minister or a churchwarden of the parish in which the depositor resides, of a justice of the peace, or of a manager of this Bank.

16. *The Depositor's Book must always be produced when notice of withdrawing is given.*

16. *Money withdrawn may be re-deposited.*—Depositors may withdraw any sum or sums of money, and re-deposit the same at any time or times within any one year, reckoning from the 20th day of November, provided such sum or sums of money re-deposited, and any previous deposit or deposits which may have been made by such depositor in the course of the year, taken together, shall not exceed, at any time in such year, the sum of 300*l.* additional principal money bearing interest.

17. *Returns or Refusal of Deposits.*—This Bank is at liberty to return the amount of the deposits to all or any of the depositors, and may refuse to receive deposits in any case, where it shall be deemed expedient so to do.

18. *Deposits of a deceased Depositor exceeding Fifty Pounds.*—In case of the death of any depositor in this Bank, whose deposits, and the interest thereon, shall exceed in the whole the sum of fifty pounds, the same shall only be paid to the executor or executors, administrator or administrators, on the production of the probate of the will, or letters of administration.

19. *Deposits of a deceased Depositor not exceeding Fifty Pounds.*—In case a depositor in this Bank shall die, whose deposits, including interest thereon, shall not exceed the sum of fifty pounds, and that the trustees or managers shall be satisfied that no will was made and left, and that no letters of administration will be taken out, they shall be at liberty to pay the same to the relatives or friends of the deceased, or any or either of them, or according to the statute of distribution, or require the production of letters of administration, at their discretion. And the Bank shall be indemnified by any such payments from all and every claim in respect thereof by any person whatsoever.

20. *Certificates.*—In all cases wherein certificates shall be required of the amount of deposits in this Bank belonging to depositors therein, for the purpose of obtaining, free of stamp duties, a probate of will, or letters of administration, such certificates shall be signed by a manager, and countersigned by the actuary for the time being, as a true extract from the Ledger of the institution.

21. *Arbitration of Differences.*—In case any dispute shall arise between the trustees or managers of this Bank, or any person or persons acting under them, and any individual depositor therein, or any trustee of a depositor, or any person claiming to be such executor, administrator, or next of kin, then, and in every such case, the matter so in dispute shall be referred to the barrister at law appointed by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, under the authority of the 6 Geo. 4. c. 92. s. 45. s. and whatever award, order, or determination shall be made by the said barrister, shall be binding and conclusive upon all parties, and shall be final, to all intents and purposes, without any appeal.

Purchase of Government Annuities by Depositors in Savings Banks.—The act 2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 14. enables depositors in Savings Banks and others to purchase government annuities for life or for years, and either immediate or deferred. At present these annuities are limited to 20*l.* a year. The money advanced is returnable in case the contracting party does not live to the age at which the annuity is to become payable, or is unable to continue the monthly or annual instalments. That this measure was benevolently intended, and that it may be productive of advantage to many individuals, cannot be doubted; but we look upon all attempts, and particularly those made by government, to get individuals to exchange capital for annuities, as radically objectionable; and as being subversive of principles which ought to be strengthened rather than weakened.—(See FUNDS.) We subjoin

An Account exhibiting a Summary View of the Number and State of the Savings Banks in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, on the 30th of November 1841.

Summary of Savings Banks in England.				Summary of Savings Banks in Wales.			
Population (including Guernsey and Jersey) 15,071,902.				Population 811,941.			
In England (including Guernsey and Jersey) there were, on the 30th Nov. 1841, 428 Savings Banks, containing				In Wales there were, on the 30th Nov. 1841, 23 Savings Banks, containing			
Depositors.	Amount.	Average Amount of each Depositor.		Depositors.	Amount.	Average Amount of each Depositor.	
364,634 not exceeding £ 20 each	£ 1,543,454	£ 6		8,185 not exceeding £ 20 each	£ 64,183	£ 7	
175,897 — 50 —	5,438,567	30		4,883 — 50 —	149,576	30	
75,493 — 100 —	3,385,184	45		1,768 — 100 —	139,587	78	
58,483 — 150 —	5,191,533	118		543 — 150 —	65,478	119	
14,849 — 300 —	5,533,055	370		434 — 300 —	40,068	161	
9,536 exceeding 300 —	21,193	22		24 exceeding 300 —	19,864	824	
680,997 depositors	19,666,133	28		15,831 depositors	454,934	29	
7,323 friendly societies	971,414	130		419 friendly societies	29,288	149	
7,260 charitable societies	419,543	54		175 charitable societies	10,859	62	
495,791 accounts.	Total £ 21,056,190	£ 40		16,225 accounts.	Total £ 517,681	£ 32	
Summary of Savings Banks in Scotland.				Summary of Savings Bank in Ireland.			
Population, 2,528,367.				Population, 8175,838.			
In Scotland there were, on the 30th November 1841, 28 Savings Banks, containing				In Ireland there were, on the 30th Nov. 1841, 76 Savings Banks. One has made no return; the remaining Banks contain			
Depositors.	Amount.	Average Amount of each Depositor.		Depositors.	Amount.	Average Amount of each Depositor.	
41,610 not exceeding £ 20 each	£ 203,155	£ 5		76,537 not exceeding £ 20 each	£ 271,676	£ 3	
7,111 — 50 —	217,010	30		38,198 — 50 —	860,913	21	
1,275 — 100 —	107,018	83		9,042 — 100 —	606,923	67	
926 — 150 —	27,065	180		3,531 — 150 —	125,554	111	
48 — 300 —	4,383	165		1,094 — 300 —	160,835	165	
— exceeding 300 —	—	—		111 exceeding 300 —	37,787	288	
50,018 depositors	569,067	11		77,222 depositors	3,243,426	29	
376 charitable societies	15,499	41		657 charitable societies	39,083	61	
293 friendly societies	30,923	105		308 friendly societies	15,791	60	
50,619 accounts.	Total £ 608,509*	£ 12		78,574 accounts.	Total £ 3,309,309	£ 29	

In England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland there were, on the 30th November 1841, 553 Savings Banks. One has made no return; the remaining contain

Depositors.	Amount.	Average of each Deposit.
476,408 not exceeding £ 20 each	£ 3,047,668	£ 7
215,855 — 50 —	5,666,515	26
88,587 — 100 —	5,120,518	58
59,745 — 150 —	3,275,060	189
16,221 — 300 —	3,760,918	170
5,011 exceeding 300 —	781,793	156
684,183 depositors	32,015,940	28
8,778 charitable societies	476,096	54
8,384 friendly societies	1,056,653	131
681,204 accounts	Total £ 34,574,699	£ 29

These returns have been extracted from the History of Savings Banks, published in 1842 by Mr. Tidd Pratt, the very intelligent barrister appointed to certify the rules on which Savings Banks, Friendly Societies, &c. have been founded.

* The comparatively small amount of the deposits in Savings Banks in Scotland is wholly a consequence of the unusual facilities so long afforded in that part of the United Kingdom for the investment of comparatively small sums at interest in public banks of undoubted solidity. We have previously noticed the very great amount of these investments.

BANGKOK, the capital of the kingdom of Siam, situated about 20 miles from the sea on both sides the river Menam, but chiefly on its left or eastern bank, in lat. 13° 40' N., long. 101° 10' E. The Menam opens in the centre nearly of the bottom of the Gulf of Siam. There is a bar at its mouth, consisting, for the most part, of a mud flat 10 miles in depth. The outer edge of this flat, which is little more than 200 yards broad, is sandy and of harder materials than the inner part; which is so soft that when a ship grounds on it during the ebb, she often sinks 5 feet in the mud and clay, which supports her upright, so that she is but little inconvenienced. The highest water on the bar of the Menam, from February to September, is about 13½ feet; and in the remaining 4 months, somewhat more than 14 feet, — a difference probably produced by the accumulation of water at the head of the bay after the south-west monsoon, and by the heavy floods of the rainy season. On account of the deficiency of water on the bar, vessels sent to Bangkok had better, perhaps, not exceed 200 or 250 tons burden. In all other respects, the river is extremely safe and commodious. Its mouth is no sooner approached, than it deepens gradually; and at Paknam, two miles up, there are 6 and 7 fathoms water. This depth increases as you ascend, and at Bangkok is not less than 9 fathoms. The only danger is, or rather was, a sand bank off Paknam, bare at low water; but on this a fort or battery has been erected within the last few years, affording at all times a distinct beacon. The channel of the river is so equal, that a ship may range from one side to another, approaching the banks so closely that her yards may literally overhang them. The navigation is said to be equally safe all the way up to the old capital of Yuthia, 80 miles from the mouth of the river.

The city of Bangkok extends along the banks of the Menam to the distance of about 2½ miles; but is of no great breadth, probably not exceeding 1½ mile. On the left bank there is a long street or row of

rupt, is equivalent to insolvent, and is applied to designate any individual unable to pay his debts. But in the law of England bankrupts form that particular class of insolvents who are engaged in trade, or who "seek their living by buying and selling," and who are declared, upon the oath of one or more of their creditors, to have committed what the law has defined to be an *act of bankruptcy*. At present, however, we shall merely lay before the reader a few observations with respect to the principles and leading provisions embodied in the law as to bankruptcy and insolvency; referring the reader to the article *INSOLVENCY AND BANKRUPTCY*, for a detailed statement of these and the other provisions in that law.

"All classes of individuals, even those who have least to do with industrious undertakings, are exposed to vicissitudes and misfortunes, the occurrence of which may render them incapable of making good the engagements into which they have entered, and render them bankrupt or insolvent. But though bankruptcy is most frequently, perhaps, produced by uncontrollable causes, it is frequently also produced by the thoughtlessness of individuals, or by their repugnance to make those retrenchments which the state of their affairs demands; and sometimes also by fraud or bad faith. Hence it is that the laws with respect to bankruptcy occupy a prominent place in the judicial system of every state in which commerce has made any progress, and credit been introduced. They differ exceedingly in different countries and stages of society; and it must be acknowledged that they present very many difficulties, and that it is not possible, perhaps, to suggest any system against which pretty plausible objections may not be made.

"The execrable atrocity of the early Roman laws with respect to bankruptcy is well known. According to the usual interpretation of the law of the twelve tables, which Cicero has so much eulogised, the creditors of an insolvent debtor might, after some preliminary formalities, cut his body to pieces, each of them taking a share proportioned to the amount of his debt; and those who did not choose to resort to this horrible extremity, were authorised to subject the debtor to chains, stripes, and hard labour; or to sell him, his wife, and children, to perpetual foreign slavery *trans Tyberim*! This law, and the law giving fathers the power of inflicting capital punishments on their children, strikingly illustrate the ferocious and sanguinary character of the early Romans.

"There is reason to think, from the silence of historians on the subject, that no unfortunate debtor ever actually felt the utmost severity of this barbarous regulation; but the history of the republic is full of accounts of popular commotions, some of which led to very important changes, that were occasioned by the exercise of the power given to creditors of enslaving their debtors, and subjecting them to corporal punishments. The law, however, continued in this state till the year of Rome 427, 120 years after the promulgation of the twelve tables, when it was repealed. It was then enacted, that the persons of debtors should cease to be at the disposal of their creditors, and that the latter should merely be authorised to seize upon the debtor's goods, and sell them by auction in satisfaction of their claims. In the subsequent stages of Roman jurisprudence, further changes were made, which seem generally to have leaned to the side of the debtor; and it was ultimately ruled, that an individual who had become insolvent without having committed any fraud, should upon making a *cessio bonorum*, or a surrender of his entire property to his creditors, be entitled to an exemption from all personal penalties. — (Terasson, *Histoire de la Jurisprudence Romaine*, p. 117.)

"The law of England distinguishes between the insolvency of persons engaged in trade, and that of others. The former can alone be made bankrupts, and are dealt with in a comparatively lenient manner. 'The law,' says Blackstone, 'is cautious of encouraging prodigality and extravagance by indulgence to debtors; and therefore it allows the benefit of the laws of bankruptcy to none but actual traders, since that set of men are, generally speaking, the only persons liable to accidental losses, and to an inability of paying their debts without any fault of their own. If persons in other situations of life run in debt without the power of payment, they must take the consequences of their own indiscretion, even though they meet with sudden accidents that may reduce their fortunes; for the law holds it to be an unjustifiable practice for any person but a trader to encumber himself with debts of any considerable value. If a gentleman, or one in a liberal profession, at the time of contracting his debts has a sufficient fund to pay them, the delay of payment is a species of dishonesty, and a temporary injustice to his creditors; and if at such time he has no sufficient fund, the dishonesty and injustice are the greater: he cannot, therefore, murmur if he suffer the punishment he has voluntarily drawn upon himself. But in mercantile transactions the case is far otherwise; trade cannot be carried on without mutual credit on both sides: the contracting of debts is here not only justifiable, but necessary; and if, by accidental calamities, as by the loss of a ship in a tempest,

* *Fremant omnes, licet I dicam quod sentio; bibliothecas, mehercule, omnium philosophorum unius milii videtur duodecim tabularum libellus; sicut legum fontes et capita videtur et autoritatis pondero et utilitatis ubertate superare.* — *De Oratore*, lib. 1.

the failure of brother traders, or by the nonpayment of persons out of trade, a merchant or trader becomes incapable of discharging his own debts, it is his misfortune and not his fault. To the misfortunes, therefore, of debtors, the law has given a compassionate remedy, but denied it to their faults; since, at the same time that it provides for the security of commerce, by enacting that every considerable trader may be declared a bankrupt, for the benefit of his creditors as well as himself, it is also, to discourage extravagance, declared that no one shall be capable of being made a bankrupt but only a trader, nor capable of receiving the full benefit of the statutes but only an *industrious* trader.—(Commentaries, book ii. cap. 31.)

“After the various proceedings with respect to bankruptcy have been gone through, the bankrupt may apply for a certificate or discharge liberating his person and any property he may afterwards acquire from the claims of his creditors. The power to grant this certificate was formerly vested in the creditors; but the statute 5 & 6 Viet. c. 122, has enacted that the power to grant certificates shall be vested in the court, which, after hearing such creditors as may be opposed to the allowance of a certificate, shall, on taking all the circumstances into account, refuse or grant it, as may seem most conformable to justice. In the event of the certificate being granted, the bankrupt is entitled to a reasonable allowance out of his effects; which is, however, made to depend partly on the magnitude of his dividend. Thus, if his effects will not pay half his debts, or 10s. in the pound, he is left to the discretion of the court, to have a competent sum allowed him, not exceeding 3 per cent. upon his estate, or 300*l.* in all; but if his estate pay 10s. in the pound, he is to be allowed 5 per cent. provided such allowance do not exceed 400*l.*; if it pay 12*s.* 6*d.*, then 7½ per cent. under a limitation as before of its not exceeding 500*l.*; and if it pay 15*s.* in the pound, then the bankrupt shall be allowed 10 per cent. upon his estate, provided it do not exceed 600*l.*.”

“According to our present law, when a person not a trader becomes insolvent, he may, after being actually imprisoned at the suit of some of his creditors for fourteen days, present a petition to the court to be relieved; and upon surrendering his entire property, he is, unless something fraudulent be established against him, entitled to a discharge. While, however, the certificate given to the bankrupt relieves him from all future claims on account of debts contracted previously to his bankruptcy, the discharge given to an insolvent only relieves him from imprisonment; in the event of his afterwards accumulating any property, it may be seized in payment of the debts contracted anterior to his insolvency. This principle was recognised in the *cessio bonorum* of the Romans, of which the insolvent act is nearly a copy.

“It may be questioned, however, notwithstanding what Blackstone has stated, whether there be any good ground for making a distinction between the insolvency of traders and other individuals. There are very few trades so hazardous as that of a farmer, and yet should he become insolvent, he is not entitled to the same privileges he would have enjoyed had he been the keeper of an inn, or a commission agent! The injustice of this distinction is obvious; but, without dwelling upon it, it seems pretty clear that certificates should be granted indiscriminately to all honest debtors. Being relieved from all concern as to his previous incumbrances, an insolvent who has obtained a certificate is prompted to exert himself vigorously in future, at the same time that his friends are not deterred from coming forward to his assistance. But when an insolvent continues liable to his previous debts, no one, however favourably disposed, can venture to aid him with a loan; and he is discouraged, even if he had means, from attempting to earn any thing more than a bare livelihood; so that, while creditors do not, in one case out of a hundred, gain the smallest sum by this constant liability of the insolvent, his energies and usefulness are for ever paralysed.

“The policy of imprisoning for debt seems also exceedingly questionable. Notwithstanding the deference due to the great authorities who have vindicated this practice, we confess we are unable to discover any thing very cogent in the reasonings advanced in its favour. Provided a person in insolvent circumstances intimate his situation to his creditors, and offer to make a voluntary surrender of his property to them, he has, as it appears to us, done all that should be required of him, and ought not to undergo any imprisonment. If he have deceived his creditors by false representations, or if he conceal or fraudulently convey away any part of his property, he should of course be subjected to the pains and penalties attached to swindling; but when such practices are not alleged, or cannot be proved, sound policy, we apprehend, would dictate that creditors should have no power over the persons of their debtors, and that they should be entitled only to their effects. The maxim, *carcer non solvit*, is not more trite than true. It is said, that the fear of imprisonment operates as a check to prevent persons from getting into debt, and so no doubt it does. But then it must, on the other hand, be borne in mind, that the power to imprison tempts individuals to trust to its influence to enforce payment of their claims, and makes them less cautious in their inquiries as to the condition and circumstances of those to whom they give credit. The carelessness of tradesmen, and their

extreme earnestness to obtain custom, are, more than any thing else, the great causes of insolvency, and the power of imprisoning merely tends to foster and encourage these habits. If a tradesman trust an individual with a loan of money or goods, which he is unable to pay, he has made a bad speculation. But why should he, because he has done so, be allowed to arrest the debtor's person? If he wished to have perfect security, he either should not have dealt with him at all, or dealt with him only for ready money. Such transactions are, on the part of tradesmen, perfectly voluntary; and if they place undue confidence in a debtor who has not misled them by erroneous representations of his affairs, they have themselves only to blame.

"It would really, therefore, as it appears to us, be for the advantage of creditors, were all penal proceedings against the persons of honest debtors abolished. The dependence placed on their efficacy is deceitful. A tradesman ought rather to trust to his own prudence and sagacity to keep out of scrapes, than to the law for redress; he may deal upon credit with those whom he knows; but he should deal for ready money only with those of whose circumstances and characters he is either ignorant or suspicious. By bringing penal statutes to his aid, he is rendered remiss and negligent. He has the only effectual means of security in his own hands, and it seems highly inexpedient that he should be taught to neglect them, and put his trust in prisons.

"It is pretty evident, too, that the efficacy of imprisonment in deterring individuals from running into debt has been greatly overrated. Insolvents who are honest must have suffered from misfortune, or been disappointed in the hopes they entertained of being able, in one way or other, to discharge their debts. The fear of imprisonment does not greatly influence such persons; for when they contract debts, they have no doubt of their ability to pay them. And though the imprisonment of *bona fide* insolvents were abolished, it would give no encouragement to the practices of those who endeavour to raise money by false representations; for these are to be regarded as swindlers, and ought as such to be subjected to adequate punishment. (See CASBRR.)

"At present, indeed, the law is much too indulgent to this description of persons. Traders, or others, who endeavour to obtain goods or loans of money, whether by concealing or misrepresenting the real state of their affairs, are, in fact, about the very worst species of cheats; and the temptation to resort to such practices, and the facility with which they may be carried into effect, should make them, when detected, be visited with a proportionally increased severity of punishment, on the principle laid down by Cicero, that *ea sunt animadvertenda peccata maxime, qua difficillime præcæntur*.^{*} But honesty and dishonesty are not to be treated alike; and unless fraud of some sort or other be established, the imprisonment or penal pursuit of debtors appears to be alike oppressive and inexpedient. The legislature appears, indeed, to be coming round to this way of thinking; for under a recent act (5 & 6 Vict. c. 116.), all persons not liable to the bankrupt laws, and those liable to them whose debts are under 300*l.*, may, on giving certain notices, and making over all their property, present and future, for the benefit of their creditors, obtain from the Bankruptcy Court a protection against all process whatever, unless fraud, or other offence of that kind, be proved against them.

"We may further observe, that the regulations with respect to bankruptcy and insolvency differ materially in other respects. Until the act 1 & 2 Vict. c. 110., an individual could not be subjected to the insolvent law except by his own act, that is, by his petitioning for relief from actual imprisonment for debt. But under that act, any creditor who may have taken a debtor in execution may, unless his debt be satisfied within 21 days from the date of the debtor's imprisonment, get the latter subjected to the insolvent laws, and procure the vesting of his property in an assignee for the benefit of his creditors, in the same way as if the debtor had himself petitioned for relief. An individual cannot, however, in any case, be made a bankrupt, and subjected to the bankrupt law, except by the act of another, that is, of a petitioning creditor †, as he is called, swearing that the individual in question is indebted to him, and that he believes he has committed what is termed an act of bankruptcy.

"While, however, the law of England has always given the creditor an unnecessary degree of power over the debtor's person, it did not, till very recently, give sufficient power over his property. In this respect, indeed, it was so very defective, that one is almost tempted to think it had been intended to promote the practices of fraudulent debtors. The property of persons subject to the bankrupt and insolvent laws was, it is true, nominally placed at the disposal of assignees or trustees, for the benefit of their creditors; but when a person possessed of property, but not subject to the bankrupt laws, contracted debt, if he went abroad, or lived within the rules of the King's Bench

* Oratio pro Sexto Roscio, § 40.

† One creditor whose debt is to the amount of 50*l.* or upwards; or two, whose debts amount to 70*l.* or three whose debts amount to 100*l.*

or the Fleet, or remained in prison without petitioning for relief, he continued most probably to enjoy the income arising from that property without molestation.

"The law, no doubt, said that creditors should be authorised to seize the debtor's lands and goods; a description which an unlearned person would be apt to conclude was abundantly comprehensive: but the law used to be so interpreted, that neither funded property, money, nor securities for money, was considered goods: if the debtor had a copyhold estate, it could not be touched in any way whatever; if his estate were freehold, the creditor might, after a tedious process, receive the rents and profits, but no more, during the lifetime of his debtor. If the debtor died before judgment against him in a court had been obtained, then, unless the debt were on bond, the creditor had no recourse upon the land left by the debtor, whatever might be its tenure; nay, though his money, borrowed on note or bill, had been laid out in buying land, the debtor's heir took that land wholly discharged of the debt!*"

"In consequence of the facilities thus afforded for swindling, an individual known to have a large income, and enjoying a proportionally extensive credit, was able, if he went to Paris or Brussels, or confined himself within the rules of the King's Bench or the Fleet, to defraud his creditors of every farthing he owed them, without their being entitled to touch any part of his fortune. All owners of funded, monied, and copyhold property, had thus, in fact, a licence given them to cheat with impunity: the only wonder is, not that some did, but that a vast number more did not, avail themselves of this singular privilege.

"But we are glad to have to state, that this preposterous system has been materially changed within the last dozen years. The acts 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 104. and the 1 & 2 Vict. c. 110. have made copyhold as well as freehold estates, with the monied, funded, and other property, of deceased and living debtors, against whom judgment has been obtained, available for the satisfaction of their just debts. Hence it is no longer in the power of any knave, who might choose to reside abroad or in prison, to preserve his property from the grasp of those to whom he is really indebted. Indeed, there is now little to object to in this peculiar department of the law, unless it be the expensive machinery (Court of Chancery) under which the administration of a deceased debtor's effects is conducted in litigated cases. Speaking generally, however, the various proceedings with respect to bankruptcy and insolvency are still, perhaps from their extreme difficulty, in an unsatisfactory state; and it is probable they will, at no distant date, be materially changed."—(See the *Principles of Political Economy*, by the author of this work, 3d. ed. pp. 270—279.)

BARCALAO, or BACALAO, the Spanish name for cod.

BARCELONA, the capital of Catalonia, and the principal town of Spain, on the Mediterranean, lat. 41° 22' 58" N., long. 2° 8' 11" E. It is a strongly fortified, well-built city. The population is supposed to amount to about 120,000. Barcelona is eminently distinguished in the history of the middle ages for the zeal, skill, and success with which her citizens prosecuted commercial adventures at a very early period. She would seem also to be entitled to the honour of having compiled and promulgated the famous code of maritime law known by the name of the *Consolato del Mare*; and the earliest authentic notices of the practice of marine insurance and of the negotiation of bills of exchange are to be found in her annals.† Catalonia has continued, amidst all the vicissitudes it has undergone, to be the most industrious of the Spanish provinces. Several extensive manufactures have been established in Barcelona, especially of cotton, and no fewer than 23 steam engines were erected in Catalonia in 1842, the greater number being in Barcelona. Latterly, however, her commerce, owing to a variety of causes, but principally to oppressive restrictions on the importation of foreign goods, the emancipation of South America, and internal dissensions, has very much declined.

The Harbour, which is naturally bad, is formed by a mole or Jetty, which has recently been a good deal enlarged, running out to a considerable distance in a southerly direction, and having a light-house and some batteries near its extremity. The depth of water within the mole is from 18 to 20 feet; but there is a bar between the mole and Moutil, which has frequently not more than 10 feet water; and which would, it is believed, entirely shut up the harbour, were it not occasionally lowered by means of dredging machines. Vessels in the harbour moor at a short distance from the mole; where, though exposed to the southerly gales, they are so well protected that no accident of any consequence has taken place since the dreadful storm of 1821. Large ships must anchor outside the mole, and in winter are much incommoded by winds. Vessels entering the harbour are under no obligation to take a pilot on board; but they are always in attendance, and it is generally deemed safest to have their assistance in passing the bar.

* Bringham's "Speech on the State of the Law," p. 108.

† For proofs of this, see the articles MARITIME LAW, INSURANCE, &c. in this Dictionary. The *Memorias Historicas sobre la Marina, Comercio, &c. de Barcelona*, by Capmany, in 4 vols. 4to, is one of the most valuable and authentic works that has been published on the commerce, arts, and commercial and maritime legislation of the middle ages. The first volume is the most interesting, at least to the general reader; the others consisting principally of extracts from the archives of the city. There is a brief but pretty good account of the early trade of Barcelona, drawn principally from Capmany, in the work of Depping, *Histoire du Commerce entre le Levant et l'Europe depuis les Croisades*, &c. tom. 1. c. 5.

Custom-houses and Warehousing Regulations, same as at ALICANTE; which see.
Port Charges.—The following are the various charges of a public nature that would be paid by a Spanish and a British ship, each of 300 tons burden, unloading and loading mixed cargoes in Barcelona:—

Spanish Vessels.	Reals.	British Vessels.	Reals.
Anchorage	75	Anchorage	75
New do.	15	Double do.	15
Cleaning of port	10	New do.	15
Lantern	8	Cleaning of port	10
Captain of the port	8	Lantern	8
Light-house of Tarragona	16	Captain of the port	8
Loading (1 real per ton)	300	Light-house of Tarragona	16
Extraordinary contribution	40	New mole (18 real per ton)	8,400
New mole	16	Loading (1 real per ton)	300
		Extraordinary contribution	40
Total	875		
		Consular fees usually required	160
		Total	5,200

Taking the real of 4d., this would be 9l. 11s. 2d. on the Spanish ship, and 53l. on the British do.
Commission is at the rate of 3 per cent. on goods shipped, and 2 per cent. on those received on consignment. Goods are sometimes sold for ready money, and sometimes on credit for 3 or 4 months; mercantile discount is put on, per month. There are no banking establishments in Barcelona.
Insurance on ships is effected by individuals, but insurances on houses, lives, &c. are unknown here.
Taxes.—At the Custom-house, real taxes only are allowed; and the net weights must be rigorously manifested. A sur-

Imports.—The principal articles of import are raw cotton; sugar, coffee, cocoa, and other colonial products, principally from Cuba and Porto Rico; salted fish, hides, and horns; iron and hardware, &c. Most species of manufactured goods are prohibited; but it is needless to add that they are notwithstanding largely imported into this as into most other parts of Spain. The trade with the colonies, France, and the coasting trade is pretty active. The imports from England are not very considerable, and the exports little or nothing. In 1842, no fewer than 3,667 vessels entered the port; but these were mostly coasters of small size, the burden of the whole being only 193,117 tons, whole and half.

Exports.—The principal exports are wrought silks, soap, fire-arms, paper, hats, laces, ribands, steel, &c. But no vessels, except a few that take on board manufactured goods for the Spanish West Indies, are loaded here; and even this trade is much fallen off. Upwards of 2,000 hands used formerly to be employed in the city in the manufacture of shoes for the colonies; but their export has now nearly ceased. The principal articles of native produce that Catalonia has to export are most conveniently shipped at Villanov, Tarragona, and Salon. They consist of wine, brandy, nuts, almonds, cork bark, wool, fruits, &c. Of these, Cuba takes annually about 12,000 pipes of wine, worth at an average 4l. per pipe, and about 3,000 pipes of brandy, worth 8l. per do.; South America, 16,000 pipes of wine, and 6,000 do. brandy; the north of Europe, 2,000 pipes of wine, and 2,000 do. brandy. A good deal of brandy is sent to Cadix and Cetta; most part of the former finds its way into the wine vaults of Xeres; and the latter, being conveyed by the canal of Linguadoc to the Garonne, is used in the preparation of Bordeaux. From 25,000 to 30,000 bags of nuts are annually sent from Tarragona to England. Tarragona also exports about 12,000 bags of almonds.

The ships belonging to the port carry on no foreign trade except to the Spanish West Indies; they are few in number, and are daily decreasing. Those engaged in the coasting trade are usually of very small burden.

(We have derived these details from various sources; but principally from *Consular Returns*, and from *Ingén's Spain in 1830*, vol. ii. pp. 384-387. and 362.)

BARILLA (Du. Soda; Fr. Soude, Barille; Ger. Soda, Barilla; It. Barriglia; Port. Sôda, Barrilha; Rus. Socianka; Sp. Barilla; Arab. Kali), carbonate of soda—(see ALKALIES), is found native in Hungary, Egypt, and many other countries. It is largely used by bleachers, manufacturers of hard soaps, glass-makers, &c. The barilla of commerce consists of the ashes of several marine and other plants growing on the sea-shore. The best, or Alicant barilla, is prepared from the *Salsola soda*, which is very extensively cultivated for this purpose in the *huerta* of Murcia, and other places on the eastern shores of Spain. — (*Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. iii. p. 195.) The plants are gathered in September, dried, and burned in furnaces heated so as to bring the ashes into a state of imperfect fusion, when they congregate into hard, dry, cellular masses of a greyish blue colour. Sicily and Teneriffe produce good barilla, but inferior to that of Alicant and Carthagena. Kelp, which is a less pure alkali, is formed by the incineration of the common sea-weed. — (See KELP.)

The Saracens established in Spain seem to have been the first who introduced the manufacture of barilla into Europe. They called the plants employed in its preparation *kali*; and this, with the Arabic article *al* prefixed, has given rise to the modern chemical term alkali. Prime quality in barilla is to be distinguished by its strong smell when wetted, and by its whitish colour. Particular attention should be paid to have as little small or dust as possible. The duties on barilla have recently been very considerably reduced. — (See TANNERY.)

The manufacture of artificial soda (*soude factice*), now very extensively carried on, has occasioned an extraordinary decline in the imports of barilla, the quantity entered for home consumption in 1834, amounting to 237,712 cwt., having been reduced in 1841 to 47,380 cwt. Considerable quantities used formerly to be imported from Teneriffe, but it now comes principally from Alicant in Spain and Sicily. Thus, of 42,618 cwt. imported in 1841, 20,341 came from Spain, 18,570 from Italy (Sicily), and only 3,696 from the Canaries. The duty on barilla was reduced in 1842 from 2l. to 8s. per ton. It remains to be seen what effect this reduction may have on its consumption; but the entries in 1842 were rather less than in 1841. — (See *Parl. Papers*, No. 261. Sess. 1839, and No. 45. Sess. 1841.)

BARK, the outer rind of plants. There is an immense variety of barks known in

plus of 3 per cent. is, however, allowed to cover any inaccuracy in the proportion between foreign and Spanish weights; but if the weight of any parcel should turn out to be 3 per cent. greater than is marked in the manifest, the surplus is seized, at the same time that the importer loses the benefit of the rate of cent. allowed by law, and becomes liable to the penalties of smuggling. The rates usually allowed by merchants are, on Havannah sugar 13 per cent.; on coffee 3 per cent., exclusive of the barrel, bag, &c. in which it is contained; on cocoa and pepper 2 per cent.; Pernambuco cotton 4 lbs. per bale; other cotton 1 lb. per cwt.
Sea-stores of all sorts are dear at Barcelona, but they may always be obtained. Beef costs about 7d. per lb., and lard about 5 dollars per cwt.
Money.—Accounts are kept ³/₄ *libras* of 20 *soldos*, 240 *denarios*, or 480 *maravedis*. The *libra* is likewise divided into *reales de plata Catalana*, of 3 *soldos* each; and into *reales de oro*, of 3 *soldos* each. Hence, 6'7 of the former, or 10 of the latter, = 1 *libra Catalana*.
 The *libra Catalana* is = 2s. 4d. sterling nearly.
 The *peso duro*, or hard dollar, is valued at 37 ¹/₂ *soldos Catalana*, eight such dollars making 15 *libras*.
Weights and Measures.—There are endless discrepancies amongst the weights and measures in the different Spanish provinces, and there is a very great discrepancy in the accounts of the authors who have written upon them. The following statements are taken from Nelkambeker:—
 The quintal is divided into 4 *arrobas*, or 104 lbs. of 12 oz. to the pound. The pound = 6'174 English grains = 4 Kilog. = 83'255 of Holland, 100 lbs. of Hispania = 88'213 lbs. avoirdupois.

The yard, named *caña*, is divided into 8 *palmas*, of 4 *varas*, and is = 21 inches very nearly. Hence, 100 *cañas* = 2309 metres = 77'5 yards of Amsterdam = 58'514 English yds.
 The *quintero*, or measure for grain, is divided into 13 *cordeles* or *arrobas*, 21 *corrales*, 140 *quintars* = 52'536, or 23 Winchester quarters.
 The *carra*, or measure for liquids, is divided into 12 *corrales* or *arrobas*, 21 *corrales*, and 72 *mitadillos*. It is = 36'7 English wine gallons, 4 *carraes* = 1 pipe. The pipe of Mallorca oil contains 107 corgans.

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commerce, as cinnamon, Peruvian bark, oak bark, quercitron, &c. The term "bark" is, however, generally employed to express either Peruvian bark, or oak bark; and it is these only that we shall notice in this place.

1. *Peruvian or Jesuit's Bark* (Fr. *Quinquina*; Ger. *Kron-china*; Du. *China-bast*; Sp. *Quina*, *Quinquina*; Lat. *Quina, Cortex Peruvianus*). There are three principal species of this bark known in commerce, which have been elaborately described by Dr. A. T. Thomson, from whose account the following particulars are selected.

The first species is the *pale bark* of the shops. It is the produce of the *Cinchona incanifolia*, and is the original cinchona of Peru. It is now very scarce. It is imported in chests covered with skins, each containing about 200 lbs., well packed, but generally mixed with a quantity of dust and other heterogeneous matter. It consists of pieces 8 or 10 inches long, some of them being scarcely one tenth of an inch thick, singly and doubly quilled, or rolled inwards, the quills generally being in size from a swan's quill to an inch and a half. It is internally of a pallid fawn or cinnamon hue, but approximates, on being moistened, to the colour of a pale orange. When in substance it has scarcely any odour, but during decoction the odour is sensible, and agreeably aromatic. The taste is bitter, but not unpleasant, acridulous, and austere.

The second species, or *red bark*, is obtained from the *Cinchona oblongifolia*, growing on the Andes. It is imported in chests containing from 100 to 150 lbs. each. It consists of variously sized pieces, most of them flat, but some partially quilled or rolled. The internal part is woody, and of a rust red colour: it has a weak peculiar odour, and its taste is much less bitter, but more austere and nauseous, than that of the other bark.

The third species, or *yellow bark* of the shops, is obtained from the *Cinchona cordifolia*, growing in Quito and Santa Fé. It is imported in chests containing from 90 to 100 lbs. each, consisting of pieces 8 or 10 inches long, some quilled, but the greater part flat. The interior is of a yellow colour, passing to orange. It has nearly the same odour as the pale; the taste is more bitter and less austere, and it excites no astringent feeling when chewed. The goodness decreases when the colour varies from orange yellow to pale yellow; when of a dark colour, between red and yellow, it should be rejected.

It is needless to add, that bark is one of the most valuable medical remedies. The Indians were unacquainted with its uses, which seem to have been first discovered by the Jesuits. It was introduced into Europe in 1632, but was not extensively used till the latter part of the seventeenth century. According to M. Humboldt, the Jesuits' bark annually exported from America amounts to from 12,000 to 14,000 quintals. Of these, 2,000 are furnished by Santa Fé, and 110 by Loxa; Peru furnishing the remainder, which is shipped at Callao, Guayaquil, &c.

2. *Oak Bark* (Fr. *Ecorce de la Chêne*; Ger. *Eichenrinde*; It. *Corticella della Quercia*; Lat. *Quercus cortex*). The bark of the common oak is a powerful astringent, and is preferred to all other substances for tanning leather. The bark of the larch is now, however, used for the same purpose. Though the importation of oak bark for tanning has somewhat declined of late years, it is still very considerable. It is impossible, however, to state its exact amount, inasmuch as a species of oak bark, called quercitron, the produce of the *Quercus tinctoria*, imported from abroad, and used to give a yellow dye to silk and wool, is mixed up in the custom-house returns with bark for tanning. The latter, which is by far the most important, is brought principally from Belgium and Holland, Germany, Italy and Spain, Norway and Australia. Quercitron comes principally from the United States. The quality of bark differs according to the age and size of the tree, the season when it is barked, &c., so much that its price varies from 5s. to 10s. a ton. The duty on bark for tanning and dyeing, which previously to 1842 was 8d. a cwt. on that imported from a foreign country, was then reduced to 3d. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of Bark for Tanning and Dyeing imported into the United Kingdom during the 11 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries from whence they came, and the Quantities brought from each (from the Tables published by the Board of Trade).

Countries.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.
Sweden	4,498	15,353	15,353	15,353	14,122	14,122	14,122	14,122	14,122	14,122	14,122
Norway	48,150	47,058	29,257	29,257	30,044	17,484	16,856	21,163	31,798	29,967	9,731
Denmark	21,732	8,000	7,966	4,937	15,215	20,738	15,219	10,851	14,238	11,310	6,778
Germany	64,437	76,416	110,828	79,533	60,236	73,639	30,686	44,713	62,431	35,133	16,971
Holland	-	-	104,699	815,822	161,423	185,167	213,401	186,786	194,153	171,735	138,229
Belgium	-	608,204	440,483	307,111	310,968	340,355	318,066	335,791	357,978	209,261	191,511
Spain, and the Balearic Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,383	-	7,122
Gibraltar	78,067	10,758	2,597	2,268	2,056	780	-	-	-	-	-
Italy, and the Italian Islands	3,309	29,696	75,773	49,018	62,208	31,460	41,907	3,293	32,696	57,246	30,326
British Settlements in Australia	95,163	103,684	112,353	111,836	99,817	54,725	78,426	47,990	73,648	78,718	37,749
United States of America	-	29,408	24,540	26,433	39,490	43,607	18,284	18,875	15,692	14,801	8,047
All other Countries	-	134,118	19,658	12,704	24,410	22,999	22,471	29,476	41,754	27,756	60,014
	2,294	332	2,721	273	1,040	2,331	2,080	2,437	2,430	11,901	8,581
Total	-	951,071	774,406	824,192	849,493	826,566	772,117	786,776	618,545	689,230	619,615

The quantities of Bark entered for consumption, with the net amount of duty thereon, in 1810, 1841, and 1842, were

Years.	Quantities.		Duty.
	Cwts.	Qrs. lbs.	
1810	639,866	1 8	28,912 10 4
1841	306,277	2 22	16,592 14 1
1842	632,139	0 17	18,000 16 1

(*Parl. Paper* No. 45, Sess. 1843)

We are indebted for the discovery and application of the useful properties of quercitron to Dr. Bancroft. The doctor obtained a patent for his invention in 1775; but the American war breaking out soon after, deprived him of its advantages. In consideration of this circumstance, parliament passed, in 1785, an act (25 Geo. 3. c. 38.) securing to him the privileges conveyed by his patent for 14 years. At the expiration of the latter period the House of Commons agreed to extend the doctor's privilege for an additional 7 years, but the House of Lords rejected the bill. Like too many discoveries, Dr. Bancroft profited but little by his invention, though it has been of great use to the arts and manufacturers of the country.—(See *Bancroft on Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. p. 112., and the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Patents*, Appendix, p. 175.)

Oak bark, the produce of Europe, is not to be imported into the United Kingdom for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or in ships of the country from which it is imported, on pain of forfeiting the goods, and 100l. by the master of the vessel.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54.)

BARLEY (Fr. *Orges*; Ger. *Gerstengraupen*; Du. *Rygg*; It. *Orzo*; Sp. *Cebada*; Rus. *Futschmet*; Lat. *Hordeum*; Arab. *Dhourra*; Hind. *Jow*), a species of bread-corn (*Hordeum* Lin.), of which there are several varieties. It is extensively cultivated in most European countries, and in most of the temperate districts of Asia and Africa. It may also be raised between the tropics; but not at a lower elevation than from 3,000

to 4,000 feet, and then it is not worth cultivating. Large quantities of barley have been supposed, though probably on no good grounds, to be declining. In 1763, Mr. Charles Smith estimated the number of barley consumers in England and Wales at 739,000; and as a large proportion of the population of Wales, Westmoreland, and Cumberland continue to subsist chiefly on barley bread, we are inclined to think that this estimate may not, at present, be very wide of the mark. But the principal demand for barley in Great Britain is for conversion into malt, to be used in the manufacture of ale, porter, and British spirits; and though its consumption in this way has not certainly increased proportionally to the increase of wealth and population, still there does not seem to be any grounds for supposing that it has diminished. Barley is also extensively used in fattening black cattle, hogs, and poultry. It now generally follows turnips, and is a very important crop in the rotation best adapted to light soils. The principal barley counties of England are Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, Bedford, Hertford, Leicester, Nottingham, the upper parts of Hereford, Warwick, and Salop. The produce varies, according to soil, preparation, season, &c., from about 20 to 60 or 70 bushels an acre. The most usual crop is from 28 to 36 or 38 bushels. The Winchester bushel of good English barley generally weighs about 50 lbs., but the best Norfolk barley sometimes weighs 53 or 54 lbs. Its produce in flour is about 12 lbs. to 14 lbs grain. Barley is a tender plant, and easily hurt in any stage of its growth. It is more hazardous than wheat, and is, generally speaking, raised at a greater expense; so that its cultivation should not be attempted except when the soil and climate are favourable for its growth.—(For details as to the prices of barley, the quantities imported and exported, &c., see CORN LAWS and CORN TRADE. And for further details as to its consumption and culture, see *Smith's Tracts on the Corn Trade*, 2d ed. p. 182.; *Brown on Rural Affairs*, vol. ii. p. 42.; *London's Encyc. of Agriculture*, &c.)

BARRATRY, in navigation, is, in its most extensive sense, any fraudulent or unlawful act committed by the master or mariners of a ship, contrary to their duty to their owners, and to the prejudice of the latter. It appears to be derived from the Italian word *barratrare*, to cheat. It may be committed by running away with a ship, wilfully carrying her out of the course prescribed by the owners, delaying or defeating the voyage, deserting convoy without leave, sinking or deserting the ship, embezzling the cargo, smuggling, or any other offence whereby the ship or cargo may be subjected to arrest, detention, loss, or forfeiture.

It is the practice in most countries to insure against barratry. Most foreign jurists hold, that it comprehends every fault which the master and crew can commit, whether it arise from fraud, negligence, unskillfulness, or mere imprudence. But in this country it is ruled, that no act of the master or crew shall be deemed barratry, unless it proceed from a *criminal or fraudulent* motive.

Barratry can only be committed by the master and mariners by some act contrary to their duty in the relation in which they stand to the owners of the ship. It is, therefore, an offence against them, and consequently an owner himself cannot commit barratry. He may, by his fraudulent conduct, make himself liable to the owner of the goods on board, but not for barratry. Neither can barratry be committed against the owner *with his consent*; for though he may be liable for any loss or damage occasioned by the misconduct of the master to which he consents, yet this is not barratry. Nothing is more clear than that a man can never set up as a crime an act done by his own direction or consent."—(*Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 12. § 6.)

When, therefore, the owner of a ship is also the master, no act of barratry can be committed; for no man can commit a fraud against himself.

It is a maxim in law, that fraud shall not be presumed, but must be clearly proved; and it is a rule in questions of insurance, that he who charges barratry must substantiate it by conclusive evidence.

It is not necessary, to render an act barratrous, that it should be committed with a criminal intent as respects the owners, in order to injure them, or to benefit the captain or crew. It may even be committed with a view to promote the owner's interests; for an *illegal act* done without the authority or privity of the owners, and which proves detrimental to them, is barratry, whatever be the motives in which it originated. Lord Ellenborough, in an able judgment, has laid it down as clear law, "that a breach of duty by the master in respect of his owners, with a fraudulent or criminal intent, or *ex maleficio*, is barratry; that it makes no difference whether this act of the master be induced by motives of advantage to himself, malice to the owner, or a *disregard of those laws which it was his duty to obey*; and that it is not for him to judge or suppose, in cases not entrusted to his discretion, that he is not breaking the trust reposed in him, when he endeavours to advance the interests of his owners by means which the law forbids, and which his owners also must be taken to have forbidden."

The circumstance of the owners of ships being permitted to insure against the barratry of the master and mariners can hardly fail, it may be not uncharitably presumed, of rendering them less scrupulous in their inquiries with respect to their character than they would otherwise be. Perhaps, therefore, it might be expedient to prohibit such insurances, or to lay some restrictions upon them. They were, indeed, expressly forbidden by the Ordinance of Rotterdam; and Lord Mansfield, whose authority on all points connected with the law of insurance is so deservedly high, seems to have thought that it would be well to exclude barratry entirely from policies, and to cease "making the underwriter become the insurer of the conduct of the captain whom he does not appoint, and cannot dismiss, to the owners who can do either." But though it were expedient to prevent the owners from making an insurance of this sort, nothing can be more reasonable than that third parties, who freight a ship, or put goods on board, should be allowed to insure against such a copious source of loss.—(For a further discussion of this subject, see the article *MARINE INSURANCES*; and *Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 12. § 6., and *Park on Insurance*, c. 5.)

Owners, masters, or seamen, who wilfully cast away, burn, or destroy ships, to the prejudice of freighters or insurers, incur the penalty of death.—(See *SEAMEN*.)

BARREL, a cask or vessel for holding liquids, particularly ale and beer. Formerly the barrel of beer in London contained only 32 ale gallons = 32½ Imperial gallons; but it was enacted by 43 Geo. 3. c. 69. that 36 gallons of beer should be taken to be a

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25,967	9,251
11,510	6,774
35,133	16,971
171,735	138,429
191,511	185,857
7,188	1
57,246	50,526
78,718	37,720
14,201	8,947
37,716	60,014
11,901	8,581
912,645	924,952

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barrel; and by the 6 Geo. 4. c. 58. it is enacted, that whenever any gallon measure is mentioned in any excise law, it shall always be deemed and taken to be a standard Imperial gallon. At present, therefore, the barrel contains 36 Imperial gallons. It may be worth while observing that the barrel or cask is exclusively the produce of European ingenuity; and that no such article is known to any nation of Asia, Africa, or America, who have not derived it from Europeans.

BARWOOD, a red dye wood brought from Africa, particularly from Angola, and the river Gaboon. The dark red which is commonly seen upon British Bandana handkerchiefs is for the most part produced by the colouring matter of barwood, saddened by sulphate of iron.—(*Bancroft on Colours.*) The imports of barwood, in 1841, amounted to 2,012 tons. It brought, in January 1843, from 3*l.* to 4*l.* a ton (duty 2*s.* included) in the London market.

BASKETS (Fr. *Corbeilles*; Ger. *Kürbe*; It. *Paniere*; Sp. *Canastas*, *Canastos*; Rus. *Korsnii*) are made, as every one knows, principally of the interwoven twigs of willow, osier, birch, &c., but frequently also of rushes, splinters of wood, straw, and an immense number of other articles. They are used to hold all sorts of dry goods, and are constructed of every variety of quality and shape. Besides the vast quantities produced at home, some of the finer kinds are imported under an *ad valorem* duty, which, previously to 1842, was 20, but has since been only 10 per cent. In 1841, the old duty produced 2,06*l.*, showing that the value of the foreign baskets entered for home consumption in that year had been 10,800*l.*

BAST, for straw hats or bonnets. See *Hats*.

BATAVIA, a city of the island of Java, the capital of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies, and the principal trading port of the Oriental islands, lat. 6° 12' S., long. 106° 54' E., on the north-west coast of the island, on an extensive bay. The harbour, or rather road, lies between the main land and several small uninhabited islands, which, during the boisterous or north-western monsoon, afford sufficient shelter and good anchorage. Ships of from 300 to 500 tons anchor at about 14 mile from shore. A small river runs through the town, which is navigable for vessels of from 20 to 40 tons, a couple of miles inland; a number of canals branch off from it into different parts of the town, affording great conveniences for trade. Batavia was formerly so very insalubrious, that General Daendels was anxious to transfer the seat of government to Sourabaya; but being thwarted in this, he set about building a new town, a little further inland, on the heights of Weltevreden, whither the government offices were immediately removed. Most of the principal merchants have now their residences in the new town, repairing only to the old city, when business requires it, during a portion of the day. In consequence, the old town is at present principally occupied by Chinese, and the descendants of the ancient colonists, several of its streets having been deserted and demolished. More recently, however, the Baron Capellen, whose enlightened administration will long be gratefully remembered in Java, sensible of the superior advantages of the old town as a place of trade, exerted himself to prevent its further decay, by removing the causes of its unhealthiness; to accomplish which, he widened several of the streets, filled up some of the canals, and cleaned others, demolished useless fortifications, &c.; and the effect of these judicious measures has been, that Batavia is now as healthy as any other town in the island. The population, according to an accurate census taken in 1824, consisted of 9,025 Europeans and their descendants, 23,108 natives, 14,708 Chinese, 601 Arabs, and 12,419 slaves; in all, 53,861 persons, exclusive of the garrison. As the population has increased since, it may at present be estimated at from 60,000 to 70,000, independently of the military, of which there are always a considerable number. Among the principal merchants are Dutch, English, Americans, French, and Germans. The island of Java forms the most important portion of the Dutch possessions in the East, and is, in fact, one of the finest colonies in the world. It contains an area of 50,000 square miles, with a population of (probably) about 7,000,000 individuals, or 140 to the square mile.

During the year 1841 the total imports into Java and Madura, on account of private parties, amounted to		
Merchandise	20,156,976 fl.	
Specie	1,807,065 fl.	21,964,041 fl.
The goods and specie imported on account of government amounted to		8,119,882 fl.
		29,483,165 fl.
		Total amount of imports

The merchandise imported consisted of the produce of Europe and America, 12,987,724 fl. West Indies and Bengal, 610,241 fl. China, Manila, and Siam, 1,758,714 fl. Japan, 4,986 fl. Eastern Archipelago, 4,754,611 fl.—Total Merchandise, 20,156,976 fl.

The produce of Europe and America chiefly consisted of			
Glass, crystal, and earthenware	397,411	Furniture	80,342
Dutch cloth and woollen stuffs	174,931	Gold and silver work, and ditto wire	10,640
Foreign ditto ditto	324,483	Laces, and military ornaments	3,054
Dutch linen and cotton goods	4,966,818	Fashionable articles, articles of luxury, perfumes, and	
Foreign ditto ditto	2,717,612	jewellery	198,814
Leather, saddlery, and carriages	62,721	Books, music and musical instruments	36,024
Wearing apparel	83,714	Brass and brass ware	427,467
Opium (from the Levant)	152,000	Steel and steel ware	35,054
Ship stores	107,273	Iron, medicines, and dyeing materials	42,336
Writing materials	50,523	Iron and iron works and machines	971,658
Provisions	6,575,382	Silk stuffs	110,627
Wines and strong liquors	1,059,242	Flags for coffee	135,261

Arrivals of Shipping in 1841.

Flags.	Ships.	Lasts.	Flags.	Ships.	Lasts.
Dutch (from foreign ports)	187	54,411	Kniphaunt	-	1
Ditto (from A. Archipelago)	1,287	41,731	American	-	19
English	78	15,254	Spanish	-	1
French	53	8,517	Chinese	-	4
Swedish	4	31,876	Cochin-Chinese	-	1
Danish	6	774	Siamese	-	5
Belgian	1	137	Various Asiatic	-	301
Hamburgh	7	870			
Portuguese	10	2,271			
			Total ships and vessels	1905	194,228

Official Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Produce exported from Java and Madura in the following Years.

Years.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Indigo.	Hides.	Cloves.	Nutmegs.	Sugar.	Tin.	Rice.	Stains.	Mace.	Arrack.
1839	988,740	6,061	22,063	30,249	803	1,314	108,610	21,426	13,521	5,090	177	1,227
1835	466,871	11,968	53,753	139,998	4,560	5,092	439,543	40,956	23,577	4,905	1,608	2,075
1840	1,139,124	9,911	2,123,911	110,494	53	5,600	1,024,493	62,334	1690,909	29,032	870	5,261
1841	981,467	12,477	1,827,366	180,472	7,600	5,125	1,046,376	48,340	170,913	37,017	1,171	4,378
1842	1,013,254	10,441	1,827,437	167,777	1,719	5,129	841,626	59,127	181,137	36,594	1,432	4,668
1843	1,018,109	29,983	1,890,129	129,210	2,007	3,113	929,769	45,705	1,098,774	73,558	486	5,262
1844	1,229,833	14,484	1,844,600	185,224	8,121	1,018	839,792	78,372	73,628	8,200	6,225	
1845	1,026,190	11,287	1,653,669	105,221	2,231	3,403	1,455,423	73,537	417,017	51,290	830	4,378

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Principal Articles exported from Java and Madura in 1836 and 1845.

Principal Articles.	Quantities exported in 1836.	Value of Exports in 1836.	Quantities exported in 1845.	Value of Exports in 1845.
Arrack	1,477 loggers.	Florins 113,905	4,374 loggers	Florins 132,222
Hides	109,008 p. and 846 piculs	217,715	105,751 pieces	220,610
Indigo	407,738 piculs	1,124,320	1,555,969 lbs.	4,301,608
Coffee	490,079 piculs	13,026,622	1,026,190 piculs	20,125,736
Pepper	7,006 "	123,035	11,227 "	184,433
Rice	36,330 coyans	5,385,612	447,017 "	2,624,011
Spices, Mace	391 piculs	898,228	850 "	32,434
Cloves	2,185 "	155,026	2,234 "	201,015
Nutmegs	3,265 "	1,711,500	3,403 "	610,383
Sugar	509,514 "	9,083,141	1,455,423 "	20,530,292
Tobacco	2,477 kodies	709,850	2,811 kodies	2,284,490
Tin	47,129 piculs	2,715,810	75,536 piculs	4,314,018
All other articles and treasure	-	7,267,833	-	10,005,888
Total value of Exports from Java and Madura in 1836	-	Flor. 42,261,642	-	65,695,168*

* Equal at 20d. per Sorin to £5,491,464.

Bank of Batavia. — A bank for the issue of notes and other banking business, was established at Batavia in 1827, with branches at Samarang and Sourabaya; the history of which is not uninteresting. The capital of the bank, consisting of 2,000,000 fl., divided into 4,000 shares, was subscribed with difficulty; and the most unfavourable anticipations were entertained of the success of the establishment. No sooner, however, had the bank been set on foot, than she began to enjoy a large share of prosperity. The rapid increase of cultivation and commerce in Java led to a corresponding demand for capital, and to the payment of a very high rate of interest on loans; and as the loans made by the bank consisted of bank notes, which cost next to nothing, the profits became quite enormous; so much so that they amounted in 1837 to 33 per cent., the price of the 500 fl. share of bank stock being then only 1,850 fl. But this prosperity was as brief as it was signal. — The offer of an exorbitant interest had tempted, in not a few cases, the bank to make advances on doubtful security; and in Java, as elsewhere, issues of paper payable on demand necessarily stop the moment the circulation has been fully saturated with notes; and this result having been attained in 1838, and the notes issued by the bank being henceforth returned on her for payment, she speedily became involved in the greatest difficulties; many of those who depended on her advances for support were no longer able to meet their engagements; and the whole island was subjected to a severe pecuniary and commercial crisis: in fact, but for the intervention of the government, in 1840, when bank notes were made legal tender for a limited period, she must have stopped payments! This intervention has, however, given her time to recover from the difficulties into which she had been precipitated; and having again, after sustaining a very heavy loss, resumed specie payments, it is to be hoped that she may profit in future by her past experience. — We subjoin

An Account of the Dividends paid by the Bank of Java from 1829 to 1840, both inclusive.

Year.	Dividend.	Year.	Dividend.	Year.	Dividend.
1829	- 9 per cent.	1833	- 20 per cent.	1837	- 35 per cent.
1830	- 12	1834	- 27	1838	- 26
1831	- 12	1835	- 30	1839	- 26
1832	- 18	1836	- 32	1840	- 9

(See the Brochure of M. d'Argout on Java, Singapore, &c., Paris, 1842.)

General Remarks on Java. — The previous statements show that the produce and trade of Java have increased during the last dozen years with a rapidity unknown in any other colony, Cuba, perhaps, excepted. And if the resources and capabilities of this noble island be fully developed, it is quite impossible to say how much farther her trade may be extended. It would far exceed our limits, and even were this not the case, it would involve us in discussions nowise suitable for this work, were we to enter into any detailed examination of the means by which the extension of culture in Java has been brought about. We may, however, shortly mention that the produce for exportation is principally raised on account of government, partly by contributions in kind, and partly and principally by contributions of compulsory labour applied to its production. And, provided these contributions be not carried to an excess, we incline to think that they are at once the least onerous mode in which the natives can be made to pay their taxes, and the most profitable for the government. It is, we apprehend, idle to suppose that industry, if left to itself, will ever become flourishing in a country like Java, where the wants of the inhabitants are so few and so easily satisfied, or where

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Florins.
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3,094
129,814
36,024
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35,424
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the climate indisposes to exertion. No doubt the system of compulsory labour may be easily abused and converted into an instrument of the most grinding oppression; but so long as it is managed with discretion and good sense, we are disposed to believe, from all we can learn, that it is preferable to every other system hitherto devised for developing the resources of tropical countries. (For some remarks on this subject, see the learned and able *Dissertatio Historico-Practica*, on the Dutch East India Company, by Van IJnden, published in 1839, pp. 161.—171.)

Very great public improvements have also been already effected, and are still in progress, in the island. Among others, an excellent high road has been constructed through its whole length, from Bantam on its W. to Sourabaya on its E. coast, whence cross roads lead to all the principal stations. A number of forts have, also, been constructed in commanding situations in the interior, the principal of which at Surackarta, near the centre of the island, is a regular and strong citadel. It is said to be the intention to transfer the seat of government thither from Batavia. These forts have been erected principally to keep the natives in check, and to prevent those outbreaks that have done so much to retard the prosperity of the island. Several important establishments have also been recently founded along the S. coast, which had previously been all but neglected. (See *Argout sur Java, Singapore, &c.*)

Rice used to be the staple product of Java; but it is now far surpassed by coffee and sugar, the culture of both of which has been astonishingly increased. In proof of this we may mention that the exports of coffee, which in 1830 amounted to 288,740 piculs, had increased in 1844 to 1,006,190 do., or to 61,090 tons: while the exports of sugar, which in 1830 amounted to 108,640 piculs, had increased, in 1845, to 1,455,423 piculs, or 88,995 tons. More than half the trade of the island centres in Batavia.

Indigo has also become an important product. The other principal articles of export are tin from Banca, tobacco, tea, and birds' nests.

The imports comprise cottons, woollens, and other manufactured goods; wines and spirits, with iron, hardware, and machinery; opium from the Levant and from Bengal; and a great variety of other articles.

Port Regulations.—The following is the substance of the port regulations of Batavia (No. 14). The commander of a ship arriving in the roads, is not to land himself, or permit any of his crew or passengers to land, until his vessel be visited by a boat from the guard-ship. — 16. The master, on landing, is first to wait on the master attendant, and afterwards report himself at the police office. — 18. A manifest of the whole cargo must be delivered at the Custom-house within 24 hours of the ship's arriving in the roads. — 19. The master of a vessel must lodge the ship's papers with the master attendant when he first lands, which are afterwards to be delivered up to him when he receives his port clearance from the same authority. — 20. No goods can be shipped or landed after sunset, under a penalty of 500 florins. — 21. No goods can be shipped or landed without a special permission from the water fiscal, which, however, is never refused on application. — 22. No tickets or ammittances can be imported, but the prohibition does not extend to fowling pieces amounting 100 florins value.

Tariff.—After a good deal of negotiation, it has been fixed that goods imported in British vessels shall pay an ad valorem duty of 15 per cent., and under the Netherlands flag, of 14 per cent.; that is, a duty upon the wholesale price at Batavia, not in bond. The export duty on coffee, if exported on a foreign bottom to a foreign country, is 3 florins per picul; if on a foreign bottom to a port in the Netherlands, 4 florins; and if on a Netherlands bottom in a Netherlands port, 3 florins. Sugar exported on a foreign bottom, pays 4 florins per picul; but if exported on a Netherlands bottom, 1 florin. Rice on whatever bottom exported, and in whatever country, pays a duty of

3 florins per syang of 97 piculs. Tin, exported on a foreign ship to whatever port, 4 florins per picul; and by a Netherlands ship, 2 florins per picul. The trade in spices is monopolized by the Netherlands Trading Company.

Goods are received in *redepot* not only at Batavia, but at the ports of Samarang, Sourabaya, and Anjier in Java, and Illio in the Straits of Malacca, on payment of a duty of 1 per cent. levied on the invoice value.

Money.—Accounts are kept, at Batavia, in the florin or guilder, divided into centimes, or 100 parts, represented by a copper coinage or dells. The florin is a new coin made expressly for India, but of the same value as the florin current in the Netherlands. It is usually estimated at the rate of 14 to the pound sterling, but the correct par is 11 florins 29 cent. per pound. Doubloons, and the coins of Continental India, are receivable at the Custom-house at a fixed tariff; the Spanish dollar, for example, at the rate of 100 for 850 florins.

Weights.—The Chinese weights are invariably used in commercial transactions at Batavia, and throughout Java and the other Dutch possessions in India. These are the picul and the catty, which is its hundredth part. The picul is commonly estimated at 135 Dutch, or 133½ lbs. avoirdupois, but at Batavia it has been long ascertained and considered to be equal to 136 lbs. avoirdupois.—(*Regensdorp, Coup d'Œil sur l'île de Java, cap. II, &c.; Evidence of British Resolutions, &c. before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the Affairs of the East India Company, 1831; Nederlandsche Staats-Overzigt, 13 August, 1842, and other official information.*)

BATTEN, a name in common use for a scantling of wood 2½ inches thick and 7 wide. If above 7 inches wide, it is called deal.

BAZAAR, a term used in the East to designate a market, or building in which various articles of merchandize are exposed for sale. Bazaars are now met with in most large cities of Europe. There are several in London, of which the one in Soho-square is the most considerable.

BDELLIUM (Arab. *Aflatoun*), a gum-resin, semi-pellucid, and of a yellowish brown or dark brown colour according to its age, unctuous to the touch, but brittle; soon, however, softening between the fingers; in appearance it is not unlike myrrh, of a bitterish taste, and moderately strong smell. Two kinds have been distinguished: the *oposopannum* of the ancients, which is thick like wax; and the common dark sort. It is found in Persia and Arabia, but principally in the latter; all that is met with in India is of Arabian origin. The tree which produces it has not been clearly ascertained.—(*Annals of Materia Medica*.)

BEACONS, in commerce and navigation, public marks or signals to give warning of rocks, shoals, &c. No man is entitled to erect a light-house, beacon, &c., without being empowered by law. The Trinity House corporation are authorised to set up beacons in whatever places they shall think fit; and any person who shall willfully remove or run down any buoy, beacon, &c. belonging to the Trinity House, or to any other corporation, individual or individuals, having authority to establish it, shall, besides being liable to the expense of replacing the same, forfeit a sum of not less than 10*l.* nor more than 50*l.* for every such offence.—(*6 Geo. 4 c. 125. § 91.*)—(See **BUOYS**.)

BEADS (Fr. *Rosaires*; Ger. *Rosenkränze*; Du. *Paternosters*; It. *Corone*; Sp. *Coronas*), small globules or balls used as necklaces, and made of different materials; as pearl, steel, amber, garnet, coral, diamonds, crystal, glass, &c. Roman Catholics use beads in rehearsing their Ave Marias and Paternosters. Glass beads or bugles are imported in large quantities into India and Africa, 288,058 lbs. having been shipped from this country to the W. coast of the latter in 1841. Large quantities are sent from China to India, the Eastern islands, &c. The glass beads sent from England are nearly all imported, principally from Venice, where they are very largely produced. Their non-manufacture in this country is said to be a consequence of the excise regulations as to the manufacture of glass; but the truth is, that the Venetian manufacturers colour them better, and give them a better finish than the English.

BEANS (Fr. *Fèves*; Ger. *Bohnen*; It. *Fave*; Rus. *Boobü*; Sp. *Habas*; Lat. *Faba*; a well-known vegetable of the pulse species, largely cultivated both in gardens and fields. Its cultivation is of much importance in rural economy, inasmuch as it has gone far to supersede fallows on strong loams and clays.

BEAVER. See **SKINS**.

BEECH (*Fagus sylvatica*), a forest tree to be met with every where in England. There is only one species, the difference in the wood proceeding from the difference of soil and situation. A considerable quantity of beech is grown in the southern parts of Bucks. It is not much used in building, as it soon rots in damp places; but it is used as piles in places where it is constantly wet. It is manufactured into a great variety of tools, for which its great hardness and uniform texture render it superior to all other sorts of wood; it is also extensively used in making furniture.

BEEF, as every one knows, is the flesh of kine. It is used either fresh or salted. Formerly it was usual for most families, at least in the country, to supply themselves with a stock of salt beef in October or November, which served for their consumption until the ensuing summer, but in consequence of the universal establishment of markets where fresh beef may be at all times obtained, the practice is now nearly relinquished, and the quantity of salted beef made use of as compared with fresh beef is quite inconsiderable. Large supplies of salted beef are, however, prepared at Cork and other places for exportation to the East and West Indies. During the war, large supplies were also required for victualling the navy. The vessels engaged in the coasting trade, and in short voyages, use only fresh provisions.

The English have at all times been great consumers of beef; and at this moment more beef is used in London, as compared with the population, than any where else. — Previously to 1842 the importation of fresh beef was prohibited; and salt beef from a foreign country was at the same time charged with a duty of 12s. a cwt. The entries of the latter for consumption were in consequence inconsiderable, having amounted in 1840 to only 3,892, and in 1841 to 1,698 cwts. (principally hung beef from Hamburg). Both fresh and salted beef may now be imported on paying a duty of 8s. a cwt. For farther details with respect to the consumption of beef, &c. see arts. **CATTLE** and **PROVISIONS**.

BEER. See **ALE** and **BEER**.

BELL-METAL (Fr. *Metal de Fonte ou de cloches*; Ger. *Glockengut*; Du. *Klokspys*; Sp. *Campanil*; Rus. *Kolokhnaja mjed*), a composition of tin and copper, usually consisting of 3 parts of copper and 1 of tin. Its colour is greyish white; it is very hard, sonorous, and elastic. Less tin is used for church bells than for clock bells; and in very small bells, a little zinc is added to the alloy. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

BENZOIN. See **BALSAM**.

BERGEN, the first commercial city of Norway, situated at the bottom of a deep bay, in lat. 60° 24' N., long. 5° 20' E. Population 22,500. The bay is inclosed on all sides by rugged rocks and islands: the water is deep; but, owing to the number and intricacy of the passages, the access to the town is attended at all times with a good deal of difficulty, and should never be attempted without a pilot. Codfish, salted or dried, is the principal article of export; when dried, it is called stock-fish, and goes chiefly to Italy and Holland. The fishery is the principal employment; and considerable quantities of fish and other products are also brought hither for exportation from the more northerly parts of the kingdom. At an average, from 25,000,000 to 30,000,000 lbs. salted and dried fish are annually exported. Herrings, whale oil, skins, bones, tar, lobsters, &c. are also largely exported. The exports of timber from Bergen are inconsiderable, and none has latterly gone to England. Norway timber is not so large as that brought from Prussian ports, nor so free from knots; but, being of slower growth, it is more compact, and less liable to rot. The planks are either red or white fir or pine: the red wood is produced from the Scotch fir; the white wood, which is inferior in price and estimation, is the produce of the spruce fir: each tree yields three pieces of timber of 11 or 12 feet in length; and is 70 or 80 years of age before it arrives at perfection. The planks or deals of Bergen are, however, a good deal inferior to those of Christiania.

The imports into Bergen principally consist of grain from the Baltic; and salt, hardware, coffee, sugar, &c. from England.

For *Monies, Weights, and Measures*, see CHRISTIANA; where there are further details as to the trade and navigation of Norway.

BERRIES (*Bacca*), the fruits or seeds of many different species of plants. The berries quoted in London Price Currents are bay, juniper, Turkey, and Persian.

1. *Bay Berries* (*Fr. Baies de Laurier*; Ger. *Lorbeerens*; It. *Bacchi di Lawro*; Sp. *Bayas*), the fruit of the *Laurus nobilis*. This tree is a native of the south of Europe, but is cultivated in this country, and is not uncommon in our gardens. The berry is of an oval shape, fleshy, and of a dark purple colour, almost black; it has a sweet fragrant odour, and an aromatic astringent taste. Bay berries, and the oil obtained by boiling them in water, are imported from Italy and Spain.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

2. *Juniper Berries* (*Fr. Genévrier*; Du. *Sevenboom*; It. *Ginepro*; Sp. *Embro*), the fruit of the common juniper (*Juniperus communis*). They are round, of a black purple colour, and require two years to ripen. They have a moderately strong, not disagreeable, but peculiar smell, and a warm, pungent, sweetish taste, which, if they be long chewed, or previously well bruised, is followed by a considerable bitterness. They are found in this country; but most of those made use of here are imported from Holland, Germany, and Italy. They should be chosen fresh, not much shrivelled, and free from mouldiness, which they are apt to contract in keeping. On distillation with water, they yield a volatile essential oil, very subtle and pungent, and in smell resembling the berries. The peculiar flavour and diuretic qualities of Geneva depend principally on the presence of this oil. English gin is said to be, for the most part, flavoured with oil of turpentine.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The duty on juniper berries, previously to 1832, was 11s. 1d. a cwt., being more than 100 per cent. on their price in bond. The oppressiveness of this duty seems to have been the principal reason why turpentine, which in regard to all other respects is so inferior, was largely used in preference to juniper berries in the preparation of gin. This oppressive duty was reduced, in 1832, to 2s., and again, in 1842, to 1s. 6d.; and we entertain little doubt that this wise and liberal measure will at no distant period occasion the receipt of an equal amount of revenue, at the same time that it can hardly fail materially to improve the beverage of a large proportion of the people. In 1842, 7,773 cwt. juniper berries were entered for consumption.

Italian juniper berries fetch at present (Jan. 1843), in the London market, from 10s. to 12s. a cwt., duty included; and German and Dutch ditto, from 9s. to 10s.

3. *Turkey Yellow Berries*, the unripe fruit of the *Rhamnus infectorius* of Linnæus. They are used as a dye drug, in preparing a lively but very fugitive yellow, for topical application in calico-printing. Considerable quantities of them are exported from Salonica, to which they are brought from Thessaly and Albania. An inferior sort is produced in France.—(*Bancroft on Colours*.) The duty on Turkey berries is 1s. 1d. and their price, duty included, in the London market, is (Jan. 1843) 34s. to 36s. a cwt.

4. *Persian Yellow Berries* are said by the merchants to be of the same species as the Turkey yellow berries. The colours which they yield are more lively and lasting. They are high priced, fetching (duty 1s. included) from 110s. to 130s. a cwt. The entries of yellow berries (Turkey as well as Persian) for home consumption, amounted in 1842 to 4,944 cwt.

BERYL, called by the jewellers *Aquamarine*. This stone was suspected by Pliny to be a variety of the emerald; a conjecture which modern mineralogists have completely confirmed. The term emerald is applied to that particular variety which presents its own peculiar colour, or *emerald green*; while that of beryl is given indiscriminately to all the other varieties; as the sea green, pale blue, golden yellow, and colourless. Pliny says that the beryl is found in India, and rarely elsewhere; but besides India, it is found in Peru and Brazil; in Nantes and Limoges, in France; in the Wicklow mountains, in Ireland; in the district of Cairngorm, in Scotland; and in various other places.—(*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvii. cap. 5*; *Encyc. Brit. new edit.*)

"Those only which are of good colour and sufficient depth are manufactured; they have a pretty, lively effect, if in good proportion and well polished. Large stones, from one to three and four ounces, are not uncommon, but from their bulk are only in request as specimens for the cabinet; smaller stones suitable for necklaces may be bought at low prices, within the reach of every description of purchasers; ring stones may be had at a few shillings each; and larger, for brooches or seals, from 1l. to 5l. and often lower."—(*Natue on Diamonds, &c. 2d edit.*)

BETEL-NUT, or **ARECA** (Sans. and Hind. *Suapri*; Malay, *Pinang*; Javan. *Jambi*), the fruit of the *Areca catechu*, a slender and graceful palm, rising to the height of about 30 or 40 feet; it produces fruit at the age of five or six years, and continues bearing till its 25th or 30th year. The fruit, which is the only part of the palm that is made use of, is eaten both in its unripe and in its mature state. When ripe, it is of the size of a small egg, and of an orange colour; the exterior part consists of a soft, spongy, fibrous matter, inclosing a nucleus resembling a nutmeg in shape, internal structure, and colour, but usually larger, and always harder. A single tree produces, according to its situation, age, culture, &c., from 200 to 800 nuts. They are objects of great importance in the East, forming the principal ingredient of a compound in universal use as a masticatory in all Central and Tropical Asia. The other ingredients are the leaf of the Betel pepper — (which see), in which the areca nut is wrapped; a little CHUNAM — (which see); and generally, but not always, a little *catechu* or terra japonica — (see CATZCHI). The whole compound is called *betel*, and is used to an extent of which it is difficult for a European to form a just idea. All individuals, without exception of age or sex, begin at an early period to accustom themselves to betel. They are unceasingly masticating it, and derive a gratification from its use that strangers can neither understand nor explain. It reddens the saliva, gives a bright hue to the lips, and, in course of time, renders the teeth quite black. It is said to dispel nausea, excite appetite, and strengthen the stomach. Besides being used as an article of luxury, it is a kind of ceremonial which regulates the intercourse of the more polished classes of the East. When any person of consideration visits another, after the first salutations,

leaf is presented; to omit it on the one part would be considered neglect, and its rejection would be judged an affront on the other. No one of inferior rank addresses a dignified individual without the previous precaution of chewing betel; two people seldom meet without exchanging it; and it is always offered on the ceremonious interviews of public missionaries. The areca nut is, in consequence, an article of very extensive trade. The countries which yield it most largely for exportation are Malabar, Ceylon, and Sumatra. Of the extent of this trade some notion may be formed from the fact, that the imports of areca into Calcutta in 1841-42 amounted to 53,633 Ind. maunds, or 1,966 tons, and those into Canton, in 1837, by British ships only, amounted to 25,978 piculs, or 1,502 tons, notwithstanding Bengal and Southern China are countries in which areca is largely produced.—(See the article *Betel* in the new edition of the *Ency. Britannica*; *Bell's Review of the External Commerce of Bengal*; *Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. i. p. 102, vol. iii. p. 414.; *Chinese Kalender and Register*.)

BETEL-LEAF (Hind. *Pan*; Malay, *Sireh*; Javan. *Suro*), the leaf alluded to in the foregoing article. It is the produce of a species of pepper vine (*Piper Betle*), and somewhat resembles the ivy leaf. In their fresh state, betel leaves form an important article of Eastern traffic, being every where used in the preparation of betel. The *Piper Betle* is a scandent plant, and poles are placed in the ground, round which it twines itself. In consequence of the great consumption of its leaves, it is extensively cultivated throughout Tropical Asia. It grows in the greatest perfection in rich soils close to the equator; and is raised with more difficulty the further we recede from it.—(*Ency. Britannica*, new edition, article *Betel*; *Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. i. p. 403.)

BEZOAR (Arab. *Fadyj*; Hind. *Zeher-morah*; Pers. *Padzehr Kowie*), a concretion found in the stomach of an animal of the goat kind; it has a smooth glossy surface, and is of a dark green or olive colour: the word bezoar, however, has lately been extended to all the concretions found in animals;—such as the *hog bezoar*, found in the stomach of the wild boar in India; the *bovine bezoar*, found in the gall-bladder of the ox, common in Nepal; and the *camel bezoar*, found in the gall-bladder of the camel: this last is much prized as a yellow paint by the Hindoos. The finest bezoar is brought to India from Borneo and the sea-ports of the Persian Gulf; the Persian article is particularly sought after, and is said to be procured from animals of the goat kind, *Capra Gazella*. Many extraordinary virtues were formerly ascribed to this substance, but without any sufficient reason.—(*Ainslie's Materia Indica*.)

BILBAO, or (as it is commonly, though incorrectly, written in this country) **BILBOA**, a sea-port town of Spain, in the province of Biscay, on the river Ybai Cabal, about 9 miles from Portugalete. Population 15,000.

Port.—The bay of Bilbao lies between *Punto Galea* on its east, and *Punto Luwero* on its western side, distant about 3 miles. It stretches S. E. to within $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile of Portugalete, in lat. $43^{\circ} 15' 47''$ N., long. $2^{\circ} 45'$ W., near the mouth of the river on which Bilbao is built. The water in the bay varies from 8 to 10 and 14 fathoms. There is a bar at the mouth of the river, between Santurce and Portugalete, on which there is not above 4 feet water at ebb tide. High water at full and change at 3 h. p. m. Spring tides rise about 18 feet; and large ships taking advantage of them sometimes ascend the river as far as Bilbao; but they usually load and unload by lighters, either at Portugalete, or at Oliviaga, 4 miles below the town. Pilots are to be had at Santurce, without the bar. In winter, a heavy sea sometimes sets into the bay; but if the pilot cannot go off, he places himself on one of the batteries to the N. W. of Santurce, and makes signals with a red flag, so as to direct the ship to the best anchorage ground.—(See *Laurie's Chart of the Bay of Biscay*, with the *Sailing Directions* that accompany it.)

Trade.—Bilbao is favourably situated for commerce. The Biscayans are distinguished for the zeal and courage with which they have defended their peculiar privileges, and for their industry and activity. Bilbao and Santander are the principal ports through which the extensive province of Old Castile, and large portions of Leon and Navarre, most easily communicate with foreign countries. They have, in consequence, particularly the former, a pretty considerable foreign trade. Wool is one of the principal articles of export; but since the introduction of Merino sheep into Germany, and their extraordinary increase in that country, this branch of Spanish commerce, though still in a good deal of importance, has materially declined. Since the abolition, in 1820, of all restrictions on the exportation of corn, flour, &c., the shipments of wheat from Bilbao have been, in some years, very considerable. The supplies are principally brought from the provinces of Valencia, Valladolid, and Zamora, which yield immense quantities of wheat. The distance is from 130 to 140 English miles; and owing to the badness of the roads, and the deficient means of transport, the rate of carriage advances enormously when there is any extraordinary foreign demand. If the *Canal of Castile*, intended to unite the Douro with Reynosa, Bilbao, and Santander, were completed, it would make a considerable revolution in this trade. The *campes*, or plains, on the south side of the Dduro, are amongst the finest wheat countries in the world; the crops being frequently so abundant, that the peasants decline reaping the fields at a distance from the villages. In 1831, 146,234 quarters of Spanish wheat, principally from Bilbao, were imported into Great Britain; but from that period down to 1839 the exports of corn to this country were quite inconsiderable. In 1840 they amounted to 40,939 quarters. The iron manufactures of Biscay are in a state of considerable activity, and some part of the produce is exported. The principal articles of importation are wove fabrics, cod-fish, cutlery, and jewellery (sugar, coffee, cacao, and other colonial products, spices, indigo, &c.—(See *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 9, art. *Spain*; and *private information*.)

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of Castile; which see. We may mention, however, that the *faneqa*, or measure for grain, is equivalent to 165 Winchester quarters.

BILL OF EXCHANGE. See **EXCHANGE**.

BILL OF HEALTH, a certificate or instrument signed by consuls or other proper authorities, delivered to the masters of ships at the time of their clearing out from all ports or places suspected of being particularly subject to infectious disorders, certifying

the state of health at the time that such ship sailed. A *clean bill* imports that at the time that the ship sailed no infectious disorder was known to exist. A *suspected bill*, commonly called a *touché* patent or bill, imports that there were rumours of an infectious disorder, but that it had not actually appeared. A *foul bill*, or the absence of clean bills, imports that the place was infected when the vessel sailed. — (See QUARANTINE.)

BILL OF LADING, is a *formal receipt* subscribed by the master of a ship in his capacity of carrier, acknowledging that he has received the goods specified in it on board his ship, and binding himself (under certain exceptions) to deliver them, in the like good order as received, at the place and to the individual named in the bill, or his assigns, on his or their paying him the stipulated freight, &c. When goods are sent by a ship hired by a charterparty, the bills of lading are delivered by the master to the merchant by whom the ship is chartered; but when they are sent by a *general ship*, — that is, by a ship not hired by charterparty, but employed as a general carrier, — each individual who sends goods on board, receives a bill of lading for the same. In all cases, therefore, the bill of lading is the evidence of and title to the goods shipped.

The liability of a carrier, at common law, to deliver the goods entrusted to his care, is cancelled only by "the act of God and the king's enemies." But to limit this responsibility, the following exception is now, invariably almost, introduced into the clause in bills of lading, binding the master to the delivery of the goods: — "*The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, excepted.*"

Bills of lading are not, in general, immediately given by the master on receiving the goods. The usual practice is for the master or his deputy to give a common receipt for the goods, which is delivered up on receiving the bill of lading. The latter should always be required within 24 hours after the goods are received on board.

Three sets of all bills of lading are made out on stamped paper: one of these should be remitted by the first post to the person to whom the goods are consigned, a second being sent to him by the ship; the third is retained by the shipper of the goods. The master ought always to retain copies of the bills of lading for his government. A stamp duty of 3s. is charged on all bills of lading, whether for goods exported or carried coastwise.

The usual form of a bill of lading is as follows: —

W. B. } *N.B.* — SHIPPED, in good order and well conditioned, by *A.B.* merchant, in and upon
No. 1. a. 10. } the good ship called _____ whereof *C.D.* is master, now in the river Thames, and
_____ the goods following, viz. *(here describe the goods,)* marked
_____ and numbered as *per margin*, to be delivered, in the like good order and condition, as
aforesaid, *(the act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and
accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, excepted,)*
unto the said *A.B.* or his assigns, he or they paying for the said goods at the rate of
per piece freight, with *primage* and *average* accustomed. In witness whereof, I, the said
master of the said ship, have affirmed to three bills of lading, of this tenour and date; any
one of which bills being accomplished, the other two are to be void.
London, this _____ day of _____, 1843. C. D., *Master.*

But in the case of ships homeward bound from the West Indies, which send their boats to fetch the cargo from the shore, the exception in the bill of lading is usually expressed as follows: — "The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, *save risk of boats, so far as ships are liable thereto, excepted.*" Other exceptions may be and are sometimes introduced; but the above is the general form.

Transfer of Bills of Lading. — Bills of lading are transferable either by blank or special indorsement, like bills of exchange. And whatever may be the character of the person to whom the goods are consigned, whether he be a buyer, or merely the factor, agent, or broker of the consignor, the *bonâ fide* holder of a bill of lading indorsed by the consignee is entitled to the goods, and may claim them from the master, if he can prove that he has purchased the bill for a *good consideration*; but unless he can do this, he is not entitled to the goods. — (*Holt, Law of Shipping*, 2d ed. p. 363.)

Formerly, a factor, though he might sell, could not *pledge* the goods of his principal. But the hardship and inconvenience arising from this rule were such, that it was set aside by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 94. The second section of this act declares, that any person in possession of a bill of lading shall be deemed the true owner of the goods specified in it, so as to make a sale or pledge by him of such goods or bill of lading valid, unless the person to whom the goods are sold or pledged has notice that the seller or pledger is not the actual and *bonâ fide* owner of the goods. — (See *Factor*.)

Delivery under Bill of Lading. — It being usual to sign and deliver three bills of lading, it is possible that there may be conflicting demands upon the captain by the different holders. Nothing, however, is, in such a case, required of him, except that he act with good faith, and to the best of his judgment; and that he make delivery of the goods to the person who first demands them of him, upon presentment of the bill of lading, *provided the circumstances be not such as to justify a suspicion of his having unfairly*

got possession of it. If he act differently, he is answerable, according to the peculiarities of the case, to the person injured by his negligence; the bill of lading being not only the instructions of the merchant to him, as his carrier or servant, but his own especial agreement to deliver according to its conditions.

Where several bills of lading of a different import have been signed, no regard is to be paid to the time when they were first signed by the master; but the person who first gets legal possession of one of them from the owner or shipper, has a right to the consignment; and where such bills of lading, though different upon the face of them, are constructively the same, and the master has acted *bonâ fide*, a delivery according to such legal title will discharge him from all. — (*Holt*, p. 375. and 377.)

BILL OF SALE, a contract under seal, by which an individual conveys or passes away the right and interest he has in the goods or chattels named in the bill. The property of ships is transferred by bill of sale. — (*See Rzoistav*.)

BILL OF SIGHT. When a merchant is ignorant of the real quantities or qualities of any goods assigned to him, so that he is unable to make a perfect entry of them, he must acquaint the collector or comptroller of the circumstance; and they are authorised, upon the importer or his agent making oath that he cannot, for want of full information, make a perfect entry, to receive an entry by *bill of sight*, for the packages, by the best description which can be given, and to grant warrant that the same may be landed and examined by the importer in presence of the officers; and within 3 days after any goods shall have been so landed, the importer shall make a perfect entry, and shall either pay down the duties, or shall duly warehouse the same. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 24.)

In default of perfect entry within 3 days, such goods are to be taken to the king's warehouse; and if the importer shall not, within 1 month, make perfect entry, and pay the duties thereon, or on such parts as can be entered for home use, together with charges of moving and warehouse rent, such goods shall be sold for payment of the duties. — § 25.

The East India Company are authorised, without the proof before-mentioned, to enter goods by bill of sight, and to make perfect entry, and pay the duties within 3 months. — § 26.

BILL OF STORE, is a licence granted by the Custom-house, to merchants, to carry such stores and provisions as are necessary for a voyage, free of duty.

By the act 3 and 4 Will. 4. c. 52. returned goods may be entered by bill of store, as follows: —

From 5th January, 1826, it shall be lawful to re-import into the United Kingdom, from any place, in a ship of any country, any goods (except as herein-after excepted) which shall have been legally exported from the United Kingdom, and to enter the same by bill of store, referring to the entry outwards, and exportation thereof; provided the property in such goods continue in the person by whom or on whose account the same have been exported; and if the goods so returned be foreign goods which had before been legally imported into the United Kingdom, the same duties shall be payable thereon as would, at the time of such re-importation, be payable on the like goods, under the same circumstances of importation as those under which such goods had been originally imported; or such goods may be warehoused upon a first importation thereof: provided always, that the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the list following shall not be re-imported into the United Kingdom for *home use*, upon the ground that the same had been legally exported from thence, but that the same shall be deemed to be *foreign* goods, whether originally such or not, and shall also be deemed to be imported for the first time into the United Kingdom; viz.

Goods exported, which may not be re-imported for Home Use.

Corn, grain, meal, flour, and malt; hops, tobacco, tea.

Goods for which any bounty or any drawback of excise had been received on exportation, unless by special permission of the commissioners of customs, and on repayment of such bounty or such drawback.

All goods for which bill of store cannot be issued in manner herein-after directed, except small remnants of British goods, by special permission of the commissioners of customs, upon proof of their satisfaction that the same are British, and had not been sold. — § 33.

The person in whose name any goods so re-imported were entered for exportation, shall deliver to the searcher, at the port of exportation, an exact account signed by him of the particulars of such goods, referring to the entry and clearance outwards, and to the return inwards of the same, with the marks and numbers of the packages both inwards and outwards; and thereupon the searcher, finding that such goods had been legally exported, shall grant a bill of store for the same; and if the person in whose name the goods were entered for exportation was not the proprietor thereof, but his agent, he shall declare upon oath on such bill of store the name of the person by whom he was employed as such agent; and if the person to whom such returns are consigned shall not be such proprietor and exporter, he shall declare upon oath on such bill of store the name of the person for whose use such goods have been consigned to him; and the real proprietor, ascertained to be such, shall make oath upon such bill of store to the identity of the goods so exported and so returned, and that he was at the time of exportation and of re-importation the proprietor of such goods, and that the same had not during such time been sold or disposed of to any other person; and such affidavits shall be made before the collectors or comptrollers at the ports of exportation and of importation respectively, and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall admit such goods to entry by bill of store, and grant their warrant accordingly. — § 34.

BILLINGSGATE, a market for fish, contiguous to the Custom-house in London. It is held every lawful day, and was established in 1669 by stat. 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 24. Every person buying fish in Billingsgate market may sell the same in any other market-place or places within the city of London or elsewhere, by retail, with this condition, that none but fishmongers be permitted to sell in fixed shops or houses. No person or persons shall purchase at Billingsgate any quantity of fish, to be divided by

lots or in shares amongst any fishmongers or other persons, in order to be afterwards put to sale by retail or otherwise; nor shall any fishmonger engross, or buy in the said market, any quantity of fish, but what shall be for his own sale or use, under the penalty of 20*l*. No person is to have in his possession, or expose to sale, any spawn of fish, or fish unseasonable, or out of season.—(36 Geo. 3. c. 118.) The minimum size of the lobsters to be sold at Billingsgate is fixed by statute.—(See *Lobsters*.)

Down to 1842 no fish of foreign taking or curing, or in foreign vessels, could be imported into the United Kingdom, under penalty of forfeiture, except turbot and lobsters, stock-fish, live eels, anchovies, sturgeon, botargo, and caviars. But now all sorts of fish may be imported on payment of moderate duties. Fresh fish of British taking, and imported in British ships, may be landed without report, entry, or warrant.—(6 Geo. 4. c. 107.)

For some further remarks with respect to this subject, see *FISH*.

BIRCH (Fr. *Bouleau*; Du. *Berke*; Ger. *Birke*; It. *Betulla*; Lat. *Betula*; Pol. *Brosza*; Rus. *Beresta*; Sp. *Abedul*, *Betulla*), a forest tree met with every where in the north of Europe. It is applied to various purposes. In Lapland, Norway, and Sweden, the long twigs of the birch are woven into mats and twisted into ropes; the outer bark forms an almost inextinguishable covering for houses; and the inner bark is used, in periods of scarcity, as a substitute for bread. Russia leather is prepared by means of the empyreumatic oil of the birch. It is an excellent wood for the turner, being light, compact, and easily worked. Its durability is not very great. It is sometimes used in the manufacture of herring barrels.

BIRD-LIME (Ger. *Vogelleim*; Fr. *Glu*; It. *Pania*; Sp. *Liga*; Rus. *Птичий Клей*) exudes spontaneously from certain plants, and is obtained artificially from the middle bark of the holly. Its colour is greenish, its flavour sour, and it is gluey, astringent, and tenacious. The natural is more adhesive than the artificial birdlime.—(Thomson's *Chemistry*.)

BIRDS' NESTS (Ger. *Indianische Vogelneester*; Du. *Indiuanachs Vogelneestjes*; Fr. *Nids de Tunkin*; It. *Nidi di Tunchino*; Sp. *Nidos de la China*; Javan. *Suan*; Malay, *Sarungburing*), the nests of a species of swallow peculiar to the Indian islands (*Hirundo esculenta*), very much esteemed in China. In shape this nest resembles that of other swallows; it is formed of a viscid substance; and in external appearance, as well as consistence, is not unlike fibrous, ill-connected isinglass. Excellent nests are principally found in Java, in caverns that are most frequently, though not always, situated on the sea-coast. Many conflicting statements have been made as to the substance of nests; some contending that they are formed of sea-foam or other marine products, and others that they are elaborated from the food of the bird, &c. But these are points as to which nothing satisfactory is known.

We borrow from Mr. Crawford's valuable work on the *Eastern Archipelago* (vol. iii. pp. 438—437.) the following authentic and curious details as to the traffic in this singular production:—"The best nests are those obtained in deep damp caves, and such as are taken before the birds have laid their eggs. The coarsest are those obtained after the young are fledged. The finest nests are the whitest, that is, those taken before the nest has been rendered impure by the food and feces of the young birds. They are taken twice a-year, and, if regularly collected, and no unusual injury be offered to the caverns, will produce very equally, the quantity being very little, if at all, improved by the caves being left altogether unmoistened for a year or two. Some of the caverns are extremely difficult of access, and the nests can only be collected by persons accustomed from their youth to the office. The most remarkable and productive caves in Java, of which I superintended a moiety of the collection for several years, are those of *Karang-bolang*, in the province of *Engles*, on the south coast of the island. Here the caves are only to be approached by a perpendicular descent of many hundred feet, by ladders of bamboo and rattan, over a sea rolling violently against the rocks. When the mouth of the cavern is attained, the perilous office of taking the nests must often be performed by torch-light, by penetrating into recesses of the rock where the slightest trip would be instantly fatal to the adventurers, who see nothing below them but the turbulent surf making its way into the chasms of the rock.

"The only preparation which the birds' nests undergo is that of simple drying, without direct exposure to the sun, after which they are packed in small boxes, usually of half a picul. They are assured for the Chinese market into three kinds, according to their qualities, distinguished into *first* or *best*, *second*, and *third* qualities. Caverns that are regularly managed, will afford, in 100 parts, 85 parts of those of the first quality, 35 parts of those of the second, 11 parts of those of the third.

"The common prices for birds' nests at Canton are, for the first sort, no less than 3,000 Spanish dollars the picul, or 6*l*. 18*s*. 1*d*. per lb.; for the second, 2,000 Spanish dollars per picul; and for the third, 1,600 Spanish dollars. From these prices it is sufficiently evident, that the birds' nests are no more than an article of expensive luxury. They are consumed only by the great; and, indeed, the best part is sent to the capital for the consumption of the court. The sensual Chinese use them, under the imagination that they are powerfully stimulating and tonic; but it is probable that their most valuable quality is their being perfectly harmless. The people of Japan, who so much resemble the Chinese in many of their habits, have no taste for the edible nests; and how the latter acquired a taste for this foreign commodity is no less singular than their persevering in it. Among the western nations there is nothing parallel to it, unless we except the whimsical estimation in which the Romans held some articles of luxury, remarkable for their scarcity rather than for any qualities ascribed to them."

Mr. Crawford estimates the whole quantity of birds' nests exported from the Archipelago at 349,400 lbs. worth 28*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*. "The value," he observes, "of this immense property in the country which produces it, rests upon the capricious wants of a single people. It is claimed as the exclusive property of the sovereign, and every where forms a valuable branch of his income, or of the revenue of the state. This value, however, is of course not equal, and depends upon the situation and the circumstances connected with the caverns in which the nests are found. Being often in remote and sequestered situations, in a country an lawless, a property so valuable and exposed is subject to the perpetual depredation of freebooters, and it not unfrequently happens that an attack upon it is the principal object of the warfare committed by one

petty state against another. In such situations, the expense of affording them protection is so heavy, that they are necessarily of little value. In situations where the caverns are difficult of access to strangers, and where there reigns enough of order and tranquillity to secure them from internal depredation, and to admit of the nests being obtained without other expense than the simple labour of collecting them, the value of the property is very great. The caverns of *Korow-Joling*, in Java, are of this description. These annually afford 6,810 lbs. of nests, which are worth, at the Batavia prices of 2,000, 2,500, and 1,200 Spanish dollars the picul, for the respective kinds, nearly 130,000 Spanish dollars; and the whole expense of collecting, curing, and packing, amounts to no more than 11 per cent. on this amount. The price of birds' nests is of course a monopoly price, the quantity produced being by nature limited, and incapable of augmentation. The value of the labour expended in bringing birds' nests to market is but a trifling portion of their price, which consists of the highest sum that the luxurious Chinese will afford to pay for them, and which is a tax paid by that nation to the inhabitants of the Indian islands. There is, perhaps, no production upon which human industry is exerted, of which the cost of production bears so small a proportion to the market price."—(See also the valuable work of Count Högendorf, *Coup d'Œil sur l'Isle de Java*, p. 201.)

BISMUTH (Ger. *Wismuth*; Du. *Bismuth*, *Bergsteen*; Fr. *Bismuth*; It. *Bismutti*; Sp. *Bismuth*, *Piedra inga*; Rus. *Wismut*; Lat. *Bismuthum*), a metal of a reddish white colour, and almost destitute of taste and smell. It is softer than copper; its specific gravity is 9.822. When hammered cautiously, its density is considerably increased; it breaks, however, when struck smartly by a hammer, and, consequently, is not malleable, neither can it be drawn out into wire; it melts at the temperature of 476°. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

"Bismuth is used in the composition of pewter, in the fabrication of printers' types, and in various other metallic mixtures. With an equal weight of lead, it forms a brilliant white alloy, much harder than lead, and more malleable than bismuth, though not ductile; and if the proportion of lead be increased, it is rendered still more malleable. Eight parts of bismuth, 5 of lead, and 3 of tin, constitute the fusible metal, sometimes called Newton's, from its discoverer, which melts at the heat of boiling water, and may be fused over a candle in a piece of stiff paper without burning the paper. Pewterers' solder is formed of one part of bismuth, with 5 of lead, and 3 of tin. It forms the basis of a sympathetic ink."—(*Ure*.)

BITUMEN (Ger. *Judenpech*; Du. *Jodenlym*; It. *Asfalto*; Sp. *Asfalto*; Port. *Asphalto*; Rus. *Asfalt*; Lat. *Asphaltum Bitumen Judaicum*). This term includes a considerable range of inflammable mineral substances, burning with the flame in the open air. They differ in consistency, from a thin fluid to a solid; but the solids are for the most part liquefiable at a moderate heat. They are,—1. *Naphtha*; a fine, white, thin, fragrant, colourless oil, which issues out of white, yellow, or black clays in Persia and Media. This is highly inflammable. Near the village of Amiano, in the state of Parma, there exists a spring which yields this substance in sufficient quantity to illuminate the city of Genoa, for which purpose it is employed. With certain vegetable oils, naphtha is said to form a good varnish.—2. *Petroleum* is much thicker than naphtha, resembling in consistence common tar. It has a strong disagreeable odour, and a blackish or reddish brown colour. During combustion, it emits a thick black smoke, and leaves a little residue in the form of black coal. It is more abundant than the first-mentioned variety, from which it does not seem to differ, except in being more inspissated. It is found in various countries, and is especially abundant in the Birman empire, where it is met with above Proms, within about 2 miles of the Irrawadi. The gross annual produce of the wells in this place has been estimated at about 80,000,000 lbs., worth on the spot about 1s. 8d. a cwt; and the supply might, if a market could be found, be indefinitely increased. It is used as a lamp oil, and, when mingled with earth or ashes, as fuel and in the paying of boats. (*Geographical Dictionary*, i. 377.) In the United States it is found abundantly in Kentucky, Ohio, and New York, where it is known by the name of *Seneca* or *Genesee* oil. It is also obtained from wells in the island of Zante. Herodotus tells us, that he had seen these wells—(lib. iv. c. 195.); and the description he has given of them, and of the mode of obtaining the petroleum, corresponds, in all respects, with the accounts of the best modern travellers. The average annual produce of the Zante springs is about 100 barrels.—(*Chandler's Travels in Greece*, 4to. ed. p. 301.; *Holland's Travels in Greece*, 4to. ed. p. 18.) Petroleum is particularly abundant in Persia. "When taken from the pit, it is a thick liquid resembling pitch. The bottoms of most vessels which navigate the Euphrates and Tigris are covered with it, and it is also used in lamps, instead of oil, by the natives. The most productive fountains are those of Kerkook, Mendali, and Badku. The wells in the neighbourhood of the latter seem to be quite inexhaustible, being no sooner emptied than they again begin to fill. Some of them have been found to yield from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs. a day!"—(*Kimneir's Persian Empire*, p. 39. and 359.)—3. *Malha*, or *Sea-wax*, is a solid whitish substance, not unlike tallow. It melts when heated, and in cooling assumes the consistence of white cerate. This is, most probably, the *bitumen candidum* of Pliny (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxxv. c. 15*). It is not used as pitch; but it affords a better light than petroleum, and emits a less disagreeable smell. It is found on the surface of the Baikal Lake in Siberia, at the foot of the mountains of Buctiari in Persia, and in some other places.—4. *Elastic Bitumen* yields easily to pressure; is flexible and elastic. It emits a strong bituminous odour, and is about the weight of water. On exposure to the air it hardens, and loses its elasticity. It takes up the traces of crayons in the same

manner as caoutchouc, or Indian rubber, whence it has obtained the name of *mineral caoutchouc*. It has hitherto been found only in the lead mines of Derbyshire. — 5. *Compact Bitumen, or Asphaltum*, is of a shining black colour, solid, and brittle, with a conchoidal fracture. Its specific gravity varies from 1 to 1.6. Like the former varieties, it burns freely, and leaves but little residuum. It is found in India, on the shores of the Dead Sea, in France, in Switzerland, and in large deposits in sandstone in Albania; but nowhere so largely as in the island of Trinidad, where it forms a lake three miles in circumference, and of a thickness unknown. A gentle heat renders it ductile, and, when mixed with grease or common pitch, it is used for paying the bottoms of ships, and is said to protect them from the teredo of the West Indian seas. The ancients employed bitumen in the construction of their buildings. The bricks of which the walls of Babylon were built were, it is said (*Herodotus*, lib. i. § 179.), cemented with hot bitumen, which gave them unusual solidity.

BLACKING (Ger. *Schuhschwärze*, *Wische*; Fr. *Noir (de cordonnier)*; It. *Nero da ugnere le scarpe*; Sp. *Negra de zapatos*). A factitious article, prepared in various ways, used in the blacking of boots and shoes. The principal ingredients in its manufacture are oil, vinegar, and various sorts of blacking matter. It is in very extensive demand. Some of the establishments for its manufacture, especially those in the metropolises, are on a very large scale; and it is in such only that it can be cheaply and advantageously produced. One of the principal, or rather we may say the principal outlay in establishing a blacking business, consists in advertising. Indeed any individual or set of individuals, provided they supply a reasonably good article, may by continuous advertising and puffing attain to the highest eminence in the "blacking line." Exclusive of that used at home, blacking is a considerable article of export.

BLACK-LEAD, PLUMBAGO, or **WAD**, (Du. *Pollot*; Fr. *Mine de plomb noir*, *Plomb de mine*, *Potelot*; Ger. *Pottloth*, *Reissbley*; It. *Miniera di piombo*, *Piombaggine*, *Corezolo*; Lat. *Plumbago*; Sp. *Piedra mineral de plomo*), a mineral of a dark steel grey colour, and a metallic lustre; it is soft, has a greasy feel, and leaves a dark coloured line when drawn along paper.

This mineral is found only in a state of purity in Berrowdale in Cumberland, the mines in which have been wrought since the days of Elizabeth. The lead is not found in veins but in detached pieces, or in what are called *sops* or *bellies*, so that the supply is very irregular, the miners being frequently employed for a lengthened period in seeking at random for the lead. Its quality also differs very widely. The best is that which is lightest, and the trace of which on paper is easily and completely removed by the application of India rubber. The mine used only to be opened at intervals, but for a considerable number of years past it has been constantly open. The supply, however, has been extremely scanty, and mostly also very inferior. The trade is supplied at sales held on the first Monday of each month, in *Essex Street, Strand*, London.

This lead is now almost wholly employed in making pencils: an inferior variety from Spain and Ceylon being used in the manufacture of crucibles, the polishing of cast iron utensils, the diminishing of friction, and other purposes to which genuine black lead was formerly applied.

BLACK LEAD PENCILS (Du. *Pollootpennen*; Fr. *Crayons noirs*; Ger. *Bleystifte*; It. *Lapis nero*; Port. *Lapis negro*; Rus. *Karanaschi*; Sp. *Lapiz negro*) are formed of black lead, encircled with cedar.

There is hardly, perhaps, any thing in which the temptation to substitute a spurious for a genuine article is greater, or in which, consequently the purchaser is more liable to be deceived, than black lead pencils. This is occasioned by the vast difference between the cost of genuine Cumberland lead, and of the other articles that are or may be substituted for it. Pencils are usually described as follows:—

First quality, or drawing pencils.

Second ditto, or prepared pencils.

Third ditto, or composition pencils.

I. Pencils of the first quality are, when genuine, made of pure Cumberland lead, which costs at present (1843) 30s. per lb. or 168s. per cwt. From 18 to 20 dozen such pencils are produced from a pound of this lead.

These pencils are usually made by sawing the lead into the pieces inserted in the cedar. Sometimes, however, the lead is in parts gritty and defective, so that a pencil of this kind may, in fact, be very inferior. To obviate this defect, some makers prepare the lead, to free it from the grit or earthy particles; and, provided no antimony or other alloy be mixed up with the prepared lead, the pencils produced from it are most to be depended on.

II. Pencils of the second quality are manufactured out of the sawings or dust of pure lead, with the dust of the small pieces picked up by poor people from the rubbish thrown out of the mine, mixed or alloyed with a greater or less quantity of antimony. The goodness of this pencil depends, of course, on the proportion in which the pure lead exceeds the antimony. But as the cost of the former may be taken at 100l. a cwt. and that of the latter at only 20s., there is an all but irresistible temptation to increase the proportion of the latter beyond due bounds. This sort of composition produces about 16 or 16 dozen pencils to the pound; their price varying according to the purity of the lead.

III. The third quality of pencil is made by using Mexican or Spanish lead dust, costing 45s. or 50s. a cwt., with antimony costing about 20s. per cwt. It produces about 14 or 15 dozen pencils to the lb., which may be sold at from 2s. 6d. to 12s. per gross, according to the cost of the articles employed and the care taken in mixing them. This sort of pencil may take a firm point, and make a fine stroke, but its trace will not obliterate on being rubbed with Indian rubber. The easy and complete obliteration of the strokes is, in fact, the best and perhaps only test of a pencil being of pure Cumberland lead. — (*Private information*.)

BLUBBER (Ger. *Thran*, *Fischtran*; Du. *Thraan*; It. *Olio di pesce*; Sp. *Grassa*, *Acetie de pescado*; Rus. *Sala worwanoe*, *Worwan*; Lat. *Oleum piscinum*), the fat of whales and other large sea-animals, of which train oil is made. The blubber is the *ateps* of the animal: it lies under the skin, and over the muscular flesh: it is about 6

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inches in thickness, but about the under lip it is 2 or 3 feet thick. The whole quantity yielded by one of these animals ordinarily amounts to 40 or 50, but sometimes to 80 or more cwt. Formerly train oil was manufactured from the blubber in the seas round Spitzbergen, and other places where whales were caught; but the practice is now to bring the blubber home in casks, and to prepare the oil afterwards.

It is enacted by the 6 Geo. 4. c. 107. §44. that before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, shall be entered as being entirely the produce of sea animals caught by the crews of ships fitted out in the United Kingdom, or the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Sark, and Man, the master of the ship importing such goods shall make oath, and the importer also shall make oath, to the best of his knowledge and belief, that the same are the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, taken and caught wholly by the crew of such ship, or by the crew of some other ship (naming it) fitted out in the United Kingdom, or in one of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (naming which).

Before blubber, train oil, &c. can be entered as from a British possession, a certificate must be obtained from the custom-house officer at such British possession, or in default of such officer being there, from two principal inhabitants, notifying that oath had been made before him or them that such blubber, &c. was the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, and had been taken by British subjects usually residing in some part of his Majesty's dominions; and the importer is to make oath, to the best of his knowledge and belief, to the same effect.

The gauging of casks of oil and blubber is dispensed with since 1825. They are to be passed at the rate of 126 gallons the pipe, and 63 gallons the hogshead.

BOATS are open vessels, commonly wrought by oars, and of an endless variety of shapes, according to the purposes to which they are to be applied.

It is ordered by stat. 6 Geo. 4. c. 108., that every boat belonging to or attached to any other vessel shall have painted on the outside of the stern of such boat the name of the vessel and place to which she belongs, and the master's name withinside of the transom, in white or yellow Roman letters, 2 inches long, on a black ground, under penalty of forfeiture. Boats not belonging to vessels are to be painted with the name of the owner and place to which they belong, under penalty of forfeiture. All boats having double sides or bottoms, or secret places for the purpose of concealing goods, or having any hole, pipe, or other device for the purpose of running goods, are to be forfeited.

Regulations of Watermen on the Thames.—From Chelsea Bridge towards Windsor, 3d. per half mile for scullers.
Over the water directly between Windsor and Crawley's Wharf, (Greenwich (excepting the Sunday ferries), for one person, 3d.; two persons, 11d. each; exceeding two persons, 1d. each.
To or from ships westward of Greenwich, for one person, 2d.; exceeding one person, 1d. each; and, where the distance to the ship does not exceed the distance across the river, the fare across the river shall be taken.
To or from ships eastward of Greenwich, at the rate of 8d. per half mile.

To or from vessels for passengers, for one person, 4d.; exceeding one person, 3d. each, with not exceeding 56 lbs. of luggage for each. After this at the rate of 1s. per cwt.
Watermen detained by passengers to be paid for time or distance, at the option of the waterman.

By Time for a Pair of Oars.—First hour - - - - - 2 0
Second hour - - - - - - - - - - - 1 6
Each succeeding hour - - - - - - - - - 1 0
For the day - - - - - - - - - - - 18 0
To last from 7 A. M. to 5 P. M. between Michaelmas and Lady Day; and from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. from Lady Day to Michaelmas.

SCULLER'S FARES.

The Bridges, &c. stand in the following order.

London Bridge,	Nine Elms,	Shadwell Dock Stairs.
Southwark Bridge,	Red House, Battersea.	Kilney ditto.
Blackfriars Bridge,	Raven Stairs, Chelsea.	Limehouse Hole ditto.
Waterloo Bridge,	Chelsea Bridge.	Ditto, Torrington Arms.
Westminster Bridge,	Iron Gate, George Stairs.	Ditto, Low-Water Gate.
Lambeth Stairs,	King Stairs.	Ditto, Low-Water Gate.
Vauxhall Bridge,	King Edward ditto.	Greenwich, Crawley's Wharf.

The fare from either of the above places to the next is 3d., and so on in proportion.

Passage Boats.—Oars' Fare 8 Passengers. Sculler's Fare 6 Passengers.

London Bridge to	each	London Bridge to	each
Chelsea Bridge	- 0 6	Walton-upon-Thames	- 1 9
Wandsworth	- 0 7	Shepperton	- 2 0
Putney	- 0 8	Weybridge	- 2 0
Fulham	- 0 8	Leigham	- 2 0
Barn's Elms	- 0 8	Chertsey	- 2 0
Hammer-smith	- 0 9	Staines	- 2 6
Chiswick	- 0 9	Datchet	- 3 0
Barnes	- 1 0	Windsor	- 3 0
Mortlake	- 1 0	Woolwich	- 1 6
Deptford	- 0 5		
Greenwich	- 0 5		

For a full boat load of luggage, same as for 8 passengers.
For half a load, same as for 4 passengers.
Penalties.—Taking more than fare, not exceeding 2s.
Waterman to have a list of fares in his boat, and on not permitting the passenger to examine it, the passenger is discharged from paying his fare, and the waterman may be fined not exceeding 5s.
Refusing to take a passenger, or not answering when called by the number of his boat, not exceeding 5s.
Unnecessarily delaying a passenger, not exceeding 5s.
Refusing to permit any person to read the name and number of his boat, or to tell his Christian or surname, at the number of his boat, on being paid his fare, or making use of any abusive language, not exceeding 5s.
Rules and By-laws made by the Court of Aldermen, 15th of April, 1828.—Letting his boat remain at any stairs, whilst wilfully absent, or not being ready to take a passenger into his boat, not exceeding 1s.
Refusing to give his name or number, or that of any other waterman, not exceeding 1s.
Obstructing any other waterman in taking in or landing a passenger, or obstructing a passenger, not exceeding 1s.
Towing or being towed by any other boat without the consent of all the passengers, not exceeding 5s.
Agreeing to take any less sum than the rate allowed, and afterwards demanding more than the sum agreed for, not exceeding 2s.
Only two boats to be placed aboard any stem-boat at the same time in turn. Watermen, previous to taking turn as aforesaid, to lie with his boat upon his oars at least one boat's length distant from any other boat lying alongside, and shall not approach nearer, until after the former boat shall have proceeded two boat's length, not exceeding 5s.
The offices of Harbour-masters are in Little Thames Street, St. Catharine's, and Canal Office, Blackwall.

BOLE, a friable earthy substance, a species of the soapstone family. Specific gravity 1.4 to 2. It is found in the island of Lemnos, whence it is sometimes called Lemnian earth; and in Armenia, Italy, France, Silesia, various parts of South America, &c. Armenian and French boles were at one time not uncommon in this country, being used in the materia medica; but they are now entirely, or almost entirely, discarded. In India, however, Armenian bole still continues to be in extensive demand. It is brought to Bombay from the Persian Gulph. It is soft, feels greasy to the touch, adheres strongly to the tongue, and is very frangible: it is generally of a yellowish brown colour; though sometimes it is seen of a fine flesh red, which is the variety held in the highest estimation.

Some savage nations, such as the Ottomaques, described by M. Humboldt, are in the habit of allaying the pains of hunger by eating boles. The Javanese, when they wish to become thin, eat cakes, called *tanaampo*, made of bole. — (Lewis, *Mat. Medica*; Thomson's *Chemistry*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*.)

BOHEA, a species of tea. See TEA.

BOMBAY, a sea-port on the western coast of British India, being, after Calcutta, Canton, and perhaps Batavia, the greatest emporium in the East; lat. 18° 56' N., long. 72° 57' E. It stands on the south-eastern extremity of a small island of the same name, separated from the main land by an arm of the sea, forming, with the contiguous islands of Colabah, Salsette, Butcher's Island, and Caranjah, one of the best harbours in India. Bombay Island was ceded by the Portuguese to the English in 1661, as the dowry of Queen Catherine, wife of Charles II., and was taken possession of in 1664; so that it has been in our occupation about 180 years, being by far the oldest of our possessions in the East. In 1668, it was transferred by the crown to the East India Company, by letters patent, in free and common soceage, on payment of the annual rent of 10*l*. But, by the present charter, it has reverted to the crown, with the rest of the Company's assets, being held by the Company in trust merely. On its cession to the crown of England, in 1661, its population did not exceed 15,000; but at present it has upwards of 230,000 inhabitants. The fort stands on the south-east extremity of the island, on a narrow neck of land, immediately over the harbour. The fortifications are extensive, and on the sea side very strong.

Bombay Harbour is one of the safest and most commodious in India. It is bounded on the west and north by the island of Colabah, or Old Woman's Island, Bombay Island, and the island of Salsette. The first two are separated only by a narrow creek fordable at low water, and Bombay Island was joined to Salsette by a causeway in 1842. On the east side of the harbour, between it and the main land, is Butcher's Island, distant about 3 miles from Bombay; and immediately behind Butcher's Island is the famous island of Kiephantas. About 3 miles south from Butcher's Island is the island of Caranjah, on the western side of which, next the harbour, is an extensive island. S. W. from Caranjah, distant about 5 miles, is Tull Point; between which and Colabah, or Old Woman's Island, is the entrance to the harbour. There is a light-house on the southern extremity of Colabah Island, elevated about 150 feet above the level of the sea, which in

clear weather may be seen at the distance of 7 leagues. The point on which the light-house stands is surrounded on all sides by an extensive reef of rocks divided into promonts; of these, the most dangerous is the promontory stretching S. W. about 3 miles from the light-house, and forming the northern boundary of the entrance into the harbour. The reef stretching W. N. W. from Tull Point about 2½ miles, forms the southern boundary of the entrance; the breadth of the channel between them being about 3 miles, with a depth of from 7 to 8 fathoms. In going into the harbour, it is necessary to clear a sunken rock, lying almost due east from the light-house at about 1½ mile distant; and also a bank, called the middle ground, lying nearly opposite to and about ½ mile from the southern extremity of the town. — (See Nicholson and Watson's *Plan of Bombay Harbour*.)

Docks. — Bombay is the only port of consequence in British India in which the rise and fall of the tide are so considerable as to admit of the formation of extensive wet docks. At ordinary spring tides, the rise is about 14 feet, but occasionally as high as 17. The capacious docks constructed by the East India Company are their property, and are for the most part under the direction of Parsees, who, excepting the Chinese, are the most industrious and intelligent people of the East. Merchant vessels of the largest class, or from 1,300 to 1,400 tons burden, for the cotton trade to China, have been built in these docks. Frigates and line-of-battle ships have also been occasionally constructed in them, sometimes under the exclusive direction of Parsee artificers. The timber having to be brought from a great distance, ships built at Bombay are very costly; but being, contrary to the practice in other parts of India, entirely constructed of teak, they are the most durable vessels in the world, requiring little repair, and often running 50 or 60 years. Being for the most part built by natives, without any very strict application of the rules of art, they are commonly, though not always, heavy sailers.

Mosdar. — Accounts are kept in rupees; each rupee being divided into 4 quarters, and each quarter into 100 rases. The rupee is also divided into 16 annas, or 50 pie. An urdee is 2 rasi; a doores, 6 rasi; a doogany, or single pie, 4 rasi; a fadda, or double pie, 3 rasi; a panchas is 3 rupees; and a gold mohur, 15 rupees. Of these, the annas and rasi only are imaginary monies. The coins of Bombay are the mohur, or gold rupee, the silver or Company's rupee, and their divisions; also the double and single pie, the urdee, and doores, which are copper coins with a mixture of tin or lead. The following is the assay and sterling value of the present gold and silver coinage of Bombay: —

	Gross Wt.	Pure Metal.	Sterling Value.
Gold mohur	180	165	2 <i>g</i> 9
Company's rupee (silver)	180	165	1 <i>l</i> 11 <i>s</i> 10 <i>d</i>

The following table shows the commercial weights of the several Presidencies of India, Travancore, China, and England, compared with the new Indian maund introduced into Bengal in 1835, and adopted in the new tariff valuation under the Bombay Presidency since 1840.

	Maunds.	lbs.	Maunds.	lbs.
The Bombay Maund of 40 Seers = 25	2-938775	40 = 560	The Bombay Candy of 40 = 560	2-938775
The Surat Maund of 40	2-919883	42 = 588	40 = 588	2-919883
—	2-909186	42 = 588	40 = 588	2-909186
—	2-156383	40 = 560	40 = 560	2-156383
—	2-099125	40 = 560	40 = 560	2-099125
—	2-038165	40 = 560	40 = 560	2-038165
—	2-063710	40 = 560	40 = 560	2-063710
The Bengal Factory Maund	1-108340	160 = 2240	The Travancore Candy of 80 = 840	1-108340
— Bazaar ditto	82-133	1120 = 15680	The China Picul (100) = 3333	82-133
The Madras Maund	3-991428	560 = 7840	The English Cwt. = 112	3-991428
			The English Ton of 20 cwt. = 2240	

Grain Measure.

	bu.	ga.	q.	do.
2 Tippees = 1 Seer	0	11	3	2
4 Seers = 1 Pally	3	12	12	8
8 Pallys = 1 Farsa	19	9	3	6
5 Farsas = 1 Candy	156	12	12	8

Salt Measure.

	cwt.	lbs.
104 Adowles = 1 Parah	1,607,751	
100 Parahs = 1 Anna	160,761	
16 Annas = 1 Rasi	3,572,176	

The anna weighs 2½ tons, and the rasi 40 tons.

Shipping. — In 1843, there belonged to Bombay, and mostly also to native merchants, 58 ships of the aggregate burden of 31,378 tons, of which 6 only were under 200 tons. These ships are partly employed

as he taken at 3*rs*. 2*d*. an oz., and 2*rs*. 0*d*. if silver be taken at 5*s*. 6*d*. an oz.

The Company's rupee has only been coined since the 1st of September, 1835; but it is almost identical in respect of value with the rupees previously in circulation.

The charge of coinage in the Bombay Mint is 2½ per cent. for gold, and 3 per cent. for silver, including the charges for reining. The machinery for this mint was sent out from England a few years ago, and is complete, but very costly.

Weights and Measures. — The unit of weight in Bombay, as in other parts of India, is, by the law of 1853, the tola of 180 grains troy, the other weights being derived from it as follows: —

8 Ratoes	= 1 Masba	= 15 Troy Grains.
12 Masbas	= 1 Tola	= 180 Troy Grains.
80 Tolas (or Sica Weight)	= 1 Seer	= 33 lb. Troy.
40 Seer = 1 Mun (or Bazar Maund)	= 100 lb. Troy.	

Liquor Measure.

(Spirits and Country Arrack.)

The seer weighs 60 Bombay rupees, and equals 1 lb. 8 oz. 5*d*. 1, and 50 seers make the maund.

Long Measure.

	English inches.
16 Tussoos = 1 Hath	= 18
31 Tussoos = 1 Fur	= 27

The English yard is now, however, in common use in Bombay.

in the China trade, and partly in the trade to England and other places. They are for the most part navigated by Indian seamen or Lascars, those of Bombay being accounted by far the best in India, the master and superior officers only, and not always, being Englishmen. Besides these large vessels, there is a numerous class of native craft, under various forms and names, amounting in all to about 50,000 tons, of from 2 to 175 tons each. These vessels, besides furnishing the town with firewood, hay, straw, &c. from the neighbouring continent, navigate coastways from Cape Comorin to the Gulf of Cutch, and sometimes cross the sea to Muscat and the Arabian Gulf. During the eight fair months, that is, from October to May, the largest sized vessels perform five or six trips to Daman, Surat, Cambay, Broach, Jambosir, and Cutch, bringing from these ports, where they sometimes winter, and where many of their owners reside, cotton, ghee, oil, pulse, wheat, cotton cloths, timber, firewood, putchok, mawah, &c.; and return to the northern ports laden with the produce of Europe, Bengal, and China. The capital employed in this trade, in the minor articles of commerce, exclusive of cotton, has been estimated at 1,500,000l. sterling.

Commerce, &c.—The small and sterile island of Bombay affords no produce for exportation; indeed, hardly yields a week's consumption of corn for its inhabitants. Nor does the whole presidency of Bombay, although comprising about 70,000 square miles, and from 10,000,000 to 11,000,000 inhabitants, yield, with the exception of cotton and rice, any of the great colonial staples, such as coffee, sugar, and indigo; a circumstance that seems mainly ascribable to the impolitic restraints upon the employment of British settlers and capital that were long imposed by law, and acted upon with peculiar rigour in this and the sister presidency of Madras, in contradistinction to the greater latitude afforded in Bengal. Bombay is also much less favourably situated, in respect of internal communications, than Calcutta. The Ganges and its tributary streams intersect the rich provinces of India, and give Calcutta a vast command of inland navigation; whereas all the inland trade of Bombay has to be carried on by means of roads, that are seldom available for carriages, and which can be used only by pack-bullocks and camels. The transit duties, by which the inland trade was grievously oppressed, have been recently abolished; and if this judicious measure be followed up by the formation of lines of road to the principal markets in the interior, a great increase of the trade and the improvement of the presidency may be expected.

The principal trade of Bombay is carried on with China, Great Britain, the countries on the Persian and Arabian gulphs, Calcutta, Cutch and Sindh, the Malabar coast, foreign Europe, &c. The imports from China consist principally of raw silk, sugar, and sugar-candy, silk piece goods, treasure, &c. The principal articles of export to China are, raw cotton (33,711,049 lbs., in 1840-41), opium (12,022 chests, in 1840-41), principally from Malwa, sharks' fins and fish maw, sandal-wood, pearls, &c. The exports to China being greater than the imports, the returns for several years past have been made to a large extent in bills on London, and in the Indian governments, drawn by the merchants in China.

The trade with the United Kingdom has been regularly increasing since the abolition of the restrictive system. The chief articles of import from Great Britain are, cotton and woollen stuffs, cotton yarn, hardware, copper, iron and lead, glass, apparel, fur, stationery, wine, &c. The principal articles of export to Britain are, raw cotton (31,581,888 lbs. in 1840-41), raw silk, from China and Persia, ivory, pepper and spices, piece goods, coffee from the Red Sea, and wool. The export of the last mentioned article has increased with extraordinary rapidity, the quantity shipped for England in 1833-34 being only 69,944 lbs.; whereas the shipments for England in 1840-41 amounted to 3,428,056 lbs. At present the principal supply of the article is drawn from Cutch and Sindh, and from Marwar, viz. Guzerat, but active measures have been taken by government for improving the flocks in the pastoral country of the Deccan, so that a further and very considerable increase of this new and important trade may be anticipated.

The trade between Bombay and the ports on the Persian Gulph has materially varied of late years. A large portion of the articles of British produce and manufacture that were formerly exported to Persia, by way of Bombay and Bushire, being now sent through Trebisond and ports in the Levant; and a considerable portion of the raw silk that used to be exported from Persia, via Bombay, being now also sent through the ports referred to. On the other hand, however, there is a considerable increase in the exports and imports of other articles; so that, on the whole, the amount of the trade has not materially varied.

The trade between Bombay and Calcutta is not so great now as it was formerly; the abolition of the restrictive system in 1815 having given Bombay the means of bringing various articles direct from foreign ports which she was previously obliged to import at second-hand from Calcutta, and of exporting directly.

Banks.—Two banks have recently been established in Bombay. The bank of Bombay, incorporated in 1840, has a capital of 5,225,000 rupees (522,500l.), divided into shares of 1,000 rupees each. It issues notes, and transacts all sorts of banking business, charging no commission for its trouble, and allowing no interest on deposits. The bank of Western Asia, established in 1842-43, has not hitherto been incorporated. It also issues notes and transacts ordinary banking business, charging a commission of 4 per cent. on all payments, and allowing interest on deposits. In neither bank is it allowed to overdraw accounts. A branch of the Agra bank is, also, established in Bombay. We subjoin from a Bombay paper of April, 1843, the following particulars respecting these banks:—

Bank of Bombay.—Discount.—On Government bills, above 30 days, 6 per cent.
On Government bills, within 30 days, 5 per cent.
On private bills, at or within three months, 3 per cent.

Interest charged.—On loans and cash credit accounts on deposit of Government notes, 6 1/2 per cent.
On loans and cash credit accounts on deposit of bullion, 7 per cent.
On loans and cash credit accounts on deposit of metals and other goods, 8 per cent.

Bank Shares.—30 to 200 rupees per cent. premium.
The Bombay Bank of Government securities, bank and other stock certificates, and real estate interest and dividends on such as are payable in Bombay, for constituents.

Parties discounting bills may take them up at any period prior to their maturity, and the bank will refund the discount for the unexpired portion of the time such bills may have to run.

Post-bills granted payable at three days' sight, free of charge, and bills payable at Calcutta and Agra, granted at the rate of exchange of the day.

Bank of Western India.—Interest allowed.—Class 1. On current deposits subject to a commission of 3 per cent.; 4 per cent.

Class 2. On current deposits, without commission, 5 per cent.
Class 3. On deposits repayable on a notice of 30 days, 4 per cent.

Interest and Discount charged.—On loans and credits on Company's paper, Bank of Bombay shares, and bullion, 7 per cent. On loans and credits on other security, 8 per cent.

Discount.—On Government bills, 7 per cent. On private bills, 3 per cent.
Exchange.—For credits payable on application, and drafts on London at one day's sight without grace, 1s. 11 1/2d. per rupee. For drafts at six months' sight, 1s. 10d. per rupee.
Bank shares, 6 1/2 per cent. premium.

Statement of the Number of Ships, with the Amount of their Tonnage, which arrived at and sailed from Bombay in 1840-41 and 1841-42.

Flags.	Arrivals in 1840-41.		Arrivals in 1841-42.		Departures in 1840-41.		Departures in 1841-42.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
British	256	1,118,205	307	1,46,253	269	1,20,594	281	1,28,049
French	5	5	6	1,451	6	1,451	6	1,504
Portuguese	5	1,219	5	371	6	1,855	6	752
American	6	2,107	4	1,359	4	1,465	3	503
Arab	6	3,145	6	1,504	6	2,654	6	2,568
Dutch	1	1,06	1	1	1	350	1	
Swedish	1	300	1	352	1	173	3	614
Grand Total	280	1,165,598	329	1,51,400	272	1,24,651	300	1,54,059

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Insurance.— Companies for the insurance of lives, shipping, and against fire, have been established in Bombay; and several of the London and Calcutta Insurance Companies have agents here.
Account of the Principal Articles of Export from Bombay (Its subordinate Ports in the Concan and Guzerat not included) in the Official Year, 1841-42.

Principal Articles.	Quantity.	Weight.		Value.
		cwt.	lbs.	
Coffee	bales 4,29,811	17,499,787	27,499,787	2,79,280
Cotton	pieces 1,10,410	16,10,461	110	2,16,794
Indigo	pieces 1,57,670	35	1,57,670	1,53,858
Ivory, elephants' teeth	pieces 16,356	2,687	35	3,69,169
Opium	pieces 4,10,410			1,12,74,940
British dyed cotton	pieces 30,598			14,17,891
— primed	pieces 8,93,077			1,79,892
— white	pieces 1,186			42,85,633
— silk	pieces 6,004			16,213
— shaw's	pieces 15,48,724			7,86,451
Piece goods	ca. 13 ps. 3,957			9,78,815
— yarn	pieces 3,692			82,851
Cashmere shawls	ca. 13 ps. 3,957			1,350
China silk	pieces 371			8,50,501
Country silk	pieces 6,83,639			6,618
— of sorts	pieces 9,575			8,61,570
— yarn	pieces 1,24,425			4,33,153
Shark-fins and fish maws	ca. 392 bds. 6,905			91,06,698
Silk, raw	ca. 392 bds. 6,905			
All other articles				
Merchandise total				5,28,33,667
Treasure { Gold 3,000				
Silver 35,85,728				
Horses { Copper 110				
				32,88,868
				4,05,280
Grand total				5,66,27,909

Account of the Total Value of the Imports into, and of the Exports from Bombay, in 1841-42, specifying the Values of those imported from and exported to each Country.

	Value of Imports.		Total Imports.	Value of Exports.		Total Exports.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.		Merchandise.	Treasure.	
America	rupees 3,641	3,041	6,682	rupees 13,383	24,400	33,585
Arabian Gulph	10,49,197	9,87,357	20,36,554	17,75,745	24,600	18,01,345
Calcutta	21,62,116	—	21,62,116	6,17,032	41,600	6,58,632
Cape of Good Hope	637	23,632	24,269	—	—	—
Ceylon	63,171	89,403	1,29,516	14,45,428	15,74,944	15,74,944
China	47,53,820	56,71,858	1,04,25,678	1,77,85,022	4,763	1,77,89,787
Coast of Africa	3,27,933	55,650	3,83,583	4,20,672	69,432	4,90,104
— Coronandel	1,78,161	—	1,78,161	1,67,547	—	1,67,547
Cutch and Scindia	18,23,649	5,74,972	23,98,621	46,14,988	96,300	47,11,778
France	3,15,263	30,000	3,45,263	1,54,304	—	1,54,304
France, Isle of	27,751	13,000	40,751	31,824	—	31,824
(Jos. Heermann, and Din	1,12,821	400	1,13,221	1,75,830	—	1,75,830
Great Brittain	1,73,57,223	2,000	1,73,59,223	1,83,67,092	63,764	1,83,67,092
Kurrachee	60,501	—	60,501	5,69,941	—	5,69,941
Madaira	7,994	—	7,994	—	—	—
Malabar and Canara	61,7,7927	27,700	62,04,427	17,33,898	14,28,313	31,66,111
Manilla	1,775	—	1,775	—	—	—
Nenang, Singapore, and the Straits of	17,70,467	1,53,920	19,23,687	23,99,153	2,000	24,01,153
Malacca	27,7,2447	9,07,851	36,79,898	41,24,898	151,640	42,76,538
Persian Gulph	—	—	—	—	—	—
Romanance	39,428	—	39,428	—	—	—
Stockholm	4,265	—	4,265	—	—	—
Sydney	—	—	—	—	—	—
3,91,46,283		84,14,640	4,75,60,923	5,39,39,047	33,88,862	5,66,27,909
Total value of imports			4,75,60,923	Total value of exports		5,66,27,909
Subordinate ports { Concan	1,54,73,185	1,55,448	1,56,28,633	64,08,434	2,37,648	66,46,082
{ Guzerat	1,73,79,492	2,78,214	1,76,57,706	1,16,40,904	22,53,537	1,39,04,441
3,27,45,677		4,33,660	3,31,77,337	1,80,49,338	21,91,185	3,02,40,523
Total value of imports			3,31,77,337	Total value of exports		3,02,40,523
Grand total of imports			8,07,68,265	Grand total of exports		7,71,68,432

PORT CHARGES.

Buoys and Anchorage Dues. — All ships and vessels or boats not receiving pilots —		Square-rigged vessels of all descriptions:		Fair Season.		Monsoon.	
From 10 to 20 tons	Rps. 3 0 0 per Ann.	Above 20 to 300 tons.	Rps. 50 0 0	30 0 0	75 0 0	75 0 0	0 0 0
Above 20 to under 50 tons	— 6 0 0 do.	300 to 400	— 55 0 0	50 0 0	80 0 0	80 0 0	0 0 0
Above 50 to 100 tons	— 10 0 0 do.	400 to 500	— 60 0 0	60 0 0	90 0 0	90 0 0	0 0 0
Above 100 to 150	— 10 0 0 do.	500 to 600	— 65 0 0	70 0 0	100 0 0	100 0 0	0 0 0
— 150 to 200	— 10 0 0 do.	600 to 700	— 70 0 0	75 0 0	110 0 0	110 0 0	0 0 0
— 200 to 300	— 20 0 0 do.	700 to 800	— 75 0 0	80 0 0	120 0 0	120 0 0	0 0 0
— 300 to 400	— 30 0 0 do.	800 to 900	— 80 0 0	85 0 0	130 0 0	130 0 0	0 0 0
— 400 to 500	— 40 0 0 do.	900 to 1000	— 85 0 0	90 0 0	140 0 0	140 0 0	0 0 0
— 500 to 600	— 50 0 0 do.	1000 to 1100	— 90 0 0	95 0 0	150 0 0	150 0 0	0 0 0
— 600 to 700	— 60 0 0 do.	1100 to 1200	— 95 0 0	100 0 0	160 0 0	160 0 0	0 0 0
— 700 to 800	— 70 0 0 do.	1200 and upwards	— 100 0 0	100 0 0	170 0 0	170 0 0	0 0 0
— 800 to 900	— 80 0 0 do.						
— 900 to 1000	— 90 0 0 do.						
— 1000 to 1100	— 100 0 0 do.						
— 1100 to 1200	— 110 0 0 do.						
— 1200 and upwards	— 120 0 0 do.						
Charges for Pilots. — A ship of the line or of 50 guns	Fair Season. 100	Light-house Dues. — All ships and vessels down to 30 tons, at rupees 15 per 100 tons per annum.					
A frigate or sloop of war	Rps. 100 140	All vessels under 50 tons burden, at 2 rupees per annum.					
	Rps. 75 100						

Foreign ships of war are to pay, in addition to the above rates, rupees 40.

N. B. There are no port charges of any sort at Bombay other than the above.

General Rates of Commission in Bombay. — On the sale or purchase of goods of all denominations (except as under) 2 1/2 cent. 5

Purchases of all kinds with the proceeds of goods sold, and on which a commission of 5 per cent. has been previously charged 2 1/2 cent. 5

The sale or purchase of ships, houses, and lands 2 1/2 cent. 5

The sale or purchase of opium 2 1/2 cent. 5

The sale or purchase of diamonds, pearls, and Jewellery of all descriptions 2 1/2 cent. 5

The sale or purchase of treasure or bullion, exclusive of 1 per cent. on receipt of the proceeds 1 cent. 5

Procuring freight 5

Shipping goods of every description 2 1/2 cent. 5

Shipping treasure, bullion, and Jewellery 2 1/2 cent. 5

Ships' disbursements when no commission has been charged on freight or cargo 2 1/2 cent. 5

Effecting insurances 2 1/2 cent. 5

Settling insurance losses, whether partial or total; also on procuring return of premium, exclusive of commission on receipt of cash 2 1/2 cent. 5

Del credere, or guaranteeing the responsibility of persons to whom goods are sold, on the amount of sales 2 1/2 cent. 5

The sale or purchase of cattle 2 1/2 cent. 5

Effecting remittances by bills of exchange (not being the proceeds of goods sold) 2 1/2 cent. 5

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7,028,290
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9,78,813
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5,51,570
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5,29,33,667
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Total Exports.
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17,28,385
18,01,345
6,58,032
15,74,844
1,77,89,767
4,96,134
4,07,547
4,11,765
1,59,704
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3,37,594
1,83,67,092
5,69,941
31,66,111
24,01,153
42,76,338
66,87,909
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7,71,68,432

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Collecting house rent	2
Taking up interest bills from the Company (exclusive of 1 per cent. on remitting)	2
Sale or purchase of public or private bills of exchange	1
Exchanging Company's securities of all descriptions, or investing money therein, and on transferring government paper from one consignment to another	4
Surrendering, or depositing to the treasury, Company's security of all descriptions	4
Procuring money on respondents or on loans	4
Recovery of bonds or bills for absentees, over due at the period of their being placed in the possession of the agent	5
Dave, when a process of law or by arbitration is necessary, 2 1/2 per cent. and if recovered by such means	5
Managing the affairs of an estate for an executor or administrator	5
Guaranteeing bills, bonds, or debts in general, by endorsement or otherwise	1
Attending the delivery of contract goods to the Company or individuals	1
Goods consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, on invoice	1
Bills of exchange returned noted or protested, &c. Per cent.	2 1/2
All cases where the debtor side of the account exceeds the credit side, including the balance of interest, commission chargeable on the debtor side, at the rate of	1
Granting letters of credit	2 1/2
Accounting security to government, or public bodies, in any cases	2 1/2
Goods consigned, which are disposed of by outcry or sent to a shop, on net proceeds	1
Depositing government paper as security for constituents	2 1/2

Memorandum.—Sales of European goods, when made at an advance on invoice cost, the amount to be converted into Bombay currency at the exchange of two shillings per rupee.

Dock Regulations.—At daylight the wickets of the gates are opened, and at 7 o'clock the entry gate. Half an hour after sunset the gates are shut, the wickets of the centre gate being left open till the evening gun be fired. No boats, saving those belonging to the Company's marine department, or her Majesty's navy, are permitted to come to the dock-yard stairs; but must use the piers expressly constructed for their accommodations. No great stores, or baggage for the merchant shipping, of any description, are to be passed through the dock-yards. After the firing of the evening gun, nobody belonging to the ships in the harbour, below the rank of a commissioned officer, is to be allowed to land or enter the dock-yard, without the express permission of the master attendant, or other constituted authorities.

Boats' crews are not to be permitted to quit their boat as the stairs, after the hours of shutting the gates. Small craft are not to dislitter firewood or any other lading, within the limits of the pier, without the superintendent's sanction. The ships and vessels in dock are not to land any lumber whatever on the pier. No cargo of any description is to be landed in or passed through the yard, from or to any ship in dock, without the superintendent's permission in writing. No fire or light is allowed on board any ship or vessel in dock, without the authority of the superintendent, to whom the purposes for which either may be required, must be stated in writing.

(See *Milburn's Oriental Commerce; Bombay Calendar and Register for 1843; Kelly's Combi; Report on the Commerce of Bombay, &c. in 1841-2.*)

BOMBAZINE, a kind of silk stuff, originally manufactured at Milan, and thence sent into France and other countries. Now, however, it is nowhere manufactured better, or in larger quantities, than in this kingdom.

BONES of cattle and other animals are extensively used in the arts, in forming handlea for knives, and various other purposes; but of late years they have been of most importance in agriculture. When employed in the latter they are, in most instances, ground, or reduced to powder, and are commonly used as manure for turnips, being in general drilled in with the seed, though sometimes, also, they are sown broadcast, and with other crops. The quantity used varies from about 25 bushels of *dust* to about 40 bushels *large* an acre. Their effect is said to be considerably increased when they have undergone the process of fermentation. They were first used, in this country, on a large scale, as a manure in Lincolnshire; and there can be no doubt that their extensive employment in that county has been one of the chief causes of its rapid improvement, and of the high state of cultivation to which it has attained. Bone-dust is now, however, very largely used, not only in Lincolnshire, York, and the adjacent counties, but in most other parts of England, and almost every where in Scotland; and its influence in increasing the crops of corn and turnips, and consequently, also, the supplies of butcher's meat and farm manure, has been quite extraordinary. In fact, it is to the employment of this manure, combined with the extension of furrow drainage, and the introduction of steam navigation, that the wonderful improvements that have been made in agriculture since 1820, and the vast increase of agricultural produce, are principally to be ascribed.

In 1827, Mr. Huskisson estimated the real value of the bones annually imported for manure at about 100,000*l.*; but at present (1843) it probably amounts to more than treble that sum. This is evident from the fact that the *ad valorem* duty of 1 per cent. on bones produced, in 1841, 2,933*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.* net, showing that the value of the imports must then have exceeded 293,000*l.*, of which it is abundantly certain that but a comparatively small portion was employed otherwise than in agriculture. They are principally brought from the Netherlands, Germany, and South America. It is a curious fact, that while the duty on bones imported into Scotland, in 1841, amounted to 749*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.*, the duty on those imported into Ireland amounted to only 2*l.* 10*s.* 1*d.*—(See *Statistical Account of British Empire*, 2d edit. i. 185. and 568., and *Annual Finance Book for 1841.*) The duty on bones was reduced in 1842 to 6*d.* a ton.

BOOK-KEEPING, the art of keeping the accounts and books of a merchant. Book-keeping by double entry means that mode or system in which every entry is double, that is, has both a debtor and a creditor. It is called also the Italian method, because it was first practised in Venice, Genoa, and other towns in Italy, where trade was conducted on an extensive scale at a much earlier date than in England, France, or other parts of Europe. This method, however familiar to merchants and book-keepers, seems intricate to almost all who have not practised it; nor is the dryness and difficulty of the task much lessened by the printed works on the subject, which, having been compiled more by teachers than by practical merchants, contain a number of obsolete rules and unnecessary details. The most effectual mode of giving clearness and interest to our remarks will be, first, to state a few mercantile transactions, and then to explain the nature of the accounts and entries which result from them.

BOOK-KEEPING.

INVOICE of Goods shipped by HENRY BARCLAY & Co., in the *Ravines*, J. Thomson, from London to Kingston in Jamaica, on account and risk of Messrs. JAMES ALLAN & Co. of Kingston.

J. A. & Co.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
No. 1.	Furzeben strong calf-skin shoes, per J. Johnson's bill of parcels	83 7 0	
2.	do. do.	94 18 4	
3.	French calf-skin shoes, per do.	23 9 0	
4, 5, 6.	3 trunks do.	67 8 7	
7.	Cass linen tick assorted, per J. Wilson's bill of parcels		978 15 11
8. to 18.	9 bales best tow Onaburgs, 10 pieces each, per Sirron Fraser's bill of parcels		236 5 0
17.	1 case white Platiilas, per Molling and Co.'s bill of parcels		41 0 8
18. to 24.	7 cases the same, do.		287 4 8
25. to 38.	14 bales lint Onaburgs, per J. Mackenzie's bill of parcels		267 10 0
39.	1 case youtie hats and bands, per J. Borradaile and Co.'s bill of parcels		10 14 0
40, 41.	2 cases felt hats, do.		91 5 0
			1,394 18 3
	Entry; duty on part at 1/2 per cent. bond and debenture		4 5 0
	Cartage, wharfage, and shipping charges		7 9 8
	Freight and primage 38l. 7s. bills of lading 3s. 6d.		96 10 6
	Insurance on 1,500l. at 40s. per 100l.	£30 0 0	
	Policy duty	3 18 9	
	Commission, 3 per cent. on 1,535l.		66 15 0
	Do. 1/2 per cent. on 1,500l. insured		7 10 0
			158 11 9
			£1,443 10 0

At 6 months' credit; due 6th of September. Errors excepted. HENRY BARCLAY & Co. London, 6th of March, 1843.

This invoice, being sent out by the vessel to Messrs. Allan & Co., conveys to them a number of particulars in a short space; viz. the mark, the numbers, the value, and the contents of each package. In former times it was the practice to make an invoice very long, inserting in it a literal copy of each bill of parcels, but it has now become usual to make each tradesman deliver a duplicate of his account, to be sent abroad with the goods; in which case the invoice may be, like the above, little more than a summary of the bills of parcels. This method has two advantages: it saves time at the counting-house of the exporter; and it affords to his correspondent an assurance that no more is charged to him than has been actually paid for the articles.

An invoice ought to be made out with the utmost care, for it is a document of great importance in several respects: first, between the exporting merchant and his correspondent abroad; and next, when in the hands of the latter, it may and generally does form a voucher for calculating the import duty, as well as for the sales effected to retailers or other dealers.

The sum insured by the exporting merchant generally exceeds the amount of the invoice by 2 per cent., because the recovery of a loss from insurers involves a charge of fully that amount. It is thus necessary to cover not only the price of the goods, and the charges of shipping, insurance, and freight, but such further sum as may enable the shipper, in case of loss, to carry to the credit of his correspondent the amount of the invoice, clear of any deduction.

JOURNAL ENTRIES resulting from the foregoing Invoice.

Folio of Ledger.	JAMES ALLAN & Co. DR. to SHUBISA.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
	For goods shipped to them in the <i>Ravines</i> , Thomson, for Jamaica.		
1	To JAMES JOHNSON; amount of shoes, per his bills of parcels		978 15 11
1	To JOHN WILSON; linen tick per do.		42 0 0
1	To NIXON FRASER; tow Onaburgs per do.		236 5 0
1	To JOHN MACKENZIE; lint Onaburgs per do.		267 10 0
2	To JAMES BORRADAILE & Co.; hats per do.		91 5 0
2	To MOLLING & Co.; for Platiilas per do.		32 2 0
3	To FRAZER ACCOUNT; freight, primage, and bills of lading		38 10 8
3	To INSURANCE; premium, and policy		33 18 9
3	To CHARGES; entry outward, duty, and shipping charges		11 17 6
3	To FRAZER AND LOSS; for commission		74 5 0
			£1,443 10 0

The preceding invoice, being for account of a mercantile house, who sell again to dealers, comprises a variety of articles: as a further specimen, we subjoin two short invoices, for account of sugar planters, and confined to articles consumed on their estates.

INVOICE of Plantation Stores, shipped by HENRY BARCLAY & Co. in the *Adventure*, J. Williamson, Master, for Kingston, Jamaica, by order of Mr. JAMES THOMSON, Planter, and for his account and risk.

J. T.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1. to 6.	6 bales lint Onaburgs, per bill of parcels from James Anderson	£240 0 0	
	Then follow, in like manner, the mark, number, and contents of various other packages of plantation stores (hats, shoes, nails, &c.), composing the shipment; amounting in all to		£,352 10 0
	Custom-house entry, and shipping charges		9 12 6
	Freight, primage, and bills of lading		18 7 6
	Commission on £,374l. at 2 1/2 per cent.		39 7 0
	Insurance on £,550l. at 2l. per cent.		51 0 0
	Policy duty		5 10 0
	Commission, 1/2 per cent.		12 15 0
			70 5 0
			£2,503 2 0

Errors excepted. HENRY BARCLAY & Co. London, 2d of October, 1843.

each year,

£ s. d.
2,550 0 0
5,310 0 0
2,300 15 0
5,400 0 0
315 0 0
5,000 0 0
2,437 0 0
1,350 10 0
5,230 12 0
970 0 10
£ 38,391 17 10

£ s. d.
2,330 10 0
1,380 15 0
1,370 5 0
780 5 0
860 15 0
1,150 10 0
280 15 0
8,733 12 0
23,638 9 10
£ 34,391 17 10

correspondent
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London.

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bruary, 1843.

£ s. d.
94 5 8
0 4 0
0 10 0
25 0 8
212 4 2
£ 237 4 10

bruary, 1843.

£ s. d.
10 14 0
10 14 0
10 14 0
£ 32 2 0

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count of the

Freight is charged on the weight of the produce only; not of the produce and packages together. This allowance is of old standing, and is to be traced less to the reason of the case, than to the competition prevailing among shipmasters.

JOURNAL ENTRIES resulting from the preceding Accounts of Sale.

Folio of Ledger.	June 1843.	£ s. d.
THOMAS KENZIE & Co. Drs. to SUNDRIES.		
4	To SUGAR per Ceres.	
3	Proceeds of 7 hds., M. F. 1, to 7, sold by them at one month's credit, from 2d of April	234 0 0
4	To COFFEE per Vittoria.	
4	Proceeds of 30 hds., J. F. 1, to 30, sold at one month's credit, from 2d of April	676 5 8
		910 5 6
2	To INSURANCE ACCOUNT; for premium and policy	5 15 6
3	To FAREIGHT ACCOUNT; for freight, primage, and pierage	24 4 11
4	To CUSTOMS INWARD; duty and smut	107 5 0
4	CHARGES; dock dues, 25s. 10s.; washhouse rent, 35s. 2d.; landwaiters, 16s.; sampling, 3s. 6d.; and fire insurance, 6s.	5 13 6
3	To THOMAS KENZIE & Co.; brokerage, 1 per cent.	25 10 10
4	To FAREIGHT AND LOSS; for commissions	1 12 3
	Interest on freight and duty	7 3 1
4	To MORRIS FITZMAN; proceeds due 2d of May, 1843	81 11 5
		234 0 0
COFFEE per VITTORIA Dr. to SUNDRIES.		
4	To INSURANCE; for premium and policy	10 6 9
3	To FAREIGHT ACCOUNT; freight, primage, and pierage	44 2 6
3	To CHARGES; dock dues, landwaiters, insurance from fire, and public sale charges	13 18 7
4	To THOMAS KENZIE & Co.; brokerage	6 10 7
4	To FAREIGHT AND LOSS; for commissions	20 8 1
4	To JAMES FORBES; nett proceeds due 3d of June, 1843.	571 13 1
		6676 5 7

We have thus given an example of the transactions which form a great part of the business of our merchants; the export of manufactured goods, and the import and sale of produce received in return. Our next illustration shall be of a merchant's Cash-book. The following is an example of the entries for a month:—

Dr.		CASH.	£ s. d.	PAID.		Cr.
1842.				1842.		
Mar. 1	To balance at the bankers		2,550 0 0	Mar. 2.	By bills payable, paid No. 261. to James Harding	145 10 0
3	To ship <i>Andie</i> , received of James Jacobs, for freight		175 3 0	4	By George and William Fos, paid their balance of account	350 15 0
6	To bills receivable, received payment of No. 251, on J. Henderson		200 0 0	6	By John Smith and Sons, paid J. Jackson for their account	98 0 0
9	To James Bailey & Co., received payment of their draft at sight on J. Bainbridge		159 10 0	7	By bills payable, paid No. 262, to J. Stewart	300 0 0
15	To William Spence & Co., received balance of their account		970 0 10	18	By interest paid, discount on Harrison & Co., 2 months	6 1 10
15	To debenture account, received drawback on tobacco shipped by the <i>Pluver</i>		15 8 0		By J. Johnson, paid his bill of parcels	278 15 11
18	To bills receivable, discounted at the bankers, Harrison & Co., due 12-18 March		730 10 0		By John Wilson do.	42 0 0
	To profit and loss, received 5 per cent. discount on paying with ready money the accounts per contra, not due till 6 months hence, from				By Simon Fraser do.	335 5 0
	James Johnson		413 19 0		By John Mackenzie do.	267 10 0
	John Wilson		2 2 0		By James Borradaile & Co. do.	32 2 0
	Simon Fraser		11 16 0		By charges paid, postage, and petty disbursements this month, per petty cash book	525 5 4
	John Mackenzie		18 7 6		By balance, carried to next month	15 2 6
	James Borradaile & Co.		0 16 0			2,686 13 0
	Molling & Co.		16 8 3			
			63 8 9			
			£4,957 0 7			£1,857 0 7

These transactions, when put into the Journal form, stand thus:—

Folio of Ledger.	MARCH, 1842.	£ s. d.
CASH Dr. to SUNDRIES. Received this month.		
6	To SHIP <i>AMBRIA</i> .	
3d.	Freight from James Jacobs	175 3 0
6	To BILLS RECEIVABLE.	
6th.	Received payment of J. Anderson, due this day	200 0 0
18th.	Discounted Harrison & Co., due 5th of May	730 10 0
		930 10 0
7	To JAMES BAILEY & Co.	
9th.	Received their draft on Bainbridge, due	159 10 0
7	To WILLIAM SPENCE & Co.	
15th.	Received balance of their account	970 0 10
6	To DEBENTURE ACCOUNT.	
15th.	Drawback on tobacco by the <i>Pluver</i>	15 8 0
3	To FAREIGHT AND LOSS.	
16th.	Received discount on sundry accounts, per cash book	63 8 9
		£2,307 0 7

Folio of Ledger.	SUNDRIES Deb. to CASH.					# s. d.
	Paid this month as follows:					
6	BILLS PAYABLE.					
	5d. Paid No. 861.	.	.	.	4145 10 0	
	7th. Do. 269.	.	.	.	192 15 0	538 5 0
6	CURRENTS INWARD.					
	33d. Paid duty on sugar, per Ceres, 79 cwt. 25 lbs. at 27s. per cwt.	.	.	.	106 19 0	
	Entry -	.	.	.	0 6 0	107 5 0
8	STRAW FRAMES.					
	19th. Paid his bill of parcels	.	.	.	226 5 0	
1	20th. Paid J. Jackson for his account	.	.	.	08 0 0	354 5 0
8	INTEREST ACCOUNT.					
	18th. Paid discount on Harrison & Co.	5 1 10
1	JAMES JOHNSON.					
	18th. Paid his bill of parcels	278 13 11
1	JOHN WILSON.					
	18th. Paid his bill of parcels	49 0 0
1	JOHN MACKENZIE.					
	19th. Paid his bill of parcels	367 10 0
2	JAMES BORRAVILLE & Co.					
	18th. Paid their bill of parcels	52 9 0
2	MOLLING & Co.					
	18th. Paid their balance of account	398 5 4
2	GRONCH AND WILLIAM FOR.					
	24th. Paid their balance of account	390 15 0
5	CHARLES.					
	31st. Paid postage, and petty disbursements this month	15 2 6
						£2170 7 7

The above shows, that for all sums received, the account of cash is made debtor, and the parties paying the same are made creditors; while for all sums paid, the cash is credited, and the parties receiving them are made debtors.

We are next to state the mode of entering bill transactions.

BILLS RECEIVABLE.— We have seen by the Balance sheet that several correspondents are indebted to the house. The debts of correspondents abroad may be reduced by remitting either bills, specie, or merchandise for sale: from correspondents in England, bills are almost the only mode of remitting. When bills come to hand, the rule is to enter each in the bill book, with a minute statement of the date, term, sum, and other particulars, thus:—

No.	Received From whom.	Drawn by	Date.	Term.	Drawn on	To order of	Due.	Sum	How disp. of.
6309	Mar. Bailey & Co.	W. Adams	Belfast, 1 Mar.	3 mths.	T. Jones, Dublin	A. Williams	1-4 May	350	Rainier & Co.
6310	do. Watson & Co.	J. Jacobs	Dork., 3 do.	1 do.	J. Adams, London	G. Wilson	3-8 April	155	Smith & Co.
632	12 do. Spence & Co.	T. Johnson	Falmou., 3 do.	3 do.	T. Allan, Liverpool	G. Jones	3-8 May	360	Greenfield & Co.

The Journal Entries for these bills are as follows:—

Folio of Ledger.	BILLS RECEIVABLE Deb. to SUNDRIES.					# s. d.
	For the following remitted this month:					
7	To JAMES BAILEY & Co.					350 0 0
	No. 530. on T. Jones, Dublin, due 4th of May	
7	To T. WATSON & Co.					155 0 0
	No. 631. on J. Adams, London, due 8th of April	
7	To WILLIAM SPENCE & Co.					360 0 0
	No. 632. on T. Allan, Liverpool, due 8th of May	
						£745 0 0

BILLS PAYABLE.— The entries under this head are, of course, wholly different from the preceding, being for acceptances of the house given on account of sums owing by it to correspondents. Each acceptance is entered in the book of bills payable, thus:—

No.	Drawn by	Place and Date.	To Order of	On Account of	Term.	When accepted.	Sum.
151	J. Allan & Co.	Jamaica, 15 Jan.	J. Jones	J. Allan & Co.	30 days' sight	12 March	£175 10 0
152	G. & W. Fox	Falmouth, 7 Mar.	J. Thomson	G. & W. Fox	15 days' date	14 do.	73 15 0
153	J. Clark	Hull, 5 Mar.	G. Barclay	J. Smith & Sons	1 month's date	15 do.	152 10 0

The Journal entries for these bills are as follows:—

Folio of Ledger.	SUNDRIES Deb. to BILLS PAYABLE.					# s. d.
	For the following bills accepted.					
2	JAMES ALLAN & Co.	No. 151. their draft, due 15th of June	.	.	.	175 10 0
2	G. & W. FOX.	No. 152. their draft, due 25th of March	.	.	.	73 15 0
1	SIMON FRANK.	J. Clark's draft on his account, due 8th of March	.	.	.	152 10 0
						£381 15 0
	MAY, 1842.					
	CASH Deb. to THOMAS KEMBLE & CO.					
1	27th.	Received from them proceeds of sugar per Ceres	.	.	.	254 0 0
		Less their brokerage	.	.	.	2 6 9
						251 13 5
4	30th.	Received coffee per Vittoria	.	.	.	675 5 6
		Less brokerage	.	.	.	6 10 7
						669 5 11
						£921 9 2

The preceding entries, few as they are compared to the monthly transactions of a house of business, are sufficient to show the nature of a Journal as well as of the sub-

subsidiary books, (for cash, bills, invoices, and account sales,) from which it is composed. The Journal, being a complete record of the business of the house, is very varied and comprehensive in its nature, and may be termed an index to every book of consequence in the counting-house. But while in the cash book every payment or receipt is entered on the day it takes place, and in the bill books every bill is registered on the day it comes to hand, or is accepted, the Journal entries, being completed only at the end of the month, admit of being combined to a considerable extent, so as to exhibit a number of transactions in collective sums. Thus all the acceptances of the house paid in the course of the month appear in the Journal entry of Bills Payable Dr. to Cash: they are arranged in this entry as they fall due, after which the whole are added into one sum, which sum alone needs be carried to the Ledger. In like manner, all bills receivable, whether discounted, or kept by the house till they fall due, are collected under the head of Bills Receivable Dr. to Cash, summed up together, and carried to the Ledger in one line; a point of great importance, as we shall see presently, in facilitating the balance of the Ledger.

We proceed to give a specimen of the Ledger: the whole of the Journal entries in the preceding pages, when posted into the Ledger, will stand thus:—

Dr.		STOCK.		Cr.					
1842.	Jan. 1	1	To sundries - - -	8,755 15 0	1851.	Jan. 1	1	By sundries - - -	28,291 17 10
Dr.		CASH.		Cr.					
Jan. 1	1	To stock - - -	2,550 0 0	Mar. 31		By sundries - - -	2,170 7 7		
Mar. 1	4	To sundries - - -	2,307 0 7						
May 30	15	To T. Kemble & Co. -	901 2 8						
Dr.		EXCHEQUER BILLS.		Cr.					
Jan. 1	1	To stock - - -	5,510 0 0						
Dr.		THREE AND A HALF PER CENT. STOCK.		Cr.					
Jan. 1	1	To stock - - -	5,400 0 0						
Dr.		JAMES JOHNSON, London.		Cr.					
Mar. 1	4	To cash - - -	276 15 11	Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	276 15 11		
Dr.		JOHN WILSON, London.		Cr.					
Mar. 1	4	To cash - - -	48 0 0	Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	48 0 0		
Dr.		SIMON FRAZER, London.		Cr.					
Mar. 28	4	To cash - - -	234 5 0	Jan. 1	2	By stock - - -	960 15 0		
51	5	To bills payable - - -	132 10 0	Jan. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	236 5 0		
Dr.		JOHN MACKENZIE, London.		Cr.					
Mar. 5	4	To cash - - -	267 10 0	Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	267 10 0		
Drs.		JAMES BORNADALE & Co., London.		Cr.					
Mar. 1	4	To cash - - -	32 2 0	Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	32 2 0		
Drs.		MOLLING & Co., London.		Cr.					
Mar. 1	4	To cash - - -	328 5 4	Mar. 8	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	328 5 4		
Drs.		J. ALLAN & Co., Kingston, Jamaica.		Cr.					
Mar. 5	9	To sundries - - -	1,445 10 0	Jan. 1	2	By stock - - -	1,150 10 0		
51	11	To bills payable - - -	175 10 0						
Dr.		SUGAR BY THE CENS.		Cr.					
April 2	11	To sundries - - -	234 0 0	April 2	11	By T. Kemble & Co. -	234 0 0		
Dr.		FREIGHT ACCOUNT.		Cr.					
				Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	58 10 6		
				April 2	11	By sugar per Ceres -	84 11 11		
				May 3	15	By coffee per Victoria -	46 2 6		
Dr.		INSURANCE ACCOUNT.		Cr.					
				Jan. 1	2	By stock - - -	1,880 15 0		
				Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co. -	33 18 9		
				April 2	11	By sugar per Ceres -	5 16 6		
				May 3	15	By coffee per Victoria -	19 6 9		

£ 4 s. d.
338 3 0
107 3 0
354 5 0
6 1 10
278 15 11
48 0 0
267 10 0
32 2 0
328 5 4
320 15 0
15 9 8
£2,170 7 7

debtor, and the cash is

respondents reduced by in England, the rule is to n, and other

How disp. of:
£ 50 Kaitner & Co.
35 Smith & Co.
160 Overend & Co.

£ s. d.
350 0 0
135 0 0
260 0 0
£745 0 0

fferent from ns owing by ble, thus:—

Sum.
£175 10 0
75 15 11
132 10 0

£ s. d.
175 10 0
75 15 11
132 10 0
£381 15 0
331 15 3
669 5 11
£201 2 2

nsactions of a s of the sub-

Dr.		CHARGES.		Cr.			
Mar. 5	4	To cash . . .	15 2 6	Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co.	11 15 0
				April 9	11	By sugar per Coves	15 0 0
				May 3	13	By coffee per Pittorie	18 15 7
Dr.		PROFIT AND LOSS.		Cr.			
				Mar. 6	9	By J. Allan & Co.	11 15 0
				Mar. 8	4	By cash	08 0 0
				April 9	11	By sugar per Coves	15 0 0
				May 3	13	By coffee per Pittorie	90 8 1
Dr.		CUSTOMS INWARD.		Cr.			
April 8	4	To cash . . .	107 5 0	April 9	11	By sugar per Coves	107 5 0
Dr.		COFFEE PER VICTORIA.		Cr.			
April 5	13	To sundries . . .	676 5 6	April 3	11	By T. Kemble & Co.	676 5 6
Dr.		MORRIS PITTMAN, Trinidad.		Cr.			
				Jan. 1	9	By stock	1,370 0 0
				April 9	11	By sugar per Coves	81 11 5
Dr.		JAMES FORNER, Demerara.		Cr.			
				Jan. 1	9	By stock	730 0 0
				May 3	13	By coffee per Pittorie	07 15 1
Drs.		THOMAS KEMBLE & Co., London.		Cr.			
April 3	11	To sundries . . .	910 5 6	April 7	11	By sugar per Coves	9 6 9
				30	15	By coffee per Pittorie	0 16 7
				May 30	15	By cash	001 9 4
							910 5 6
Dr.		BILLS RECEIVABLE.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	7,500 15 0	Mar. 1	4	By cash . . .	880 10 0
Mar. 5	5	To sundries . . .	745 0 0				
Dr.		BILLS PAYABLE.		Cr.			
Mar. 7	4	To cash . . .	338 5 0	Jan. 1	9	By stock	9,530 10 0
				Mar. 5	5	By sundries	581 15 0
Dr.		SHIP AMELIA.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	3,000 0 0	Mar. 1	4	By cash . . .	175 5 0
Dr.		ADVENTURE IN IRISH LINN.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	9,467 0 0				
Drs.		JAMES BAILEY & Co., Liverpool.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	1,350 10 0	Mar. 5	4	By cash	108 10 0
				Mar. 5	5	By bills receivable	880 0 0
Drs.		THOMAS WATSON & Co., Dublin.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	5,580 19 0	Mar. 5	5	By bills receivable	180 0 0
Drs.		WILLIAM SPENCE & Co., Plymouth.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	970 0 10	Mar. 5	4	By cash	970 0 10
				Mar. 5	5	By bills receivable	360 0 0
Drs.		GEORGE AND WILLIAM FOX, Falmouth.		Cr.			
Mar. 4	4	To cash . . .	329 15 0	Jan. 1	9	By stock . . .	320 15 0
Mar. 6	6	To bills payable . . .	75 15 0				
Dr.		DERENTURE ACCOUNT.		Cr.			
Jan. 1	1	To stock . . .	515 0 0	Mar. 5	4	By cash . . .	15 8 0
Dr.		INTEREST ACCOUNT.		Cr.			
Mar. 6	4	To cash . . .	6 1 10				

The Ledger is thus a register of all the entries in the Journal; and a register so arranged as to exhibit on one side all the sums at Debtor; on the other all those at Creditor. It is kept in the most concise form, the insertions in it hardly ever exceeding a line each, or containing more than the title of the entry in the Journal. On opening a page in the Ledger, a person unacquainted with book-keeping is apt to consider this brevity unsatisfactory; and it was formerly the practice to add in each line a few explanatory words. Thus the entries in the account of Simon Frazer, which in our preceding page are briefly

March 26. To cash £ 354 5 0
 31. To bills payable 132 10 0
 would, at an earlier date in the practice of book-keeping, have been expanded to

March 12. To cash paid for goods per Rawlins £ 974 5 0
 28. To ditto paid J. Jackson for his account 48 0 0
 31. To bills payable, paid J. Clark's draft for his account 132 10 0

This method is still followed in some counting-houses, and such explanatory additions are certainly conducive to clearness; but they are practicable only in a house of limited business; wherever the transactions are numerous and varied, they should be left out of the Ledger, for two reasons; they increase greatly the labour of the book-keeper, and they never can be so full or circumstantial as to supersede the account current book.

The same Ledger may continue in use from one to five years, according to the size of the book, or the extent of the transactions of the house. On opening a new Ledger, it is proper to place in succession accounts of the same class or character; thus, — Stock account ought to be followed by that of the three per cent. consols, Exchequer bills, or other property belonging to the house; and if the business be with the West Indies, it is fit that accounts with Jamaica should be placed near those with Demeraras, Trinidad, and other sugar colonies.

Balancing the Ledger. — This important operation is performed by adding up the Debtor and Creditor side of every account in the Ledger, ascertaining the difference or balance in each, and carrying such balance, as the case may be, to the Debtor or Creditor column in the balance sheet. On closing, for example, a few of the preceding Ledger accounts, we find them to stand thus: —

Debtors.			Creditors.								
Cash	-	-	£	s.	d.	Simon Fraser	-	-	£	s.	d.
James Allen & Co.	-	-	3,587	15	3	Freight account	-	-	130	2	0
			468	10	0				107	4	11

And so on with every account except Stock, which, having no entries in the current year, is put in the balance sheet exactly as it was in the beginning of the year. Including Stock, the total at the Debtor side of the balance sheet ought to agree exactly with the total at the Creditor side; and if it do not, it is a rule in all well-regulated counting-houses to follow up the examination perseveringly, until they are made to agree. The apparent difference may not exceed a few shillings, or a few pence; still the search is continued, because the smallest discrepancy shows the existence of error, and to an extent perhaps greatly beyond the fraction in question. It often happens, indeed, that, as the examination proceeds, the difference undergoes a change from a smaller to a larger amount, and without increasing the difficulty of discovering the error, which is as likely to have occurred in the case of a large as of a small sum. Differences, when in round sums, such as 10*l.* 100*l.* or 1000*l.*, generally lie in the addition; fractional sums frequently in the posting. All this, however, is uncertain; for the error or errors may be in any month in the year, and in any one of the thousand entries and upwards which have been made in the course of it. Hence the necessity of examining the whole; and young book-keepers are often obliged to pass week after week in the tedious labour of revising, adding, and subtracting. On the other hand, there are sometimes examples of the balance being found on the first trial; but such cases are rare, and occur only to careful and experienced book-keepers. The only effectual means of lessening the labour and perplexity of balancing the Ledger, is to exercise great care in every stage of the book-keeping process; as well in making the additions in the Journal, as in posting from the Journal into the Ledger, and casting up the Ledger accounts; and, lastly, in adding up the balance sheet, which is generally of formidable length.

Accuracy in addition is one of the main requisites in a clerk, and particularly in a book-keeper. Of the extent to which it may be attained by continued practice, those only can judge who have experienced it themselves, or have marked the ease and correctness with which clerks in banking-houses perform such operations. They are in the habit of striking a daily balance which comes within small compass; but a merchant's balance, comprising the transactions of a year, extends commonly over a number of folio pages. It is advisable, therefore, to divide each page into portions of ten lines each, adding such portions separately. This lessens the risk of error, as it is evidently easier to add five or six such portions in succession, than to do at once a whole folio containing fifty or sixty sums.

Another important point towards agreeing a balance, is to limit carefully the number of Ledger entries; in other words, to comprise as much as possible in those aggregate sums in the Journal which are posted in the Ledger. Thus, in the case of the monthly entries for bills, whether receivable or payable, while the inner column of the Journal contains the amount of each specific bill, the final column — that which is carried to the Ledger — should, and generally does, comprise a number of bills in one sum. Entries

Cr.
 107 8 0
 Cr.
 978 5 6
 Cr.
 370 0 0
 81 11 3
 Cr.
 7 0 0
 51 18 1
 Cra.
 9 6 9
 0 18 7
 901 4 4
 910 5 0
 Cr.
 680 10 0
 Cr.
 9,529 10 0
 991 15 0
 Cr.
 174 0 0
 Cra.
 129 10 0
 880 0 0
 Cra.
 188 0 0
 Cra.
 970 0 10
 200 0 0
 Cra.
 590 10 0
 Cr.
 14 0 0
 Cr.

a register so all those at ever exceeding On opening consider this in line a few which in our

of waste book would have been forgotten, were it not found in the printed treatises on book-keeping which have appeared from time to time, and have been generally composed by teachers in schools or academies, who, unacquainted with the actual practice of merchants, were content to copy and reprint what they found laid down in old systems of book-keeping.

The subsidiary books required in a counting-house are, the Cash book ;
 Book of Acceptances of the house, or Bills Payable ;
 Book of Bills receivable, or bills on other merchants which are or have been in possession of the house ;
 Bought book, or book for bills of parcels ;
 Invoice book, or register of goods sold or exported ;
 Account of Sales book ;
 Insurance Policy book ; containing copies of all policies of insurance ;
 Petty Journal, or book for such occasional entries as do not belong to any of the preceding.

Such are the authorities from which it is now customary, in every well-regulated house, to compose the Journal. Their number indicates a repartition or subdivision, to a considerable extent, of counting-house work, and nowhere is such repartition productive of greater advantage. How much better is it to enter all bills receivable in one book, all bills payable in another, and all cash transactions in a third, than in any way to blend these very distinct entries. The effect of this subdivision is to simplify the Journal entries in a manner highly conducive to accuracy and despatch ; and to present such means of checking or examining them, that many transactions may be stated, and an account extended over a number of folios, without a single error.

The use of most of the subsidiary books is sufficiently pointed out by their names ; but it may be well to add a few remarks on the " Bought Book," or receptacle for the accounts of goods purchased. A bill of parcels is the name given to the account of goods supplied by a manufacturer, tradesman, or dealer, to a merchant. Such accounts soon become numerous, and it is evidently of consequence to adopt the best method of keeping them. In former times it was the practice to fold them up in a uniform size, and after writing on the back the names of the respective furnishers, to put them away in bundles. But wherever the purchases of a merchant are extensive, and the bills of parcels numerous, the better mode, after arranging them alphabetically, is to paste them in a large book, generally a folio, made of blue or sugar-loaf paper : this book to have its pages numbered, and to have an alphabetical index. Any single bill of parcels may thus be referred to with the same ease as we turn to an account in a ledger ; and one of these folios may be made to hold a very great quantity of bills of parcels ; as many as would form a number of large bundles when tied up on the plan of former times.

Book of Bills Payable. — The notice, or, as it is termed, advice of bills payable after sight, generally comes to hand before the bills themselves. As the time of the arrival of the latter is uncertain, the better plan is not to enter them from the advice among the other bills payable, but to appropriate a space of 10 or 12 pages at the beginning or end of the book of bills payable, and to insert there the substance of the advice received.

There are a few books in every counting-house which do not form part of the vouchers or materials for the Journal ; viz. the Account Current book, containing duplicates of the accounts furnished by the house to their different correspondents and connections ;

The Letter-book, containing copies of all letters written to the correspondents or connections of the house ;

The Petty Cash book, or account of petty disbursements, the sum of which is entered once a month in the cash book ;

The Order book, containing copies of all orders received ;

The Debenture book, or register of drawbacks payable by the Custom-house.

It was formerly a practice in some houses for the book-keeper to go over the letter book at the end of each month, that he might take note of any entries not supplied by the subsidiary books. This, however, is now unnecessary ; these books, when carefully kept, containing, in one shape or other, every transaction of the house.

The Principle of Double Entry. — From these explanations of the practice of book-keeping, we must call the attention of our readers to a topic of more intricacy — the origin of the present system, and the manner in which it was adopted. To record the transactions of a merchant in a Journal or day book was an obvious arrangement, and to keep a Ledger or systematic register of the contents of the Journal was a natural result of his business, particularly when conducted on credit. Such, in a rude form, are the books of our shopkeepers, who enter their sales and purchases in a day book, and in their Ledger carry the former to the Dr. of their customers, the latter to the Cr. of the wholesale dealers who supply them with goods. By making at the end of the year a list of the sums due to him by his customers, and of those due by him to wholesale

dealers, a shopkeeper may, after adding to the former the value of his stock on hand, make out an approximate statement of his debts and assets. Now, that which in this manner is done indirectly and imperfectly, it is the object of double entry to do with method and certainty. The shopkeeper makes out a list of debtors on one side and of creditors on the other, but he cannot make them balance, because his entries have been single; that is, they have had no counterpart. On making a purchase of cottons from Messrs. M'Connell of Manchester, or of woollens from Messrs. Gott of Leeds, he merely enters the amount to their credit, but he makes no one Dr. to them, because the goods are not sold; and to introduce an imaginary account would be too great a refinement for a plain practical man. But a person accustomed to double entry would, without any effort of thought, make "Printed Calicoes" Dr. to Messrs. M'Connell, and "Kerseymeres" Dr. to Messrs. Gott, for the respective amounts; after which, as the sales proceeded, he would make the buyers Drs. to these accounts for the amount of their purchases.

We thus perceive that the intricacy in the application of double entry was not with the personal so much as with the nominal accounts. Let us refer to the country where book-keeping was first studied, and take as an example the case of Doria, a merchant in Genoa, shipping, in a former age, silk, of the value of 200*l.*, bought from Flori, in Piedmont, to Henderson and Co., silk manufacturers, in England, on the terms of charging, not an additional price, but a commission of 5 per cent. with interest until reimbursed his advance. In entering the transaction, Doria's book-keeper would, as a matter of course, make Hendersons debtors to Flori 200*l.* for the cost of the silk; but he might not so readily find a creditor for the 10*l.* commission, or the 7*l.* interest eventually due on the advance. The custom in this primitive æra of book-keeping probably was, to introduce the firm of the house into their books, making Hendersons debtors to Doria for the 10*l.* and 7*l.*; but as the practice of book-keeping improved, it was found preferable to avoid inserting, on any occasion, the firm of the house, and to substitute nominal accounts, such as, commission, interest, bills payable, bills receivable. These, attention and practice rendered in time familiar to the book-keeper, who learned to open his Journal at the beginning of a year by making the parties who owed balances to the house debtors, not to the firm by name, but to Stock; and those to whom the house was indebted, creditors by Stock. As the transactions of the year proceeded, he made those to whom money was paid debtors, not to the firm of the house, but to Cash; and those for whose account bills were accepted debtors to Bills payable; so that book-keeping by double entry assumed its present form gradually and almost imperceptibly.

What are the advantages of this method compared to that of single entry? First, it supplies a test of accuracy, inasmuch as, the entries on the debtor side of the Ledger being equal to those on the creditor side, their respective totals ought, as a matter of course, to balance. After going through this proof, personal accounts, of whatever length, may be settled with confidence; while in a general account, such as kerseymeres or printed calicoes, the value sold and the value remaining on hand may be ascertained by merely balancing the account in the Ledger, without the repeated references to the sales book that would otherwise be required. Without double entry, a dealer could hardly estimate his property unless he took stock; but with it an extraction of the Ledger balances fulfils that object, and stock-taking, however proper as a test of the honesty of servants, becomes quite unnecessary as a means of calculation. In short, in regard to any person in trade, whether merchant, dealer, or manufacturer, double entry forms the connecting link of his accounts, and affords a ready solution of any inquiry as to the appropriation, increase, or diminution of his capital.

This advantage may fortunately be obtained without any great sacrifice of time or labour. Of the books of dealers, manufacturers, and retailers, nine parts in ten may continue to be kept by single entry; for the addition of a few pages of double entry in the form of a summary, at the end of the month or quarter, will be sufficient to exhibit the result of a great extent of transactions.

Nominal Accounts. — Of these our limits permit us to notice only two; Profit and Loss, and Merchandise. The former contains on the creditor side all the entries of commissions earned, and gains obtained on particular adventures; while the debtor side exhibits the losses incurred, whether by bad debts or by unsuccessful purchases. Every house keeping regular books must have a profit and loss account, but a merchandise account is altogether optional. Those who have such a head in their Ledger are accustomed to make it Dr. to the dealers or furnishers from whom they make purchases, and to credit it in return by the correspondents or connections to whom they make sales. In many houses, however, there is no such intermediate account; the parties to whom the goods are sent being made Drs. at once to the furnishers of the goods, as in the case of the shipment to Jamaica stated in our preceding pages.

A merchant, before estimating his profits, ought to charge interest on each head of

investment. His clear profit cannot be ascertained without it; and the practice of charging it is a lesson to him to hold no property that does not afford, at least, interest on his advances.

Mercantile books and accounts must be kept in the money of the country in which the partners reside. A house in Rotterdam composed of English partners necessarily keep their accounts in Dutch money, although their transactions may be chiefly with England. Further, books, it is obvious, can be kept in only one kind of money; and when a merchant in England receives from a distant country, accounts which cannot at the time be entered in sterling for want of a fixed exchange, these accounts should be noted in a separate book, until, the exchange being ascertained, they can be entered in the Journal in sterling.

A book-keeper will do well to avoid all such puzzling distinctions as "J. Johnson, my account with him;" and "J. Johnson, his account proper;" on the plain ground that every account in the Ledger ought to be the general account of the person whose name it bears.

Errors excepted. — This expression is merely a proviso, that if any mistakes be discovered in the account in question, they shall be open to correction.

Accounts Current. — An account current generally contains all the transactions of the house with one of its correspondents during a given time, generally 6 or 12 months. The following is an example: —

Messrs. JAMES ALLAN & Co., Jamaica, in Account Current with HENRY BARCLAY & Co. London.										
Dr.				Days to 31 Dec.	Inter-est.	Cr.				
1842.		£ s. d.				1842.		£ s. d.	Days to 31 Dec.	Inter-est.
June 30	To balance of last account	867 10 0	184	1,595	Aug. 10	By proceeds of 20 tierces coffee, per <i>Louis</i> , due Sept. 10.	410 0 0	112	459	
July 2	To your draft to J. Smith, due Aug. 15.	128 0 0	140	179		By your remittance on J. Austin, due Oct. 10.	350 0 0	82	287	
July 9	To invoice of goods per Amella, due Oct. 3.	752 0 0	83	624	Sept. 15	By proceeds of 17 hhd. sugar, per <i>Ernest</i> , due Oct. 15.	238 0 0	77	173	
Oct. 10	To cash paid J. Harvey on your account	75 10 0	82	62	Sept. 20	By cash received from J. Johnson on your account	960 0 0	104	965	
	To insurance on produce shipped by you in the <i>Ans, Nokes</i> , £1,400, at 2 guineas per cent.	280 8 0			Dec. 31	Balance of interest carried to Dr.	- - -	-	1,274	
	Policy	3 10 0				Balance of account carried to your Dr. in new account	621 8 7			
Dec. 31	Postage and petty charges during the half year	1 15 0								
	To commission, 4 per cent. on £205 paid, Do. on £260 received on your account	4 6 0								
	To balance of interest this half year, 1,274 divided by 72, 16	17 9 7								
		£ 1,879 8 7		2,460			£ 1,879 8 7			2,460

Errors excepted.

HENRY BARCLAY & Co.

London, 31st of December, 1842.

We have here on the Dr. side all the payments made or responsibilities incurred for the correspondents in question, and on the Cr. side the different receipts on their account. The interest for the half year, the commission on receipts and payments, the postage and petty charges, being then added, the account may be closed and the balance carried to next year. Copies of accounts current ought to be sent off as soon as possible after the day to which they are brought down; and with that view they ought to be written out from the Ledger before the close of the year or half year, particularly as the entries for interest and commission can be made only after they are written out. The whole ought then to be copied into the account current book.

But in some counting-houses the account current book, instead of being copied from the Ledger and Journal, is posted, like the latter, from the bill book, the cash book, the invoice book, and the account of sales book. It is then considered a check on the Journal and Ledger; and from the comparative ease with which it is posted, may be completed and made use of before the latter are fully brought up. This is certainly an advantage in houses where, from pressure on the book-keeper, the Journal and Ledger are in arrear, but such ought never to be the case for any length of time; while as to the former point—that of forming a check on the Journal and Ledger—the fact is, that these books, from the mode in which they are kept, are much more likely to be correct than the account current book.

Printed Works on Book-keeping. — To the publications of old date by teachers have succeeded, in the present age, several treatises on book-keeping by accountants. Some of these are of very limited use, being directed more to recommend a favourite practice of the author in some particular branch of book-keeping, than to convey a comprehensive view of the system. The only works on the subject entitled to that character are two: one by the late Benjamin Booth, published above thirty years ago; the other by Mr. Jones, an accountant in London, printed in 1831. Booth was a man of ability,

who had experience both as a merchant and a book-keeper, having passed one part of his life in London, the other in New York. The reader of his work finds a great deal of information in short compass, without being perplexed either by superfluous detail or by fanciful theory.*

The form of Mr. Booth's Journal and Ledger is similar to what we have given in the preceding pages, and to the practice of our merchants for more than a century: it was by much the best work on book-keeping, until Mr. Jones devised several improvements calculated to lessen the risk of error in both Journal and Ledger. One of these improvements is the use of two columns for figures in each page of the Journal, one for the Drs., the other for the Crs.: by inserting each sum twice, the book-keeper obtains the means of proving the Journal additions page by page. The posting from the Journal to the Ledger is also simplified and rendered less subject to error by the use of these columns. In regard to the great task of balancing the Ledger, Mr. Jones's plan is to do it quarter by quarter, making use of a separate book, called a balance book, in which are inserted the totals on each side of the Ledger accounts at the end of 3 months. By these means, the agreement of the general balance is made a matter of certainty after completing the additions. Other parts of Mr. Jones's book, viz. his *formula* for books on the single entry plan, and for the accounts of bankers, contain suggestions of evident utility. His volume consists of two parts: the printed part (120 pp.) containing the treatise, with directions; and the lithographed part (140 pp.) giving copious examples in two sets of books, one kept by single, the other by double entry. If, on a reimpression, the author were to divide the work, and to sell the single entry part separately from the double entry, the price of each might be moderate, and a great service would be rendered to the mercantile public.

BOOKS (Ger. *Bücher*; Du. *Boeken*; Da. *Bøger*; Sw. *Bücker*; Fr. *Livres*; It. *Libri*; Sp. *Libros*; Port. *Livros*; Rus. *Knigi*; Pol. *Książki, Księgi*; Lat. *Libri*), written or printed treatises on any branch of science, art, or literature, composed in the view of instructing, amusing, or persuading the reader.

Copyright is the right which the authors of books or treatises claim to the exclusive privilege of printing, publishing, and selling them.

Books are sometimes blank, as account books; but these enjoy no peculiar privileges, and do not come within the scope of our inquiries.

Books are divided into *classes*, according to the mode in which the sheets of the paper on which they are printed or written are folded: viz. *folio*, when the sheet is folded into two leaves; *quarto*, when folded into *four*; *octavo*, when folded into *eight*; *duodecimo*, when the sheet is folded into *twelve*, &c. In making these classifications, no attention is paid to the size of the sheet.

I. *Progress and present State of the Law as to the Copyright of Books.*—It has been doubted whether, in antiquity, an author had any exclusive right to a work, or whether, having once published it, he could restrain others from copying it, and selling copies. We incline to think that he could. The public sale of copies of works is often referred to in the classics; and in such a way as warrants the inference that they were productive to the author, which could not have been the case had every one been permitted to copy them at pleasure. Terence, in one of his plays (*Prol. in Eunuch. l. 20.*), says, *Fabulam, quam nunc acturi sumus, postquam ædiles emerunt*; but why should the magistrates have bought it, had it been free to every one to copy it? Martial, in one of his epigrams, says—

*Sunt quidam, qui me dicunt non esse poetam;
Sed qui me vendit, bibliopola, putat.* Mart. lib. xiv. Ep. 194.

This evidently conveys the idea that he had assigned the right to sell his book to a single person who profited by it. Passages to the same effect may be found in Horace (*De Arte Poetica*, line 345.), Juvenal (*Sat. 7. line 83.*), &c.

It would have been singular, indeed, had it been otherwise. Of all the species of property a man can possess, the fruits of his mental labours seem to be most peculiarly his own. And though it may, we think, be shown, that many serious inconveniences would result from giving the same absolute and interminable property over ideas that is given over material objects, these inconveniences could hardly have been perceived in antiquity.

It will also be observed, that in antiquity a copyright was of much less value than in modern times. Books could then only be multiplied by copying them with the pen; and if any one chose privately to copy a work, or to buy it of another, it must have been very difficult to hinder him: but when printing had been introduced, the greater cheapness of books not only extended the demand for them in far greater proportion, and consequently rendered copyrights more valuable, but it also afforded the means of pre-

* The title of the book is "A Complete System of Book-keeping, by Benjamin Booth." London, 1799. thin 4to. Printed for Grosvenor and Snater, and for the late J. Johnson, St. Paul's Churchyard.
Mr. Jones's book is entitled "The Science of Book-keeping exemplified." 4to. London, 1831. 4s. 4s.

venting their piracy. Printing is not a device by which a few copies of a book can be obtained at a cheap rate. It is productive of cheapness only when it is employed upon a large scale, or when a considerable impression is to be thrown off. And hence, after its invention, piracy could hardly be committed in secret: the pirated book had to be brought to market; the fraud was thus sure to be detected, and the offending party might be prosecuted and punished.

For a considerable time after the invention of printing, no questions seem to have occurred with respect to copyrights. This was occasioned by the early adoption of the licensing system. Governments soon perceived the vast importance of the powerful engine that had been brought into the field; and they endeavoured to avail themselves of its energies by interdicting the publication of all works not previously licensed by authority. During the continuation of this system, piracy was effectually prevented. The licensing act (13 & 14 Chas. 2. c. 2.) and the previous acts and proclamations to the same effect, prohibited the printing of any book without consent of the owner, as well as without a licence. In 1694, the licensing act finally expired, and the press then became really free. Instead, however, of the summary methods for obtaining redress for any invasion of their property enjoyed by them under the licensing acts, authors were now left to defend their rights at *common law*; and as no author or bookseller could procure any redress for a piracy at common law, except in so far as he could *prove damage*, property in books was virtually annihilated; it being in most cases impossible to prove the sale of one printed copy out of a hundred. Under these circumstances, applications were made to parliament for an act to protect literary property, by granting some speedy and effectual method of preventing the sale of spurious copies. In consequence, the statute 8 Anne, c. 19. was passed, securing to authors and their assignees the exclusive right of printing their books for 14 years certain, from the day of publication, with a contingent 14 years, provided the author were alive at the expiration of the first term. Persons printing books protected by this act, without the consent of the authors or their assignees, were to forfeit the pirated copies, and 1*d.* for every sheet of the same. Such books as were not entered at Stationers' Hall were excluded from the benefit of this act.

It had been customary, for some time previous to this period, for the libraries of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, &c. to get a copy of most books entered at Stationers' Hall; and the act of Anne made it imperative that single copies of all works entitled to its protection should be delivered to the following libraries: viz. the Royal Library, now transferred to the British Museum; the Libraries of Oxford and Cambridge; the Libraries of the four Scotch Universities; the Library of Sion College, London, and that of the Faculty of Advocates in Edinburgh; — in all, *nine* copies.

The act of Anne did not put to rest the questions as to copyright. The authors contended that it did not affect their natural ownership; and that they or their assignees were entitled to proceed at *common law* against those who pirated their works after the period mentioned in the statute had expired. The publishers of spurious editions resisted these pretensions, and contended that there was either no right of property at common law in the productions of the mind; or that, supposing such right to have existed, it was superseded by the statute of Anne. There was some difference of opinion in the courts as to these points; but Lord Mansfield, Mr. Justice Blackstone, and the most eminent Judges, were favourable to the claims of the authors. However, it was finally decided, upon an appeal to the House of Lords in 1774, that an action could not be maintained for pirating a copyright after the term specified in the statute. — (*Godson on the Law of Patents and Copyrights*, p. 205.)

The act of Queen Anne referred only to Great Britain; but in 1801, its provisions were extended to Ireland; the penalty, exclusive of forfeiture, on printing or importing books without consent of the proprietor, was also increased from 1*d.* to 3*d.* a sheet. In return for this concession, two additional copies of all works entered at Stationers' Hall were to be delivered; one to Trinity College, Dublin, and one to the King's Inns, Dublin.

Every one must be satisfied that 14 years' exclusive possession is far too short a period to indemnify the author of a work, the composition of which has required any considerable amount of labour and research; though 28 years is perhaps, all things considered, not a very improper period. But the grand defect of the statute of Anne consisted in its making the right to the exclusive possession for 28 years contingent on the fact of a person having lived a day more or less than 14 years after the publication of his work. This was making the enjoyment of an important right dependent on a mere accidental circumstance over which man has no control. Could any thing be more oppressive and unjust than to hinder an author from bequeathing that property to his widow and children, that would have belonged to himself had he been alive? Nothing, indeed, as it appears to us, can be more obvious than the justice of extending all copyrights to the same period, whether the authors be dead or not.

But though the extreme harshness, not to say injustice, of the act of Queen Anne had been repeatedly pointed out, its provisions were continued down to 1814, when the copyright act, 54 Gen. St. c. 156, was passed. This act extended the duration of all copyrights, whether the authors were dead or alive, to 28 years certain; with the further provision, that if the author should be alive at the end of that period, he should enjoy the copyright during the residue of his life.

But though the act of 1814 conferred a most important advantage on authors and publishers, it did not satisfy their pretensions, and repeated attempts were subsequently made to have copyrights declared perpetual, or, at all events, to have their term considerably extended. In consequence, after a great deal of discussion, the existing copyright act, 3 & 6 Vict. cap. 43, was passed in 1842. This statute extends the duration of all copyrights, whether the authors be dead or alive, to *forty-two* years certain; providing, further, that if the author be alive at the expiration of this period of 42 years from the publication of his work, he shall enjoy the copyright to his death, and that his heirs or assignees shall enjoy it for 7 years after that event. We subjoin an abstract of this statute.

Clause 1, repeals former acts, viz. 8 Anne, c. 19., 41 G. 3. 107., and 54 G. 3. c. 156.

Clause 2, refers to this interpretation of this act.

Endurance of Term of Copyright in any Book hereafter to be published.—The copyright in every book which shall hereafter be published in the lifetime of its author shall endure for the natural life of such author, and for the further term of 7 years, from the time of his death, and shall be the property of such author and his assignees: provided always, that if the said term of 7 years shall expire before the end of 42 years from the first publication of such book, the copyright shall in that case endure for such period of 42 years; and that the copyright in every book which shall be published after the death of its author shall endure for the term of 42 years from the first publication thereof, and shall be the property of the proprietor of the author's manuscript from which such book shall be first published, and his assigns.—§ 3.

In Cases of subsisting Copyright the Term to be extended.—The copyright which at the time of passing this act shall subsist in any published book (except as herein-after mentioned) shall be extended and endure for the full term provided by this act in cases of books thereafter published, and shall be the property of the person who at the time of passing of this act shall be the proprietor of such copyright; provided, that in all cases in which such copyright shall belong in whole or in part to a publisher or other person who shall have acquired it for other consideration than that of natural love and affection, such copyright shall not be extended by this act, but shall endure for the term which shall subsist therein at the time of passing this act, and no longer, unless the author of such book, if he be living, or the personal representative of such author, if he be dead, and the proprietor of such copyright shall, before the expiration of such term, consent and agree to accept the benefits of this act in respect of such book, in the form given in the schedule annexed to the act to be entered in the book of registry herein-after directed to be kept, in which case such copyright shall endure for the full term of the books to be published after the passing of this act, and shall be the property of such person or persons as in such minute shall be expressed.—§ 4.

Clause 5, gives the judicial committee of the privy council power to license the republication of such books as the proprietor refuses to republish after death of the author.

Clause 6, and 7, specify the terms within which copies of books published after the passing of this act, and of subsequent editions, shall be delivered at the British Museum.

Clause 8, directs that (besides the copy for the British Museum) a copy of every book be delivered within a month after demand to the officer of the Stationers' Company for the following libraries: viz. the Bodleian at Oxford, the Public Library at Cambridge, the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, and that of Trinity College, Dublin.

Clause 9, and 10, authorise publishers to deliver copies to the libraries, instead of at the Stationers' Company, and impose penalties for default in delivering copies for the use of the said libraries.

Book of Registry to be kept at Stationers' Hall.—A book of registry, wherein may be registered the proprietorship in the copyright of books, and assignments thereof, and in dramatic and musical pieces, whether in manuscript or otherwise, and licences affecting such copyright shall be kept at the hall of the Stationers' Company, and shall be open to the inspection of any person, on payment of one shilling for every entry searched for or inspected in the said book; and the officer in charge of such book shall, whenever required, give a copy of an entry in such book, certified under his hand, and impressed with the stamp provided by said company for that purpose, to any person requiring the same, on payment of the sum of five shillings; and such copies so certified and impressed shall be received in evidence in all courts, and in all summary proceedings, and shall be *prima facie* proof of the proprietorship or assignment of copyright or licence as therein expressed, and in the case of dramatic or musical pieces shall be *prima facie* proof of the right of representation or performance.—§ 11.

Clause 12, enacts that making a false entry in the book of registry shall be a misdemeanour.

Clause 13, enacts that entries of copyright may be made in the book of registry.

Clause 14, enacts that persons aggrieved by any entry in the book of registry may apply to a court of law in term, or judge in vacation, who may order such entry to be varied or expunged.

Remedy for the Piracy of Books by Action on the Case.—If any person shall, in any part of the British dominions, after the passing of this act, print or use, or cause to be printed, for sale or exportation, any book in which there shall be a subsisting copyright, without the consent in writing of the proprietor, or shall import for sale or hire any such book unlawfully printed from parts beyond the sea, or, knowing such book to have been so unlawfully printed or imported, shall sell, publish, or expose to sale or hire, or shall have in his possession, for sale or hire, any such book without consent as aforesaid, such offender shall be liable to a special action on the case for the benefit of the proprietor of such copyright, to be brought in any court of record in that part of the British dominions in which the offence shall be committed: provided always, that in Scotland such offender shall be liable to an action in the court of session in Scotland, to be brought and prosecuted in the same manner as any other action of damages to the like amount may be brought and prosecuted there.—§ 15.

Clause 16, enacts that in actions for piracy the defendant shall give notice of the objections to the plaintiff's title on which he means to rely.

Clause 17, enacts that no person, except the proprietor, &c. shall import into the British dominions for sale or hire, any book first composed, &c. within the United Kingdom, wherein there shall be copyright, and reprinted elsewhere, under penalty of forfeiture thereof, and also of 10*l.* and double the value. Books may be seized by officers of customs or excise.

Clause 18, relates to and defines the copyright in encyclopædias, periodicals, and works published in a series, reviews, or magazines.

Clause 19, enacts that proprietors of encyclopædias, periodicals, and works published in series, may enter as ones at Stationers' Hall, and thereon have the benefit of the registration of the whole.

Clause 30. enacts that the provisions of 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 15. shall be extended to musical compositions, and the term of copyright, as provided by this act, applied to the liberty of representing dramatic pieces and musical compositions.

Clause 23. enacts that pirated books shall become the property of the proprietor of the copyright, and may be recovered by action.

Clause 25. makes copyright personal property. It was farther enacted by the statute 5 & 6 Vict. c. 47. that the importation of all books, of which there is an existing copyright, into the United Kingdom, should be absolutely prohibited from the 1st of April, 1843.

The great practical difficulty in interpreting the copyright acts, is in distinguishing between an original work and a copy made, *anima furandi*, from one already in existence. The following is a summary of Mr. Godson's remarks on this subject:—

"The identity of a literary work consists entirely in the *sentiments and language*. The same conceptions, clothed in the same words, must necessarily be the same composition; and whatever method is taken of exhibiting that composition to the ear or the eye, by *recital*, or by *writing*, or by *printing*, in any number of copies, or at any period of time, the property of another person has been violated; for the new book is still the identical work of the real author.

"Thus, therefore, a transcript of nearly all the sentiments and language of a book is a glaring piracy. To copy part of a book, either by taking a few pages *verbatim*, when the sentiments are not new, or by imitation of the principal ideas, although the treatises in other respects are different, is also considered to be illegal.

"Although it was held by Ellenborough C. J. that a variance in *form and manner* is a variance in *substance*, and that any material alteration which is a *melioration* cannot be considered as a piracy; yet a piracy is committed, whether the author attempt an original work, or call his book an abridgment, if the principal parts of a book are servilely copied or unalteredly varied.

"But if the main design be not copied, the circumstance that part of the composition of one author is found in another is not of itself piracy sufficient to support an action. A man may fairly adopt part of the work of another; he may so make use of another's labours for the promotion of science, and the benefit of the public; but having done so, the question will be, Was the matter so taken used fairly with that view, and without what may be termed the *animus furandi*?

"In judging of a quotation, whether it is fair and candid, or whether the person who quotes has been swayed by the *animus furandi*, the quantity taken, and the *manner* in which it is adopted, of course must be considered.

"If the work complained of be *in substance* a copy, then it is not necessary to show the intention to pirate; for the greater part of the matter of the book having been purloined, the intention is apparent, and other proof is superfluous. A piracy has undoubtedly been committed.

"But if only a *small portion* of the work is quoted, then it becomes necessary to show that it was done *anima furandi*, with the intention of depriving the author of his just reward, by giving his work to the public in a cheaper form. And then the *mode* of doing it becomes a subject of inquiry; for it is not sufficient to constitute a piracy, that part of one author's book is found in that of another, unless it be nearly the whole, or so much as will show (being a question of fact for the jury) that it was done with a bad intent, and that the matter which accompanies it has been *colourably* introduced."—(pp. 215—217.)

"If a work be of such a libellous or mischievous nature as to affect the *public morals*, and that the author cannot maintain an action at law upon it, a court of equity will not interpose with an injunction to protect that which cannot be called property. Even if there be a doubt as to its evil tendency, the Lord Chancellor will not interfere."—(Godson, p. 212.)

II. *Expediency of limiting Copyrights to a reasonable Term.*—It is argued by many that copyrights should be made perpetual; that, were this done, men of talent and learning would devote themselves much more readily than at present to the composition of works requiring great labour; inasmuch as the copyright of such works, were it perpetual, would be an adequate provision for a family. But we doubt much whether these anticipations would be realised. Most books or manuscripts are purchased by the booksellers, or published upon the presumption that there will immediately be a considerable demand for them; and we apprehend that when copyrights are secured for 42 years certain, very little more would be given for them were they made perpetual. When an annuity, or the rent or profit arising out of any fixed and tangible property, with respect to which there can be no risk, is sold, if the number of years for which it is to continue be considerable, the price which it is worth, and which it fetches, does not differ materially from what it would bring were it perpetual. But the copyright of an unpublished work is, of all descriptions of property in which to speculate, the most hazardous, and the chances of reaping contingent advantages from it, at the distance of 42 years, would be worth very little indeed.

Those who write books, and those who publish them, calculate on their obtaining a ready and extensive sale, and on their being indemnified in a few years. Very few authors, and still fewer booksellers, are disposed to look forward to so distant a period even as 28 years for remuneration. They are, with very few exceptions, sanguine enough to suppose that a much shorter term will enable them to reap a full harvest of fame and profit from the publication; and we doubt much whether there be one case in a hundred, in which an author would obtain a larger sum for a perpetual copyright, than for one that is to continue for the period stipulated in the late act.

But while the making of copyrights perpetual would not, as it appears to us, be of any material advantage to the authors, there are good grounds for thinking that it would be disadvantageous to the public. Suppose an individual computes a table of logarithms to five or seven places; if his computations be correct, no improvement can be made upon them, to the extent at least to which they go. But is he or his assignees to be entitled, in all time to come, to prevent other individuals from publishing similar tables, on the ground of an invasion of private property? Such a pretension could not be

admitted without leading to the most mischievous consequences; and yet there is no real ground (though the courts have attempted to make one) on which the claim in question and others of the same description could be resisted, were copyrights made perpetual, and placed in all respects on the same footing as other property. We, therefore, are clearly of opinion that good policy suggests the limitation of the exclusive right of printing and publishing literary works to some such reasonable period as may secure to authors the greater part of the profit to be derived from their works; and that this period being expired, they should become public property.

Perhaps the period of 28 years has been advantageously extended to 42; but we are satisfied that more injury than benefit would result to literature by extending it beyond this term. In France, copyrights continue for 20 years after the death of the author. In most of the German states they are perpetual; this, however, until very recently, hardly indemnified the authors for the case with which spurious copies might be obtained from other states. But by a late resolution of the Diet, a copyright secured in one state is good in all.

III. *International Copyrights.*—The establishment of an international copyright system, that should enable the authors of one country to secure the copyright of their works in other countries, has, of late, excited a good deal of attention. We doubt, however, whether the advantages that would result from such a system, were it established, would be so great as many seem to suppose. No doubt it would be advantageous for the authors of popular works in Great Britain and the United States, for example, to be able to secure a copyright in both countries; but the real question is, would the interests of literature and of the public be promoted by such arrangement? Now we incline to think that this question must be answered in the negative. The single market of either Great Britain or the United States is quite large enough to secure a sale for really good works sufficient to afford ample encouragement to their authors; and such being the case, it is difficult to see on what ground the republication at a cheap rate in the one country of books originally published in the other should be prevented. Indeed, such prevention would appear, by obstructing the circulation of knowledge and of amusement, to be injurious to both. It has, it is true, been alleged, that if we had a copyright system in common with America, English and American books might be published at a less price, inasmuch as the extension of the market would secure them a larger sale. But though this result *might*, we doubt much whether it *really would*, happen. We apprehend that then, as now, authors and publishers would impose such prices on their works as they supposed would realise the largest amount of profit, and that if they thought a high price more likely to do this than a low one, it would be preferred. The extensive reprinting of cheap editions of French works that has for a lengthened period been carried on at Brussels has certainly been disadvantageous to the literati of France. Still, however, the market of that kingdom seems to be sufficiently extensive to insure the unlimited production of works displaying the greatest talent, research, and industry; and it is plain that if the production of valuable works be not checked in France by their being reprinted abroad, the injury done to French men of letters redounds to the advantage of every foreigner who has occasion to look into or consult their works. Every effort should be made to prevent copyrights being invaded by pirates at home, and by the clandestine importation of books printed abroad; but farther than this we should not go. We are well convinced that it is for the advantage of the public and of literature that nations should have full liberty to republish each other's works in such forms and at such times and prices as they may think fit.

The real evil with which our literature has to contend originates in the barefaced piracy carried on at home, and not in the proceedings of foreigners. The latter may, perhaps, interfere a little with the sale of native works, by supplying the public with foreign instead of home editions; but the proceedings of the indigenous pirates are ten times more mischievous. They consist for the most part of knaves and drudges, without talent or learning of any sort, save only that of transmuting and adulterating the labours of others, and disguising their own rascality. Such persons fasten like leeches on any new work of talent, research, and industry; they forthwith announce some system, compilation, or abridgment of the same sort, every idea and statement in which is stolen; and then publish their spurious rubbish at a low price, advertise it as being decidedly the best work on the subject, and find numbers of newspaper writers ready to puff off and eulogise their disinterested and meritorious labours! It is difficult, we admit, to deal with such a nuisance, and it cannot, perhaps, be abated by legislation. But while we regret the fact, there cannot, we believe, be a question that courts and juries have for a lengthened period inclined too much to a lenient interpretation of the law as to piracy; and that literary plunderers, whose robberies are but little disguised, too often escape with impunity.

IV. *Taxes on Literature.*—These taxes, when carried to any considerable extent, are at once impolitic, oppressive, and unjust: impolitic, because they tend to obstruct

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the growth and diffusion of knowledge; oppressive, because they very frequently swallow up the entire reward of the labours of the most deserving persons; and unjust, because they are not proportioned to the value of the article on which they are laid, and are, indeed, much oftener paid out of capital than out of profit.

These taxes consist, in Great Britain, of the duty on paper, the 5 copies of all works given to certain public libraries, and the advertisement duty. When the former edition of this work was published, these were exceedingly heavy and most oppressive. In the interval, however, they have been diminished fully a half, and are now comparatively moderate; though the principle on which they are imposed still necessarily renders them productive of hardship and injustice.

The following statements show the mode in which the duties operate: they are also interesting as throwing some light on the expense of publishing books, and the precarious and limited nature of the profit to be derived from them: they refer to an octavo volume of 500 pages, the paper such as this, with the ordinary quantity of matter on the page, and sold by retail at 12s. a copy. We subjoin an Estimate of the cost of such a volume when 500, 750, and 1,000 copies are printed, showing what portion of the cost consists of duty, and the profits of the author and publisher on each edition when the whole is sold off: a similar estimate is subjoined for a pamphlet of 80 pages.

	Total Cost.	Whereof Duty.
<i>Five Hundred Copies.</i>		
Printing and corrections	86 15 0	0 0 0
Paper	28 0 0	4 15 0
Boarding in cloth	16 0 0	4 15 6
Advertising	40 0 0	10 0 0
5 copies to public libraries.	176 15 0	15 11 6
90 copies to author, Reviews, &c.		
475 copies for sale at 8s. 6d. 25 as 24	193 16 0	
Deduct cost	176 15 0	
For profit to author and publisher, commission, and interest on capital, when all are sold	16 16 0	
<i>Seven Hundred and Fifty Copies.</i>		
Printing and corrections	95 4 0	0 0 0
Paper	40 0 0	7 4 0
Boarding in cloth	24 0 0	1 3 3
Advertising	50 0 0	19 10 0
5 copies to public libraries.	217 4 0	20 17 3
90 copies to author, Reviews, &c.		
725 copies for sale at 8s. 6d. 25 as 21	325 16 0	
Deduct cost	317 4 0	
For profit to author and publisher, commission, and interest on capital, when all are sold	76 12 0	
<i>One Thousand Copies.</i>		
Printing and corrections	101 10 0	0 0 0
Paper	51 0 0	9 19 0
Boarding	25 0 0	11 0 0
Advertising	60 0 0	13 0 0
5 copies to public libraries.	237 10 0	26 3 0
90 copies to author, Reviews, &c.		
975 copies for sale at 8s. 6d. 25 as 24	397 16 0	
Deduct cost	357 10 0	
For profit to author and publisher, commission, and interest on capital, when all are sold	140 6 0	
<i>Pamphlet of 5 sheets, 500 printed.</i>		
Printing	14 14 0	0 0 0
Corrections and alterations	5 5 0	0 0 0
Paper	0 0 0	0 15 0
Stitching	0 12 8	0 0 0
Advertising (say)	10 0 0	2 10 0
25 copies for author and public libraries.	35 11 6	3 5 0
475 copies for sale, at 2s for 2l. 14s.	51 6 0	
Deduct cost	35 11 6	
For profit to author and publisher, interest, &c. when all are sold	15 11 6	

These statements show that, notwithstanding their reduction, the duties are yet far from inconsiderable, and form indeed a heavy charge on the publication of works for which the demand is limited. As seen above, they amount, on an edition of 500 copies of an ordinary octavo volume, to nearly as much as the sum remaining after the entire impression has been sold, for profit for author and publisher.

It is essential, however, to bear in mind that the previous statements show only how the duties affect books when the entire impression is sold off at the *first publication price*; but this seldom happens. Excluding pamphlets, it may be truly affirmed, that, at an average, the original impression of half the books printed is hardly ever sold off, except at a ruinous reduction of price. Now, if we suppose, in the previous example of an edition of 750 copies, that only 625 instead of 725 were sold, the result would be that only 37l. 16s. would remain at profit to the author and publisher, and as a compensation for interest, the risk of bad debts, &c. Were only 500 copies sold, a loss of 134. 4s., exclusive of the author's labour, would be incurred; and were only 400 copies sold, government would receive 20l. 17s. 3d. of duty from a speculation by which the author must lose all his labour, and the bookseller 54l. of his capital! The mere possibility of such a supposition being realised, is sufficient to show the hardship of the duties; but, in point of fact, such cases, instead of being merely possible or rare, are of every day occurrence.

There is a radical difference between the demand for books, or of food for the mind, and food for the body. The latter is always sure, under any circumstances, to command a sale. It cannot be dispensed with, and the demand for it is, therefore, comparatively constant. If a tax be laid on malt, hats, or shoes, it will, perhaps, somewhat lessen the demand for these articles; but the quantities of them brought to market, in future, will sell for such an advanced price as will leave the customary rate of profit to their producers. But with books the case is altogether different. The taste for them is proverbially capricious; so much so, that the most sagacious individuals are every day deceived in their anticipations as to the success of new works, and even as to the sale of new editions. But if a book do not take, it is so very ruinous an affair, that a publisher is glad to dispense of the greater part of an

impression at a fourth or a fifth part of its regular price; and is often, indeed, obliged to sell it as *waste paper* to the trunk-maker or the tobacconist.

On an investigation into the affairs of an extensive publishing concern, a few years since, it was found, that of 130 works published by it in a given time, *fifty had not paid their expenses*. Of the 80 that did pay, 13 only had arrived at a second edition; but, in most instances, these second editions had not been profitable. In general it may be estimated, that of the books published, a *fourth* do not pay their expenses; and that only *one in eight or ten can be reprinted with advantage*. As respects pamphlets, we know we are within the mark, when we affirm that *not one in fifty* pays the expenses of its publication. Now, when such is the case, it is plain that nothing can be more *unfair* than to impose the same duty on all works before they are published. In a few cases such duty falls principally on the buyers, and makes only an inconsiderable deduction from the profits of the author and publisher; but in a much larger number of cases it makes a serious inroad upon their profits, and goes, indeed, far to swallow them up; while in very many instances there are no profits to absorb, so that the duty has to be paid out of the capital of the unfortunate author or publishers, who, though they may have done nothing very meritorious, would hardly seem to deserve such harsh treatment.

The reduction of the advertisement duty in 1833 was a most proper measure. But the above statements show that it still presses very severely on literature, and in the majority of cases is more injurious than the paper duties. Formerly 11 copies of all new works had to be given to different public libraries. Happily, however, this tax, which not unfrequently prevented the publication of expensive works that had only a limited demand, has been reduced to 5 copies. We incline to think that it is expedient, to secure the preservation of books and to facilitate their consultation, that copies of all works should be deposited in the British Museum, and in libraries in Edinburgh and Dublin. Perhaps it would be right that the public, for whose advantage they are preserved, should pay for such copies; we should not, however, object to the authors doing this, but they should not be required to do more. To call upon them to provide copies for the libraries of rich foundations, like the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, is a proceeding at variance with every fair principle.

The law of other countries is, in this respect, preferable to ours. In America, Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria, only one copy of any work is required from the author; in France and Austria *two* copies are required; and in the Netherlands, *three*.

V. Book Trade of Great Britain.—London is the great centre of the British book trade; the number of new publications that issue from its presses being far greater than all that appear in the rest of the empire. Within the course of the last forty years, however, many very important works have been published in Edinburgh; but the latter, as well as those that appear in Oxford, Cambridge, Glasgow, &c., are principally deposited by the London trade. The booksellers of Edinburgh, and of all the provincial towns, have agents in London to whom they consign a certain number of copies of every work they publish; and to whom, also, they address their orders for copies of such new or old works as they have occasion for. The London booksellers, who act as agents for those in the country, are in the habit of regularly despatching parcels to their correspondents on the last day of each month, with the magazines and other monthly publications; but if any new work of interest appears in the interim, or orders be received from the country that cannot be conveniently deferred to the end of the month, a parcel is immediately forwarded by coach. The booksellers of Edinburgh and Dublin act as agents for those of London, and supply the Scotch and Irish country trade with the metropolitan publications.

The price of new works is fixed by the publishers, who grant a deduction to the retail dealers of from 20 to 25 per cent. on the price of *quartos*, and from 24 to 30 per cent. on that of *octavos*, and those of smaller size. The credit given by the publishers to the retailers varies from seven to twelve months; a discount being allowed for prompt payment at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum.

From inquiries we have made with much care and labour, we find that at an average of the 4 years ending with 1842, 2,149 volumes of new works, and 755 volumes of new editions and reprints (exclusive of pamphlets and periodical publications), were annually published in Great Britain; and we have further ascertained that the publication price of the former was £. 94, and of the latter £. 27 a volume. Hence, if we suppose the average impression of each work to have been 750 copies, it will be seen that the total value of the new works annually produced, if they were sold at their publication price, would be 708,498. 8s. 9d., and that of the new editions and reprints, 231,218. 15s. We believe, however, that if we estimate the price at which the entire impressions of both descriptions of works actually sell at 4s. a volume, we shall not be far from the mark; and if so, the real value of the books annually produced will be 435,600. a year. Subjoined is a summary of these results.

Years.	New Works.			Reprints and New Editions.		
	No. of Vols.	Value at Publication Price.		No. of Vols.	Value at Publication Price.	
		£	s. d.		£	s. d.
1839	2,302	966	11 2	773	296	7 8
1840	2,321	943	3 5	821	327	16 10
1841	2,011	802	5 9	741	314	12 7
1842	2,193	968	2 6	684	295	9 6
Totals	8,597	3,780	2 10	3,019	1,234	6 7
Average of the four years	2,149	945	0 8½	755	308	11 7¼
Average price of each vol.	-	-	0 8 9¼	-	-	0 8 2
		s. d.		£	s. d.	
	750 copies of 2,149 vols. at 8 9¼	-	-	708,498	8 9	
	of 755	-	8 2	-	-	231,218 15 0
	of 2,504	-	4 0	-	-	435,600 0 0

We regret that no estimate can be formed of the number or price of the pamphlets that annually make their appearance; but we shall endeavour, in the article *FASCICULI PUBLICATIONS*, to give some details as to the number and cost of the latter. It would be, in many points of view, desirable, were the librarians of the British Museum directed to keep and annually publish an account, classified according to the subjects and the size of the works, of all the new British books, pamphlets, and periodical publications that come into their hands, specifying the average publication price of each class. Such a return might be made up without any great difficulty, and would afford curious information not otherwise attainable.

The old book trade carried on in Great Britain is very extensive, and employs many dealers. The price of old books depends very much on their condition; but, independently of this circumstance, it is very fluctuating and capricious; equally good copies of the same works being frequently to be had in some shops for a half or a third part of what they can be bought for in others.

VI. Regulations as to Importations of Foreign Works.—For the duties, see *TARIFF*. To prevent foreign books and maps, the property of individuals, from being cleared with duty more than once, the proprietor shall, on each importation subsequent to the original one, declare that the duties were paid

when they were first imported, or that he purchased them in this country in a fair way of trade; that they are the identical books or maps he exported from this kingdom, and that they are now brought back for his private use, and not for sale. — (*Treasury Order*, 3d, and *Customs Order*, 8th of Oct., 1816.) Individuals coming from foreign parts might, down to the 1st of April 1843, import as baggage single copies of English works of which the copyright had not expired; but, in consequence of the facilities for smuggling that grew out of this indulgence, it has been withdrawn, and the importation of all English works printed in foreign countries, of which there is an existing copyright, is absolutely prohibited. — (5 & 6 Viet. cap. 47, § 24.)

The duty on foreign works produced in 1841, 8,450*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* nett.
 VII. *Book Trade of France.* — The activity of the French press has been very greatly increased since the downfall of Napoleon. Count Daru, in his *Notions Statistiques sur la Librairie*, published in 1827, estimated the number of printed sheets, exclusive of newspapers, produced by the French press in 1816, at 66,852,883; and it appears (*art. Librairie, Dict. du Commerce*) that in 1836 the number of printed sheets (ex. newspapers) had increased to 118,857,000; so that it may now (1843) be fairly estimated at from 120 to 130 millions of sheets! The quality of many of the works that have recently issued from the French press is also very superior; and it may be doubted whether such works as the *Biographie Universelle*, the new and enlarged edition of the *Art de vérifier les Dates*, in 38 vols. octavo, and the two octavo editions of *Bayle's Dictionary*, could have been published in any other country. The greater number of new French works of merit, or which it is supposed will command a considerable sale, are immediately reprinted in the Netherlands or Switzerland, but principally in the former. To such an extent is this practice carried, that a single bookseller in Brussels has reprinted as many as 150,000 volumes of new French works in the course of a single year!

All the French booksellers are *brevetés*, that is, licensed, and sworn to abide by certain prescribed rules. This regulation is justly complained of by the publishers, as being vexatious and oppressive; and as tending to lessen the number of retail booksellers in the country, and to prevent that competition which is so advantageous.

The discount allowed by the French publishers to the retail dealers is not regulated, as in England, by the size of the volumes, but by the subjects. The discount on the sale of books of history, criticism, and general literature, is usually about 25 per cent.; in the case of mathematical and strictly scientific works, it is seldom more than 10 or 15 per cent.; while upon romances, tales, &c. it is often as high as 50 or 60 per cent.

VIII. *German Book Trade.* — This trade is very much facilitated by the book fairs at Leipzig; the Easter fair being frequented by all the booksellers of Germany, and by those of some of the neighbouring countries, as of France, Switzerland, Denmark, Livonia, &c., in order to settle their mutual accounts, and to form new connections. The German publisher sends his publications to the keeper of assortments *à condition*, that is, on commission, for a certain time, after which the latter pays for what have been sold, and may return the remainder. This is not so favourable for the publisher as the custom in the French and English book trades, where the keepers of assortments take the quantity they want at a fixed rate. In the German book trade it is the custom for almost every house, either in the country or abroad, which publishes or sells German books, to have its agent at Leipzig, who receives and distributes its publications. A., of Riga, who publishes a book calculated for the German trade, has his agent B. in Leipzig, to whom he sends, free of expense, a number of copies of his publication, that he may distribute the new work to all the booksellers with whom he is connected, from Vienna to Hamburg, and from Strasburgh to Königsberg, each of whom has his agent in Leipzig. Instructions are also given as to the number of copies to be sent to each. B. delivers those copies in Leipzig to the agents, who send them every week, or more or less frequently, by the post or by carriers, at the expense of the receiver. C., of Strasburgh, who finds that he has not received copies enough, writes for an additional number of copies to his agent D., of Leipzig; D. gives this order to B., who delivers the number wanted to D., to be transmitted to C. This arrangement is advantageous to the German book trade, as well as to Leipzig. The dealer receives every thing from Leipzig; and, as a great number of packets, with books from all parts of Germany, write there for him every week, he can have them packed together and sent at once. The carriage is thus much less than if the packets were sent to him separately from the different places, and the whole business is simplified. The booksellers are also enabled to agree with ease on a certain discount per cent. No such intimate connection of the booksellers has yet been formed in any other country. The German booksellers rarely unite, as is the practice in England, in undertaking the publication of extensive works. — (*German Conversations-Lexicon*, American edition.)

The literary deluge which commenced in Germany in 1814 still continues to increase. For the 2,000 works which were then about the annual complement, we have now from 5,000 to 7,500. The catalogue of the Leipzig fair for Easter, 1837, contained 4,738 articles, of which 4,251 were actually published. Magazines and Encyclopedias have increased in the same proportion, and the public has shown as great a desire to read as the learned have to write. Private libraries are diminishing, while the public ones are daily increasing.

BOOTS AND SHOES, the external covering for the legs and feet, too well known to require any description. — For an account of the value of the boots and shoes annually produced in Great Britain, see **LEATHER.**

BORAX, or **TINCAL** (Arab. *Buruk*; Pers. *Tunkar*) one of the salts of soda. It is white, transparent, rather greasy in its fracture; its taste is styptic, and it converts syrup of violets to a green. It readily dissolves in hot water, and swells and bubbles in the fire. It is of great use as a flux for metals. — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

This salt is found in a crystallised state at the bottom of certain lakes in Thibet, and in various localities in Persia, China, South America, and Europe. Formerly, however, the demand of Europe was almost wholly supplied from the East, and especially by importations from Thibet, where the salt is comparatively abundant. When imported, it is called *tincal*; and is in a crude or impure state, being enveloped in a fatty matter, from which it has to be separated by a process that was long known only to the Venetians and Dutch.

The demand for borax is now in great part supplied from the famous lagoons near Monte Cerbete, in Tuscany. These lagoons, which occupy a large extent of surface, consist of an infinite number of low volcanoes, and spring in a furious state of ebullition; the ground, which shakes and burns beneath the feet, is covered with crystallisations of sulphur and other minerals; the whole scene presenting a striking picture of the most tremendous energy and sterility. The vapours that are constantly burbling forth from the boiling lagoons being found to contain boracic acid, it occurred to a most ingenious person, a M. Lardere, to construct pans through which the vapours being made to pass impregnate the water in them with the acid. The pans are kept boiling by the heat of the lagoons; and the water being evaporated, the acid is deposited in crystals. In consequence of this discovery, the lagoons from being altogether worthless have become most valuable. From 10,000 to 12,000 lbs. (12 *oz.* each) of acid are now daily produced; and this vast supply, and the facility with which borax may be obtained from the acid, has occasioned a great reduction in its price, and enabled it to be much more extensively employed than before. Dr. Bowring, from whose valuable Report on Tuscany we have derived these particulars, gives the following

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Account of the Exports of Boracic Acid from Leghorn during the Nine Years ending with 1850.

	1842	1843	1844	1845	1846	1847	1848	1849	1850
Lbs.	60,000	107,000	370,000	185,000	185,000	185,000	185,000	185,000	185,000
Lbs.	1,102,000	1,211,000	1,700,000	1,211,000	1,211,000	1,211,000	1,211,000	1,211,000	1,211,000

And we are informed that the exports have gone on increasing in the interval nearly in the same proportion. In 1811, 15,000 cwt. boracic acid and 4,100 cwt. silica were exported for consumption. The district was worth in London, in January 1845, from 4s. to 4s. a cwt., duty (5d.) included; and the latter from 6s. to 4s. a ton, 40lb (11c.) included.

BORDEAUX, a large and opulent commercial city of France, on the Garonne, about 75 miles from its mouth, lat. 44° 50' 26" N., long. 0° 34' W. Population 107,000. The commerce of Bordeaux is very extensive. The Garonne is a noble river, with depth of water sufficient to enable large ships to crane up to the city, laying open, in conjunction with the Dordogne and their tributary streams, a large extent of country. The commerce of Bordeaux is greatly promoted by the famous canal of Languedoc, which communicates with the Mediterranean. By its means Bordeaux is enabled to furnish the south of France with colonial products at nearly as cheap a rate as Marseilles. Wines, brandies, and fruits are the staple articles of export; but the merchants apply themselves more particularly to the wine trade. Most part of their other business is confined to dealing on commission; but this they conduct almost invariably on their own account. The reason they assign for this is, that the difficulties attending the purchase, racking, fining, and proper care of wines, so as to render them fit for exportation, are so very great, as to make it almost impossible to conduct the business on any thing like the ordinary terms so as to satisfy their employers. Colonial products, cotton, dye stuffs, pepper, hides, tobacco, rice, form the principal articles of importation.

Money is the same at Bordeaux as in other parts of France. All accounts are kept in francs, the par of exchange being 25 fr. 30 cent. the pound sterling. — (See FRANCIA.)

Weights and Measures. — With the exception of wines and brandies, the new or decimal system is of general application in Bordeaux, both in wholesale and retail operations. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

Wine is still sold by the tun of 4 hogheads. The hoghead contains 30 vells.

Brandy by the 50 vells.

Spirits of wine by the velle.

The velle is an old measure of which 50 = 2 3/4 hectolitres.

Oil is sold by weight (per 50 kilog.) 50 = 8 1/2 imperial gallons.

Entrance to the River. — This lies between Point de la Coubre on the north and Point de l'Isle on the south, bearing from each other nearly S. E. and N. W., distant about 6 leagues. There are lights on both these points, but neither of them is elevated to any great height above the level of the sea. The middle part of the entrance to the river is encumbered with extensive sand banks and rocks. On one of the latter, in lat. 45° 33' 15" N., long. 1° 10' W. stands the Tour de Cordouan, one of the most celebrated light-houses in Europe. It was erected in 1610; but has been materially improved since. It is 206 feet high. The light, which is revolving, exhibits in succession a brilliant light, a feeble light, and an eclipse, the changes following each other every half minute. It may be distinguished at the distance of 8 or 9 leagues. The Point de la Coubre is 2 1/2 leagues N. & W., and the Point de l'Isle 1 1/2

leagues S. E. by E. 1/2 E. from the Tour de Cordouan. There are two main channels for entering the river, — the Passo du Nord, and the Passo de l'Isle. The former lies between the north side of the river and the banks in the middle, about 1 1/2 mile south from the Point de la Coubre; the water, where shallowest, being about 6 1/2 fathoms. The entire passage is nearly S. E. & E. The other principal passage lies between the Tour de Cordouan and the Point de l'Isle, nearly in a N. N. E. and S. S. W. direction. In some places it has not more than 13 feet water; and is in all respects very tedious in the other passage, which is steep as it is preferred, especially with a large ship. The tides, both ebb and flood, go through the channels with great rapidity, so that a great deal of caution is required on making the river; but having once entered, there is no further danger. Spring tides rise from 14 to 15 feet, and neaps from 7 to 8; but the former depend almost entirely on the direction of the wind. All vessels, except French coasters under 40 tons burden, and small craft from the north of Spain, entering the Gironde, are obliged to take a pilot on board as soon as one offers himself. In summer, pilots are not infrequently met with 50 or 60 miles west of the Tour de Cordouan; but in winter they seldom venture far beyond the banks, and sometimes cannot proceed even thus far. — (See LANTIER'S PLAN of the Bay of Biscay, with the sailing directions, &c.)

Shipping. — In 1857, the customs duties in Bordeaux produced 5,441,864 fr.; but in 1841 they amounted to 15,268,170 fr. During the same year there belonged to Bordeaux 370 ships, of the burden of 68,500 tons.

Port Charges. — Account of Port Charges, Brokerage, and other public Disbursements payable in Bordeaux, on account of a French or English Vessel of a Port of England to Bordeaux, or from Bordeaux to a Port of England, or from or to any other British Possession in Europe.

Nature of Charges.	On a Fr. or Brit. Vessel.		On a Foreign Vessel.	
	In French Money.	In Sterling Money.	In French Money.	In Sterling Money.
	Fr. s. d.	£ s. d.	Fr. s. d.	£ s. d.
Report and pilotage from sea to Bordeaux for a vessel drawing 14				
French feet water (15 ft. 3 in. British)	218 93	8 15 0	247 60	9 14 0
Leavetto dues	0 0	0 10 0	0 0	0 18 10
Moving vessel up and mooring her	10 11 0	0 8 0	10 0 0	0 8 0
Entering vessel at Custom-house, and brokerage inward	100 0 0	4 0 0	100 0 0	4 0 0
Disbursements for freight and passengers, &c. (4. 10. 12.) in each newspaper.				
Tonnage money and navigation dues on 300 tons	483 0	16 10 0	1,930 0	69 11 4
Yachting officers, clearances, harbour-master, &c.	11 73 0	0 11 0	14 73 0	0 11 0
Manifest and freight list	15 0 0	0 12 0	15 0 0	0 12 0
Ballast taken in or out, 1 fr. 25 c. per ton (1s.)				
Consul's bill. 1 franc fees (English vessels), 17 fr. 25 c. (15s.)				
Pilotage from Bordeaux to sea	930 0	4 16 0	965 51	9 16 3
Broker's commission outward, care and attendance for expediting the vessel				
In ballast, 50 c. per ton (5d.), say 180 fr. at most (4l. 16s.)				
Loaded per charter or on owner's account, 1 fr. 10c. (per ton, average	300 0	18 0 0	300 0	12 0 0
Loaded in freight, 1 fr. 50 c. (1s. 5d.) per ton				
	1,454 64	57 7 10	2,934 60	89 6 1

N.B. — No regard paid to the nature of the cargo, as all goods are imported either for consumption or exportation, which does not expose vessels to pay more or less charges.

British vessels are on a perfect equality with French vessels when they come from British ports in Europe, otherwise they pay pilotage and tonnage dues like all other foreign vessels, as stated in the foregoing column.

I.—Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Foreign Ships which arrived at and departed from Bordeaux in 1842, specifying the Countries to which they belonged.

Arrived.				Departed.			
Nation.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Nation.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
British	138	50,089	1,478	British	145	51,099	1,451
Spanish	13	1,517	138	Spanish	1	1,358	124
Portuguese	3	978	33	Portuguese	3	878	23
Dutch	62	6,919	374	Dutch	53	6,960	390
Belgian	6	808	30	Belgian	10	1,202	49
Russian	8	1,958	84	Russian	1	1,463	68
Prussian	54	19,718	573	Prussian	53	19,580	579
Danish	12	3,292	144	Danish	12	3,412	133
Swedish and Norwegian	50	9,390	661	Swedish and Norwegian	48	8,715	633
Hannoverian	48	3,110	251	Hannoverian	19	2,364	113
Hamburg	6	840	43	Hamburg	6	990	43
Bremen	11	1,240	88	Bremen	12	1,370	87
Lubeck	29	3,762	266	Lubeck	31	2,040	208
Hildesburg	8	800	33	Hildesburg	7	900	28
Mecklenburg	30	3,080	182	Mecklenburg	17	3,190	138
Austrian	8	2,243	108	Austrian	12	2,615	103
Venezuelian	1	283	14	Venezuelian	1	255	14
North Americans	39	11,576	449	North Americans	41	12,097	479
Totals	497	103,461	4,829	Totals	491	101,719	4,691

II.—Account of the Number, Tonnage, and Destination of the British Ships which sailed from Bordeaux in 1842.

Destination.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	If laden.
Great Britain	40	5,524	212	Laden.
Ditto	56	7,883	329	In ballast.
Ireland	8	918	62	Laden.
French ports	2	247	23	In ballast.
Valparaiso	1	148	11	Laden.
Bombay	1	408	17	—
Calcutta	5	1,219	44	—
Ditto and Madras	1	216	11	—
Mauritius	12	2,148	87	—
Canada	2	335	23	—
Ditto	30	6,360	312	In ballast.
Totals	145	31,092	1,451	

III.—Account of the Number and Tonnage of the French Ships that entered at and cleared from Bordeaux in 1842.

Entered.				Cleared.			
Service.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Service.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Colonial and foreign trade	374	60,908	4,253	Colonial and foreign trade	263	51,796	3,207
Whale fishery	1	501	36	Cod fishery	2	530	21
Cod fishery	63	7,290	500	Total	265	52,126	3,261
Total	422	68,749	5,189	Coasting trade	3,773	1,075,515	11,092
Coasting trade	2,271	127,955	11,093	Total	3,038	1,041,611	14,353
Total	3,293	226,694	16,674				

The following are the species of articles exported from Bordeaux to the different parts of the world:—
 To *Martinique and Guadeloupe*.—Provisions, flour, wine, brandy, and a small quantity of manufactured goods.
 To *Isle de France*.—Wines, provisions, cattle, furniture, coarse and fine hardware, perfumery, silk, cotton and linen stuffs, stationery, fashionable articles, &c.
 To *the United States*.—Wines, brandy, almonds, prunes, verdigris, and a trifling quantity of manufactured goods.
 To *Spanish America, Cuba, &c.*—Wines, brandy, silks, cloths, stationery, fashions, jewellery, perfumery, saddlery, &c.
 To *the South Seas*.—Wines, brandy, liqueurs, and all sorts of manufactured articles.
 To *the East Indies and China*.—Wines, brandy, furniture, silks, &c.
 To *England*.—Wines, brandy, liqueurs, fruits, tartar, cream of tartar, plums, cherries, walnuts, loaf sugar to liqueurs and Jersey, clover seed, annatto, corn, flax, skins raw and dressed, cork wood and corks, vinegar, turpentine, resins, &c.
 To *the North of Europe*.—Wines, brandy, spirits of wine, tartar, cream of tartar, colonial produce, loaf sugar, molasses, &c.
Wine.—This forms the great article of export from Bordeaux. The estimated produce of the department of the Gironde in wine of all kinds, and one year with another, is from 220,000 to 250,000 tuns; the disposal of which is, approximately, as follows:—
 Consumed in the department, about 50,000 tuns.
 Exported to the different parts of
 France - - - - - 125,000 -
 Converted into brandy - - - 25,000 -
 Exported to foreign countries - 50,000 -
 = 250,000 tuns.

The principal exports of wine to foreign countries in 1839 were:—to England 1,230 tuns, Russia 5,499 ditto, Sweden and Norway 489 ditto, Prussia 4,964 ditto, Denmark 612 ditto, the Hanse Towns 8,188 ditto, and Holland 7,841 ditto. During the year ended the 30th of September, 1841, the United States imported from France 2,329,769 gallons of wine in casks, exclusive of a considerable quantity in bottles. Wine is also shipped from Bordeaux for the East and West Indies, the Levant, &c.
 The red wines are divided into three great classes, each of which is subdivided into several sorts.

Class I. embraces the Medoc wines, Graves, and St. Emilion, common, or cargo wines.
 The *first class* is composed of the "grands crus," the "crus bourgeois," and the "crus ordinaires."
 The "grands crus" are further distinguished as *firsts, seconds, and thirds*.
 The *firsts* are the wines of Chateau Margaux, Lafite, Latour, and Haut-Brion. The latter is properly a *crus* wine, but it is always classed amongst the *first Medocs*.
 The *seconds* are the wines of Rauzan, Looville, Larose, Mouton, &c.
 The *thirds* are the wines which are produced by the vineyards touching those above named, and which differ little in quality from them.
 The quantity of "grands crus" wine of the above description does not exceed 3,000 tuns, and sells at from 1,500 fr. to 3,200 fr. per tun on the *lee*.
 The "crus bourgeois" consists of the superior Margaux, St. Julien, Pauillac, St. Estephe, &c.; a quantity estimated about 4,000 tuns, and prices on the *lee* 800 fr. to 1,500 fr. per tun.
 The "crus ordinaires" sell at 300 fr. to 700 fr., according to the year and the quality. Quantity 25,000 to 30,000 tuns.
 The whole produce of Medoc is therefore about 40,000 tuns. The "grands crus" and "crus bourgeois" require 4 years' care and preparation, before delivery for use or exportation, and this augments their price from 30 to 35 per cent.
 The *second class* consists of the common or cargo wines—*St. Emilion*, which are in greater quantity, and amongst them some of a very superior quality, that are generally bought for mixing with Medoc. The first quality of these wines sells from 800 fr. to 1,800 fr. per tun. The second qualities—Quercy, Montferand, Basans, &c.—500 fr. to 600 fr.
 The *third class* consists of the common or cargo wines, of a greater part of which is consumed in the country, or converted into brandy. The portion exported is sent off the year of its growth. Prices from 150 fr. to 250 fr. per tun.
 The white wines of the "crus" such as Haut-Bernay, Frenais, Beaumes, &c. are only fit for use at the end of 4 or 5 years, and for exportation at the end of 1 or 2 years more. Prices on the *lee* vary from 800 fr. to 1,500 fr. per tun.

The "grand crus" of white *Graves*, St. Bries, Carbonneux, Dulamon, &c. sell, in good years, from 500 fr. to 800 fr.

Inferior white wines 130 fr. to 400 fr. per tun.

The expenses of all kinds to the wine-grower of Medoc, for the cultivation, gathering, and making his wine, and the cask, are estimated to amount, in the most favourable years, to 50 fr. per hoghead, or 200 fr. per tun.

The merchants in general purchase up the finest *crus* as soon as sufficiently advanced to judge of their character; or more frequently they are bought up for a series of years, whether good or bad. They are transported to their cellars or "chais," in Bordeaux, so situated and protected by surrounding houses, as to preserve a tolerably equable temperature throughout the year; and in these they ripen, and undergo all the different processes of fining, racking, mixing, &c. considered necessary to adapt them to the different tastes of the foreign consumers.

It is pretty generally the practice to adapt the wines for the English market by a plentiful dose of the strong, full-bodied, and high-flavoured wines of the Rhone, such as Hermitage, Côte Rotie, and Croze—especially the first, by which means they are hardly cognisable by the Medoc flavour. Perhaps the principal reason for keeping these wines so long before they are used is to give them time to acquire a homogeneous flavour, destroyed by the mixture of several different qualities. The wines shipped under the titles of Château Margaux, Lafitte, and Latour, are also mixed with the wines of the surrounding vineyards, which, from the nature of the soil, and proximity, cannot be greatly different. Other good wines are also said to enter largely into the composition of these celebrated *crus*; and those of a superior year are employed to bring up the quality of one or two bad years, so that it is easy to conceive, that the famous wines of 1811, and of the years 1815, 1819, and 1825, are not speedily exhausted. Some houses pretend to keep their wines pure; but the practice of mixing is, at any rate, very general.

The purchase of the wines whether from the grower or merchant, is always effected through brokers, some of whom have acquired a reputation for accuracy in dissecting the different flavours, and in tracing the results of the wines by certain measures of tanning or treatment.

England takes off nearly half the highest priced wines, and very little of any other quality. Except in Bordeaux itself, there is but a very moderate portion of the superior Medoc consumed in France. The capital takes off only second, third, and fourth rate wines.

The Dutch, who are large consumers of Bordeaux wine, go most economically to work. They send vessels to the river in the wine season, with skilful supercargoes, who go amongst the growers, and purchase the wines themselves cheaper even than a broker would do. They live on board the ship, take their own time to select, and wait often for months before the cargo is completed; but they attain their object, getting a supply of good sound wine, and at as low a rate, with all charges of shipping included, as the wine merchants can deliver it into their stores in Bordeaux. They never purchase old wine; they take only that newly made, which, being without the support of stronger bodied wines, must be consumed in the course of 2 or 3 years. They follow the same system at Bayonne, where 2 or 3 ships go annually for the white wines of Jurançon, &c.

The cargo wines are so manufactured that it is hardly possible to know of what they are composed. They are put free on board for 2*l.* per hoghead and upwards, according as they are demanded. They are such as will not bear exposure in a glass when shipping; the tasters have a small flat silver cup expressly for them. These wines are principally shipped to America and India, and some at a higher price to the north of Europe.

The principal wine merchants have agents in London, whose business is more particularly to introduce their wines to family use; and it is to that end they pay them from 300*l.* to 800*l.* for travelling expenses and entertainments, besides allowing 3 per cent. or more on the amount of sales. They generally look out for individuals for their agents of good address, and some connection amongst the upper classes.

Brandy, and Spirits of Wine.—The quantity distilled in the neighbourhood of Bourdeaux is estimated at about

Ditto, in the Armagnac	-	20,000	ditto
Ditto, in the Marmaudais	-	8,000	ditto
			46,000 pieces, ordinary proof.

Of this quantity, France takes off about 23,000 pieces for consumption; England, 2,500; United States, 10,000; India, 2,500; north of Europe, 5,000; in all, 43,000 pieces.

Languedoc produces annually about 40,000 pieces, of 80 veltes each, the greater part of which comes to Bordeaux to be forwarded to the different ports of the north of France, or to foreign countries.

France consumes about two thirds of the above quantity; the remaining one third goes to the north of Europe.

The prices of brandy are from 130 fr. to 150 fr. per 50 veltes, ordinary proof; aprils of wine, from 4 fr. to 5 fr. per velte.

It is at the port of Formay, on the Charente, that the greatest shipments of brandy take place to England. Cognac, from which the brandy takes its name, and where there are large distilleries, is a few leagues up the river. The quantity exported is far greater than what is made at Cognac; the two leading distillers there (Martel and Hennessy) buying great quantities from the small cultivators. The greater part of the wines made about Angoulême, and thence down toward the sea, are of inferior quality, and fit only for making brandy; and so little do the prices vary, that the proprietors look upon it nearly in the same light as gold. When they augment their capital by savings or profits, it is employed in keeping a larger stock of brandy, which has the further advantage of paying the interest of their capital by its improved value from age. England is said to receive upwards of 6,000 pieces annually from Charente.

At Bourdeaux, as at Paris and Marseilles, there is a constant gambling business in time bargains of spirits of wine. It is in the form of spirits of wine that nearly all the brandy consumed in France is exported, as in this form there is a great saving in carriage.—(For an official account of the exports of wine and brandy from France, see WINE.)

The fruits exported consist almost entirely of prunes and almonds. The latter come principally from Languedoc.

The revolution in the Spanish American colonies, and the troubles in Spain, have made many wealthy Spaniards settle in Bourdeaux. They are in possession of the greater part of the American Spanish trade of this port, and are viewed with a jealous eye by the old merchants. They have also contributed greatly to beautify the city, by erecting their wealth in buildings, which they have done to a considerable extent. They have also reduced the rate of interest, and contributed to the facilities of discounting bills. The Spanish houses generally discount long bills at $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. lower than the Bank.

Bordeaux possesses some iron foundries, cotton factories, sugar refineries, glass works, &c., but labour and living are too high to admit of its becoming a considerable manufacturing city.

Banking Establishments.—There is only one banking company in Bourdeaux—the "Bordeaux Bank." It has a capital of 3,000,000 fr., in shares of 1,000 fr. each. It issues notes for 1,000 and 500 fr. (40*l.* and 20*l.*) payable in specie on demand. Its affairs are managed by a board of directors, named by the 50 principal shareholders. This board fixes the rate of discount, and the number of names that ought to guarantee each bill; it being left to the discount committee to judge of the responsibility of the signatures on the bills presented. At present (1843) the bank discounts bills having more than 40 days to run, and guaranteed by 3 signatures, at 4 per cent.

When bills are presented not having the required number of names, or those deemed suspicious, they

take, in guarantee, public stock bonds, or other effects, advancing to the extent of 9-10ths of their current value.

The bank advances 4ths of the value of gold and silver in ingots, or in foreign money deposited with them, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum. It also accepts in deposit diamonds, plate, and every kind of valuable property, engaging to re-deliver the same in the state received for 3 per cent. per quarter, or 1 per cent. per annum.

Those who have accounts current with the bank may have all their payments made, and money received, by the bank, without fee. It allows no interest on balances, and never makes advances either on personal security or on mortgage.

The affairs of the bank are subject to the inspection of the Prefect, to whom half yearly reports of its situation are made. These are printed entire, and distributed to the 50 principal shareholders; an abstract being, at the same time, published in the Bordeaux journals.

Brokers.—No one is allowed to act as a mercantile broker in France who is not 25 years of age, and who has not served 4 years in a commercial house, or with a broker, or a notary public. They are nominated by the king, after their qualifications have been ascertained by the Chamber of Commerce. All brokers must deposit the sum of 8,000 fr. in the treasury as a guarantee for their conduct, for which they are allowed interest at the rate of 4 per cent. At present there are in Bordeaux 21 ship brokers, 24 merchandise do., 20 wine and spirit do., 7 insurance do., and 20 money and exchange do.: the latter form a separate class.

All foreigners are obliged to employ ship brokers to transact their business at the Custom-house; and although masters and owners of French vessels might sometimes dispense with their services, they never do so, finding it to be, in all cases, most advantageous to use their intervention. All duties outward on vessels and cargoes are paid by the ship brokers, who invariably clear out all vessels; French as well as foreign.

Rates of Commission.—1. Ship brokers:—Vessel in ballast, 50 cents (5d.) per ton; vessel loaded per charter or on owner's account, 1 fr. (10d.) per ton. 2. Merchandise brokers:—3 per cent. on colonial produce, and other goods. 3. Wine and spirit brokers:—2 per cent. on wine, &c. 4. Insurance brokers:—3 per cent. 5. Money brokers:—3 per cent. on Paris and foreign paper; 4 per cent. on Bordeaux do. 6. Merchants:—2 per cent. on all sorts of operations between natives; 2½ per cent. on all sorts of operations between strangers; 3 per cent. on litigious affairs; 1 per cent. on goods *in transitu*, when the consignment is present; ½ per cent. on banking affairs.

Insurance of ships, houses, and lives is effected at Bordeaux. The first is carried on partly by individuals, and partly by companies; the last two by companies only. The partners in these associations are generally liable only to the amount of the shares they respectively hold.

For statements as to the *Warehousing System, Smuggling, &c.* the reader is referred to the article **HAVRE**.

Quarantine is performed at Trompeloup, where a spacious lazaretto has been constructed. Bordeaux is a favourable place for repairing and careening ships, and for obtaining supplies of all sorts of stores.

The *exchange or money brokers* of Bordeaux follow the mode of business pretty similar to the London private bankers. They receive, negotiate, and pay bills and orders of such houses as have accounts opened with them, charging and allowing an interest on balances, which varies from 3 to 4½ per cent., according to circumstances. They charge ½ per cent. for negotiating bills, and ¼ per cent. on all the payments they make.

There are, besides, numerous capitalists who employ their spare funds in discounting bills. They prefer bills at long dates, and take from 5 to 6 per cent. discount, according to the confidence they have in the paper presented.

There are not wanting individuals who guarantee, with their names, every sort of paper presented, taking from 5 to 60 per cent. for the risk.

Customary Mode of Payment, and Length of Credit.—Colonial produce, spices, dye stuffs, and metals are usually sold for cash, with 3 per cent. discount. Corn, flour, brandy, and several other articles, are sold for net cash, without discount.

Wines are generally bought of the cultivators at 12 and 15 months' credit, or 6 per cent. discount. When they change hands amongst the merchants, the practice is to sell for cash, allowing 3 or 5 per cent. discount.

The usage is generally established in Bordeaux, to consider all paper having less than 30 days to run as cash; and with such all payments are made, where there is not an express stipulation to be paid in coin.

Tares.—The tares allowed in Bordeaux are as follows:—

At Custom-house.	In Commerce.	At Custom-house.	In Commerce.
Cotton in bales, 6 per cent.	Large square bales, 6 per cent. Smaller do., 8 per cent. Round do., 4 per cent. In bids, 17 per cent. Tret per hhd. 1 kil. (2-24 lbs.)	Indigo, in chests, real tare.	In chests, real tare. In serons weighing from 45 to 55 kil. (101 to 125 lbs.), 7 kil. Do. 55 to 60 kil. (122 to 146 lbs.), 8 kil. Do. 60 to 72 kil. (133 to 160 lbs.), 9 kil. Do. 72 to 80 kil. (160 to 178 lbs.), 10 kil. Do. 80 to 107 kil. (214 to 240 lbs.), 11 kil.
Sugar in bids, 15 per cent.	Tret per hhd. 1 kil. (2-24 lbs.)	Asbes, pot end pearl, 12 per cent.	Pot and pearl, 12 per cent.
Do. in cases, Havannah, &c., 10 per cent.	In cases, Havannah, &c., 14 per cent. Tret per case, 1 kil. (2-24 lbs.)	Querciton bark, real tare.	In chests of 200 kil. and above (443 lbs.), 12 per cent. Do. from 150 to 200 kil. (337 to 448 lbs.), 15 per cent. Do. from 120 to 150 kil. (269 to 336 lbs.), 20 per cent.
Do. in bales from Bourbon, Mauritius, Manila, &c., nett.	In bales from Bourbon, &c., real Mauritius, Manila, &c., 8 per cent.	Peruvian bark, real tare.	In chests, fire nett. In serons weighing from 45 to 57½ kil. (101 to 129 lbs.), 8 kil. Do. 50 to 72 kil. (114 to 68 lbs.), 10 kil. Ceylon, in serons, or single bales, 5 kil. Do. in double bales, 6 kil. China, in chests, real tare. In chests, real tare.
Do. clove, in bids, white and brown, 12 per cent.	Clayed, in bids, white, 12 per cent. Tret per hhd. 1 kil. Clayed, do., brown, 15 per cent. Tret per hhd. 1 kil.	Cinnamon in chests, 12 per cent.	In bales weighing from 50 to 50 kil. (110 to 112 lbs.), real tare, or 2 kil. In bags, single, 1 kil. Real tare.
Rice, from all countries, none.	Tare nett, or 12 per cent.	Cloves, real tare.	In chests, 4 per cent. for leaves, and 6 per cent. tare. In bales, 5 kil.
Coffee in bags, tare nett, or 2 per cent.	In bags weighing 60 kil. (131 lbs.), 1 kil. Do. from 60 to 75 kil. (135 to 168 lbs.), 1½ kil. Do. above 75 kil. (168 lbs.), 2 kil. In bags weighing 60 kil. (131 lbs.), 1 kil. Do. from 60 to 75 kil. (135 to 168 lbs.), 1½ kil. Do. above 75 kil. (168 lbs.), 2 kil. In bags weighing 60 kil. (131 lbs.), 1 kil. Do. from 60 to 75 kil. (135 to 168 lbs.), 1½ kil. Do. above 75 kil. (168 lbs.), 2 kil.	Cochinal, real tare. Gum in chests, do. Mace and nutmegs, do. Annatto, none.	Saxaparilla, real tare, or 2 per cent.
Cocoa in bags, tare nett, or 2 per cent.	Do. 60 kil. to 75 kil. (135 to 168 lbs.), 1½ kil. Do. above 75 kil. (168 lbs.), 2 kil.		
Pepper in bags, 2 per cent.	In serons, 50 to 60 kil. (112 to 134 lbs.), 3 kil.		

* * * The instructive details with respect to the trade of Bordeaux given above, so very superior to what are to be found in any other publication, have been principally derived from the private communications of intelligent parties on the spot; but some particulars have been learned from official sources.

Operation of the French Commercial System on the Trade of Bordeaux, &c.—The trade of this great city has suffered severely from the short-sighted, anti-social policy of the

French government. This policy was first broadly laid down, and systematically acted upon, by Napoleon; and we believe it would not be difficult to show that the privations it entailed on the people of the Continent powerfully contributed to accelerate his downfall. But those by whom he has been succeeded have not hitherto seen the expediency of returning to a sounder system; on the contrary, they have carried, in some respects at least, the "continental system" to an extent not contemplated by Napoleon. Notwithstanding the vast importance to a country like France, of supplies of iron and hardware at a cheap rate, that which is produced by foreigners is excluded, though it might be obtained for a third part of the price of that which is manufactured at home. A similar line of policy has been followed as to cotton yarn, earthenware, &c. And in order to force the manufacture of sugar from the beet-root, oppressive duties have been laid, not only on foreign sugar, but even on that imported from the French colonies. The operation of this system on the commerce and industry of the country has been most mischievous. By forcing France to raise, at home, articles for the production of which she has no natural or acquired capabilities, the exportation, and consequently the growth, of those articles in the production of which she is superior to every other country, has been very greatly narrowed. All commerce being bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity, a country that refuses to import must cease to export. By excluding foreign produce — by refusing to admit the sugar of Brazil, the cottons and hardware of England, the iron of Sweden, the linens of Germany, and the cattle of Switzerland and Wirtemberg — France has done all that was in her power to drive the merchants of those countries from her markets. They are not less anxious than formerly to obtain her wines, brandies, and silks; inasmuch, however, as commerce is merely an exchange of products, and as France will accept very few products belonging to others, they cannot, how anxious soever, maintain that extensive and mutually beneficial intercourse with her they would otherwise carry on: they sell little to her, and their purchases are, of course, proportionally diminished.

This, indeed, is in all cases the necessary and inevitable effect of the prohibitive system. It never fails to lessen exportation to the same extent that it lessens importation; so that, when least injurious, it merely substitutes one sort of industry for another — the production of the article that had been obtained from the foreigner, for the production of that which had been sent to him as an equivalent. — (See *COMMERC.*)

France is not only extremely well situated for carrying on an extensive intercourse with foreign countries, but she is largely supplied with several productions, which, were she to adopt a liberal commercial system, would meet with a ready and advantageous sale abroad, and enable her to furnish equivalents for the largest amount of imports. The superiority enjoyed by Amboyna in the production of cloves is not more decided than that enjoyed by France in the production of wine. Her claret, burgundy, champagne, and brandy are unrivalled; and furnish, of themselves, the materials of a vast commerce. Indeed, the production of wine is, next to the ordinary business of agriculture, by far the most extensive and valuable branch of industry in France. It is stated by the landholders and merchants of the department of the Gironde, in the admirable *Pétition et Mémoire à l'Appui*, presented by them to the Chamber of Deputies in 1828, that the quantity of wine annually produced in France amounts, at an average, to about 40,000,000 hectolitres, or 1,060,000,000 gallons; that its value is not less than from 800,000,000 to 1,000,000,000 francs, or from 32,000,000*l.* to 40,000,000*l.* sterling; and that upwards of *three millions* of individuals are employed in its production. In some of the southern departments, it is of paramount importance. The population of the Gironde, exclusive of Bordeaux, amounts to about 450,000 individuals, of whom no fewer than 230,000 are supposed to be directly engaged in the cultivation of the vine.

Here, then, is a branch of industry in which France has no competitor, which even now affords employment for about a tenth part of her population, and which is susceptible of indefinite extension. She has, in this single article, the means of carrying on the most extensive and lucrative commerce. "*Le gouvernement Français,*" says M. Chaptal, in his work *Sur l'Industrie Française*, "*doit les plus grands encouragements à la culture des vignes, soit qu'il considère ses produits relativement à la consommation intérieure, soit, qu'il les envisage sous le rapport de notre commerce avec l'étranger, dont il est en effet la base essentielle.*"

But instead of labouring to extend this great branch of industry, government has consented to sacrifice it to the interests of the iron-founders, the cotton and linen manufacturers, and the planters of Martinique and Guadeloupe! We do not, indeed, imagine that they were at all aware that such would be the effect of their policy. There is only one instance, among myriads that may be specified, to prove that ignorance in a ministry is quite as pernicious as bad intentions. The consideration, apparently not a very recalcitrant one, that, notwithstanding the bounty of nature, wine was not gratuitously produced in France, and could not, therefore, be exported except for an equivalent, would seem never to have occurred to the ministers of Louis XVIII. and Charles X.

But those whose interests were at stake, did not fail to apprise them of the hollowness of their system of policy. In 1822, when the project for raising the duties on sugar, iron, linens, &c. was under discussion, the merchants of Bordeaux, Nantes, Marseilles, and other great commercial cities, the silk manufacturers of Lyons, and the wine-growers of the Gironde, and some other departments, presented petitions to the Chambers, in which they truly stated, that it was a contradiction and an absurdity to attempt selling to the foreigner, without, at the same time, buying from him; and expressed their conviction, that the imposition of the proposed duties would be fatal to the commerce of France, and would consequently inflict a very serious injury on the wine-growers and silk manufacturers. These representations did not, however, meet with a very courteous reception. They were stigmatised as the work of ignorant and interested persons. The Chambers approved the policy of ministers; and in their ardour to extend and perfect it, did not hesitate deeply to injure branches of industry on which several millions of persons are dependent, in order that a few businesses, nowise suited to France, and the support of which costs her several millions a year, might be bolstered up and protected!

It is plain, had there not been some powerful counteracting cause in operation, that the exports of wine from France should have been very greatly augmented since the peace of 1815. The United States, Russia, England, Prussia, and all those countries that have at all times been the great importers of French wines, have made prodigious advances in wealth and population since 1789; and, had the commerce with them not been subjected to injurious restrictions, there is every reason to think that their imports of French wine would have been much greater now than at any former period. So far, however, from this being the case, they have declined in a most extraordinary degree. This is proved beyond all question by the following extract from a report made to the Council General of the Gironde in 1841, and published by its orders and with its sanction.

"Previously to 1790, the wine trade at Bordeaux had an immense development. The books of our most ancient houses, transmitted down religiously from father to son, and the registries of our lands, prove that in the years preceeding 1787 our exports had reached more than 100,000 tuns of wine, 10,000 casks of brandy, and 5,000 of vinegar. They also show that from 1,200 to 1,400 vessels from the north took large quantities of wine, in return for their national produce, which they easily disposed of amongst us. It was a most lucrative commerce, for we then sent 15,000 tuns to Prussia, 18,000 to England and Ireland, 6,000 to Dantzic, 40,000 to Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen, 10,000 to Holland, 7,000 to Sweden, 5,000 to Denmark and Norway, and 12,000 to the United States. But at that period we had not closed our frontiers to the produce of all these nations; we received at moderate duties their woollens, linens, hemp, iron, wood, cattle, and other articles, the consumption of which was less expensive, and the quality better, than similar articles made at home, and forced on us by customs duties. At present, notwithstanding the rapid increase of commercial affairs, notwithstanding the new nations of America, the advantages of a more expeditious, certain, and economical navigation, the demands of nations increased in number and industry, and consequently more disposed to purchase for consumption, our commerce is declining in a most alarming manner. Authentic documents prove that, in 1839, our exports only reached 1,399 tuns to England, 2,499 to Russia, 147 to Sweden, 342 to Norway, 2,964 to Prussia, 612 to Denmark, 8,188 to the Hans Towns, and 7,621 to the Netherlands. Since then our exports have not increased, so that instead of 100,000 tuns at least taken by the north of Europe from the department of the Gironde previously to 1790, not more than 25,000 tuns are taken at present. Yet, the taste for wine and the necessity to use it, have not been weakened amongst the various nations; but the exaggerated duties with which its introduction has been loaded, only allow it to be consumed by the wealthy classes, who are everywhere the least numerous. These duties are established in retaliation of those which France lays on foreign productions. If the exportation of wine has diminished in so great a proportion, the cause must be sought in the protective system. When the variations in the exports of wine are attentively examined, and their decrease looked to since 1822, when this system attained its height, to 1840, it is impossible not to be struck with the fact that these variations are intimately connected with the system itself. The decrease in the exports of wine has followed the increased development of the protective system, and, therefore, we are forced to draw this conclusion, that it is this system which destroys our export trade. Yet foreign consumption is the most certain and most profitable for Bordeaux wines, and it is particularly in the markets of the north of Europe and of England that the wines of the finest quality which our department produces find purchasers. Let us, then, insist on the necessity of re-opening these markets, which have been closed by the enormous amount of duties imposed by foreigners in reprisal of those laid by us on their products."

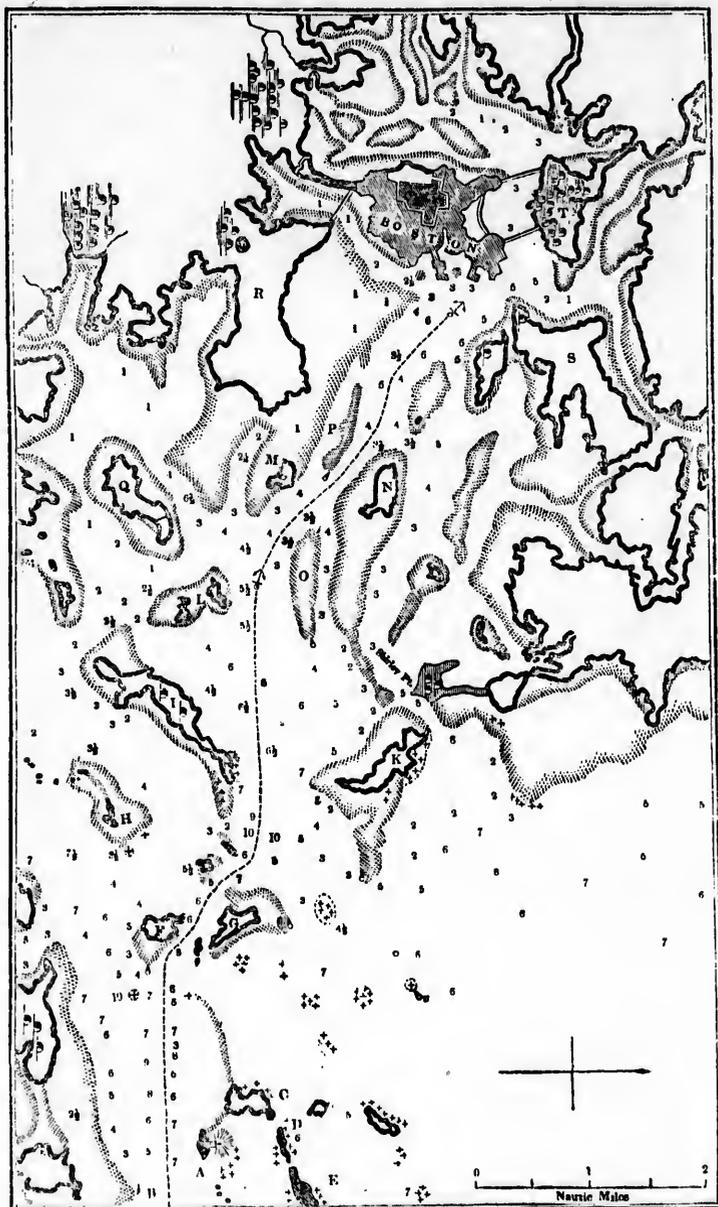
Besides the injury inflicted on the wine trade by the prohibitive system of commercial

policy adopted in France, and the retaliatory measures it has provoked in other countries, it has suffered severely from the octrois and other duties on internal consumption. But the depression, though felt everywhere, is greatest in the Gironde, which is especially dependent on its export trade. This is strikingly evinced by the large stocks of wine that remain in the hands of the growers and merchants, and by the fall in its price. This has, of course, reacted on the vineyards, many of which have become all but unseable; and a stop has been put to every sort of improvement. Nor have matters been in the least amended during the current year: on the contrary, they seem to be gradually getting worse. Such is the poverty of the proprietors, that wine is now frequently seized and sold by the revenue officers in payment of arrears of taxes; and such is at present the extent of the evil, that, in the course of this year, 1843, the committee of wine growers have applied to government for a loan of 2,000,000 francs to be applied to the payment of taxes due by the wine growers.

Such are the effects of the restrictive system of policy on the wine trade of France,—on a branch of industry which, as already seen, employs *three millions* of people. It is satisfactory, however, to observe, that the landowners and merchants are fully aware of the source of the misery in which they have been involved. They know that they are not suffering so much from hostile or vindictive measures on the part of foreigners, as from the blind and senseless policy of their own government; that they are victims of an attempt to counteract the most obvious principles—to make France produce articles directly at home, which she might obtain from the foreigner in exchange for wine, brandy, &c. at a third or a fourth part of the expense they now cost. *They cannot export, because they are not allowed to import.* Hence they do not ask for bounties and prohibitions; on the contrary, they disclaim all such quack nostrums; and demand what can alone be useful to them, and beneficial to the country,—a free commercial system. And notwithstanding the powerful interests involved in the support of the prohibitive policy, we cannot doubt but that, in the end, they will be compelled to give way; and that France, by opening her ports to a freer importation of foreign products, will insure the proportional extension of her exports of wines, brandies, silks, and other products, which she can furnish more cheaply and of a better quality than any other country. It is reasonable to suppose, that the experience that has been afforded of the ruinous effects of the prohibitive system, and the more general diffusion of correct ideas with respect to the real sources of wealth, will at no distant period occasion the adoption of such changes in the commercial legislation of France, as may render it more conducive to her interest, and more in accordance with the spirit of the age. Indeed we incline to think that but for the unfortunate misunderstanding about the Turkish question, and the irritation thence arising, a commercial treaty on a comparatively liberal footing would have been already entered into between France and this country; and it is much to be wished that some such arrangement should speedily be completed. If, indeed, we were hostile to France, we should wish her to continue her present system, for it must effectually prevent her making any considerable progress either in manufactures or commerce; but we disclaim being actuated by any such feelings. We are truly anxious for her prosperity, for her sake and our own; for unless she be surrounded by Bishop Berkeley's wall of brass, whatever contributes to her well-being must, in some degree, redound to the advantage of her neighbours.

"Were such narrow and malignant politics to meet with success," said Mr. Hume, writing in the middle of the last century, and when the prosperity of others was generally regarded with an evil eye, "we should reduce all our neighbouring nations to the same state of sloth and ignorance that prevails in Morocco and the coast of Barbary. But what would be the consequence? They could send us no commodities; they could take none from us: our domestic commerce itself would languish for want of emulation, example, and instruction; and we ourselves should soon fall into the same abject condition to which we had reduced them. I shall, therefore, venture to acknowledge, that not only as a man, but as a British subject, I pray for the flourishing commerce of Germany, Spain, Italy, and even France itself. I aim, at least, certain that Great Britain, and all those nations, would flourish more, did their sovereign and ministers adopt such enlarged and benevolent sentiments towards each other."—(*Essay on the Jealousy of Trade.*)

BOSTON, a commercial city of the United States, the capital of Massachusetts, and the largest town of New England, lat. 42° 23' N., long. 71° 4' W. Population, in 1840, 83,707. The city is situated on a peninsula near the bottom of a large and deep bay, being surrounded on all sides by water, except on the south, where it is joined to the main land by the narrow isthmus called Boston Neck. But it communicates, by means of extensive wooden bridges, with Charleston on the north side of the bay, and with Dorchester on the south. Boston Bay is of great extent, and is studded with many islands. The plan, on the opposite side, will give a better idea of it than could be derived from any description.



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References to Pilotage.—A, outer light-house, 65 feet high, having a revolving light, 10 feet above the top of the shaft, off Alderton Point; B, D, R, Great Middle, and Outward Brewster's Islands; C, George's Island. The passage for ships, lying between the islands and the rocks on the opposite side of Lovell's Island (H), being very narrow, it is, in effect, the key of the harbour, and large sums have recently been expended on its fortification. To the south of George's Island, and Ingham's Island (I), is Nantasket Point, where there is good anchorage. The outer light-house lies to the west of Lovell's (H) and George's (F) Islands, being separated from the inner harbour by Eagle Island, and the low-lying island (N). On the north end of Long Island (J) is a light-house fixed light, 27 feet high, K, Tree Island; L, Pine-tree Island; O, Middle Ground, Key at Lull; P, Quee, and Middle Ground, having, as abut, only a few water; Q, Thompson's Island; R, Dorchester Point; S, Nantasket Island; T, Dorchester; Governor's Island (M), Coat's Island (N), and Nantasket Island (O), are all fortified. The course that a ship ought to steer is marked by the dotted line, leading between the light-house and Alderton Point, and between George's Island (F) and Lovell's Island (H). The soundings are laid down in fathoms as follows:

Shipping.—According to the official accounts laid before Congress, since July, 1844, the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage belonging to Boston in 1841 averaged 227,000 tons, of which 101,750 tons were employed in the coasting trade, and 125,250 in the fisheries.

Shipping Charges.—For an account of these, see New York.

How to enter the Port.—In coming from the Atlantic, a ship should first bring the light-house to bear W. by N. to W. N. W., and run direct for it. The largest ships may pass it at within less than a cable's length. If there be no pilot on board, or the master be unacquainted with the harbour, or the wind be north-westerly, which is the most unfavourable for entering, she had better steer W. by S. for Nantasket roads, where she may anchor, and get a pilot.

Moorings, &c.—Generally speaking, there is sufficient depth of water to moor the largest ships to come up to town at all times of the tide. The usually moor alongside quays or wharfs, where they lie in perfect safety. There are in all about 60 wharfs, which for the most part, are built on a high and a superstructure of stone and earth. The two principal are "Long Wharf," 550 yards in length; and "Central Wharf," 415 yards long by 50 in breadth, having a range of lofty timber stores and warehouses along its whole length.

Pilotage.—No particular place is designated at which vessels may anchor for a pilot. But all vessels, with the exception of coasters under 500 tons, and American vessels laden with plaster of Paris from British America, if hailed by a pilot within about 14 mile of the outer light, must take him on board, under a penalty of 50 dollars. If they have got within this distance before being hailed, the obligation to take a pilot on board ceases. This regulation has obviously been dictated by a wish to have the pilots constantly on the alert; it being supposed that masters not well acquainted with the bay will have to take one on board, though they have got within the free limits.

Table of the Rates of Pilotage on Outward and Inward bound Vessels in the Port of Boston.

Outward.								Inward.							
From Nov. 1. to May 1.				From May 1. to Nov. 1.				From Nov. 1. to May 1.				From May 1. to Nov. 1.			
Ships	Tons	Ships	Tons												
drag.	per	drag.	per												
Water.	Foot.	Water.	Foot.												
7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00	7 ft.	1 00
8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60	8	0 60
9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30	9	0 30
10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25	10	0 25
11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20	11	0 20
12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15	12	0 15
13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10	13	0 10
14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05	14	0 05
15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00	15	0 00
16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00	16	0 00

Coasting, Glass, &c.—Boston is a very favourable place for screening and repairing ships. All kinds of supplies may be had of the land rights and of immediate prices.

Immigration.—The number of immigrants arriving at Boston in any great season passing 1,000 in a year. A circular decree directs that the masters of vessels bringing immigrants shall enter into a bond with securities to the amount of 200 dollars

for each immigrant, that he shall not become a charge upon the state for 3 years, or pay a commutation of 5 dollars on account of each individual. But this regulation does not apply to immigrants having a reasonable amount of property; the declaration of the foreign consuls at this point is commonly acted upon.

Trade of Boston, &c.—Boston has a very extensive trade with the southern states and with foreign countries, and is also one of the principal seats of the American fisheries. She is wholly indebted to her southern neighbours, and principally to New York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, for supplies of flour and wheat, and for large quantities of barley, maize, oatmeal, oats, &c., as well as for cotton, tobacco, staves, rice, &c. Of these, the imports of flour may amount, at an average, to about 600,000 barrels a year; all sorts of grain, to about 2,200,000 bushels; cotton, 110,000 bales; staves, 3,000,000, &c. Her returns are made, partly in native raw produce, as beef, pork, lard, &c.; partly and principally in the produce of her manufacturing industry, in which Massachusetts is decidedly superior to every other state in the Union; and partly in the produce of her fisheries and foreign trade. At an average, Boston annually sends to the southern parts of the Union about 45,000 barrels of beef and pork; 165,000 barrels mackerel, herrings, alewives, &c.; 20,000 quintals of dried and smoked fish; 3,500,000 pairs of boots and shoes; 600,000 bundles of paper; besides a very large amount of cotton and woollen manufactured goods, nails, ice, furniture, cordage, &c.; so as to leave a large balance in her favour. Her exports of native produce to foreign countries consist principally of the same articles she sends to the southern states; but she also exports a large amount of the foreign produce she had previously imported. The imports from abroad consist principally of cotton and woollen goods; linens, canvas, &c.; hardware, silks, sugar, tea, coffee, wines and brandy, spices, hides, indigo, dyewoods, &c. The total imports from foreign countries into the state of Massachusetts in the year ending 30th of September, 1841, amounted to 20,318,003 dollars; while the exports of native produce, during the same year, amounted to only 7,397,692 dollars, and of native and foreign produce together, to 11,487,343 dollars; the balance against Massachusetts being paid off by bills upon the southern states, to which she exports much more than she imports. New York alone is, in fact, supposed to be at all times indebted to Boston about 5,000,000 dollars. We subjoin some statements illustrative of the trade of Boston.

Flour.—The quantity of Flour imported into Boston was—
 In 1842 - 639,460 bush. In 1838 - 379,704 bush.
 1841 - 674,353 " 1837 - 435,348 "
 1840 - 619,261 " 1836 - 418,597 "
 1839 - 456,667 " 1835 - 408,519 "

Corn.—The quantity of Corn imported into Boston was—
 In 1842 - 1,835,165 bush. 393,174 38,416
 1841 - 2,143,354 338,202 41,198
 1840 - 1,868,431 437,944 48,928
 1839 - 1,607,432 439,144 46,921
 1838 - 1,574,438 445,657 109,473
 1837 - 1,720,136 405,173 86,391

The Imports of Corn in 1841 were derived as follows—
 From New Orleans - bush. 36,733 - \$80
 Charleston - - - - 5,000 - -
 North Carolina - - - - 71,294 - -
 Fredericksburg - - - - 163,694 - -
 Norfolk - - - - 160,670 - -
 Hingham - - - - 86,685 - -
 Other ports in Virginia - - 35,114 1,590 - -
 Baltimore - - - - 337,535 7,791 700
 Delaware - - - - 111,936 51,360 - -
 Philadelphia - - - - 859,511 98,069 3,916

From New Jersey - - - bush. 50,645 29,048
 New York - - - - 19,694 88,140 28,328
 Albany - - - - 14,792 5,091 1,600
 Other ports in New York - - 7,490 4,700 1,600
 Forts Connecticut - - - - 600 2,000 - -
 Rhode Island - - - - 500 - -
 Massachusetts - - - - 1,300 600 - -
 New Hampshire - - - - - 3,000 - -
 Maine - - - - - 68,246 - -
 Prince Edward Island - - - - 7,232 - -
Total - - - - 3,045,951 356,592 24,128

Progress of Trade.—The following statements show that the foreign trade of Boston has more than doubled within the last 10 years. The number of foreign arrivals has increased from 1,513, with a tonnage of 408,391, in 1838, to 4,739 in 1847, with an aggregate tonnage of 375,574; the tonnage cleared, from 156,884 to 356,708; the number of men employed in foreign bound ships, from 7,981 to 16,841; the value of imports, from \$13,463,166 to \$46,110,761; of exports, purely the products of American industry, from \$4,410,991 to \$8,837,778; and the amount of revenue collected, from \$2,518,398 40 to \$5,414,253 39.

Statement of the Value of Imports into, and Exports from Boston, with the Customs Revenue, from 1838 to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	Imports.		Exports.		Revenue.
	Value.		Dollars.		
	Dollars.	Foreign Merch.	Domestic Products.	Dollars.	
1838	13,463,166	2,295,987	4,410,991	2,518,398 40	
1839	16,074,186	5,495,700	4,507,918	3,291,307 65	
1840	14,123,308	3,268,535	5,155,779	4,456,046 92	
1841	18,308,242	3,499,540	5,899,672	3,226,141 17	
1842	16,027,450	2,735,933	4,730,851	3,760,186 44	
1843	20,668,567	3,425,660	5,081,704	3,491,013 82	
1844	24,141,789	2,351,495	5,213,331	5,394,315 14	
1845	31,591,977	2,538,627	5,736,273	5,869,534 60	
1846	31,294,400	1,794,022	6,481,302	4,873,570 16	
1847	47,110,761	1,076,368	8,837,778	5,414,253 39	
Total	215,723,444	27,114,135	57,708,785	39,369,174 39	

Statement showing the Number of Arrivals from Foreign Ports at Boston, in each Year from 1838 to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	No. of Arrivals.	Years.	No. of Arrivals.	Years.	No. of Arrivals.
1838	1,513	1842	1,738	1846	3,305
1839	1,652	1843	1,716	1847	3,000
1840	1,628	1844	3,174		2,739
1841	1,790				

Statement showing the Tonnage of the Vessels engaged in the Foreign Trade of Boston, with the Number of Men employed during each of the 10 Years ending with 1847.

Years.	INWARD.		OUTWARD.		Years.	INWARD.		OUTWARD.	
	Tonnage entered.	Tonnage cleared.	Men employed.	No. of clear.		Tonnage entered.	Tonnage cleared.	Men employed.	No. of clear.
1838	208,891	162,881	7,978	1,638	1843	347,215	221,411	10,647	1,628
1839	227,422	186,036	9,788	1,969	1844	311,729	242,510	13,208	4,040
1840	257,143	189,687	9,850	1,362	1845	316,026	309,565	15,981	4,209
1841	296,812	226,474	12,066	1,981	1846	302,901	271,272	17,787	1,998
1842	370,711	217,829	11,463	1,540	1847	375,574	326,708	16,841	2,557

Ice.—In 1841 there were no fewer than 16 companies engaged in the business of shipping ice in Boston, for the southern parts of the Union, the Havannah, &c. But the trade has since vastly increased, and Boston ice is now found in every part of the world; immense quantities being shipped for S. America, the East Indies and China, the U. Kingdom, &c. At present (1848) the exports probably exceed 80,000 tons! It was formerly sold in New Orleans and the Havannah at 6 cents per lb., but it is now sold for 1 cent per ditto, and a similar reduction has taken place in its price in other emporiums. The ice, which is principally brought by railway from the Wenham Lake, about 18 miles from Boston, is remarkably pure and solid. It is sawn into square blocks, not less than 12 inches thick, and is packed in vessels with straw and hay, boxed with thin lumber made all-light. One of the companies paid 7,000 dollars in 1841, for the straw and hay they used for packing.

British Royal Mail Packets.—The mail packets between England and America (nine in number) sail from Liverpool every Saturday, alternately, for Boston and New York. The arrivals and departures noticed above, are exclusive of the packets in question. The latter, however, convey large quantities of the more valuable descriptions of goods; the imports by them into Boston in 1846 being estimated at \$4,445,000. They also convey large numbers of the more opulent class of passengers.

Insurance Companies.—In insurance, both fire and marine, is carried on to a great extent by joint-stock companies, and to some extent also by individuals. The stocks of the different insurance companies amounted in 1847 to \$1,575,000. There is a great deal of risk in the business, which is more, indeed, like a lottery than a regular trade; and the dividends, consequently, vary from next to nothing to 10, and sometimes even 20 per cent. or upwards. The dividends paid by the different companies varied, at an average of the previous 5 years, from 3 1/2 to 2 1/2 per cent.

Banking.—There were, in January 1848, in Boston, 26 Banking Companies, having an aggregate capital of \$18,863,650. Their dividends have recently varied from 5 1/2 to 7 per cent. **Credit.**—Foreign goods are frequently sold for ready money, but more usually at a credit of from 3 to 12 months; average length of credit, 6 months; but on iron and some other articles 12 months' credit is given. Discount for ready money at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum. **Commission.**—The rates of commission are arbitrary, varying from 2 to 5, and sometimes (for *credes* included) to 7 1/2 per cent. On small accounts, and West India goods, 5 per cent. is usually charged. The ordinary rate may be taken at 4 per cent.; but competition is so great, that commission merchants

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may be found who will transact business on almost any terms. Sometimes whole cargoes are sold by brokers on an average, and to recoup a specific sum in lieu of commission and broker's fee.

Money.—In Massachusetts, and throughout New England, the dollar passes as 6s.; so that the pound sterling = 11. 6s. 6d.

Roston currency.—(For full particulars as to Money, Weights, Measures, &c. see New York.) We have derived these details partly from official, partly from private information, and partly from tables and statements in Hunt's valuable Commercial Magazine.

BOTARGO, called in Provence *Bouargues*, a sausage made on the shores of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, of the roe of the mullet. The best come from Tunis and Alexandria.

BOTTLES (Fr. *Bouteilles*; Ger. *Bouteillen*; It. *Bottiglie*, *Fiaschi*; Rus. *Builihi*; Sp. *Botellas*), glass vessels for holding liquids, too well known to require any description. They are exported in considerable quantities. The duty of 8s. a cwt. on bottle glass, like the duties on other descriptions of glass, was both oppressive in amount, and was imposed and collected in the most vexatious manner. Happily, however, it has been repealed.—(For further details, see GLASS.)

BOTTOMRY AND RESPONDENTIA.—Bottomry, in commercial navigation, is a mortgage of the ship. The owner or captain of a ship is, under certain circumstances, authorised to borrow money, either to fit her out so as to enable her to proceed on her voyage, or to purchase a cargo for the voyage, pledging the keel, or bottom of the ship (a part for the whole), in security for payment. In bottomry contracts it is stipulated, that if the ship be lost in the course of the voyage, the lender shall lose his whole money; but if the ship arrive in safety at her destination, the lender is then entitled to get back his principal, and the interest agreed upon, however much that interest may exceed the legal rate.—(*Black. Com. book ii. c. 30.*) The extraordinary hazard run by the lenders of money on bottomry, who, in fact, become adventurers in the voyage, has been held, in all countries, as justifying them in stipulating for the highest rate of interest.

When the loan is not on the ship, but on the goods laden on board, which, from their nature, must be sold or exchanged in the course of the voyage, the borrower's personal responsibility is then the principal security for the performance of the contract, which is therefore called *respondentia*. In this consists the principal difference between bottomry and respondentia. The one is a loan upon the ship, the other upon the goods. The money is to be repaid to the lender, with the *marine interest*, upon the safe arrival of the ship, in the one case, and of the goods in the other. In all other respects these contracts are nearly the same, and are governed by the same principles. In the former, the ship and tackle, being hypothecated, are liable, as well as the person of the borrower; in the latter, the lender has, in general, only the personal security of the borrower.

This contract, which *must always be in writing*, is sometimes made in the form of a deed poll, called a bill of bottomry, executed by the borrower or sometimes in the form of a bond or obligation, with a penalty. But whatever may be its form, it must contain the names of the lender and the borrower, the name of the ship and the master; the sum lent, with the stipulated marine interest; the voyage proposed, with the commencement and duration of the risk which the lender is to run. It must show whether the money is lent upon the ship, or upon goods on board, or on both; and every other stipulation and agreement which the parties may think proper to introduce into the contract.—(See the *Forms* at the end of this article.)

"It is obvious," says Lord Tenterden, "that a loan of money upon bottomry, while it relieves the owner from many of the perils of a maritime adventure, deprives him also of a great part of the profits of a successful voyage; and, therefore, in the place of the owners' residence, where they may exercise their own judgment upon the propriety of borrowing money in this manner, the master of the ship is, by the maritime law of all states, precluded from doing it, so as to bind the interest of his owners, without their consent. With regard to a foreign country, the rule appears to be, that if the master of a vessel has occasion for money to repair or victual his ship, or for any other purpose necessary to enable him to complete the enterprise in which she is engaged; whether the occasion arises from any extraordinary peril or misfortune, or from the ordinary course of the adventure; he may, if he cannot otherwise obtain it, borrow money on bottomry at marine interest, and pledge the ship, and the freight to be earned in the voyage, for repayment at the termination of the voyage. When this is done, the owners are never personally responsible. The remedy of the lender is against the master of the ship."—(*Law of Shipping, part ii. c. 3.*)

In bottomry and respondentia bonds, the lender receives the whole of his principal and interest, or nothing; *he is not answerable for general or particular average*; nor will any loss by capture, if subsequently recaptured, affect his claim. In this respect our law differs from that of France (*Code de Commerce, art. 330.*) and most other countries; the lenders on bottomry bonds being there subject to average, as our underwriters upon policies of insurance. No loss can void a bottomry contract, unless a total loss, proceeding from a peril of the sea, during the voyage, and within the time specified by the contract. If the loss happen through any default or act of the owners or master, to which the lender was not privy, he may still recover.

There is no restriction by the law of England as to the persons to whom money may be lent on bottomry or on *respondentia*, except in the single case of loans on the ships of foreigners trading to the East Indies, which are forbidden by the 7 Geo. I. stat. 1. c. 21. § 2.

It does not, however, appear to be necessary, in order to enable the master of a ship in a foreign port to obtain money for her repair, outfit, &c., that the contract pledging the vessel in security of the debt should be in the nature of a bottomry bond. Provided the person who advances the money do not choose to take upon himself the risk of the ship's return, and do not stipulate for *marine interest*, there seems," says Lord Tenterden, "to be no reason why the master should not pledge both the ship and the personal credit of the owner." And in the case of money advanced in this way to refit a ship in distress at Jamaica, which was captured on the voyage home, the lender recovered.—(*Law of Shipping, part ii. c. 3.*)

Bottomry contracts were well known to the ancients. At Athens, the rate of interest was not fixed by law; but the customary rate seems to have been about 12 per cent. But when money was lent for a voyage, upon the security of the ship and cargo, the interest, on account of the superior risk encountered by the lender, was in most cases much higher. In voyages to the *Taurica Chersonesus* and Sicily, it was sometimes as high as 30 per cent.—(*Anacharsis's Travels, l. iv. p. 369. Eng. trans.*) By the

* Mr. Serjeant Marshall doubts this; but it was so decided by the Court of King's Bench in *Joyce v. Williamson*, 5. 11. Mich. 29 Geo. 3.

Rhodian law, the exactness of such high interest as is usual in bottomry was declared to be illegal, unless the principal was really exposed to the dangers of the sea. — (*Rorck's Public Economy of Athens*, vol. i. p. 177. Eng. trans.) This principle was adopted by the Romans, who gave to bottomry interest the name of *navicium fœnus*; and has been transferred from the Roman law into all modern codes.

"Formerly," says Mr. Berjeant Marshall, "the practice of borrowing money on bottomry amid respondents was more general in this country than it is at present. The immense capitals now engaged in every branch of commerce render such loans unnecessary; and money is now seldom borrowed in this manner, but by the masters of foreign ships who put into our ports in need of pecuniary assistance to enable them to pay their men, to purchase provisions, &c. Sometimes officers and others belonging to ships engaged in long voyages, who have the liberty of trading to a certain extent, with the prospect of great profit, but without capitals of their own to employ in such trade, take up money on respondents to make their investments; but even this, as I am informed, is now not very frequently done in this country."

The term bottomry has sometimes been incorrectly applied to designate a contract, by the terms of which the ship is not pledged as a security, but the repayment of money, with a high premium for the risk, is made to depend upon the success of the voyage. This, however, is plainly a loan upon a particular adventure, to be made by a particular ship, and not a loan upon the ship, and, of course, the lender has only the personal security of the borrower for the due performance of the contract. And it seems that loans have sometimes been made in this manner, and probably also with a pledge of the ship itself, to an amount exceeding the value of the borrower's interest in the ship; and such a contract is still legal in this country in all cases, except the case of ships belonging to British subjects bound to or from the East Indies; as to which it is enacted (19 Geo. 2. c. 37. § 5.).

"That all sums of money lent on bottomry or respondents upon any ship or ships belonging to his Majesty's subjects, bound to or from the East Indies, shall be lent only on the ship, or on the merchandise or effects laden, or to be laden, on board of such ship, and shall be so expressed in the condition of the bond, and the benefit of salvage shall be allowed to the lender, his agents or assigns, who alone shall have a right to make assurance on the money so lent; and no borrower of money on bottomry or at respondents as aforesaid, shall be allowed to insure the value of his interest on the ship, or in the merchandise and effects laden on board of such ship, exclusive of the money so borrowed; and in case it shall appear that the value of his share in the ship, or in the merchandise and effects laden on board, doth not amount to the full sum or sums he hath borrowed as aforesaid, such borrower shall be responsible to the lender for so much of the money borrowed as he hath not laid out on the ship, or merchandise laden thereon. In the proportion the money so laid out shall bear to the whole money lent, notwithstanding the ship and merchandise be totally lost."

Lord Tenterden says that this statute was introduced for the protection of the trade of the East India Company; and its rules must be complied with in the case of bottomry by the masters of ships trading to the East Indies.

For a further discussion of this subject, see *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part ii. c. 3. § Marshall on *Insurance*, book ii.; and *Park on Insurance*, c. 31.

1. Form of a Bottomry Bond.

KNOW ALL MEN by these presents, That I, A. B., commander and two-thirds owner of the ship *Exeter*, for myself and C. D., remaining third-owner of the said ship, am hold and firmly bound unto E. F. in the penal sum of two thousand pounds sterling, for the payment of which well and truly to be made unto the said E. F., his heirs, executors, administrators, or assigns, I hereby bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, firmly by these presents. In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and seal, this 14th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1796.

Witness as the above bound A. B. hath taken up and received of the said E. F. the full and just sum of one thousand pounds sterling, which sum is to run at respondents on the block and freight of the ship *Exeter*, whereof the said A. B. is now master, from the port or road of *Bombay* on the voyage to the port of *London*, having permission to touch, stay at, and proceed to all ports and places within the limits of the voyage, at the rate or premium of twenty-five per cent. (25 per cent.) for the voyage. In consideration whereof usual risks of the seas, rivers, enemies, fires, pirates, &c. are to be on account of the said E. F. And for the further security of the said E. F. the said A. B. doth by these presents mortgage and assign over to the said E. F., his heirs, executors, administrators, and assigns, the said ship *Exeter*, and her freight, together with all her tackle, apparel, &c. And it is hereby declared, that the said ship *Exeter* and her freight is thus assigned over for the security of the respondent taken up by the said A. B., and shall be delivered to no other use or purpose whatever until payment of this bond is first made, with the premium that may become due thereon.

Now THE CONDITION of this obligation is such, that if the above bound A. B., his heirs, executors, or administrators, shall and do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said E. F. or his attorneys in *London* legally authorised to receive the same, their executors, administrators, or assigns, the full and just sum of 1,000*l.* sterling, being the principal of this bond, together with the premium which shall become due thereon, at or before the expiration of ninety days after the safe arrival of the said ship *Exeter* at her moorings in the river *Thames*, or in case of the loss of the said ship *Exeter*, such an average as by custom shall have become due on the salvage, then this obligation to be void and of no effect, otherwise to remain in full force and virtue. Having signed to three bonds of the same tenor and date the one of which being accomplished, the other two to be void and of no effect.

A. B. for self } (L. S.)
and C. D. } (L. S.)

Signed, sealed, and delivered, where no stamped; } G. H.
paper to be had, in the presence of } J. K.

In this bond the occasion of borrowing the money is not expressed, but the money was in reality borrowed to repair the ship *Exeter*, which, being on a voyage from *Bengal* to *London*, was obliged to put back to *Bombay* to repair. See *The Exeter*, *Whitford*, 1 Rob. A. R. 176. The occasion therefore of borrowing the money gave the lender the security of the entire interest of the ship. But this bond, although expressed to be executed by the master for himself and the other part-owner, would not bind the other part-owner personally, unless he had by a previous deed authorised the master to execute such a bond for him. — (*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 1. § 2.)

II. Form of a Bottomry Bill.

TO ALL MEN TO WHOM THESE PRESENTS SHALL COME. I, A. B., of *Bengal*, mariner, part-owner and master of the ship called the *Exeter*, of the burden of five hundred tons and upwards, now riding at anchor in *Table Bay*, at the *Cape of Good Hope*, send greeting;

Witness as I, the said A. B., part-owner and master of the aforesaid ship, called the *Exeter*, now in prosecution of a voyage from *Bengal* to the port of *London*, having put into *Table Bay* for the purpose of procuring provision and other supplies necessary for the continuation and performance of the voyage aforesaid, am at this time necessitated to take up upon the adventure of the said ship, called the *Exeter*, the sum of one thousand pounds sterling monies of Great Britain, for setting the said ship to sea, and furnishing her with provisions and necessaries for the said voyage, which sum C. D., of the *Cape of Good Hope*, master attendant, hath at my request lent unto me, and supplied me with, at the rate of twelve hundred and twenty pounds sterling for the said one thousand pounds, being at the rate of one hundred and twenty-two pounds for every hundred pounds advanced as aforesaid, during the voyage of the said ship from *Table Bay* to *London*. Now KNOW YE, that I, the said A. B., by these presents, do, for me,

my executors and administrators, covenant and grant to and with the said C. D. that the said ship shall, with the first convoy which shall offer for England after the date of these presents, sail and depart for the port of London, there to finish the voyage aforesaid. And I, the said A. B., in consideration of the sum of one thousand pounds sterling to me in hand paid by the said C. D. at and before the sealing and delivery of these presents, do hereby bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, my goods and chattels, and particularly the said ship, the tackle and apparel of the same, and also the freight of the said ship, which is or shall become due for the aforesaid voyage from Bengal to the port of London, to pay unto the said C. D., his executors, administrators, or assigns, the sum of twelve hundred and twenty pounds of lawful British money, within thirty days next after the safe arrival of the said ship at the port of London from the same intended voyage.

AND I, the said A. B., do, for me, my executors and administrators, covenant and grant to and with the said C. D., his executors and administrators, by these presents, that I, the said A. B., at the time of sealing and delivering of these presents, am a true and lawful part-owner and master of the said ship, and have power and authority to charge and engage the said ship with her freight as aforesaid, and that the said ship, with her freight, shall, at all times after the said voyage, be liable and chargeable for the payment of the said twelve hundred and twenty pounds, according to the true intent and meaning of these presents.

AND lastly, It is hereby declared and agreed by and between the said parties to these presents, that in case the said ship shall be lost, miscarry, or be cast away before her arrival at the said port of London from the said intended voyage, that then the payment of the said twelve hundred and twenty pounds shall not be demanded, or be recoverable by the said C. D., his executors, administrators, or assigns, but shall cease and determine, and the loss thereby be wholly borne and sustained by the said C. D., his executors and administrators, and that then and from thenceforth every act, matter, and thing herein mentioned on the part and behalf of the said A. B. shall be void; any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.

In WITNESS whereof the parties have interchangeably set their hands and seals to four bonds of this tenor and date, one of which being paid, the others to be null and void.

At the Cape of Good Hope, this 15th day of November, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and thirty.

Witness, { E. F.
 { G. H.
 { J. K.

A. B.

(L. S.)

BOUNTY, a term used in commerce and the arts, to signify a premium paid by government to the producers, exporters, or importers of certain articles, or to those who employ ships in certain trades.

1. *Bounties on production* are most commonly given in the view of encouraging the establishment of some new branch of industry; or they are intended to foster and extend a branch that is believed to be of paramount importance. In neither case, however, is their utility very obvious. In all old settled and wealthy countries, numbers of individuals are always ready to embark in every new undertaking, if it promise to be really advantageous, without any stimulus from government: and if a branch of industry, already established, be really important and suitable for the country, it will assuredly be prosecuted to the necessary extent, without any encouragement other than the natural demand for its produce.

2. *Bounties on Exportation and Importation.* — It is enacted by the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52, that a merchant or exporter claiming a bounty or drawback on goods exported must make oath that they have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed, and are not intended to be re-landed, in any part of the United Kingdom, or in the Isle of Man (unless entered for the Isle of Man), or in the Islands of Faro or Ferro; and it is further enacted, that if any goods cleared to be exported for a bounty or drawback shall not be duly exported to parts beyond the seas, or shall be re-landed in any part of the United Kingdom, or in the Islands of Faro or Ferro, or shall be carried to the Islands of Guerosey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (not having been duly entered, cleared, and shipped for exportation to such islands), such goods shall be forfeited, together with the ship or ships employed in re-landing or carrying them; and any person by whom or by whose orders or means such goods shall have been cleared, re-landed, or carried, shall forfeit a sum equal to treble the value of such goods. — § 87—95.

3. *Policy of Bounties.* — It was formerly customary to grant bounties on the exportation of various articles; but the impolicy of such practice is now very generally admitted. It is universally allowed that bounties, if they be given at all, should be given only to the exporters of such commodities as could not be exported without them. But it is plain that, by granting a bounty in such cases, we really tax the public, in order to supply the foreigner with commodities at less than they cost. A. has a parcel of goods which he cannot dispose of abroad for less than 110*l.*; but they will fetch only 100*l.* in the foreign market; and he claims and gets a bounty of 10*l.* to enable him to export them. Such is the mode in which bounties on exportation uniformly operate; and to suppose that they can be a means of enriching the public, is equivalent to supposing that a shop-keeper may be enriched by selling his goods for less than they cost!

But however injurious to the state, it has been pretty generally supposed that bounties on exportation are advantageous to those who produce and export the articles on which they are paid. But the fact is not so. A trade that cannot be carried on without the aid of a bounty, must be a naturally disadvantageous one. Hence, by granting it, individuals are tempted to engage or continue in businesses which are necessarily very insecure, and are rarely capable of being rendered lucrative; at the same time that they are prevented, by trusting to the bounty, from making those exertions they naturally would have made, had they been obliged to depend entirely on superior skill and industry for the sale of their produce. The history of all businesses carried on in this country by the aid of bounties, proves that they are hardly less disadvantageous to those engaged in them than to the public.

The truth of these remarks has been acknowledged by government. The bounty on the exportation of corn was repealed in 1815; and the bounties on the exportation of linen and several other articles ceased in 1830.

4. *Bounties on Shipping* have principally been paid to the owners of vessels engaged in the fishery, and their influence will be treated of under the articles *HERRING FISHERY* and *WHALE FISHERY*.

For an account of the bounties that still exist, see the article *TARIFF*.

BOX-WOOD (Ger. *Buchsbaum*; Du. *Palmhout*; Fr. *Fuis*; It. *Busso, Bosso, Bossole*), the wood of the box tree (*Buxus sempervirens*), growing wild in several places in Great Britain. This tree was greatly admired by the ancient Romans, and has been much cultivated in modern times, on account of the facility with which it is fashioned into different forms. Box is a very valuable wood. It is of a yellowish colour, close-grained, very hard, and heavy; it cuts better than any other wood, is susceptible of a very fine polish, and is very durable. In consequence, it is much used by turners, and mathematical and musical instrument makers. It is too heavy for furniture. It is the only wood used by the engravers of wood-cuts for books; and provided due care be exercised, the number of impressions that may be taken from a box-wood cut is very great. In France, box-wood is extensively used for combs, knife-handles, and button moulds; and sometimes, it has been said, as a substitute for hops in the manufacture of beer. The value of the box-wood sent from Spain to Paris is reported to amount to about 10,000 fr. a year. In 1815, the box trees cut down on Box-hill, near Dorking in Surrey, produced upwards of 10,000*l*. They are now, however, become very scarce in England. Previously to 1837 the duty on box-wood was quite oppressive, being 5*l*. a ton if brought from a foreign country, and 1*l*. a ton if from a British possession; but it was then reduced to 10*s*. a ton without reference to origin. In 1841 this duty produced 554*l*., showing that 1108 tons had been entered for consumption. In 1842 the duty on box-wood from a British possession was reduced to 2*s*. 6*d*. a ton. Turkey box-wood sells in the London market for from 4*l*. 10*s*. to 8*l*. 15*s*. a ton, duty included.

BRAN, the thin skins or husks of corn, particularly wheat, ground, and separated from the corn by a sieve or boulder.

BRANDY (Ger. *Brandwein*; Du. *Brandewyn*; Fr. *Eau de vie, Brandy*; It. *Aquazente*; Sp. *Aguardiente*; Port. *Aguardente*; Rus. *Wino*; Lat. *Vinum adustum*), a spirituous and inflammable liquor, obtained by distillation from wine and the husks of grapes. It is prepared in most of the wine countries of Europe; but the superiority of French Brandy is universally admitted. The latter is principally distilled at Bordeaux, Rochelle, Cognac, the Isle de Rhé, Orleans, Nantes, and in Poitou, Touraine, and Anjou. That of Cognac is in the highest estimation.

Wines of all descriptions, but chiefly those that are strong and harsh (*poussés*), are used in the manufacture of brandy. The superior vintages, and those that have most flavour, are said to make the worst brandy. It is naturally clear and colourless. The different shades of colour which it has in commerce, arise partly from the casks in which it is kept, but chiefly from the burnt sugar, saunders wood, and other colouring matter intentionally added to it by the dealers. It is said that the burnt sugar gives mellowness to the flavour of the liquor, and renders it more palatable.

The art of distillation is believed to have been first discovered by the Arabians. From a passage in the *Testamentum Novissimum* of the famous Raymond Lully, who flourished in the thirteenth century, it would appear that the production of brandy and alcohol from wine was familiar to his contemporaries.—(p. 2. edit. *Argent*. 1571.) But the practice does not appear to have been introduced into France till 1313.—(*Le Grand d'Aussi Vie privée de François*, t. iii. p. 64.) When first introduced, brandy or burnt wine (*vinum adustum*) appears to have been used principally as an antiseptic and restorative medicine; and the most extravagant panegyrics were bestowed on its virtues. It was described as a sovereign remedy in almost all the disorders of the human frame; it was commended for its efficacy in comforting the memory, and strengthening the reasoning powers; it was extolled, in short, as the elixir of life, and an infallible preservative of youth and beauty!—(*Henderson's Hist. of Wine*, p. 24.) Dr. Henderson says that the experience of later times has shown how little this eulogy was merited; but in this he is contradicted by Burke, who maintains, with equal eloquence and ingenuity, that "the *alembic* has been a vast benefit and blessing."—(*Thoughts and Details on Scarcity*, p. 41.)

Brandy formed, for a lengthened period, a prominent article in the exports of France; few ships sailing from Bordeaux, Rochelle, or Nantes, without taking a certain quantity of it on board; but of late years there has been an extraordinary falling off in the exports of brandy as well as of wine. We subjoin—

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Brandy exported from France during each of the 10 Years ending with 1839, to the United Kingdom and to all Countries.

Years.	To the United Kingdom.		To all Countries.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Litres.</i>	<i>France.</i>	<i>Litres.</i>	<i>France.</i>
1830 -	8,029,140	8,164,071	17,013,330	16,831,000
1831 -	6,382,119	5,100,000	14,130,788	11,909,200
1832 -	13,369,445	12,300,000	23,787,733	20,713,000
1833 -	10,857,678	9,280,760	19,000,000	18,100,100
1834 -	7,309,266	6,550,000	10,116,000	9,711,700
1835 -	6,512,650	5,420,100	10,430,000	9,087,000
1836 -	7,179,844	5,930,429	10,000,000	8,900,100
1837 -	5,605,076	4,783,911	10,830,000	9,010,000
1838 -	7,410,510	6,020,015	10,000,714	8,600,100
1839 -	6,334,280	4,167,451	15,110,655	12,900,000
Totals -	80,463,575	67,877,915	187,880,000	160,800,018
Average of 10 years -	8,046,357½	6,787,791½	18,788,000	16,080,001½
Average of the 10 years in Imp. gallons }	1,771,153		4,184,740	

Duties on Brandy in Great Britain and Ireland. Quantities consumed.— In nothing, perhaps, has the injurious operation of oppressive duties been so strikingly exemplified as in the case of brandy. At the latter end of the seventeenth century, when the duty on brandy did not exceed 9*l.* a tun, the imports into England amounted to about 6,000 tuns, or 1,512,000 gallons—(*Historical and Political Remarks on the Tariff of the late Treaty, 1786, p. 113.*); whereas at present, notwithstanding our vast increase in wealth and population since the period referred to, we do not import so much brandy as we did then! Nor is this extraordinary circumstance to be ascribed to any preference on the part of the public to other beverages, but is wholly owing to the exorbitant duties with which brandy is loaded. The price of brandy in bond varies, at this moment, according to quality, from 3*s.* to 5*s.* a gallon (Imperial measure), while the duty is no less than 22*s.* 10*d.* Had the imposition of such a duty taken away the taste for brandy, it would have been comparatively innocuous. But it has done no such thing. Its only effect has been to convert a trade, that might otherwise have been productive of the most advantageous results, into a most prolific source of crime and demoralisation. The temptation to smuggle, occasioned by the exorbitancy of the duty, is too overpowering to be counteracted by the utmost penalties of the law. All along the coasts of Kent and Sussex, and the districts most favourably situated for running spirits, almost the whole of the labouring population are every now and then withdrawn from their ordinary employments, to engage in smuggling adventures. The efforts of the revenue officers to seize foreign brandy and geneva have in innumerable instances been repelled by force. Bloody and desperate contests have, in consequence, taken place. Many individuals who, but for this fiscal scourge, would have been industrious and virtuous, have become idle, predatory, and ferocious; they have learned to despise the law, to execute summary vengeance on its officers; and are influenced by a spirit that has been, and may be, turned to the most dangerous purposes.

Neither can it be truly said that this miserable system is upheld for the sake of revenue. On the contrary, it is easy to show that, besides the other mischievous effects it entails on the public, it occasions the loss of at least 1,000,000*l.* a year. In 1786, Mr. Pitt, by a wise and politic measure, took 50 per cent. from the duty on brandy and geneva; (the duty on the latter has been for a lengthened period the same as that on brandy;) and instead of being diminished, the revenue was increased. In 1790, when the duty on brandy and geneva was 5*s.* the wine gallon, the quantity retained for home consumption was 2,225,590 gallons. During the 3 years ending with 1803, when the duty was 9*s.* 2*d.*, the quantities of brandy and geneva retained for home consumption amounted, at an average, to about 2,700,000 gallons; but during the 3 years ending with 1818, when the duty had been increased to 18*s.* 10*d.* the wine gallon, the quantities retained did not exceed 850,000 gallons, while the quantities actually entered for home consumption were considerably less! The consumption increased considerably between 1818 and 1822; but since the latter epoch it has remained nearly stationary; and, notwithstanding the great increase of wealth and population in the interval, is not nearly so great now (1843) as it was half a century ago! Nothing, therefore, can be more palpably erroneous than to contend that the revenue is improved by the present system. Have we not seen the revenue derived from coffee trebled, by reducing the duty from 1*s.* 7*d.* to 6*d.*? Have we not seen the revenue derived from British spirits greatly increased, by reducing the duty from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* the wine gallon? And where is the ground for supposing that the result would be different, were the duties on brandy equally reduced? But the experience afforded by Mr. Pitt's measure, in 1786, is decisive as to this point. He quadrupled the consumption and increased the revenue, by taking a half from the duty when it was a good deal less oppressive than now? Were a similar reduction made at present, does any one doubt that a similar result would follow?

Smuggling and adulteration would immediately cease; our trade with France would be very greatly extended; and the revenue would gain, not merely by a direct increase of duty, but indirectly by a very great diminution of the expense of collection.

But the effect of the increase of the duties on brandy in Ireland has been still more extraordinary. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1802, when the duty was 7s. 3d. the wine gallon, the average annual consumption of brandy in Ireland amounted to 208,064 gallons, producing a nett revenue of 77,714*l.* Now, mark the consequence of *trebling* the duties. The consumption during the 3 years ending with 1842, notwithstanding the population is more than doubled, only amounted, at an average, to 15,399 gallons, producing about 17,560*l.* a year revenue! Dr. Swift has shrewdly remarked, that in the arithmetic of the customs two and two do not always make four, but sometimes only one. But here we have threefold duties, with less than a fourth part of the revenue, and less than a fourteenth part of the consumption!

It is surely impossible that a system like this, evincing in every part a degree of ignorant rapacity, to be paralleled only by that of the savages, who to get at the fruit cut down the tree, should be permitted for a much longer period to disgrace our fiscal code. Those only who are anxious for the continuance of smuggling, with all its consequent crime and misery, can be hostile to a reduction of the duty on brandy. By fixing it at 10*s.* a gallon, neither the consumption of British spirits nor that of rum would be sensibly affected. The middle classes would, however, be able to use brandy on occasions when, perhaps, at present, they use nothing; its clandestine importation would be prevented; those engaged in smuggling would be obliged to have recourse to industrious pursuits; and the manufacture of the abominable compounds, that are now so frequently substituted in its stead, would be put an end to. It is not easy, indeed, to suggest any measure that would be productive of so much advantage, and be attended with fewer inconveniences.

Regulations as to Importation, &c.—Brandy, geneva, and other foreign spirits, must be imported, in casks, in casks containing not less than 40 gallons, under penalty of forfeiture.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 32.) They must also be imported in ships of 70 tons burden or upwards, and are not to be exported from a bonded warehouse except in a vessel of like tonnage, under pain of forfeiture.—(Ibid.)

Brandy is not to be imported except in British ships, or in ships of the country or place of which it is the product, or from which it is imported, on pain of forfeiture thereof, and 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 34.)

Brandy may be exported to Mexico, Chili, or Peru, in casks containing not less than 15 gallons each.—(Treat. Ord. 17th of December, 1827.)

Brandy and geneva may be bottled in bonded warehouses for exportation to British possessions to the East Indies, under the same conditions as wine and rum.—(See SPIRITS.)

In most of the public accounts the imports of brandy and geneva are blended together. It would appear, too, from the note on the following account, that there are no means of accurately distinguishing them, except since 1814. The reader will find, in the article SPIRITS, an account of the quantities of brandy and geneva entered for home consumption, and the rates of duty upon them, in each year since 1789. The following account shows the consumption of brandy, and rates of duty on it, since 1814:—

An Account of the Number of Gallons (Imperial Measure) of Foreign Brandy entered for Home Consumption in Great Britain and Ireland, the Rates of Duty affecting the same, and the entire nett Produce of the Duty, each Year since 1814 (obtained from the Custom-house).

Yrs.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.			Nett Produce of Duty (Customs and Excise).						Rates of Duty per Imperial Gallon (Customs and Excise).	
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Great Britain.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.		Great Britain.	Ireland.
	Imp. gal.	Imp. gal.	Imp. gal.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1814	666,555	5,189	671,744	581,056	4	6,218	12	4	587,274	13	5
1815	696,555	5,189	701,744	740,747	12	4,702	6	1	745,449	18	2
1816	657,009	5,275	662,284	742,201	8	4,181	19	5	746,381	7	5
1817	636.0	5,275	641,275	746,231	0	3,348	4	4	749,579	4	10
1818	531.5	6,232	537,765	599,586	0	5,287	19	1	604,873	10	5
1819	787,432	7,800	795,232	890,968	19	6,000	17	10	896,968	17	6
1820	848,861	6,025	854,886	956,275	16	9	5,419	8	961,695	5	2
1821	914,650	6,001	920,651	1,034,227	17	0	5,173	19	1,039,401	16	2
1822	1,011,607	7,908	1,019,515	1,136,416	3	0	6,414	10	1,136,830	5	3
1823	1,085,114	17,118	1,102,232	1,225,181	19	7	13,530	1	1,239,712	1	3
1824	1,226,715	991	1,227,699	1,367,204	2	8	1,307	9	1,368,511	12	4
1825	1,281,307	5,275	1,286,582	1,409,080	0	0	1,412	17	1,409,080	11	1
1826	1,475,245	7,771	1,483,016	1,636,499	6	7	8,557	15	1,645,056	1	10
1827	1,515,217	7,271	1,522,488	1,471,251	12	4	8,292	5	1,479,543	1	4
1828	1,287,929	7,536	1,295,465	1,430,795	4	2	8,629	19	1,439,424	5	0
1829	1,201,450	8,529	1,209,979	1,460,764	17	6	9,686	17	1,470,451	5	8
1830	(See Note below.)		1,285,567						1,435,014	5	8
1831	1,280,280	8,275	1,288,555	1,455,101	0	0	9,925	0	1,465,026	0	0
1832	1,270,075	51,277	1,321,352	1,765,880	0	0	35,511	0	1,801,391	0	0
1833	1,372,541	19,567	1,392,108	1,504,418	0	0	32,147	0	1,536,565	0	0
1834	1,365,419	25,200	1,390,619	1,650,310	0	0	28,517	0	1,678,827	0	0
1835	1,295,100	19,765	1,314,865	1,454,980	0	0	22,231	0	1,477,211	0	0
1836	1,259,819	18,051	1,277,870	1,393,487	0	0	20,287	0	1,413,774	0	0
1837	1,191,769	17,777	1,209,546	1,510,624	0	0	18,927	0	1,529,551	0	0
1838	1,186,592	16,955	1,203,547	1,531,654	0	0	19,966	0	1,551,620	0	0
1839	1,152,177	15,579	1,167,756	1,291,574	0	0	17,326	0	1,308,900	0	0
1840	1,095,503	13,075	1,108,578	1,244,662	0	0	14,865	0	1,259,527	0	0
1841	1,148,011	16,195	1,164,206	1,510,249	0	0	14,834	0	1,525,083	0	0
1842	1,067,377	16,669	1,084,046	1,211,783	0	0	16,981	0	1,231,764	0	0

Note.—In consequence of the destruction of the official records by fire, no separate account can be rendered of the consumption of brandy and geneva, or the revenue derived therefrom, for the years prior to 1814.

The trade accounts of Great Britain and Ireland having been incorporated during 1830, the particulars for that year are stated for the United Kingdom only.

10 Years

1814	666,555
1815	696,555
1816	657,009
1817	636.0
1818	531.5
1819	787,432
1820	848,861
1821	914,650
1822	1,011,607
1823	1,085,114

nothing, simplified the duty out 6,000 of the late in wealth as we did see on the duties with t, accord- less than it, would only effect most ad- tempting- to be Kent and the whole ordinary em- officers to by force. duals who, become idle, summary d may be,

ke of re- effects it, Mr. Pitt, and geneva; (brandy) the duty on consumption duty was amounting, with 1818, was retained to consump- tion 1818 ed, notwith- nearly so are palpably em. Have from 1*s.* 7*d.* increased, the ground equally re- relative an to by taking a ore a similar d follow?

BRASS (Ger. *Messing*; Du. *Messing, Missing, Geelkoper*; Fr. *Cuivre jaune, Laiton*; It. *Ottone*; Sp. *Laton, Azofar*; Rus. *Selenoi njed*; Lat. *Orichalcum, Aurichalcum*) is a factitious metal, made of copper and zinc in certain proportions. It is of a beautiful yellow colour, more fusible than copper, and not so apt to tarnish. It is malleable, so ductile that it may be drawn out into wire, and is much tougher than copper. Its density is greater than the mean density of the two metals. By calculation it ought to be 7.63 nearly, whereas it is actually 8.39; so that its density is increased by about one tenth. The ancients do not seem to have known accurately the difference between copper, brass, and bronze. They considered brass as only a more valuable kind of copper, and therefore used the word *æs* to denote either. They called copper *æs cyprium*, afterwards *cyprum*; and this in process of time was converted into *cuprum*. Dr. Watson has proved that it was to brass they gave the name of *orichalcum*. Brass is malleable when cold, unless the proportion of zinc be excessive; but when heated it becomes brittle. It may be readily turned upon the lathe; and, indeed, works more kindly than any other metal.

There is a vast variety in the proportions of the different species of brass used in commerce; nor is it easy to determine whether the perfection of this alloy depends on any certain proportions of the two metals. In general, the extremes of the highest and lowest proportions of zinc are from 12 to 25 parts in the 100. In some of the British manufactories, the brass made contains one third its weight of zinc. In Germany and Sweden the proportion of zinc varies from one fifth to one fourth of the copper. The ductility of brass is not injured when the proportion of zinc is highest. This metal is much used in the escapement wheels and other nice parts of watch-making; and bars of brass, very carefully made, fetch for this purpose a high price.

The use of brass is of very considerable antiquity. Most of the ancient genuine relics are composed of various mixtures of brass with tin and other metals, and are rather to be denominated bronzes. The best proportion for brass guns is said to be 1,000 lbs. of copper, 990 lbs. of tin, and 600 lbs. of brass, in 11 or 12 cwt. of metal. The best brass guns are made of malleable metal, not of pure copper and zinc alone; but worse metals are used to make it run closer and sounder, as lead and pot-metal. — (*Thomson's Chemistry, Encyc. Britannica, &c.*)

BRAZILETTO, an inferior species of Brazil wood brought from Jamaica. It is one of the cheapest and least esteemed of the red dyewoods.

BRAZIL NUTS, or *Chestnuts of Brazil*, the fruit of the *Juvia* (*Bertholletia excelsa*), a majestic tree growing to the height of 100 or 120 feet, abounding on the banks of the Orinoco, and in the northern parts of Brazil. The nuts are triangular, having a conical appearance, with sutures at each of the angles; the shell is rough and hard, and of a brownish ash colour. The kernel resembles that of an almond, but is larger, and tastes more like a common hazel nut; it contains a great deal of oil, that may be obtained by expression or otherwise. These nuts do not grow separately, or in clusters, but are contained, to the number of from 15 to 50 or more*, in great ligneous pericarps or outer shells, generally of the size of a child's head. This outer shell is very hard and strong, so that it is rather difficult to get at the nuts, which are closely packed in cells inside. The natives are particularly fond of this fruit, and celebrate the harvest of the *juvia* with rejoicings; it is also very much esteemed in Europe. The nuts brought to this country and the Continent are chiefly exported from Para, and form an article of considerable commercial importance. — (*Humboldt's Pers. Nar. vol. v. p. 538. Eng. trans.*)

BRAZIL WOOD (Fr. *Bois de Brésil*; Ger. *Brasilienholz*; Du. *Brasilienhout*; It. *Legno del Brasile, Verzino*; Sp. *Madera dei Brasil*; Port. *Pao Brasil*). It has been commonly supposed that this wood derived its name from the country in which it is principally produced. But Dr. Bancroft has conclusively shown that woods yielding a red dye were called Brazil woods long previously to the discovery of America; and that the early voyagers gave the name of Brazil to that part of that continent to which it is still applied, from their having ascertained that it abounded in such woods. — (See the learned and excellent work, *Philosophy of Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 316—321.)

It is found in the greatest abundance, and is of the best quality, in the province of Pernambuco, where it is called *Pao da rainha*, or Queen's wood; but it is also found in many other parts of the Western Hemisphere. The tree is large, crooked, and knotty; the leaves are of a beautiful red, and exhale an agreeable odour. Its botanical name is *Cessalpinia Brasiletto*, but it is called by the natives *Uiripitanga*. Notwithstanding its apparent hulk, the bark is so thick, that a tree as large as a man's body with the bark will not be so thick as the leg when peeled. When cut into chips, it loses the pale colour it before had, and becomes red, and when chewed has a sweet taste. It is used for various purposes by cabinet-makers, and admits of a beautiful varnish, but its principal use is in dyeing red; and though the colour is liable to decay, yet, by mixing with it alum and tartar, it is easily made permanent. There is also made of it, by means of acids, a sort of liquid lake or carmine for painting in miniature.

Brazil wood has been for many years past a royal monopoly; its exportation, except on account of

* Humboldt says he had most frequently found from 15 to 22 nuts in each pericarp; but De Laet, who gave the first and most accurate description of this fruit, says that the pericarp is divided into six compartments, each of which incloses from 8 to 12 nuts. — (See *Humboldt in loc. cit.*)

government, being prohibited under the severest penalties. Owing to the improvident manner in which it has been cut down by the government agents, it is now rarely found within several leagues of the coast. Indeed, we are assured that many of the planters have privately cut down the trees on their estates, and used the timber as fire-wood, that they might not expose themselves to annoyance from the arbitrary and vexatious proceedings of these functionaries. The quantity of Brazil wood imported into this country is but inconsiderable. Its price in the London market, exclusive of the duty (2s. per ton), varies for the first quality from 60*l.* to 80*l.* per ton. — (*Dr. Bancroft in loc. cit. Encyc. Metrop. Modern Traveller*, vol. xix. p. 87. *1. Matie Brun*, vol. v. p. 526. Eng. ed. &c.)

BREAD, the principal article in the food of most civilised nations, consists of a paste or dough formed of the flour or meal of different sorts of grain mixed with water, and baked. When stale dough or yeast is added to the fresh dough, to make it swell, it is said to be *leavened*; when nothing of this sort is added, it is said to be *unleavened*.

1. *Historical Sketch of Bread.* — The President de Goguet has endeavoured, with his usual sagacity and learning, to trace the successive steps by which it is probable men were led to discover the art of making bread — (*Origin of Laws*, &c. vol. i. pp. 95—105. Eng. trans.); but nothing positive is known on the subject. It is certain, however, from the statements in the sacred writings, that the use of unleavened bread was common in the days of Abraham — (*Gen.* xviii. 8.); and that leavened bread was used in the time of Moses, for he prohibits eating the Paschal lamb with such bread. — (*Exod.* xii. 15.) The Greeks affirmed that Pan had instructed them in the art of making bread; but they, no doubt, were indebted for this art, as well as for their knowledge of agriculture, to the Egyptians and Phœnicians, who had early settled in their country. The method of grinding corn by hand mills was practised in Egypt and Greece from a very remote epoch; but for a lengthened period the Romans had no other method of making flour, than by beating roasted corn in mortars. The Macedonian war helped to make the Romans acquainted with the arts and refinements of Greece; and Pliny mentions, that public bakers were then, for the first time, established in Rome — (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xviii. c. 11.) The conquests of the Romans diffused, amongst many other useful discoveries, a knowledge of the art of preparing bread, as practised in Rome, through the whole south of Europe.

The use of yeast in the raising of bread seems, however, from a passage of Pliny (lib. xviii. c. 7.), to have been practised by the Germans and Gauls before it was practised by the Romans; the latter, like the Greeks, having leavened their bread by intermixing the fresh dough with that which had become stalc. The Roman practice seems to have superseded that which was previously in use in France and Spain; for the art of raising bread by an admixture of yeast was not practised in France in modern times, till towards the end of the seventeenth century. It deserves to be mentioned, that though the bread made in this way was decidedly superior to that previously in use, it was declared, by the faculty of medicine in Paris, to be prejudicial to health; and the use of yeast was prohibited under the severest penalties! Luckily, however, the taste of the public concurring with the interest of the bakers, proved too powerful for these absurd regulations, which fell gradually into disuse; and yeast has long been, almost every where, used in preference to anything else in the manufacture of bread, to the wholesomeness and excellence of which it has not a little contributed.

The species of bread in common use in a country depends partly on the taste of the inhabitants, but more on the sort of grain suitable for its soil. But the superiority of wheat to all other farinaceous plants in the manufacture of bread is so very great, that wherever it is either successfully cultivated, wheaten bread is used, to the nearly total exclusion of most others. Where, however, the soil or climate is less favourable to its growth, rye, oats, &c. are used in its stead. A very great change for the better has, in this respect, taken place in Great Britain within the last century. It is mentioned by Harrison, in his description of England (p. 168.), that in the reign of Henry VIII. the gentry had wheat sufficient for their own tables, but that their *household* and poor neighbours were usually obliged to content themselves with rye, barley, and oats. It appears from the household book of Sir Edward Coke, that, in 1596, rye bread and oatmeal formed a considerable part of the diet of servants, even in great families, in the southern counties. Barley bread is stated in the grant of a monopoly by Charles I., in 1626, to be the usual food of the ordinary sort of people. — (*Sir F. M. Eden on the Poor*, vol. i. p. 561.) At the Revolution, the wheat produced in England and Wales was estimated by Mr. King and Dr. Davenant to amount to 1,750,000 quarters. — (*Davenant's Works*, vol. ii. p. 217.) Mr. Charles Smith, the very well informed author of the *Traacts on the Corn Trade*, originally published in 1758, states, that in his time wheat had become much more generally the food of the common people than it had been in 1689; but he adds (2d ed. p. 182. Lond. 1766), that notwithstanding this increase, some very intelligent inquirers were of opinion that even then not more than *half* the people of England fed on wheat. Mr. Smith's own estimate, which is very carefully drawn up, is a little higher; for, taking the population of England and Wales, in 1760, at 6,000,000, he supposed that 3,750,000 were consumers of wheat; 739,000, of barley; 898,000, of rye; and 623,000, of oats. Mr. Smith further supposed that they individually con-

sumed, the first class, 1 quarter of wheat; the second, 1 quarter and 3 bushels of barley; the third, 1 quarter and 1 bushel of rye; and the fourth, 2 quarters and 7 bushels of oats.

About the middle of last century, hardly any wheat was used in the northern counties of England. In Cumberland, the principal families used only a small quantity about Christmas. The crust of the goose pie, with which almost every table in the county is then supplied, was, at the period referred to, almost uniformly made of barley meal. — (*Eden on the Poor*, vol. i. p. 564.)

Every one knows how inapplicable these statements are to the condition of the people of England at the present time. Wheat bread is now universally made use of in towns and villages, and almost every where in the country. Barley is no longer used, except in the distilleries, and in brewing; oats are employed only in the feeding of horses; and the consumption of rye bread is comparatively inconsiderable. The produce of the wheat crops has been, at the very least, *quadrupled* since 1760. And if to this immense increase in the supply of wheat, we add the still more extraordinary increase in the supply of butcher's meat—(see art. *CATTLE*), the fact of a very signal improvement having taken place in the condition of the population, in respect of food, will be obvious.

But great as has been the improvement in the condition of the people of England since 1760, it is but trifling compared to the improvement that has taken place, since the same period, in the condition of the people of Scotland. At the middle of last century, Scotch agriculture was in the most depressed state; the tenants were destitute alike of capital and skill; green crops were almost wholly unknown; and the quantity of wheat that was raised was quite inconsiderable. A field of 8 acres sown with this grain, in the vicinity of Edinburgh, in 1727, was reckoned so great a curiosity that it excited the attention of the whole neighbourhood! — (*Robertson's Rural Recollections*, p. 267.) But even so late as the American war, the wheat raised in the Lothians and Berwickshire did not exceed a third part of what is now grown in them; and taking the whole country at an average, it will be a moderate estimate, to say that the cultivation of wheat has increased in a *tenfold* proportion since 1780. At that period no wheat bread was to be met with in the country places and villages of Scotland; *oat cakes* and *barley bannocks* being universally made use of. But at present the case is widely different. The upper and also the middle and lower classes in towns and villages use only wheat bread, and even in farmhouses it is very extensively consumed. There is, at this moment, hardly a village to be met with, however limited its extent, that has not a public baker.

In many parts of England it is the custom for private families to bake their own bread. This is particularly the case in Kent, and in some parts of Lancashire. In 1804, there was not a single public baker in Manchester; and their number is still very limited.

2. *Regulations as to the Manufacture of Bread.* — Owing to the vast importance of bread, its manufacture has been subjected in most countries to various regulations, some of which have had a beneficial and others an injurious operation.

a. *Assize of Bread.* — From the year 1266, in the reign of Henry III., down to our own days, it has been customary to regulate the price at which bread should be sold according to the price of wheat or flour at the time. An interference of this sort was supposed to be necessary, to prevent that monopoly on the part of the bakers which it was feared might otherwise take place. But it is needless, perhaps, to say that this apprehension was of the most futile description. The trade of a baker is one that may be easily learned, and it requires no considerable capital to carry it on; so that were those engaged in the business in any particular town to attempt to force up prices to an artificial elevation, the combination would be immediately defeated by the competition of others; and even though this were not the case, the facility with which bread may be baked at home would of itself serve to nullify the efforts of any combination. But the assize regulations were not merely useless; they were in many respects exceedingly injurious: they rendered the price of flour a matter of comparative indifference to the baker; and they obliged the baker who used the finest flour, and made the best bread, to sell at the same rate as those who used inferior flour, and whose bread was decidedly of a worse quality. But these considerations, how obvious soever they may now appear, were for a long time entirely overlooked. According, however, as the use of wheat bread was extended, it was found to be impracticable to set assizes in small towns and villages; and, notwithstanding the fewness of the bakers in such places gave them greater facilities for combining together, the price of bread was almost uniformly lower in them than in places where assizes were set. In consequence, partly of this circumstance, but still more of the increase of intelligence as to such matters, the practice of setting an assize was gradually relinquished in most places; and in 1815 it was expressly abolished, by an act of the legislature (55 Geo. 3. c. 99.), in London and its environs. In other places, though the power to set an assize still subsists, it is seldom acted upon, and has fallen into comparative disuse.

b. *Regulations as to the Weight, and Ingredients to be used in making Bread.* — Accord-

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ing to the assize acts, a sack of flour weighing 280 lbs. is supposed capable of being baked into 80 quarter loaves; one fifth of the loaf being supposed to consist of water and salt, and four fifths of flour. But the number of loaves that may be made from a sack of flour depends entirely on its goodness. Good flour requires more water than bad flour, and old flour than new flour. Sometimes 82, 83, and even 86 loaves have been made from a sack of flour, and sometimes hardly 80.

Under the assize acts, bakers are restricted to bake only three kinds of bread, viz. wheaten, standard wheaten, and household; the first being made of the finest flour, the second of the whole flour lawd, and the third of the coarser flour. The loaves are divided into peck, half-peck, and quarter loaves; the legal weight of each, when baked, being, the peck loaf 17 lbs. 6 oz., the half-peck 8 lbs. 11 oz., and the quarter 4 lbs. 5½ oz. avoidupois.

Now, however, it is enacted, that within the city of London, and in those places in the country where an assize is not set, it shall be lawful for the bakers to make and sell bread made of wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, peas, beans, rice, or potatoes, or any of them, along with common salt, pure water, eggs, milk, barn, leaven, potato, or other yeast, and mixed in such proportions as they shall think fit. — (3 Geo. 4. c. 106. § 2, and 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 50. § 2.)

It is also enacted by the same statutes, that bakers in London, and in the country, that is, in all places 10 miles from the Royal Exchange where an assize is not set, may make and sell bread of such weight and size as they think fit, any law or assize to the contrary notwithstanding. But it is at the same time enacted, that such bread shall always be sold by avoidupois weight of 16 ounces to the pound, and in no other manner, under a penalty for every offence of not more than 40s., except, however, French or fancy bread, or rolls, which may be sold without previously weighing the same.

Bakers or sellers of bread are bound to have fixed in some conspicuous part of their shop, a beam and scales, with proper weights for weighing bread; and a person purchasing bread may require it to be weighed in his presence. Bakers, and others sending out bread in carts, are to supply them with beams, scales, &c., and to weigh the bread if required, under a penalty of not more than 5l. — (3 Geo. 4. c. 106. § 8.)

Bakers, either journeymen or masters, using alum or any other unlawful ingredient, and convicted on their own confession, or on the oath of one or more witnesses, to forfeit not exceeding 20l. and not less than 5l. if beyond the environs of London, and not exceeding 10l. nor less than 5l. if within London or its environs. Justices are allowed to publish the names of offenders. The adulteration of meal or flour is punishable by a like penalty. Loaves made of any other grain than wheat without the city and its liberties, or beyond 10 miles of the Royal Exchange, to be marked with a large Roman M.; and every person exposing such loaves without such mark shall forfeit not more than 40s. nor less than 10s. for every loaf so exposed. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 50. § 6.)

Any ingredient or mixture found within the house, mill, stall, shop, &c. of any miller, mealman, or baker, which, after due examination, shall be adjudged to have been placed there for the purpose of adulteration, shall be forfeited, and the person within whose premises it is found punished, if within the city of London and its environs, by a penalty not exceeding 10l. nor less than 40s. for the first offence, 5l. for the second offence, and 10l. for every subsequent offence. — (3 Geo. 4. c. 106. § 14.) And if without London and its environs, the party in whose house or premises ingredients for adulteration shall be found shall forfeit for every such offence not less than 5l. and not more than 20l. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 5. § 8.)

Bakers in London and its environs are not to sell, or expose to sale, any bread, rolls, or cakes, nor bake or deliver any meat, pudding, pie, tart, or victuals of any sort, on Sundays, except between the hours of nine in the morning and one in the afternoon, under penalty of 10s. for the first offence, 20s. for the second offence, and 40s. for every subsequent offence. — (3 Geo. 4. c. 106. § 16.)

Bakers in the country are prohibited from selling, &c. any bread, &c., or baking or delivering any meat, &c. on Sundays, any time after half past 1 o'clock of the afternoon of that day, or during the time of divine service, under penalty of 5s. for the first offence, 10s. for the second, and 20s. for the third and every subsequent offence. — (29 Geo. 3. c. 36. § 12.)

There are several regulations in the acts now in force with respect to the sale, &c. of bread where an assize is set; but as the practice of setting an assize is nearly relinquished, it seems unnecessary to recapitulate them. The weight of the assize bread has already been mentioned, and the principle on which its price is fixed.

Notwithstanding the prohibition against the use of alum, it is believed to be very generally employed, particularly by the bakers of London. "In the metropolis," says Dr. Thomson (*Suppl. to Encyc. Brit.*, art. *Baking*), "where the goodness of bread is estimated entirely by its whiteness, it is usual with those bakers who employ flour of an inferior quality to add as much alum as common salt to the dough; or, in other words, the quantity of salt added is diminished a half, and the deficiency supplied by an equal weight of alum. This improves the look of the bread, rendering it much whiter and firmer."

There are believed to be about 1,700 bakers in London, Westminster, &c. The trade which they carry on is in general but limited, and it is not reckoned a very advantageous line of business.

BREMEN, one of the free Hanseatic cities, on the river Weser, about 50 miles from its mouth, lat. 53° 43' N., long. 8° 48' 3" E. Population 42,000. Its situation on the Weser renders Bremen the principal emporium of Hanover, Brunswick, Hesse, and other countries traversed by that river. The charges on the buying, selling, and shipping of goods, are very moderate. The principal exports are linens, grain, oak bark, glass, smalts, hams, hides, rapeseed, beef and pork, rags, wool and woollen goods, wine, &c. The wheat and barley shipped here are mostly very inferior; but the oats are useful common feed; beans are good. The linens are mostly the same as those from Hamburg. The imports consist of coffee, sugar, and other colonial products; tobacco, whale oil, iron, rice, hides, wines, raw cotton, cotton stuffs and yarn, earthenware, brandy, butter, tar, tea, dyewoods, timber, hemp, &c.

Entrance to Bremen.—The entrance to the Weser lies between the Mellum and other sands on the south-western, and the Tagler Platt, &c. on the north-western side. Its course from Bremerloe to its mouth is nearly S. E. and N. W. It is buoyed throughout. The buoys on the right or starboard side when entering being black and marked with letters, while those on the left or larboard are white and numbered. The first or outer black buoy has a gilt key upon it, and is, therefore, called the *key buoy*; it lies in 10 fathoms, bearing N. E. 3 miles from Wranerogge light. This is an intermitting light, having replaced, in 1835, the old coal-fire beacon on the island of Wranerogge, opposite to the northern extremity of East Friesland. It is, according to the most authentic statements, in lat. 53° 11' N., long. 7° 51' 30" E. and is elevated 63½ feet above high water mark, being alternately

visible and invisible for the space of a minute. A light vessel is moored in the fair-way of the Weser, between the black buoys E and F, and the white buoys 2 and 3; she has two masts: during day, a red flag, with a white cross upon it, is kept flying at the main-mast; and at night she exhibits 7 lantern lights, 48 feet above deck. This vessel is on no account to leave her station, unless compelled by the ice. Large vessels do not now generally ascend farther than Alkmarthen, on the east side of the river, about 38 miles below Bremen, where a new and spacious harbour, called "Bremer Haven," has been constructed. But vessels not drawing more than 7 feet water come up to town; and those drawing from 15 to 14 feet may come up to Vegesack, about 15 miles from Bremen. (See the *Sailing Directions for the North Sea*, published by Mr. Norrie.)

Statement of the principal Articles imported into and partly re-exported from Bremen in 1838, 1839, and 1840.

Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.	Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Ashes, pot and pearl lbs.	1,177,070	1,082,682	1,258,982	Linen - - - pack-	68,426	10,477	17,099
Cotton wool - - -	1,981,117	737,061	1,949,746	Oak bark - - - lbs.	1,275,749	2,373,193	1,841,713
Lead - - -	5,411,563	1,819,510	4,235,484	Rape - - -	1,439,556	1,237,193	4,401,610
Cocoa - - - fd.	126,633	66,413	16,183	Wheat flour - - -	880,041	811,023	535,349
Coffee - - -	10,806,863	18,656,111	19,859,199	Yeast - - -	4,621,915	5,091,235	4,776,376
Chicory, dry and green	355,123	325,069	266,753	Pepper - - -	240,749	437,859	416,440
Drugs, raw and prepared	384,694	399,123	389,654	Hans and bacon - -	1,674,768	1,244,907	1,208,282
Iron, raw and manufac. lbs.	4,850,298	4,391,702	7,836,063	Tobacco - - -	10,710,851	14,741,473	92,507,586
Dyewoods - - -	1,602,879	2,275,766	3,304,043	Cigars - - -	4,087,451	4,179,169	6,811,181
Quills for writing - no.	13,518,200	13,401,675	13,304,360	Ditto - - - boxes	604,256	708,500	829,412
Rice, sorted or dried lbs.	410,886	181,917	58,191	Pina oil - - - tons	27,757	89,683	84,715
Hides, dried - - -	1,147,432	661,000	1,169,568	Tin, refined - - lbs.	2,213,430	1,746,239	2,282,116
Wool, - - -	910,750	238,081	531,417	Raw - - -	8,535,244	9,110,211	10,265,088
Cattle hoers - - -	3,184,745	4,215,088	4,601,995				

Exports.—Linen are one of the most important articles of export from Bremen. They are mostly sold by the piece. The dimensions of the piece, and their prices, are similar to those of Hamburgh, which see. The Westphalia hams are mostly shipped from this port.

Duties.—An export duty of 4 per cent, ad valorem, is charged on all merchandise shipped from Bremen.

The import duty is 2 per cent, ad valorem, on all articles; having been increased 3 per cent. by the ordinance of 1830. The value of the imports is calculated according to the invoice price, adding thereto the freight and the rate of insurance current in Bremen; the value of the exports is estimated from the invoice price only. Should there be no invoice of imports, it is the duty of the importer to make a correct estimate of the value upon his oath as a citizen; but the Custom-house has power to institute a stricter examination, if the estimate appears too low.

Emigration.—Bremen has become the most considerable port on the Continent for the shipment of emigrants to the United States, and other parts in America; the number sailing thence usually amounting to from 9,000 to 10,000. Their conveyance has become an object of much importance, particularly to the American ship-owners. A large proportion of the emigrants are from Hesse.

Ship-brokers are licensed officers, and give security, to the amount of 2,000 rix-dollars, for the faithful discharge of their duties. These are, to engage freights, to sell vessels by auction, to enter vessels, and collect freights. They are not permitted to have partners, to transact any commercial business on their own account, to accept commissions or consignments, to sell or purchase bills of exchange, or to engage in any mercantile concerns.

None but appointed brokers of this class can undertake any of the duties assigned to them. Any person employing a non-appointed broker, is deprived of legal redress against the unauthorized agent by whose conduct he may sustain injury.

Ship-brokers are obliged to keep a register of all vessels coming in or going out, of the names of the captains who employed them, to procure manifests of cargoes, and to attend to the payment of duties and other dues chargeable on vessel or cargo.

The fees allowed in them are, for chartering a vessel in bulk, 18 grotes per grain last; of this the owner pays 12 grotes, and the freighter 6 grotes.

For outward-bound vessels, taking merchandise as it may be offered, 2 per cent. on the freight.

For entering a vessel from sea measuring 50 lasts, 5 rix-dollars; measuring 100 ditto, 7½ rix-dollars; and if the vessel above 100 lasts, 10 rix-dollars.

Entry dues are to be paid by the consignees of foreign vessels out of the commission they may claim.

For the collection of freight money, the broker is entitled to receive 1 per cent, but the consignee of a foreign vessel is to pay this sum.

Regulations of the Harbour of Bremer Haven.—All vessels entering the harbour are subject to the supervision of the harbour-masters, whose directions are to be obeyed by the captains and crews.

No ballast or rubbish is to be thrown overboard, under a penalty of 10 rix-dollars for the first offence, which is increased in case of repetition; the offender, too, is obliged to remove the articles he may have so cast into the harbour.

It is not permitted to keep gunpowder on board, and any which may be in the vessel must be delivered up within 2 hours after the vessel has reached her berth; non-compliance with this subjects the party to a fine of from 10 to 50 rix-dollars; nor is it permitted to discharge any fire-arms in port.

The use of all fire-arms, from sunset to sunrise, is prohibited; the captain, however, may have a light, in a closed lantern, in his cabin.

The crews are not allowed to carry on shore any fire-arms, darts, or other weapons.

The total value of all the articles imported by sea into Bremen in 1838, was estimated at 13,500,000 rix-dollars, or (at 3s. 2d. per rix-dollar) 3,017,500*l.*; the value of the exports by sea during the same year was estimated at 11,200,000 rix-dollars, or 1,820,433*l.* In 1839 there belonged to Bremen 151 sailing ships, some of them of large size, and 85 river ships. Bremen merchants carry on an extensive direct trade with the United States, Cuba, Brazil, and other foreign countries.

The Harbour Dues for the Port of Bremen (Bremerhaven) are as follow:—

Vessels.	Burden.		In Jan. March, Sept. Nov.		Feb. April, Oct. Dec.		In May, July, Aug.	
	Lasts.	Tons.	Rix-doll.	£ s. d.	Rix-doll.	£ s. d.	Rix-doll.	£ s. d.
Vessels of - - -	300	450	48	8 0 0	40	6 13 4	40	6 13 4
Square rigged - - -	200	300	32	5 0 0	25	4 0 0	25	4 0 0
Mallons - - -	150	225	24	4 0 0	20	3 0 0	20	3 0 0
Gallions - - -	100	150	16	2 0 0	13	2 0 0	13	2 0 0
Square rigged - - -	80	120	11	1 10 0	9	1 10 0	9	1 10 0
Mallons - - -	60	90	8	7 0 0	7	1 0 0	7	1 0 0
Gallions - - -	40	60	5	4 0 0	4	6 0 0	4	6 0 0

The above rates are for 2 months; should the vessel remain longer in harbour, then there is an increased charge of 1 to 6 rix-dollars, value 2s. 6d. to 1*l.*, for each additional month, in proportion to the season and to the above measurement.

British or American tonnage is taken as equal to 2 lasts.

In addition to the above, the vessels are subject to other dues of 2 grochen, or about 1*½*d. per ton of the goods on board; that is,

Vessels arriving with goods on board, pay at this rate for the quantity of goods on board, but nothing more on departure whether laden or in ballast.

Vessels arriving in ballast pay this rate on the quantity of goods laden for the outward voyage; this rate is therefore only paid once.

Pillage and light-house Dues, on Bremen ships and those having reciprocity treaties with Bremen, 4 grochen per 200 lbs. cargo per voyage. Ships in ballast are exempted from this duty.

Arrivals.—During the year 1841, 1,690 ships entered the port of Bremen. Of these 537 belonged to Bremen; 128 to Hanover; 24 to Great Britain; 32 to the United States; 214 to Hildesburg; 79 to Denmark; 79 to Holland; and the remainder to Russia, Spain, Sweden, Norway, &c.

Money.—Accounts are kept in thalers, or rix-dollars, of 78 grochen or grotes; the grote being divided into 4 awars.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial rix-dollars are 160 awars = 3*½* lbs = 7,600 English grains. Hence, 100 lbs. of Bremen = 109 8 awars, or 49 8*½* lbs. A load of

pfundcheer = 300 lbs., but carriers reckon it at 308 lbs. A centner = 116 lbs.; a shipboard = 25 centners, or 290 lbs.; a wage of iron = 150 lbs.; a stone of fish = 50 lbs.; a stone of wool = 10 lbs. A ton of butter great measure = 300 lbs.; and a ton of do. small measure = 280 lbs.

The dry measures are, 4 quart = 1 Viertel; 4 Viertel = 1 Scheffel; 10 Scheffel = 1 quart; 4 quart = 1 last; the last = 60-70 bushels Winchester measure, or 1000 quarters; that is, 10 quarters and 0-7 bushel. A barrel of salt = 34 scheffels.

A last of coal = 2 chaldrons Newcastle measure. The liquid measures are, 88 quart = 1 Viertel; 8 Viertel = 1 anker; 4 ankers = 1 tierce; 1 tierce = 1 oshoff; the oshoff = 88 English wine gallons. Wine is sometimes sold by the shen of 4 ankers = 37 Eng. wine gallons. A barrel of whale oil = 6 stecken, or 116 lbs. net = 31½ Eng. wine gallons. A ship last of herrings, salt, and coal = 12 barrels.

The Bremen foot = 11.38 Eng. inches = 3 feet, 100 Bremen feet = 94 N. Eng. ditto. The Bremen ell is 2 feet; and 100 ells of Bremen = 63 2 Eng. yards.

There.—The usual rates are, on sugar in casks and Brazil chests, 17 per cent.; on Havannah boxes, 70 lbs; Maryland tobacco, 30 lbs. per hundred; ditto Virginia and Kentucky, 110 lbs. per hundred; 1 centner, round bales, 4 per cent.; square ditto, 6 per cent.; tea (green), 20 lbs. per quarter chest; 20 lbs. ditto, 12 lbs. per quarter chest. Most other articles, such as East India indigo, rice, coffee, spices, &c., are taken at 10 per cent. principally from the communications of Bremen merchants; the highest of Customs' Laws prescribed by the Imperial Congress, vol. i. p. 431; and Macgregor's Tariff (Germany, p. 264), &c.

BRIBE. Any person giving or offering a bribe, recompence, or reward, to any officer of the customs, to induce him to neglect his duty, to forfeit 200*l.*—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 53. § 38.)

BRICKS AND TILES, well known articles used in the building and covering of houses. They are made of baked clay and sand. Until 1839 an excise duty was charged both on bricks and tiles (the latter being then exempted from the duty), so that their manufacture was, in consequence, placed under surveillance. It is ordered by 17 Geo. 3. c. 42. that bricks made for sale shall be 8½ inches long, 2½ inches thick, and 4 wide; on pain of forfeiting, for bricks of less dimensions when burnt, 20*s.* for every 1,000, and proportionally for a greater or less number. It is also provided, that the size of the sieves or screens for sifting or screening sea-coal ashes to be mixed with brick earth in making bricks, shall not exceed ½ of an inch between the meshes. Makers of bricks must give notice, under a penalty of 100*l.*, to the excise, of their intention to begin the manufacture.

Bricks being the principal material used in London and in most parts of England in the building of houses, immense quantities are annually produced in that part of the United Kingdom. And notwithstanding the influence of the duty, the consumption in England nearly doubled during the 20 years ending with 1840; the number that paid duty in 1821 having been 899,178,510, whereas in 1840 it amounted to 1,677,811,134. In Scotland, where stone is mostly employed in building, their manufacture is comparatively unimportant. Tiles are now very extensively used in drainage. It were much to be wished that the state of the revenue were such as to admit of the repeal of the duty on bricks. We subjoin

An Account of the Number of Bricks produced in England and Scotland, the Amount of Duties paid thereon, and the Rates of Duty in 1840, 1841, and 1842.

	1840.			1841.			1842.			Rates of Duty.
	Number.	Amount of Duty.		Number.	Amount of Duty.		Number.	Amount of Duty.		
England	1,677,806,784	£	599,791 14 7	1,423,791,267	£	436,854 16 8	1,471,872,113	£	390,210 9 1	Common - 5 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> 3/1000
Scotland	47,921,959	£	14,023 19 0	39,465,308	£	12,206 2 0	51,948,618	£	9,875 4 1	Large - 10 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> do. Polished - 12 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i> do. Large do. - 2 <i>s.</i> 5 <i>d.</i> 100
Total	1,725,628,743	£	613,815 13 7	1,463,256,575	£	449,060 18 8	1,523,820,731	£	400,086 3 5	

The entire duties on bricks are drawn back upon exportation. Sufficient security must be given before their shipment that they shall be shipped and exported, and not re-landed in Great Britain.—(24 *Geo.* 3. sess. 2. c. 24. § 16.)

If bricks shipped for drawback be re-landed, those so re-landed shall, over and above the penalty in the bond, be forfeited.—(§ 17.)

Note.—Bricks made in Ireland are not subject to excise duty.

BRIMSTONE. See **SULPHUR.**

BRISTLES (Fr. *Soies*; Ger. *Borsten*; Du. *Borstels*; It. *Setole*; Sp. *Cerdas, Setas*; Pol. *Szeceiny*; Rus. *Schtschetina*; Lat. *Sete*), the strong glossy hairs growing on the back of the hog and the wild boar. These are very extensively used by brushmakers, shoemakers, saddlers, &c., and form a considerable article of import. Russia is the great mart for bristles; those of the Ukraine being held in the highest estimation. Of the total quantity imported in 1841, amounting to 1,735,502 lbs., Russia furnished 1,419,514 lbs., Prussia (Königsberg) 132,136 lbs., and Germany 130,899 do. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, the entries for home consumption amounted to 1,772,196 lbs. a year. The duty, which varies from 2*s.* 6*d.* on rough to 3*s.* per cwt. on sorted bristles, produced, in 1842, 24,100*l.* 17*s.* 11*s.* nett.

BROKERS, persons employed as middlemen to transact business or negotiate bargains between different merchants or individuals. They are sometimes licensed by public authority, and sometimes not.

Brokers are divided into different classes; as bill or exchange brokers, stockbrokers, ship and insurance brokers, pawnbrokers, and brokers simply called, or those who sell or appraise household furniture distrained for rent. Exclusive, too, of the classes now mentioned, the brokers who negotiate sales of produce between different merchants usually confine themselves to some one department or line of business; and by attending to it exclusively, they acquire a more intimate knowledge of its various details, and of the credit of those engaged in it, than could be looked for on the part of a general merchant; and are consequently able, for the most part, to buy on cheaper and to sell on dearer terms than those less familiar with the business. It is to these circumstances—to a sense of the advantages to be derived from using their intervention in the transacting of business—that the extensive employment of brokers in London and all other large commercial cities is wholly to be ascribed.

The number of brokers in London is unlimited; but by the statute 8 & 9 *Will.* 3. c. 20. they are to be licensed by the lord mayor and aldermen, under such restrictions and limitations as they may think fit to enact. By the 47 *Geo.* 3. c. 60, brokers acting without being duly admitted are made liable in a penalty of 100*l.* The fee on admission is fixed by the same act at 5*l.*; and there is, besides, an annual payment also of 5*l.*

The following are some of the regulations established by the mayor and aldermen pursuant to the act of *Will.* 3. 1.—That every person shall, upon his admission, take an oath truly and faithfully to execute and perform the office of broker, or between party and party, in all things pertaining to the duty of the said office, without fraud or collusion, to the best and utmost of his skill and knowledge; that he shall in all cases reveal the name of his principal; and neither deal in goods on his own account, nor barter and sell again, nor make any gain in goods beyond the usual brokerage; and that he shall regularly register all the contracts, &c. into which he enters.

Brokers grant a bond under a penalty of 500*l.* for the faithful performance of the duties sworn to in the oath of admission.

A medal is delivered to the broker, with his name engraved thereon, which he may produce, if required, as evidence of his qualification.

38, 1830,

1840.
17,959
1,814,712
2,401,810
2,533,349
4,776,376
1,356,429
1,316,925
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Twelve persons professing the Jewish religion are permitted to act as brokers within the city, under the same regulations, and receive the silver medal accordingly. This medal is transferable; and is sold generally at from 800*l.* to 1,000*l.*, exclusive of the expense of transfer, which is uncertain. Upon the decease of any of the holders of the medal without its having been transferred, the appointment falls to the lord mayor for the time being; and for it the sum of 1,500*l.* has not unfrequently been given.—(*Moniteur's Com. Dict. art. Brokers.*)

If goods in the city of London be sold by a broker, to be paid for by a bill of exchange, the vendor has a right, within a reasonable time, if he be not satisfied with the sufficiency of the purchaser, to annul the contract, provided he intimates his dissent as soon as he has an opportunity of inquiring into the solvency of the purchaser. In *Hodgson v. Davies*, 2 Camp. N. P. C. 336, Lord Ellenborough was, at first, rather inclined to think that the contract concluded by a broker must be absolute, unless his authority were limited by writing, of which the purchaser had notice. But the special jury said, that "unless the name of the purchaser has been previously communicated to the seller, if the payment is to be by bill, the seller is always understood to reserve to himself the power of disapproving of the insufficiency of the purchaser, and annulling the contract." Lord Ellenborough allowed that this usage was reasonable and valid. But he clearly thought that the rejection must be intimated as soon as the seller has had time to inquire into the solvency of the purchaser. The jury found, in the case in question, that five days was not too long a period for making the necessary inquiries.

Brokers, Bill.—propose and conclude bargains between merchants and others in matters of bills and exchange. They make it their business to know the state of the exchange, and the circumstances likely to elevate or depress it. They sell bills for those drawing on foreign countries, and buy bills for those remitting to them; and, from their knowledge of the mutual wants of the one class as compared with those of the other, a few of the principal brokers are able to fix the rate of exchange at a fair average, which it would not be possible to do if the merchants directly transacted with each other. Their charge as brokerage is 2*l.* per cent.

"Those," says Mr. Windham Beaves, "who exercise the function of bill brokers, ought to be men of honour and capable of their business; and the more so, as both the credit and fortune of those who employ them may, in some measure, be said to be in their hands; and, therefore, they should avoid babbling, and be prudent in their office, which consists in one sole point, that is, to *hear all and say nothing*; so long as they never to speak of the negotiations transacted by means of their intervention, or receive any ill reports which they may have heard against a drawer, nor offer his bills to those who have spread it."

Brokers, Stock.—are employed to buy and sell stock in the public funds, or in the funds of joint stock companies. Their business is regulated by certain acts of parliament, by which, among other things, it is enacted, that contracts in the nature of wagers, or contracts apparently framed for the sale or purchase of stock, but really intended only to enable the parties to speculate on contingent fluctuations of the market, without any stock being actually sold, shall be void, and those engaging in them subjected to a penalty of 500*l.* = (7 Geo. 3, c. 8, s. 8, made perpetual by 10 Geo. 2, c. 8.) And by the same act, any one contracting to sell stock of which he is not actually possessed, or to which he is not entitled, forfeits 500*l.* Brokers not keeping a book in which all contracts are regularly inserted, are liable in a penalty of 50*l.* for each omission; half to the king, and half to those who sue for it. The charge for brokerage on all public funds, except Exchequer bills and India bonds, is 2*z.* 6*d.* per cent.; on these it is 1*z.* per cent. No transaction with respect to the purchase and sale of stock in the public funds can be concluded except by the intervention of a licensed broker, unless by the parties themselves.

Brokers, Ship and Insurance.—The chief employment of this class of brokers is in the buying and selling of ships, in procuring cargoes on freight, and adjusting the terms of charterparties, settling with the master for his salary and disbursements, &c. Their charge as ship brokers is about 2 per cent. on the gross receipts. When they act as insurance brokers, they charge 5 per cent. on the premium, exclusive of a discount allowed them on settling with the underwriter. The merchant looks to the broker for the regularity of the underwriting, and a proper selection of underwriters. To him also the underwriter looks for a fair and candid disclosure of all material circumstances affecting the risk, and for payment of their premiums. From the importance of their employment, ship and insurance brokers ought to be, and indeed generally are, persons of respectability and honour, in whom full confidence may be reposed. A ship broker is not within the various acts for the regulation and admission of brokers.—(*Giddons v. Auld*, 6 P. 370 of June, 1807.)

Brokers, Custom-house.—It is enacted by the 3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 52, that no person shall be authorised to act as an agent for transacting business at the Custom-house in the port of London, relative to the entrance or clearance of any ship, &c., unless authorised by licence of the commissioners of customs, who are to require bond with one surety for 1,000*l.* for the faithful conduct of such person and his clerks. This regulation does not, however, apply to the clerk or servant of any person or persons transacting business at the Custom-house on his or their account. The commissioners may extend this regulation to other ports. = § 144, & 146.

Brokers, Pawn.—See PAWNBROKERS.

Brokers, simply so called, in their character of appraisers and sellers of goods distrained for rent, are regulated, by 1 Geo. 3, c. 18, which enacts, that no such person making any distress for rent, where the sum due does not exceed 20*l.*, shall take more than the following sums; viz.

	£	s.	d.
For levying	-	-	- 0 3 0
For such keeping possession, per day	-	-	- 0 2 0
Advertisements, if any	-	-	- 0 10 0
Attending sale, commission, &c. in the pound on the net produce	-	-	- 0 1 0
Stamp duty, lawful amount.			

Appraisements, whether by one broker or more, 6*d.* per pound on the value of the goods, under a penalty of triple the amount of the money unlawfully taken, with costs, to be recovered summarily before a justice of the peace.

In France, the brokers who deal in money, exchange, merchandise, insurance, and stock, are called *agents de change*, and their number, at Paris, is limited to sixty. The company of *agents de change* is directed by a chamber of syndics (*chambre syndicale*) chosen annually by the company. They are severally obliged to give bonds to the amount of 125,000*fr.* for the prevention of abuses. They are also obliged to keep books; are restricted to a charge of from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; and are interdicted from carrying on, or having any interest in, any commercial or banking operations.—(See *Code de Commerce*, § 74, &c. and art. BROKERS in this Dictionary.)

In the United States, brokers are not licensed, nor do they give bonds.

BROKERAGE, the commission, or percentage, paid to brokers on the sale or purchase of bills, funds, goods, &c.—(See FACTORAGE.)

BRONZE (Ger. *Stückgut*, *Stückmetall*; Du. *Stückgoed*; It. *Bronzo*; Sp. *Metal de Canones*; Lat. *Metalum tormentorum*), "a mixed metal, consisting chiefly of copper, with a small proportion of tin, and sometimes other metals. It is used for casting statues, cannon, bells, and other articles, in all of which the proportions of the ingredients vary."—(*Ure*.)

BROOMS (Ger. *Besen*; Fr. *Balais*; It. *Scopa*, *Granate*; Sp. *Escobas*; Rus. *Melli*) are principally made of birch or heath. Vast quantities are manufactured in Southwark, for the supply of the London market.

BRUSHES (Ger. *Bürsten*; Fr. *Brosses*; It. *Setole*, *Spazzole*; Sp. *Brozas*, *Cepillos*, *Escobillas*; Rus. *Schtschetki*), well-known implements, made of bristles, and manufactured of various forms.

BUBBLES, a familiar name applied generally to fraudulent or unsubstantial commercial projects, which hold out hopes of rapid gain, for the purpose of enriching the projectors at the expense of sanguine and ignorant adventurers; and particularly used to designate those projects, the funds for which are raised by the sale of shares or subscription to a transferable stock. In consequence of the mischief produced by the gambling in transferable shares of bubble companies at the time of the South Sea project, 1719 and 1720, the stat. 6 Geo. 1. c. 18., reciting that several undertakings or projects had been contrived and practised, which "manifestly tended to the common grievance, prejudice, and inconvenience of great numbers of his Majesty's subjects in their trade and commerce," and describing, among other practices of the time, the ordinary mode of raising money by shares and subscriptions to a pretended transferable stock, enacted, that the undertakings and attempts so described, and public subscriptions, assignments, and transfers for furthering them, and particularly the raising or pretending to raise transferable stocks without authority of charter or act of parliament, should be deemed illegal and void, and prohibited them under severe penalties. Some decisions limited the operation of, and finally the stat. 6 Geo. 4. c. 91. altogether repealed, these enactments and prohibitions. The projectors of bubbles, therefore, are now punishable only when they can be deemed guilty of frauds or conspiracies at common law; and there is no other check on the adventurers than the loss and troublesome liabilities under the law of partnership, in which participation in these projects often involves them.

BUCKWHEAT (Fr. *Blé Sarrazin*, *Blé noir*; Ger. *Buchweizen*, *Haidekorn*; It. *Grano Saraceno*, *Faggina*, *Fruina*; Sp. *Trigo Saraceno*, *Trigo negro*; Pol. *Tatarca*, *Gryka*, *Pohanka*; Rus. *Gretecha*; Lat. *Fagopyrum*) is principally cultivated, in order that it may be cut when young and green, and employed as fodder for cattle; when allowed to ripen, the grain is usually employed to feed pigeons and poultry. When ripe it is of a deep yellow colour, the seeds bearing a great resemblance to beech-mast: it will grow on the poorest soils. Buckwheat has been cultivated in this country from the latter part of the sixteenth century. Its native country is unknown, but supposed to be Asia. Beckmann has a very learned dissertation on its introduction and early culture in Europe. — (See *Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. art. *Buckwheat*.) The imports of buckwheat are comparatively inconsiderable. The duty is the same as on barley. — (See *COAN LAWS*.)

BUENOS AYRES, a city of South America, on the south side of the La Plata, about 200 miles from its junction with the sea, lat. 34° 36' 29" S., long. 58° 23' 34" W. Population very differently estimated; but said by Sir W. Parish to amount to about 100,000, of whom from 15,000 to 20,000 are foreigners, principally English and French. The Plata is one of the largest rivers of the world, traversing a vast extent of country, of which it is the great outlet. Unluckily, however, its estuary, though broad, is in most parts shallow, being, also, encumbered with sand banks, and infested with sudden gusts of wind called *pamperos*. Its navigation is consequently attended with a good deal of difficulty, and ships bound for Buenos Ayres generally take pilots on board. There is no harbour, and vessels drawing 16 or 17 ft. water anchor in the outer roads, called the *Amarradero*, 7 or 8 miles from shore, loading and unloading by means of lighters. This, too, is an operation by no means free from danger, boats being sometimes swamped in crossing the bar between the outer and inner roads. From the want of a pier, and the shallowness of the water on the beach, even the boats are not able to come close to the shore, but are met at a little distance from it by a rude sort of ox-carts, into which they deposit their goods, at no little risk, and sometimes much loss. These unfavourable circumstances, which might, however, be materially improved by a little exertion and outlay on the part of the government, operate as a heavy drawback on the trade of the city, and tend proportionally to augment that of Montevideo, which is more easily accessible. But notwithstanding the competition of the latter, Buenos Ayres is still the principal outlet for the produce of the vast countries traversed by the La Plata, and especially for the provinces situated on its right bank. The principal articles of export are specified in the subjoined tables. (See next page.)

Within the last few years the trade in wool, in consequence of the great improvement effected in the breed of sheep, has become of great and rapidly increasing importance. In 1827 the export of this article to Great Britain amounted to only 19,444 lbs.; whereas in 1815 it amounted to 3,240,200 lbs.; but during the last 2 years the trade of the La Plata has been all but wholly suspended. Curn, which for a considerable period was not produced in sufficient quantity for home consumption, has latterly become an article of export: it is sent chiefly to Brazil. Most of the jerked beef, and numbers of mules, are exported to the Havannah. Hides, tallow, and skins, especially the first, are leading articles of export. The total value of the imports, in 1837, amounted to about 7,000,000 dollars, or 1,487,000*l.*; of which those furnished by Great

Britain amounted to near a half, or to 606,104. The imports hence chiefly consist of cotton (by far the most important article), linen, woollen and silk manufactures, hardware, cutlery, earthenware of all sorts, glass, leather, hats, &c., with about 40,000, or 50,000, worth of foreign and colonial produce. France supplies Buenos Ayres with jewelry, perfumery, and other articles of luxury, to the value, in 1836, of 231,973*l.* The imports from the United States in the same year amounted to 76,986*l.*, consisting chiefly of unbleached cloths, spirits, soap, sperm candles, dried and salted provisions, tobacco, furniture, and deals. Germany sends woollen and linen cloths, and Rhenish cottons; the Netherlands, fire-arms, swords, &c.; Holland, butter, cheese, Westphalia ham, &c., chiefly by way of Antwerp, the principal mart for Buenos Ayres hides on the Continent. The Baltic furnishes iron, cordage, canvas, pitch, deals, &c. The Mediterranean trade is principally in Sicilian and Spanish produce, particularly cheap wines, brandies, olive oil, macaroni, dried fruits, and pepper. Spanish goods are in little demand, though some serges, velvets, sewing silk, and stuff are imported. The annual importation of Spanish and Sicilian wines is from 10,000 to 12,000 pipes, besides about 1000 pipes of brandy. The *yerba mate*, or Paraguay tea, formerly an import article of some consequence, has been nearly superseded, even in Buenos Ayres, by tea; the other Chinese imports are silks, crapes, nankeens, porcelain, and numerous minor articles. The trade with Chili and Peru is insignificant. The markets of this city are well supplied with butcher's meat and fish. Poultry is dear, a couple of fowls selling for as much as an ox. Vegetables and fruit generally are also dear; milk in quality and price is much the same as in London, and all the butter used is imported. (We have derived these details principally from the valuable work of Sir Woodbine Parish on Buenos Ayres.) In our customs accounts the trade with Montevideo and other ports on the La Plata is mixed up with that of Buenos Ayres. In 1841, the declared value of the exports of British produce and manufactures to the states on the La Plata amounted to 989,362*l.*, of which cottons made no less than 538,127*l.* Probably about two thirds of the whole might be destined for Buenos Ayres.

Monies, Weights, Measures, &c. same as those of Spain; for which, see CANIZ.

Exports of Wool from Buenos Ayres for the Three Years ending with 1845

	England.	France.	U. States.	Genoa.	Belgium.	Nundries.	Total.
1815	3,240,500 lbs.	2,331,225 lbs.	10,430,500 lbs.	816,175 lbs.	235,500 lbs.	75,500 lbs.	17,547,600 lbs.
1844	2,206,300 "	2,016,875 "	8,934,691 "	1,355,375 "	21,175 "	30,500 "	11,944,726 "
1845	1,418,125 "	2,966,625 "	3,753,872 "	937,612 "	265,100 "	120,375 "	10,407,669 "

Imports of Heavy Ox and Cow Hides into the United Kingdom in

Imports.	1810.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1815.
Total Imports		553,326	650,768	1,030,101	871,185	1,018,400
Whereof from the La Plata, principally Buenos Ayres		375,180	723,780	172,565	899,975	560,763

Port Charges.—The Argentine government has notified that—

1. From the 1st of January, 1847, national vessels sailing for ports beyond sea shall pay 3 dollars per ton.
2. Foreign vessels shall pay 4 dollars per ton, except those which, in virtue of existing treaties, are admitted to national vessels.
3. Foreign vessels shall pay, for the visit of the health officer, 25 dollars, and the same amount for the bill of health.
4. Foreign vessels belonging to nations having no consul,

and whose roll is made out by the captain of the port, shall pay 40 dollars for it.

5. The duties fixed by the preceding articles shall be paid one-half on the entrance of the vessel, and the other half on her departure.
 6. National and foreign vessels, which do not leave nor receive cargoes, shall pay one-half of the duties here established.
- Let this decree be communicated, and published in the official register.

BUFF (Ger. *Büffel*, *Büffelhäute*; Fr. *Buffe*, *Peau de buffles*, et *Peaux pansées en buffles*; It. *Bufalo*, *Cuojo di bufalo*), a sort of leather prepared from the skin of the buffalo, dressed with oil, after the manner of chamois. The skin of elks, oxen, and other like animals, when prepared after the same manner as that of the buffalo, is likewise called *buff*. It is used in making sword-belts and other articles, where great thickness and firmness are required.

BUGLES, small glass beads of different colours. They are in considerable demand in Africa, to which they are mostly exported.

BULLION, uncoined gold and silver in the mass. See **GOLD** and **SILVER**.

BUOYS, pieces of wood, cork, or some light substance, moored and floating on the water. Those of wood are sometimes solid, and sometimes hollow, like a cask, and strongly hooped; they are made of various shapes and sizes; and are either private or public.

Private Buoys are so called from their belonging to private individuals. They are principally employed to mark the place of the ship's anchor, being fastened to it by a rope or chain, so that the men who go in the boat to weigh it may readily find out where it is.

By the 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. § 11. It is enacted, that if any person or persons shall wilfully cut away, cast adrift, remove, alter, deface, sink, or destroy, or in any way injure or conceal, any buoy, buoy-rope, or mark, belonging to any ship or vessel, or which may be attached to any anchor or cable belonging to any ship or vessel, whether in distress or otherwise, such person or persons so offending shall upon conviction be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall be liable to be transported for any term not exceeding 7 years, or to be imprisoned for any number of years, at the discretion of the court.

Public Buoys, being intended for the public service, cannot be placed, altered, or removed, except by competent authority. They are generally of a pretty large size; and are firmly moored by chains or cables to rocks, large stones, anchors, &c. By floating on the surface of the water, they serve at once to mark the channels through which it is safe to steer, and to point out dangers to be avoided, such as sunken rocks, shoals, wrecks of vessels, &c. The places in, and the purposes for, which buoys are exhibited, are always specified in good charts: and as the leading buoys are generally of a peculiar figure or colour, which is also indicated in the chart, the navigator, as soon as he recognises them, shapes his course accordingly. Hence the great importance of having buoys properly placed, and of their being carefully marked in charts.

* To this amount may be added, as allowance for short manifests, &c., about 20 per cent. additional.

The 6 Geo. 4. c. 125. § 91. enacts, that every person who shall ride by, make fast to, remove, or wilfully run down or run foul of any vessel placed to exhibit lights, or any buoy or beacon belonging to the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strand, or to any other corporation having authority to place such vessel, buoy, or beacon, shall, besides making good all damage occasioned thereby, forfeit, for every such offence, any sum not exceeding 50*l.* nor less than 10*l.*

Subjoined is an

Account specifying the Buoys and Beacons under the Control of the Trinity House, Deptford Strand, with the Rates of Charge on account of the same on British and Foreign Ships, and the Produce of the Rates, in each of the Three Years ending with 1842.—(Furnished by Mr. Herbert, Secretary to the Trinity House.

	Rates of Charges.			Amounts collected.		
	Coasters	British and Foreign privileged Vessels Overseas, per Ton.	Foreign vessels not privileged Overseas, per Ton.	1840.	1841.	1842.
For the buoys and beacons in the channels leading to the river Thames and port of London, including loadsmenage and portage also including the dues formerly returned under the head of Trinity House duties from strangers ships.	In the port of London the following rates are payable for the inward passage only; viz.— The rates vary from 1 penny to 1 farthing per ton, according to the description of the vessel's cargo, and the pieces from whence they arrive.	1 penny	2 pence	10,572 4 8	10,672 0 8	10,855 10 4
	These dues are also received at the ports of Gravesend, Sheerness, Rochester, Faversham, Leigh, Maldon, Colchester, Ipswich, Woodbridge, Harwich, and Aldborough, at which they are payable for the inward passage only. The rate on foreign vessels not privileged, is 4 pence per ton; but in other respects the rates are determined by the ancient usage of the respective places, and are generally one half the amount of those in the port of London.			3,403 7 5	2,401 19 4	2,455 12 1
Buoys off Yarmouth	1 farthing per ton	1 farthing	1 farthing	704 15 10	747 14 2	718 19 2
Buoys and beacons in the river Tees	4 <i>d.</i> per vessel under 40 tons.	4 <i>d.</i> per vessel under 40 tons.	— on all others.	194 9 11	177 4 4	108 15 11
Coasters, British and foreign, privileged	—	—	—	42 18 9	38 3 11	35 6 7
Foreign vessels, not privileged	—	—	—	85 10 7	74 15 10	75 7 7
Exeter ships (— Coasters line stone boats)	—	—	—	30 19 11	31 19 11	25 19 10
Stone boats	—	—	—	—	—	—
British and foreign, privileged	—	—	—	—	—	—
Foreign, not privileged	—	—	—	—	—	—
Conway buoys	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cornwall buoys	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aberdeevy buoys	—	—	—	—	—	—
Woodbridge beacons, &c.	—	—	—	—	—	—
On all vessels entering the port of Woodbridge	—	—	—	—	—	—
Under 50 tons	—	—	—	—	—	—
50 and under 100 tons	—	—	—	—	—	—
100 tons and upwards	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Total			14,071 13 7	14,475 3 10	14,363 7 7

BURDEN of a ship. See TONNAGE.

BURGUNDY. See WINE.

BURGUNDY PITCH, a resin, the produce of the Pinus Abies, or spruce fir. It is obtained by making incisions in the bark down to the wood, whence it flows thickly and languidly, immediately concreting into flakes that adhere firmly to the tree. These being taken off are melted in boiling water, and strained through coarse cloths. It is of a close consistence, rather soft, has a reddish brown colour, and a not unpleasant smell; it is very adhesive. The greatest quantity is collected in the neighbourhood of Neuchâtel, whence it is brought to us packed in casks. A fictitious sort is made in England, and found in the shops under the title of common Burgundy pitch; it may be distinguished by its friability, want of viscidty and of the odour which characterises the genuine sort.

A species of Burgundy pitch exudes spontaneously from the Norway spruce fir. This, which undergoes no preparation, is the resin or thus of the old London Pharmacopœia. It is imported in the form of tears or small masses, packed in casks, each containing from 1 to 2 cwt. It fetches about half the price of that which is strained.—(Gray's Supplement to the Pharmacopœia, Thomson's Dispensatory.)

BUSHEL, a measure of capacity for dry goods, as grain, fruit, dry pulse, &c., containing 4 pecks, or 8 gallons, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a quarter.

The Winchester bushel contains 2150.42 cubic inches, while the Imperial bushel contains 2218.192. Hence, to convert Winchester bushels into Imperial, multiply by the fraction $\frac{2218.192}{2150.42}$ or .969447, or approximately deduct $\frac{1}{30}$ th, and $\frac{1}{300}$ th; and if great accuracy be required, $\frac{1}{3000}$ and $\frac{1}{30000}$ more. To convert prices per Winchester bushel into prices per Imperial bushel, multiply by the fraction $\frac{2218.192}{2150.42}$, or 1.0315157.

By the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. § 7. the bushel shall be the standard measure of capacity for coals, culm, lime, fish, potatoes, or fruit, and all other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure. The bushel shall contain 80 lbs. avoirdupois of dist. 'd water, being made round, with a plain and even bottom, and being 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches from outside to outside. Sections 7. and 8. direct the mode in which the bushel shall be used for heaped measure.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

The standard measure of capacity, by this act, as well for liquids as for dry goods not measured by heaped measure, shall be the *gallon*, containing 10 lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water weighed in air at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer being at 30 inches; and such measure shall be the Imperial standard gallon (containing 277.274 cubic inches); and all measures shall be taken in parts or multiples, or certain proportions, of the said Imperial standard gallon; and the quart shall be the fourth part, and the pint shall be an eighth of such standard gallon; and 2 such gallons shall be a peck, and 8 such gallons shall be a bushel, and 8 such bushels a quarter of corn or other dry goods not measured by heaped measure.

BUSHIRE, or ABUSHIRE, a sea-port town of Persia, in the province of Fars, on the north-east coast of the Persian Gulph, lat. 29° N., long. 50° 50' E. Population uncertain, but estimated by Major Wilson at from 15,000 to 20,000. Bushire is situated at the northern extremity of a sandy peninsula, to the north and east of which is the bay. There is a convenient anchorage for large ships due west from the town, 3 or 4 miles distant, in from 25 to 28 feet water; but ships of 300 tons burden or thereby lie in the inner roads, to the north, about 6 miles from shore; the anchorage is pretty good; but during violent north-westerly gales, they are sometimes obliged to cut their cables, and bear up for Karak, a small island about 15 leagues W. N. W. of Bushire. The water immediately to the east of the town is deep, but the passage to it is obstructed by a bar, which cannot be passed by vessels drawing more than 8 or 9 feet water, except at spring tides, when there is a rise of from 8 to 10 feet. The variation in 1811 was 4° 43' W.—(*Chart of the Persian Gulph, by Captain Ritchie, &c.*) The climate here, as in all the other ports of the Persian Gulph, is extremely hot, particularly June, July, and August. The unhealthy season is in the fall of the year.

Trade, &c.—Bushire has a good deal of trade, particularly with Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras. Its merchants supply almost all Persia with Indian commodities; as, also, with a good many of those brought from Europe. Of the imports from India, indigo, sugar, sugar candy, and spices are the most important; the steel of India is preferred in Persia to every other, and is made into excellent sabres; tin is brought from Banca; and coffee is principally supplied by Mocha and other ports on the Arabian Gulph. English cotton goods, notwithstanding the admitted inferiority of our red dyes,—a colour in great esteem in Persia,—have already gone far to supersede those that were formerly brought from Hindostan; and the demand for them is rapidly extending, and is susceptible of an almost indefinite increase. Besides those imported at Bushire, a good many are introduced through Bussorah, and some through Turkey and Russia; the latter by way of the Black Sea, the former of Smyrna and Constantinople. Hitherto, indeed, a considerable part of the cottons imported through the last mentioned channels have been supplied by Switzerland and Germany,—their fabrics having been, in some respects, better fitted than ours for the Turkish and Persian markets; but they seem to have lost this advantage, as our exports of cottons to Turkey are now rapidly increasing. Woolen goods, cutlery, watches, &c., sent to India from England, are thence exported to Bushire. Imitation shawls, of the proper size and pattern, are sold to meet with a fair sale. The exports principally consist of raw silk, Kerman wool, Kerman and Cashmere shawls, carpets, horses, silk goods, dried fruits, wine, grain, copper, turquoises, asafoetida, gall-nuts, pearls, and other articles of minor importance. Turkey annually supplies Persia with a very considerable amount of bullion, most part of which is sent to India.

Of the Persian exports, raw silk is the most important. It is produced to some extent in every province; but Gheelan and Mazanderan are those which are most celebrated for its growth. In the former, about 900,000 lbs. are annually raised. Russia is a large customer of this article. Dried fruits and dates are sent in considerable quantities to India. Horses are largely exported to India both by sea and land; they serve for mounting our Indian cavalry, and for supplying the large private demand that always obtains in Hindostan for this noble animal. Though neither so swift nor so beautiful as those of Arabia, the Persian horses are large, more powerful, and, all things considered, better for cavalry. They are capable of supporting an extraordinary degree of fatigue. Wine of Shiraz enjoys a degree of celebrity to which, judging from the few samples we have seen, it seems but ill entitled. Mr. Fraser says that if it is made in so careless a manner, that, in choosing it, not more than 1 bottle in 4 or 5 can be made use of. Persian tobacco and yellow dye berries are highly esteemed; the former enters to a considerable extent into the trade to Turkey as well as to India; the berries bring a very high price in our markets, but the imports hitherto have been inconsiderable. Turquoises, asafoetida, and various sorts of drugs, rose water, with other minor articles, form part of the exports. Sheep's and goats' wool is also exported. The best is that of Kerman. The down furnished by the goats of this province is almost as fine as that of the Tibet or shawl goats. Cotton is extensively produced in Persia; the Russians carry away some, but the greater part is used in the country. Grain is sent to Muscat, but not in large quantities. The pearl trade is now principally centred at Muscat. The copper exported from Bushire is principally the produce of the Persian mines, mixed, however, with some Russian copper from Georgia. Of manufactured articles, the principal are carpets of the most beautiful fabric; shawls, partly native, and partly brought from Cashmere; velvets, silk goods, gold and silver brocade, and a few other articles. The trade between Persia and Russia by the Caspian Sea is not very considerable. Most part of the paper used in the former is supplied by the latter. The furs of Russia find a ready market in Persia. The Russian provinces on the Caspian derive their supplies of indigo from Persia by way of Bushire.

The entire trade between British India and the Persian Gulph, amounts to about 1,500,000. a year. This, however, includes the trade to Muscat and Bussorah, as well as to Bushire, and we have no means of discriminating the separate amount of each.

Water at Bushire is excessively bad and dear; but excellent water, and in great abundance, may be had at Karak. The anchorage at this island is safe at all times; and ships may lie close to the beach. Sir John Malcolm suggested, that the permanent possession of Karak would be an object of considerable importance; and we are rather inclined to agree with him. It is of no value to the Persians, and there seems little doubt that they would be glad to cede it for a trifling consideration. Its possession would not only enable us to command the navigation of the Persian Gulph; but it would form a depot where goods destined for Bushire, Bussorah, &c. might be kept in perfect safety, and in a situation the most convenient, being readily accessible to all sorts of Arabian vessels. A taste for British cottons and woollens is now forming in all the vast countries watered by the Euphrates and the Tigris, or which derive their supplies from the emporia erected on their banks; and it is of the greatest consequence that nothing be omitted that may serve to facilitate the diffusion of this taste, and the means of gratifying it.

Money.—Accounts are kept in toman of 50 ahanes, or 100 mancools. The toman is a Patel coin, containing, according to the report of the Bombay Mint, from 71.5 to 67 grs. pure metal, being consequently equal to 1 lb. 7½ to 1 lb. 1½ sterling. The toman of Bussorah is worth about 56s. 1 and list of Gombroon about 94s. These, with Persian and foreign silver coins of all denominations, are found at Bushire; but the rates of the foreign coins are perpetually varying, and the weight of the native coins is also subject to frequent changes.

Weights and Measures.—Gold and silver are weighed by the miscal of 4 dwts. 33-19 grs. or 3 dwts. very nearly. The commercial weights vary according to the commodities sold, and the places where they are used. The maund tabree weighs 6½ lbs. avoirdupois at the Custom-house, but only 5½ lbs. at the bazaars. This weight is used by dealers in sugar, coffee, copper, and all sorts of drugs. The maund copra is 7½

lbs. at the Custom-house, and from 7½ to 7½ lbs. at the bazaars. Dealers in rice and other articles of provision use this weight. The maund shew is double the maund tabree, or 13½ lbs. Pearls are weighed by the abbas = 245 grs. Troy.

There are various sorts of galls or cubits. One called the royal gaa = 37½ Eng. inches; the common gaa is two thirds of the former, or 25 inches.

The Persian league or parasang is 1.70th of a degree of the equator, and should, therefore, be equal to 3 miles 3 furlongs and 15 poles English.

The araba, or principal corn measure, is equivalent to about 8 Winch. quarters.

For further particulars, see *Nisabur, Voyage en Arabie*, tome ii. p. 75; *Kinnel's Memoir of the Persian Empire*, p. 70; *Frasar's Travels on the Shores of the Caspian*, Append. pp. 165-166; *Parf. Paper No. 735*, 2d. Nov. 1831, pp. 163-164; *Kelly's Oriental Metrology*; *Theorston's Indian Calculator*, &c.

BUSS, a small sea-vessel, used by us and the Dutch in the herring fishery, commonly from 50 to 60 tons burden, and sometimes more. A buss has two small sheds or cabins; one at the prow, and the other at the stern: that at the prow serves for a kitchen.—(See **FISHERY**.)

BUSSORAH, or **BASRAH**, a city of Arabia, on the western bank of the Shat-el-Arab (the name given to the river formed by the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates), above 70 miles from its mouth, lat 30° 30' N., long. 47° 32' E. Population about 60,000, consisting of Arabs, Turks, Persians, Armenians, Jews, &c. The houses and streets are mean and filthy. There is a vast area within the walls, occupied principally by gardens and plantations of date trees, and intersected by canals, on which are numerous small craft.

The bar at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab has only about 12 feet water, but the channel within is deep, so that ships of 500 tons burden, provided they cross the bar at the springs, may without difficulty ascend the river as far as the city; and both its grand branches may be navigated to a great distance by smaller vessels. Bussorah is the principal inlet on the east, through which Indian and other Eastern products find their way into the Turkish Empire. Its commerce is, therefore, even at present, pretty considerable; and were the rich and extensive countries traversed by the Tigris and the Euphrates occupied by a civilised and industrious people, it would be very great. Its imports from India and Europe are similar to those at Busuraz—(which see); from Persia it imports shawls, pearls from Bahrein, &c., and coffee from Mocha. At an average, 6 or 8 British ships arrive in the course of the year from India; but the principal part of the trade is carried on in Arabian bottoms, the merchants of Muscat being the owners of some of the finest ships that are to be met with in the Indian seas. Its exports are principally bullion, pearls, dates, copper, raw silk, horses, gall nuts, and drugs. Captain Hamilton mentions, that in the early part of last century, the exports of dates from Bussorah exceeded 10,000 tons a year.—(*New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 78.) The commerce with the interior is conducted by means of caravans to Aleppo and Bagdad; but it might be carried on to much more advantage by means of steam-boats. It was at one time proposed to forward mails from India by steam by the Shat-el-Arab and the Euphrates to Bir, thence by land to Scanderoon, and again by steam to Gibraltar and England; but this project was very wisely given up in favour of the route by the Red Sea.

Money.—All sorts of coins circulate here, but their values are constantly fluctuating. Accounts are kept in *mancools* of 10 *ahanes*, or 100 *mancools*; 100 *mancools* make a *toman*, which may be valued at about 15 sica ruppes, or 36s. sterling.

Weights and Measures.—Gold and silver are weighed by the *cheit* of 100 *mancools*, or 7,000 Eng. grains.

The commercial weights are the *maund altere*, the *maund sof*, or *sees*, and the *aks* of Bagdad. 1 *vakia* = 15 oz. avoirdupois; ½ *vakia* = 1 she of Bagdad = 47½ oz. avoirdupois; 1 *maund altere* = 36 lbs. avoirdupois; 1 *maund sof* = 30 lbs. avoirdupois; 1 *akra* of Indigo = 138 lbs. 15 oz. avoirdupois.

These are the weights used by the Europeans settled at

Bussorah; those used by the Arabians differ a little from the above, and frequently also among themselves—a circumstance to which the merchant must pay particular attention.

The long measures are the Aleppo yard for silks and woolens = 2 feet 4 inches; the Haided *do.* for cottons and linens = 2 feet 10½ inches; the Bagdad *do.* for all purposes = 2 feet 7½ inches.

For further details as to the commerce of Bussorah, see *Kinnel's Memoir on the Persian Empire*, p. 245; the article *Bussorah* in this Dictionary; *Kelly's Oriental Metrology*; *Theorston's East Indian Calculator*, p. 424; *Nisabur* has given a plan of Bussorah; *Voyage en Arabie*, tome ii. p. 170.

BUTLERAGE. See **PAISAGE**.

BUTT, a vessel or measure for wine, containing 2 hogsheads, or 126 wine gallons.

BUTTER (Da. *Smür*; Du. *Boter*; Fr. *Beurre*; Ger. *Butter*; It. *Burro*, *Butiro*; Lat. *Butyrum*; Pol. *Maslo*; Port. *Manteiga*; Rus. *Masslo Korowe*; Sp. *Manteica*; Sw. *Smör*), as every one knows, is a fat, unctuous, and, in temperate climates, a pretty firm substance, obtained from milk, or rather from cream, by the process of churning.

The various circumstances attending the introduction and use of butter in antiquity have been investigated by Beckmann with great learning and industry. The conclusion at which he arrives is, "that butter was not used either by the Greeks or Romans in cooking or the preparation of food, nor was it brought upon their tables by way of dessert, as is every where customary at present. We never find it mentioned by Galen and others as a food, though they have spoken of it as applicable to other purposes. No notice is taken of it by Apicius; nor is there any thing said of it in that respect by the authors who treat of agriculture, though they have given us very particular information with respect to milk, cheese, and oil. This, as has been remarked by others, may be easily accounted for, by the ancients having accustomed themselves to the use of good

oil; and in the like manner butter is very little employed at present in Italy, Spain, Portugal, and the southern parts of France."— (*History of Inventions*, vol. II, p. 413, Eng. ed.)

Butter is very extensively used in this and most other northern countries; that of England and Holland is reckoned the best. In London, the butter of Epping and Cambridge is in the highest repute; the cows which produce the finest feed during summer in the shrubby pastures of Epping Forest; and the leaves of the trees, and numerous wild plants which there abound, are supposed to improve the flavour of the butter. It is brought to market in rolls from one to two feet long, weighing a pound each. The Cambridgeshire butter is produced from cows that feed one part of the year on chalky uplands, and the other on rich meadows or fens; it is made up into long rolls like the Epping butter, and generally salted or cured before being brought to market; the London dealers, having washed it, and wrought the salt out of it, frequently sell it for Epping butter.

The butter of Suffolk and Yorkshire is often sold for that of Cambridgeshire, in which it is little inferior. The butter of Somersetshire is thought to equal that of Epping; it is brought to market in flakes containing half a pound each; out of which it is taken, washed, and put into different forms, by the dealers of Bath and Bristol. The butter of Gloucestershire and Wiltshire is very good; it is made up in half-pound packs or prints, packed up in square baskets, and sent to the London market by wagon. The butter of the mountains of Wales and Scotland, and the moors, commons, and heaths of England, is of excellent quality when it is properly managed; and though not equal in quantity, it often is confessedly superior to that produced by the richest meadows.— (*London's Receipts of Agriculture*.)

Considerable quantities of butter are made in Ireland, and it forms a prominent article in the exports of that country; generally, it is very inferior to that of Britain; but this is a consequence rather of the want of cleanliness and attention, than of any inferiority in the milk. Some of the best Irish butter brought to London, after being washed and re-packed, is said as Dorsetshire and Cambridgeshire butter.

The salt butter of Holland is superior to that of every other country; large quantities of it are annually exported. It forms about three-fourths of all the foreign butter we import.

The production and consumption of butter in Great Britain is very great. The consumption in the metropolis may, it is believed, be averaged at about 10 lbs. a year for each individual; and supposing this estimate to be nearly accurate, and the population to amount to 9,000,000, the total annual consumption would, on this hypothesis, be 20,000,000 lbs., or 8,928 tons; but in this may be added 3,000 tons, of the butter required for the victualling of ships and other purposes; making the total consumption, in round numbers, 12,000 tons, or 26,880,000 lbs., which at 10d. per lb. would be worth 1,190,000*l.*

The average produce per cow of the butter counties is estimated by Mr. Marshall at 108 lbs. a year, but owing to the improvements that have been made in the interval, the yield per cow may now be safely estimated at 180 lbs.; so that, supposing we are nearly right in the above estimates, about 100,000 cows will be required to produce an adequate supply of butter for the London market.

The imports of foreign butter have more than doubled since 1830. We subjoin an

Account showing the Total Quantities of Butter Imported into the United Kingdom during each of the Five Years ending with 1841, specifying the Quantities brought from each Country.

Countries.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Denmark	<i>Cwt.</i> 15,914	<i>Cwt.</i> 14,446	<i>Cwt.</i> 15,104	<i>Cwt.</i> 14,081	<i>Cwt.</i> 18,106
Germany	28,585	74,017	85,571	17,500	28,975
Holland	187,325	109,515	150,830	161,809	164,513
All other countries	4,725	9,615	5,175	7,470	18,065
Total	298,549	208,583	315,609	300,860	329,659

The duties on foreign butter during the whole of these years were (including the 5 per cent. imposed in 1840) 2*s.* a cwt. In 1842 the duty on butter from a British possession was reduced to 5*s.* a cwt.; and in 1846 it was further reduced to 2*s.* 6*d.* on that brought from our possessions, and to 1*s.* a cwt. on that brought from foreign countries. We subjoin an

Account of the Imports of Butter, and of the Quantities entered for Consumption with the Revenue accruing thereon in 1846 and 1847.— (*Parl. Paper*, No. 107, *sess.* 1848.)

	Imports.	Quantities entered for Consumption.	Revenue.
1846	<i>Cwt.</i> 227,365	<i>Cwt.</i> 255,131	<i>l.</i> 136,081
1847	314,066	319,921	168,608

The average contract prices of the butter furnished to Greenwich Hospital from 1730 to 1842, have been as follows:—

Years.	Prices per lb.	Years.	Prices per lb.	Years.	Prices per lb.	Years.	Prices per lb.	Years.	Prices per lb.
1730	<i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> 5	1770	<i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> 6	1800	<i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> 11	1830	<i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> 0	1855	<i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> 7
1740	0 5	1780	0 6	1810	1 3	1845	0 10	1840	0 10
1750	0 5	1790	0 6	1815	1 3	1850	0 8	1841	0 8
1760	0 5								

In order to obviate the practice of fraud in the weighing and packing of butter, different statutes have been passed, particularly the 36 Geo. 3, c. 86, and 38 Geo. 3, c. 73, the principal regulations of which are subjoined. It is very doubtful, however, whether they have been productive of any good effect. It might be proper, perhaps, to order the weight of the butter, exclusive of the vessel, and the dairyman's or seller's name, to be branded on the inside and outside of each vessel; but most of the other regulations, especially those as to the thickness of

the staves, and the weights of the vessels, seem to be of no great utility.

Every cooper or other person who shall make any vessel for the packing of butter, shall make the same of good well-seasoned timber, flat and not leaky, and shall groove in the heads and bottoms thereof; and every vessel made for the packing of butter shall be a tub, brick, or half-brick, and no other.

Every tub shall weigh of itself, including the top and bottom

not less than 14 lbs. nor more than 16 lbs. the avoirdupois; and neither the top nor the bottom of any such tub shall exceed in any part five eighths of an inch in thickness.

Every firkin shall weigh at least 110 lbs. including the top and the bottom, which shall not exceed four eighths of an inch thick in any part.

Half-tubs to weigh not less than 4 lbs. nor more than 6 lbs. including the top and the bottom, which shall not exceed the thickness of three eighths of an inch in any part; upon pain that the cooper or any other person who may be guilty of any offence in any respect contrary to the preceding directions, shall forfeit every such vessel and 10s.

Every cooper, &c. shall brand every cask or vessel before going out of his possession, on the outside, with his name, in legible and permanent letters, under penalty of 10s., together with the exact weight or tare thereof.

Every dairyman, farmer, or seller of butter, or other person packing the same for sale, shall pack it in vessels made and marked as aforesaid, and in no other, and shall properly soak and season every such vessel; and on the inside, and on the top on the outside, shall brand his name at length, in permanent and legible letters; and shall also, with an iron, brand on the top on the outside, and on the hoise or body of every such cask, the true weight or tare of every such vessel, when it shall have been soaked and seasoned; and shall also brand his name at length, on the hoise or body of every such vessel, across two different staves at least, and shall distinctly, and at length, inscribe his Christian and surnames upon the top of the butter in such vessel when filled, on pain of forfeiting 5s. for every default thereof.

Every tub of butter shall contain, exclusive of the tare of good and merchantable butter, 54 lbs. every firkin 56 lbs. every half-firkin 28 lbs.; and no old or corrupt butter shall be mixed, or packed in any vessel whatever, with any butter that is new and sound; nor shall any butter made of whey, or packed or mixed with butter made of cream, but the respective sorts shall be put in separate tubs, firkins, or half-firkins throughout, be of one sort and goodness; and no butter shall be mixed with any great salt; but all butter shall be salted with small salt; nor shall more salt be intermixed with the butter than is needful for its preservation, under penalty of 5s. for offending against any of these regulations.

No change, alteration, fraud, or deceit shall be practised by any dealers or packers of butter, either with respect to the weight of the butter so packed, whether in respect to quantity or otherwise, under a penalty of 20s. to be imposed on every person engaged in the offence.

Every cheesemonger, dealer in butter, or other person, who shall sell any tubs, firkins, or half-firkins of butter, shall deliver, in every such cask or vessel respectively, the full quantity appointed by this act, or, in default thereof, shall be liable to make satisfaction to the person who shall buy the same for what shall be wanting, according to the price for

Butter made in hot countries is generally liquid, and prepared from the milk of buffaloes; it is usually conveyed in dippers, or bottles made of hide, each of which contains from 10 to 40 gallons. Chee is an article of considerable commercial importance in many parts of India.

The Arabs are the greatest consumers of butter in the world. Burchard tells us, that it is a common practice among all classes to drink every morning, in a silver or copper cup full of melted butter or ghee; and they use it in an infinite variety of other ways. The taste for it is universal; and the poorest individuals will expend half their daily income that they may have butter for dinner, and butter in the morning. Large quantities are annually shipped from Cosseir, Souakin, and Massouah, on the west coast of the Red Sea, for Djidda and other Arabian ports.—(*Burchard's Travels in Nubia*, p. 440; *Travels in Arabia*, vol. 1, p. 52.)

BUTTONS (*Du. Knoepen*; *Fr. Bouton*; *Ger. Knöpfe*; *It. Bottoni*; *Rus. Pogo-wizü*; *Sp. Botones*) are well known articles, serving to fasten clothes, &c. They are manufactured of an endless variety of materials and forms.

It might have been supposed, that the manufacture of such an article as this would have been left to be carried on according to the views and interests of those concerned, individuals being allowed to select any sort of button they pleased. Such, however, has not been the case; and various statutes have been passed, pointing out the kind of buttons to be worn, and the way in which they are to be made. Most of these regulations have luckily fallen into disuse, but they still occupy a place in the statute book, and may be enforced. The following are amongst the more prominent of these regulations:—

No person shall make, sell, or set upon any clothes, or wearing garments whatsoever, any buttons made of cloth, serge, druggs, frieze, cambric, or any other stuff of which clothes or wearing articles are made, or any buttons made of wood only, and turned in imitation of other buttons, on pain of forfeiting 40s. per dozen for all such buttons.—(4 Geo. 1. c. 7.)

No tailor shall set on any buttons, or button-holes, of serge, druggs, &c., under penalty of 40s. for every dozen of buttons or button-holes so made or set on.

No person shall use or wear, on any clothes, garments, or apparel whatsoever, except waistcoats, any buttons or button-holes, made of or bound with cloth, serge, druggs, frieze, cambric, or other stuff whereof clothes or woollen garments are usually made, on penalty of forfeiting 40s. per dozen, under a similar penalty.—(7 Geo. 1. c. 22.)

which it was sold, and shall be liable to an action for recovery of the same, or the value thereof, in full costs of suit.

No cheesemonger, dealer in butter, &c. shall repack for sale any butter, under penalty of 5s. for every tub, firkin, or half-firkin, so repacked.

Nothing in this act shall extend to make any cheesemonger, dealer in butter, or other person, liable to any penalties for selling any of the tubs, firkins, or half-firkins, or for selling any butter used in such vessels shall have been taken thereout, for re-packing for sale of any foreign butter, or for repacking his so repack such foreign butter, entirely and effect the several names of the original dairyman, farmer, or seller of the butter, and the tare of the original dairyman, farmer, or seller thereon; and after the name are so effaced, shall, with an iron, brand his Christian and surnames, and the words *Foreign butter*, upon the hoise or body of every such vessel, across 100 staves at least, to denote that such butter is foreign butter.

Persons counterfeiting or forging any such names or marks, shall for every such offence forfeit 40s.

Penalties not exceeding 5s. to be determined by one justice, upon the evidence of one witness, and the whole shall go to the informer.

Penalties above 5s. to be recovered by action of debt, or information, in the courts as Westminster, and the whole to the informer.

Nothing to extend to the packing of butter in any pot or vessel which shall not be capable of containing more than 1 lb.

Previously to 1820, no butter could be sold in any public market in Ireland, or exported from it, without being previously examined and branded by a public inspector; but a complaint with this regulation is no longer compulsory, but is left to the discretion of the parties.

It is enacted by statute 5 Will. 4. c. 7., that every warehouse-keeper, weigher, searcher, or shipper of butter and cheese, shall receive all butter and cheese that is brought in him for the London cheesemongers, and ship the same without undue preference; and shall have for his pains 2s. 6d. for every load; and if he shall make default, he shall, on conviction before one justice, on oath of one witness, or confession, forfeit for every firkin of butter 10s., and for every weight of cheese 2s.; half for the use of the poor, and half to the informer.

And every such person shall keep a book of entry of receiving and shipping the goods, on pain of 2s. 6d. for every firkin of butter and weight of cheese.

The master of a ship refusing to take in butter or cheese before he is full laden (except it be a cheesemonger's own ship sent for his own goods) shall forfeit for every firkin of butter refused 5s., and for every weight of cheese 2s. 6d.

This act does not extend to any warehouse in Cheshire or Lancashire.

In India it is denominated *ghee*, and is mostly prepared from the milk of buffaloes; it is usually conveyed in dippers, or bottles made of hide, each of which contains from 10 to 40 gallons. Ghee is an article of considerable commercial importance in many parts of India.

The Arabs are the greatest consumers of butter in the world. Burchard tells us, that it is a common practice among all classes to drink every morning, in a silver or copper cup full of melted butter or ghee; and they use it in an infinite variety of other ways. The taste for it is universal; and the poorest individuals will expend half their daily income that they may have butter for dinner, and butter in the morning. Large quantities are annually shipped from Cosseir, Souakin, and Massouah, on the west coast of the Red Sea, for Djidda and other Arabian ports.—(*Burchard's Travels in Nubia*, p. 440; *Travels in Arabia*, vol. 1, p. 52.)

BUTTONS (*Du. Knoepen*; *Fr. Bouton*; *Ger. Knöpfe*; *It. Bottoni*; *Rus. Pogo-wizü*; *Sp. Botones*) are well known articles, serving to fasten clothes, &c. They are manufactured of an endless variety of materials and forms.

It might have been supposed, that the manufacture of such an article as this would have been left to be carried on according to the views and interests of those concerned, individuals being allowed to select any sort of button they pleased. Such, however, has not been the case; and various statutes have been passed, pointing out the kind of buttons to be worn, and the way in which they are to be made. Most of these regulations have luckily fallen into disuse, but they still occupy a place in the statute book, and may be enforced. The following are amongst the more prominent of these regulations:—

No person shall make, sell, or set upon any clothes, or wearing garments whatsoever, any buttons made of cloth, serge, druggs, frieze, cambric, or any other stuff of which clothes or wearing articles are made, or any buttons made of wood only, and turned in imitation of other buttons, on pain of forfeiting 40s. per dozen for all such buttons.—(4 Geo. 1. c. 7.)

No tailor shall set on any buttons, or button-holes, of serge, druggs, &c., under penalty of 40s. for every dozen of buttons or button-holes so made or set on.

No person shall use or wear, on any clothes, garments, or apparel whatsoever, except waistcoats, any buttons or button-holes, made of or bound with cloth, serge, druggs, frieze, cambric, or other stuff whereof clothes or woollen garments are usually made, on penalty of forfeiting 40s. per dozen, under a similar penalty.—(7 Geo. 1. c. 22.)

C.

CABBAGE, a biennial plant (*Brassica Lin.*), of which there are many varieties. It is too well known to require any particular description; it is extensively cultivated in the vicinity of London. Sour crout, or properly *sauer kraut*, is a very favourite dish in Germany; it consists of a fermented mass of salted cabbage.

CABLES are strong ropes or chains, principally used in the anchoring or mooring of ships.

1. *Rope Cables* are, in Europe, principally manufactured of hemp; but in the East they are very frequently made of *coir*, or the fibrous part of the cocoa nut, and in some places, particularly on the Red Sea, of the coating of the branches of the date tree.

Hemp cables are formed of three principal strands, every strand of three ropes, and every rope of three twists. The twists have more or fewer threads according to the greater or less thickness of the cable. All vessels have ready for service three cables which are usually designated the *sheet* cable, the *best bower* cable, and the *small bower* cable; but besides these, most ships have some spare cables. The ordinary length of a cable is from 100 to 120 fathoms. The following are the existing regulations as to the manufacture of hemp cables and cordage:—

No person shall make or sell any cordage for shipping in which any hemp is used, called short chucking, half clean, whole line, or other toppings, codilla, or any damaged hemp, on pain of forfeiting the same, and also treble the value thereof.

Cables, hawsers, or ropes, made of materials not prohibited by this act, and whose quality shall be inferior to clean Petersburgh hemp, shall be deemed inferior cordage, and the same shall be distinguished by marking on the tally, *staple* or *inferior*. Manufacturers making default herein forfeit for every hundred weight of cordage, 10*l*.

Manufacturers are to affix their names and manufactory to new cordage before sold, under the like forfeiture; and putting a false name is a forfeiture of 20*l*.

Persons making cables of old and overworn stuff, containing above 7 inches in compass, shall forfeit four times the value.

Vessels belonging to British subjects, having on board foreign-made cordage, are to make entry thereof, on entering into any British port, on penalty of 20*l*. for every hundred weight. But this is not to extend to cordage brought from the East Indies, nor to materials at present used by any vessels built abroad before this act.—(25 Geo. 3. c. 56.)

2. *Iron Cables.*—The application of strong iron chains or cables to the purposes of navigation is a late and an important discovery, for which we are indebted to Captain Samuel Brown, R.N. It is singular, indeed, that this application should not have been made at a much earlier period. On rocky bottoms, or where coral is abundant, a hempen cable speedily chafes, and is often quite destroyed in a few months, or perhaps days. A striking instance of this occurred in the voyage of discovery under the orders of M. Bougainville, who lost six anchors in the space of nine days, and narrowly escaped shipwreck; a result, says that able seaman, which would not have happened, "*si nous eussions été munis des quelques chaînes de fer. C'est une précaution que ne doivent jamais oublier tous les navigateurs destinés à de périlleux voyages.*"—(*Voyage autour du Monde*, p. 207. 4to. ed.) The work from which this extract is taken was published in 1771; and yet it was not till nearly forty years after, that any attempt was made practically to profit by so judicious a suggestion. The difficulties in the way of importing hemp from 1808 to 1814, and its consequent high price, gave the first great stimulus to the manufacture of iron cables.

Iron cables are constructed in different ways—(see *Encyc. Metrop.*); but they are uniformly tried by a machine, which strains them by a force greater than the absolute strength of the hempen cable they are intended to replace. By this means the risk of accident from defective links is effectually obviated; and there are exceedingly few instances in which an iron cable has broken at sea. Their great weight also contributes to their strength, inasmuch as the impulse of the ship is checked before the cable is brought nearly to a straight line, or that the strain approaches to a maximum. Bolts and shackles are provided at every fathom or two fathoms, by striking out which the ship may, if necessary, be detached from her anchors with less difficulty than a hempen cable can be cut.

Even in their most defective form, iron cables are a great deal stronger than those of hemp; and as to durability, no sort of comparison can be made. No wonder, therefore, that they should be rapidly superseding the latter; which are now almost wholly laid aside in the navy, and, to a great extent, also, in the merchant service.

CADIZ, the principal commercial city and sea-port of Spain, on its south-western coast, on the rocky and elevated extremity of a narrow, low peninsula, or tongue of land, projecting from the Isla de Leon, N.N.W. about 4½ nautical miles. It is surrounded on all sides, except the south, where it joins the land, by the sea, and is very strongly fortified. Population, in 1837, 58,325. It is well built, and has, at a distance, a very striking appearance. The tower or lighthouse of St. Sebastian stands on the western side of the city, being, according to Tofiño, in lat. 36° 31' 7" N., long. 6° 18' 52" W. It is a most conspicuous object to vessels approaching from the Atlantic. The light, which is 172 feet high, is of great brilliancy, revolves once a minute, and in fair weather may be seen more than 6 leagues off.

Bay of Cadiz.—The entrance to this noble basin lies between the city and the town and promontory of Rota, bearing N.W. by N.; distant about 1½ league. The bay is of very great extent, affording, in most places, good anchorage. The port is on the eastern side of the city, where a mole of considerable dimensions has been constructed; but the water is not sufficiently deep to allow large vessels to approach nearer than within about ¼ of a mile, where they anchor in from 5 to 7 fathoms. The rocks called the Cochinos, the Puerca, and the Diamante, lie to the north of the city in the entrance to the bay; the first two at about 3 miles of a mile distant, and the Diamante at rather more than 1½ mile from the city. Vessels may enter between the Puerca and the Diamante; but none, except those not drawing more than 15 feet water, and well

acquainted with the channel, ought to attempt entering between the Cochinos and Puerca and the city. The town of St. Mary's, on the opposite side of the bay, is famous for being the depot of the wines of Xeres. The outer bay, or that of Cadiz properly so called, is separated from the inner bay by the promontory having at its extremity the castle of Malagaquia, which approaches within about ¾ of a mile of the Pointe castle on the Isla de Leon. Within the inner bay is the famous arsenal of the Carracas, the town of San Carlos, the canal of Trocadero, &c. At spring tides the water in the bay rises 10 or 11 feet, but at neaps the rise does not exceed 6 feet.—(For further particulars see the excellent *Chart of the Bay of Cadiz*, by Tofiño; *Matham's Naval Gazetteer*; and *Purdy's Sailing Directions for the Bay of Biscay*, &c.)

History, Trade, &c.—Cadiz is a very ancient city, having been founded by the Phœnicians about 1,200 years before the Christian era. The temple which they

erected in it in honour of Hercules was one of the most celebrated in antiquity.— (*Sainte Croix, Des Anciennes Colonies*, p. 14.; *Pomp. Mela*, lib. iii. cap. 6.) Its excellent port, and its situation, favourable alike for commerce and security, have made it, whether possessed by Carthaginians, Romans, Moors, or Christians, and under every vicissitude, a place of considerable commercial and political importance. It has long been one of the principal stations of the Spanish naval force. In 1720, the commerce with Spanish America, which had previously been exclusively carried on from Seville, was transferred to Cadiz. It enjoyed this valuable monopoly till 1765, when it was partially relaxed by the trade to Cuba, St. Domingo, Porto Rico, and the other islands being opened to all the greater ports of Spain. The benefits resulting from this relaxation were so very great, that in 1776 the trade to all parts of America was opened to ships from every considerable Spanish port, except those of Biscay, which, not being subject to the general laws of the kingdom, were not allowed to participate in this privilege. In consequence, however, of her situation, the great capital of her merchants, and their established connections, Cadiz continued, notwithstanding the abolition of the monopoly, to preserve by far the largest share of the American trade. But since the colonies achieved their independence, her commerce has been contracted within comparatively narrow limits; nor is there much prospect of its being materially improved, without a total change of policy on the part of the Spanish government.— (*Robertson's America*, b. viii. passim; *Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. ii. pp. 395—401. 2d edit.)

The white wines of Xeres in its vicinity form by far the principal article of export from Cadiz. The quantity exported may amount to about 28,000 pipes a year. The prices vary from 12*l.* to 65*l.* per pipe; but, as the lower qualities predominate, the price may be taken, at a medium, at about 25*l.*, making the total value of the exports 700,000*l.* More than 3*ths* of the whole comes to England. The other articles of export are quicksilver, brandy, oranges and other fruits, oil, provisions, salt, wool, &c. The imports consist principally of sugar and coffee from the Havannah and Porto Rico, cocoa, hemp, flax, linens, dried fish, hides, cotton wool and cotton manufactures, rice, spices, indigo, staves and timber, &c.

The imports of colonial produce, exclusive of cocons, from Cuba and Porto Rico into Cadiz, in 1837, were—

Sugar	lbs.	150,531,774
Coffee	—	36,654,514
Cigars	no.	143,701,500
Tobacco	lbs.	1,196,188
Freestone	—	2,950,448
Honey	—	71,708
Wax	—	920,764
Rum	gall.	314,098

Account of the wines exported from Xeres and Port Mary, in 1835, 1836, and 1837.

1835	—	28,557 butts.
1836	—	31,364 —
1837	—	28,808 —

Annual average 28,687 butts; and as each but contains 600 bottles of wine, the annual export is 17,176,200 bottles, or 1,431,350 dozens.— (Taken on the statistics of Cadiz, in the *Statistical Journal* for October, 1838.)

It appears from the subjoined statements, furnished by the English consul, that while the estimated value of the exports from Cadiz amounts to nearly a million sterling a year, the estimated value of the imports hardly exceeds 30,000*l.* But it is needless to say that there cannot possibly be any such discrepancy; and, in fact, the apparently trifling amount of the imports is entirely owing to their being almost wholly smuggled into the country, and, consequently, not appearing in the printed returns.

Account of the number and tonnage of the vessels entering and sailing from Cadiz during each of the 5 years ending with 1842, specifying the value of their cargoes.

Imports.	Vessels arrived.	Tons.	Val. of Cargoes.
1837	527	51,899	260,948
1838	290	44,303	35,051
1839	287	29,433	18,288
1840	322	49,460	39,248
1841	292	45,801	26,830
1842	296	46,028	59,251

Exports.	Vessels sailed.	Tons.	Val. of Cargoes.
1837	316	66,542	284,133
1838	289	44,443	1,010,081
1839	294	39,094	1,154,051
1840	319	48,451	1,086,769
1841	288	45,334	878,646
1842	300	46,901	710,514

Port and other Charges of Cadiz.— British vessels pay a tonnage duty of one real de Vellon, or 2*½*d. sterling, and for light duty 8*½* maravedis, or 1*½*d. sterling, exchange 5*½*d. per dollar of exchange; but Spanish vessels are exempt from the tonnage duty, and pay for light duty 12 maravedis, or 3*½* farthings sterling, at the same exchange.

Notwithstanding the powerful influence of her anti-commercial policy, we carry on a very considerable intercourse with Spain. This is evident from the following table, which exhibits the quantities of the principal articles we import from her; but no reliance can be placed on the statements as to the exports, the articles intended for Spain being principally shipped for Portugal, Gibraltar, Malta, &c., whence they are smuggled into her markets.

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles imported into the United Kingdom from Spain and the Balearic Islands in 1839, 1840, and 1841, and of the Quantities and Declared Value of the Principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the United Kingdom to Spain and the Balearic Islands in 1839, 1840, and 1841.

Articles.	Imports from Spain and the Balearic Islands.		
	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Quan- tities.	Quan- tities.	Quan- tities.
Barilla	29,744	36,585	20,311
Corn { Wheat	17,741	46,959	35,298
{ Barley	—	690	877
Flax	5,963	3,285	3,919
Lemons { In packages not exceeding 5,000	1,494	1,251	1,041
{ and above 5,000 and under 7,500	11,063	11,063	15,015
Oranges { —	18,470	17,937	16,491
Oil, olive	156,107	1,305,384	868,099
Quicksilver	2,252,002	2,157,923	1,825,000
Retains	180,009	166,205	161,000
Stuffs, lamb, undressed	—	42,103	—
Spirits, brandy	280,527	225,568	95,781
Wool, sheepy	2,019,634	1,826,903	1,088,300
Wine, Spanish	2,026,707	2,845,001	3,137,044

Exports to Spain and the Balearic Islands.							
Articles.	1859.		1860.		1861.		
	Quan- tities.	Declared Value.	Quan- tities.	Declared Value.	Quan- tities.	Declared Value.	
Brass and copper manufactures - - - - -	- cwts.	349	2,860	721	5,802	1,100	2,660
Coals, culm, and cinders - - - - -	- tons	18,900	7,583	13,835	5,718	37,520	18,245
Cotton manufactures entered by the yard - - - - -	- yds.	444,255	10,624	535,040	7,087	155,092	4,594
Hardware and cutlery - - - - -	- cwts.	5,129	10,716	3,748	19,185	5,398	13,178
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought - - - - -	- tons	961	11,285	1,818	17,797	7,204	39,394
Linens manufactures entered by the yard - - - - -	- yds.	3,735,519	127,755	5,084,629	166,738	5,931,298	185,938
Machinery and mill-work - - - - -	- - -	- - -	4,650	- - -	30,755	- - -	15,511
Sugar refined - - - - -	- cwts.	3,915	5,475	11,910	22,273	14,509	26,703
Woolen manufactures entered by piece - - - - -	- pieces	19,474	21,786	86,391	74,617	26,146	49,963
Mitto by the yard - - - - -	- yds.	7,358	714	22,066	2,330	21,751	2,868
Silk, ditto - - - - -	- - -	- - -	1,195	- - -	5,627	- - -	6,890
Tin and pewter wares and tin plates - - - - -	- - -	- - -	3,434	- - -	3,007	- - -	4,953
Earthenware of all sorts - - - - -	- - -	345,225	3,381	1,027,537	8,862	772,980	8,462
All other articles - - - - -	- - -	- - -	51,875	- - -	42,560	- - -	34,223
Total declared value					401,252		415,849

Money.—The monies, weights, and measures, used at Cadiz, are those of Castile. Accounts are kept by the real (of old piece), of which there are 10 in the peso duro, or hard dollar; and as the dollar = 2s. 3d. the real = 1d. A real is divided into 16 quintos, or 31 maravedis. The ducado de plata, or ducat of plate, is worth 11 reals.

Weights and Measures.—The ordinary quintal is divided into 4 arrobas, or 100 lbs. of 2 mares each; 100 lbs. Castile = 101 lbs. avoirdupois. The vara, or span = 27 English yard, or 100 varas = 29½ English yards. The cahiz, or measure

for corn, is divided into 12 fanegas, or 144 celeminas, or 576 cuartillos; 100 cahiz's = 197 Winchester quarters, and 5 fanegas = 1 quarter. The cantaro, or arroba, the measure for liquors, is divided into 8 asombros, and 32 quartillos. There are two sorts of arrobas, the greater and the lesser; they are to each other as 32 to 25, the former being equal to 4½ English wine gallons, the latter to 3½ do. A mozo of wine = 10 arrobas. The botto = 30 arrobas of wine, or 38½ of oil. A pipe = 27 arrobas of wine, or 3½ of oil. Hence the botto = 12½ English wine gallons, and the pipe 11½ do.

In 1829 Cadiz was made a free port, that is, a port where goods may be consumed and bonded without paying duty. This boon would have been of comparatively little consequence but for the opportunity of smuggling afforded by the oppressively high duties laid on most foreign articles imported into Spain. These, as such duties wherever imposed never fail to, have given birth to a very extensive contraband trade; and under the free regime Cadiz became the grand focus of this traffic. The government having seen this effect of the franchise, it was withdrawn on the 22d of December, 1832. This, however, is but a very trifling inconvenience to the smuggler; for nothing, fortunately, but the repeal of prohibitions, and the reduction of oppressive duties to a reasonable amount, can ever materially diminish the field of his exertions.

Spanish Commercial Policy.—It is the peculiar misfortune of Spain that every part of her political system has been alike vicious and objectionable. Had her commercial policy been liberal, in some degree, have compensated for the defects in the distribution of property and political power, and would, no doubt, have given a powerful stimulus to industry. But, unluckily, it has been in perfect harmony with her other institutions, and is, in all respects, worthy of the favourite seat and stronghold of the Inquisition. From the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella down to the present time, the grand object of the Spanish government, next to the extirpation of heresy, has been to exclude foreign manufactures from the Peninsula, and to preserve a monopoly of its markets, as well as of those in the colonies, to the home manufacturers. It is, however, almost needless to say, that their efforts to bring about this result have been signally unsuccessful. The oppressive system of taxation, the multiplication of fasts and holy-days, the government monopolies, the badness of the roads and other means of communication, made it impossible for the Spanish manufacturers, even if they had evinced greater enterprise and industry than they have done, to produce manufactured articles as cheap as the English, French, and others less unfavourably situated; and such being the case, it is plain that the prohibition of certain descriptions of commodities, and the oppressive duties laid on others, could have no effect except to suppress the legitimate commerce of the country, and to throw it wholly, or almost wholly, into the hands of smugglers. Any one who takes up a map of Spain must be satisfied at a glance that it would be impossible for an army of customs officers to prevent her being deluged with smuggled products, provided they were materially cheaper than her native products; for, besides her extensive sea frontier, they may be introduced by way of France and Portugal, and also through the Basque Provinces, which have distinct laws, and enjoy an exemption from the commercial code inflicted on the rest of the kingdom. We need not, therefore, be surprised that every effort to prevent the clandestine introduction of foreign products has completely failed. The severities occasionally inflicted on the smugglers, instead of abating, seem really to have increased, the evil. The contraband trade has long been a favourite occupation, and has been eagerly followed by the adventurous, the necessitous, and the desperate. For a lengthened period from 100,000 to 150,000 individuals have been pretty constantly engaged in this occupation; that is, they have been engaged in trampling on the laws, obstructing their officers, and committing acts of violence and blood.

And, strange to say, notwithstanding the ruinous influence of this wretched system was long since exposed by Ulloa, Campomanes, and other distinguished Spaniards, and by Mr. Townsend and other foreigners, who had visited the country, and notwithstanding all the vicissitudes Spain has undergone during the last half century, her old anti-commercial policy still continues to maintain its ascendancy. The existing tariff is divided into classes; and in addition to numerous prohibitions, and oppressive duties on many

articles of the first importance, the numerous forms to be observed at the custom-house, and the delays in entering any article, constitute of themselves a considerable premium on smuggling. It is stated that at present about 3,000 actions are annually instituted against *contrabandistas* and others engaged in illicit trade, which terminate in the ruin of a vast number of families; at the same time that the courts of law are filled with perjury, and the country rife with bloody conflicts. And yet these atrocities secure no one object government has in view.

Notwithstanding their being absolutely prohibited, English and French cotton goods may, at this moment, be bought in every shop in Madrid, and generally throughout Spain; the former at from 20 to 30 per cent. above their price in Gibraltar, where they are about as cheap as in Manchester; and the latter at from 20 to 30 per cent. above their price in Bayonne, which is nearly identical with their price in Rouen! While Cadiz was a free port, about 6,000 persons are said to have been employed in its twisting cigars, which, as soon as finished, were forthwith smuggled into the interior. Three fourths, in fact, of the foreign trade of Spain is in the hands of the *contrabandistas*, and is carried on in defiance of the law. And where such is the case, need we wonder at the low state of industry, or at the prevalence of those predatory and ferocious habits that uniformly mark the character of the smuggler?

In the valuable work of Mr. Inglis, entitled *Spain in 1830*, we find the following statement under the head Cadiz. Though written more than 40 years after the travels of Mr. Townsend, it shows that not one of the flagrant abuses denounced by the latter (*Travels*, ii. 394.) had been eradicated; but that, on the contrary, they all continue to flourish in still ranker luxuriance.

"The whole commercial system of Spain is most erroneously conceived. The prohibitory system is carried to a length absolutely ruinous to the fair trader, and highly injurious to the revenue. The immense duties upon admissible articles, and the total prohibition of others, has occasioned a most extensive contraband trade, both externally with the various ports along the coast of Spain, and internally, throughout the whole of the kingdom; and by this trade admissible articles are introduced into the interior, at from 100 to 300 per cent. below the duties imposed. Government could not fail to be benefited by permitting the importation of articles of general use, upon a payment of such a duty as would allow the sale of the article at a lower price than is now paid by the consumer to the smuggler. As an example of the impolicy of the system, I may cite a fact respecting the trade in salted fish, the returns of which I have before me. The import of this article into Cadiz in one year, before that city was made a free port, amounted to 4 vessels, whose cargoes reached 4,092 cwt.; while at the free port of Gibraltar, in the same year, 41 vessels entered with 89,106 cwt., the whole of which was intended for the *illicit trade*, and passed into Spain through the hands of the smugglers. The duty upon this article is more than 100 per cent.; the smuggler considers himself remunerated by a gain of 25 per cent.; so that the article which finds its way into the market through the contraband trade is sold 75 per cent. cheaper than that which is admitted upon payment of the regular duties.

"The duties upon British manufactured goods amount almost to a prohibition; they often reach 100 per cent., and this trade is therefore also in the hands of the smugglers, who obtain the profit, which, under a more wholesome system, might go into the treasury of the kingdom. The fraudulent dealer is also greatly assisted by the custom of granting a royal licence to individuals to import a certain limited quantity of prohibited goods; an expedient resorted to in order to meet the exigencies of the state; and under the licence to enter 100 tons of merchandise, the merchant enters perhaps 1,000 tons; a deception easily practised in a country where, among the public officers, a scale of bribery is perfectly undervalued and acted upon."—(Vol. II. pp. 122—126.) And the returns as to the trade of Cadiz, given above, show that in 1842 smuggling was even more prosperous than in 1830.

It is needless to say that under this miserable system the home manufactures are in the lowest state of degradation; that industry of all kinds is paralysed; and that the customs' revenue does not exceed a fourth part, certainly, of what it would amount to under a liberal commercial code! The truth is, that a thorough reform in her commercial policy is absolutely indispensable to give Spain a chance of being regenerated. So long as the present tariff is maintained, so long will she be a theatre of sanguinary contests, without industry, without civilisation,—a reproach and a disgrace to Europe.

As a specimen of the way in which the tariff is framed, we may mention that, notwithstanding the vast importance of a cheap and abundant supply of iron to agriculture and manufactures, wrought-iron articles are wholly excluded, at the same time that a very heavy duty is imposed on iron in bars (*en bruto*); This, of course, is done to protect the iron-masters and founders of the Basque Provinces.—In other words, a trifling advantage is conferred on one individual in 100, at the expense and to the serious injury of the other 99!

Inasmuch as the returns published by the Spanish authorities of the value of the import and export trade of the country include only the commodities that pass through the custom-house, it is obvious, from the previous statements, that they are really good for nothing. According to the *Balanza Mercantil* for 1838, the aggregate value of the goods imported at 11 of the principal ports, during the course of that year, amounted to 1,615,000*l.*; whereas the value of the exports from the same ports, during the same year, is said to amount to 2,113,888*l.* It is, however, abundantly certain that the value of the imports must have exceeded that of the exports; and the reason why they are apparently so much below the latter is to be found in the fact that, being more generally subject to prohibitions and heavy duties, the trade in them is thrown to a greater extent into the hands of the smugglers. In illustration of what has now been

stated, we may mention that the value of the exports to Great Britain, in 1838, is estimated, in the *Balanza Mercantil*, at 1,327,470*l.*; while that of the imports from Great Britain is set down at only 149,405*l.* In point of fact, however, we send about 400,000*l.* worth of produce direct to Spain, exclusive of the farther and (as already stated) far more considerable amount smuggled through Portugal, Gibraltar, France, &c. We incline to think that, allowing for smuggling, the import and export trade of Spain may each be estimated at about 4,000,000*l.* sterling, or, perhaps, a little more. And we have no doubt that, under a liberal commercial system, her commerce would speedily be trebled, and that, at no very distant period, it would be increased in a tenfold proportion.

There can, in fact, be no reasonable doubt that, but for the system of misrule to which Spain has been subjected, her commerce would have been about the most extensive of any European state. Her natural advantages, superior to most, and not inferior to those enjoyed by any other kingdom; her wines, brandies, fruits, &c.; her wheat, of which she might produce the largest supplies; her wool; her iron, which is of the best quality; her lead and quicksilver mines, respectively the most productive in the world; the timber and excellence of her harbours; the enterprising and adventurous character of her inhabitants, and her favourable situation; would, were she permitted to avail herself of them, raise her to a very high rank among commercial nations. Let the government cease to counteract the intentions of nature; let moderate duties take the place of prohibitions, and freedom of regulation, and all sorts of industrious pursuits will speedily revive from the deadly lethargy in which they have been so long sunk.

CAGLIARI, the capital of Sardinia, on the north-east shore of a spacious bay on the south coast of the island, lat. 39° 12' 13" N., long. 9° 6' 44" E. Population, in 1838, 27,989. The city stands on a rising ground, and has an imposing effect from the sea. The public buildings and churches are numerous, and some of them splendid; but the streets are, for the most part, narrow, steep, and filthy.

The Gulph of Cagliari extends from Pula on the west to Cape Carbonara on the east, a distance of about 24 miles across, and about 12 in depth, with good anchorage every where after getting into soundings. A mole projects from the Pratique office, and ships usually lie about 1 mile S. W. by S. from it, in 6 or 8 fathoms water, on an excellent bottom of mud. There is a very convenient pier harbour at the south angle of the tower wall, capable of containing 14 or 16 vessels of a tolerable size, besides small craft. Altogether, Cagliari is one of the best and safest ports in the Mediterranean.

Imports and Exports.—Almost all the trade of Sardinia is carried on by strangers; and even the fish on its coast and in its harbours is caught by Sicilians, Neapolitans, Tuscans, and Genoese. Corn is the principal article of export. In good years, the exports from the whole island may amount to 400,000 sacks, or about 600,000 bushels, of wheat, 200,000 stacchi of barley, 6,000 ditto of maize, 100,000 ditto of beans, 200,000 of peas, and 1,000 ditto of lentils. The culture of vines is gradually becoming of more importance; and about 3,500 Catalan pipes are exported, principally from Alghero and Ogliastro. Cheese is an important object in the rural economy of Sardinia, and considerable quantities are exported. Salt is a royal monopoly, and affords a considerable revenue. Until recently, Sweden drew almost all her supplies of this important necessary from Sardinia, and it continues to be exported in considerable quantities. Flax, unseed, hides, oil, saffron, rags, aquiloux, &c. are among the articles of export. The tinny and coral fisheries employ a good many hands; but, as already observed, they are almost wholly managed by foreigners.

Almost every article of dress, whether for the gentry or the peasantry, is imported. Soap, stationery, glass, earthenware, and furniture, as well as sugar, coffee, drugs, spices, &c. are also supplied by foreigners; and notwithstanding the Sards possess many rich mines, several of which were successfully wrought in antiquity, they import all their iron and steel. The only manufactures carried on in the island are those of gunpowder, salt, tobacco, and woollen caps.

Account of the Value of the Goods imported into and exported from Cagliari in 1839, with the Amount of the Duties on each.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Value of Goods.	Amount of Duties.	Value of Goods.	Amount of Duties.
	<i>Lira</i> C.	<i>Lira</i> C.	<i>Lira</i> C.	<i>Lira</i> C.
Waters, drinks, essences, liquors, oils, spirits, and wines	27,276 95	2,966 59	31,300 39	1,954 70
Arms	3,431 0	291 74	30	0 0
Hats	50 0	3 0	27,741 0	2,284 56
Caps, stockings, gloves, and knit or net work	43,263 10	7,496 86		
Hosiery, flax, threads, ropes	67,829 80	6,616 74	2,072 0	0 95
Hats	18,517 67	2,862 99	50 67	1 55
Papers, books, and maps	376,115 31	11,801 151	49,062 70	20,915 41
Quilts, blankets, &c.	23,800 20	5,066 40		
Cotton, cotton stuffs, and cloths, of cotton and linen thread	2,011,143 16	259,823 98	6,395 26	3 96
Wools, dry, green, and conserved fruits	4,046 59	715 50	13,680 79	282 93
Drugs, spices, medicines, and dyestuffs	1,001,034 39	277,818 75	1,367,381 90	1,115 99
Grains, legumes, flour, and paste	31,315 37	4,111 57	3,602,969 50	165,016 12
Lard, &c., game, fowls, geese, cheese, forage, and seeds	67,121 23	437 11	1,017,305 12	17,701 68
Wool, skins, cloths, and stuffs, &c. of wool or hair	918,061 24	5,919 29	12,850 79	782 71
Wool, and work in wool	292,229 22	14,679 9	9,620 16	265 51
Mercery, hardware, &c.	29,124 66	15,861 21	2,161 86	5 43
Miscellaneous, not being inserted in any particular category	242,171 84	31,100 65	100,000 81	5,771 81
Metals, and works in the same	365,674 71	25,950 72		
Gold and silver, pure and imitation, and works in the same	15,218 89	1,312 54	19,903 30	201 16
Jewellery, tapestry, gilded works, diamonds and precious stones	25,238 81	4,163 77		
Faces, ribbons, trimmings, &c.				
Skins, furs, works in fur, &c.				
Chamois skins, &c. for gloves, &c., leather for coaches, &c., works in leather, and tanned skins in general	246,607 90	24,676 39	454,971 30	28,779 33
Fish, fresh, salted, dried, or pickled	36,196 0	2,186 85		
Thread lace, &c.	229,200 0	2,127 39		
Silk, works in silk, or silk mixed with substances	60,457 51	45,078 72	555 0	22 76
Tobacco			6 40	0 1
Linen cloth, &c.	208,220 58	20,440 61	13 50	0 51
Total	6,911,796 98	800,012 11	5,860,514 42	270,123 16

Account of the Number of Vessels which arrived at and departed from Cagliari in 1837.

Nations.	Arrived.			Departed.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
British	5	670	46	5	670	46
Sardinian	387	49,708	3,437	267	42,108	3,437
Other nations	77	15,113	680	77	15,113	680
Total	469	55,496	4,213	469	55,496	4,213

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in lire, reall, and soldi. 5 soldi = 1 reale = 4½d.; 4 reall = 1 lira = 1s. 6d.; 10 reall = 1 scudo = 3s. 9d. The paper money consists of notes for 5, 10, and 20 scudi.

Farm produce and the coarse metals are weighed by the *pesi di ferro*: 12 Sard. os. = 1 lb. = 14 os. 6 dr. avoirdupois; 26 lbs. = 1 rubbo; 4 rubbi = 1 cantaro = 93 lbs. 0 os. 8 dr. avoirdupois. The starello, or corn measure, is equivalent to 1 bush. ¼ peck Eng. The palm = 10½ Eng. inches.

Causes of the depressed State of Sardinia.—The above statements sufficiently show that the commerce of Sardinia is very far from being what might naturally be expected from her extent, fertility, admirable situation, and the excellence of her many harbours. She contains an area of about 9,500 square miles, being, in point of size, but little inferior to Sicily; and in antiquity was reckoned, along with the latter, a principal granary of Rome. "*Siciliam et Sardiniam benignissimas urbis nostrae nutrices.*"—(Val. Max. lib. vi. cap. 6.)

Utraque frugiferæ est inæula nobilis arvis:
Nec plus Hesperiam longinquis messibus ullæ,
Nec Romana magis complemur horrea terræ.—Lucan, III. lln. 65.

But the establishment of the feudal system in its worst form, and the unfavourable political and municipal regulations under which the island has lately been placed, have gone far to neutralise the advantages it owes to nature. The agriculturists of Sardinia principally consist of two great classes—those who cultivate small farms on the *métayer* principle, and those who work on the estates of others, getting, in most instances, a patch of land for their support, and cultivating it at such times as they are not employed on the lord's lands. Both classes are excessively poor. The agreements under which the former class hold are seldom for more than a year; the landlord furnishing the seed as well as the land, and receiving half the produce. Those who occupy land for which they are obliged to pay a rent in corvees, or other feudal services, are, if possible, still worse off; having usually to borrow the seed either from the landlord or from the *Monti Frumentarii* established for that purpose, and having also to defray the tithe and a host of other burdens. Another disadvantage under which all classes labour, is the want of houses on their farms: the peasants live together in villages, and have frequently to perform a journey of several miles in going to and coming from their farms.

Lands belonging to a canton or commune are frequently cultivated on a kind of partnership system, being divided into three portions: one of these, called *vidazzo*, comprises all the lands that are in cultivation, and which are distributed by lot among certain individuals, while the other two portions are occupied in common as pasture. But, as a new distribution takes place every year, it is plain that no individual can take any interest in the improvement of the soil; and this sort of tenure becomes, in fact, the most effectual that can be devised for the extinction of industry. Latterly, however, the government has been making efforts to promote the formation of inclosures and the division of the lands; which, though opposed by the prejudices of the people, have made some progress.—(Marmora, *Voyage en Sardaigne*, lib. v. cap. 1.)

Even these, however, are not perhaps the greatest discouragements to agriculture. As if to annihilate the possibility of the peasantry emerging from their depressed condition, and to oblige them to confine their industry to the supply of their indispensable wants, it has been enacted that no corn shall be exported if its price exceed 30 reals the *starello*; and a heavy duty is laid on all that is exported, as a substitute for a general land-tax. Most other articles of export have been loaded with similar duties; and it would really seem that every device that ignorance and short-sighted rapacity could suggest had been practised to reduce this "benignant nurse" of imperial Rome to a state of poverty and destitution.

Happily, however, as already seen, the bounty of nature has proved an overmatch for the perverse ingenuity of man; and such is the fertility of this fine island, that, notwithstanding the influence of the duty now referred to, and the wretched system of agriculture, it exports in good years considerable quantities of corn. The culture of the vine is gradually increasing in importance, and about 3,500 Catalan pipes are exported, chiefly from Alghero and Ogliastrò. Olive oil, owing to the little care taken in its preparation, and its consequent bad quality, has hitherto been but little exported; but it is susceptible of an indefinite increase, and might be made an important article. Tobacco is a royal monopoly, and brings about 7 million livres a year into the public treasury. Flax, linseed, saffron, hemp, and barilla are grown to some extent; silk is

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Amount

Amount of Duties.
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1,254 70
4,284 56
9 95
1 55
50,913 0
5 36
282 83
1,115 90
55,010 12
17,501 58
784 71
265 29
5,273 81
0 51
48,779 38
22 76
0 3
0 51
50,123 46

produced only in limited quantities, but its produce might, no doubt, be vastly increased; some cotton is produced, and also small quantities of madder, which last grows wild in the island. The mountains are clothed with forests of oak, beech, chestnut, and other timber; but, from the want of roads, these are nearly useless. The agricultural implements and processes are excessively rude. The Sardinian plough, the counterpart of that described by Virgil, does little more than scratch the ground. It is without a coulter, and is very frequently wholly constructed of wood. Oxen only are used in ploughing and other field labour. The corn is left in the fields till it be thrashed, an operation effected by the primitive practice of treading with horses and oxen.

We are glad, however, to have to state, that within the last few years some very important changes for the better have been introduced into the island, and that some of the worst of the abuses previously noticed have been obviated. In 1836, in pursuance of inquiries previously commenced, feudal jurisdictions were completely abolished; and since then the feudal system has been wholly subverted. And if, as it is to be hoped, government follow up the enlightened course of policy on which it has entered, by giving freedom to commerce, the probability is, that the island will, at no very remote period, recover a large share of its ancient prosperity. According to a law passed in 1839, all lands were declared to be the property of individuals, communes, or the crown; the latter becoming the possessor of all waste lands, or those to which neither private parties nor communes could show any title. Lands which had been cultivated or applied to use, whether inclosed or not, were assigned in perpetuity to the occupiers, undisturbed possession being held to confer a sufficient right to the property in the absence of any other title: those whose interests were at all affected by the new changes received compensation in money or lands, or by an assignment of public funded property. The king substituted himself in the place of the barons: he took all the feudal rents into his own hands; and their value being estimated at 20 years' purchase, public securities to the amount, bearing five per cent. interest, were made over to the nobles in exchange for the privileges of which they had been deprived. All kinds of vassalage were, at the same time, made redeemable; and courts of law placed under the direct control of the state were substituted in the place of the feudal jurisdictions where the barons were at once sultors and judges! It is impossible to overrate the importance of these changes; and there cannot be a doubt that they will have the greatest and most beneficial influence. — (*Von Raumer, Italy, &c. i. 295—301.*) We may, also, mention, in proof of the recent improvement of the island, that the population, which, in 1816, amounted to only 862,000, had increased, in 1838, to 524,633. A good road has been constructed, uniting Cagliari and Sassari, and cross roads have been carried from it to some of the more considerable places in the island. Stringent measures have recently, also, been adopted for the suppression of the banditti, with which the island has long been infested. And should these measures of improvement be properly carried out, the administration of justice simplified and freed from the abuses and venality by which it has long been disgraced, and all restraints on exportation abolished, it may be confidently predicted that Sardinia will gradually become more and more prosperous; that the revenues of the crown will be increased in a tenfold proportion; and that the population will cease to be conspicuous only for ferocity, idleness, and contempt of innovation. — (*See Geographical Dictionary, art. SARDINIA, and the authorities therein referred to.*)

CAJEPUT OIL, the volatile oil obtained from the leaves of the cajeput tree. (*Melaleuca Lencœulemtron* Lf.) The name is a corruption of the native term *cayu-puti*, that is, white-wood oil; because the bark of the tree which yields it has a whitish appearance, like our birch. This tree is common in Amboyna and other Eastern islands. The oil is obtained by distillation from the dried leaves of the smaller of two varieties. It is prepared in great quantities in Banda, and sent to Holland in copper flasks. As it comes to us it is of a green colour, very limpid, lighter than water, of a strong smell resembling camphor, and a strong pungent taste. It burns entirely away without leaving any residuum. It is often adulterated with other essential oils, coloured with resin of miffil. In the genuine oil, the green colour depends on the presence of copper; for, when rectified, it is colourless. — (*Thousson's Dispensatory.*)

Cajeput oil not being used except in the *matéria medica*, only small quantities are imported. In July, 1831, it sold in London at about 7d. an ounce; but as the idea having then got abroad that it was one of the most efficient remedies in cases of cholera, its price rose in November, 1831, to no less than 11s. an ounce! But it soon after fell into discredit with the faculty, and additional supplies having been obtained from Holland, its price declined almost as fast as it had risen. It is not at present (1843) worth more, in London, than from 4s. to 6s. an ounce.

CALAHAR SKIN (Fr. *Petit-gris*; Ger. *Grauwerk*; It. *Vaor, Vajo*; Rus. *Bjelka*; Sp. *Cela pequeño*), the Siberian squirrel skin, of various colours, used in making muffs, tippets, and trimmings for clothes.

CALAMANDER WOOD, a beautiful species of timber brought from Ceylon.

It is so hard that common edge-tools cannot work it, so that it must be rasped and almost ground into

shape. It is singularly remarkable for the variety and admixture of colours. The most prevailing is a fine chocolate, now deepening almost into absolute black, now fading into a medium between fawn and cream colour. It arrests the eye from the rich beauty of the intermingled tints, not from any undue showiness. It takes a very high polish and is wrought into chairs, and particularly into tables. Sir Robert Brownrigg, late governor of Ceylon, had the doors of the dining-room of his seat in Monmouthshire made of calamander. It is scarce in Ceylon, and is not regularly imported; all that is in Great Britain has been imported by private gentlemen, returning from the colony, for their own use. It is by far the most beautiful of all the fancy woods. The nearer it is taken from the root of the tree, the finer it is. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.; Lib. of Entertaining Knowledge, Vegetable Substance*, p. 173.)

CALCUTTA, the principal city of Bengal, the capital of the British dominions in India, and, with the exception perhaps of Canton, the greatest emporium to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. Its citadel is in lat. 23° 34' 49" N., long. 88° 27' 16" E. It is about 100 miles from the sea, being situated on the eastern bank of the western branch of the Ganges, denominated by Europeans the Hooghly River, which is the only arm of the Ganges navigable to any considerable distance by large ships. At high water the river opposite to the town is about a mile in breadth; but during the ebb the side opposite to Calcutta exposes a long range of dry sand banks. Owing to the length and intricacy of the navigation from the sea, it cannot be undertaken without a pilot; so that, even if it did not exceed our limits, it would be useless to attempt any description of it in this place. — (See the reduced *Plan of the Mouths of the Hooghly River*, in the *Mercator's Chart* in this work.)

In 1717 Calcutta was only a petty village; but it subsequently increased very rapidly, and was supposed towards the close of last century to have 600,000 or 700,000 inhabitants. This, however, was a gross exaggeration; and it appears, from a census taken in 1837, that the population of what is properly called the town amounted to only 229,700, composed as follows:—

	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
English	1,955	1,265	Chinese	18	18
Portuguese	2,500	1,796	Madrasites	30	25
French	1,715	1,375	Native Christians	30	19
Armenians	401	59	Hindus	85,145	52,506
Persians	465	171	Mohammedans	29,954	19,810
Indians	185	132	Low Castes	12,074	7,910
Nogals	314	193			
Arabs	32	8	Totals	144,993	84,812
Thugs	272	79	General Total	229,705	
	450	235			

A great part, however, of what may be fairly considered the population of Calcutta, consisting of labourers, mechanics, and persons engaged in trade, reside at night in the suburbs, or neighbouring villages; coming into town early in the morning to their respective employments. These were estimated, in 1847, on tolerably good data, at 177,000. The small number of English resident in Calcutta (where, however, they are far more numerous than in any other part of India,) may well excite surprise. It was supposed that the cessation of the Company's monopoly, and of the prohibition of European resort to India, would occasion an influx of British settlers and capital. But this anticipation has not been realised. Scarcely a single English agriculturist, with capital sufficient to cultivate 100 acres of land, has established himself in India, and there has been no immigration of artisans. And this, after all, is only what might have been expected; the country being too fully occupied, the burdens on the land too heavy, and the wages of labour far too low, to admit of anything like an extensive immigration. The Eurasians, the progeny of white fathers and native mothers, are mostly employed as clerks in the government offices and mercantile establishments; and are said to be an industrious and useful class. — (*Bengal and Agra Gazetteer*, vol. i. part iii. p. 10, &c.) The town, excluding suburbs, extends about 4½ miles along the bank of the river, with an average breadth inland of about 1½ mile. Fort William, the citadel, lies on the same side of the river, a little lower down. It is a strong regular fortification; but so extensive that it would require a garrison of 10,000 men for its effectual defence. Calcutta possesses great natural advantages for inland navigation; all sorts of foreign produce being transported with great facility on the Ganges and its subsidiary streams to the north western quarters of Hindostan, over a distance of at least 1,000 miles, while the productions of the interior are received by the same easy channels.

The principal merchants and traders consist of British and other Europeans, Portuguese born in India, Armenians, Jews, Persians from the coast of the Persian Gulph, commonly called Parses, Moguls, Mohammedans of Hindostan, and Hindoos; the latter usually either of the Drabimulaf or mercantile castes, and natives of Bengal. The native Portuguese and Armenian merchants have of late greatly declined in wealth and importance. On the other hand, the Persian merchants have increased in numbers and wealth, several of them being worth 250,000 sterling. The large fortunes of the Hindoo merchants have been much broken down of late years by litigation in the courts, and naturally through the law of equal coparcenary among brothers. To counterbalance this, there has been, since the opening of the free trade in 1814, a vast augmentation of the number of inferior merchants, worth from 200,000 to 50,000 sterling. There are but few Hindoo merchants at present whose wealth exceeds 200,000 sterling.

The principal foreign business is conducted in partnership with the English, or on their own especially to China. The brokers known under the general name of agency commission are as follow:—

	Per cent.		Per cent.
1. On the sale, purchase, or shipment of bullion, gold, dust, coin, jewellery, pearls, and precious stones	1	9. On making advances, or procuring loans of money for commercial purposes, when the aggregate commission does not exceed 5 per cent.	2½
2. On the purchase (when in funds) or sale of indigo, silk, and opium	2	10. On ordering goods or superintending the fulfilment of contracts, or on the shipment of a cargo where no commission except that of account is derived	2½
3. On purchasing do. when funds are provided by the agent	2½	11. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements, and on becoming security for administration of estates, for contracts and agreements, &c.; and to government, for the disbursements of public money, where the funds of the individuals are insufficient to cover risk	2½
4. On all sales or purchases of other goods	2	12. On del credere, or guaranteeing the due realization of sales	2
5. On the sale or purchase of ships, factories, houses, lands, and all property of a like description	2½	13. On execution, or administration to estate of deceased persons	2
6. On returns for consignments, if made in produce	2	14. On the management of estates for executors or administrators	2
7. On do. if in bills, bullion, or treasure	1	15. On chartering ships or engaging tonnage	2
8. On goods and treasure consigned, and on all other property of any description referred to agency for sale, which shall be afterwards withdrawn; and on goods consigned for conditional delivery to others, so as to be delivered; on invoice amount at the exchange of 2½ per cent.	1	16. On advertising as the agents of owners or comman-	2

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Liquid Measures.
 5 Tons = 1 Chittack.
 4 Chittacks = 1 Fouth, or picc.
 1 Munkin = 1 Beer.
 40 Beers = 1 Mound.
 5 Beers = 1 Pasaaree, or measure.
 8 Measures = 1 Bazaar mound.

Grain Measures.
 1 Ratt = 1 Ratt.
 4 Rattas = 1 Fatta = 9'08 the avoird.
 4 Rattas = 1 Roulia.
 20 Roulia = 1 Khaboon = 30 bs. mds.

Square Measures.
 5 Catta, or hata, in length = 1 Chittack, or 45 Feet (Eng. X 3 in breadth square).
 16 Chittacks = 1 Cotta.
 20 Cotta = 1 Bighah = 11,440 sq. ft.
 32 Bighahs = 1 English statute acre.

Long Measure.
 3 Barleycorn, or jow = 1 Finger. (halfy)
 4 Fingers = 1 Hand.
 2 Hands = 1 Span.
 2 Spans = 1 Cubit, or arm = 18 inches.
 4 Cubits = 1 Fathom.
 1 Fathom = 1 Fathom = 1 mile 1 furlong (3 poles 3/4) yards.
 1,000 Fathoms = 1,000 Fathoms.

Clath Measure.
 3 Jorbas = 1 Angula.
 3 Angulas = 1 Utherah.
 6 Utherahs = 1 Hast or outli = 18 inches.
 2 Haats = 1 gaa = 1 yard.

For Goods reckoned by Tola.
 5 Particulars = 1 flunda.
 4 Gundas, or 20 particulars = 1 Koorje, or 1 corpe.

Commercial Weights and Measures of India, with their Equivalents in English Avoirdupois, Bengal Factory, Madras, and Bombay Weights.

Commercial Measures, &c.	Avoirdupois.	Bengal Factory.	Madras.	Bombay.
Acheen bazaar of 100 catties	220 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0
— same of 100 neties	220 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0	15 0 0
Anjeung candy of 90 catties	260 0 0	7 30 0	28 8 8	20 0 0
Bazaar picul of 100 catties	133 0 0	1 32 10	5 6 10	4 55 28-4
Benecoven bazar	500 0 0	7 30 0	42 8 8	30 0 0
Bengal Factory mound	74 10 10-7	1 0 0	2 7 50-7	2 36 90
— bazaar mound	82 2 2-1	1 0 0	2 7 50-7	2 36 90
Bomlay candy of 20 mounds	360 0 0	7 30 0	22 3 8	20 0 0
Bussarah mound of 70 yaktas	30 4 0	1 0 0	1 3 4 50-9	1 8 27-9
Calcutt mound of 100 pools	20 0 0	0 15 4-3	1 3 4 50-9	1 8 27-9
China picul of 100 catties	133 0 0	1 34 6	5 6 10	4 55 28-4
Cochin candy of 20 mounds	543 8 0	7 11 2-6	21 5 36-6	19 16 12-9
Hombroon bazaar candy	7 8 0	0 4 0	0 8 16	0 10 21-4
Ice candy of 20 mounds	495 0 0	0 2 0	10 16	17 27 4-3
Jonckeyn bazar of 8 capins	495 0 5-3	6 30 0	19 8 12	17 15 10
Madras candy of 20 mounds	200 0 0	6 30 0	30 0 0	17 24 8-6
Malacca bazar of 3 piculs	600 0 0	7 16 15-3	16 1 24	12 18 17-1
Mocha bazar of 15 fraails	560 0 0	6 0 0	14 0 0	16 2 25-7
Muscat Custom-house mound	8 12 0	0 4 11	0 2 32	0 22 15
Nysoos candy of 7 moudas	560 0 0	7 30 0	22 3 8	20 0 0
Pegu candy of 150 vis	200 0 0	0 20 0	30 0 0	17 31 8-6
Penang picul of 100 catties	133 5 5-3	1 31 6	5 6 10	4 55 13-3
Perat mound of 60 seers	27 5 5-3	0 30 0	1 3 37-9	1 12 10
— Paces mound	74 10 10-7	1 0 0	2 7 50-7	2 36 90
Tellicherry candy of 20 mounds	500 0 0	1 0 0	24 0 0	21 17 4-3

Banks, Banking.—The paper currency of Calcutta is supplied as follows:—
 The Bank of Bengal was founded in 1826, and was chartered in 1829. Its capital has been increased to 1,000,000, sterling, divided into shares of 4,000 rupees each, and quarter shares, of which the East India Company hold a considerable number. The shares are now (1843) at a high premium. It is managed by nine directors; three appointed by government, and six elected by the proprietors: time of service, for the latter, three years. The secretary to government in the financial department, the accountant-general, and the sub-treasurer, are the *ex officio* government directors. The bank secretary and treasurer are also *ex officio* directors. This bank possesses peculiar advantages, its notes being received at all the public offices, in payment of revenue, by the collectors in all the districts below Benares; and, consequently, its circulation extends over a very large and the wealthiest portion of our Indian territory. The government being such considerable shareholders, too, it is generally supposed by the natives that the Bengal Bank is part and parcel thereof; and it enjoys, therefore, the same credit. The charter of 1829 limits the responsibility of the shareholders to the amount of their shares.

- The act of 1829 establishing the Bank of Bengal on its present footing, and the resolutions of the directors, provide—
1. That the bank shall discount no negotiable security that has a longer period than 3 months to run, or lend any money for a longer period than 3 months.
 2. That the directors shall make no loan or advance unless the cash in possession of the bank, and immediately available, be equal to one fourth part of all the outstanding claims against the bank payable on demand.
 3. That the bank shall not be at any time in advance to government more than 7½ lacs rupees.
 4. No account can be overdrawn.
 5. The bank may issue promissory notes payable on demand or at 30 days after sight, provided the total amount of such notes does not exceed 2 crores rupees, and that none of them be for a less sum than 10 rupees.
 6. The bank makes advances on goods not of a perishable nature; and it makes no charge for transacting the business of its customers, and allows no interest for the money in its hands.

The rates of discount, &c., vary, from time to time, with the state of the money market. In 1847 they were as follows:—
 Rates of Interest and Discount.—Discount.—On private bills and notes, at or within three months, 10 per cent.
 On government acceptances, at or within 3 months, 6 per cent.
 Interest charged.—On loans and accounts of credits not exceeding 5 months, and on deposit of Company's paper, 9 per cent.

The Union Bank was founded in 1829. It was, previously to its downfall, the only private bank in Bengal: the Bank of Hindostan, the Commercial Bank, and the Calcutta Bank, noticed in the first edition of this work, having all been discontinued. The capital of the Union bank was 1,000,000, sterling, divided into shares of 100, or 1000 rupees each, held by all classes of the community. Its notes circulated in Calcutta and its immediate neighbourhood. The main object of this establishment was to fill up the space in the money market, occasioned by the restrictions imposed on the Bank of Bengal by its charter.

We regret to have to add that this bank was obliged to suspend its payments in 1847; and that the disclosures that have since taken place show that its affairs had been most abominably mismanaged. The majority of its directors appear to have been deeply engaged in mercantile and other speculations; and they farther appear to have availed themselves, without scruple, of the funds of the bank to assist them in their enterprises, most part of which have proved to be of the most ruinous description. The depositors of money with the bank will be paid in full; but it is believed that the entire capital of the

bank will be lost; and it is even doubtful whether the shareholders may not be called upon for further advances to make good the debts that have been so recklessly incurred.

The Agra Bank, established in 1833, has a branch in Calcutta.

Pilgrage.—The navigation of the River Hooghly, from the Sand Heads to Calcutta, a distance of about 150 miles, is naturally dangerous and intricate; but rendered compar-

atively safe by a skilful and excellent, though costly pilot establishment.

Table of Rates of full and broken Pilgrage, chargeable to Ships and Vessels, inward and outward of the River Hooghly.

Draught of Water.	Full Pilgrage Inward.	Additional Pilgrage outward.	Inward Proportion.		Outward Proportion.	
			From Sea.	To Calcutta.	From Calcutta.	To Sea.
Feet.	£	£	To Rauger - - -	4 18ths	To Moorings or Fulla - -	3 18ths
9 to 10	11	1	To Kedgerie - - -	6 18ths	To Main harbour - - -	5 18ths
10 11	12	1	To Calcutte - - -	8 18ths	To Calcutte - - -	4 18ths
11 12	13	1	To Calcutte harbour - -	9 18ths	To Kedgerie - - -	4 18ths
12 13	14	1	To Fulla, or Moyapore -	10 18ths	To Rauger - - -	5 18ths
13 14	15	1	To Calcutta, full pilgrage.		To Sea, full pilgrage.	
14 15	16	2				
15 16	17	2				
16 17	18	3				
17 18	19	3				
18 19	20	4				
19 20	21	4				
20 21	22	5				
21 22	23	5				
22 23	24	6				

Note.—All foreign vessels pay the same pilgrage as those under British colours. By broken pilgrage is meant the proportion of full pilgrage between the different stages of places of anchorage. All ships, the property of foreigners, whether Asiatic or European, are subject to the charge termed "lead money;" it being indispensably necessary that the pilot should have with him a leadman in whom he can confide.

Detention money, at the rate of 4s. per diem, from British and foreign vessels, is charged by persons of the pilot service kept on board ships at anchor by desire of the commander or owner.

In the river before Calcutta, and in other parts, there are chain moorings, of which the charges are as follow:—

Burdens of Ships.	April to October, 7 months.			November to March, 5 months.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
500 tons and upwards	-	-	Per diem - -	0	15	0
Under 500 tons	-	-	Ditto - - -	0	14	0

Hire of the chain moorings at Diamond Harbour, 11. per diem. The lowest charge to a ship requiring the accommodation of the chain moorings at either of the places above mentioned, is for 10 days; and using them longer a farther charge is made at the established rate per diem for every day exceeding 10. The charge for transporting a ship from her moorings into any of the docks at Kidderpore, Howrah, or Sulkes, or from any of the docks to her moorings, is fixed at 50 rupees; and no higher charge for such service is authorised. Besides pilgrage, every ship is chargeable with the hire of a row-boat to accompany her, viz. for a boat of the first class, 14s. of the second class, 1s. and of the third class, 11s. Of late years a light-house has been erected at Kedgerie, for which the charge on British or American flags is at the rate of 5d. per ton per annum. Ships proceeding to Calcutta must land their gunpowder at the powder magazine at Moyapore; the charge is at the rate of 1d. per ton for each cask. The whole pilot establishment and the care of the navigation of the Hooghly is under the management of government, and is directed by a marine board, with a master attendant and harbour-master.

The Marine Board at Calcutta have issued the following regulations with respect to pilgrage, &c.

1. Commanders are requested, prior to quitting their vessels, or arrival off Calcutta, to fill up and certify, or cause to be filled up and certified, a form of certificate, showing the actual registered tonnage, the draught of water, and whether the vessel has or has not been tagged by a steamer any part of the way, or has or has not had the use of a row-boat; which form will be furnished to the pilot, in order to the bills of the vessels being correctly made out.

2. Commanders are further requested, as early after their arrival as possible, to notify in writing, to the master attendant, the name and residence of the reference for the payment of his vessel's bills.

On the receipt by the master attendant of the above certificate, and written reference for payment, a single bill will be prepared, including inward pilgrage, light-house duty, Moyapore magazine duty, and row-boat hire (if any), which, together with the certificate, will be forwarded to the marine board, for collection within 15 days of the arrival of the vessel, and having on it the name and residence of the party referred to for payment, which commanders are requested to furnish to the master attendant in writing, as early after their arrival as practicable, that officer will more readily be enabled to present it. In this arrangement, the charges connected with the vessel, up to her arrival off Calcutta, will be embodied in one bill, instead of, as hitherto, being made up in separate bills.

3. In the event of vessels docking, or being transported at the desire of the commander, it is requested that a certificate may be given by the commanding officer of the vessel, in case having been performed, in order to its accompanying the bill when presented for payment to the reference.

4. The practice of charging for hauling to the chain-moorings, for their monthly hire, and for hauling from the moorings, in separate bills, is discontinued, and henceforward one bill will be prepared, including the charge for hauling to the moorings, that for occupying them, and that for hauling from them; and commanders are requested to give, or cause their commanding officers to give, to the master attendant, or the harbour-master, certificates of the date of hauling to and from the moorings, which certificates, as before, will accompany the bill when presented for payment. The hire of the moorings will be charged for the day on which the vessel is hauled thereto, without reference to the period of the day; and in this manner, no charge will be made for the day on which she hauls from her moorings, however late in the day she may

quit them. The charges connected with the chain-moorings will thus be embodied in one bill, and be discharged in one payment, instead of three or more, according to the number of months the vessel occupied the moorings.

5. The system of charging outward pilgrage on an estimated draught of water, with an addition of 10 per cent., subject to adjustment after the vessel has sailed, and of charging a certain number of days for a row-boat, subject to the adjustments, is abolished; and in future the outward pilgrage and charge for row-boat hire on outward-bound vessels will be as follows:—

When the vessel is finally laden, the commander is to give notice thereof to the master attendant, when the draught of water is to be ascertained and certified, by the commander or commanding officer on the part of the vessel, and by the harbour-master on the part of government; subject, in case of dispute, to the decision of the master attendant. On receipt of the certificate, the master attendant will cause a bill to be made out for the regular amount of pilgrage, and for the row-boat hire, according to an average rate, with reference to the size of the vessels and the season of the year, fixed by a marine committee which lately sat at the Bank-hill, the majority of which was composed of members of houses of agency and commanders of ships. The bill and certificate will be presented in due course for payment.

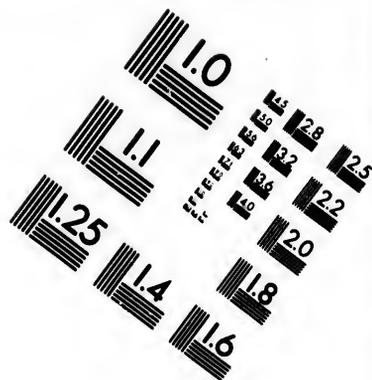
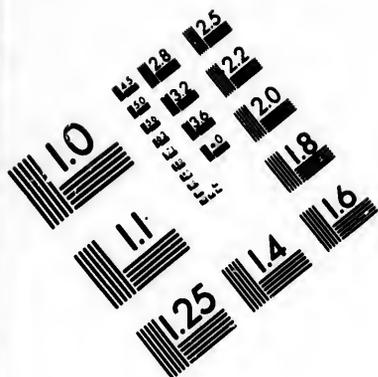
As, however, it frequently happens that vessels are taking in cargo or filling their water up to the last day of their departure, or that from other causes the bills for the chain-moorings and outward pilgrage cannot be made out till the eve of departure, owners, agents, and commanders are in such cases particularly requested, with a view to despatch, to cause an individual to attend at the Bank-hill, and expedite the transmission of the bill and certificate to the board for registry, and to the Pay Office for collection; at each of which offices they may in such cases depend upon the most ready and special attention.

6. In the event of a vessel being tagged any part of the way down by steam, or not having the use of a row-boat, commanders are to obtain from the pilot of Kedgerie a certificate to that effect, which they should forward by 10s. to their agents. On receipt thereof, agents are requested to make out a bill against the Honourable Company for the quarter deducted from the pilgrage allowed for the vessel, or for the row-boat hire paid, as the case may be; and to forward it, together with the certificate, to the marine board for audit and payment. 7. In cases where a vessel leaves Calcutta a vessel intended to fill up cargo at some place below, the pilgrage will be charged at the draught at which she sails from Calcutta, in the same way as if she had proceeded to sea; and, with respect to the subsequent pilgrage charge, from the place at which the vessel takes in her cargo, the owners or agents of vessels will be required to furnish a special guarantee to pay the amount chargeable according to a certificate of the draught of water signed by the commander, or commanding officer and pilot.

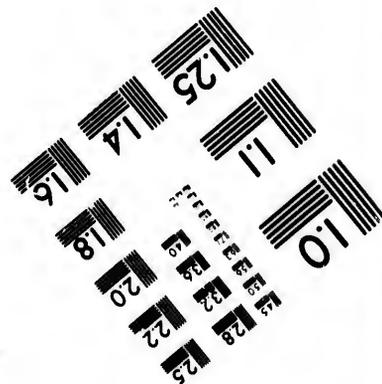
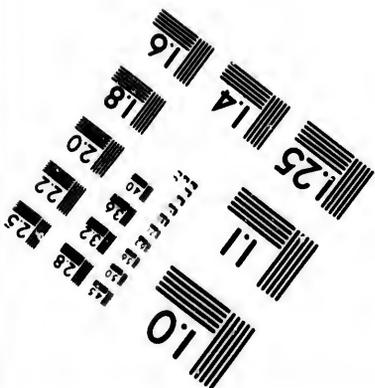
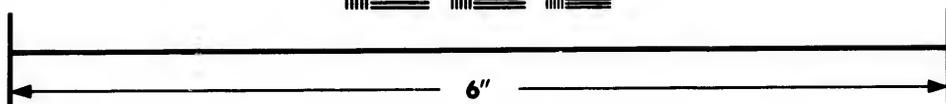
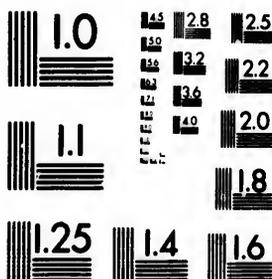
8. Six sets of moorings at Diamond Harbour having been fitted specially to enable vessels arriving in distress from loss of anchors and cables to be readily moored, the charge will be 6s. 6s. 10s. for mooring and unmooring, and the daily hire the same as for the moorings at Calcutta. The mooring will, of course, be available to vessels not in distress from loss of anchors and cables; but the harbour-master will be instructed at all times to keep two sets vacant during the N.W. monsoon, to meet casualties.

9. There are several dry docks at Calcutta, in which vessels of any size may be built or repaired. Ships built at Calcutta are of inferior durability to those constructed at Bombay, in con-





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Remarks on the above Duties.—The policy of charging duties on exported articles seems very questionable. The great difficulty under which India labours, in a commercial point of view, consists principally in her inability to furnish equivalents for foreign imported goods, and to make the necessary payments abroad; and, when such is the case, it is certainly not a little contradictory to lay duties on the exports. The most obvious considerations of expediency and common sense would suggest that they should be allowed to be exported duty free. There can be no doubt that the stimulus this would give to their production would, by increasing the public wealth, infinitely more than compensate the government for the loss of the inconsiderable sum produced by the duties with which they are charged.

Trade of Calcutta. Exports.—During the last 30 years the trade of Calcutta has experienced some very striking vicissitudes. Previously to the opening of the trade in 1814-15, cotton piece goods formed the principal article of export from India; the value of those exported from Calcutta, at an average of the 5 years from 1814-15 to 1818-19, being (at 2s. per sicca rupee) 1,360,735*l.* a year. The extreme cheapness of labour in India, and the excellence to which the natives had long attained in several departments of the manufacture, would, it might have been supposed, have sufficed to place this important department beyond the reach of foreign competition. But the wonderful genius of our mechanists, the admirable skill of our workmen, and our immense capital, have far more than counterbalanced the apparently insuperable drawback of high wages, and the expense of bringing the raw material of the manufacture from America, and even India itself; and have enabled our manufacturers to bear down all opposition, and to triumph over the cheaper labour, contiguous material, and traditional art of the Hindoos. The imports of British cottons and twist into India have increased since 1814-15, with a rapidity unexampled in the annals of commerce; and the native manufacture has sustained a shock from which it is not very likely it will ever recover. The influence of these circumstances on the trade in piece goods has been very striking. During the year 1841-42, the value of those exported from Bengal was no more than 17,692*l.*, being only about one seventeenth part of what it amounted to 30 or 35 years previously.

It will be seen, from the subjoined account, that the importation of Bullion at Calcutta has fluctuated in an extreme degree since the opening of the trade in 1814. Bullion had from the earliest period been one of the most advantageous articles of export to the East; and it continued to be largely imported into Calcutta down to 1837-38. But from that period the imports rapidly declined, and were comparatively inconsiderable down to 1837-38; indeed, in 1831-32, and 1832-33, the exports of bullion exceeded the imports; but since 1837-38 its importation has again become very considerable, principally, it is believed, in consequence of the glut and low price of British products in the market.

It does not, however, appear to be very difficult to account for these variations. Formerly the export of bullion to India, though influenced by other causes, was mainly occasioned by the difficulty under which we were then placed of providing articles of merchandise suitable for the Indian markets sufficient to balance our exports. The increasing increase of our exports of cotton goods and yarn to India has, however, gone far to obviate this difficulty; in truth, the fair presumption seems to be, that in future the circumstances of the case will be reversed, and that the difficulty of procuring return cargoes of produce suitable for our markets will, in ordinary years, be found to be the principal obstacle to the extension of our trade with Hindostan as well as with China. There seems to be no limit, other than the necessity of furnishing equivalents to their stead, to the indefinite sale of our products in the East. And, in so far, at least, as India is concerned, the facilities for furnishing such equivalents will, most likely, be gradually increased. The soil and climate of Bengal seem to be peculiarly well suited to the production of grain, sugar, indigo, opium, silk, cotton, saltpetre, and a host of other articles. And as the inhabitants are not deficient in industry, nor in a desire to improve their condition, it would seem that there wants only a reduction of the land-tax, which is so heavy as to paralyze all their energies, to enable them to increase their articles of export to an indefinite extent, and to render the country comparatively flourishing and prosperous.

Statement, showing the Imports and Exports of Treasure to and from the Presidency of Bengal, and to and from British India generally, in each Year from 1814-15 to 1839-40. (See Account No. 2. in Appendix 42. to Lords' Report on the Petition of the East India Company.)

Years.	BENGAL.				INDIA.			
	Imports.	Exports.	Ex. Imports.	Ex. Exports.	Total Imports.	Total Exports.	Ex. Imports.	Ex. Exports.
	<i>Rupess.</i>							
1814-15	1,06,30,444	1,24,625	1,05,31,819	-	1,46,87,114	9,06,934	1,37,80,160	-
1815-16	1,30,54,077	1,71,740	1,30,18,339	-	1,49,10,669	9,00,739	1,40,19,933	-
1816-17	3,16,81,955	1,69,000	3,15,84,985	-	4,16,07,000	4,53,332	4,11,51,668	-
1817-18	3,90,37,089	517,920	3,17,08,779	-	4,34,38,308	6,87,136	4,27,51,172	-
1818-19	4,71,09,494	3,75,536	4,69,13,956	-	5,74,88,818	8,5,819	6,74,07,999	-
1819-20	4,06,46,025	20,98,921	3,75,47,104	-	4,65,11,010	39,04,602	4,56,06,406	-
1820-21	3,56,17,941	1,15,263	3,44,71,878	-	5,57,15,022	15,15,837	3,10,94,185	-
1821-22	3,14,44,486	1,83,96,395	30,64,411	-	3,91,69,691	2,00,54,290	1,61,15,401	-
1822-23	1,70,68,408	15,945	1,70,66,507	-	5,47,96,122	5,38,933	3,24,37,189	-
1823-24	1,45,93,480	2,65,898	1,45,93,598	-	5,11,47,711	98,54,833	1,13,80,538	-
1824-25	94,92,349	18,09,497	77,98,732	-	5,08,50,836	44,38,668	1,81,24,168	-
1825-26	1,04,99,973	1,39,704	1,04,71,268	-	5,39,86,111	54,34,689	1,85,81,422	-
1826-27	48,68,768	11,18,039	11,17,596	-	4,77,65,897	30,55,454	3,95,88,443	-
1827-28	1,41,36,548	44,80,987	96,58,565	-	5,61,60,175	90,98,073	3,00,68,100	-
1828-29	65,88,598	17,65,193	47,95,533	-	3,07,48,341	48,57,310	1,86,75,193	-
1829-30	98,10,334	18,40,223	11,69,938	-	4,18,55,411	95,20,022	1,33,86,399	-
1830-31	60,18,147	33,05,033	37,07,118	70,00,638	1,75,08,332	60,58,182	1,19,60,650	-
1831-32	53,44,838	17,40,779	-	36,62,453	1,18,38,260	1,75,90,488	-	55,67,983
1832-33	31,71,083	14,25,325	-	-	1,14,47,071	1,07,06,694	-	15,39,423
1833-34	56,94,766	24,75,297	39,09,459	-	1,47,64,423	66,44,868	1,31,21,566	-
1834-35	64,68,418	30,99,849	33,97,565	-	1,07,65,053	99,26,948	1,77,10,773	-
1835-36	68,71,687	3,69,994	63,05,693	-	2,01,19,006	30,39,340	1,07,36,433	-
1836-37	61,25,474	18,18,184	45,14,110	-	3,03,51,673	30,89,340	1,77,24,333	-
1837-38	1,04,46,880	14,43,337	91,81,543	-	3,45,01,653	3,46,94,430	3,46,94,430	-
1838-39	1,31,30,314	18,47,600	1,05,62,714	-	3,61,09,195	34,79,038	3,66,30,137	-
1839-40	1,32,67,867	30,00,174	1,04,67,693	-	1,91,58,649	47,05,431	1,47,47,411	-
	39,20,01,668	5,48,36,741	33,47,28,011	1,05,65,090	69,21,14,489	12,60,78,522	37,28,38,383	67,07,346

At present (1840) the great articles of export from Calcutta are Indigo, opium, sugar, raw silk and silk piece goods, saltpetre, rice, hides, cotton and cotton piece goods, gunny bags and gunny cloth, rum, &c. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities and Values of the Native Produce and Treasure exported from Calcutta during the Official Years 1844-5 and 1845-6.

Merchandise.	1844-5.		1845-6.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		Rs. per.		Rs. per.
Opium	18,792 2/3	2,45,54,592	20,481 2/3	2,79,59,660
Indigo	1,28,454	2,40,04,018	1,03,334	1,25,54,867
Sugar	15,39,117 1/2	1,46,91,956	18,29,374 1/2	1,79,63,188
Saltpetre	5,55,976 1/2	21,60,027	5,18,260 1/2	50,08,497
Rice	25,77,545	35,04,051	35,45,923	34,36,201
Paddy	995	798	1,197	823
Wheat	1,64,022	2,45,243	1,67,414	2,97,019
Gram	65,378	76,326	1,02,263	1,21,840
Dhol and peas	49,590	64,054	44,548	69,637
Ons	6,538	4,628	8,568	11,818
Flour	14,528 1/2	34,328	4,492 1/2	11,087
Barley	200	200	20	20
Brum	449	449	2,027	2,027
Raw cotton	2,01,874 1/2	20,18,745	95,771	9,25,164
Raw silk	22,543	29,20,087	19,169 1/2	76,43,461
Cotton piece goods (country)	1,84,298	1,95,727	1,85,758	1,86,037
Rilk piece goods	8,71,488	47,46,685	8,48,879	48,70,137
Mixed piece goods	4,79,357	5,64,928	4,70,038	5,84,550
Country woollens	15,085	1,98,949	17,433	1,30,374
Arrowroot	148	5,782	1,232	5,419
Box and tinnet	4,833	46,996	8,218	1,06,121
Caster oil	22,701	2,37,608	21,733 1/2	2,17,245
Cocotinous	123	133	133	133
Canvas	2,540	17,435	2,918	24,540
Elephants' teeth	1,034	15,811	807 1/2	26,569
Uice	1,964	20,878	4,191 1/2	81,891
Singee	13,670	63,575	17,254	85,614
Gummy bags	60,20,180	6,59,280	56,14,712	6,70,905
Tummy cloth	21,223	95,354	4,983	21,248
Hemp (twine)	15,720	1,5,720	4,433	89,778
Hemp	16,127	26,381	7,772 1/2	31,479
Flies of all sorts	81,37,850	26,29,737	28,74,018	33,78,750
Hera size	18,698	17,829	4,084	39,739
Jute	2,29,705	2,75,823	2,23,497 1/2	4,35,181
Lac dye	28,598	44,133	17,254	3,56,414
Shell	49,628 1/2	5,21,988	25,174 1/2	2,99,199
Seed	638	9,235	846 1/2	9,254
Stick	815	1,083	1,531	2,050
Linnseed	2,44,784 1/2	4,29,731	2,55,916	5,11,981
Molasses	55,999	29,180	26,838	1,23,959
Munjeet	3,926	15,353	2,383	8,333
Mustard seed	61,671 1/2	1,33,243	1,20,202	2,40,197
Mustard oil	761 1/2	5,543	450	1,153
Patchouli	8,368 1/2	67,033	1,15,247	1,15,247
Provisions and lard	6,29,563	27,277	7,69,554 1/2	93,811
Rum (Hengal)	21,523	2,58,201	20,298 1/2	2,86,290
Safflower	Ind. mda.	2,19,391	90,298 1/2	4,21,811
Sel ammoniac	714 1/2	9,378	60 1/2	8,478
Soup	8,858	28,268	4,433	25,560
Sugars	8,858	27,448	8,858	1,03,605
Tallow	9,994	71,826	4,823	60,454
Tel seed	21,574 1/2	4,120	10,990	10,990
Tel seed oil	4,280	28,080	6,283 1/2	48,787
Tobacco leaf	5,739	29,878	11,278 1/2	31,227
Turmeric	36,488	28,884	31,211	33,241
All other exports		4,56,209		5,11,070
Total exports Company's rupees		6,50,77,561		9,64,29,220
Goods re-exported		48,24,317		48,23,711
Treasure exported		29,15,434		26,74,427
Grand total private exports		10,33,17,312		10,44,87,358

1844-5. 1845-6.
 Specie exported by the Hon. Company - 19,50,000 Co's rupees. 14,00,000 Co's rupees.

Remarks on Exports. — The reader will elsewhere find (articles CANON and OPIUM) pretty ample information in relation to the trade in opium. It is sufficient here to state that it has rapidly grown in magnitude and importance. At an average of the years 1830-31 and 1831-32 the exports from Calcutta were 7,273 chests, worth 1,121,560*l*.; whereas during the year 1845-46 the exports had increased to 20,481 chests, worth 2,795,366*l*. China is not the principal merely, but almost the only market for opium; so that the trade between Calcutta and her is now second only to that between the former and England. It is true that large quantities of opium are shipped for Singapore and other intermediate ports, but China is its ultimate destination. Subjoined is a

Statement of the Quantity and Value of the Opium shipped from Calcutta in 1830-31, 1840-41, and 1845-46.

	1830-31.		1840-41.		1845-46.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
To China	5,672	65,91,747	5,828	29,47,748	16,373	2,24,15,945
Singapore	1,226	18,37,809	10,222	70,06,833	3,270	47,13,936
Batavia	163	2,78,730	50	24,560	212	2,76,125
Pacu	3	4,860	79	29,079	31	1,12,778
Elsewhere	8	7,900	8	1,280	1 par.	40,723
	7,099	1,07,15,001	17,358	1,13,90,518	1 par. 20,481	2,79,59,660

Previously to the close of the American war, the exports of Indigo from Calcutta were comparatively trifling. But about that period Europeans began to engage in the business; and the culture of the plant was, in consequence, so much extended, and the preparation of the drug so much improved, that it has been for a lengthened period an article of primary commercial importance. Of late years, however, the growth of indigo appears to have been nearly stationary; the shipments in 1830-31 and 1831-32 being about equal to those in 1840-41 and 1845-46. This stationary state of the trade has been ascribed

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partly to the influence of the importations from Java, where indigo is now very extensively raised, and partly to the alleged decrease in the use of blue cloth. France is, next to England, the great market for indigo.

Statement of the Quantity and Value of the Indigo shipped from Calcutta in 1830-31, 1840-41, and 1845-46.

	1830-31.		1840-41.		1845-46.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Great Britain - Ind. mds.	85,741	85,74,109	74,806	1,65,31,074	67,759	1,87,55,487
France - - - - -	23,161	23,16,100	30,380	40,36,366	68,294	53,77,509
North America - - -	5,899	5,89,900	4,328	9,45,268	1,669	8,41,516
Arabian and Persian Gulphs -	10,329	10,32,900	5,053	9,64,414	5,153	5,67,554
Bombay - - - - -	550	55,000	637	1,87,499	130	55,490
Madras - - - - -	843	84,300	906	41,256	-	-
Bengal - - - - -	-	-	791	16,775	658	1,08,451
Bihar - - - - -	33	5,300	-	-	-	-
Total mds.	1,36,556	1,36,55,600	1,15,963	2,47,11,609	1,03,583	1,95,54,667
Being in lbs.	9,444,241½		8,601,557½		6,919,472	
- - - - -	<i>cont. lbs.</i>		<i>cont. lbs.</i>		<i>cont. lbs.</i>	
Quantity shipped for Great Britain only - - - - -	4,216 5 5½		3,529 10 69½		3805 6 80	
- - - - -	2,856 8 56½		2,805 8 56½		2489 8 13½	

We had occasion to remark, in the former edition of this work, that of the various articles brought from India, sugar seemed to be the one in which an increase of importation would most likely take place. We have not been disappointed in this expectation. In 1835, the duty on East India sugar, which had previously been comparatively high, was reduced to the same amount as that on West India sugar; and that circumstance, and the continued high price of sugar in this country, could not fail to give a powerful stimulus to its culture in and exportation from India. On the whole, however, great as the increase in the exports of sugar has been, we are rather surprised that it has not been decidedly greater; and we doubt, when the sugar trade is placed on a proper footing, by the abolition of the discriminating duties on foreign sugars, whether the importations from India will not be reduced.

Subjoined is a

Statement of the Quantity and Value of the Sugar shipped from Calcutta in 1830-31, 1840-41, and 1845-46.

	1830-31.		1840-41.		1845-46.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Great Britain - Ind. mds.	917,271	17,26,376	17,17,280	1,56,80,829	16,31,263½	1,74,19,568
Sweden - - - - -	5,078	51,800	-	-	-	5,800
Bombay - - - - -	15,478	1,08,478	48,131	5,40,583	2,677	30,919
Arabian and Persian Gulphs -	35,411	1,79,438	6,674	97,170	9,667	20,919
Madras - - - - -	1,277	1,27,700	351	3,053	548	5,285
Ceylon - - - - -	986	9,860	1,384	9,558	788	7,475
Pen - - - - -	892	8,920	240	1,864	205	2,050
Madagascar - - - -	263	2,630	-	-	487	4,870
New Holland - - - -	475	3,567	5,056	55,978	3,013	18,713
Cape and St. Helena -	863	6,900	3,053	10,837	1,832	10,233
Malabar - - - - -	248	2,480	-	-	150	1,500
Total mds.	2,87,178	31,25,027	17,84,791½	1,64,66,690	18,39,374½	1,76,68,166
Being in lbs.	21,941,582½		146,576,901½		181,554,246½	
- - - - -	<i>cont. lbs.</i>		<i>cont. lbs.</i>		<i>cont. lbs.</i>	
Quantity shipped for Great Britain only - - - - -	2,795 6 110½		63,455 14 13½		67,668 17 23½	
- - - - -	7,968 8 23½		69,900 18 25½		67,870 17 100½	

The exports of cotton from Calcutta continue stationary; and the expectations that it would be improved in its quality by greater attention being given to its culture and preparation, have not been realised.

The exports of saltpetre from India, have not, as many anticipated, been affected by the competition of nitrate of soda from South America. In 1830-31 the exports from Calcutta were 424,729 fact. maunds; whereas, in 1845-46, they amounted to 618,560½ maunds.

The exports of rice from Bengal fluctuate very greatly. This is not caused so much by variations in the crops of the country, as by variations in those of other countries; for, when a scarcity occurs in most parts of continental Asia, or in any of its islands, recourse is almost invariably had to Bengal to supply the deficiency; and the demands thence arising have been sometimes enormous. In 1831-32, for example, the exports of rice from Calcutta to the coast of Coromandel amounted to only 16,548 maunds, whereas in 1833-34, they amounted to 1,252,096 maunds.—(*Bell's Comparative View of 1832-33, and 1833-34, p. 41.*) It is worthy of remark, that while Bengal is shipping immense supplies of rice and other grain to distant parts, a large part of her own population is frequently in a state of great want and suffering. Ireland is not, therefore, the only country in which the most abject poverty and wretchedness on the part of the inhabitants, are found combined with great fertility of soil, and a large exportation of food.

Besides the articles of native Indian produce exported from Calcutta, she re-exports pretty considerable quantities of various articles brought from other parts. The value of the British cotton goods re-exported amounts to about 200,000*l.* a year. They are principally bartered with the Burmese for silver. The conveyance of the latter out of the Burmese dominions is strictly prohibited; but in Burma, as in England and elsewhere, the ingenuity of the smuggler is too much for the vigilance of the government, and the trade is carried on without much difficulty.

Imports.—The great articles of import into Calcutta are, British cotton manufactures and cotton twist; bullion; copper with spelter, tin, lead, iron, and other metals; woollens; wines and spirits; ale and beer; haberdashery, millinery, &c.; coffee; hardware and cutlery; spices; coal; coral, glass, and bottles; plate, jewellery, watches, &c.; books and stationery; tea, &c.

Statement exhibiting the Proportion of the external Commerce of Bengal enjoyed by each Country and State during the Years 1844-45 and 1845-46.

Countries.	Import Trade.				Export Trade.			
	1844-45.		1845-46		1844-45.		1845-46.	
	Value.	Per Cent.	Value.	Per Cent.	Value.	Per Cent.	Value.	Per Cent.
Europe.								
United Kingdom	4,87,90,996	62-4	4,18,28,750	65-2	3,37,09,995	59-0	3,10,35,636	49-4
France	16,33,490	2-1	9,90,099	1-5	75,96,801	7-3	66,43,179	6-8
Holland	6,64,909	8-7	4,15,604	6-7	-	-	1,35,055	0-5
Denmark	15,128	-	8,504	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal	1,38,417	1-8	-	-	-	-	-	-
Antwerp	-	-	63,068	0-1	-	-	-	-
	5,10,81,768	66-4	6,30,28,099	68-3	6,18,35,896	59-5	3,86,35,870	56-0
Asia.								
Cornmandal Coast	18,06,323	23-0	18,96,129	29-9	16,65,869	1-6	20,76,867	2-0
Ceylon	1,05,303	0-1	1,54,983	0-2	3,99,254	0-4	3,01,562	0-3
Malabar Coast	10,76,794	13-9	23,77,368	3-6	15,99,703	1-4	28,42,065	3-7
Madras and Laccadives	1,78,987	0-2	1,53,212	0-2	89,687	0-1	65,888	0-1
Arabian and Persian Gulpha	0,47,483	0-0	10,42,491	1-6	20,16,361	0-0	10,52,323	1-9
China	1,10,88,132	15-3	63,42,780	10-4	3,18,97,297	31-2	3,36,89,508	31-7
Bengal	6,63,953	8-7	56,20,324	9-3	4,07,074	6-6	3,19,016	3-3
Penang and Malacca	8,71,882	11-3	8,29,206	1-4	7,17,333	0-7	5,46,171	0-8
Java and Sumatra	46,905	0-1	36,114	0-1	4,27,006	0-4	3,47,478	0-3
Moulta	47,490	0-1	-	-	-	-	200	0-0
New Holland	1,36,891	0-2	2,06,120	0-4	22,270	-	54,763	0-1
Papa	1,63,172	2-0	1,67,071	2-7	11,28,803	2-1	20,05,257	1-9
	9,33,80,760	30-6	1,79,75,722	28-6	3,55,07,158	57-5	3,92,30,180	37-6
Africa.								
Mauritius	1,72,065	0-2	2,66,863	0-4	34,40,146	5-3	54,45,372	3-3
Bourbon	2,87,413	0-3	6,21,804	0-7	4,36,329	0-4	6,70,507	0-8
Cape and St. Helena	20,538	-	25,109	-	96,149	0-1	1,77,310	0-2
	4,97,061	0-7	7,25,776	1-1	39,25,504	2-8	62,91,889	4-1
America.								
North America	15,97,851	2-1	6,29,475	1-3	25,54,066	3-4	24,39,607	3-3
South America	1,59,478	0-2	2,98,125	0-5	26,310	-	1,522	-
	17,37,709	2-3	11,81,700	1-8	25,79,376	2-4	24,42,129	2-3
	7,89,95,288	10-0	6,59,11,297	10-0	10,35,17,919	10-0	10,44,27,428	10-0

Statement of Import and Export Tonnage for the Years 1844-45 and 1845-46.

Import Vessels.	1844-45.		1845-46.		Export Vessels.	1844-45.		1845-46.	
	No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.		No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.
British Imports.					British Exports.				
From United Kingdom direct, via Cape and Madras	222	1,06,200	267	1,36,273	Cleared out for U.K. direct, and via Cape and Madras	254	1,21,563	292	1,40,290
Foreign Europe	9	8,239	6	1,890	Foreign Europe	-	-	1	331
North America	-	183	1	170	West India (Demamra)	-	-	1	149
North America	-	-	-	336	Cape of Good Hope	1	190	4	999
Cape of Good Hope	-	-	6	1,033	Mauritius	73	24,055	91	25,729
Bahia	1	888	-	-	Arabian and Persian	12	7,261	26	20,295
Mauritius and Bourbon	48	11,074	48	22,228	Ceylon	-	-	13	5,241
Arabian and Persian	18	11,023	43	23,528	Australia	2	374	3	623
Gulpha	14	6,087	11	6,223	China and Singapore	68	24,795	43	13,947
Ceylon	-	-	-	436	Penang, Malacca, and Singapore	16	4,238	26	6,842
Australia	1	1,131	1	1,131	Pagu, Moulmein, and Ran- goun	39	4,663	40	5,843
China and Singapore	48	14,238	45	14,749	Bombay and Malabar coast	54	16,968	30	14,890
Penang, Malacca, and Sin- gapore	26	6,899	36	9,590	Madras and Coromandel coast	30	8,932	24	11,349
Pagu, Moulmein, and Ran- goun	37	8,107	47	9,239	Khyok Phyo	1	60	3	302
Bombay and Malabar coast	61	27,879	46	20,787	Aracan and Mergal Dhonnies or native coasting vessels, called Choolah and Telingah	83	1,757	110	6,917
Madras and Coromandel coast	29	11,114	28	10,509	Laccadive Islands	4	270	10	365
Java from Mergal and Ragoun	1	110	2	212	Bahore and Cutch	6	231	14	494
Sandaway, Khyok Phyo, and Chintag	10	1,823	7	618	Total export British vessels	599	9,27,759	725	9,69,690
Dhonnies from the Cornmandal coast, called Choolah and Telingah	47	4,043	94	9,234	Foreign Exports.				
Laccadive and Ceylon Islands	9	914	13	1,183	Cleared out for Foreign Europe, France, &c.	16	8,559	29	9,121
Bahore and Cutch	54	15,124	326	17,604	Spanish vessels for China	3	278	27	12,661
					North America (U. S.)	21	9,221	27	12,661
Total import British vessels	535	2,41,209	1,080	2,66,124	Bourbon	36	7,610	33	11,997
Foreign Imports.					Danish vessel	-	-	1	414
From Foreign Europe, France, &c.	28	9,826	19	6,381	Gulpha	2	807	2	710
North America (U. S.)	19	8,053	23	11,026	Java and Sumatra	3	272	3	614
Bahora and Padang	6	1,727	4	1,195	Hainia	6	3,103	3	1,056
Foreign Vessels from China and Singapore	3	1,066	1	328	Burmese vessels for Ran- goun	1	110	1	250
Portuguese vessels from	1	427	-	-	Dhonnies for the Maldiva Islands	11	1,059	12	1,103
Ranoun	20	2,618	37	11,537	American vessels for China	3	608	5	1,099
Mauritius and Bourbon	-	-	-	504	Total export foreign vessels	89	29,184	114	32,075
Arabian and Persian	12	5,614	1	504	Total export vessels under British and foreign flags	688	2,55,222	839	3,00,695
China	1	379	2	1,056					
Danish vessel	-	-	1	240					
Burmese vessels from Nan- goun	1	150	2	373					
Dhonnies from the Maldiva Islands	13	1,370	8	849					
Total import Foreign vessels	103	31,247	99	31,030					
Total import vessels under British and Foreign bot- tom	1,038	2,72,456	1,179	3,00,054					

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Account of the Receipts at the Calcutta Sea Custom-House in 1840-41.

	Government Duty.	Godown Rent.	Fees and Fines.	Miscel- laneous.	Charges refunded.	Contri- butions.	Total.
On imports	37,88,960	31,155	801	1,054	17,154	490	39,45,565
On exports	11,65,195	-	-	-	-	-	11,65,195
	49,55,155	31,155	801	1,054	17,154	490	80,08,799
Add revenue derived from Chittagong and Cuttack custom-houses							11,737
Total Company's rupees							40,80,517
Deduct charges							5,63,331
Net revenue from customs in Bengal in 1840-41							44,27,186

Failures at Calcutta.—During the 3 years ending with 1833, some of the principal mercantile establishments in this city failed for immense sums. To examine minutely into the origin of these disasters would lead us into inquiries foreign to the object of this work, and with respect to which it is difficult to acquire accurate information. We believe, however, that the main source of the evil was the combination, by most of the principal houses, of the business of merchants with that of bankers. Their credit being high, at the end of the war large sums were deposited in their hands, for which they engaged to pay a high rate of interest. But instead of employing these deposits, as bankers in England would have done, in the discount of bills at short dates, or in the purchase of government securities readily convertible into money, they employed them, probably because they could with difficulty dispose of them otherwise, in all manner of mercantile speculations,—advancing very large sums to the indigo planters, exporting goods to Europe, either directly on their own account, or indirectly by lending to those who did,—becoming owners of Indian shipping, &c. Most of these speculations turned out exceedingly ill. The production of indigo was so much increased, partly in consequence of the large capitals turned to the business, and partly of the high prices in England, that “fine blue violet,” which had brought, in the London market, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1827, from 12s. 10d. to 13s. 4d. per lb., fell, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1833, to 6s. 5d. to 6s. 4d. per lb., and other sorts in proportion. At these prices the production would not pay; and very heavy losses were sustained, and much capital sunk, by the planters and those who had supplied them with funds to extend their undertakings. The investments in Indian shipping turned out even worse than those in the indigo plantations, the shipping of England having nearly driven that of India out of the field. The embarrassment occasioned by this locking up of their capital, and by the ruinous nature of the adventures in which they were embarked, began to manifest itself simultaneously with the scarcity of money occasioned by the drains on account of the Burmese war. The great mercantile houses began then to find that they were entangled in difficulties from which they were wholly unable to extricate themselves. After struggling on, some for a longer and some for a shorter period, most of them subsequently failed, the greater number for very large sums.

But, however distressing in the mean time, the embarrassment and want of confidence arising from the failures alluded to were not of long continuance; and have, in the end, been advantageous. It is of the utmost consequence that the vicious combination of the business of a merchant with that of a banker should be put an end to. It is singular, indeed, that individuals should be found willing to intrust large sums in the hands of those who, they are aware, are employing them in the most hazardous adventures. The higher the interest promised by such persons, the greater ought to be the caution of the public in dealing with them.

Internal Transit Duties.—A very great improvement has been effected, since the publication of the first edition of this work, in the domestic economy of our Indian empire, by the abolition of the duties on the transit of goods from one part of the country to another. These duties had existed in India from a very remote period; and, by obstructing the intercourse between its different districts, were singularly pernicious. After the East India Company began to acquire a footing in India, they availed themselves of a favourable opportunity to procure an exemption from the transit-duties in favour of their own trade; “the goods which they imported being allowed to pass into the interior, and those which they purchased for exportation in the interior being allowed to pass to the sea, without either stoppage or duties.” (*Mill’s India*, 8vo. ed., vol. iii. p. 289.) They were not, however, long permitted to monopolise this privilege. Immediately after the victories of Clive had raised the company to the situation of a great territorial power, their servants engaged largely in the inland trade, and endeavoured, partly by fraud and partly by force, to extend to their own goods the exemption from transit duties established in favour of those belonging to the company. Every reader of Indian history is aware of the multiplied abuses and disturbances that grew out of this attempt of the company’s servants to release themselves from duties and charges that pressed with grinding severity on the natives, and, by consequence, to engross (for such was their object) the whole internal trade of the country. The company endeavoured to obviate the evil by strictly forbidding its servants from engaging in internal traffic. But its orders to this effect were long either totally disregarded, or but very imperfectly obeyed. At length, in 1788, Lord Cornwallis adopted the decisive and judicious measure of abolishing the duties. They were, however, again renewed in 1801. The exclusion of Englishmen from all participation in the interior traffic of the country having been gradually carried into complete effect for a lengthened period, they were less alive than they would otherwise have been to the injurious influence of the duties, so that their re-establishment met with comparatively little opposition. In 1810 a new tariff was introduced, by which the duties were triflingly augmented; and they continued from that epoch down to their recent abolition seriously to obstruct all sorts of internal traffic, and to oppose the most formidable obstacle to the improvement of the country.

Had the inland transit duties been productive of a large amount of revenue, that would have been some set-off against the enormous evils of which they have been productive. But such has not been the case. The expenses of collection, and the interruption of communication, were so very great, that the net produce of the inland transit duties was quite insignificant; so much so that, according to Mr. Trevelyan, it did not exceed, in the extensive province of Bengal, the miserable pittance of 27,500*l.* a year. (*Report*, p. 143.) We see no reason to doubt the accuracy of this statement; and, assuming it to be correct, we are warranted in affirming that there is not another instance to be found, in the history of taxation, of a tax so fruitful of mischievous results, and so barren of revenue.

Town Duties.—These were charged on the principal articles of consumption in 23 of the chief towns of Bengal. They were in many respects similar to the *octrois* in France; and, though not nearly so injurious as the internal transit duties, were productive of much inconvenience. We are glad, however, to have to state that they, as well as the transit duties, have recently been abolished; and that the internal trade of Bengal is now as free, in so far, at least, as statutory regulations can make it, as the internal trade of England.

This article has been compiled from various authorities, including—*Milburn’s Oriental Commerce*;

* This important measure was preceded, and, we believe, principally brought about, by the publication of an elaborate and very valuable report on the inland customs of Bengal, by Mr. Trevelyan, then one of the Secretaries to the Indian Government, and now Secretary to the Treasury.

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Bell's Comparative View of the external Commerce of Bengal, with the Continuation by Wilkinson for the years from 1826-29 to 1841-42; The Bengal and Agra Guide and Gazetteer, for 1841 and 1842; Parliamentary Papers relating to the Finances of India and the Trade of India and China, 1830-1843; and private communications.

CALICO (Ger. *Kattun*; Du. *Katoen*; Dan. *Kattun*; Sw. *Cattun*; Fr. *Coton*, *Toile de Coton*; It. *Tela Bambagina*, *Tela dipinta*; Sp. *Tela de Algodon*; Port. *Pano de Algodao*; Rus. *Wiboko*; Pol. *Bawelaika*), cloth made of cotton, so called from Calicut, on the Malabar coast, whence it was first imported. In England, all white or unprinted cotton cloths are denominated calicoes; but in the United States this term is applied to those only that are printed.

Historical Notices of the Art of Calico Printing. — This art, though apparently one of the most difficult, has been practised from a very remote æra. Herodotus mentions (lib. 1. § 202.), that a nation on the shores of the Caspian were in the habit of painting the figures of animals on their clothes, with a colour formed from the leaves of trees bruised and soaked in water; and he adds, that this colour was not effaceable, and was as durable as the clothes themselves. It is difficult to imagine that the colours could have been so permanent, had not those using them been acquainted with the use of mordants. There is, however, a passage in Pliny (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxv. § 11.), which, though in some respects obscure, shows that the ancient Egyptians were fully acquainted with the principle of calico printing. "They paint," says he, "the clothes, not with colours, but with drugs (*sorbentibus medicamentis*) that have no colour. This being done, they immerse them in a vat full of boiling dye, and leave them there for a little: when they take them out, they are painted of various colours. It is extraordinary, seeing that there is only one colour in the vat (*unus in cortina color*), that a variety of colours should be produced by the operation of the drugs." Pliny further states, that the colours were so adhesive they could not be washed out; and that clothes were the stronger for being dyed. A similar process is known to have been followed in India from the earliest times. The chemical and mechanical inventions of modern ages have been the cause of vast improvements in this ingenious and beautiful art; but the passage now quoted shows distinctly that we have, in this instance, been only perfecting and improving processes practised in the remotest antiquity.

Calico Printing in this Country. Duties on Calicoes. — In Great Britain the printing of cottons has formed, for a considerable period, a very important and valuable business, which may be truly said to have grown up amongst us in despite of repeated efforts for its suppression. To prevent the use of calicoes from interfering with the demand for linen and woollen stuffs, a statute was passed in 1721, imposing a penalty of 5*l.* upon the weaver, and of 20*l.* upon the seller, of a piece of calico! Fifteen years after this extraordinary statute was so far modified, that calicoes manufactured in Great Britain were allowed to be worn, "provided the warp thereof was entirely of linen yarn." This was the law with respect to calicoes till after the invention of Sir Richard Arkwright introduced a new æra into the history of the cotton manufacture, when its impolicy became obvious to every one. In 1774, a statute was passed, allowing printed goods, wholly made of cotton, to be used, after paying a duty of 3*d.* a yard (raised to 3½*d.* in 1806); and enacting some regulations as to the marks to be affixed to the ends of the pieces, the stripes, &c.

This act continued in force down to 1831; but, though an improvement upon the old law, it was much, and justly, complained of. Its injustice and injurious operation were very forcibly pointed out by Mr. Foullet Thompson (afterwards Lord Sydenham), in his excellent speech on taxation, on the 26th March, 1830. "It is a matter of surprise to me," said the Right Hon. gent., "that this most impolitic impost should have been allowed to continue, especially when it was declared by the committee of 1818 to be 'partial and oppressive, and that its repeal was most desirable'; who, indeed, on examining it, and not feel the truth of this observation? Is it credible, that, in order to raise a net revenue of 699,699*l.*, a gross tax should be imposed of 2,019,737*l.* and yet this was the return, according to the paper on your table, for 1829. And these figures are still far from showing the real cost of the collection of this tax; — that must be taken upon the gross produce; and supposing the rate of the collection for the excise to be 5 per cent., which is less than it really is, you have a cost of 20 per cent. on the net produce of this tax, for charges. In addition to this, from all the inquiry I have been able to make, the increased cost to the manufacturer is fully 5 per cent. upon the whole quantity made; so that you have thus two sums, each of 100,000*l.*, levied on the public, for the sake of exacting a duty of 600,000*l.* But the revenue is again, in this case, far from being the measure of the injury you inflict. The inequality of the tax constitutes its chief objection. The duty is levied upon the square yard, at 3½*d.* per yard. Thus, the piece of calico which sells for 6*d.*, duty paid, contributes equally with that which is worth 1*l.* a yard. You levy an onerous and oppressive tax of 100 or 150 per cent. upon the poor, who are the purchasers of inferior cottons; whilst the rich, who buy only the finest kinds, pay but 10 or 15 per cent."

It is due to Mr. Thompson to state, that, not satisfied with giving this forcible exposition of the inequality and injurious operation of the duty on printed goods, one of his first measures, on coming into office, was to propose its repeal.

In consequence, partly of the abolition of the tax, but principally, no doubt, of the extraordinary increase of the cotton manufacture, the business of calico printing, has increased prodigiously since 1830. In proof of this we may mention, that in 1829, about twelve months previously to the abolition of the duty, 89,962,433 yards of all descriptions of printed goods were exported to foreign parts; whereas, in 1841, there were exported, of printed cottons only, the enormous quantity of 929,940,893 yards, of the declared value of 7,772,728*l.* (See *Board of Trade Papers* for 1841, p. 123.)

By the 34 Geo. 3. c. 23. it is enacted, that the inventor, designer, or printer of any new and original pattern for printing linens, cottons, calicoes, or muslins, shall have the sole right of printing and reprinting the same for 3 months, to commence from the day of first publishing.

CAMBRIC, or **CAMBRICK** (Ger. *Kammertuch*; Du. *Kameryhedoch*; Fr. *Cambray Batiste*; It. *Cambraja*; Sp. *Cambray*; Port. *Cambrala*; Rus. *Kamertug*), a species of very fine white linen, first made at Cambray, in French Flanders, whence it derives its appellation. It is now produced, of an equally good quality, in Great Britain.

CAMEL (Fr. *Chameau*; It. and Sp. *Camelo*; Ger. *Kameel*; Arab. *Djamel*; Lat. *Camelus*; Greek, *Καμηλος*) is indigenous to Arabia, and we only mention it in this place on account of its extreme importance in the commerce of the East.

The camel is one of the most useful of the animals over which the inhabitants of Asia and Africa have acquired dominion. These continents are intersected by vast tracts of burning sand, the seats of desolation and drought, so as, apparently, to exclude the possibility of any intercourse taking place between the countries that they separate. "But as the ocean, which appears at first view to be placed as an insuperable barrier between different regions of the earth, has been rendered, by navigation, subservient to their mutual intercourse; so, by means of the camel, which the Arabians emphatically call *the Ship of the Desert*, the most dreary wastes are traversed, and the nations which they dojoin are enabled to trade with one another. Those painful journeys, impracticable by any other animal, the camel performs with astonishing despatch. Under heavy burdens of 600, 700, and 800 lbs. weight, they can continue their march during a long period of time, with little food or rest, and sometimes without tasting water for 8 or 9 days. By the wise economy of Providence, the camel seems formed of purpose to be the beast of burden in those regions where he is placed, and where his service is most wanted. In all the districts of Asia and Africa, where deserts are most frequent and extensive, the camel abounds. This is his proper station, and beyond this the sphere of his activity does not extend far. He dreads alike the excesses of heat and cold, and does not agree even with the mild climate of our temperate zone." — (*Robertson's Dissertation on Ancient India*, Note 53.)

The first trade in Indian commodities of which we have any account (Genesis xxxvii. 25.) was carried on by camels; and they still continue to be the instruments employed in the conveyance of merchants and merchandise throughout Turkey, Persia, Arabia, Egypt, Barbary, and many contiguous countries. The merchants assemble in considerable numbers, forming themselves into an association or *caravan* — (see *CARAVAN*), for their mutual protection against the attacks of robbers, and the dangers incident to a journey through such rude and inhospitable countries. These caravans are often very large, and usually consist of more camels than men. The capacity of the camel to endure fatigue, and the small supply of provisions that he requires, is almost incredible. "His ordinary burden," says Volney, "is 750 lbs.; his food, whatever is given him — straw, thistles, the stones of dates, beans, barley, &c. With a pound of food a day, and as much water, he will travel for weeks. In the journey from Cairo to Suez, which is 40 or 45 hours, they neither eat nor drink; but these long fasts, if often repeated, wear them out. Their usual rate of travelling is very slow, hardly above 2 miles an hour: it is in vain to push them; they will not quicken their pace; but, if allowed some short rest, they will travel 15 or 18 hours a day." — (*Voyage en Syrie*, tom. ii. p. 383.)

The Arabians regard the camel as a sacred animal, the gift of Heaven, without whose aid they could neither subsist, nor trade, nor travel. Its milk is their ordinary food; they also eat its flesh, especially that of the young camel, which they reckon excellent; its hair, which is renewed every year, is partly manufactured into stuffs for their clothes and furniture, and partly sent abroad as a valuable article of merchandise; and even its feces serve them for fuel. Bled with their camels, the Arabs want nothing, and fear nothing. In a single day they can traverse 40 or 50 miles of the desert, and interpose its trackless sands as an impenetrable rampart between them and their foes. — (See the admirable description of the camel, in *Buffon*.)

But, however useful to the inhabitants of parched, sandy deserts, it may be worth while, perhaps, to observe, that the camel is of very little service elsewhere. He cannot walk 100 yards on wet or slippery ground without stumbling. He is totally unknown in all hilly or woody countries; and, with few exceptions, may be said to be as great a stranger in the Eastern Islands, Japan, the southern parts of China, the whole country lying between China and India, and all the southern parts of the latter, including Bengal, as he is in Europe. In all those vast countries the ox is the most useful of the lower animals. It is used for draught (for which the camel is totally unfit), in the cart and plough, in the carrying of burdens, in treading corn, in the oil-press, &c., and finally as food.

CAMEL'S HAIR (Ger. *Kameelhaar*; Fr. *Poil de chameau*, *Laine de chevron*; It. *Pelo di camello*; Sp. *Pelo ó lana de camello*). The hair of the camel imported into this country is principally used in the manufacture of fine pencils for drawing and painting. In the East, however, it is an important article of commerce, and is exten-

sively used in the arts. It serves for the fabrication of the tents and carpets of the Arabs, and for their wearing apparel. Cloth is also manufactured of it in Persia and other places. The most esteemed hair comes from Persia. It is divided into three qualities; black, red, and grey. The black is the dearest, and the grey is only worth half the red. Considerable quantities of camels' hair are exported from Smyrna, Constantinople, and Alexandria. It is used in the manufacture of hats, particularly by the French. — (*Rose's Cyclopaedia*, art. *Camelus*.)

CAMLET, or **CAMBLET** (Ger. and Du. *Kamlet*; Fr. *Camolet*; It. *Ciambellotto*; Sp. *Camolote*; Rus. *Kamolot*), a plain stuff, manufactured on a loom, with 2 threads, as linens are. There are camlets of various colours and sorts; some wholly of goats' hair; others, in which the warp is of hair, and the woof half hair and half silk; others, again, in which both the warp and the woof are of wool; and, lastly, some, of which the warp is of wool and the woof of thread: some are striped, some watered, and some figured.

CAMOMILE (Fr. *Camomille*; It. *Camomilla*; Sp. *Manzanilla*; Lat. *Chamomilla*), a well-known plant, whose flowers are used for medicinal purposes. Most of what is brought to the London market is grown about Mitcham, in Surrey. The imports, however, are not inconsiderable; as many as 26,190 lbs. of foreign camomile-flowers having been annually entered for consumption, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1841. The duty is 1s. per lb.

CAMPBOR, or **CAMPHIRE** (Ger. *Kampfer*; Du. *Kamfer*; Fr. *Camphre*; It. *Camfora*; Sp. *Aloafor*; Rus. *Kamfora*; Lat. *Camphora*; Arab. and Pers. *Kâfor*; Mal. *Kaefur*). There are two descriptions of this valuable article, which must not be confounded.

1. *Camphor of Commerce*, or that met with in Europe, is obtained by boiling the timber of a species of laurel (*Laurus Camphora*), a tree found in the forests of Fokien, in China, near the city of Chinchew, and in certain localities in Japan. Most of the camphor imported into Europe comes from China; but a small quantity, considered of superior quality, comes from Japan by way of Batavia. The exports from Canton may be estimated at about 3,000 piculs, or 400,000 lbs.; and if to this we add the exports from Batavia of Japan camphor, amounting to about 500 piculs, the total annual exports will be about 400,000 lbs. It is brought to this country in chests, drums, and casks; and is in small, granular, friable masses, of a dirty white or greyish colour, very much resembling half-refined sugar. When pure, the camphor of commerce has a strong, peculiar, fragrant, penetrating odour, and a bitter, pungent, aromatic taste. It is in reality a concrete essential oil. Camphor, when refined, is in thin hollow cakes of a beautiful virgin whiteness, and, if exposed to the air, totally evaporates. Great care is therefore requisite in packing camphor, to prevent serious loss.

2. *Camphor, Malay*, commonly called, to distinguish it from the last, camphor of Barua, from the port of Sumatra, where it is mostly shipped. It is a product of the *Dryobalanops Camphora*, a forest tree confined to Sumatra, Borneo, and the Malay peninsula. It is found in concrete masses in the fissures of the wood; there are, however, but very few trees that afford it; and those that do, only in small quantities. This species of camphor is more fragrant and less biting and pungent than that yielded by the laurel, and is in high repute among the Chinese, by whom it is almost wholly consumed. There is an immense disparity in the prices of the two species in China; the finest Chinese camphor being sometimes quoted at 30 dollars per picul, while the Malay camphor is quoted at 30 dollars per catty, making the price of the latter 100 times greater than that of the former! Malay camphor is wholly unknown in Europe as an article of trade. — (*Private information*.)

CAMPBOR OIL (Malay, *Minyak*), a fragrant essential oil, obtained in large quantities by heating the wood of the *Dryobalanops Camphora*. It is nearly as cheap as spirits of turpentine, but is not held in any esteem by the Chinese. It might, perhaps, be profitably imported into England as a substitute for spirits of turpentine in the arts, and for medicinal purposes. We may add, that the timber of the *Dryobalanops Camphora* is not inferior to any produced in the countries where it grows, for the purposes of house and ship building. — (*Private information*, and *Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. i. p. 516.)

CAMWOOD, a red dyewood, first brought to Europe from Africa by the Portuguese. It is principally obtained from the vicinity of Sierra Leone. The colouring matter which it affords differs but little from that of ordinary Nicaragua wood, either in quality or quantity; and it may be employed with similar mordants. — (*Bancroft on Colours*. See also *Dampier*, vol. ii. part ii. p. 58.) Camwood was worth, in the London market, in January 1843, from 17*l.* to 20*l.* a ton, duty (2*s.* a ton) included. The imports in 1840 and 1841 amounted respectively to 787 and 956 tons. — (*Parl. Paper* No. 551. p. 496. Sess. 1842.)

CANAL, **CANALS**. A canal is an artificial channel, filled with water kept at the desired level by means of locks or sluices, forming a communication between two or more places.

(1.) *Historical Sketch of Canals. Ancient Canals*. — The comparative cheapness and facility with which goods may be conveyed by sea, or by means of navigable rivers, seem to have suggested, at a very early period, the formation of canals. The best authenticated accounts of ancient Egypt represent that country as intersected by canals conveying the waters of the Nile to the more distant parts of the country, partly for the purpose of irrigation, and partly for that of internal navigation. The efforts made by the old Egyptian monarchs, and by the Ptolemies, to construct a canal between the

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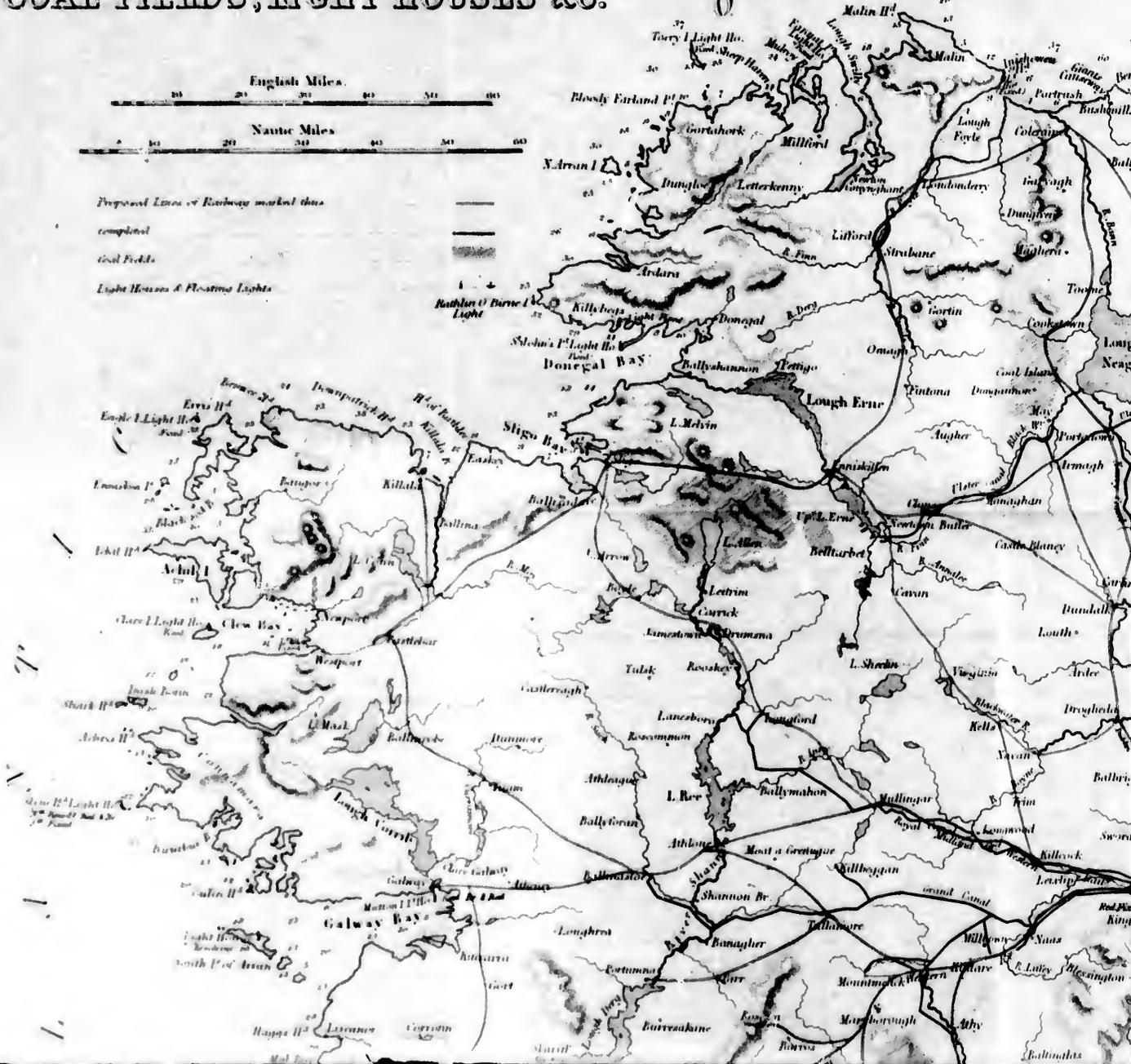
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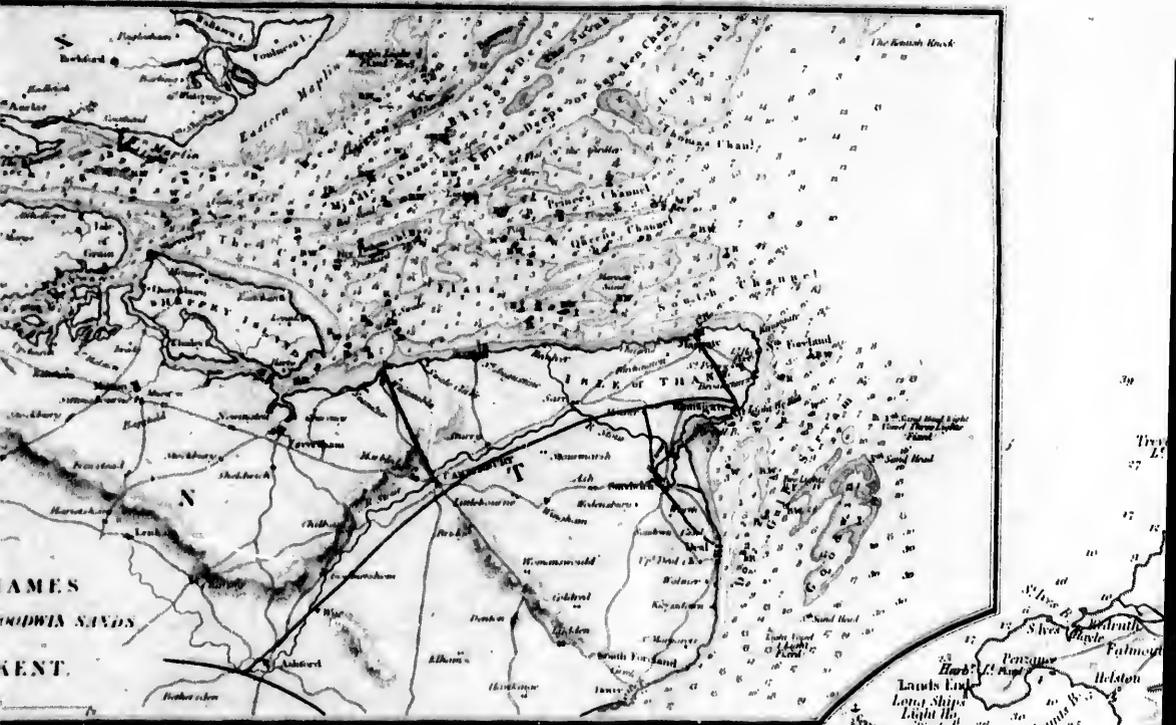
MAP EXHIBITING THE
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GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND,
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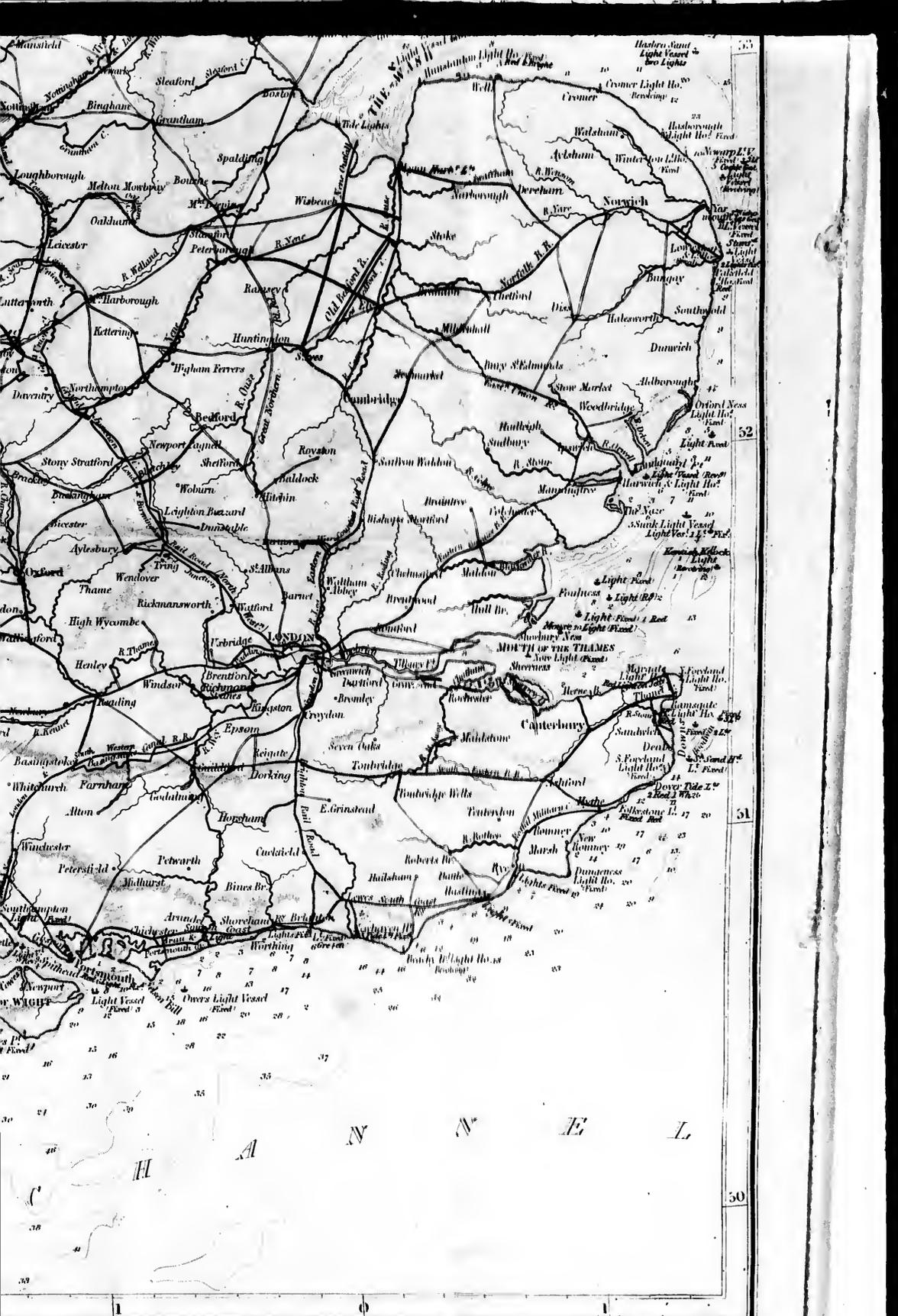




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"The canals of Holland are generally 60 feet wide and 6 deep, and are carefully kept clean; the mud, as manure, is very profitable. The canals are generally levels; of course, locks are not wanted. From Rotterdam to Delft, the Hague, and Leyden, the canal is quite level, but is sometimes affected by strong winds. For the most part, the canals are elevated above the fields or the country, to enable them to carry off the water, which in winter inundates the land. To drain the water from Delfland, a province not more than 60 miles long, they employ 200 windmills in spring-time to raise it into the canals. All the canals of Holland are bordered with dams or banks of immense thickness, and on these depends the security of the country from inundation; of course it is of great moment to keep them in the best repair; to effect which there is a kind of militia, and in every village is a magazine of proper stores and men, whose business it is to convey stones and rubbish in carts to any damaged place. When a certain boll rings, or the waters are at a fixed height, every man repairs to his post. To every house or family there is assigned a certain part of the bank, in the repair of which they are to assist. When a breach is apprehended, they cover the banks all over with cloth and stones."

(5.) *Canal from Amsterdam to Nieuwdiep, near the Helder.* — The object of this canal, which is the greatest work of its kind in Holland, and probably in the world, is to afford a safe and easy passage for large vessels from Amsterdam to the German Ocean. This city has 40 feet of water in the road in front of its port, but the pampus or bar at the junction of the Y with the Zuyder Zee, 7 miles below, has only a depth of 10 feet; and hence all ships of any considerable burden entering or leaving the port must unload and load part of their cargoes without the bar. As the Zuyder Zee is everywhere full of shallows, all ordinary means of improving the access to Amsterdam were necessarily ineffectual; and the resolution was, therefore, at length adopted, of cutting a canal from the city to the Helder, the most northern point of the province of Holland. The distance between these extreme points is 41 English miles, but the length of the canal is about 30 $\frac{1}{2}$. The breadth at the surface of the water is 124 $\frac{1}{2}$ English feet (120 Rhinland feet); the breadth at bottom 36; the depth 20 feet 9 inches. Like the Dutch canals generally, its level is that of the highest tides, and it receives its supply of water from the sea. The only locks it requires are, of course, two tide-locks at the extremities; but there are, besides, two sluices, with floodgates in the intermediate space. It is crossed by about 18 drawbridges. The locks and sluices are double,—that is, there are two in the breadth of the canal; and their construction and workmanship are said to be excellent. They are built of brick, for economy; but bands of limestone are interposed at intervals, and these project about an inch beyond the brick, to protect it from abrasion by the sides of vessels. There is a broad towing-path on each side, and the canal is wide enough to admit of two frigates passing. — (For the expense of towing, see AMSTERDAM.)

The line which the canal follows may be easily traced on a map of Holland. From the Y at Amsterdam it proceeds north to Purmerend; thence west to Alkmaar Lake; again north by Alkmaar to a point within 2 miles of the coast, near Petten; whence it runs nearly parallel to the coast till it joins the sea a little to the east of the Helder, at the fine harbour of Nieuwdiep, formed within the last 30 years. At the latter place there is a powerful steam-engine for supplying the canal with water during neap-tides, and other purposes. The time spent in towing vessels from Nieuwdiep to Amsterdam is 18 hours. The Helder is the only spot on the shores of Holland that has deep water; and it owes this advantage to its being opposite to the Texel, which, by contracting the communication between the German Ocean and the Zuyder Zee to a breadth of about a mile, produces a current which scours and deepens the channel. Immediately opposite the Helder there are 100 feet water at high tides, and at the shallowest part of the bar to the westward there are 27 feet. In the same way, the artificial mound which runs into the Y opposite Amsterdam, by contracting the water-way to about 1000 feet, keeps a depth of 40 feet in the port (at high water), while above and below there is only 10 or 12.

The canal was begun in 1819, and finished in 1825. The cost was estimated at 10,000,000 or 12,000,000 florins, or about 1,000,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling. If we compute the magnitude of this canal by the cubic contents of its bed, it is the greatest, we believe, in the world, unless some of the Chinese canals be exceptions. The volume of water which it contains, or the *prisme de remplissage*, is twice as great as that of the New York Canal, or the Canal of Languedoc, and two and a half times as great as that of the artificial part of the Caledonian canal. In consequence, however, of the facility with which the Dutch canal was dug, and of the evenness of the ground through which it passes, the difficulties with which the engineer had to contend in making it were trifling compared to those which had to be overcome in constructing the canals now mentioned. We have not learned what returns this canal yields; most probably it is not, at least in a direct point of view, a profitable concern. Even in Holland, notwithstanding the

lowness of interest, it would require tolls to the amount of 40,000*l.* a year to cover interest and expenses; and so large a sum can hardly, we should think, be raised by the very moderate tolls laid on the ships passing through it. — (See *AMSTERDAM.*) This, however, is not the only consideration to be attended to in estimating the value of a work of this sort. Its influence in promoting the trade of Amsterdam, and, indeed, of Holland, may far more than compensate for its cost. It is evident, too, that the imposition of oppressive tolls would have effectually counteracted this advantage; that is, they would have defeated the very object for which the canal was constructed. — (We have derived these details, partly from an able article in the *Scotsman*, and partly from private information.)

(6.) *Danish Canals.* — The Holstein Canal, in Denmark, is of very considerable importance. It joins the river Eyder with Kiel Bay on the north-east coast of Holstein, forming a navigable communication between the North Sea, a little to the north of Heligoland, and the Baltic; enabling vessels to pass from the one to the other by a short cut of about 100 miles, instead of the lengthened and difficult voyage round Jutland, and through the Cattegat and the Sound. The Eyder is navigable for vessels not drawing more than 9 feet water, from Tonningen, near its mouth, to Rendsburg, where it is joined by the canal, which communicates with the Baltic at Holtenua, about 3 miles north of Kiel. The canal is about 26 English miles in length, including about 6 miles of what is principally river navigation. The excavated portion is 95 feet wide at top, 51 feet 6 inches at bottom, and 9 feet 6 inches deep (Eng. measure). Its highest elevation above the level of the sea is 24 feet 4 inches; to which height vessels are raised and let down by 6 locks or sluices. It is navigable by vessels of 120 tons burden, or more, provided they are constructed in that view. The total cost of the canal was about 500,000*l.* It was opened in 1785, and has so far realised the views of its projectors, as to enable coasting vessels from the Danish islands in the Baltic and the east coast of Holstein, Jutland, &c., to proceed to Hamburg, Holland, England, &c. in less time, and with much less risk, than in the ordinary course of navigation, they could have cleared the point of the Skaw; and conversely with ships from the west. The smaller class of foreign vessels, particularly those under the Dutch and Hanseatic flags, navigating the Baltic and North Seas, have largely availed themselves of the facilities afforded by this canal. About 3000 vessels pass annually through the canal. This is a sufficient evidence of its utility. It would, however, be much more frequented, were it not for the difficult navigation of the Eyder from the sea to Rendsburg. The dues are moderate. — (*Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, 5th ed. vol. v. p. 259, where there is a plan of the canal; *Catteau, Tableau des Etats Danois*, tom. ii. pp. 300—304; and private information.)

(7.) *Swedish Canals.* — The formation of an internal navigation connecting the Cattegat and the Baltic has long engaged the attention, and occupied the efforts, of the people and government of Sweden. Various motives conspired to make them embark in this arduous undertaking. The Sound and other channels to the Baltic being commanded by the Danes, they were able, when at war with the Swedes, greatly to annoy the latter, by cutting off all communication by sea between the eastern and western provinces of the kingdom. And hence, in the view, partly of obviating this annoyance and partly of facilitating the conveyance of iron, timber, and other bulky products, from the interior to the coast, it was determined to attempt forming an internal navigation, by means of the river Gotha, and the lakes Wener, Wetter, &c., from Gottenburgh to Soderkeping on the Baltic. The first and most difficult part of this enterprise was the perfecting of the communication from Gottenburgh to the lake Wener. The Gotha, which flows from the latter to the former, is navigable, through by far the greater part of its course, for vessels of considerable burden; but, besides others less difficult to overcome, the navigation at the point called Tröllhætta is interrupted by a series of cataracts about 112 feet in height. Owing to the rapidity of the river, and the stubborn red granite rocks over which it flows, and by perpendicular banks of which it is bounded, the attempt to cut a lateral canal, and still more to render it directly navigable, presented the most formidable obstacles. But, undismayed by these, on which it is, indeed, most probable he had not sufficiently reflected, Polhem, a native engineer, undertook, about the middle of last century, the Herculean task of constructing locks in the channel of the river, and rendering it navigable! Whether, however, it were owing to the all but insuperable obstacles opposed to such a plan, to the defective execution, or deficient strength of the works, they were wholly swept away, after being considerably advanced, and after vast sums had been expended upon them. From this period, down to 1793, the undertaking was abandoned; but in that year the plan was proposed, which should have been adopted at first, of cutting a lateral canal through the solid rock, about 1½ mile from the river. This new enterprise was begun under the auspices of a company incorporated for the purpose in 1794, and was successfully completed in 1800. The

canal is about 3 miles in length, and has about 6½ feet water.* It has 8 sluices, and admits vessels of above 100 tons. In one part it is cut through the solid rock to the depth of 72 feet. The expense was a good deal less than might have been expected, being only about 80,000*l*. The Lake Wener, the navigation of which was thus opened with Gottenburgh, is very large, deep, and encircled by some of the richest of the Swedish provinces, which now possess the inestimable advantage of a convenient and ready outlet for their products.

As soon as the Tröllhætta canal had been completed, there could be no room for doubt as to the practicability of extending the navigation to Soderköping. In furtherance of this object, the lake Wener was joined to the lake Wetter by the Gotha Canal, which admits vessels of the same size as that of Tröllhætta; and the prolongation of the navigation to the Baltic from the Wetter, partly by 2 canals of equal magnitude with the above, and partly by lakes, has since been completed. The entire undertaking is called the Gotha Navigation, and deservedly ranks among the very first of the kind in Europe.

Besides the above, the canal of Arboga unites the lake Hielmar to the lake Maelar; and, since 1819, a canal has been constructed from the latter to the Baltic at Södertelge. The canal of Strömsholm, so called from its passing near the castle of that name, has effected a navigable communication between the province of Dalecarlia and the lake Maelar, &c.—(For further details, see, besides the authorities already referred to, *Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, 5th ed. vol. iv. pp. 253—266., and vol. v. pp. 58—66.; *Thomson's Travels in Sweden*, p. 55, &c.)

(8.) *French Canals*.—The first canal executed in France was that of Briare, 54 English miles in length, intended to form a communication between the Seine and Loire. It was commenced in 1605, in the reign of Henry IV., and was completed in 1642, under his successor, Louis XIII. The canal of Orleans, which joins the above, was commenced in 1675. But the most stupendous undertaking of this sort that has been executed in France, or indeed on the Continent, is the canal of Languedoc. It was projected under Francis I.; but was begun and completed in the reign of Louis XIV. It reaches from Narbonne to Toulouse; and was intended to form a safe and speedy means of communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean. It is 64 French leagues in length, and 6 feet deep; and has, in all, 114 locks and sluices. In its highest part it is 600 feet above the level of the sea. In some places it is conveyed, by bridges of great length and strength, over large rivers. It cost upwards of 1,300,000*l*., and reflects infinite credit on the engineer, Riquet, by whom it was planned and executed.

Besides this great work, France possesses several magnificent canals, such as that of The Centre, connecting the Loire with the Saone; of St. Quentin, joining the Scheldt and the Somme; of Besançon, joining the Saone, and consequently the Rhone, to the Rhine; of Burgundy, joining the Rhone to the Seine, &c. Some of these are of very considerable magnitude. The canal of The Centre is about 72 English miles in length. It was completed in 1791, at an expense of about 11,000,000 francs. Its summit level is about 240 feet above the level of the Loire at Digoin; the breadth at the water's edge is about 48 feet, and at bottom 30 feet; depth of water 5½ feet; number of locks 81. The canal of St. Quentin, 28 English miles in length, was completed in 1810. The canal joining the Rhone to the Rhine is the most extensive of any. It stretches from the Saone, a little above St. Jean de Losne, by Dole, Besançon, and Mulhouse, to Strasburg, where it joins the Rhine,—a distance of about 200 English miles. From Dole to Vogeaucourt, near Montbéliard, the canal is principally excavated in the bed of the Doubs. It is not quite finished. The canal of Burgundy will, when completed, be about 242 kilom., or 150 English miles, in length; but at present it is only navigable to the distance of about 95 kilom. In addition to these, a great many other canals have been finished, while several are in progress, and others projected. There is an excellent account of the French canals, in the *Histoire de la Navigation Intérieure de la France*, by M. Dutens, in 2 vols. 4to, and to it we beg to refer the reader for further details. He will find, at the end of the second volume, a very beautiful map of the rivers and canals of France.

The railroads now in the course of being constructed in France have, however, checked the progress of canals. We may observe, too, that the state of the law in France is very unfavourable to the undertaking and success of all great public works; and we are inclined to attribute the comparative fewness of canals in France, and the recent period at which most of them have been constructed, to its influence. In that country, canals, docks, and such like works, are mostly carried on at the expense and for behoof of government, under the control of its agents. No scope has been given to the enterprise of individuals or associations. Before either a road or a canal

* This is the statement of Catteau, *Tableau de la Mer Baltique*, tome ii. p. 77.; Oddy, in his *European Commerce*, p. 306., and Balbi, *Abrégé de la Géographie*, p. 385., say that the depth of water is 10 feet.

can be constructed, plans and estimates must be made out and laid before the minister of the Interior, by whom they are referred to the prefect of the department, and then to the *Bureau des Travaux et des Chaussées*; and supposing the project to be approved by these, and the other functionaries consulted with respect to it, the work must after all be carried on under the superintendence of some public officer. In consequence of this preposterous system, very few works of this description have been undertaken as private speculations. And while not a few of those begun by government remain unfinished and comparatively useless, those that are completed have, as was to be expected, rarely proved profitable. There are some good remarks on this subject in the useful work of M. Dupin, on the *Forces Commerciales* of Great Britain.

(9.) *Prussian Canals.* — The Prussian states are traversed by the great navigable rivers the Elbe, the Oder, and the Vistula; the first having its embouchure in the North Sea, and the others in the Baltic. The formation of an internal navigation, that should join these great *water-ways*, excited the attention of government at a distant period; and this object has been successfully accomplished, partly by the aid of the secondary rivers falling into the above, and partly by canals. In 1662, the canal of Muhrose was undertaken, uniting the Oder and the Spree; the latter being a navigable river falling into the Havel, also a navigable river joining the Elbe near Havelburg. But the navigation from the Oder to the Elbe by this channel was difficult and liable to frequent interruption; and to obviate these defects, Frederick the Great constructed, towards the middle of last century, the Finnow Canal, stretching from the Oder at Oderburg, to the Havel, near Liebenwalde; the communication is thence continued by the latter and a chain of lakes to Plauen; from which point a canal has been opened, joining the Elbe near Magdeburg. The Elbe being in this way connected with the Oder by a comparatively easy navigation, the latter has been united to the Vistula, partly by the river Netze, and partly by a canal joining that river to the Brahe, which falls into the Vistula near Bromberg. A vast inland navigation has thus been completed, harks passing freely through the whole extent of country from Hamburg to Danzig; affording the means of shipping the products of the interior, and of importing those of foreign countries, either by the North Sea or the Baltic, as may be found most advantageous. — (*Catteau, Tableau de la Mer Baltique*, tome ii. p. 11—18.)

(10.) *Russian Canals.* — The inland navigation of Russia is of vast extent, and very considerable importance. The reader will find some details with respect to it under the article *RUSSIA*.

(11.) *Bavarian Canals.* — A grand canal has been for a lengthened period in progress in Bavaria, and is, we presume, now nearly completed, which promises to be of great public utility. It is to extend from Dietfurth on the Altmühl, a navigable affluent of the Danube, to Bamberg on the Mayn, a distance of 23½ German, or about 112 English miles. It is on a large scale, and will, it is supposed, cost from 800,000*l.* to 1,000,000*l.* This magnificent undertaking, which will carry an inland navigation through the centre of Europe, and realise the project of Charlemagne for uniting the Black Sea with the German Ocean, is conducted by a joint-stock company, with the assistance of the Bavarian government. — (*Geographical Dictionary*, i. 308.)

(12.) *Austrian Canals.* — The Austrian Empire is traversed in its whole extent by the Danube; but the advantages that might result to the foreign trade of the empire from so great a command of river navigation, have been materially abridged by the jealousy of the Turks, who command the embouchure of the river, and by the difficulties that are in some places incident to its navigation. Two pretty extensive canals have been constructed in Hungary. That called the Bega Canal is 73 English miles in length; it stretches from Fuscet through the Bannat by Temeswar to Beeskerek, whence vessels pass by the Bega into the Theiss, a little above its junction with the Danube. The other Hungarian canal is called after the Emperor Francis. It stretches from the Danube by Zambor to the Theiss, which it joins near Foldvar, being 62 English miles in length; its elevation, where highest, does not exceed 27 feet. Besides the above, the canal of Vienna establishes a communication between that city and Neustadt. It is said to be the intention to continue this canal to Trieste; but however desirable, we doubt much whether this be practicable. A railroad has been made from Manhausen on the Danube to Hludweiss on the Moldau, a navigable river that falls into the Elbe, which promises to be a highly useful communication. — (*Bright's Travels in Hungary*, p. 246; *Balbi, Abrégé de la Géographie*, p. 216.)

(13.) *Spanish Canals.* — Nowhere are canals more necessary, both for the purposes of navigation and irrigation, than in Spain; but the nature of the soil, and the poverty and ignorance of the government as well as of the people, oppose formidable obstacles to their construction. During the reign of Charles II., a company of Dutch contractors offered to render the Mançanares navigable from Madrid to where it falls into the Tagus, and the latter from that point to Lisbon, provided they were allowed to levy a duty for a certain number of years on the goods conveyed by this channel. The

Council of Castile took this proposal into their serious consideration, and after maturely weighing it pronounced the singular decision — "That if it had pleased God that these two rivers should have been navigable, he would not have wanted human assistance to have made them such; but that, as he has not done it, it is plain he did not think it proper that it should be done. To attempt it, therefore, would be to violate the decrees of his providence, and to mend the imperfections which he designedly left in his works!" — (*Clarke's Letters on the Spanish Nation*, p. 284.) But such undertakings are no longer looked upon as sinful; and many have been projected since the accession of the Bourbon dynasty, though few have been perfected. The canal of the Ebro, begun under the Emperor Charles V., is the most important of the Spanish canals; but it is only partially completed, and during dry seasons it suffers from want of water. It runs parallel to the right bank of the Ebro, from Tudela in Navarre to below Saragossa; the intention being to carry it to Sastago, where it is to unite with the Ebro. The canal of Castile is intended to lay open the country between the Douro and Reynosa, and to facilitate the conveyance of grain from the interior to Santander and Bilbao. It passes by Valladolid, Palencia, and Aguilar del Campos; a small part has been executed, and is now in operation. A company has also undertaken, what the Dutch contractors formerly offered, to render the Tagus navigable from Aranjuez to Lisbon; the free navigation of the river having been stipulated at the Congress of Vienna. A project for deepening the Guadalquivir, and some others, are also on foot. — (*Geographical Dictionary*, ii. 710.)

(14.) *British Canals.* — Owing partly to the late rise of extensive manufactures and commerce in Great Britain, but more, perhaps, to the insular situation of the country, no part of which is very distant from the sea, or from a navigable river, no attempt was made, in England, to construct canals till a comparatively recent period. The efforts of those who first began to improve the means of internal navigation, were limited to attempts to deepen the beds of rivers, and to render them better fitted for the conveyance of vessels. So early as 1635, a Mr. Sandys, of Flatbury, Worcestershire, formed a project for rendering the Avon navigable from the Severn, near Tewkesbury, through the counties of Warwick, Worcester, and Gloucester, "that the towns and country might be better supplied with wood, iron, pit-coal, and other commodities." This scheme was approved by the principal nobility and landowners in the adjoining counties; but the civil war having broken out soon after, the project was abandoned, and does not seem to have been revived. After the Restoration, and during the earlier part of last century, various acts were at different times obtained for cheapening and improving river navigation. For the most part, however, these attempts were not very successful. The current of the rivers gradually changed the form of their channels; the dykes and other artificial constructions were apt to be destroyed by inundations; alluvial sand banks were formed below the weirs; in summer, the channels were frequently too dry to admit of being navigated, while at other periods the current was so strong as to render it quite impossible to ascend the river, which at all times, indeed, was a laborious and expensive undertaking. These difficulties in the way of river navigation seem to have suggested the expediency of abandoning the channels of most rivers, and of digging parallel to them artificial channels, in which the water might be kept at the proper level by means of locks. The act passed by the legislature in 1755, for improving the navigation of Sankey Brook on the Mersey, gave rise to a lateral canal of this description, about 11½ miles in length, which deserves to be mentioned as the earliest effort of the sort in England.

But before this canal had been completed, the celebrated Duke of Bridgewater*, and his equally celebrated engineer, the self-instructed James Brindley, had conceived a plan of canalisation independent altogether of natural channels, and intended to afford the greatest facilities to commerce, by carrying canals across rivers and through mountains, wherever it was practicable to construct them.†

The Duke was proprietor of a large estate at Worsley, 7 miles from Manchester, in which were some very rich coal-mines, that had hitherto been in a great measure useless, owing to the cost of carrying coal to market. Being desirous of turning his mines to some account, it occurred to his Grace that his purpose would be best accomplished by cutting a canal from Worsley to Manchester. Mr. Brindley, having been consulted, declared that the scheme was practicable; and an act having been obtained, the work was immediately commenced. "The principle," says Mr. Phillips, "laid down at the commencement of this business, reflects as much honour on the noble undertaker as

* This truly noble person expended a princely fortune in the prosecution of his great designs; and, to increase his resources, is said to have restricted his own personal expenses to 400*l.* a year! But his projects were productive of great wealth to himself and his successors; and have promoted, in no ordinary degree, the wealth and prosperity of his country. He died in 1823.

† There is a good account of Brindley in *Aikin's Biographical Dictionary*. His intense application, and the anxiety of mind inseparable from the great enterprises in which he was engaged, terminated his valuable life at the early age of 56.

it does upon his engineer. It was resolved that the canal should be perfect in its kind; and that, in order to preserve the level of the water, it should be free from the usual construction of locks. But in accomplishing this end many difficulties were deemed insurmountable. It was necessary that the canal should be carried over rivers, and many large and deep valleys, where it was evident that such stupendous mounds of earth must be raised, as would scarcely, it was thought by numbers, be completed by the labour of ages; and, above all, it was not known from what source so large a supply of water could be drawn, even on this improved plan, as would supply the navigation. But Mr. Brindley, with a strength of mind peculiar to himself, and being possessed of the confidence of his great patron, contrived such admirable machines, and took such methods to facilitate the progress of the work, that the world soon began to wonder how it could be thought so difficult.

"When the canal was completed as far as Barton, where the Irwell is navigable for large vessels, Mr. Brindley proposed to carry it over that river by an aqueduct 39 feet above the surface of the water in the river. This, however, being considered as a wild and extravagant project, he desired, in order to justify his conduct towards his noble employer, that the opinion of another engineer might be taken, believing that he could easily convince an intelligent person of the practicability of the design. A gentleman of eminence was accordingly called, who, being conducted to the place where it was intended that the aqueduct should be made, ridiculed the attempt; and, when the height and dimensions were communicated to him, he exclaimed—'I have often heard of castles in the air, but never was shown before where any of them were to be erected.' This unfavourable verdict did not deter the Duke from following the opinion of his own engineer. The aqueduct was immediately begun; and it was carried on with such rapidity and success as astonished those who, but a little before, thought it impossible."

Before the canal from Worsley to Manchester had been completed, it occurred to the Duke and his engineer that it might be practicable to extend it by a branch, which, running through Chester parallel to the river Mersey, should at length terminate in that river, below the limits of its artificial navigation; and thus afford a new, safer, and cheaper means of communication between Manchester and its vicinity and Liverpool. The execution of this plan was authorised by an act passed in 1761. This canal, which is above 29 miles in length, was finished in about 5 years. It was constructed in the best manner, and has proved equally advantageous to its noble proprietor and the public.

"When the Duke of Bridgewater," says Dr. Aikin, "undertook this great design, the price of carriage on the river navigation was 12s. the ton from Manchester to Liverpool, while that of land carriage was 40s. the ton. The Duke's charge on his canal was limited by statute to 6 shillings; and together with this vast superiority in cheapness, it had all the speed and regularity of land carriage. The articles conveyed by it were, likewise, much more numerous than those by the river navigation; besides manufactured goods and their raw materials, coals from the Duke's own pits were deposited in yards at various parts of the canal, for the supply of Cheshire; lime, manure, and building materials were carried from place to place; and the markets of Manchester obtained a supply of provisions from districts too remote for the ordinary land conveyances. A branch of useful and profitable carriage, hitherto scarcely known in England, was also undertaken, which was that of passengers. Boats, on the model of the Dutch treck-schuyts, but more agreeable and capacious, were set up, which, at very reasonable rates and with great convenience, carried numbers of persons daily to and from Manchester along the line of the canal."—(*Aikin's Description of the Country round Manchester*, p. 116.)

The success that attended the Duke of Bridgewater's canals stimulated public-spirited individuals in other districts to undertake similar works. Mr. Brindley had early formed the magnificent scheme of joining the great ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Hull, by a system of internal navigation: and though he died in 1772, at the early age of 56, he had the satisfaction to see his grand project in a fair way of being realised. The Trent and Mersey, or as it has been more commonly termed, the Grand Trunk Canal, 96 miles in length, was begun in 1766 and completed in 1777. It stretches from near Runcorn on the Mersey, where it communicates with the Duke of Bridgewater's Canal, to Newcastle-under-Line; thence southwards to near Titchfield; and then north-westerly, till it joins the Trent at Wilden Ferry, at the north-western extremity of Leicestershire. A water communication between Hull and Liverpool was thus completed; and by means of the Staffordshire and Worcestershire Canal, which joins the Grand Trunk near Haywood in the former, and the Severn near Stourport in the latter, the same means of communication was extended to Bristol. During the time that the Grand Trunk Canal was being made, a canal was undertaken from Liverpool to Leeds, 130 miles in length; another from Birmingham to the Staffordshire and Worcestershire

Canal, joining it near Wolverhampton; and one from Birmingham to Fosseley and thence to Coventry. By canals subsequently undertaken, a communication was formed between the Grand Trunk Canal and Oxford, and consequently with London, completing Brindley's magnificent scheme. In 1792, the Grand Junction Canal was begun, which runs in a pretty straight line from Brentford, on the Thames, a little above the metropolis, to Braunston in Northamptonshire, where it unites with the Oxford and other central canals. It is about 90 miles in length. There is also a direct water communication, by means of the river Lea navigation, the Cambridge Junction Canal, &c., between London and the Wash. In addition to these, an immense number of other canals, some of them of very great magnitude and importance, have been constructed in different parts of the country; so that a command of internal navigation has been obtained, unparalleled in any European country, with the exception of Holland.

In Scotland, the great canal to join the Forth and Clyde was begun in 1768, but it was suspended in 1777, and was not resumed till after the close of the American war. It was finally completed in 1790. Its total length, including the collateral cuts to Glasgow and the Monkland Canal, is 58½ miles. Where highest it is 150 feet above the level of the sea. It is on a larger scale than any of the English canals. Its medium width at the surface is 56, and at the bottom 27 feet. Originally it was about 8 feet 6 inches deep; but recently its banks have been raised, so that the depth of water is now about 10 feet. It has, in all, 39 locks. In completing this canal, many serious difficulties had to be encountered. These, however, were all successfully overcome; and though unprofitable for a while, it has for many years past yielded a handsome return to its proprietors, the dividend having latterly been about 28 per cent. on the original stock. Swift boats on the plan of those subsequently described were established on this canal in 1832. — (See *Glasgow's Statistics of Glasgow*, p. 170, &c.)

The Union Canal joins the Forth and Clyde Canal near Falkirk, and stretches thence to Edinburgh, being 31½ miles in length. It is 40 feet wide at the top, 20 at bottom, and 8 deep. It was completed in 1822; but has been, in all respects, a most unprofitable undertaking. Hitherto the proprietors have not received any dividend; and their prospects, we understand, are little, if anything, improved.

A canal intended to form a communication between Glasgow, Paisley, and Ardrossan, was commenced in 1807; but only that portion connecting Glasgow with Paisley and the village of Johnstoun has hitherto been finished. This part is about 12 miles long; the canal being 30 feet broad at top, 18 at bottom, and 4½ deep. It was here that the important experiments were originally made on quick travelling by canals, which demonstrated that it was practicable to impel a properly constructed boat, carrying passengers and goods, along a canal at the rate of 9 or 10 miles an hour, without injury to the banks! — (See *post*.)

The Crinan Canal, across the peninsula of Kintyre, is 9 miles in length, and 12 feet in depth, admitting vessels of 160 tons burden.

The Caledonian Canal is the greatest undertaking of the sort attempted in the empire. It stretches S. W. and N. E. across the island from a point near Inverness to another near Fort William. It is chiefly formed by Loch Ness, Loch Oich, and Loch Lochy. The total length of the canal, including the lakes, is 60½ miles; but the excavated part is only about 23 miles. At the summit it is 96½ feet above the level of the Western Ocean. It is mostly constructed upon a very grand scale, being intended to be 20 feet deep, 50 feet wide at bottom, and 122 at top; the locks are 20 feet deep, 172 long, and 40 broad; and had it been wholly executed as was originally intended, frigates of 32 guns and merchant ships of 1,000 tons burden might have passed through it. It was opened in 1822, being executed entirely at the expense of government, from the designs and under the superintendence of Thomas Telford, Esq. The entire cost amounted, exclusive of interest, on the 1st of May, 1841, to 1,035,460*l.* 10*s.* 0½*d.* It would appear, however, to have been projected without due consideration, and promises to be a most unprofitable speculation. The revenue of the canal amounted in 1841-42 to only 2,723*l.* 7*s.*, being considerably under the ordinary expenditure incurred in keeping it open! But this is not all. Owing to a wish to lessen the expense and to hasten the opening of the canal, parts of it were not excavated to their proper depth, while others were executed in a hurried and insufficient manner. Hence the canal does not really admit vessels of above 250 or 300 tons burden; and owing to the want of steam tugs on the lakes, these are frequently delayed in making their passage across for a lengthened period. During 1837 and 1838, the works sustained considerable damage; and it has been gravely debated whether it would not be better entirely to break up and abandon the canal!

There is naturally, however, an extreme disinclination to destroy a work, which, how inexpedient soever originally, has been executed at an enormous expense; and various schemes have been suggested for relieving the public from the expense of keeping it up without involving its destruction. Among others it has been proposed

to assign it to a joint stock company, on their agreeing to complete the works and keep them in repair; and an act authorising such transfer was passed in 1840. But hitherto it has not been found possible to dispose of the canal in this way; and parliament has since voted 75,000*l.* for the partial repair of the works; but it is believed that it will require fully three or four times that sum to complete the canal according to the original plan, and to furnish it with the necessary steam tugs.

Some other canals have been projected and completed in different parts of Scotland. Of these the Monkland Canal, for the supply of Glasgow with coal, has been the most successful.

The following extract from the Trade List for the 27th of June, 1843, gives an account of the number of shares in the principal British canals, the cost or sum actually expended upon each share, the dividend payable upon it, with its selling price at the above-mentioned date, and the periods when the dividends are payable.

Canal.	Number of Shares.	Amount of Shares.	Average Cost per share.	Dividend per Share per Annum.	Price per Share.	Dividend payable.
		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Ashby-de-la-Zouch	1,482	100 0 0	113 0 0	4 0 0	71 10 0	April, Oct.
Ashton and Oldham	1,766	100 0 0	113 0 0	6 0 0	75 10 0	April, Oct.
Barnsley	720	100 0 0	-	13 0 0	269 0 0	Feb., August.
Bainbridge	1,260	100 0 0	-	-	5 10 0	-
Ditto bonds	-	-	-	-	-	April.
Birmingham, 1-16th shares	8,000	8 10 0	71 0 0	6 0 0	190 0 0	April, Oct.
Birmingham and Liverpool Junction	4,000	100 0 0	100 <i>l.</i> pd.	-	20 0 0	-
Bolton and Bury	477	150 0 0	-	5 10 0	158 0 0	January.
Bretnock and Abergavenny	1,000	100 0 0	-	-	83 0 0	Jan., July.
Bridgewater and Taunton	600	100 0 0	100 <i>l.</i> pd.	-	60 0 0	-
Calder and Hebble	-	-	-	18 0 0	260 0 0	Jan., July.
Chelmer and Blackwater	4,000	100 0 0	-	5 0 0	105 0 0	January.
Chesterfield	1,500	ditto	-	5 0 0	170 0 0	-
Coventry	800	ditto	-	22 0 0	320 0 0	May, Nov.
Crinan	1,851	50 0 0	-	-	3 0 0	-
Cromford	460	100 0 0	-	24 0 0	325 0 0	Jan., July.
Danube and Mayn	20,900	41 13 4	41 13 4	4 per cent.	30 1 0	-
Derby	600 <i>l.</i>	100 0 0	110 0 0	5 0 0	110 0 0	Jan., July.
Dudley	3,060	ditto	-	5 0 0	98 0 0	March, Sept.
Edinburgh and Glasgow	-	ditto	-	-	97 0 0	-
Kilnmore and Chester	3,075 <i>l.</i>	33 0 0	133 0 0	4 per cent.	63 10 0	September.
Erewash	231	100 0 0	-	40 0 0	675 0 0	May, Nov.
Forth and Clyde	1,267	ditto	400 10 0	26 0 0	610 0 0	June, Dec.
Glamorganshire	600	ditto	172 13 4	13 12 6	310 0 0	March, June Sept., Dec.
Gloucester and Berkley (old shares)	11,87	ditto	-	-	8 17 6	-
Ditto (new) of 10 per cent.	899	-	-	-	45 0 0	-
Grand Junction	11,455	100 0 0	224 10 0	7 0 0	144 0 0	Jan., July.
Grand Surrey	24,000	ditto	-	-	18 10 0	April, Oct.
Ditto Loan	140,000 <i>l.</i>	-	-	4 0 0	69 10 0	Jan., July.
Grand Union	2,848 <i>l.</i>	100 0 0	-	1 10 0	26 0 0	1st October.
Grand Western	3,096	ditto	100 <i>l.</i> pd.	-	10 0 0	-
Grantham	749	150 0 0	150 0 0	12 0 0	215 0 0	May.
Hereford and Gloucester	-	100 0 0	-	-	14 10 0	-
Huddersfield	6,238	ditto	57 6 6	-	11 10 0	-
Ivel and Ouse Beds	148	ditto	100 0 0	-	-	Jan., July.
Kennet and Avon	25,328	ditto	39 18 10	0 15 0	12 0 0	March, Sept.
Kennington	180	ditto	100 <i>l.</i> pd.	-	0 0 0	-
Lancaster	11,699 <i>l.</i>	ditto	47 6 6	1 10 0	26 0 0	April.
Leeds and Liverpool	2,879 <i>l.</i>	ditto	-	34 0 0	650 0 0	May, Nov.
Leicester	540	-	140 0 0	11 0 0	144 0 0	Jan., July.
Ditto and Northampton	1,897	100 0 0	53 10 0	5 10 0	72 0 0	Jan., July.
Loughborough	70	-	143 17 0	80 0 0	1400 0 0	Jan., July.
Macclesfield	1,665	100 0 0	100 <i>l.</i> pd.	1 10 0	17 0 0	-
Melton Mowbray	250	ditto	-	10 0 0	-	July.
Mersey and Irwell	800	ditto	-	20 0 0	385 0 0	November.
Monkland	101	ditto	-	-	90 0 0	-
Monmouthshire	2,409	ditto	100 0 0	10 0 0	185 0 0	Jan., July.
Montgomeryshire	711	ditto	-	6 0 0	110 0 0	March, Aug.
North Walsham and Dilton	600	60 0 0	60 <i>l.</i> pd.	-	2 0 0	January.
Neath	247	-	107 10 0	17 0 0	225 0 0	August, Feb.
Nottingham	500	150 0 0	-	12 0 0	262 0 0	April, Oct.
Oakham	622	130 0 0	-	-	38 0 0	May.
Oxford	1,786	100 0 0	-	30 0 0	638 0 0	March, Sept.
Peak Forest	2,400	ditto	48 0 0	1 0 0	42 0 0	June, Dec.
Potternath and Arundel	3,590	50 0 0	50 0 0	-	5 0 0	-
Regent's	21,418	100 0 0	33 16 8	-	19 15 0	July.
Rochdale	6,659	ditto	85 0 0	-	53 10 0	May.
Shrewsbury	500	125 0 0	-	0 0 0	260 0 0	May, Nov.
Shropshire	500	ditto	-	8 0 0	120 0 0	June, Dec.
Somerset Coal	800	80 0 0	-	9 10 0	151 0 0	Jan., July.
Ditto Lock Fund	45,000	12 10 0	-	-	11 10 0	June, Dec.
Stafford and Worcester	700	140 0 0	140 0 0	5 per cent.	60 0 0	Feb., Aug.
Stourbridge	300	145 0 0	-	18 0 0	275 0 0	Jan., July.
Stratford-on-Avon	3,647	-	79 9 8	2 0 0	31 10 0	August.
Stroudwater	200	150 0 0	-	24 0 0	430 0 0	May, Nov.
Swansea	513	100 0 0	180 0 0	15 0 0	245 0 0	November.
Tavistock	350	ditto	-	2 0 0	105 0 0	-

Canals.	Number of Shares.	Amount of Shares.	Average Cost per Share.	Dividend per Share per Annum.	Price per Share.	Dividend payable.
Thames and Medway	4,805	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Ditto, New	3,344	ditto	30 4 3	- - -	1 0 0	
Thames and Severn, New	1,150	- - -	2l. 15s. pd.	2 18 0	36 0 0	June.
Ditto, Original	1,300	- - -	- - -	2 18 0	32 0 0	June.
Trent and Mersey (½)	2,600	50 0 0	- - -	32 10 0	485 0 0	Jan., July.
Warwick and ½ Shares	1,000	130 0 0	- - -	10 0 0	167 0 0	May, Nov.
Hirmingham ½ Half-shares	1,000	50 0 0	- - -	10 0 0	123 0 0	May, Nov.
Warwick and Napton	580	100 0 0	- - -	- - -	17 10 0	May.
Wey and Arun	905	110 0 0	110 0 0	- - -	14 0 0	June.
Wills and Berks	5,000	- - -	105 0 0	1 4 0	40 0 0	February.
Wisbeach	126	105 0 0	- - -	4 0 0	53 0 0	Feb., August.
Worcester and Birmingham	6,000	- - -	- - -	6 0 0	173 0 0	December.
Wyre and Essington	800	125 0 0	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -

(15.) *Irish Canals.* — Various canals have been undertaken in Ireland, of which the Grand Canal and the Royal Canal are the principal. The Grand Canal was begun in 1765, by a body of subscribers; but they could not have completed the work without very large advances from government. The canal commences at Dublin, and stretches in a westerly direction, inclining a little to the south, to the Shannon, with which it unites near Banagher, a distance of 85 statute miles, and thence on the west side of the river to Ballinasloe, 14 miles. But, exclusive of the main trunk, there is a branch to Athy, where it joins the Barrow, a distance of about 27 miles; and there are branches to Portarlington, Mount Mellick, and some other places. There is also a westerly branch, recently constructed, from the Shannon to Ballinasloe, about 14 miles in length. The total length of the canal, with its various branches, is about 164 Eng. miles. Its summit elevation is 200 feet above the level of the sea at Dublin. It is 40 feet wide at the surface, from 24 to 20 feet at bottom, has 6 feet water, and cost, in all, above 2,000,000*l.* The tonnage and tolls on this canal for the eight years ending with 1837, were —

In 1830	Tonnage.	Toll.	In 1834	Tonnage.	Toll.
-	224,749	£33,464	-	229,473	£34,123
1831	227,910	36,753	1835	215,508	35,030
1832	216,418	34,553	1836	226,770	36,033
1833	226,738	36,054	1837	215,910	37,597

Two capital errors seem to have been committed in the formation of this canal, — it was framed on too large a scale, and was carried too far north. Had it been 4 or 4½ instead of 6 feet deep, its utility would have been but little impaired, while its expense would have been very materially diminished. But the great error was in its direction. Instead of joining the Shannon about 15 miles above Lough Derg, it should have joined it below Limerick. By this means, barges and other vessels passing from Dublin to Limerick, and conversely, would have avoided the difficult and dangerous navigation on the Upper Shannon; the canal would have passed through a comparatively fertile country; and it would not have been necessary to carry it across the bog of Allen, in which, says Mr. Wakefield, "the company have buried more money than would have cut a spacious canal from Dublin to Limerick." — (*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 642.)

The Royal Canal was undertaken in 1789. It stretches westward from Dublin to the Shannon, which it joins near Tormanbury. Its entire length is about 92 miles exclusive of a branch of 5 miles from Kilashee to Longford; its highest elevation is 307 feet above the level of the sea. At bottom it is 24 feet wide, having 6 feet depth of water. It had cost, exclusive of interest on stock, loans, &c. advanced by government, in February, 1823, 1,421,954*l.* The tolls produced, in 1836, 25,148*l.*, the expenses of the canal for the same year being 11,912*l.*, leaving only 13,236*l.* for the nett revenue of a work which must have cost, interest included, 3,000,000*l.* — (*Second Report on Railways in Ireland*, p. 12.)

This canal seems to have been planned in the most injudicious manner. It has the same defect as the Grand Canal, of being extravagantly large; and throughout its whole course it is nearly parallel to, and not very distant from, the latter. There are consequently two immense canals, where there ought, perhaps, to be none. At all events, it is abundantly certain that one canal of comparatively moderate dimensions would have been quite enough for all the business of the district, though it were much greater than it is at this moment, or than it is ever likely to become.

Besides the above, there are some other canals, as well as various river excavations, in Ireland; but hardly one of them yields a reasonable return for the capital expended upon it. They have almost all been liberally assisted by grants of public money; and their history, and that of the two great canals now adverted to, strikingly corroborates the caustic remark of Arthur Young, that "a history of public works in Ireland would be a history of jobs." — (*Tour in Ireland*, part ii. p. 66. 4to ed.) Those who wish to make themselves fully acquainted with the history and state of the canals of Ireland, may consult the *Report by Messrs. Henry, Mullins, and M. Mahon*, in the *Appendix to the*

Report of the Select Committee of 1830 on the State of Ireland, and the very valuable Report, referred to above, on Railways.

(16.) *American Canals.*—The United States are pre-eminently distinguished by the spirit with which they have undertaken, and the perseverance they have displayed in executing, the most magnificent plans for improving and extending internal navigation. Besides many others of great, though inferior, magnitude, a canal has been formed connecting the Hudson with Lake Erie. This immense work is 363 miles in length, the rise and fall along the entire line being 692 feet. It was originally 40 feet wide at the surface, 28 feet at bottom, and 4 feet deep. But these dimensions being found, from the rapidly increasing traffic and importance of the canal, to be far too limited, an act was passed in 1835, providing for its enlargement. Under this act the canal is to be increased, so as to be 70 feet wide on the surface, 42 feet wide at the bottom, and 7 feet in depth, the locks being of corresponding dimensions. The original cost of the canal was 9,027,456 dollars; and the cost of the enlargement has been estimated at from 23 to 24 millions of dollars, or at nearly three times its first cost.—(Art. on the Erie Canal in the *New York Register* for 1843, p. 189.) The undertaking is already considerably advanced, and, when completed, the new canal will be one of the greatest and most important works of its kind in the world. The Erie canal is the property of the state of New York; and, notwithstanding the contracted scale on which it was constructed, has completely verified the predictions of its projector, De Witt Clinton, having been at once profitable as a mercantile speculation, and of singular advantage in a public point of view to the state of New York and the Union generally. We subjoin a

Statement exhibiting the Length, original Cost, and Revenue of the principal Canals belonging to the State of New York.

Names.	Length.	Cost.		Tolls in 1850.		Tolls in 1855.		Tolls in 1842.	
		Miles.	Dollars.	Cts.	Dollars.	Cts.	Dollars.	Cts.	Dollars.
Erie canal	363	9,027,456	00	1,032,599	13	1,492,811	59	1,588,946	06
Champlain (including 3 miles of river navigation)	87	1,179,871	65	19,335	18	29,180	62	85,964	09
Oswego	38	565,437	35	11,287	81	20,430	11	31,422	19
Cayuga and Seneca	21	236,904	74	-	-	4,701	44	18,948	16
Chamung	23	331,683	57	-	-	1,849	63	7,702	05
Crooked Lake	8	136,778	90	-	-	-	-	989	38
Chenango	37	2,470,505	92	-	-	-	-	13,615	38
Navigable feeders	38	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	656	13,768,645	78	1,036,922	12	1,548,972	39	1,735,387	82

N. B. It is to be observed that the tolls have been considerably reduced since 1830.

The *Chesapeake and Ohio Canal* would, had it been completed, have been a great and useful work. It begins at the tide water of the Potomac River above Georgetown in the district of Columbia, and is intended to terminate at Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, a distance of 341½ miles. Its dimensions are nearly identical with those of the new Erie Canal; its breadth at the surface being from 60 to 80 feet, ditto at bottom 50 feet, with a depth of water varying from 6 to 7 feet. Several tunnels occur in the line which crosses the Alleghany ridge. The cost of this work was estimated at 22,275,000 dollars, which were to be subscribed partly by individuals, and partly by the United States and the States of Maryland and Pennsylvania. Owing, however, to the inability, or rather disinclination, of the two last mentioned states to make good their engagements, the works on the canal have been suspended, after about 10 millions of dollars have been expended upon them. But the probability is that they will be resumed and completed at some future period; their completion being the only means by which the capital already expended upon them can be made to yield any thing.

A great many other canals have been completed, and are in progress in different parts of the Union. Of the former, the Ohio Canal, uniting the Ohio with Lake Erie, is by far the most important, and is, if at all, only less advantageous than the Erie Canal. Cleveland, where the canal unites with Lake Erie, promises at no distant period to be one of the greatest emporiums on the lakes.

(17.) *Canadian Canals.*—The British government has expended a very large sum upon the Rideau River and Canal, stretching from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to Bytown, on the Ottawa, or Grand River, an affluent of the St. Lawrence. But this work was undertaken as much in the view of improving the military defences of Canada, as of protecting its commerce, though in the latter respect it has been of considerable utility. The British government has, also, constructed the Welland Canal, uniting Lakes Erie and Ontario, the navigation between which by the river is interrupted by the falls of Niagara. This canal has become a well-frequented commercial channel, and is every day rising in importance.

(18.) *Utility of Canals.*—The utility of canals, when judiciously contrived, and opening an easy communication between places capable of maintaining an extensive intercourse with each other, has never been better set forth than in a work published in 1765, entitled "A View of the Advantages of Inland Navigation," &c. But the following ex-

tract from *Macpherson's Annals of Commerce* (anno 1760) contains a brief, and at the same time eloquent, summary of the principal advantages resulting from their construction. — "They give fresh life to established manufactures, and they encourage the establishment of new ones, by the ease of transporting the materials of manufacture and provisions; and thence we see new villages start up upon the borders of canals in places formerly condemned to sterility and solitude. They invigorate, and in many places create, internal trade, which, for its extent and value, is an object of still more importance than foreign commerce, and is exempted from the many hardships and dangers of a maritime life and changes of climate. And they greatly promote foreign trade; and consequently enrich the merchants of the ports where they, or the navigable rivers they are connected with, terminate, by facilitating the exportation of produce from, and the introduction of foreign merchandise into, the interior parts of the country, which are thus placed nearly on a level with the maritime parts; or, in other words, the interior parts become coasts, and enjoy the accommodations of shipping. The price of provisions is nearly equalised through the whole country; the blessings of Providence are more uniformly distributed; and the monopolist is disappointed in his schemes of iniquity and oppression, by the ease wherewith provisions are transported from a considerable distance. The advantages to agriculture, which provides a great part of the materials, and almost the whole of the subsistence, required in carrying on manufactures and commerce, are pre-eminently great. Manure, marl, lime, and all other bulky articles, which could not possibly bear the great expense of cartage, and also corn and other produce, can be carried at a very light expense on canals; whereby poor lands are enriched, and barren lands are brought into cultivation, to the great emolument of the farmer and landholder, and the general advantage of the community, in an augmented supply of the necessaries of life and materials of manufactures; coals (the importance of which to a manufacturing country, few people, not actually concerned in manufactures, are capable of duly appreciating), stone, lime, iron ore, and minerals in general, as well as many other articles of great bulk in proportion to their value, which had hitherto lain useless to their proprietors by reason of the expense, and, in many cases, impossibility, of carriage, are called into life, and rendered a fund of wealth, by the vicinity of a canal; which thus gives birth to a trade, whereby, in return, it is maintained. The cheap, certain, and pleasant conveyance of travellers by the treckschuyts in Holland, has been admired by all who have been in that country; and it must be owing to the universal desire in this country of flying over the ground with the greatest possible rapidity that a mode of travelling so exceedingly easy to the purse and the person is so little used here. Neither ought we entirely to forget, among the advantages of canals, the pleasure afforded to the eye and the mind by a beautiful moving landscape of boats, men, horses, &c. busied in procuring subsistence to themselves, and in diffusing opulence and convenience through the country. And, in a word, we have now the experience of about 40 years to establish as a certain truth, what was long ago said by Dr. Adam Smith, that '*navigable canals are among the greatest of all improvements.*'"

(19) *Increased Speed of Travelling by Canals.* — Great, however, as have been the advantages derived from the formation of canals, their progress has been to a considerable degree checked by the formation of RAILROADS (which see). We believe, however, that canals will always be preferred for the conveyance of coal and other bulky and heavy products; and even passengers are now conveyed along them with a rapidity that would previously have been supposed impossible. This new system was introduced on the Paisley and Glasgow Canal, by Mr. Houston, in June, 1831. The results are described in the following statements, to which it is unnecessary to call the reader's attention.

Mr. Thomas Grahame, civil engineer, in his "Letter to Canal Proprietors and Traders," says, "The experiments of great velocity have been tried and proved on the *narrowest, shallowest, and most curved canal in Scotland*, viz. the Ardrossan or Paisley Canal, connecting the city of Glasgow with the town of Paisley and village of Johnstone, — a distance of 12 miles." The result has disproved every previous theory as to difficulty and expense of attaining great velocity on canals; and as to the danger or damage to their banks by great velocity in moving vessels along them.

"The ordinary speed for the conveyance of passengers on the Ardrossan Canal has, for nearly 2 years, been from nine to ten miles an hour; and, although there are fourteen journeys along the canal per day, at this rapid speed, its banks have sustained no injury. The boats are 70 feet in length, about 5 feet 6 inches broad, and, but for the extreme narrowness of the canal, might be made broader. They carry easily from 70 to 80 passengers; and, when required, can and have carried upwards of 110 passengers. The entire cost of a boat and fittings up is about 125*l.* The hulls are framed of light iron plates and ribs, and the covering is of wood and light oiled cloth. They are more airy, light, and comfortable than any coach. They permit the passengers to move about from the outer to the inner cabin, and the fares per mile are one penny in the first, and three farthings in the second cabin. The passengers are all carried under cover, having the privilege also of an uncovered space. These boats are drawn by 2 horses (the prices of which may be from 50*l.* to 60*l.* per pair), in stages of 4 miles in length, which are done in from 22 to 25 minutes, including stoppages to let out and take in passengers, each set of horses doing 3 or 4 stages alternately each day. In fact, the boats are drawn through this narrow and shallow canal, at a velocity which many celebrated engineers had demonstrated, and which the public believed, to be impossible.

"The entire amount of the whole expenses of attendants and horses, and of running one of these boats 4 trips of 12 miles each (the length of the canal) or 48 miles daily, including interest on the capital, and

20 per cent. laid aside annually for replacement of the boats, or less on the capital therein vested, and a considerable sum laid aside for accidents and replacement of the horses, is 700*l.* some odd shillings; or, taking the number of working days to be 312 annually, something under 2*l.* 2*s.* 4*d.* per day, or about 11*d.* per mile. The actual cost of carrying from 80 to 100 persons a distance of 30 miles (the length of the Liverpool railway), at a velocity of nearly 10 miles an hour, on the Paisley Canal, one of the most curved, narrow, and shallow in Britain, is therefore just 1*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* sterling. Such are the facts, and, incredible as they may appear, they are facts which no one who inquires can possibly doubt.

Boats on this principle have since been established on a great many British canals, and on the Grand and Royal Canals in Ireland.

(20.) *Profits of Canals.* — It is a well-known fact, that canals, at an average, and allowing for the length of time that must elapse from the first outlay of capital before they yield any return, are not very productive. When, indeed, they connect places that have an extensive intercourse, and when no very extraordinary difficulties have to be surmounted in their construction, they most commonly yield very large profits: but, generally speaking, this does not appear to be the case; and, on the whole, they seem to have been more beneficial to the public than to their projectors.

It is customary to insert clauses in the acts authorising canals to be cut, limiting the charge which the proprietors shall be entitled to impose upon the goods conveyed by them. But we think that the dividend ought also to be limited; and that it should be stipulated that whatever a moderate toll yielded over and above defraying this dividend, and providing for the repair of the canal, should be accumulated as a fund in order to buy up the stock of the canal, so that the toll may ultimately be reduced to such a sum as may suffice merely to meet the necessary repairs. We are not aware that in any good objection could be made to a plan of this sort; and had it been adopted in this country, there are several instances in which it would have been very advantageous for the public. When the canal of Languedoc was completed, the most likely method, it was found, of keeping it in constant repair, was to make a present of the tolls to Riquet the engineer. "These tolls constitute," says Dr. Smith, "a very large estate to the different branches of the family of that gentleman; who have, therefore, a great interest to keep the work in constant repair. But had these tolls been put under the management of commissioners, who had no such interest, they might, perhaps, have been dissipated in ornamental and unnecessary expenses, while the most essential parts of the work were allowed to go to ruin." Dr. Smith ought, however, to have mentioned that Riquet advanced a fourth part of the entire sum laid out upon the canal (*Dutens, Navigation Intérieure de la France*, tom. i. p. 119, &c.); and that officers were appointed by the crown to see that the tolls were not rendered oppressive, and the canal kept in good order. At the Revolution, most part of the property of the canal was confiscated; but at the restoration of the Bourbons in 1814, such parts of the confiscated property as had not been sold were restored to the successors of M. Riquet, who have at this moment the principal management of the canal.

* * The accompanying map of the canals, railroads, &c. of Great Britain and Ireland, has been executed with great care and attention; and will, we hope, be found to be a valuable acquisition. Those who wish to see them laid down on a larger scale, are referred to the magnificent six-sheet map, published by J. Walker, Esq. of Wakefield, and to other maps of the same kind. "An Historical Account of the Navigable Rivers and Canals, &c. of Great Britain," in 4to., attached to Mr. Walker's map by way of Index, is an accurate and useful publication.

CANARY SEED. See SEED.

CANDLE (Ger. *Lichter, Kerzen*; Du. *Kaarzen*; Fr. *Chandelle*; It. *Candelle*; Sp. and Port. *Velas*; Rus. *Sujetschi*; Lat. *Candela*), a taper of tallow, wax, or spermaceti, the wick of which is commonly of several threads of cotton spun and twisted together.

Dr. Ure gives the following table, as containing the result of certain experiments he had made, in order to determine the relative intensity of the light, and the duration of different sorts of tallow candles.

Number in a Pound.	Duration of a Candle.	Weight in Grains.	Consumption per Hour, in Grains.	Proportion of Light.	Economy of Light.	Candles equal one Argand.
10 mould	5 a. 9 m.	882	152	142	66	4.7
10 dipped	4 36 m.	672	150	15	65	6.25
8 mould	6 21	856	132	10	59	5.5
5 do.	7 34	1,160	163	14	68	5.0
4 do.	9 36	1,797	180	20	80	3.5
Argand oil flame	-	-	512	69.4	100	-

"A Scotch mutchkin," says Dr. Ure, "or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a gallon of good seal oil, weighs 6,010 gr., or 13 $\frac{1}{10}$ oz. avoirdupois, and lasts in a bright Argand lamp 11 hours 44 minutes. The weight of oil it consumes per hour is equal to 4 times the weight of tallow in candles 8 to the pound, and 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ times the weight of tallow in candles 6 to the pound. But its light being equal to that of 5 of the latter candles, it appears from the above table, that 2 lbs. weight of oil, value 9*d.* in an Argand, are equivalent in illumin-

ating power to 3 lbs. of tallow candles, which cost about 2s. The larger the flame in the above candles, the greater the economy of light."

Until 1831, when it was repealed, candles were, for a lengthened period, subject to an excise duty; and their consumption was, in consequence, pretty exactly ascertained.

An Account of the Rates of Duty separately charged on Tallow, Wax, and Spermaceti Candles, the Number of Pounds' Weight of each Sort produced, and the Total annual Nett Revenue derived from Candles, in Great Britain, in each Year since 1820. — (*Part. Paper No. 468. Sess. 1830.*)

Year.	Tallow.		Wax.		Spermaceti.		Rate of Duty per lb.				Nett Revenue.			
	lbs.	d.	lbs.	d.	lbs.	d.	d.	s.	d.	d.	d.	d.		
1820	88,359,461	1	692,705	—	133,463	—	—	—	—	—	—	373,455	14	5
1821	83,816,348	—	697,198	—	163,547	—	—	—	—	—	—	395,811	8	7
1822	98,231,901	—	684,241	—	178,208	—	—	—	—	—	—	415,660	15	5
1823	102,461,879	—	694,194	—	180,401	—	—	—	—	—	—	433,577	15	8
1824	109,810,900	—	799,721	—	173,454	—	—	—	—	—	—	466,043	16	1
1825	114,187,550	—	811,570	—	308,377	—	—	—	—	—	—	485,019	8	9
1826	110,108,643	—	705,615	—	301,090	—	—	—	—	—	—	467,069	12	1
1827	114,936,578	—	715,655	—	226,477	—	—	—	—	—	—	487,518	3	4
1828	117,544,457	—	746,423	—	270,863	—	—	—	—	—	—	497,770	2	9
1829	115,156,808	—	746,652	—	303,683	—	—	—	—	—	—	489,059	1	9

CANDLE, Sale or Auction by Inch of, is when a small piece of candle being lighted, the bystanders are allowed to bid for the merchandise that is selling: but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the last bidder.

CANELLA ALBA (Fr. *Canelle blanche*; Ger. *Weisser Zimmt*; It. *Canella bianca*; Sp. *Canella blanca*; Lat. *Canella alba*), the inner bark of the *Canella alba*, a tree growing in the West Indies. It is brought to this country packed in casks and cases, in long pieces, some rolled in quills and others flat; the quilled sort is considerably thicker than cinnamon, and the flat nearly $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in thickness. The quilled pieces are yellow on both sides; the flat pieces are yellow on the outside and pale brown within. The odour of both kinds, when fresh broken, is aromatic, something like a mixture of cloves and cinnamon; and the taste slightly bitter, and extremely warm and pungent.

CANES. See **BAMBOO, RATTANS.**

CANNON, CANNONS (Du. *A. nonen*; Fr. *Canons*; Ger. *Kanonen*; It. *Cannoni*; Pol. *Dziala*; Por. *Canhoes*; Rus. *Fuschki*; Sp. *Canonas*; Sw. *Kanon*), a kind of long hollow engines for throwing iron, lead, or stone balls by the force of gunpowder. They are commonly made of iron, but frequently also of a mixture of copper, tin, and brass. They are either cast hollow, or solid and then bored; those made in the latter way being very superior. Brass cannons, or cannons made of mixed metal, are said not to be so well calculated for hard service, or quick and continued firing, as those made of iron. The proportions of the ingredients used in making the former do not differ materially in different countries, though they rarely coincide. To 240 lbs. of metal fit for casting, we commonly put 68 lbs. of copper, 52 lbs. of brass, and 12 lbs. of tin. To 4,200 lbs. of metal fit for casting, the Germans put 3,687 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of copper, 204 $\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of brass, and 307 $\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. of tin. Others, again, use 100 lbs. of copper, 6 lbs. of brass, and 9 lbs. of tin; and others, 100 lbs. of copper, 10 pounds of brass, and 15 lbs. of tin.

It seems to be the general opinion that cannon were first made use of in 1336 or 1338; but Don Antonio de Capmany has produced some statements, which render it almost certain that some sort of artillery was used by the Moors in Spain so early as 1312. — (*Questiones Criticas*, p. 181, &c.) Cannons were certainly used by the English in 1347 at the siege of Calais, and by the Venetians at Chioggia in 1366, and in their wars with the Genoese in 1379 and 1380. The Turks employed them at the sieges of Constantinople, in 1394 and 1453. When first introduced, they were for the most part very heavy and unwieldy, and threw balls of an enormous size: they were, however, owing to their frequently bursting, about as dangerous to those using them as to their opponents. There is a valuable article on the construction and history of cannons in *Rees's Cyclopædia*; but it was published previously to the appearance of Capmany's work referred to above.

CANTHARIDES, or SPANISH FLY (Fr. *Cantharides*, *Mouches d'Espagne*; Ger. *Spanische Fliegen*; It. *Cantarelle*; Lat. *Cantharis*; Rus. *Hischpanski muchi*; Sp. *Cantaridas*). This insect is found on a variety of shrubs in Spain, Italy, France, &c. Those used in this country are imported partly from Sicily, but principally from Astracan, packed in casks and small chests. The best are of a lively fresh colour, a small size, and not mouldy. They are frequently adulterated with the *Melolontha vitia*; but this is distinguishable by its form, which is squarer than the cantharis, and by its black feet. If they be properly dried and protected from the air, they may be kept for a very long period. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

CANTON, one of the greatest emporiums in the East, ranking, as a port of trade, either before, or immediately after, Calcutta, in the province of Quantong, in China; being, previously to 1843, the only place in that empire open by authority to European traders: lat. 23° 7' 10" N., lon. 113° 14' E.

Canton stands on the eastern bank of the Peking River, which flows from the interior in a navigable stream of 800 miles to this city, where it is rather broader than the Thames at London Bridge; falling, after an additional course of 80 miles, into the southern sea of China. Near its junction with the sea, it is called by foreigners *Boeca Tigris*. The town is surrounded by a thick wall, partly of stone and partly of brick, and is divided into 2 parts by another wall running east and west. The northern division is called the Old, and the southern the New City. In the old city is the Mantehou or Tartar general, with a garrison of Mantehou troops under his command. The lieutenant-governor or Fooyuen's office is also in the old city, but the governor and Hoppo (principal customs officer) reside in the new city, not far from the river.

All foreign commerce is conducted in the south-west suburb, where the foreign factories are situated; and which, with the other suburbs, is probably not less populous than the city itself. The residence of Europeans is confined to a very small space, on the banks of the river; which might, however, be as pleasant as a crowded mercantile place can well be, were it not for the great number of small *dwelling boats*, which cover the face of the river. The people who occupy the larger portion of these boats are said to have come originally from the south; and being a foreign and despised race, were not, at first, allowed to dwell on shore; but most of the distinctions between them and the rest of the people have been abolished.

Although Canton is situated nearly in the same parallel of latitude as Calcutta, there is a considerable difference in their temperature; the former being much the coolest, and requiring fires during the winter months. The streets are very narrow, paved with little round stones, and flagged close to the sides of the houses. The front of every house is a shop, and those of particular streets are laid out for the supply of strangers. China-street is appropriated to Europeans; and here the productions of almost every part of the globe are to be found. One of the shopkeepers is always to be found sitting on the counter, writing with a camel's hair brush, or calculating with his swanpan, on which instrument a Chinese will perform operations in numbers with as much celerity as the most expert European arithmetician. This part of Canton being much frequented by the seamen, every artifice is used by the Chinese retailers to attract their attention; each of them having an English name for himself painted on the outside of his shop, besides a number of advertisements composed for them by the sailors in their own peculiar idiom. The latter, it may be supposed, are often duped by their Chinese friends, who have, in general, picked up a few sea phrases, by which the seamen are induced to enter their shops; but they suit each other extremely well; as the Chinese dealers possess an importurbable command of temper, laugh heartily at their jokes without understanding them, and humour the seamen in all their sallies.

Ships only ascend the river as far as Whampoa, about 15 miles below Canton; loading and unloading by means of native boats.

The Chinese, considered as traders, are eminently active, persevering, and intelligent. They are, in fact, a highly commercial people; and the notion that was once very generally entertained, of their being peculiarly characterised by a contempt of commerce and of strangers, is as utterly unfounded as any notion can possibly be. Business is transacted at Canton with great despatch; and nowhere in the world may cargoes be sold and bought, loaded and unloaded, with more business-like speed and activity.

Provisions and refreshments of all sorts are abundant in Canton, and, in general, of an excellent quality; nor is the price exorbitant. Every description of them, dead and alive, is sold by weight. It is a curious fact, that the Chinese make no use of milk, either in its liquid state, or in the shape of curds, butter, or cheese. Among the delicacies of a Chinese market are to be seen horse flesh, dogs, cats, hawks, and owls. The country is well supplied with fish from the numerous canals and rivers by which it is intersected.

Foreign Factories.— These extend for a considerable way along the banks of the river, at the distance of about 100 yards. They are named, by the Chinese, *hongs*, and resemble long courts, or closes, without a thoroughfare, which generally contain 4 or 5 separate houses. They are built on a broad quay, and have a parade in front. This promenade is railed in, and is generally called *Respondentia Walk*; and here the European merchants, commanders, and officers of the ships meet after dinner and enjoy the cool of the evening. The English hong, or factory, far surpasses the others in elegance and extent. This, with the American and Dutch hongs, are the only ones that keep their national flags flying. The neighbourhood of the factories is occupied with warehouses for the reception of European goods, or of Chinese productions, until they are shipped. In 1822, during a dreadful conflagration that took place at Canton, the British factories and above 10,000 other houses were destroyed; on which occasion the East India Company's loss was estimated at 500,000*l.* sterling, three fifths in woolsens,

For the space of 4 or 5 miles opposite to Canton, the river resembles an extensive floating city, consisting of boats and vessels ranged parallel to each other, leaving a narrow passage for others to pass and repass. In these the owners reside with their families; the latter rarely visiting the shore.

All the business at Canton with Europeans is transacted in a jargon of the English language. The sounds of such letters as B, D, R, and X, are unknown in China. Instead of these they substitute some other letter, such as L for R, which occasions a Chinese dealer in rice to offer for sale in English a rather unmarketable commodity. The name mandarin is unknown among the Chinese; the word used by them to denote a person in authority being *quan*. Mandarin is a Portuguese word derived from the verb *mandar*, to command. — (*Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*; *Milburn's Orient. Commerce*; *Companion to Anglo-Chinese Calendar*, &c.)

Trade with China. Treaty of 1842. — The only real difficulty in trading with China originates in the despotism, pride, and jealousy of the government, and in the general corruption of its officers. The former affects to treat all foreigners with contempt, and is always exposing them to insult; while the latter endeavour to multiply and enforce vexatious regulations and demands, that they may profit by the doucours given for their evasion. We submitted, with exemplary forbearance, for a lengthened period, to every petty indignity the Chinese government chose to inflict; but the proceedings connected with the seizure and destruction, in 1839, of the opium belonging to British subjects — (see *Opium*), led to hostilities between this country and China; and these, as every one knows, have been productive of events that will have a powerful influence over the future intercourse of Englishmen, and of foreigners generally, with the Chinese. It is due to the latter to state, that though they were uniformly defeated, how superior soever in respect of numbers, they evinced no want of courage; and there can be no doubt that their ill-success proceeded principally from their ignorance of military affairs, and the extreme inferiority of their firearms and artillery.

The following are the principal provisions in the treaty signed by Sir Henry Pottinger and the Chinese commissioners on the 29th of August, 1842:

"China to pay \$1,000,000 dollars in the course of the present and three succeeding years.

"The ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai to be thrown open to British merchants; consular officers to be appointed to reside in them; and regular and just tariffs of import and export (as well as inland transit) duties to be established and published.

"The island of Hong Kong to be ceded in perpetuity to her Britannic Majesty, her heirs and successors.

"All subjects of her Britannic Majesty (whether natives of Europe or India) who may be confined in any part of the Chinese empire to be unconditionally released.

"An act of full and entire amnesty to be published by the Emperor, under his imperial sign manual and seal in all Chinese subjects, on account of their having held service or intercourse with, or resided under, the British government or its officers.

"Correspondence to be conducted on terms of perfect equality amongst the officers of both governments.

"On the Emperor's assent being received to this treaty, and the payment of the first instalment, 4,000,000 dollars, her Britannic Majesty's forces to retire from Nanking and the Grand Canal, and the military posts at Chinhai to be also withdrawn; but the islands of Chusan and Kolangsoo are to be held until the money payments and the arrangements for opening the ports be completed.

In the course of the present year (1843), a proclamation was issued, prohibiting, conformably to the stipulations in the above treaty, British subjects from resorting, for the purposes of trade and commerce, to any other ports in the dominions of the Emperor of China, than those of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai, or than may be in the occupation of her Majesty's forces. Any persons committing a breach or violation of this direction are, upon conviction in any of her Majesty's courts of record or Vice-Admiralty, liable to a penalty, not exceeding 100*l.*, or to imprisonment for a term not exceeding 3 months, at the discretion of the court.

It will be seen from the subjoined documents that the principal stipulations in this treaty have since been very fully carried into effect. The tariff of import and export duties, framed in compliance with the clause to that effect in the treaty, appears to be bottomed on fair and liberal principles; and the superintendent has pledged himself that it shall, in as far as the British government is concerned, be honestly acted upon.

Proclamation. — Sir H. Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B., her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c. &c. in China, has the satisfaction to announce, for the general information and guidance of all subjects of her Majesty, that he has concluded and sealed with the High Commissioner appointed by his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China to treat with him, a commercial treaty stipulated for in the definitive treaty of peace signed at Nanking on the 29th day of August, 1842, and the ratifications of which definitive treaty of peace have been lately exchanged under the sign manual and seals of her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the Emperor of China. Her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c. now publishes the export and import tariff and the regulation of trade which have been, after the most searching scrutiny and examination, fixed and finally agreed upon, and which tariff and regulations of trade are to be promulgated in Chinese simultaneously with the proclamation, accompanied by a proclamation on the part of the Imperial Commissioners, &c. Her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c. trusts that the provisions of the commercial treaty will be found in practice mutually advantageous, beneficial, and just, as regards the interest, honour, and future augmented prosperity of the governments of the two contracting empires and their subjects, and his Excellency most solemnly and urgently calls upon all subjects of the British crown, individually and collectively, by their allegiance to their sovereign, by their duty to their country, and by their own personal reputation, respect, and good name, and by the integrity and honesty which is due from all men to the Imperial rights of the Emperor of China, not only to strictly conform and act up to the said provisions of the commercial treaty, but to spurn, deny, and make known to the world any base, unprincipled, and traitorous overtures which they, or their agents,

or employ, may receive from, or which may be in any shape made to them by any subject of China, whether official or not, for entering into any collusion or scheme for the purpose of evading or acting in contumacy of the said provisions of the commercial treaty.

Her Britannic Majesty's Plenipotentiary, &c. will not allow himself to anticipate or suppose that the appeal which he makes to all her Majesty's subjects will be unheeded or overlooked, by even a single individual; but, at the same time, it is his duty, in the responsible and unprecedented situation in which he has been placed by the course of events, to distinctly intimate that he is determined, by every means at his disposal, to see the provisions of the commercial treaty fulfilled by all who choose to engage in future in commerce with China, and that in any case where he may receive well-grounded representations from her Majesty's consuls, or from the Chinese authorities, that such provisions of the Commercial Treaty have been evaded, or have been attempted to be so, he will adopt the most stringent and decisive measure against the offending parties; and where his present power may not fully authorize and sanction such a measure as may seem to him fitting, he will respectfully trust that the Legislature of Great Britain will hold him indemnified for adopting them in an emergency directly compromising the national honour, dignity, and good faith in the estimation of the government of China and in the eyes of all other nations.

Dated at the Government House at Victoria, Hong Kong, this 22nd day of July, 1843.

(Signed)

HENRY POTTINGER.

General Regulations under which the British Trade is to be conducted at the Five Ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

1. *Pilots.*—Whenever a British merchantman shall arrive off the five ports opened to trade, viz.: Canton, Foo-chow-foo, Amoy, Ningpo, or Shanghai, pilots shall be allowed to take her immediately into port; and in like manner when such British ship shall have settled all legal duties and charges, and is about to return home, pilots shall be immediately granted to take her out to sea, without any stoppage or delay. In respect to the remuneration to be given these pilots, that will be equitably settled by the British Consul appointed to each particular port, who will determine it with due reference to the distance gone over, the risk run, &c.

2. *Custom-house Guards.*—The Chinese Superintendent of Customs at each port will adopt the means that he may judge most proper to prevent the revenue suffering by fraud or smuggling. Whenever the pilot shall have brought any British merchantman into port, the superintendent of customs will depute one or two trusty custom-house officers, whose duty it will be to watch against frauds on the revenue. These will either live in a boat of their own, or stay on board the English ship, as may best suit their convenience. Their food and expenses will be supplied them from day to day from the custom-house, and they may not exact any fee whatever from either the commander or consignee. Should they violate this regulation, they shall be punished proportionately to the amount so exacted.

3. *Masters of Ships reporting themselves on Arrival.*—Whenever a British vessel shall have cast anchor at any one of the above-named ports, the captain will, within four-and-twenty hours after arrival, proceed to the British consulate and deposit his ship's papers, bills of lading, manifest, &c., in the hands of the consul; failing to do which he will subject himself to a penalty of 200 dollars. For presenting a false manifest the penalty will be 500 dollars. For breaking bulk and commencing to discharge before due permission shall be obtained, the penalty will be 500 dollars and confiscation of the goods so discharged. The consul, having taken possession of the ship's papers, will immediately send a written communication to the superintendent of customs, specifying the register tonnage of the ship, and particulars of the cargo she has on board; all of which being done in due form, permission will then be given to discharge, and the duties levied as provided for in the tariff.

4. *Commercial Dealings between English and China Merchants.*—It having been stipulated that English merchants may trade with whatever native merchants they please, should any Chinese merchant fraudulently abscond or incur debts which he is unable to discharge, the Chinese authorities, upon complaint being made thereof, will of course do their utmost to bring the offender to justice; it must, however, be distinctly understood that if the offender cannot be found, or he dead or bankrupt, and there be not wherewithal to pay, the English merchants may not appeal to the former customs of the Hong merchants paying for one another, and can no longer expect to have their losses made good to them.

5. *Tonnage Dues.*—Every English merchantman, on entering any one of the above-mentioned five ports, shall pay tonnage dues at the rate of five mace per register ton, in full of all charges. The fees formerly levied on entry and departure, of every description, are henceforth abolished.

6. *Import and Export Duties.*—Goods, whether imported into or exported from any one of the above-mentioned five ports, are thenceforward to be taxed according to the tariff as now fixed and agreed upon, and no further sums are to be levied beyond those which are specified in the tariff. All duties incurred by an English merchant vessel, whether on goods imported or in the shape of tonnage dues, must first be paid in full, which done, the superintendent of customs will grant port clearance, and this being shown to the British consul, he will thereupon return the ship's papers and permit the vessel to depart.

7. *Examination of the Goods at the Custom-house.*—Every English merchant having cargo to load or discharge, must give due intimation thereof, and hand particulars of the same to the consul, who will immediately despatch a recognised linguist of his own establishment to communicate the particulars to the superintendent of customs that the goods may be examined, and neither party subjected to loss. The English merchant must have a properly qualified person on the spot, to attend to his interests when his goods are being examined for duty; otherwise, should there be complaints, these cannot be attended to.

Regarding such goods as are subject by the tariff to an *ad valorem* duty, if the English merchant cannot agree with the Chinese officer in fixing a value, then each party shall call two or three merchants to look at the goods, and the highest price at which any of these merchants would be willing to purchase shall be assumed as the value of the goods. To fix the rate of duty, if the English merchant cannot agree with the custom-house officer, then each party shall choose so many chests out of every 100, which, being first weighed in gross, shall afterwards be tared, and the average tare upon these shall be assumed as the tare upon the whole, and upon this principle shall the tare be fixed upon all other goods in packages. If there should still be any disputed points which cannot be settled, the English merchant may appeal to the consul, who will communicate the particulars of the case to the superintendent of customs, that it may be equitably arranged. But the appeal must be made on the same day, or it will not be regarded. While such points are still open, the superintendent of customs will delay to insert the same in his books, thus affording an opportunity that the merits of the case may be duly tried and settled.

8. *Manner of paying the Duties.*—It is herein-before provided, that every English vessel that enters any one of the five ports, shall pay all duties and tonnage dues before she be permitted to depart. The superintendent of customs will select certain shroffs, or banking establishments of known stability, to whom he will give licences authorizing them to receive duties from the English merchants on behalf of government, and the receipts of these shroffs for any money paid them shall be considered as a government voucher. In the paying of these duties, different kinds of foreign money may be made use of; but as foreign money is not of equal purity with specie silver, the English consuls appointed to the different ports will, according to time, place, and circumstances, arrange with the superintendent of customs at each port, what coins may be taken in payment, and what per centage may be necessary to make them equal to standard or pure silver.

9. *Weights and Measures.*—Sets of balance-yards for the weighing of goods, of money weights, and of measures, prepared in exact conformity to those hitherto in use at the custom-house of Canton, and duly

stamped and sealed in proof thereof, will be kept in possession of the superintendent of customs, and also at the British consulate, at each of the five ports, and these shall be the standard by which all duties shall be charged, and all sums paid to government. In case of any dispute arising between British merchants and the Chinese officers of customs regarding the weights or measures of goods, reference shall be made to these standards, and disputes settled accordingly.

10. *Licenses or Cargo Boats.*—Whenever an English merchant shall have to load or discharge cargo, he may hire whatever kind of lighter or cargo boat he pleases, and the sum to be paid for such boat can be settled between the parties themselves, without the interference of government. The number of these boats shall not be limited, nor shall a monopoly of them be granted to any parties. If any smuggling take place in them, the offenders will, of course, be punished according to law. Should any of these boat people, while engaged in conveying goods for English merchants, fraudulently abscond with the property, the Chinese authorities will do their best to apprehend them; but, at the same time, the English merchants must take every due precaution for the safety of their goods.

11. *Transhipment of Goods.*—No English merchant ships may tranship goods without special permission; should any urgent case happen where transhipment is necessary, the circumstances must first be submitted to the consul, who will give a certificate to that effect, and the superintendent of customs will send a special officer to be present at the transhipment. If any one presumes to tranship without such permission being asked for and obtained, the whole of the goods so illicitly transhipped will be confiscated.

12. *Subordinate Consular Officers.*—At any place selected for the anchorage of the English merchant ships, there may be appointed subordinate consular officers of approved good conduct to exercise due control over the seamen and others. He must exert himself to prevent quarrels between the English seamen and the natives, this being of the utmost importance. Should any thing of the kind unfortunately take place, he will in the like manner do his best to arrange it amicably. When sailors go on shore to walk, officers shall be required to accompany them; and should disturbances take place, such officers will be held responsible. The Chinese officers may not impede natives from coming alongside the ships to sell clothes or other necessaries to the sailors living on board.

13. *Disputes between British Subjects and Chinese.*—Whenever a British subject has reason to complain of a Chinese, he must proceed to the consulate and state his grievance. The consul will thereupon inquire into the merits of the case, and do his utmost to arrange it amicably. In like manner, if a Chinese has reason to complain of a British subject, he shall no less listen to his complaint, and endeavour to settle it in a friendly manner. If an English merchant have occasion to address the Chinese authorities, he shall send such address through the consul, who will see that the language is becoming, and if otherwise, will direct it to be changed, or will refuse to convey the address. If, unfortunately, any disputes take place of such a nature that the consul cannot arrange them amicably, then he shall request the assistance of a Chinese officer, that they may together examine into the merits of the case, and decide it equitably. Regarding the punishment of English criminals, the English government will enact the laws necessary to attain that end, and the consul will be empowered to put them in force; and regarding the punishment of Chinese criminals, these will be left to be punished by their own laws, in the way provided for by the correspondence which took place at Nanking after the concluding of the peace.

14. *British Government Cruisers anchoring within the Ports.*—An English government cruiser will anchor within each of the five ports, that the consul may have the means of better restraining sailors and others, and preventing disturbances. But these government cruisers are not to be put upon the same footing as merchant vessels, for as they bring no merchandise, and do not come to trade, they will of course pay neither duties nor charges. The respective consuls will keep the superintendent of customs fully informed of the arrival and departure of such government cruisers, that he may take his measures accordingly.

15. *On the Security to be given for British Merchant Vessels.*—It has hitherto been the custom, when an English vessel entered the port of Canton, that a Chinese Hong merchant stood security for her, and all duties and charges were paid through such security merchant. But these security merchants being now done away with, it is understood that the British consul will henceforth be security for all British merchant ships entering into any of the Chinese ports.

Government Notification.—With reference to the preceding proclamation, it is hereby notified that the new system of trade will commence at Canton on the 1st day of the 7th month of the present Chinese year (27th July, 1843), and that from that day the Hong merchants' monopoly and Consoo charges will cease and terminate.

The other four ports of Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ninpo, Shanghai, which agreeably to the treaty of Nanking are to be resorted to by British merchant vessels, cannot be declared to be opened for that purpose until an imperial edict to that effect shall be received from the cabinet of Peking. This edict is expected to reach Canton early in the month of September. An immediate public notice will be given of the arrival. In the interim, measures will be taken for the appointment of consular officers, and their establishment, to the port in question, in order that no unnecessary delay may take place in the commencement of trade at them, and merchants may make their arrangements accordingly.

The following extracts from instructions addressed to Mr. Lay, officiating consul at Canton, are published for general information, and her Majesty's chief superintendent of trade enjoins every one concerned to pay implicit obedience to them:—
"You will see from the enclosed notification, that you are for the present relieved from the exercise of your consular judicial functions; and in the event of letters or petitions (in English or Chinese) referring to disputes, or containing complaints, being presented to you, you will (unless they should be of the most trivial and easily-adjusted nature) write upon them 'referred to the assistant superintendent, &c.', and sign your name.

"You will hold the masters of all vessels responsible to you, for the orderly and peaceable behaviour of their boats' crews, or any other persons belonging to their respective ships, who may visit Canton; and no 'liberty men' are to go up to that city without your previous permission, obtained in writing in answer to an application, specifying the number (of the propriety of which you are to consider yourself the judge), and distinctly promising and stating that an officer will accompany such liberty men, to look after and control the seamen or lascars, as the case may be.

"In any instance where you may discover that seamen or others are at Canton on liberty, without your permission, and the previous stipulations (above adverted to) having been complied with, you will request the commander of her Majesty's ship, which will be stationed at Whampoa, to support your authority, to have the seamen or others forthwith sent back to their ships, and you will report the circumstance to me, that I may adopt such further steps as the case may call for. You will at the same time intimate to the master, owner, or consignee, of the vessel from which the seamen or others unlawfully come, that all expenses attending the removal of the seamen or others from Canton, will be charged to the ship to which they belong, and will be recovered before she is allowed to sail.

"In cases of petty frays or assaults, or riotous and drunken conduct (unattended, however, with any marked degree of violence), in which you may be of opinion that the ends of justice will be obtained, and a sufficient example will be made, by fining the offender any sum not exceeding 10 dollars, or confining him for a period not exceeding five days, you have my authority to summarily decide in such cases, without even recording the evidence, merely making a memorandum of the fact, in a book to be kept for the purpose; but, in all cases where you may reconsider the offence to call for more serious notice, you will, with the assistance of the captain of her Majesty's ship, have the offender placed in confinement until a formal investigation can be held, and for which I will arrange on hearing the particulars from you.

Should you obtain positive and incontrovertible proof, that any British merchant ship on the river has been, or is, engaged in smuggling, or evading the payment of the just dues of the Chinese government, as laid down in the Tariff and regulation of trade, you will take immediate measures for intimating the same to the Chinese high officers, and officers of customs, in order that they may, if they think proper, put a stop to such vessel either landing or shipping further cargo, as the case may be; and you will likewise apprise the master, owner, or consignees of such ship of the steps you have taken, and will acquit them that any attempt to carry on their smuggling practices, or to trade in any shape, by force, in opposition to the wishes and directions of the Chinese authorities, will oblige me to have such ship removed from the river.

I annex a table of consular fees which you are to levy, and which are to form a fund for the present, to be subject to such instructions as may be hereafter received from her Majesty's government.

(By order)

G. A. MALCOLM, Sec. of Legation.

Dated at Government-House, at Victoria, Hong-Kong, this 22d day July, 1843.

Tariff of Duties on Exports from and Imports into China, established in pursuance of the above Treaty, in Chinese and Mercantile Currency (Dollars and Cents), reduced into their equivalent Rates in sterling Money, according to English Weights and Measures.

We are indebted for this valuable Table to W. Tait, Esq., author of the Modern Cambist, an accurate and useful publication, by which we have profited on many occasions.

EXPORTS.	Per	Chinese.	Merc. Cur.	Per	Sterling.
Alum	picul.	T.M.C.C. 0 1 0 0	D. C. 14	ton.	£ 7 31
Amesed	—	0 1 0 0	70	cwt.	2 6 58
Oil	—	2 0 0 0	6 94	lb.	0 3 00
Artemis	—	0 7 3 0	1 04	cwt.	4 2 47
Bamboo screens, and jambeo ware of all kinds	—	0 4 0 0	98	—	1 1 46
Bananas, or glass armlets	—	0 2 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Brown leaf	—	1 5 0 0	2 10	lb.	0 9 50
Building materials	—	—	Duty free.	—	—
Bone and horn ware	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	cwt.	2 7 30
Bamboo	—	1 5 0 0	2 10	—	2 9 53
Cases of all kinds	1,000	0 5 0 0	70	1,000	2 4 08
Capoor rutchery	picul.	0 2 0 0	42	cwt.	1 8 19
Cassia	—	0 7 3 0	1 03	—	1 2 47
— buds	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	2 7 30
— oil	—	2 0 0 0	6 94	lb.	0 3 00
China root	—	0 5 0 0	70	cwt.	1 1 46
China ware of all kinds	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Clothes, rusty metal	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Copper ware, pewter ware, &c.	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Covars (or false coral)	—	0 5 0 0	70	lb.	0 0 30
Crackers and fireworks of all kinds	—	0 7 3 0	1 03	—	0 9 45
Cuba	—	5 0 0 0	2 10	cwt.	6 4 25
Fans (in feather fans, &c.)	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Furniture of all kinds	—	0 2 0 0	28	cwt.	1 4 45
Galangal	—	0 1 0 0	14	—	0 2 73
Gamboge	—	2 0 0 0	2 78	—	11 2 61
Glass and glass ware of all kinds	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Glass beads	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Glass (in fish glass, &c.)	—	0 2 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Green cloth of all kinds	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	2 7 30
Harsal	—	0 2 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Ivory ware of all kinds	—	2 0 0 0	6 94	lb.	2 2 00
Kittwood, or paper umbrellas	—	0 5 0 0	70	lb.	2 9 53
Lacquered ware of all kinds	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	2 7 30
Lead, white	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	4 6 8
— red	—	0 2 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Marble slabs	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	1 1 46
Mats (straw, rattan, bamboo, &c.)	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	2 1 45
Mother-of-pearl ware	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Musk	saty.	0 2 0 0	70	ca.	0 1 47
Nankow and cotton cloth of all kinds	picul.	1 0 0 0	1 40	cwt.	2 7 30
Paintures, viz. large paintings	—	0 1 0 0	14	each.	0 2 01
— etc. paper pictures	—	100	0 1 0 0	100	0 2 01
Paper fans	—	0 5 0 0	70	lb.	0 0 30
Paper of all kinds	—	0 2 0 0	70	cwt.	2 9 53
Peas (black)	—	0 5 0 0	70	lb.	0 0 30
Pomegran and sweetmeats of all kinds	—	0 5 0 0	70	—	2 9 53
Rattan work of all kinds	—	0 5 0 0	70	cwt.	1 1 45
Rhubarb	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Rilk, raw, whether Chekiang, Canton, or elsewhere, all kinds	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	—	0 6 01
— coarse, or refuse of silk	—	2 5 0 0	2 47	—	0 1 30
— genuine of all kinds	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	—	0 6 01
Ribbons, thread, &c.	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	—	0 6 01
— piece goods of all kinds, as silks, satins, pongees, velvets, crepes, lacestrings, &c.	—	12 0 0 0	16 67	—	0 7 01
V. B. — The additional duty of so much per picul, (bithorio levied, to be hereonforth abolished)	—	—	—	—	—
Silk and cotton mixtures, silk and woolen mixtures, and goods of such class	—	3 0 0 0	4 17	cwt.	0 1 46
Rhines and boxes, leather, satin, or otherwise	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	0 0 60
Sandalwood ware	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Silver ware and gold ware	—	0 4 0 0	56	—	0 0 44
Key	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	ca. Troy.	0 2 00
Sugar, white and brown	—	0 2 5 0	35	cwt.	1 4 22
Sugarcandy of all kinds	—	0 2 5 0	49	—	1 13 55
Tindit	—	0 2 0 0	70	—	0 0 30
Tan	—	2 5 0 0	5 47	lb.	0 1 50
Tobacco of all kinds	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	0 0 19
Turmeric	—	0 2 0 0	28	cwt.	1 1 45
Ternisshell ware	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	lb.	0 6 01
Trunks of leather	—	0 2 0 0	28	cwt.	1 1 45
Tresses (comb of all kinds)	—	—	Duty free.	—	—
Vermillion	—	2 0 0 0	4 17	lb.	0 1 80
Articles unenumerated in this tariff to pay 3 per cent. ad valorem.	—	—	—	—	—
IMPORTS.					
Ausafuda	picul.	1 0 0 0	1 40	cwt.	2 7 30
Bees' wax	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	5 7 30
Black nut	—	0 1 0 0	14	—	0 1 30
Birds of war, first quality, or black	—	0 8 0 0	1 12	—	4 2 94
— second quality, or white	—	0 2 0 0	28	—	1 1 46
Birds' nests, first quality, or clean	—	5 0 0 0	6 94	lb.	0 3 00

IMPORTS - continued.	Fee	Chinese.	Mer. Cur.	Fee	Duties.
		T. M. C. C.	D. C.		
Beads, same, second quality, or good middling -	picul.	2 5 0 0	2 47	ewt.	2 1 50
(third quality, or declined)	picul.	2 5 0 0	-70	—	0 3 50
Campah (Malay), first quality, or clean	caty.	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	2 0 00
second quality, or refuse	—	0 5 0 0	—	—	2 6 04
China, first quality, or picked	picul.	1 0 0 0	2 10	—	0 7 50
second quality, or neither class	—	0 5 0 0	-70	—	0 0 50
Cloths, washes, spps, gingsams, all kinds of writing cloths, sewing boxes, calico, perambury, &c.	—	5 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Canvas, 30 to 40 yards long, 14 to 21 in. wide	piece.	2 5 0 0	-70	piece.	2 4 08
Cashmere	picul.	100	9 54	—	0 3 00
Cornmeal	100	0 5 0 0	-70	100	0 2 00
Cornmeal	—	10 0 0 0	13 89	lb.	0 8 01
Cotton	picul.	0 4 0 0	-56	—	1 2 94
Cotton manufactures, viz. 1 -	—	—	—	—	—
long cloths, white, 30 to 40 yds. long, 20 to 26 in. wide	piece.	0 1 5 0	-21	piece.	1 0 01
checked and washed, 20 to 24 yds long, 11 to 16 in. wide	—	0 1 5 0	-21	—	1 0 01
grey or unbleached cottons, viz. long cloths, domestic, &c., 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 in. wide	—	0 1 0 0	-14	—	0 8 01
grey (washed) cottons, 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 in. wide	—	0 1 0 0	-14	—	0 8 01
chints and prints of all kinds, 24 to 30 yards long, 20 to 31 in. wide	—	0 2 0 0	-28	—	1 4 08
household cloths above 1 yard square	each.	0 0 1 5	-32	each.	0 1 91
ditto under 1 yard square	—	0 0 1 0	-31	—	0 0 50
ginghams, paillettes, dyed cottons, veiveteens, silk and cotton mixtures, woolen and cotton mixtures, and all kinds of fancy goods not in current consumption	—	5 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
yarn and cotton thread	picul.	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Cow bonnet	caty.	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	2 0 09
Cutch	—	0 3 0 0	-48	ewt.	1 8 19
Elephant's teeth, first quality, whole	—	4 0 0 0	4 55	—	22 5 50
second quality, broken	—	2 0 0 0	2 78	—	11 2 81
Fish maws -	—	1 5 0 0	2 10	—	8 4 85
Flint	—	0 0 0 0	-37	ton.	0 7 50
Glass, glass ware, and crystal ware of all kinds	—	5 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Ginseng	—	0 1 5 0	-21	ewt.	0 10 09
Ginseng, first quality	—	20 0 0 0	22 77	—	1 10 23
second quality, or refuse	—	5 0 0 0	4 98	—	0 2 10
Gold and silver thread, first quality, or real	caty.	1 5 0 0	-18	oz. Troy.	0 0 53
second quality, or imitation	—	0 0 3 0	-34	—	0 0 12
Gum Benjamin	picul.	1 0 0 0	1 40	ewt.	5 7 50
allumum	—	0 0 0 0	-70	—	2 9 55
myrrh	—	0 5 0 0	-70	—	2 9 53
unenumerated	—	10 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Horns, bullocks' and buffaloes'	—	2 0 0 0	2 78	ewt.	11 2 81
unicorns' or rhinoceros'	—	2 0 0 0	4 17	—	10 2 81
Linen, fine, as Irish or Scotch, yards long, in wide	piece.	0 5 0 0	-70	piece.	3 4 06
coarse, or linen and cotton mixture, all and linen mixtures, &c.	—	—	—	—	—
Mason, or flower of muslin	—	5 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Mother-of-pearl shells	picul.	1 0 0 0	1 40	lb.	0 0 60
Metal, viz. 1 -	—	0 2 0 0	-28	ton.	1 1 46
copper, unmanufactured, as in pigs	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	ton.	112 2 10
manufactured, as in sheets, rods, &c.	—	1 5 0 0	2 10	—	109 3 15
iron, unmanufactured, as in pigs	—	1 0 0 0	-14	—	11 2 61
manufactured, as in bars, rods, &c.	—	1 5 0 0	-21	—	16 9 81
lead, in pigs, or unmanufactured	—	0 4 0 0	-56	—	44 10 44
qualifier	—	2 0 0 0	4 17	lb.	0 1 90
steel, manufactured	—	0 4 0 0	-56	ton.	44 10 44
tin plates	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	ewt.	2 7 50
unenumerated	—	0 0 0 0	-56	—	2 2 94
various mixed metals	—	10 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Nutmegs, first quality, or cleaned	—	2 0 0 0	2 78	lb.	0 1 50
second quality, or uncleaned	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	—	0 0 50
Pepper	—	0 4 0 0	-56	—	0 0 24
Patchwork	—	0 7 5 0	1 04	ewt.	4 2 47
Rasine	—	0 5 0 0	-28	—	1 1 46
Rice, paddy, and grain of all kinds	—	Duty free.	—	—	5 2 50
Ras-macras	—	1 0 0 0	-48	—	23 7 83
Salt (to be sold to government agents only)	—	1 0 0 0	1 40	ewt.	2 7 99
Shark's fins, first quality, or white	—	0 5 0 0	-70	—	2 9 55
second quality, or black	—	—	—	—	—
Shins and furs, viz. 1 -	—	—	—	—	—
cow and or hides, tanned and untanned	—	0 5 0 0	-70	lb.	0 0 99
sea otter skins	each.	1 5 0 0	2 10	each.	10 0 18
fox skins, large	—	0 1 5 0	-21	—	1 0 01
small	—	0 0 7 5	-10	—	0 6 00
tiger, leopard, and marten	—	0 1 5 0	-21	—	1 0 01
land otter, racoon, and shark skins	100	2 0 0 0	2 78	100	13 4 23
beaver skins	—	0 5 0 0	6 54	—	23 4 92
beaver, rabbit, and ermine	—	0 5 0 0	-70	—	2 4 06
Seals	picul.	4 0 0 0	5 55	lb.	0 2 40
Seap	—	0 5 0 0	-70	ewt.	2 9 55
Stockfish, &c.	—	0 4 0 0	-56	—	2 2 94
Sea horse teeth	—	2 0 0 0	2 78	lb.	0 1 50
Treasure and money of all kinds	—	1 5 0 0	1 40	100	2 8 12
Wine, beer, spirits, &c., in quart bottles	100	0 5 0 0	-70	—	3 4 06
in pint bottles	—	0 5 0 0	-70	—	3 4 06
in cask	picul.	0 5 0 0	-70	ewt.	2 9 55
Woods, viz. 1 -	—	—	—	—	—
slimy	—	0 1 5 0	-21	—	10 2 91
sandal wood	—	0 5 0 0	-70	ton.	2 9 55
sapan wood	—	0 1 0 0	-14	—	0 5 73
unenumerated	—	10 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Woolen manufactures, viz. 1 -	—	—	—	—	—
bread cloths, stripes, habit cloths, &c., 54 to 64 in. wide	chang.	0 1 5 0	-21	yard.	0 3 06
long silk, cambrics, flannels, and narrow cloths of this description	—	0 0 7 0	-10	—	0 1 43
blankets of all kinds	each.	0 1 0 0	-14	each.	0 8 01
Dutch cambrics	chang.	0 1 5 0	-21	yard.	0 3 06
cambrics	—	0 0 7 0	-10	—	0 1 43
imitation cambrics, bombazines, &c.	—	0 0 3 5	-5	—	0 0 71
hauling (narrow)	—	0 0 1 5	-8	—	0 0 50
unenumerated woolen goods, or silk and woolen, cotton and woolen mixtures	—	5 per cent.	ad valorem.	—	—
Woolen yarns	picul.	5 0 0 0	4 17	lb.	0 1 90
Articles unenumerated in this tariff to pay 5 per cent. ad valorem.					
N. B. - Tonnage dues on vessels entering, in full of all charges, 5 mace					
register ton.	—	—	-70	—	3 4 06

BERNARDINO. — Chinese *Wahkida*, per standard: 1 picul = 100 catties = 1,600 taels = 1354 *swatidapoi*. 1 tael = 3831 grains Troy. 400 lb. *swatidapoi* = 3 picul. 1 cwt. *swatidapoi* = 80 catties. 1 lb. *swatidapoi* = 18 tael.

Chinese Measure: 1 *chuan* = 141 English inches, or 12 *chaw* = 47 yards. Liquids and generally, grain are sold by weight.

Chinese Money: 1 tael = 10 mace = 100 candareen = 1,000 cash.

The principal monetary integer, the tael, is this weight of pure silver, there being no Chinese coins in gold, and no other Chinese currency, or medium of payment, in all, than the small pieces of silver, stamped by the sheriff or bankers appointed by the government. The average purity of silver may be reckoned at 96 tael, or 151 dwts., better than British standard; and as it contains, on the average, about 18 grains of gold in the pound Troy, the net value is 50 pence per ounce standard, after making the usual allowance for the extraction of the gold, is very nearly equal to 78½ pence sterling, per tael.

In mercantile currency, or the money of account of foreign merchants trading with China, the dollar is divided into 100 cents, and 720 taels of Chinese account are reckoned equal to 1,000 dollars in this currency, making the tael equal to 1 dollar 28-8-9ths cents; but in small amounts it is reckoned at 1 dollar

40 cents. This is, however, only a nominal valuation, by which the dollar is made nearly 50½ pence sterling, or 15½ per cent. above its real value.

According to the 18th article of the general regulations under which the British trade is to be conducted at the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai, the English consuls appointed to these ports are to arrange with the superintendants of the customs at each, what coins may be taken in the payment of the duties, and what per centage may be necessary to make them equal to standard or pure silver. In pursuance of this regulation, the following estimations have been made at Canton, and will, probably, be followed at the other ports of trade: — rupees including 1000, Ten Rs. (to.); Pauritan dollars, 1111, 4m. 5c. 2s.; Mexican dollars, 1111, 5m. 0c.; 6c. 1/2; Belgian dollars, 1111, 1m. 5c. 0c.; Chinese dollars, 1124, 5m. 5c. 0c.; and shopped dollars, 1124, 5m. 0c. 7c. 1/2 are to be accounted as 100 taels of pure silver, being, according to this monetary tariff, respectively equal to 2 dwts., 6½ dwts., 6½ dwts., 6½ dwts., 7½ dwts., and 8½ dwts. worse than British standard. To these per centages are to be added 4 per cent. for difference between the hooper's and the sheriff's weights, and another 1 per cent. for refining. Hence the value of the tael of pure silver is rendered very nearly equal to 794 pence, and with the 1 per cent. to 804 pence sterling, at which value the Chinese rates in the above schedule have been reduced. — (Tael.)

Opium. — A notion having been entertained that opium might be legally imported into China, under the provisions of this tariff, on paying an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent., the following proclamation has been issued on the subject: —

Proclamation. — It having been brought to my notice that such a step has been contemplated as sending vessels with opium on board into the ports of China, and demanding that the said opium shall be admitted to importation, by virtue of the concluding clause of the new tariff, which provides for all articles not actually enumerated in that tariff *vasice*: at an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent., I think it expedient, by this proclamation, to point out to all whom it may concern, that opium being an article the traffic in which is well known to be declared illegal and contraband by the laws and imperial edicts of China, any person who may take such a step will do so at his own risk, and will, if a British subject, meet with no support or protection from her Majesty's consuls or other officers.

This proclamation will be translated and published in Chinese, so that no one may plead ignorance of it.

Government-house, Victoria, this 1st day of August, 1843.

But, notwithstanding this proclamation, and in defiance of the strong denunciation of smuggling in the proclamation of the 2d of July (see p. 230*), it is distinctly stated in Hong Kong papers that there was, on the 21st of September 1843, almost in sight of our consular flag, a "fleet of British vessels openly engaged in the vending of opium to the Chinese!" This certainly is a curious commentary on the above proclamations; and it were much to be wished, seeing that the trade cannot be suppressed, that it were legalised on opium paying a reasonable duty.

The payment of our consuls by fees is much, and we believe justly, objected to at Canton. It is a bad practice anywhere, and especially so in China.

Supposing, however, that the treaty with China is *bona fide* carried into effect, still it may be doubted whether the trade with that empire will ever be so extensive as many suppose. We believe, indeed, that China will afford a most extensive outlet for various descriptions of our manufactured goods, provided we can bring away equivalents suitable for the European and other foreign markets. But this, we incline to think, will be no easy matter. Excepting tea, China has few articles suitable for extensive use in Europe, other than silk and silver. Chinese silk is, however, losing ground as compared with that of Italy and Turkey, while it is most probable that the enhancement of its price, consequent to any great increase in the exportation of silver, would, in no very long time, bring it to a close. Tea is the grand equivalent which the Chinese have to exchange for our products; and there cannot, as it appears to us, be a doubt that the effectual reduction of the present exorbitant duties on tea would be the most likely means of extending the trade with China.

Hong Kong. — The island of this name, ceded to us by the above treaty, is situated on the N. side of the entrance from the sea to the estuary of the Canton River, being separated from the main land by a narrow channel having 14 fathoms water. It stretches about 8 miles from east to west, and is of a very irregular figure, having several promontories, and being deeply indented with bays. It consists principally of a series of high hills, the highest having an elevation of about 1,200 feet. Victoria, the principal British settlement on the north side of the island, in lat. 22° 16' 27" N., long. 114° 10' 48" E., has the advantage of an excellent roadstead with from 3 to 7 fathoms water and good holding ground. There are also numerous well-sheltered roads and bays with deep water on the south side of the island; which, indeed, appears, from its position and other advantages, extremely well fitted for a naval station. Every thing, however, will depend on the fact of its being healthy, of which, we are sorry to observe, grave doubts are entertained. Should these happily prove unfounded, it is probable that in no very lengthened period a considerable portion of the trade which is at present centred in Canton will be transferred to Hong Kong; and, under the above

condition, it can hardly fail to become an important *entrepôt*, not merely for the trade with the Canton River, but with China generally. It is intended to have it strongly fortified. — (See the *Plan of the Canton River in the Mercator's Chart* prefixed to the title-page of this work.)

Money. — Accounts are kept at Canton in taels, mace, candarins, and cash the tael being divided into 10 mace, 100 candarins, or 1,000 cash. There is but one kind of money made in China, called cash, which is not coined but cast, and which is only used for small payments: it is composed of 8 parts of copper and 2 of lead; it is round, marked on one side, and rubbed round at the edges with a square hole in the middle. These pieces are commonly carried, like beads, on a string of wire. A tael of fine silver should be worth 1,200 cash; but, on account of their convenience for common use, their price is sometimes as much raised that only 750 cash are given for the tael.

Foreign coins, however, circulate here, particularly Spanish dollars; and for small changes they are cut into very exact proportions, but afterwards weighed for such purpose merchants generally carry scales, called *dotchin*, made somewhat after the plan of the English *centenars*.

The tael used to be reckoned at 6s. 8d. sterling in the books of the East India Company; but its value varies, and is generally computed according to the price paid for mace for Spanish dollars in London. The tables given for this proportional value may be calculated in pence sterling, by the multiplier 1/100. Thus, if the price of the mace be 6s. 8d. per catty, the value of the tael will be 6s. 1/408 or 7s. 4d.; if at 6s. 6d., the value of the tael will be 7s. 12d.; and for any other price in the same proportion.

Fineness of Gold and Silver. — The fineness of gold and silver is expressed by dividing the weight into 100 parts, called *tauch* or *touch*; similar to the modern practice of France. Thus, if an ingot be 98 *tauch*, it is understood to contain 7 parts of alloy and 93 of pure metal, making in the whole 100.

The fineness of precious metals, expressed in these decimal proportions, may be converted into English proportions by the following annexed rule: Suppose gold is 91.66 *tauch*, say, as 100 : 91.66 :: 18 : 1; the standard, and you will have 16.5 standard silver into *tauch*, say, as 100 : 16.5 :: 100 : 99.5, the *tauch* of sterling silver. Pure gold or silver without alloy is called by the Chinese *tyes*, and sometimes, when of less purity, the metal is accepted as *tyes*.

Silver Ingots are used as money, and weigh from 1/2 a tael to 100 taels, their value being determined by their weight. These ingots are of the best sort of silver; that is, about 94 *tauch*.

Gold Ingots. — Gold is not considered as money, but as merchandise: it is sold in regular ingots of a determined weight, which the English call *shen* of gold; the largest of these weigh 10 taels each; and the gold is reckoned 94 *tauch*, though it may be only 92 or 93.

Weights. — Gold and silver are weighed by the *catty* of 16 taels; the tael is divided into 10 mace, 100 candarins, or 1,000 cash. 100 taels are reckoned to weigh 16 lbs. avoirdupois, which makes the tael equal to 57.9 English grains, or 37.566 grammes.

The principal weights for merchandise are the *picul*, the *catty*, and the *tael*; the *picul* being divided into 100 catties, or 1,600 taels.

	Lbs. av. dwt.
1 Tael weight, avoirdupois	0 1 0.333 = 14 gr.
16 Taels, or 1 catty	0 2 5.333 = 1 lb.
100 Catties, or 1 picul	135 0 9.333 = 153 lbs.

Hence the *picul* weighs 60-679 kilogrammes, or 133 lbs. 0 oz. 8 dwt. 15 gr. Troy.

The above weights are sometimes otherwise denominated, especially by the natives; thus, the *catty* is called *pin*; the *tael*, *tyang*; the *mace*, *tyen*; the *candarins*, *tsan*; and the *cash*, *lin*.

There are no commercial measures in China, as all dry goods and liquids are sold by weight. In delivering cargo, English weights are used, and afterwards turned into Chinese *picul* and *catties*.

Long Measures. — That used in China is the *covid* or *cobre*; it is divided into 10 puns, and is equal to 0.3715 metres, or 14.625 English inches.

	Mètres.	Eng. Inch.
The foot of the mathematical tribunal	0.333 = 15.125	
The builders' foot, called <i>coups</i>	0.3398 = 14.7	
The sailors' and engineers' foot	0.3383 = 15.33	
The foot used by engineers	0.3211 = 12.65	

The li contains 180 fathoms, each 10 feet of the last mentioned length; therefore the li is 1,800 English feet; and 192 li measure a mean degree of a meridian nearly; but European missionaries in China have divided the degree into 360 li, each li making 1,800 English feet, which gives the degree 69.166 English miles, or 111.51 French myriamètres.

Hong Merchants. — Previously to the commencement of the new system, it had, as stated above, been the invariable practice, enforced by law, that all foreign vessels arriving in the port should employ, as broker or agent, a hong or security merchant, who became, by doing so, responsible to the government for the duties. These merchants, who were but few in number, were the only individuals in the empire legally authorised to trade with foreigners, a privilege for which they had to pay very largely. Even after an arrangement had been made with any particular hong merchant for securing a ship, the captain or supercargo might deal with any other hong merchant, or even with any outside merchant (or merchant not belonging to the hong) he pleased. The peculiar duty of the hong merchant was to pay the duties on both the inward and outward cargoes; and hence arose the practice of foreigners buying all goods for export duty paid, and selling all the goods brought with them free of duty, the duties being, in both cases, paid by the hong merchants who had secured the ship; and hence, also, the ignorance of most foreigners as to the amount of the duties. But now that the privilege of the hong merchants has been abolished, the duties will have to be paid to the Chinese authorities by the parties importing and exporting, in the same way as in this country.

European Trade at Canton. — As soon as a vessel arrives among the islands which front the entrance to the Canton river, she is generally boarded by a pilot, who conducts her into Macao or Hong Kong, or the entrance to the river, as, however, as early, the ships push on without waiting for the pilot, who, if the weather be bad, is sometimes long in coming on board. The pilot's services are regulated at the *Kan-tsin* office, near *tsan-tse*; and for a licence to act, the sum of 500 dollars is paid. The person who takes out the licence sometimes has a fishing boat on the river; but employs fishermen to do the duty. The vessel's arrival in the road, the pilot goes on shore to report her at the office of the *kan-tsin*-lo, who, when he has received answers to his inquiries, gives a permit for her to pass through the *tsung*, and orders a river pilot on board. This pilot seldom repairs on board the vessel before 24 hours have elapsed. When arrived, the vessel proceeds through the *tsung*, and up the Canton river, to Whampoa.

Every ship that enters the port requires the service of a linguist and comprador, before she can commence unloading. The master used to be required to give a written declaration, in duplicate, solemnly affirming that the ship has brought no opium.

All the trade with foreigners used to be confined in the *tsung* or security merchants; but this restriction has recently been abolished; and foreigners may now deal with any merchant or other party they think fit to employ, who requires the assistance of some interpreter, who procures permits for delivering and taking in cargo, transact all the Custom-house business, and keep accounts of the duties. All the minor changes of the government, also, are paid by them; in consideration of which they receive a fee of about 175 dollars, previously to the vessel's departure.

When a vessel wishes to discharge or receive cargo, the linguist is informed a day or two previously, what kind of goods are to be received or discharged, and in what quantities. He then applies for a permit, which being issued, the lighters or chop-boats proceed to Whampoa, where they usually arrive on the evening of the second or morning of the third day. For a single boat the linguist used to receive a fee of 25 dollars; but if a permit be obtained for from 3 to 4 days, at a time, the fee for each boat was only 11 taels 8 mace 6 cand., or about 104 dollars.

When the goods are ready to be landed from or onto the ship, the *hoyp* (principal Custom-house officer) sends a demand, a writer, and a police officer; the hong merchant who has secured the ship sends a domestic, called a *tsai-sung* man (one who attends at the public office, on ordinary occasions, in behalf of his master); and the linguist sends an accountant and interpreter, to attend at the examination of the goods. The hong merchant used to be held responsible by government for all duties, whether on imports or exports in foreign vessels; and therefore, when goods were purchased, it was customary for the parties, before fixing the price, to arrange between themselves as to who was actually to pay the duties.

Of an import cargo, such as chop-boats, opium, to raw, which, however, is not rigidly enforced, should consist, — of wolans, camlets, and long-silk, 140 bales in tin, 500 bales; lead, 500 pigs; Bombay Cotton, 55 bales; Bengali cotton, 50 bales; best pepper, &c., 500 piculs.

Of export goods, a chop-boat should take, — of tin, 600 chests; of oil or sorts of goods, 500 piculs. If more than this, the hong merchant gives to the chop-boat, for each additional picul, 6 dollars.

In calculating the duties on export goods, 90 catties are considered 100. The wolans, long-silk, and camlets, are measured by the *chang* of 10 *covid*, without any deduction; and single articles are numbered.

If, after entering the port, any persons tranship goods, it is considered that the one ship sold them to the other; and, in that case, the same duty has to be paid as if the goods were brought up to Canton. Provisions are not included in this regulation.

Ships' boats are not allowed to carry up or down any thing chargeable with duty. Gold, silver, copper, and iron are prohibited to be exported; a few culinary articles are the only exception. When it is desired to export treasure, the hong merchant must make an estimate of the value of the import and export cargoes; and whatever balance there may be in favour of the ship, may then be shipped off as treasure.

If more cargo be sent to a ship than she can take on board, and she wishes to go to be shipped on board another, it must be done within 3 days after announcing the goods at the Custom-house, and a hong merchant must state it to government; if granted, a hong merchant and linguist are ordered to go to Whampoa and take an account of such cargo, all with the expense of boats, runners, &c. at Whampoa, costs 40 or 50 dollars. — [Companion to Anglo-Chinese Calendar, pp. 92-101.]

Foreign Merchants.—These consist of British, American, French, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Spanish, and Portuguese, with Parsee and Indian Mohammedan British subjects. The Americans, French, and Dutch have each consular agents recognised by the Imperial government. The same privileges have been, or are to be, conceded to all foreigners that have been granted to the English.

Rates of Commission in China, agreed upon in November, 1831, and revised by the Chamber of Commerce, March, 1838.

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. On all sales of opium, cotton, cochineal, camphor, barons, birds' nests, diamonds, and other precious stones, pearls, ships, and houses 5 per cent. 2. On sales of all other goods 5 ditto. 3. On returns, if in goods 5 ditto. 4. On returns, if in treasure, bullion, or bills 1 ditto. 5. On purchases, not being returns for goods sold:—
1st. Of raw silk 3 ditto.
2d. Of manufactured silk 5 ditto.
3d. Of all other goods 5 ditto. 6. On inspecting teas, whether for returns or otherwise, an additional charge of 1 ditto. 7. On sale, purchase, or shipment of bullion 1 ditto. 8. On drawing, sale, or negotiation of bills when not involving responsibility as drawer or endorser 1 ditto. 9. On drawing, sale, or negotiating of bills when guaranteed by the agent as drawer or endorser, and not covered by adequate security 5 ditto. 10. On purchasing bills, or effecting remittance by bills, of the agent or otherwise 1 ditto. 11. On negotiating bills, of the agent or otherwise 5 ditto. 12. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements 5 ditto. 13. On guaranteeing sales when especially required without including responsibility for remittance 1 ditto. 14. On guaranteeing both sale and remittance of proceeds 1 ditto. 15. On bills of exchange, returned noted, or protested 1 ditto. 16. On letters of credit for mercantile purposes 5 ditto. 17. On all advances of money for purposes of trade, whether the goods are consigned to the agent or not, and where a commission of 5 per cent. is not charged 5 ditto. 18. On ordering goods, or superintending the fulfilment of contracts, where no other commission is derived 5 ditto. 19. On all goods, treasure, &c. consigned, and afterwards withdrawn or sent to auction, and for goods consigned for additional delivery to others 1 commission. 20. On procuring freight, or advertising as | <p>agents or owners or commanders, on the amount of freight, whether the same passes through the hands of the agent or not 5 per cent.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 21. On receiving inward freights 1 ditto. 22. On ship's disbursements 5 ditto. 23. On chartering ships for other parties 5 ditto. 24. On effecting insurance, or writing orders for insurance 1 ditto. 25. Settling insurance losses, total or partial, and on procuring return of premium 1 ditto. 26. Debts, where a process at law or arbitration is necessary, 5 per cent.; and if recovered 5 ditto. 27. Collecting house rent 5 ditto. 28. Acting for the master of persons deceased, or executors or administrators 5 ditto. 29. The management of the estates of others, on the amount received 5 ditto. 30. All such receipts, not serving for the purchase of goods, and not otherwise specified above 1 ditto. 31. Warehousing goods 1 per mil. 32. Transshipping goods 1 per cent. 33. All advances not punctually liquidated, the agent to have the option of charging a second commission, as upon a fresh advance, provided the charge does not occur twice in the same year 1 ditto. 34. At the option of the agent, on the amounts debited or credited within the year, including interest, and excepting only items on which a commission of 5 per cent. has been charged 1 ditto. <p><i>N.B.</i>—This charge not to be applied to paying over a balance due on an account made up to a particular period, unless where such balance is withdrawn without reasonable notice.</p> <p><i>Port Charges</i> are fixed under the new treaty at 5 mace per register ton, in full of all charges; so that the complex system that previously obtained for charging these duties is done, in as far as least as British ships are concerned, at an end. Vessels importing rice or other grain into any of the five ports open to British vessels, are liable to no charges whatever; but if they take away an export cargo, they then have to pay the duties on such cargo agreeably to the tariff, and one moiety of the tonnage dues, or 1/4 mace per ton.</p> |
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Trade between England and China.—Down to 1834, the trade between the United Kingdom and China was monopolised by the East India Company, but in the above year this monopoly was happily abolished, and the trade with China thrown open to all classes under the conditions specified in the act 3 & 4 W. 4. c. 93. Tea has always been by far the principal article of import from China; and it is mainly owing to the diffusion of the taste for it, and its consumption by all ranks and orders of the people, that the trade with China has attained its present importance: and, as already seen, we believe we must principally look to the increased consumption of tea that would, no doubt, follow the effectual reduction of the exorbitant duties with which it is at present loaded, for the future increase of the trade. The other articles of import are raw silk and silk manufactures, nankeens, cassia lignea, and a few other articles; but they are of very inferior value and importance as compared with tea.

The great articles of export from this country to China consist of cotton stuffs and yarn, woollen goods, linen, &c., earthenware, iron and steel, &c. Bullion used to be largely exported to China; but latterly the current has begun to set in the opposite direction.

Previously to the abolition of the monopoly, in 1834, the real value of the merchandise annually exported from the U. Kingdom to China did not exceed 600,000*l.*; whereas it had increased in 1836 to 1,326,368*l.*; and though it fell off in 1837 to 678,375*l.*, it rose in 1838 to 1,204,356*l.* The interruption of the regular trade, by the disturbances and hostilities that afterwards ensued, prevents any accurate conclusions in regard to its probable future amount being deduced from the returns for 1839, 1840, and 1841.

But in 1842, the exports from the U. Kingdom to China amounted to 969,381*l.*; in 1843 they were 1,456,180*l.*; and in 1845 they rose to the unprecedented amount of 2,394,827*l.* And great as this amount may seem, most probably it would, at no distant period, be very much increased but for the difficulty the Chinese experience in making returns; a difficulty which would, however, be very materially diminished were the duty on bohea reduced, as it should be, to 6*d.* or 8*d.* per lb., and that on other teas in the same proportion.

The act 6 & 7 Victoria, cap. 80., authorises the superintendent of the trade of her Majesty's subjects in China, being at the same time governor of Hong Kong, to issue, with the advice of the legislative

count of the island, laws and ordinances for the government of British subjects in China, or within 100 miles of the same. Laws and ordinances so issued are to be laid before parliament.

Account of the Quantities of Tea Imported into the United Kingdom direct from China, in each Year from 1793 to 1845, both Inclusive.

Years.	Ton.	Years.	Ton.	Years.	Ton.	Years.	Ton.
1793	16,067,331	1807	12,559,226	1819	23,750,413	1833	32,057,747
1794	23,710,774	1808	25,717,224	1820	31,147,554	1834	32,925,032
1795	27,208,003	1809	21,717,310	1821	30,731,105	1835	42,093,047
1796	6,184,628	1810	10,791,356	1822	27,262,766	1836	48,530,560
1797	16,335,125	1811	21,231,849	1823	29,046,885	1837	36,502,345
1798	44,872,112	1812	26,318,153	1824	31,681,977	1838	38,998,872
1799	15,080,080	1813	The records of this year were destroyed by fire.	1825	23,845,559	1839	37,191,762
1800	15,165,308			1826	29,840,401	1840	22,376,405
1801	29,404,739			1827	29,746,147	1841	27,639,817
1802	27,356,592	1814	26,110,650	1828	32,678,546	1842	37,409,544
1803	30,843,134	1815	25,602,214	1829	30,844,382	1843	42,779,265
1804	26,686,784	1816	36,234,580	1830	31,897,545	1844	51,734,485
1805	26,838,815	1817	21,407,073	1831	31,648,922	1845	50,714,557
1806	22,158,557	1818	30,065,726	1832	31,708,951		

Account of the Quantities of Raw Silk, Nankeen Cloth, Silk Manufactures, Cassia Ligna, and other Articles of Chinese Produce, Imported into the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1830 down to 1845, both Inclusive.

Years.	Raw Silk.	Silk Manufactures.										Cassia Ligna.	China Root.	Rhubarb.	Tea.	Mother-of-Pearl Shells (Rough).	Vermilions.	
		Nan-keen Cloths.	Silk Rans and Handkerchiefs.	Crape Shawls, Scarfs, and Handkerchiefs.	Silks and Crape in Pieces.	Silk (Shawls).	Canes.	Cassia Ligna.	China Root.	Rhubarb.	Tea.							Mother-of-Pearl Shells (Rough).
1830	19,198	22,738	151	6,485	925	2	37,266	43	546,875	-	-	36,375	-	-	1,134	1,213	1,433	56
1831	25,374	2,305	85	5,338	2,074	6	485,868	-	-	-	-	73,114	-	-	101	748	3,825	110
1832	28,105	1,165	6	5,755	1,386	8	5,087,275	-	-	-	-	108,589	-	-	1,275	349	110	110
1833	29,161	9,700	1,273	5,933	53	1,024,983	110,697	339,588	56,717	-	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1834	282,434	24,000	4,276	6,373	1,836	313,058,564	153,637	58,439	56,717	-	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1835	737,090	11,856	4,153	6,616	1,836	313,058,564	153,637	58,439	56,717	-	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1836	1,277,087	11,900	6,593	4,986	9,631	4,544	653,834	74,883	44,028	-	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1837	1,754,828	186,867	30,081	10,018	1,836	3,208,474	1,009,508	5,259	83,960	60	1,591	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1838	698,448	59,038	11,470	8,031	5,717	1,849,600	461,983	45,142	12,442	165	1,848	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1839	545,349	56,400	31,327	7,906	13,263	2,811	325,328	54,206	33,406	30,752	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1840	247,753	2,700	1,236	3,444	7	301,948	-	-	15,066	306	274	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1841	497,093	2,599	15,578	3,398	12,106	4	730,989	54,706	9,124	43,840	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1842	180,114	8,300	9,330	2,433	20,771	24	587,748	876,117	19,716	72,518	183	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1843	264,341	7,824	18,353	3,247	15,697	11,007	248,168	647,390	94,878	139,868	6	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1844	339,795	56,895	7,510	12,448	1,932	13,023	744,570	650,919	196,853	141,233	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110
1845	1,169,643	31,064	15,350	6,266	9,854	6,222	753,537	784,176	354,411	221,030	-	38,439	59,618	-	-	2,111	19,798	110

An Account of the Number of Merchant Ships, specifying the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of their Crews, that have cleared out from the different Ports of the United Kingdom for China, and entered inwards for the same, during each of the last Thirteen Years.

Years.	Cleared out.						Entered inwards.		
	British.			Foreign.			British.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1833	23	29,627	2,759	3	1,087	40	21	27,985	2,754
1834	16	9,587	634	4	1,476	64	1834	20	29,500
1835	33	31,418	1,487	9	3,803	166	1835	67	35,427
1836	28	24,059	1,885	12	4,985	237	1836	80	40,806
1837	36	17,694	1,178	2	872	55	1837	62	38,313
1838	31	16,175	971	8	1,611	72	1838	58	38,333
1839	30	11,150	906	2	1,113	59	1839	59	31,433
1840	18	6,115	363	3	1,009	61	1840	30	20,056
1841	30	17,096	912	3	1,381	64	1841	52	25,544
1842	63	26,397	1,408	7	1,967	73	1842	76	38,616
1843	73	34,498	-	3	1,639	81	1843	84	39,712
1844	78	32,554	-	5	2,110	104	1844	104	45,605
1845	86	34,391	-	4	1,396	125	1845	121	51,802

Account of the declared Value of the principal articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the United Kingdom to China during each of the Six Years ending with 1845.

Principal Articles.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Apparel cloths, and haberdashery	1,382	2,721	6,688	7,295	10,564	7,103
Arms and ammunition	993	1,998	661	3,509	8,249	3,919
Beer and ale	1,583	5,647	5,427	11,037	19,058	6,193
Brass and copper manufactures	1,300	2,590	5,983	11,396	15,090	1,080
Cotton manufactures	836,309	422,807	470,849	653,378	1,637,794	1,855,183
Cotton yarn	88,748	156,380	215,963	318,663	117,853	89,938
Hardware and cutlery	217	1,963	1,461	10,042	16,881	30,668
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	11,771	17,488	18,327	56,337	32,104	18,662
Linen and cloth	10,645	9,845	6,368	7,799	6,696	6,919
Lead manufactures	2,549	9,116	33,080	14,577	7,899	12,227
Woolen manufactures	164,142	219,525	146,060	417,949	565,498	539,218
Other articles	12,499	19,428	27,989	164,827	72,619	31,440
Total	221,194	869,570	969,341	1,556,180	2,295,617	2,304,227

A Return of the Number and Tonnage of Merchant Vessels which arrived at, and departed from, the Port of Canton during the Year ending the 31st December, 1845, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged.

Arrived.			Departed.		
Under what Colours.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Under what Colours.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	182	56,087	British	306	98,277
American	83	38,638	American	85	37,559
French	5	793	French	4	1,176
Dutch	11	8,078	Dutch	11	5,342
Danish	3	948	Danish	1	303
Swedish	6	2,168	Belgian	4	1,380
Austrian	2	567	Swedish	4	1,674
Hamburg	5	1,481	Austrian	2	567
Bremen	2	520	Hamburg	5	1,484
Spanish	2	1,408	Bremen	2	580
Colombian and Peruvian	2	343	Spanish	2	1,406
Siam	1	1,100	Colombian and Peruvian	2	343
Total	302	136,850	Total	327	148,275

An Account of the Quantities of Tea Imported into the United Kingdom during each of the 14 Years ending with 1846; specifying the Quantities re-exported, the Quantities annually entered for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty, and the annual Produce of the Duties.

Years.	Quantities Imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities re-exported from the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	
1833	32,057,832	254,460	31,829,620	3,444,102	If sold at or under 2s. 3/4 lb., 9d. per centum ad valorem.
1834	35,645,990	1,181,005	34,969,651	5,389,561	At or above 2s. 3/4 lb., 10d. ditto.
1835	41,360,350	2,158,029	36,574,004	3,832,427	Hobson, 1s. 6d. 3/4 lb.; 1s. 10d. Franking, Hyson Main, Orange Pekoe, and Camptee, 2s. 2d. 3/4 lb.; all other sorts, 3s. 3/4 lb. (from 1st April).
1836	49,507,701	4,389,363	49,149,236	4,674,535	All sorts, 2s. 1d. 3/4 lb. (from 1st July).
1837	35,073,981	2,116,418	30,625,806	3,225,840	
1838	40,113,714	2,577,877	34,331,383	3,569,033	
1839	38,158,008	3,318,912	37,147,497	3,658,903	
1840	28,021,882	2,383,531	32,259,628	3,472,864	2s. 3/4 cent. additional thereon from 15th May.
1841	30,787,796	4,490,563	36,575,667	3,975,668	
1842	40,718,128	5,710,127	37,355,912	4,088,957	
1843	45,019,737	4,488,141	40,328,385	4,407,644	
1844	53,147,078	4,329,985	41,985,770	4,524,193	
1845	51,056,979	—	44,125,381	4,434,007	
1846	54,768,299	—	46,748,208	5,111,009	

Account of the Imports of the different Sorts of Opium into China from 1816-17 to 1837-38, both Inclusive.

Seasons.	Patna and Benares.			Malwa.			Total.		Turkey.		
	No. of Chests.	Aver. Price.	Total Value.	No. of Chests.	Aver. Price.	Total Value.	No. of Chests.	Value.	No. of Chests.	Aver. Price.	Total Value.
1816-1817	2,610	1,200	3,132,000	600	875	525,000	3,210	3,657,000	750	300	375,000
1817-1818	2,530	1,265	3,200,450	1,160	612	603,800	3,680	3,804,250	1,000	610	610,000
1818-1819	3,050	1,000	3,050,000	1,630	725	1,109,250	4,580	4,159,250	700	625	427,500
1819-1820	2,970	1,235	3,667,950	1,620	1,175	1,915,250	4,600	5,583,200	200	975	195,000
1820-1821	3,060	1,900	5,795,000	1,720	1,515	2,605,800	4,770	8,400,800	30	1,525	45,750
1821-1822	2,910	2,075	6,038,250	1,718	1,328	2,275,500	4,628	8,314,500	800	1,025	812,800
1822-1823	1,822	1,852	3,363,900	4,060	1,230	5,160,000	5,822	7,989,900	225	1,270	287,000
1823-1824	2,910	1,603	4,656,000	4,172	925	3,859,100	7,082	8,515,100			
1824-1825	2,655	1,175	3,119,625	6,000	750	4,500,000	8,655	7,619,625			
1825-1826	3,442	913	3,141,785	6,179	723	4,466,450	9,621	7,608,205			
1826-1827	3,661	1,072	3,928,565	6,308	942	5,941,520	9,969	9,610,085			
1827-1828	5,114	908	4,635,072	4,361	1,204	5,251,760	9,475	10,886,832			
1828-1829	5,961	940	5,604,335	7,171	966	6,928,480	13,132	12,533,115			
1829-1830	7,143	858	5,149,577	6,837	861	5,907,680	14,000	12,057,157			
1830-1831	6,660	869	5,789,794	12,100	587	7,110,227	18,760	12,900,031			
1831-1832	5,672	967	5,484,840	7,531	695	5,247,355	13,203	10,732,195			
1832-1833	8,167	729	6,351,080	15,403	675	10,371,700	28,570	15,322,780			
1833-1834	8,672	630	5,465,848	11,114	676	7,510,695	19,786	13,066,540			
1834-1835	7,767	672	5,218,848	8,747	595	5,223,125	16,514	9,665,010			
1835-1836	6,173	696	4,292,900	10,612	580	6,146,975	16,785	10,539,875			
1836-1837	8,078	724	5,848,236	13,430	628	8,439,694	21,509	14,287,900			
1837-1838	6,165	633	3,903,129	13,575	503	6,980,028	20,040	10,883,157			

Opium, which is by far the most important and valuable of all the articles imported into China, is excluded from the Table of Imports (next page), which comprises those articles only that are legally admissible. Although, however, it is nominally excluded, opium is openly, systematically, and easily introduced; the trade in it being, in fact, as safe and as regular as that in any other commodity, while it is incomparably more extensive. The table above exhibits a detailed account of its importation into China from 1816-17 to 1837-38. We regret we have no means of continuing it down to the present time; but the imports have since continued rapidly to increase; so much so, that we are assured by Mr. McGregor, the very intelligent consul at Canton.

that the imports of opium in 1845 amounted to 38,000 chests, worth 23,000,000 dollars | being little short of double the value of all the other articles of import put together | (*Returns of Trade of China in 1845, p. 40.*)

A General View of the (legalised) Import Trade from Foreign Countries, at the Port of Canton, during the Year 1845, specifying the Description and Quantities of Commodities imported, as well as their estimated Value, and distinguishing the Nations to which the Ships belonged in which they were imported, viz. :—

Description of Commodities.	Quantities, and in what ships imported.										Estimated Value in Spanish Dollars, at 4s. 4d. sterling.
	British.	American.	French.	Dutch.	Danish and Swedish.	German.	Misc. Flags.	Portuguese Lorchas.	Aggregate Quantities Imported.		
Alves, or betel nuts	13,935	12,056		46		6,095		3,088	56,211	130,193	
Bêche de mer	430							4,896	8,269	136,398	
Birds' nests, edible	125			775				25,651	26,551	232,878	
Cloaks, wadded, &c.	28,546	6,564				1,100			35,110	55,110	
Cochineal		1,680							3,750	6,318	
Cotton	827,201	32,843		1,283	15,631		180	5,516	890,544	5,192,439	
Cottons, plain	816,147	338,286				16,116		64,956	1,255,596	5,468,169	
— twilled	3,090	135,957						4,740	137,677	480,911	
— cambrics and muslins	2,447								4,827	7,274	
— printed and dyed	23,365	2,981						350	27,346	69,674	
— handkerchiefs	14,126	1,239			210	103			15,868	33,168	
— not enumerated	19,050	50,784			246	2,818		11,526	81,244	84,284	
Cotton yarn, and thread	20,616	1,743			44	22		1,031	22,531	406,861	
Earthenware	1,840	125							1,965	1,965	
Elephant's teeth	15,371							1,147	16,418	16,723	
Fish maw	1,696								1,696	1,696	
Flints	15,411			3,468	471	522		52	19,927	9,804	
Glass and glass wares	3,597	3,842				576		3,980	11,648	11,648	
Ginseeng	846	2,286							3,239	153,429	
Gum olibanum	4,089								4,089	23,543	
— myrrh and other gums	4,407								4,407	49,407	
Horns, buffalo and bullock	45								45	1,195	
— rhinoceros	54			10					64	2,860	
Mother-of-pearl shells	419	1,548						42	1,966	33,319	
Metals, copper wrought	2	671		120				810	1,696	56,527	
— iron ditto	24,063	4,275		5		636		840	29,951	74,954	
— steel				290		80			317	1,410	
— tin plates	225					77			295	4,056	
— lead in pigs	718	18,971						1,512	21,076	106,407	
— spelter								1,856	1,856	11,473	
— tin plates	1,006	190		77		26			1,299	8,692	
Pepper	2,565	1,018		974	1,121	94		545	5,668	86,554	
Putchuk	902	490				70		868	1,457	14,618	
Rastans	5,381	11,870		3,789		94		12,109	30,213	112,927	
Rice and paddy	1,637	112,404	4,581	4,434		5,671	12,294		167,739	866,733	
Saltpetre	59	692							751	2,376	
Sharks' fins	4							27,018	33,102	128,679	
Skins and furs		10,948						30,893	41,841	74,738	
Smalts						33			315	14,489	
Soup, common		15,825							15,825	18,693	
Wine, beer, and spirits		10,638		656		765		1,190	77,618	18,803	
Woods, sandal wood		716				2		1,142	28,708	214,890	
— saipan wood		860				2		3,558	15,951		
Woolens, broad	145,474	8,243			1,760	1,519		4,440	161,496	806,696	
— narrow	736,236	24,603		6,413		6,612		12,778	784,637	1,118,013	
— blankets	5,516	1,118				940		1,574	7,028	40,137	
— not enumerated	7,536								7,536	40,536	
Miscellaneous imports	214,236	30,486	922	7,800	2,266	12,934	258	15,408		286,610	
Value of imports	10,392,934	2,478,048	8,318	77,751	134,658	123,530	23,482	285,060	Total	14,066,811	
									Or, £	3,046,948	

N.B. — See Table of Export Trade on top of next page.

But in addition to the trade carried on with the port of Canton, we carry on a considerable trade with the other ports opened to us under the treaty of 1842, especially with Shanghai. And taking these into account, the total amount of the legitimate trade carried on under the British flag with China in 1845, will be —

Ports.	Tonnage Inwards.	Value of Imports.	Tonnage Outwards.	Value of Exports.
Canton	86,087	2,211,692	98,277	1,492,370
Amoy	6,535	141,434	6,535	15,478
Foochow	783	215,981	765	40,423
Ningpo	1,586	10,308	1,296	17,493
Shanghai	15,371	1,064,207	16,760	1,259,201
Total	111,401	3,505,772	124,533	3,224,747

* The consul's returns contained on both sides (imports and exports) the value of a cargo which was not unladen, amounting to 28,126*l.* This was deducted.

Shanghai is situated in the S. part of the province of Kiang-Su, at a considerable distance from the sea, on the river Woo-Sung, in about lat. 31° 10' N., long. 120° 50' E. The river, which may be navigated by large ships for a considerable distance above the town, crosses the grand canal, and, consequently, makes Shanghai an *entrepôt* for all the vast and fertile countries traversed by the canal and by the great rivers with which it is connected; and hence the present importance of this emporium, as evinced by the extent of our trade with it in 1845; and hence, also, the infinitely greater importance to which its commerce will hereafter most probably attain.

A General View of the (legalised) Export Trade to Foreign Countries, at the Port of Canton, during the Year 1845, specifying the Description and Quantities of Commodities exported, as well as their estimated Value, and distinguishing the Nations to which the Ships belonged in which they were exported, viz. —

Description of Commodities.	Quantities, and in what ships exported.									Estimated Value in Dollars, at 4s. 4d. sterling.
	British.	American.	French.	Dutch.	Dutch and Swedish.	German.	Mexican and Spanish.	Portuguese.	Aggregate of all ships.	
Alum - - - piculs	30,722					250			31,038	\$54,456
Anisrad, star - - - boxes	106	12	110	230	50	133			611	6,800
— oil - - - boxes	26	43							69	9,494
Bamboo ware - - - piculs	123	2	1	2	9			12	136	6,044
Brass leaf - - - boxes	138	74	2	6	211		30	10	473	7,921
Campbor - - - piculs	1,802	1,023						2	2,825	2,815
Cases of all sorts - - - mille	117		16		266				399	44,873
Cassia lignea - - - piculs	15,497	12,850	155	1,433	2,053	2,092	760	4,840	40,150	429,650
— buds - - - piculs	502	10				37			519	4,909
China root - - - piculs	35	30	60	10	482		19	3	698	24,222
— ware - - - piculs	4,718	909	31	66	130			42	5,556	181,072
Copper, tin, and pewter wares	173	6							179	6,527
Crackers and fireworks - - - piculs	791	4,049		210	37		170	13	3,260	87,113
Fans of all sorts - - - catties	5,496	28,489	66	32	56	11,775		230	56,164	54,881
Furniture and woodware - - - piculs	868	230	2	3	20		55	60	635	11,847
Glass and glass ware - - - boxes	1,839								1,839	59,138
Iron cloth - - - catties	2,256	11,883		463	251	6,721	3,083	6,052	31,718	61,694
Hornal or ornament - - - piculs	307			60	25				392	3,408
Ivory, and mother o'pearl wares - - - catties	1,907	6,075	2	89	312	174	398	170	7,497	18,204
Kittyns - - - piculs	283	3						21	286	1,914
Lacquer wares - - - piculs	283	149	4	18	14	12	18	501	33,069	
Hats and maiting - - - catties	1,763	15,426		4	157		1	110	17,375	110,515
Musk - - - piculs	106	39							145	19,144
Nankens and dyed cottons	253	22	12	18	54	22		25	436	21,082
Paper of all kinds - - - boxes	2,149	42	52	136	81	23		54	2,433	26,710
Quackilver - - - piculs	130			1					143	16,949
Preserves - - - boxes	3,003	7,465		2,102	2,272	342		10	17,192	21,378
Rattan ware - - - piculs	118	855		539	11,511	6,366	17,437	4,001	236,702	1,857,741
Rhubarb - - - piculs	1,505	823	22	29	84		180	1	2,614	11,608
Silk, raw - - - piculs	3,179	39	51	75			56	3	3,539	2,077,719
— coarse and refuse - - - piculs	4,191								4,191	11,908
— thread and ribbons - - - catties	3,231	2,567		240	4,210				10,508	35,956
— piece goods - - - piculs	69,542	114,923	536			6,366	17,437	4,001	186,702	1,857,741
Silk and cotton mixed stuffs	34,487								34,487	17,000
Soy - - - piculs	130	9							139	5,380
Sugar, raw - - - piculs	136,283	492			5,082		3		136,778	1,615,154
— candy - - - piculs	4,614	56							4,670	319,597
Tea - - - piculs	429,867	139,892	1,931	16,109	2,250	7,588	60	2,081	600,691	23,205,082
Trunks, leather - - - boxes	369	153	90	5	20				647	7,014
Vermilion - - - boxes	560								560	764
Miscellaneous articles - value	215,075	134,454	1,033	9,046	5,008	1,586	965	2,416	378,563	2,825,285
Value of exports -	4,20,731,018	7,979,864	97,010	635,533	390,744	119,973	163,686	219,596	Total	\$ 30,266,199
									Or, £ 6,922,726	

A Return of the Quantities and Values of the Merchandise exported from Shanghai, in British Vessels, in 1845.

Articles.	Quantities.	Estimated Value in Sterling at 4s. 4d. per Dollar.	Articles.	Quantities.	Estimated Value in Sterling at 4s. 4d. per Dollar.
Alum - - - piculs	2,701	470	Tea, continued - - - piculs	3,160	
Wax - - - catties	57	837	Wax - - - piculs	712	
Rhubarb - - - piculs	75	354	Hyson skin - - - piculs	1,134	
Silk, raw, viz. - - - piculs	2,514		Yung hyson - - - piculs	2,236	
— Taysam - - - piculs	2,691	9,506	Imperial - - - piculs	259	
— Yuenfa - - - piculs	636		Gunpowder - - - piculs	621	
— Horta - - - piculs	905		Miscellaneous - - - piculs	2,065	
Tea, viz. - - - piculs	56,271		Silk piece goods - - - piculs	18	570
— Congou - - - piculs	2,703		Gypsum - - - piculs	5,190	15,154
— Pouchong - - - piculs	107		Nankens cloth - - - piculs	56	675
— Foh - - - piculs	293		Sundries - - - value		1,000
— Hwang Muey - - - piculs	173		Total	1,359,091	

Consular Fees. — The consular fees imposed in 1843 have been withdrawn (antf. p. 229), and the following table of fees, payable by British ships in all the ports of China, has been substituted in its stead.

Table A: —	Table B: —		
Certificate of due landing of goods exported from the U. Kingdom - - - - -	2 dollars	Noting a protest - - - - -	1 dollar
Signature of ship's manifest - - - - -	2 - - -	Order of survey - - - - -	2 - - -
Certificate of origin, when required - - - - -	2 - - -	Extending a protest or survey - - - - -	1 - - -
Bill of health, when required - - - - -	2 - - -	Registrations - - - - -	1 - - -
Signature of master-rol, when required - - - - -	2 - - -	Visa of passport - - - - -	1 - - -
Attestation of a signature, when required - - - - -	1 - - -	Valuation of goods - - - - -	1/10 cent
Administering an oath, when required - - - - -	1 - - -	Attending sales, 1/2 per cent. where there has been a charge for valuing; otherwise 1 per cent.	
Seal of office, and signature of any other person not specified herein, when required - - - - -	1 - - -	Attendance out of consular office at a ship's wreck, five dollars per diem for his personal expenses, and above his travelling expenses.	
		Attendance on opening a will - - - - -	5 dollars
		Management of property of British subjects - - - - -	2 1/2 cent.
		Dying intestate - - - - -	2 1/2 cent.

Trade between British India and China. — This trade is decidedly more valuable and important than that carried on between Great Britain and China. The greatest article of export from India to Canton used to be cotton wool, principally from Bombay; but it is now become insignificant as compared with opium, the imports of which into China, as seen above, are worth, at present, about 23,000,000 dollars. The edicts of the emperors are as unable to prevent its introduction, as the proclamations of

colonial shipping of the Chinese. Wherever the Chinese are settled in any numbers, junks of this description are to be found; such as in Java, Sumatra, the Straits of Malacca, &c.; but the largest commerce of this description is conducted from the Cochin Chinese dominions, especially from Siam, where the number was estimated to me at 300. Several junks of this description from the latter country come annually to Singapore, of which the burden is not less than from 300 to 400 tons.

The junks which trade between China and the adjacent countries are some of them owned and built in China; but a considerable number also in the latter countries, particularly in Siam and Cochin China. Of those carrying on the Siamese trade, indeed, no less than 81 out of the 89, of considerable size, were represented to me as being built and owned in Siam. The small junks, however, carrying on the trade of Hainan, are all built and owned in China.

The junks, whether colonial or trading direct with China, vary in burden from 2,000 piculs to 15,000, or carry dead weight from 190 to 900 tons. Of those of the last size I have only seen 2 or 4, and these were in Siam, and the same which were commonly employed in carrying a mission and tribute yearly from Siam to Canton. Of the whole of the large class of junks, I should think the average burden will not be overrated at 300 tons each, which would make the total tonnage employed in the native foreign trade of China between 90,000 and 70,000 tons, exclusive of the small junks of Hainan, which, estimated at 180 tons each, would make in all about 60,000 tons.

The junks built in China are usually constructed of fir and other inferior woods. When they arrive in Cambodia, Siam, and the Malayan islands, they commonly furnish themselves with masts, rudders, and wooden anchors, of the superior timber of these countries. The junks built in Siam are a superior class of vessels, the planks and upper works being invariably teak. The cost of ship-building is highest at the port of Amoy in Fokien, and lowest in Siam. At these places, and at Chang-him in Canton, the cost of a junk of 8,000 piculs, or 47½ tons burden, was stated to me, by several commanders of junks, to be as follows:—

At Siam	-	-	-	-	-	7,400 dollars
Chang-him	-	-	-	-	-	16,000 "
Amoy	-	-	-	-	-	21,000 "

A junk of the last just named has commonly a crew of 90 hands, consisting of the following officers, besides the crew: a commander, a pilot, an accountant, a captain of the helm, a captain of the anchor, and a captain of the hold. The commander receives no pay, but has the advantage of the cabin accommodation for passengers, reckoned on the voyage between Canton and Singapore worth 150 Spanish dollars. He is also the agent of the owners, and receives a commission, commonly of 10 per cent, on the profit of such share of the adventure, generally a considerable one, in which they are concerned. The pilot receives for the voyage 300 dollars of wages, and 50 piculs of freight out and home. The helmsman has 15 piculs of freight and no wages. The captain of the anchor and the hold have 5 piculs of freight each, and the seamen 7 piculs each. None of these have any wages. The officers and seamen of the colonial junks are differently rewarded. In a Siamese junk, for example, trading between the Siamese capital and Singapore, of 6,000 piculs burden, the commander and pilot had each 100 dollars for the voyage, with 13 piculs of freight apiece. The accountant and helmsman had half of this allowance, and each seaman had 13 dollars, with 5 piculs of freight.

In construction and outfit, Chinese junks are clumsy and awkward in the extreme. The Chinese are quite unacquainted with navigation, saving the knowledge of the compass: notwithstanding this, as their pilots are expert, their voyages short, and as they hardly ever sail except at the height of the monsoons, when a fair and steady 7 or 8 knots' breeze carries them directly from port to port, the sea risk is very small. During 13 years' acquaintance with this branch of trade, I can recollect hearing of but 4 shipwrecks; and in all these instances the crews were saved.

The construction and rigging of a Chinese junk may be looked upon as her proper rigging, and they are a very effectual one; for the least deviation from them would subject her at once to foreign charges and foreign duties, and to all kinds of suspicion. The colonial junks, which are of a more commodious form and outfit, if visiting China, are subjected to the same duties as foreign vessels. Junks built in Siam, or any other adjacent country, if constructed and fitted out after the customary model, are allowed to trade to China upon the same terms as those built and owned in the country. If any part of the crew consist of Siamese, Cochin Chinese, or other foreigners, the latter are admitted only at the port of Canton; and if found in any other part of China, would be seized and taken up by the police exactly in the same manner as if they were Europeans. The native trade of China conducted with foreign countries is not a clandestine commerce, unacknowledged by the Chinese laws, but has in every case at least the express sanction of the viceroy or governor of the province, who, on petition, decides the number of junks that shall be allowed to engage in it; and even enumerates the articles which it shall be legal to export and import. At every port, also, where such a foreign trade is sanctioned, there is a hong or body of security merchants, as at Canton; a fact which shows clearly enough that this institution is parcel of the laws or customs of China, and not a peculiar restraint imposed upon the intercourse with Europeans.

The Chinese junks properly constructed pay no measurement duty, and no cumshah or present; duties, however, are paid upon goods exported and imported, which seem to differ at the different provinces. They are highest at Amoy, and lowest in the island of Hainan. The Chinese traders of Siam informed me that they carried on the fairest and easiest trade, subject to the fewest restrictions, in the ports of Ningpo and Ning-hai in Chekiang, and Souchoon in Kiannan. Great dexterity seems every where to be exercised by the Chinese in evading the duties. One practice, which is very often followed, will afford a good example of this. The coasting trade of China is nearly free from all duties and other imposts. The merchant takes advantage of this; and, intending in reality to proceed to Siam or Cochin China, for example, clears a junk out for the island of Hainan, and thus avoids the payment of duties. When she returns she will lie 6 or 7 days off the mouth of the port, until a regular bargain be made with the custom-house officers for the reduction of duties. The junk held out in such cases is to proceed to another port, and thus deprive the public officers of their customary perquisites. I was assured of the frequency of this practice by Chinese merchants of Cochin China, as well as by several commanders of junks at Singapore. From the last-named persons I had another fact of some consequence, as connected with the Chinese trade; viz. that a good many of the junks, carrying on trade with foreign ports to the westward of China, often proceeded on voyages to the northward in the same season. In this manner they stated that about 30 considerable junks, besides a great many small ones, proceeded annually from Canton to Soucheong, one of the capitals of Kiannan, and in wealth and commerce the rival of Canton, where they sold about 300 chests of opium at an advance of 50 per cent. beyond the Canton prices. Another place where the Canton junks, to the number of 5 or 6, repair annually, is Chingcheu, in the province of Canton, within the Gulf of Pecheley, or Yellow Sea, and as far north as the 37th degree of latitude. — (*Appendix, Report of 1830, p. 268.*)

A Chinese ship or junk is seldom the property of one individual. Sometimes 40, 50, or even 100 different merchants purchase a vessel, and divide her into as many different compartments as there are partners; so that each knows his own particular part in the ship, which he is at liberty to fit up and secure as he pleases. The bulk-heads, by which these divisions are formed, consist of stout planks, so well caulked as to be completely water-tight. A ship thus formed may strike on a rock, and yet sustain no serious injury;

a leak springing in one division of the hold will not be attended with any damage to articles placed in another; and, from her firmness, she is qualified to resist a more than ordinary shock. A considerable loss of stowage is, of course, sustained; but the Chinese exports generally contain a considerable value in small bulk. It is only the very largest class of junks that have so many owners; but even in the smallest class the number is very considerable.

Population of China.—For some remarks on the conflicting accounts and theories that have been put forth with respect to the population of this empire, the reader is referred to the *Geographical Dictionary*, art. *China*.

CANVAS (Fr. *Toile à voiles*; Ger. *Segeltuch*; It. *Canevazza*, *Lona*; Rus. *Parusnoe polotno*, *Parussina*; Sp. *Lona*), unbleached cloth of hemp or flax, chiefly used for sails for shipping. Masters of ships are required to make entry of all foreign-made sails and cordage, not being standing or running rigging, in use on board their respective ships, under a penalty of 100*l*. Sails in actual use, and fit and necessary for such ship, are imported free; but when otherwise disposed of, they are liable to an *ad valorem* duty of 20 per cent.—(3 & 4 *Will* 4. c. 56.) It had been the practice for a considerable period to grant bounties on the exportation of canvas or sail-cloth; these, however, finally ceased on the 1st of January, 1832. By an act passed in the reign of Geo. 2., new sails were ordered to be stamped with the maker's name and place of abode; but this regulation was repealed by the 10 Geo. 4. c. 43. § 9.

CAOUTCHOUC. "This substance, which is generally termed elastic gum, and vulgarly, from its common application to boots, is called per *marks* on paper, *India rubber*, is obtained from the milky juice of different plants in various countries. The chief of these are the *Jatropha elastica*, and *Urceola elastica*. The juice is applied in successive coatings on a mould of clay, and dried by the fire or in the sun; and when of a sufficient thickness, the mould is crushed, and the pieces shaken out. Acids separate the caoutchouc from the thinner part of the juice at once, by coagulating it. The juice of old plants yields nearly two thirds of its weight; that of younger plants less. Its colour, when fresh, is yellowish white, but it grows darker by exposure to the air. The elasticity of this substance is its most remarkable property; when warmed, as by immersion in hot water, slips of it may be drawn out to 7 or 8 times their original length, and will return to their former dimensions nearly. Cold renders it stiff and rigid, but warmth restores its original elasticity. Exposed to the fire, it softens, swells up, and burns with a bright flame. In Cayenne it is used to give light as a candle."—(*Ure's Dictionary*.)

Caoutchouc has become an article of very considerable importance. M. de la Condamine, who was one of the first to communicate authentic information with respect to it, mentions, that, owing to its being impervious to water, it was made into boots by the Indians.—(*Voyage de la Rivière des Amazones*, p. 76.) It is now employed in a similar way here. Means have, within these few years, been discovered of reducing it to a state of solution; and when thin filaments of it are spread over cloth or any other substance, it is rendered impervious alike to air and water. Air cushions and pillows are manufactured in this way; as are water-proof cloaks, now in very extensive demand, hats, boots, shoes, &c. It is also extensively used in the manufacture of braces and other articles which it is desirable should possess considerable elasticity; and there can be little doubt that it will be employed still more extensively, and in a still greater variety of ways.

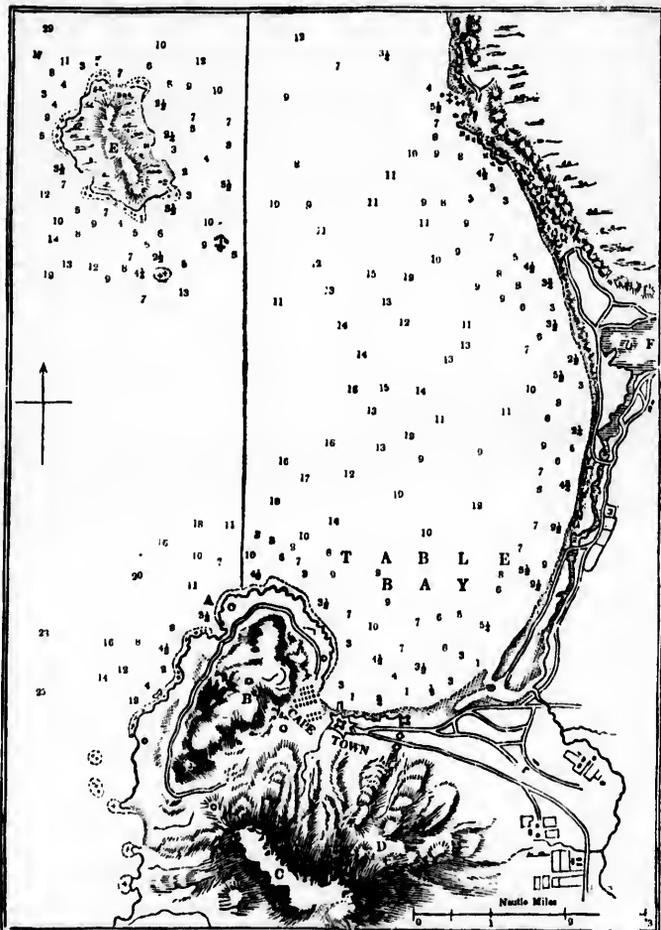
Previously to 1830, the importations of caoutchouc were comparatively inconsiderable, having in that year amounted to only 52,000 lbs.; whereas, in 1840, the duty of 1*s*. a cwt, produced 322*l*, showing that 6,640 cwt., or 721,280 lbs, had been entered for consumption. It is principally imported from Brazil, Colombia, and other parts of S. America. The imports from Brazil (Para) amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, to 3,790 cwt. a year.—(*Parl. Paper* No. 369, Sess. 1843.) The price of caoutchouc varied in the London market, in January 1843, from 7*d*. to 1*s*. 3*d*. per lb.

CAPERS (Fr. *Capres*; Ger. *Kappern*; Du. *Kappers*; It. *Cappari*; Sp. *Alcaparras*; Rus. *Kaperszû*; Lat. *Capparis*), the pickled buds of the *Capparis spinosa*, a low shrub, generally growing out of the joints of old walls, and the fissures of rocks, in most of the warm parts of Europe. Capers are imported into Great Britain from different parts of the Mediterranean; the best from Toulon in France. Some small salt capers come from Majorca, and a few flat ones from about Lyons. The duty of 6*d*. per lb. on capers produced, in 1840, 2,100*l*. nett, showing that 84,000 lbs. had been entered for home consumption.

CAPE-TOWN, the capital of the British territory in South Africa, at the bottom of Table Bay, about 32 miles north from the Cape of Good Hope, and on the western side of the territory to which it gives its name; lat. 33° 55' 56" S., long. 18° 21' E. The town was founded by the Dutch in 1650; and remained, with the territory subject to it, in their possession, till it was taken by the British in 1795. It was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Amiens; but being again captured by the British in 1806, it was finally ceded to us in 1815. The streets are laid out in straight lines, crossing

each other at right angles; many of them being watered by canals, and planted on each side with oaks. The population in 1842 amounted, according to the statement in the *Cape Almanac*, to 22,543, of whom about a third were blacks. The town is defended by a castle of considerable strength. Table Bay is capable of containing any number of ships; but it is exposed to the westerly winds, which, during the months of June, July, and August, throw in a heavy swell, that has been productive of many distressing accidents. This, in fact, is the great drawback upon Cape-Town, which in all other respects is most admirably fitted for a commercial station. At the proper season, however, or during the prevalence of the easterly monsoon, Table Bay is perfectly safe; while the cheapness and abundance of provisions, the healthiness of the climate, and above all its position, render it a peculiarly desirable resting place for ships bound to or from India, China, Australia, &c.

The subjoined plan of Table Bay is taken from the survey of the Cape of Good Hope, executed by Lieut. Vidal and others, under the direction of Captain Owen.



Reference to the Plan.—A, light-house, furnished with double lights. They may be seen clearly off deck at 10 miles distance; but they do not present double lights for 7 miles to the westward from the lighthouse and only one light is seen. B, Lion's Bluff; C, Table Mountain; D, Devil's Peak, in lat. 33° 27' S., E, Seaside Island; F, Salt River. The figures denote the soundings in fathoms.

First Instructions, ART. 1. On the arrival of merchant vessels in Table Bay, a proper berth will be pointed out to the masters thereof by the port captain, when he boards them; and no master of a merchant vessel shall anchor with his vessel without permission from the port captain, unless in case of extreme emergency, when he must report his having done so as early as possible as the Port-office.

It should be the intention of a master of a vessel to discharge or receive on board any considerable quantity of merchandise, a berth will be pointed out to him as close to the jetty, or other landing-place, as the safety of the vessel and other circumstances will admit. And the master will then moor with two bow anchors, with an open hawse to the N. N. E., taking special care, in so mooring, not to overlie the anchors of any other ship; or in any way to get the vessel near him a foul berth. Ships and vessels anchoring in Table Bay for water and refreshments alone, may ride at single anchor in the outer anchorage; but in this case it is particularly recommended to wear out 80 or 90 fathoms, if they ride by a chain cable, as the liability of steering or fouling the anchor, resulting the chain, will thereby be greatly lessened; and if riding by a rope or soft cable, let run out a stream or good kedge, to steady the ship; and in both cases the other lower anchor should be kept in perfect readiness to let go. When the vessel is properly moored with bow anchors, or well secured with a lower and stream anchor, and with good cables, levers, and bower-rope, the master will then lay the exact place of the ship by the bearings of 3 land-marks, and the depth of the water; and should ascertain every, in which the vessel may drift from this situation, or lose her anchors, a good bearing and depth of water being taken, and the vessel in the same must be notified in writing to the port captain. It is particularly recommended that vessels be kept as snug as possible, to counteract the effects of the gales, which at times blow with considerable violence.

The district subject to Cape Town is of very great extent, and contains every variety of soil, from the richest level to the wildest mountain, and tracts destitute of even the appearance of vegetation. The climate fluctuates between the two extremes of rain and drought. In the whole, its advantages and disadvantages seem to be pretty equally balanced; and the prospects which hold out to the industrious emigrant, if not very alluring, are certainly not discouraging.

Population.—According to the official returns, the population of the Cape Colony in 1847, consisted of 107,095.

Produce.—Large quantities of corn of a very good description are produced in the immediate neighbourhood of Cape Town, and in other parts of the colony; but agriculture is crippled by the Dutch law of succession, which, by dividing a man's property equally among his children, hinders the accumulation of capital in masses, and the formation of prosperous farming establishments. — [Thomson's Travels in Swietera, &c., p. 351.]

The Mauritius and Rio Janeiro are the principal markets for the corn of the Cape. The exports of wool have increased very rapidly within the last 10 years, and it now forms by far the most important article sent from the colony. The native breed of sheep is very inferior; its fleece is worth nothing, and it is exportable only for the size of the tail, which sometimes weighs 50 lbs. But fine woolled Spanish merinoes, Saxon and English sheep succeed remarkably well, and their wool fetches a high price. The eastern district of Albany is especially suitable for sheep.

Large quantities of wine, and of what is called brandy, are produced at the Cape; but with the exception of Constantia, they are very inferior. The effect of allowing the importation of Cape wine into the United Kingdom at a comparatively low duty is, not to occasion their direct consumption; but to cause them to be employed as a convenient means of adulterating others; so that, besides being injurious to the revenue, such reduction of duty promotes fraudulent practices, and detracts from the comforts of the public.

Considerable quantities of hides, skins, and horns are exported. They are principally brought from Algoa Bay, on the eastern side of the colony; and the trade has increased very fast during the last 6 or 7 years. Aloes are an important product; and horses, butter, tallow, tallow, and various other articles, are among the exports. The latter include dried fish, whale and seal oil, &c., the Cape fisheries being of considerable value.

The imports at the Cape consist of woollens, cottons, hardware, earthenware, furniture, haberdashery, soap, paper, books, &c. Portions of most articles used in this country. Rice goods and teak timber are imported from India, tea from China, sugar from India, the Mauritius, &c.

Trade.—The trade between the colonists and the Independent natives is subjected to various restraints, of which it is not always very easy to discover the policy. The sale of gunpowder and fire-arms to the natives has been prohibited; a regulation which might have been a judicious one, had they not been able to obtain them from any one else. The Americans have however traded with the eastern coast, and have liberally supplied the natives with these and various other articles; so that by keeping up the regulation in question, we merely exclude ourselves from participating in what might be an advantageous trade. But since we have taken possession of Natal, this intercourse may perhaps have been stopped.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Staple Articles, the Produce of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope, exported in the Year ended 5th January, 1847.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Aloes . . . lbs.	913,750	2,340 0 0	Hides (horse and ox) . . num.	60,837	32,777 0 0
Agave . . . lbs.	80,000	200 0 0	Horns	85,650	1,244 0 0
Beef and pork . . . casks	4,800	15,154 0 0	Horses	400	17,228 0 0
Horn (white) . . . lbs.	5,851	264 0 0	Ivory	28,242	5,372 0 0
Butter	81,765	5,007 0 0	Males	2,281	23 0 0
Candles	9,200	845 0 0	Oil, viz.—Whale . . num.	2,891	411 0 0
Corn, and meal, viz.—			Skins, viz.—Cal . . num.	230,161	46 0 0
Wheat	9,500	1,202 0 0	Good	230,161	22,649 0 0
Beans and peas . . .	9,919	1,028 0 0	Seal	190	188 0 0
Horn	555,193	1,432 0 0	Sheep	249,849	9,793 0 0
Flour	750,478	7,918 0 0	Spirits, viz.—Brandy . gal.	4,917	535 0 0
Oats	410	218 0 0	Tallow	147,971	2,491 0 0
Wheat	1,107	7,055 0 0	Wax	2,213	268 0 0
Feathers (ostrich) . . .	1,309,025	7,981 0 0	Wine, viz.—Constantia gal.	8,068	2,614 0 0
Fruit (dried)	255,812	5,838 0 0	Ordinary	508,708	37,838 13 6
Hides (green)	5,000	50 0 0	Wool	3,471,128	178,011 0 0
			Other Articles		568,290 13 6
					34,485 0 0
			Total		4,398,775 13 6

Of the above, the value of the exports from Cape Town was £ 282,915 0 0
 Ditto exported from Simon's Town 471 13 6
 Ditto exported from Port Elizabeth 170,289 0 0
 £ 453,675 13 6

Port Elizabeth, on the east side of Algoa Bay, is rapidly rising in commercial importance; and from the greater fertility of the country in its vicinity its exports will, probably, in no very lengthened period, exceed those from the Cape.

A Summary View of the Trade and Navigation of the Colony, in the Year ended 5th January, 1847.

Ports.	Vessels inward.		Vessels outward.		Total Customs Duties.	Total Revenue collected by the Customs, including Fees, Wharfage, &c.	Total Value of Imports.	Total Value of Exports.
	No.	Tonnage.	No.	Tonnage.				
Cape Town	509	158,885	371	151,708	£ 74,163 12 8	£ 80,397 1 7	£ 1,687 0 4	£ 315,090 0 0
Simon's Town	35	14,773	31	14,200	428 19 10	1,048 4 0	4,585 15 6	470 3 6
Coastwise	4	965	8	1,401			50,000 0 0	800 0 0
Port Elizabeth	7	10,860	6	16,308	18,488 7 11	18,774 19 2	355,848 0 0	172,094 0 0
Coastwise	90	16,107	112	16,051				
Total Colony	608	171,612	467	160,366	93,081 0 5	100,758 4 9	1,123,061 15 10	487,524 3 6
Coastwise	98	37,004	118	45,252				
Grand Total	704	409,426	584	305,614	93,081 0 5	100,758 4 9	1,123,061 15 10	487,524 3 6

CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS, DUTIES, FEES, &c.

On Admission of a Ship to Water, observe—
 1. The ship's register must be lodged in the Custom-house, until the vessel clears again for sea.
 2. The manifest of the cargo on board for this place must be deposited there.
 3. The contents of cargoes shipped from any place in Great Britain or Ireland for this place must also be deposited there. From the endorsement of such manifests, an extract is to be made, which will show the contents of the different packages on board, and facilitate the making out of the entries.
 4. In making out the declarations, the value by invoice of the different commodities must be given by the importer, in order to enable the Custom-house to estimate the duties payable, and to send into Government, annually, the required statement of the total duties received upon the several articles imported.

In the clearing of a Ship outwards, observe—
 1. The master must produce a certificate from the harbour-master, that the tonnage duties of the port have been paid.
 2. The export manifest must be examined with the permits granted, in order to ascertain whether packages have been shipped without a permit.
 3. Export declarations must be sent in by the several shippers, of the quantity and value of goods or produce shipped by them, in order to ascertain the amount of the exports of the colony.
 4. When Cape wine is shipped for exportation to England, affidavit of the particular description of such wine must be delivered, and a certificate granted, by the collector or comptroller of customs, to the master, on his arrival at each affidavit.
 5. Manifests, in triplicate, of such goods as are shipped from the Cape for Great Britain, must be delivered, signed and sworn to by the master, before the collector or comptroller.
 The original of which is to be returned to the master to accompany the cargo.
 The duplicate to be forwarded, by the first conveyance sailing subsequently to the vessel containing the original, to the commissioners of customs in England or Scotland respectively, as the case may happen.
 And the triplicate, written on or covered with a stamp, to remain as an office copy.

Whisky taken in cargoes for other parts of the world, are required to deliver only original and duplicate manifests.
 6. When whole oil or whale bone is shipped from the Cape for England, the proprietor of the whale fishery is to make oath, before the collector or comptroller, that the same were *bona fide* the produce of fish, or creatures living in the sea, actually taken and caught wholly by His Majesty's subjects usually residing in this colony; and the collector or comptroller is to grant a certificate under his hand and seal to the master, testifying that such oath hath been made before him.
 7. When salted seal skins are shipped from the Cape for England, the shipper is to make oath before the collector or comptroller, that the same are really and *bona fide* the skins of seals taken and caught on the coast appertaining to the Cape of Good Hope, wholly by His Majesty's subjects usually residing in this colony; and that all the said used in the curing or preserving of the same was not made in, or exported from, Great Britain or Ireland; and the collector or comptroller is to grant a certificate to the master accordingly.
 8. The original manifest, and a copy thereof, of ships touching at the Cape of Good Hope, with cargoes from the eastward for England, to be delivered and sworn to by the master before the collector or comptroller. The original is to be returned to the master, and the copy forwarded from the Custom-house to the commissioner of customs.

9. If any part of such cargo shall be discharged at the Cape of Good Hope, the collector or comptroller is to indorse upon the manifest the part of the cargo so discharged, and verify the same.

A Table of Duties of Customs payable on goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope.

Goods.	Duty.
Coffee, viz. —	£ s. d.
The produce of B. Possessions	0 3 0
The produce of foreign possessions	0 10 0
Fish, dried or salted, and fins and skins, the produce of creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing or taking, for every 100 lb. of the value thereof	12 0 0
Flour, wheaten, not being the manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession, barrel 196 lbs. (tinspinner)	0 3 0
Meal, salted or cured, of all sorts, not being the production or manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession	0 3 0
Meat, salted or cured, of all sorts, being the production or manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession	0 1 3
Oil, viz. —	
Train and blubber, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing	3 0 0
Merchandise of foreign fishery, tin (measure)	7 10 0
Pepper	0 4 0
Rice	0 1 6
Sugar, viz. —	
Not refined, the production of any B. possession	0 3 3
Not refined, the produce of any other place	0 4 6
Refined, or candy, not manufactured in the U. K., or of any B. possession	0 6 0
Refined, or candy, the manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession	0 3 0
Spirits of all sorts, viz. —	
Not being the manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession, of strength of proof by Sykes's Hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength	imp. gal. 6 1 0

Goods.	Duty.
Spirits of all sorts, viz. —	£ s. d.
Being the manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession, of strength of proof by Sykes's Hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength	imp. gal. 0 0 4
Not being the manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession, of strength of proof by Sykes's Hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength	imp. gal. 0 0 4 1/2
Tobacco, viz. —	
Not manufactured	cwt. 0 12 0
Manufactured (not cigars)	cwt. 0 10 0
Cigars	1000 0 6 0
Wood, unmanufactured, viz. —	
Shalopy, rosewood, and oakwood	cub. ft. 0 0 3
All other wood, not the produce of the U. K., or of any B. possession	cub. foot. 0 0 3
Wine, viz. —	
In bottles, each not exceeding 6 to the imp. gal.	dos. 0 4 0
In bottles, each not exceeding 12 to the imp. gal.	dos. 0 3 0
Not in bottles	imp. gal. 0 1 6
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise charged with duty, and not herein declared free of duty, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. K., or of any B. possession abroad, for every 100 lb. of the value	3 0 0
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise charged with duty, and not herein declared to be free of duty, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign state, for every 100 lb. of the value	12 0 0
Bottles of common glass, imported full	
Bullion	
Casks, staves, hoops, and cooper's rivets	
Gain	
Diamonds	
Horses, mules, asses, sheep, cattle, and all other live stock and live animals	Free.
Seeds, bulbs, and plants	
Specimens, illustrative of natural history	
Provisions or stores of every description, imported or supplied for the use of her Majesty's land or sea forces	

Provided, that whenever any article, being the growth, production, or manufacture of any foreign country, herein-before charged with any duty, is imported into the said colony from the U. K., having been there entered for consumption and re-exported without any drawback of duty having been first paid thereon, such articles shall be liable only to such duty as is herein-before charged upon similar articles, being the growth, production or manufacture of the U. K., or of any of the B. possessions abroad.
 Provided also, that if any goods, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, be imported into the said colony through the U. K., having been there warehoused therein and being exported from the warehouse, or the duties thereon (if there paid having been drawn back), there shall be charged on such goods, over and above the duties herein-before imposed on similar goods, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. K., or of any of the B. possessions abroad, 2-1/2% of the difference (if any) between such duties and the duties herein-before charged on goods not being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. K., or of any of the B. possessions abroad.

A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions.

Gunpowder, Arms, Ammunition or articles of war.
 Prohibited to be imported, except from the U. K., or from some other B. possession.
Articles of foreign manufacture, and any packages of such articles, bearing any names, brands, or marks, purporting to be the names, brands, or marks of manufacturers resident in the U. K.
Blaze or counterfeit coin.
Books, wherein the copyright shall be subsisting, first composed, or written, or printed in the U. K., and printed or reprinted in any other country, as to which the proprietor of such copyright, or his agent, shall have given to the Commissioners of Customs a notice in writing, that such copyright subsists: such notice also stating when such copyright will expire.

Table of Duties, Fees, &c.

Queen's Warehouse Rent.—A certain sum per week is charged upon goods in proportion to their bulk and value.
Warehousing and Storage.—The wharf department is under the immediate control of the customs. The following tariff of dues is levied under authority of Ordinance No. 31, dated 14th Dec. 1856.
On Goods landed.—On every plyw, punchbom, butt, or other cask of the capacity of 50 imp. gall. or upwards, and containing wine, spirits, or other liquids — cask 0 2 0
On every hogshead, half punchbom, tierce, or other cask of the capacity of 40 imp. gall. and under 50 gall., containing wine, spirits, or other liquids — cask 0 1 6
On every quarter or other such cask of the capacity of 30 imp. gall., and under 40 gall., containing wine, spirits, or other liquids — cask 0 1 0
On every barrel, bucket, keg, or other cask of less capacity than 30 imp. gall. containing wine, spirits, or other liquids — cask 0 0 8
Liquids in jars, bottles, and other packages (not in bulk) each of the content of one imp. gall. or upwards — imp. gall. 0 0 1
Liquids in jars, bottles, and other packages (not in bulk) each of less content than one imp. gall. — imp. gall. 0 0 1 1/2
Tax in all packages. — 100 lbs. 0 1 3
Coffee, sugar, pepper, sago, saltetre, tinic, tannin, rinds, spices, dates, and drugs in bags — bag 0 0 3
Rice in bags — bag 0 0 6
Wheat, barley, oats, rye, and other grain, in bags or bulk — imp. quarter 0 0 6
Flour — 100 lbs. 0 0 6
Tobacco, manufactured (except cigars) — cwt. 0 0 6
Tobacco leaf — cwt. 0 0 4

Every caravan is under the command of a chief or aga (*caravan-bachi*), who has frequently under him such a number of troops or forces as is deemed sufficient for its defence. When it is practicable, they encamp near wells or rivulets; and observe a regular discipline. Camels are used as a means of conveyance, almost uniformly, in preference to the horse or any other animal, on account of their wonderful patience of fatigue, eating little, and subsisting three or four days or more without water. There are generally more camels in a caravan than men. — (See CAMEL.)

The commercial intercourse of Eastern and African nations has been principally carried on, from the remotest period, by means of caravans. During antiquity, the products of India and China were conveyed either from Sues to Rhinocoura, or from Busorah, near the head of the Persian Gulf, by the Euphrates, to Babylon, and thence by Palmyra, in the Syrian desert, to the ports of Phœnicia on the Mediterranean, where they were exchanged for the European productions in demand in the East. Sometimes, however, caravans set out directly from China, and, occupying about 250 days in the journey, arrived on the shores of the Levant, after traversing the whole extent of Asia. — (*Gibbon*, vol. vii. p. 93.) The formation of caravans is, in fact, the only way in which it has ever been possible to carry on any considerable internal commerce in Asia or Africa. The governments that have grown up in those continents have seldom been able, and seldom indeed have they attempted, to render travelling practicable or safe for individuals. The wandering tribes of Arabs have always infested the immense deserts by which they are intersected; and those only who are sufficiently powerful to protect themselves, or sufficiently rich to purchase an exemption from the predatory attacks of these freebooters, can expect to pass through territories subject to their incursions, without being exposed to the risk of robbery and murder.

Since the establishment of the Mohammedan faith, religious motives, conspiring with those of a less exalted character, have tended to augment the intercourse between different parts of the Eastern world, and to increase the number and magnitude of the caravans. Mohammed enjoined all his followers to visit, once in their lifetime, the Caaba, or square building in the temple of Mecca, the immemorial object of veneration amongst his countrymen; and in order to preserve continually upon their minds a sense of obligation to perform this duty, he directed that, in all the multiplied acts of devotion which his religion prescribes, true believers should always turn their faces towards that holy place. In obedience to a precept so solemnly enjoined and sedulously inculcated, large caravans of pilgrims used to assemble annually in every country where the Mohammedan faith is established; and though, owing either to a diminution of religious zeal, or the increasing difficulties to be encountered in the journey, the number of pilgrims has of late years declined greatly, it is still very considerable. Few, however, of the pilgrims are actuated only by devotional feelings. Commercial ideas and objects mingle with those of religion; and it redounds to the credit of Mohammed, that he granted permission to trade during the pilgrimage to Mecca; providing at the same time for the temporal as well as the lasting interests of his votaries. "It shall be no crime in you, if ye seek an increase from your Lord by trading during the pilgrimage." — (*Sale's Koran*, c. 2. p. 36. ed. 1764.)

The numerous camels of each caravan are loaded with those commodities of every country which are of easiest carriage and readiest sale. The holy city is crowded during the month of Dhalbaja, corresponding to the latter part of June and the beginning of July, not only with zealous devotees, but with opulent merchants. A fair or market is held in Mecca and its vicinity, on the twelve days that the pilgrims are allowed to remain in that city, which used to be one of the best frequented in the world, and continues to be well attended.

"Few pilgrims," says Burckhardt, "except the mendicants, arrive without bringing some productions of their respective countries for sale: and this remark is applicable as well to the merchants, with whom commercial pursuits are the main object, as to those who are actuated by religious zeal; for, to the latter, the profits derived from selling a few articles at Mecca diminish, in some degree, the heavy expenses of the journey. The Moggrebys (pilgrims from Morocco and the north coast of Africa) bring their red bonnets and wollen cloaks; the European Turks, shoes and slippers, hardware, embroidered stuffs, sweetmeats, amber, trinkets of European manufacture, knit silk purses, &c.; the Turks of Anatolia bring carpets, silks, and Angora shawls; the Persians, Cashmere shawls and large silk handkerchiefs; the Afghans, tooth-brushes, called Mesouak Kattary, made of the spongy boughs of a tree growing in Bokhara, beads of a yellow soapstone, and plain coarse shawls manufactured in their own country; the Indians, the numerous productions of their rich and extensive region; the people of Yemen, snakes for the Persian pipes, sandals and various other works in leather; and the Africans bring various articles adapted to the slave trade. The pilgrims are, however, often disappointed in their expectations of gain; want of money makes them hastily sell their little adventures at the public auctions, and often obliges them to accept very low prices." — (*Travels in Arabia*, vol. ii. p. 21.)

The two principal caravans which yearly rendezvous at Mecca are those of Damascus and Cairo. The first is composed of pilgrims from Europe and Western Asia; the second of Mohammedans from all parts of Africa.

The Syrian caravan is said by Burckhardt to be very well regulated. It is always accompanied by the pacha of Damascus, or one of his principal officers, who gives the signal for encamping and starting by firing a musket. On the route, a troop of horsemen ride in the front, and another in the rear to bring up the stragglers. The different parties of pilgrims, distinguished by their provinces or towns, keep close together. At night torches are lighted, and the daily distance is usually performed between 9 o'clock in the afternoon and an hour or two after sunrise on the following day. The Bedouins or Arabs, who carry provisions for the troops, travel by day only, and in advance of the caravans; the encampment of which they pass in the morning, and are overtaken in turn and passed by the caravan on the following night, at their own resting place. The journey with these Bedouins is less fatiguing than with the great body of the caravan, as a regular night's rest is obtained; but their bad character deters most pilgrims from joining them.

At every watering place on the route is a small castle and a large tank, at which the camels water. The castles are garrisoned by a few persons, who remain the whole year to guard the provisions deposited there. It is at these watering-places, which belong to the Bedouins, that the sheikhs of the tribe meet the caravan, and receive the accustomed tribute for allowing it to pass. Water is plentiful on the route; the stations are nowhere more distant than 11 or 12 hours' march; and in winter, pools of rain-water are frequently found. Those pilgrims who can travel with a litter, or on commodious camel-saddles, may sleep at night, and perform the journey with little inconvenience: but of those whom poverty, or the desire of speedily acquiring a large sum of money, induces to follow the caravan on foot, or to hire themselves as servants, many die on the road from fatigue. — (*Travels in Arabia*, vol. ii. p. 3—9.)

The caravan which sets out from Cairo for Mecca is not generally so large as that of Damascus; and its route along the shores of the Red Sea is more dangerous and fatiguing. But many of the African and Egyptian merchants and pilgrims sail from Sues, Cosseir, and other ports on the western shore of the Red Sea, for Djidda, whence the journey to Mecca is short and easy.

The Persian caravan for Mecca sets out from Bagdad; but many of the Persian pilgrims are now in the habit of embarking at Bussorah, and coming to Djidda by sea.

Caravans from Bagdad and Bussorah proceed to Aleppo, Damascus, and Diarbeker, laden with all sorts of Indian, Arabian, and Persian commodities; and large quantities of European goods, principally of English cottons, imported at Bussorah, are now distributed throughout all the eastern parts of the Turkish empire by the same means. The intercourse carried on in this way is, indeed, every day becoming of more importance.

The commerce carried on by caravans, in the interior of Africa, is widely extended and of considerable value. Besides the great caravan which proceeds from Nubia to Cairo, and is joined by Mohammedan pilgrims from every part of Africa, there are caravans which have no object but commerce, which set out from Fez, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and other states on the sea-coast, and penetrate far into the interior. Some of them take as many as 50 days to reach the place of their destination; and as their rate of travelling may be estimated at about 18 miles a day at an average, the extent of their journeys may easily be computed. As both the time of their outset and their route is known, they are met by the people of the countries through which they travel, who trade with them. Indian goods of every kind form a considerable article in this traffic; in exchange for which, the chief commodity the inhabitants have to give is slaves.

Three distinct caravans are employed in bringing slaves and other commodities from Central Africa to Cairo. One of them comes direct from Mourzouk, the capital of Fezzan, across the Libyan desert; another from Senaar; and the third from Darfur. They do not arrive at stated periods, but after a greater or less interval, according to the success they have had in procuring slaves, ivory, gold dust, drugs, and such other articles as are fitted for the Egyptian markets. The Mourzouk caravan is said to be under the best regulations. It is generally about 50 days on its passage; and seldom consists of less than 100, or of more than 300, travellers. The caravans from Senaar and Darfur used formerly to be very irregular, and were sometimes not seen in Egypt for 2 or 3 years together; but since the occupation of the former by the troops of Mohammed Ali, the intercourse between it and Egypt has become comparatively frequent and regular. The number of slaves imported into Egypt by these caravans is said to amount, at present, to about 10,000 a year. The departure of a caravan from Darfur is looked upon as a most important event; it engages for a while the attention of the whole country, and even forms a kind of era. — (*Brown's Travels in Africa*, 2d ed. p. 78.) A caravan from Darfur is considered large if it has 2,000 camels and 1,000

slaves. Many of the Moorish pilgrims to Mecca cross the sea from Souakin and Massouah to the opposite coast of Arabia, and then travel by land to Mecca; and Burekhardt states, that of all the poor pilgrims who arrive in the Hedjaz, none bear a more respectable character for industry than those from Central Africa.

Caravans are distinguished into *heavy* and *light*. Camels loaded with from 500 to 600 lbs.* form a heavy caravan; light caravans being the term applied to designate those formed of camels under a moderate load, or perhaps only half loaded. The mean daily rate at which heavy caravans travel is about 18½ miles, and that of light caravans 22 miles.

The safety of a caravan depends materially on the conduct of the *caravan-bachi*, or leader. Niebuhr says, that when the latter is intelligent and honest, and the traveller understands the language, and is accustomed to the Oriental method of travelling, an excursion through the desert is rarely either disagreeable or dangerous. But it is not unusual for the Turkish pachas to realise considerable sums by selling the privilege of conducting caravans; and it is generally believed in the East, that leaders so appointed, in order to indemnify themselves, not unfrequently arrange with the Arabian sheikhs as to the attack of the caravans, and share with them in the booty! At all events, a leader who has paid a large sum for the situation, even if he should be honest, must impose proportionally heavy charges on the association. Hence the best way in travelling with caravans is, to attach oneself to one conducted by an active and experienced merchant, who has a considerable property embarked in the expedition. With ordinary precaution, the danger is then very trifling. It would be easy, indeed, were there any thing like proper arrangements made by government, to render travelling by caravans, at least on all the great routes, abundantly secure.—(Niebuhr, *Voyage en Arabie*, tome ii. p. 194. ed. Amst. 1780.)

No particular formalities are required in the formation of a caravan. Those that start at fixed periods are mostly under the control of government, by whom the leaders are appointed. But, generally speaking, any dealer is at liberty to form a company and make one. The individual in whose name it is raised is considered as the leader, or *caravan-bachi*, unless he appoint some one else in his place. When a number of merchants associate together in the design, they elect a chief, and appoint officers to decide whatever controversies may arise during the journey.—(For further details with respect to caravans, see the *Modern Part of the Universal History*, vol. xiv. pp. 214—243.; *Robertson's Disquisition on Ancient India*, Note 54.; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*, art. *Caravan*, most of which is copied from Robertson, though without a single word of acknowledgment; *Burekhardt's Travels in Arabia*, vol. ii. *passim*; *Urquhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 137, 151, &c.)

CARAVANSERA, a large public building or inn appropriated for the reception and lodgment of the caravans. Though serving in lieu of inns, there is this radical difference between them,—that, generally speaking, the traveller finds nothing in a caravansera for the use either of himself or his cattle. He must carry all his provisions and necessaries with him. They are chiefly built in dry, barren, desert places; and are mostly furnished with water brought from a great distance and at a vast expense. A well of water is, indeed, indispensable to a caravansera. Caravanseras are also numerous in cities; where they serve not only as inns, but as shops, warehouses, and even exchanges.

CARAWAY-SEED (Fr. *Carvi*, *Cumin des prés*; Ger. *Kewmmel*, *Brodtkümmel*; It. *Carvi*), a small seed, of an oblong and slender figure, pointed at both ends, and thickest in the middle. It is the produce of a biennial plant (*Carum carvi*), with a taper root like a parsnip, but much smaller. It should be chosen large, new, of a good colour, not dusty, and of a strong agreeable smell. It is principally used by confectioners; and is extensively cultivated in several parts of Essex.

CARBUNCLE (Ger. *Korfunkei*; Fr. *Escarboucle*; It. *Carboneio*; Sp. *Carbunculo*; Lat. *Carbunculus*), a precious stone of the ruby kind, of a very rich glowing blood-red colour, highly esteemed by the ancients.—(See *Ruav.*)

CARD (Fr. *Cartes*; Ger. *Kardtischen*, *Karten*, *Wollkrazen*; It. *Cardi*; Rus. *Bardü*; Sp. *Cardas*), an instrument, or comb, for arranging or sorting the hairs of wool, cotton, &c. Cards are either fastened to a flat piece of wood, and wrought by the hand; or to a cylinder, and wrought by machinery.

CARDAMOMS (Fr. *Cardamomes*; Ger. *Kardamon*; It. *Cardamomi*; Sp. *Cardamomos*; Hind. *Gujarati clacki*), seed capsules produced by a plant, of which there are different species growing in India, Cochin China, Siam, and Ceylon. The capsules are gathered as they ripen; and when dried in the sun, are fit for sale. The small capsules, or lesser cardamoms, are produced by a particular species of the plant, and are the most valuable. They should be chosen full, plump, and difficult to be broken; of a bright yellow colour; a piercing smell; with an acrid, bitterish, though not very

* This is the burden of the small camel only. The large ones usually carry from 750 to 1,000 lbs.

unpleasant taste; and particular care should be taken that they are properly dried. They are reckoned to keep best in a body, and are therefore packed in large chests, well jointed, pitched at the seams, and otherwise properly secured; as the least damp greatly reduces their value. The best cardamoms are brought from the Malabar coast. They are produced in the recesses of the mountains, by felling trees, and afterwards burning them; for wherever the ashes fall in the openings or fissures of the rocks, the cardamom plant naturally springs up. In Soonda Balagat, and other places where cardamoms are planted, the fruit or berry is very inferior to that produced in the way now mentioned. The Malabar cardamom is described as a species of bulbous plant, growing 3 or 4 feet high. The growers are obliged to sell all their produce to the agents of government, at prices fixed by the latter, varying from 550 to 700 rupees the candy of 600 lbs. avoirdupois: and it is stated that the contractor often puts an *enhanced value on the coins* with which he pays the mountaineers; or makes them take in exchange tobacco, cloths, salt, oil, betel nut, and such necessary articles, at prices which are frequently, no doubt, estimated above their proper level. Such a system ought assuredly to be put an immediate end to. Not more than *one hundredth* part of the cardamoms raised in Malabar are used in the country. They are sent in large quantities to the ports on the Red Sea and the Persian Gulph, to Sind, up the Indus, to Bengal, Bombay, &c. They form a universal ingredient in curries, pillaus, &c. The market price, at the places of exportation on the Malabar coast, varies from 800 to 1,200 rupees the candy.—(*Milburn's Orient. Commerce*, and the valuable evidence of T. H. Baber, Esq. before the Lords' Committee of 1830, p. 216.)

Malabar cardamoms were worth, in January 1843, from 2s. 3d. to 5s. a pound in the London market, duty (2d.) excluded; Ceylon cardamoms were, at the same time, worth from 1s. 2d. to 1s. 4d.

CARDS, or PLAYING CARDS (Du. *Kaarten, Speelkarden*; Fr. *Cartes à jouer*; Ger. *Karten, Spiel Karten*; It. *Carte da giuoco*; Rus. *Kartu*; Sp. *Carras, Naipes*; Sw. *Kort*). The only thing necessary to be noticed in this place with respect to cards, is the regulations as to their manufacture, sale, and the payment of the duty.

It is regulated by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 18., that an annual licence duty of 5s. shall be paid by every maker of playing cards and dice. The duty on every pack of cards is 1s., and is to be specified on the ace of spades. Cards are not to be made in any part of Great Britain, except the metropolis; nor in Ireland, except in Dublin and Cork; under a penalty of 100l. Cards are to be enclosed in wrappers, with such marks as the commissioners of stamps may appoint. Before licence can be had, bond must be given to the amount of 500l. for the payment of the duties, &c. Selling or exposing to sale any pack of cards not duly stamped, subjects a licensed maker to a penalty of 50l.; and any one else to a penalty of 10l. Any person having in his possession, or using, or permitting to be used, any pack of cards not duly stamped, to forfeit 5l. Second-hand cards may be sold by any person, if sold without the wrapper of a licensed maker; and in packs containing not more than 52 cards, including an ace of spades duly stamped, and enclosed in a wrapper with the words "Second-hand Cards" printed or written in distinct characters on the outside; penalty for selling second-hand cards in any other manner, 20l.

The duty of 1s. per pack on cards produced, in 1841, the sum of 9,222l. 18s.; showing that 184,478 packs had been disposed of.

CARMEN, of the city of London, are constituted a fellowship by act of common council. The rates which they are allowed to charge, and the regulations by which they are to be guided, are settled at the quarter sessions. In other respects they are subjected to the rule of the president and governors of Christ's Hospital, to whom the owner of every cart pays an annual licence duty of 17s. 4d.

Carman are to help to load and unload their carts; and if any carman exacts more than the regular rates, upon due proof, before the Lord Mayor, or any two magistrates, he shall suffer imprisonment for the space of 31 days.

If any person shall refuse to pay any carman his hire, according to the regular rates, upon complaint made, the president of Christ's Hospital, or a justice of the peace, may compel payment.

Merchants or other persons may choose what cart they please, except such as stand for wheat-work, tuckie-work, crane-work, at shops and merchants' houses, which are to be taken in turn; and every carman standing with his empty cart next to any goods to be loaded, shall, upon the first demand, load the same for the accustomed rates; and if any person shall cause a carman to stand at his house, shop, warehouse, or cellar, with his loaded cart, the carman being

willing to help to unload the same, he shall pay the carman after the rate of 12d. for every hour after the first half hour for his attendance.

Every licensed carman is to have a piece of brass fixed upon his cart, upon which is to be engraven a certain number; which number, together with the carman's name, is registered in a register kept at Christ's Hospital; so that, in case of any misbehaviour, the party offended, by taking notice of the number of the cart, may search for it in the register, and the name will be found.

Carman not conforming to these rules, or working without a numbered piece of brass fixed on the cart, may be suspended from their employment.

Carman riding upon the shafts of their carts, or sitting within them, not having some person on foot to guide the horses, shall forfeit 10s.

CARMINE (Ger. *Karmin*; Du. *Karmyn*; Fr. *Carmine*; It. *Carminio*; Lat. *Carminum*), a powder of a very beautiful red colour, bordering upon purple, and used by painters in miniature. It is a species of *lake*, and is formed of finely pulverised cochineal. It is very high priced.

CARNELIAN. See AGATE.

CARPET, CARPETS (Ger. *Tappiche*; Du. *Tapyten, Vloer-tapyten*; Fr. *Tapis*; It. *Tappeti*; Sp. *Alfonbras, Alcatifas, Tapetes*; Rus. *Kowrii, Kilimi*.) Persian and Turkish carpets are the most esteemed. In England, carpets are principally manufactured at Kidderminster, Wilton, Cirencester, Worcester, Axminster, &c.; and in Scotland, at Kilmarnock. Those made at Axminster are believed to be very little, if any thing, inferior to those of Persia and Turkey.

CARRIAGES. See COACHES.

CARROT (*Daucus carota* Lin.), a biennial plant, a native of Britain. Though long known as a garden plant, its introduction into agriculture has been comparatively recent. The uses of the carrot in domestic economy are well known. It is extensively cultivated in Suffolk, whence large quantities are sent to the London market. Horses are said to be remarkably fond of carrots.

CARRIERS are persons undertaking for hire to carry goods from one place to another.

Proprietors of carts and wagons, masters and owners of ships, hoymen, lightermen, bargemen, ferrymen, &c. are denominated common carriers. The master of a stage coach who only carries passengers for hire, is not liable for goods; but if he undertake to carry goods and passengers, then he is liable for both as a common carrier. The postmaster general is not a carrier in the common acceptance of the term, nor is he subjected to his liabilities.

1. *Duties and Liabilities of Carriers.*—Carriers are bound to receive and carry the goods of all persons, for a reasonable hire or reward; to take proper care of them in their passage; to deliver them safely, and in the same condition as when they were received (excepting only such losses as may arise from the act of God or the king's enemies); or, in default thereof, to make compensation to the owner for whatever loss or damage the goods may have received while in their custody, that might have been prevented.

Hence a carrier is liable, though he be robbed of the goods, or they be taken from him by irresistible force; and though this may seem a hard rule, yet it is the only one that could be safely adopted; for if a carrier were not liable for losses unless it could be shown that he had conducted himself dishonestly or negligently, a door would be opened for every species of fraud and collusion, inasmuch as it would be impossible, in most cases, to ascertain whether the facts were such as the carrier represented. On the same principle a carrier has been held accountable for goods accidentally consumed by fire while in his warehouse. In delivering the opinion of the Court of King's Bench on a case of this sort, Lord Mansfield said—“A carrier, by the nature of his contract, obliges himself to use all due care and diligence, and is answerable for any neglect. But there is something more imposed upon him by custom, that is, by the common law. A common carrier is in the nature of an insurer. All the cases show him to be so. This makes him liable for every thing except the act of God and the king's enemies; that is, even for inevitable accidents, with those exceptions. The question then is, *What is the act of God?* I consider it to be laid down in opposition to the act of man; such as lightning, storms, tempests, and the like, which could not happen by any human intervention. To prevent litigation and collusion, the law presumes negligence except in those circumstances. An armed force, though ever so great and irresistible, does not excuse; the reason is, for fear it may give room for collusion, which can never happen with respect to the act of God. We all, therefore, are of opinion that there should be judgment for the plaintiff.”—(*Forward v. Pittard*, 1 T. R. 27.)

A carrier is not obliged to have a new carriage for every journey; it is sufficient if he provide one that, without any extraordinary accident, may be fairly presumed capable of performing the journey.

A carrier may be discharged from his liability by any fraud or concealment on the part of the individual employing him, or of the bailor; as if the latter represent a parcel as containing things of little or no value, when, in fact, it contains things of great value. But when the carrier has not given a notice limiting his responsibility, and when he puts no questions with respect to the parcel to the bailor, the latter need not say any thing with respect to it; and though the bailor should represent the thing delivered to the carrier as of no value, yet if the latter knows it to be otherwise, he will be responsible in the event of its being lost or damaged. If the bailor deliver goods imperfectly packed, and the carrier does not perceive it, he is not liable in the event of a loss occurring; but if the defect in the package were such that the carrier could not but perceive it, he would be liable. On this principle a carrier was made to answer for the loss of a greyhound that had been improperly secured when given to him.

A carrier may refuse to admit goods into his warehouse at an unreasonable time, or before he is ready to take his journey; but he cannot refuse to do the ordinary duties incumbent on a person in his situation.

It is felony, if a carrier open a parcel and take goods out of it with intent to steal them; and it has been decided, that if goods be delivered to a carrier to be carried to a specified place, and he carry them to a different place, and dispose of them for his own profit, he is guilty of felony; but the embezzlement of goods by a carrier, without a felonious taking, merely exposes to a civil action.

No carrier, wagonman, carman, or wainman, with their respective carriages, shall travel on Sundays, under a penalty of 2*s.*—(3 *Chan. l. c. 1.*)

A carrier is always, unless there be an express agreement to the contrary, entitled to a reward for his care and trouble. In some cases his reward is regulated by the legislature, and in others by a special stipulation between the parties; but though there be no legislative provision or express agreement, he cannot claim more than a reasonable compensation.

2. *Limitation of Responsibility.*—Until the act of 1830, a carrier might, by express stipulation, giving public notice to that effect, discharge his liability from all losses by robbery, accident, or otherwise, except those which arose from *misfeasance and gross negligence*, from which no stipulation or notice could exempt him, and provided the notice did not contravene the express conditions of an act of parliament.

Notices generally bore, that the carrier would not be responsible for more than a certain sum (usually 5*s.*) on any one parcel, the value of which had not been declared and paid for accordingly; so that a person aware of this notice, entering a box worth 100*l.* without declaring its value, or entering it as being worth 200*l.* would, should it be lost, have got in the first case only 5*l.*, and in the latter only 200*l.*, unless he could have shown that the carrier had acted fraudulently or with gross negligence. But, to avail himself of this defence, the carrier was bound to show that the bailor or his servant was acquainted with the notice at the time of delivering the goods. No particular manner of giving notice was required.

It might be done by express communication, by fixing it up in a conspicuous place in the carrier's office, by insertion in the public papers or Gazette, by the circulation of handbills, &c.; it being in all cases a question for the jury to decide whether the bailor was really acquainted with the notice of the limitation; since, if he were not, he was entitled to recover, whatever efforts the carrier may have made to publish it. Thus, a notice stuck up in a carrier's warehouse, where goods were delivered, was of no avail against parties who could not read; neither was it of any avail against those who could read, and who had seen it, unless they had actually read it. On this principle it was held, that a notice in a newspaper is not sufficient, even when it was proved that the bailor read the newspaper, unless it could also be proved that he had read the notice itself.

These attempts to limit responsibility gave rise to a great deal of litigation and uncertainty; and to obviate the inconveniences thence arising, the important statute 1 Will. 4. c. 68, was passed. This act declares, that carriers be liable for the loss of certain articles specified in the act, when their value exceeds 10*l.*, unless the nature and value of such articles be stated at the time of their delivery to the carrier, and an increased charge paid or agreed to be paid upon the same. It is further

declared, that no publication of any notices by carriers shall have power to limit their responsibility at common law for all other articles except those specified in the act. But as the act is of great importance, we subjoin it.

From and after the passing of this act, no mail contractor, stage coach proprietor, or other common carrier by land for hire, shall be liable for the loss of or injury to any article or articles or property of the description following, viz. gold or silver coin of this realm or of any foreign state, or any gold or silver in a manufactured or unmanufactured state, or any precious stones, jewellery, watches, clocks, or time-pieces of any description, trinkets, bills, notes of the Governor and Company of the Banks of England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, or of any other bank in Great Britain or Ireland, orders, notes, or securities for payment of money, English or foreign stamps, maps, writings, title-deeds, paintings, engravings, pictures, gold or silver plate or plated articles, glass, china, silks in a manufactured or unmanufactured state, and whether wrought up or not wrought up with other materials, furs, or lace, or any of them, contained in any parcel or package which shall have been delivered, either to be carried for hire or to accompany the person of any passenger in any mail or stage coach or other public conveyance, when the value of such article or articles or property aforesaid contained in such parcel or package shall exceed the sum of 10*l.*, unless at the time of the delivery thereof at the office, warehouse, or receiving house of such mail contractor, &c. the value and nature of such article or articles or property shall have been declared by the person or persons sending or delivering the same, and such increased charge as hereinafter mentioned, or an engagement to pay the same, be accepted by the person receiving such parcel or package. — § 1.

When any parcel or package containing any of the articles above specified shall be so delivered, and its value and contents declared as aforesaid, and such value shall exceed the sum of 10*l.*, it shall be lawful for such mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, and other common carriers, to demand and receive an increased rate of charge, to be notified by some notice, affixed in legible characters in some public and conspicuous part of the office, warehouse, or other receiving house, where such parcels or packages are received by them for the purpose of conveyance, stating the increased rate of charge required to be paid over and above the ordinary rate, as a compensation for the greater risk and care to be taken for the safe conveyance of such valuable articles; and all persons sending or delivering parcels or packages containing such valuable articles as aforesaid at such office shall be bound by such notice, without further proof of the same having come to their knowledge. — § 2.

Provided always, that when the value shall have been so declared, and the increased rate of charge paid, or an engagement to pay the same shall have been accepted as herein-before mentioned, the person receiving such increased rate of charge or accepting such agreement shall, if required, sign a receipt for the package or parcel, acknowledging the same to have been insured, which receipt shall not be liable to any stamp duty; and if such receipt shall not be given when required, or such notice as aforesaid shall not have been affixed, the mail contractor, stage coach proprietor, or other common carrier as aforesaid, shall not have or be entitled to any benefit or advantage under this act, but shall be liable and responsible as at the common law, and be liable to refund the increased rate of charge. — § 3.

And be it enacted, that from and after the 1st day of September 1830, no public notice or declaration heretofore made or hereafter to be made shall be deemed or construed to limit or in any wise affect the liability at common law of any such mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, or other public common carriers as aforesaid, for or in respect of any articles or goods to be carried and conveyed by them; but that all and every such mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, and other common carriers as aforesaid shall, from and after the said 1st day of September, be liable, as at the common law, to answer for the loss of any injury [so *in the act*] to any articles and goods in respect whereof they may not be entitled to the benefit of this act, any public notice or declaration by them made and given contrary thereto, or in anywise limiting such liability, notwithstanding. — § 4.

And be it further enacted, that for the purposes of this act, every office, warehouse, or receiving house, which shall be used or appointed by any mail contractor, or stage coach proprietor, or other such common carrier, for the receiving of parcels to be conveyed as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken to be the receiving house, warehouse, or office of such mail contractor, stage coach proprietor, or other common carrier; and that any one or more of such mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, or common carriers, shall be liable to be sued by his, her, or their name or names only; and that no action or suit commenced to recover damages for loss or injury to any parcel, package, or person, shall abate for the want of joining any co-proprietor or co-partner in such mail, stage coach, or other public conveyance by land for hire as aforesaid. — § 5.

Provided always, and be it further enacted, that nothing in this act contained shall extend or be construed to annul or in any wise affect any special contract between such mail contractor, stage coach proprietor, or common carrier, and any other parties, for the conveyance of goods and merchandises. — § 6.

Provided also, and be it further enacted, that where any parcel or package shall have been delivered at any such office, and the value and contents declared as aforesaid, and the increased rate of charge been paid, and such parcels or packages shall have been lost or damaged, the party entitled to recover damages in respect of such loss or damage shall also be entitled to recover back such increased charges so paid as aforesaid, in addition to the value of such parcel or package. — § 7.

Provided also, and be it further enacted, that nothing in this act shall be deemed to protect any mail contractor, stage coach proprietor, or other common carrier for hire, from liability to answer for loss or injury to any goods or articles whatsoever, arising from the felonious acts of any coachman, guard, book-keeper, porter, or other servant in his or their employ, nor to protect any such coachman, guard, book-keeper, or other servant, from liability for any loss or injury occasioned by his or their own personal neglect or misconduct. — § 8.

Provided also, and be it further enacted, that such mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, or other common carriers for hire, shall not be concluded as to the value of any such parcel or package by the value as declared as aforesaid, but that he or they shall in all cases be entitled to require, from the party suing in respect of any loss or injury, proof of the actual value of the contents by the ordinary legal evidence; and that the mail contractors, stage coach proprietors, or other common carriers, as aforesaid, shall be liable to such damages only as shall be so proved as aforesaid, not exceeding the declared value, together with the increased charges as before mentioned. — § 9.

And be it further enacted, that in all actions to be brought against any such mail contractors, &c., the defendant or defendants may pay the money into court. — § 10.

It will be observed, that carriers continue, notwithstanding this act, liable, as before, for the felonious acts of their servants, and their own misfeasance or gross negligence. It is not possible, however, to lay down any general rule as to the circumstances which constitute this offence. Differing as they do in almost every case, the question, when raised, must be left to a jury. But it has been decided, that the *misdelivery* of a parcel, or its *non-delivery within a reasonable time*, is a misfeasance that cannot be defeated by any notice on the part of the carrier limiting his responsibility. In like manner, the sending of a parcel by a different coach from that directed by the bailor, the removing it from one carriage to another, are misfeasances. Where a parcel is directed to a person at a particular place, and the carrier, knowing such person, delivers the parcel to another

who represents himself as the consignee, such delivery is gross negligence. Leaving parcels in a coach or cart unprotected in the street is also gross negligence.

At common law, there is no distinction between carriage performed by sea or land; but by the 7 Geo. 2. c. 15. and 26 Geo. 3. c. 86., corrected and amended by the 53 Geo. 3. c. 159., it is enacted that ship owners are not to be liable for any loss or damage happening to goods on board through the fraud or neglect of the master, without their knowledge or privity, further than the value of the vessel and the freight accruing during the voyage. — (See OWNERS.)

3. *Commencement and Termination of Liability.* — A carrier's liability commences from the time the goods are actually delivered to him in the character of carrier. A delivery to a carrier's servant is a delivery to himself, and he will be responsible. The delivery of goods in an inn-yard or warehouse, at which other carriers put up, is not a delivery so as to charge a carrier, unless a special notice be given him of their having been so delivered, or some previous intimation to that effect.

A carrier's liability ceases, when he vests the property committed to his charge in the hands of the consignee or his agents, by actual delivery; or when the property is resumed by the consignor, in pursuance of his right of stopping it *in transitu*. It is in all cases the duty of the carrier to deliver the goods. The leaving goods at an inn is not a sufficient delivery. The rule in such cases, in deciding upon the carrier's liability, is to consider whether any thing remains to be done by the carrier, as such; and if nothing remains to be done, his liability ceases, and conversely.

A carrier has a lien upon goods for his hire. Even if the goods be stolen, the rightful owner is not to have them without paying the carriage.

For further details as to this subject see *Jeremy on the Law of Carriers*, passim; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. pp. 369—386.; and *Burn's Justice of the Peace*, tit. *Carriers*. There are some excellent observations with respect to it in *Sir William Jones's Essay on the Law of Bailments*. — (For an account of the regulations as to the conveyance of passengers in stage coaches, see COACHES, STAGE.)

CARTS. Every cart, &c. for the carriage of any thing to and from any place, where the streets are paved, within the bills of mortality, shall contain 6 inches in the felly. No person shall drive any cart, waggon, &c. within 5 miles of the General Post Office, unless the name, surname, and place of abode of the owner, be painted in conspicuous letters, at least 1 inch in height, on the right or off side thereof, under a penalty of 5*l.* Any person may seize and detain any cart, waggon, &c. without such mark. — (1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 22.)

CASH, in commerce, means the ready money, bills, drafts, bonds, and all immediately negotiable paper in an individual's possession.

CASH ACCOUNT, in book-keeping, an account to which nothing but cash is carried on the one hand, and from which all the disbursements of the concern are drawn on the other. The balance is *the cash in hand*. When the credit side more than balances the debit, or disbursement side, the account is said to be *in cash*; when the contrary, to be *out of cash*.

CASH ACCOUNT, in banking, is the name given to the account of the advances made by a banker in Scotland, to an individual who has given security for their repayment. — (See BANKS (SCOTCH).)

CASHEW NUTS (Ger. *Akajunüsse*, *Westindische Anaharden*; Du. *Catsjoenooten*; Fr. *Noix d'acajou*; It. *Acaju*; Sp. *Nueces d'acaju*; Port. *Nozes d'acaju*), the produce of the *Anacardium occidentale*. They are externally of a greyish or brownish colour, of the shape of a kidney, somewhat convex on the one side, and depressed on the other. The shell is very hard; and the kernel, which is sweet and of a very fine flavour, is covered with a thin film. Between this and the shell is lodged a thick, blackish, inflammable oil, of such a caustic nature in the fresh nuts, that if the lips chance to touch it, blisters immediately follow. The kernels are used in cooking, and in the preparation of chocolate.

CASPIAN SEA. See TAÖANROG.

CASSIA. There are four species of cassia in the market, viz. *Cassia Fistula*; *Cassia Lignea* or *Cassia Bark*; *Cassia Buds*, and *Cassia Senna*.

1. *Cassia Lignea*, or *Cassia Bark* (Fr. *Casse*; Ger. *Cassia*; Port. *Cassia lenhosa*; Arab. *Selekeh*; Hind. *Tuf*; Malay. *Kaya-leg*), the bark of a tree (*Laurus Cassia* Lin.) growing in Sumatra, Borneo, the Malabar coast, Philippine Islands, &c.; but chiefly in the provinces of Quantong and Kingsi, in China, which furnish the greatest part of the cassia met with in the European markets. The tree grows to the height of 80 or 60 feet, with large, spreading, horizontal branches. The bark resembles that of cinnamon in appearance, smell, and taste, and is very often substituted for it; but it may be readily distinguished; it is thicker in substance, less quilled, breaks shorter, and is more pungent. It should be chosen in this piece; the best being that which approaches nearest to cinnamon in flavour; that which is small and broken should be rejected. A good deal of the cassia in the Indian markets is brought from Borneo, Sumatra, and Ceylon. Malabar cassia is thicker and darker coloured than that of China, and more subject to foul packing: each bundle should be separately inspected. — (*Ainslie's Materia Indica*;) *Milburn's Orient. Com.*, &c.)

The duty on cassia was reduced in 1825 from 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. to 1*s.*, and in 1829 to 6*d.* Owing partly to these reductions, and partly to the heavy duty on and high price of cinnamon, the consumption of cassia has more than trebled since 1829. Of 1,261,648 lbs. imported in 1841, 971,902 were brought from the

East India Company's territories and Ceylon, 178,008 lbs. from the Philippine Islands, 63,071 from the Western coast of Africa, and 38,766 from China. Cassia was quoted in the London markets, in February 1843, at from 80s. to 70s. a cwt. in bond.

3. *Cassia Buds*, the dried fruit or berry of the tree (*Laurus cassia*) which yields the bark described in the previous article. They bear some resemblance to a clove, but are smaller, and, when fresh, have a rich cinnamon flavour. They should be chosen round, fresh, and free from stalk and dirt. Cassia buds are the produce of China. The imports of all sorts of cassia from Canton in 1842 into the United Kingdom amounted to 376,117 lbs.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Anglo-Chinese Calendar*; and *Port. Paper No. 397*, Bata, 1843.)

3. *Cassia Fistula* (Fr. *Casse*; Ger. *Rhonkassie*; It. *Polpa di cassia*; Lat. *Cassia pulpia*; Arab. *Khyar aheber*) is a tree which grows in the East and West Indies, and Egypt (*Cassia Fistula* Lin.). The fruit is a woody, dark brown pod, about the thickness of the thumb, and nearly 2 feet in length. These brought to this country come principally from the West Indies, packed in casks and cases; but a superior kind is brought from the East Indies, and is easily distinguished by its smaller smooth pod, and by the greater blackness of the pulp. For details as to its importation, &c., see below.
Cassia Senna. See SENNA.

Account, specifying the Quantities of Cassia Lignea imported into, exported from, and entered for Consumption in the United Kingdom, with the Amount and Rate of Duty on the same, during each of the 13 Years, ending with 1842.

Years.	Quantities imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities re-exported from the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty.	
					From British Possessions.	From other Parts.
1830	284	136	148	£	6d. per lb.	1s. per lb.
1831	837,680	297,642	539,938	1,524	do.	do.
1832	598,480	219,775	378,705	1,526	do.	do.
1833	1,040,569	764,063	276,506	1,813	do.	do.
1834	1,097,710	1,381,546	77,967	1,778	do.	do.
1835	2,060,346	1,860,349	199,997	2,195	do.	do.
1836	1,216,303	1,152,035	64,268	2,539	do.	do.
1837	837,413	653,085	184,328	2,248	do.	do.
1838	104,674	703,141	608,467	2,562	do.	do.
1839	381,053	557,702	176,649	2,521	do.	do.
1840	435,710	656,984	221,274	2,551	do.	do.
1841	529,310	644,520	115,210	1,953	5s. per cent. additional on above rates from 15th May.	do.
1842	1,261,648	1,262,164	-516	2,219	do.	do.
1843	1,319,804	1,247,498	72,306	1,092	Produce of British Possessions, 1s. and 5 per cent. ad. thereon.	Produce of other parts, 3s. from 8th July.

Average quantity of *cassia buds* imported into the United Kingdom in each of the above thirteen years, 40,231 lbs.
 Ditto ditto entered for home consumption during each of the said years 6,510 lbs.
 Average annual amount of duty received thereon, 512.
 Average quantity of *cassia fistula* imported into the United Kingdom in each of these years, 9,968 lbs.
 Ditto ditto entered for home consumption ditto 2,105 lbs.
 Average annual amount of duty received thereon, 44.

CASTOR (Fr. *Castoreum*; Ger. *Kastoreunt*; It. *Castoro*; Sp. *Castoreo*), the produce of the beaver. In the inguinal region of this animal are found four bags, a large and a small one on each side: in the two large ones there is contained a softish, greyish yellow, or light brown substance, which, on exposure to the air, becomes dry and brittle, and of a brown colour. This is castor. It has a heavy but somewhat aromatic smell, not unlike musk; and a bitter, nauseous, and subacid taste. The best comes from Russia; but of late years it has been very scarce; and all that is now found in the shops is the produce of Canada. The goodness of castor is determined by its sensible qualities; that which is black is insipid, inodorous, oily, and unfit for use. Castor is said to be sometimes counterfeited by a mixture of some gummy and resinous substances; but the fraud is easily detected, by comparing the smell and taste with those of real castor.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

CASTOR OIL (Fr. *Huile du Ricin*; Ger. *Rizinusohl*; It. *Olio di Ricino*; Sp. *Ricinusel*) is obtained from the seeds of the *Ricinus communis*, or *Palma Christi*, an annual plant found in most tropical countries, and in Greece, the south of Spain, &c. The oil is separated from the seeds either by boiling them in water, or by subjecting them to the action of the press. It is said, that though the largest quantity of oil may be produced by the first method, it is less sweet, and more apt to become rancid, than that procured by expression, which, in consequence, is the process now most commonly followed. Good expressed castor oil is nearly inodorous and insipid; but the best leaves a slight sensation of acrimony in the throat after it is swallowed. It is thicker and heavier than the fat oils, being viscid, transparent, and colourless, or of a very pale straw colour. That which is obtained by boiling the seeds has a brownish hue; and both kinds, when they become rancid, thicken, deepen in colour to a reddish brown, and acquire a hot, nauseous taste. It is very extensively employed in the materia medica as a cathartic.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The duty of 1s. 3d. per cwt. on castor oil entered for home consumption produced in 1842, 252*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.*, showing that the entries had amounted to 452,387 lbs. Of the total quantity imported in 1841, amounting to 471,400 lbs., no fewer than 869,947 lbs. were brought from the East India Company's territories and Ceylon. East India castor oil was worth in 1843, in the London market, from 4*s.* to 8*s.* per lb.

CATECHU (Fr. *Catchou*; Ger. *Kaschu*; Hind. *Cut*; Mal. *Gambir*), a brown astringent substance, formerly known by the name of *Terra Japonica*, because supposed to be a kind of earth. It is, however, a vegetable substance obtained from two plants; viz. the *Mimosa*, or more correctly the *Acacia catechu*, and the *Uncaria gambir*. The

first of these is a tree from 20 to 30 feet high, found in abundance in many of the forests of India, from 16° of lat. up to 30°. The places most remarkable for its production are the Burmese territories; a large province on the Malabar coast called the Concan; and the forests skirting the northern part of Bengal, under the hills which divide it from Nepal. The catechu is obtained from this tree by the simple process of boiling the heart of the wood for a few hours, when it assumes the look and consistency of tar. The substance hardens by cooling; is formed into small balls or squares; and being dried in the sun, is fit for the market. The price to the first purchaser in the Concan is about 1*5s.* a cwt. According to Dr. Davy, who analysed it, the specific gravity of Concan catechu is 1.99; and that of Pegu, 1.28. The taste of this substance is astringent, leaving behind a sensation of sweetness; it is almost wholly soluble in water. Of all the astringent substances we know, catechu appears to contain the largest portion of tannin. According to Mr. Purkis, 1 lb. is equivalent to 7 or 8 lbs. of oak bark for tanning leather. From 200 grs. of Concan catechu, Dr. Davy procured 109 of tannin, 68 of extractive matter, 13 of mucilage, and 10 of earths and other impurities: the same quantity of Pegu catechu afforded 97 grs. of tannin, 73 of extract, 16 of mucilage, and 14 of impurities. The *uncaria gambir* is a scandent shrub, extensively cultivated in all the countries lying on both sides of the Straits of Malacca; but chiefly in the small islands at their eastern extremity. The catechu is in this case obtained by boiling the leaves and imbibing the juice; a small quantity of crude sago being added, to give the mass consistency; it is then dried in the sun, and being cut like the Concan catechu into small squares, is ready for use. There is a great consumption of this article throughout all parts of India as a masticatory; it forms an ingredient in the compound of betel pepper, areca nut, and lime, which is in almost universal use. Catechu may be purchased at the Dutch settlement of Rhio, or at Malacca, in the Straits of Singapore, at the rate of about 10*s.* a cwt. Large quantities of it are imported, under the corrupted name of catech, into Calcutta from Pegu. From Bombay a considerable quantity is annually imported into China. The quantity of catechu, under the name of gambir, produced in Rhio by the Chinese settlers, amounts to about 4,600 tons a year, about 2,000 of which are exported for the consumption of Java; the rest being sent to China, Cochinchina, and other neighbouring countries. — (See *Ainslie's Materia Indica*; *Ure's Dictionary*; *Singapore Chronicle*; *Buchanan's Journey through Mysore, Canara, and Malabar*; *Bell's Review of the external Commerce of Bengal*.)

CAT'S EYE, a mineral of a beautiful appearance, brought from Ceylon. Its colours are grey, green, brown, red, of various shades. Its internal lustre is shining, its fracture imperfectly conchoidal, and it is translucent. From a peculiar play of light, arising from white fibres interspersed, it has derived its name. The French call the appearance *chatoyant*. It scratches quartz, is easily broken, and resists the blowpipe. It is set by the jewellers as a precious stone.

CAT SKINS. The skin or fur of the cat, is used for a variety of purposes, but is principally dyed and sold as false sable. It appears from evidence taken before a late Committee of the House of Commons, that it is a common practice in London to decoy the animal and kill it for the sake of its skin. The fur of the wild cat is, however, far more valuable than that of the domestic cat. The wild cat skins imported into this country are brought almost wholly from the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company. The animal from which they are taken is a good deal larger than the English wild cat, and is sometimes called the *leop cervier*, or Canadian lynx. It is very courageous. At an average about 40,000 cat-skins are annually imported, of which more than a half are retained for home consumption.

CATTLE, a collective term applied to designate all those quadrupeds that are used either as food for man, or in tilling the ground. By *neat* or *horned cattle* is meant the two species included under the names of the ox (*Bos*) and the buffalo (*Bubalus*); but as the latter is hardly known in this country, it is the former only that we have here in view.

The raising and feeding of cattle, and the preparation of the various products which they yield, have formed, in all countries emerged from the savage state, an important branch of industry.

It would be quite inconsistent with the objects and limits of this work, to enter into any details with respect to the different breeds of cattle raised in this or other countries. They are exceedingly various. In Great Britain they have been vastly improved, both in the weight of carcass, the quality of the beef, and the abundance of the milk, by the extraordinary attention that has been given to the selection and crossing of the best breeds, according to the objects in view. This sort of improvement began about the middle of last century, or rather later, and was excited and very much forwarded by the skill and enterprise of two individuals — Mr. Bakewell of Dishley, and Mr. Culley of Northumberland. The success by which their efforts were attended roused a spirit of emulation in others; and the rapid growth of commerce and manufactures since 1760

having occasioned a corresponding increase in the demand for butcher's meat, improved systems of breeding, and improved breeds, have been very generally introduced.

But the improvement in the size and condition of cattle has not been alone owing to the circumstances now mentioned. Much of it is certainly to be ascribed to the great improvement that has been made in their feeding. The introduction and universal extension of the turnip and clover cultivation has had, in this respect, a most astonishing influence, and has wonderfully increased the food of cattle, and consequently the supply of butcher's meat.

It was stated in the First Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Waste Lands (printed in 1795), that cattle and sheep had, at an average, increased in size and weight about a fourth part since 1732; but there are strong grounds for supposing that the increase had been much more considerable than is represented by the committee.

According to an estimate of Dr. Davenant in 1710, the average weight of the *net* carcase of black cattle was only 370 lbs., of calves 28 lbs., and of sheep only 28 lbs.; but according to Sir F. M. Eden (*Hist. of the Poor*, vol. iii. Appen. p. 88.) and Mr. Middleton (*Agric. of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 541.), the average net weight of the carcase of bullocks killed in London might be taken, about the end of the last or the beginning of this century, at 800 lbs., calves at 140 lbs., sheep at 80 lbs., and lambs at 50 lbs.

Consumption of Butcher's Meat in London.—The number of head of cattle, sheep, and lambs, sold in Smithfield market, each year since 1732, has been as follows:—

Years.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Years.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Years.	Cattle.	Sheep.	Years.	Cattle.	Sheep.
1732	76,210	514,700	1760	68,594	622,210	1788	92,829	679,100	1816	120,439	968,660
1733	80,169	555,050	1761	82,514	666,010	1789	93,269	693,700	1817	129,888	1,044,710
1734	78,810	566,910	1762	102,831	772,160	1790	103,708	749,660	1818	138,047	963,250
1735	88,894	590,970	1763	90,851	653,110	1791	101,164	740,360	1819	135,226	949,900
1736	87,606	587,420	1764	76,168	656,860	1792	107,348	750,869	1820	132,333	947,990
1737	89,862	607,230	1765	81,680	637,000	1793	116,948	728,480	1821	129,125	1,107,230
1738	87,010	599,470	1766	75,534	674,790	1794	109,448	719,420	1822	142,043	1,340,160
1739	86,787	568,980	1767	77,324	674,050	1795	131,092	745,640	1823	149,592	1,264,920
1740	84,810	601,020	1768	79,660	626,170	1796	117,152	758,640	1824	163,616	1,239,720
1741	77,714	536,180	1769	82,181	642,910	1797	108,377	693,510	1825	165,996	1,130,310
1742	79,601	503,260	1770	86,890	649,090	1798	107,470	763,010	1826	143,460	1,270,630
1743	76,475	468,120	1771	93,073	631,860	1799	122,086	834,400	1827	138,363	1,335,100
1744	76,648	490,630	1772	89,503	609,540	1800	126,073	842,210	1828	147,698	1,288,460
1745	74,188	563,990	1773	90,133	609,740	1801	134,546	760,360	1829	158,313	1,240,900
1746	71,882	690,798	1774	90,419	685,290	1802	136,389	743,470	1830	169,907	1,297,070
1747	71,160	621,780	1775	93,581	623,560	1803	117,551	787,430	1831	148,168	1,189,010
1748	67,681	610,060	1776	96,372	671,700	1804	113,019	903,940	1832	166,224	1,364,160
1749	72,706	624,220	1777	93,714	714,470	1805	125,043	912,410	1833	152,093	1,167,820
1750	70,765	656,540	1778	97,360	658,540	1806	120,260	856,570	1834	164,485	1,237,860
1751	69,889	631,860	1779	97,392	676,840	1807	124,236	924,050	1835	170,325	1,381,540
1752	73,708	642,100	1780	102,383	706,850	1808	144,042	1,016,280	1836	164,351	1,219,510
1753	75,252	648,440	1781	102,543	743,330	1809	137,600	989,250	1837	172,435	1,329,010
1754	70,437	631,350	1782	101,176	728,970	1810	132,156	962,750	1838	183,262	1,403,400
1755	74,230	647,100	1783	101,840	701,610	1811	125,012	966,400	1839	180,780	1,360,250
1756	77,297	694,710	1784	98,143	616,110	1812	133,954	993,690	1840	177,497	1,371,870
1757	82,612	674,960	1785	99,047	641,470	1813	137,770	891,240	1841	166,922	1,310,220
1758	84,252	550,930	1786	92,270	665,910	1814	135,071	870,890	1842	175,347	1,438,960
1759	86,439	682,260	1787	94,946	668,670	1815	124,948	962,840			

The number of *fatted calves*, exclusive of sucklers, of which no account is taken, sold annually in Smithfield from 1821 inclusive, has been as follows:—

Date.	Number.	Date.	Number.	Date.	Number.
1821	- 21,768	1829	- 20,879	1836	- 18,900
1822	- 24,255	1830	- 20,800	1837	- 17,716
1823	- 22,739	1831	- —	1838	- 18,653
1824	- 21,949	1832	- 19,522	1839	- 18,148
1825	- 20,958	1833	- 18,374	1840	- 17,154
1826	- 22,118	1834	- 19,721	1841	- 17,054
1827	- 20,729	1835	- 20,882	1842	- 19,648
1828	- 20,832				

The contract prices of butcher's meat per cwt. at Greenwich Hospital, since 1730, have been as below:—

Year.	£ s. d.	Year.	£ s. d.	Year.	£ s. d.
1730	- 1 5 8	1790	- 1 16 10	1825	- 2 19 6½
1740	- 1 8 0	1800	- 3 4 4	1830	- 2 3 6
1750	- 1 6 6	1810	- 3 12 0	1835	- 2 0 7½
1760	- 1 11 6	1815	- 3 8 0	1840	- 2 14 0
1770	- 1 8 6	1820	- 3 10 4½	1842	- 2 12 8½
1780	- 1 12 6				

We suspect, from what we have heard from practical men of great experience, that the weights assigned by Sir F. M. Eden and Mr. Middleton to the cattle sold in Smithfield were, at the time when their estimate was framed, decidedly in excess; but the great improvements that have since been made in the breeding and feeding of cattle in all parts of the empire, have materially increased their average size; so that the above weights are now, we have been well assured, not far from the mark. In order, however, to be within bounds, we shall take the net weight of the cattle at 750 lbs.; and supposing this and the other estimates to be nearly right, we should be able, provided we

knew the respective numbers of sheep and lambs, to estimate the total quantity of butcher's meat furnished for London by Smithfield market, exclusive of hogs and pigs. Sheep and lambs are not, however, distinguished in the returns; but it is known that the former are to the latter, nearly as 3 to 1; so that we may estimate the average weight of the sheep and lambs at about 70 lbs.

Average Number of Animals sold in Smithfield in each of the 3 Years ending 1844.	Gross Weight.		Offal.		Nett Weight.		Butcher's Meat.	
	Libs.	1,000	Libs.	250	Libs.	750	Libs.	100
173,255 Cattle	-	-	1,000	250	750	139,641,250		
1,373,643 Sheep and lambs	-	-	90	20	70	96,107,810		
17,932 Calves	-	-	175	35	140	2,443,280		
					Total	228,542,340		

This quantity, estimated at the average price of 6d., would cost 5,713,558l. 10s.; at 8d. it would cost 7,615,078l.

But exclusive of the above, or of the beef properly so called, a large portion of the offal, including the head and tongue, heart, tripe, fat, &c., is used as food.

A part of the cattle sold at Smithfield go to supply the towns in the vicinity; but, on the other hand, many cattle are sold in the adjoining towns, and slaughtered for the use of London, of which no account is taken. We have reason to think that the latter quantity rather exceeds the former; but, supposing that they mutually balance each other, the above quantity of 228,542,340 lbs. may be regarded as forming the annual supply of butcher's meat at present required for London; exclusive, however, of the offal used as food, and of hogs, pigs, suckling calves, &c., and exclusive also of bacon, hams, and salted provisions brought from a distance. The quantities thus omitted from the account are very large indeed; and since the introduction of steam navigation great numbers of cattle and sheep are killed in Scotland and other distant parts of the empire, the carcasses of which are sent up for sale in the London market. We have no means of forming any correct conclusion on such a subject, but we are inclined to think that the carcasses so sent up, added to the offal used as food, and the hogs killed in town, may be considered as fully equivalent to the butcher's meat used in the victualling of ships. On this hypothesis there will remain 228,542,340 lbs. of butcher's meat for the supply of the metropolis, which, taking the population at 1,870,127, gives 122½ lbs. for the consumption of every individual, exclusive of bacon, hams, and salted provisions, and, also, of poultry.

This, though not nearly so great as has been sometimes represented*, is, we believe, a larger consumption of animal food than takes place any where else by the same number of individuals. † According to M. Chabrol, the consumption of butcher's meat in Paris amounts to between 85 lbs. and 86 lbs. for each individual. At Brussels the consumption is a little greater, being supposed to average 89 lbs. each individual; being rather more than 3 lbs. above the mean of Paris, and 33 lbs. under the mean of London.

In estimating the weights of the animals killed in country towns, a lower standard must be adopted than that taken for London; first, because the largest and finest cattle are brought to the metropolis; and secondly, because a very large proportion of the calves killed in country towns are sucklers, which are excluded from the London accounts.

The following Table, drawn up from the Reports of the Manchester Statistical Society, shows the Consumption of Butcher's Meat in Manchester and its Environs in 1836, the Population being estimated at 343,500.

Description of Meat.	Average weight of Carcasses.	Number of		Quantity to each Person.
		Carcasses.	Pounds.	
Cattle	560 lbs.	40,480	22,830,800	66 lbs. 8 os.
Sheep	68½	165,040	7,214,745	21
Lambs	37	96,668	3,576,715	10 7
Calves	90	11,791	1,061,190	3 1
Offal (edible)	-	324,319	34,709,452	101 0
			1,387,308	4 9
Total	-	-	38,097,160	102 9

The consumption of butcher's meat in Glasgow is about the same, compared with the population, as in Manchester. And this statement, taken in connection with the fact

* Mr. Middleton (*Agriculture of Middlesex*, p. 643.) estimates the consumption of animal food in London, exclusive of fish and poultry, at 234 lbs. a year for every individual! And he further estimates the total average annual expense incurred by each inhabitant of the metropolis, for all sorts of animal food, at 8s. 8d.

† In the former edition of this work we inadvertently deducted the offal from the nett instead of the gross weight of the animals. This blunder was soon after brought forward in the *Dictionnaire des Comptes* to show that the weight of cattle slaughtered in Paris was greater than that of those killed in London; and that the consumption of animal food was, also, greater in the former than in the latter!

that, so late as 1760, the slaughter of bullocks for the supply of the public market was unknown in Glasgow, sets the wonderful improvement that has since taken place in the food of the Scotch people in the most striking point of view. Previously to 1780 it was customary in Glasgow, Edinburgh, and the principal Scotch towns, for families to purchase in November what would now be reckoned a small half-fed cow or ox, the salted carcase of which was the only butcher's meat they tasted throughout the year. In the smaller towns and country districts this practice prevailed till the present century; but it is now everywhere abandoned. We believe, indeed, that there has never been, in any country, a more rapid increase in the quantity, or a greater improvement in the quality, of the food brought to market, than has taken place in Scotland since 1770. In so far as respects butcher's meat, this has been occasioned partly by the growing numbers and opulence of all classes, and partly by the vast increase in the food of cattle consequent to the introduction of green crops, and of an improved system of cultivation. — (See *DIKCAN*.)

The introduction of steam navigation, and the improved means of communication by railroads and otherwise, has already had, and will no doubt continue to have, a material influence over the supply of butcher's meat. Owing to the difficulty and expense of their conveyance, cattle could not formerly be conveniently fattened at any very considerable distance from the great markets; but steam navigation has gone far to remove this difficulty. Instead of selling their cattle, lean or half-fed, to the Norfolk graziers, by whom they were fattened for the London market, the producers, in various districts of Scotland, now fatten them at home, either sending the live animals or the carcasses by steam to London, Liverpool, &c. This practice is indirectly as well as directly advantageous to the farmer, inasmuch as it enables him to turn his green crops to better account, and to raise larger supplies of manure. The same practice is also extending in Ireland; and will, no doubt, spread itself over every part of the country where feeding can be carried on, that has the required facility of transport.

Exclusive of the cattle raised in Great Britain, we import considerable supplies of beef and of live cattle from Ireland.

Account of the Number of Cows and Oxen, and of the Quantities of Beef, imported into Great Britain from Ireland, from 1801 to —

Years.	Cows and Oxen.		Beef.	Years.	Cows and Oxen.		Beef.	Years.	Cows and Oxen.		Beef.
	No.	Bovvts.			No.	Bovvts.			No.	Bovvts.	
1801	31,843	88,911		1810	44,858	71,803		1818	58,125	80,887	
1802	42,801	59,444		1811	67,690	108,282		1819	52,176	70,504	
1803	39,016	12,296		1812	79,122	114,504		1820	39,014	52,591	
1804	15,040	89,242		1813	48,973	104,516		1821	26,725	65,905	
1805	31,802	89,519		1814	19,435	85,162		1822	34,559	43,139	
1806	27,704	91,261		1815	23,909	60,307		1823	46,351	69,079	
1807	26,292	85,256		1816	31,752	39,495		1824	62,314	84,810	
1808	13,108	88,806		1817	45,801	105,555		1825	63,519	63,557	
1809	17,017	89,771									

In 1825 the trade between Great Britain and Ireland was placed on the footing of a coasting trade, so that there are no means of continuing this account to a later date; but for further particulars, the reader is referred to Liverpool, art. *Docks*; for an account of the sales of cattle at the great fair of Ballinacree, see *Fairs and Markets*.

Number of Head of Cattle in Great Britain. — It would, on many accounts, be very desirable to have an accurate estimate of the number and value of the stock of cattle in Great Britain, and of the proportion annually killed and made use of; but owing to the little attention that has been paid to such subjects in this country, where every sort of statistical knowledge is at a very low ebb, there are no means of arriving at any conclusions that can be depended upon. The following details may not, however, be unacceptable.

Arthur Young has given, both in his *Eastern and Northern Tours*, estimates of the number and value of the different descriptions of stock in England. The greatest discrepancy, unaccompanied by a single explanatory sentence, exists between them; but there can be no doubt that the following estimate (*Eastern Tour*, vol. iv. p. 456.) is, though, perhaps, rather under the mark, is infinitely nearer the truth than the other, which is about twice as great: —

Number of Draught cattle	-	-	-	-	684,491
Cows	-	-	-	-	741,532
Fattening cattle	-	-	-	-	513,369
Young cattle	-	-	-	-	912,656
Total	-	-	-	-	2,852,048

Now, taking this number at the round sum of 3,000,000, and adding a third to it for the increase since 1770, and 1,100,000 for the number of cattle in Scotland (*General Report of Scotland*, iii. *Ahlenda*, p. 6.), we shall have 5,100,000 as the total head of cattle of all sorts in Great Britain. The common estimate is, that about a fourth part

of the entire stock is annually slaughtered; which, adopting the foregoing statement, gives 1,275,000 head for the supply of the kingdom; a result which all that we have heard inclines us to think is not far from the mark.

Importation of Cattle. — Previously to 1842, the importation of horned cattle, sheep, hogs, and other animals used as food was strictly prohibited; but this prohibition was then withdrawn, and the importation of the animals in question permitted on paying a duty of 20s. a head on oxen and bulls, 15s. on cows, 3s. on sheep, 5s. on hogs, &c. This certainly was one of the most important inroads that has ever been made on the prohibitive system, and reflects the greatest credit on the administration of Sir Robert Peel. At the same time, however, the benefits of the measure are rather of a prospective and negative than of an immediate and positive description. It will most probably lead, in the course of time, to a considerable importation, and it will no doubt prevent or be a great obstruction to any oppressive rise in future in the price of butcher's meat in this country; but we doubt whether it will do more than this. The apprehensions which the measure when proposed excited amongst the agriculturists, and the panic it occasioned, were wholly destitute of any good foundation. And the fact that the price of cattle is lower now (1843), than before the repeal of the prohibition, is not, assuredly, owing to the inconsiderable importation that has taken place, but to the fact of their price having previously been quite exorbitant, and to the diminution of the consumption of butcher's meat in a large portion of the country originating in the depressed state of manufactures in 1842 and in the early part of 1843. Indeed we believe that their price would have been quite as low at this period (June 1843), as it really is, had the prohibition continued in full force.

The fact is that, low as the duties are, very few cattle can be imported into England; nor is there any such discrepancy as is commonly supposed between the prices of butcher's meat here and on the Continent. No doubt the rates at which it is quoted in the markets of the latter are in the great majority of instances a good deal below its price in London and other great British markets; but this difference is in great part apparent only, and depends on the superior quality of English butcher's meat as compared with that of other countries.

There is an immense variety in the breeds of the continental cattle; but with the exception of the cattle of Holstein, the beef of those in Western Europe is universally inferior to that of England; and the continental mutton is hardly eatable. In most parts of the Continent the object is to have a fine fleece, with but little regard to the carcase; whereas in England the carcase is an object of more importance than the fleece.

Denmark, including Holstein, exports annually from 25,000 to 30,000 head of cattle, principally to Hamburg and Altona; and there could be no reason for supposing that the repeal of the prohibition against importation into this country should lessen the demand for beef in Hamburg, otherwise than by raising its price. Inasmuch, however, as the beef of Holstein (which is principally cured and smoked) had hitherto sold in Hamburg for from 4½d. to 5d. per lb., or at but little below the cost of beef in England, it was evident that a comparatively small increase of price would suffice to prevent its exportation. And this in truth is precisely what has happened; for it has been found that when to the cost of cattle in Hamburg has been added the cost of their conveyance and sale to the butcher in England, amounting to at least 40s. a head, and the duty of 20s. a head, their price has been such that they could rarely be sold in London with a profit, and that their importation has been hardly worth notice.

But, if we except Denmark and Ireland, no country of Western Europe has hitherto been in the habit of exporting cattle. France exports a few; but her imports always overbalance her exports; and it is probable, indeed, should no change be made in the policy on which she has been acting of late years, that she will cease to export a single animal. The truth is, that there has latterly been a great increase in the price of butcher's meat in France, and a material decrease in the stock of cattle in that kingdom, occasioned by the excessive additions made to the duty on the importation of cattle. Previously to 1814 all sorts of cattle might be imported into France duty free. In that year, however, a duty of 3 francs (2s. 6d.) a head was laid on their importation; and had the duty been allowed to continue at this reasonable rate, it could not justly have been objected to. But in 1822, this moderate duty was suddenly raised to the enormous amount of 55 francs, or 44s.; and the result has been, that, in the interval, the stock of cattle in France has been reduced about 2,000,000 head; the price of butcher's meat has been greatly increased, and the consumption of beef in Paris has declined from about 31 kilogrammes to 25 kilogrammes per individual! In consequence, loud and well-founded complaints have been made by the town and manufacturing population of the operation of the duty; and the probability is, that it will, at no very distant period, be effectually reduced. But it is material to observe, that, despite this oppressive duty, the value of the live animals imported into France in

1839, principally from England, Wirtemberg, Bavaria, and Baden, amounted to 674,775*l*. Under these circumstances, the idea of France supplying us with any considerable quantity of cattle is out of the question. Indeed, any one acquainted with the state of France, with the smallness of the farms, and the all but total deficiency of green crops, must treat with contempt the notion of her exporting beef or cattle.

Spain, since the repeal of the prohibition, has supplied us with a few cattle, and sanguine expectations have been entertained of her capabilities in this respect. We doubt, however, whether these be destined to be realised. The pastures of Spain are no doubt of vast extent; but it is generally believed that they are more suitable for sheep than for cattle; and the voyage across the Bay of Biscay will always be a considerable obstacle to the cheap and easy importation of the latter.

Eastern Europe, including Hungary and the southern parts of European Russia, has a vast extent of fine pasture land and some very fine breeds of cattle, with which, but for the distance, we might be abundantly supplied. Unluckily, however, the expense of their conveyance would be so very great as to preclude the possibility of their being imported; and it is even doubtful whether we shall ever be able to derive from these countries any considerable supply of salted provisions.

It appears from the customs' returns that from the repeal of the prohibition against the importation of foreign cattle, on the 9th July 1842, down to the 5th of January 1843, only 4,277 head of cattle (including calves) were imported, and only 648 sheep and lambs (*Parl. Paper No. 45, Sess. 1843.*) And it is well known that this inconsiderable importation was unprofitable rather than otherwise; and that there has hardly been a single animal imported during the 3 months ending with June 1843. At the same time, however, it must be admitted that it is by no means improbable that agriculturists in the contiguous countries should apply themselves to the breeding of stock for the English markets; and that their importation should, in consequence, be considerably increased. But supposing (of which we regret there is little or rather no probability) that in some half dozen years we should be able annually to import 30,000 or 35,000 head of foreign cattle, and that eventually this number should be increased to 100,000 or 150,000 head, still it is easy to see it could entail no real injury on the agriculturists of this country.

We have already seen that at present (1843) the average annual slaughter of cattle in London amounts to about 175,000 head; and the average annual slaughter in Great Britain is certainly not under 1,350,000 head. Hence it appears, that even on the extravagant supposition that 100,000 head of cattle were imported, it would not amount to one thirteenth part of our supply, and could not therefore have any material influence over prices. The influence of an importation of 30,000 head would, it is obvious, be all but insensible.

In saying that an importation even of 100,000 head of cattle, which most certainly is 4 or 5 times greater than the importation will amount to for a good many years to come, would not materially affect prices, we do not reason theoretically, but on the solid foundation of experience and analogy. In 1826, for example, we imported about 57,000 head of cattle from Ireland into Great Britain; but in consequence of the increased facilities given to importation, by the introduction and extension of steam navigation, Ireland now supplies us with about 180,000 head of cattle, or between 3 and 4 times as many as we imported from her 17 years ago! But instead of the price of cattle in Great Britain falling in consequence of this immense increase of importation, every body knows that it has very decidedly increased. And when such is the fact, is it not childish to suppose that the value of stock is to be seriously depressed, and the breeders and graziers ruined, by the admission of cattle from abroad under a duty of 20*s.* each?

It is singular how, in a great and rich country like this, a vast addition may be made to the supply of any important article without materially affecting prices. In illustration of this, we may observe, that in 1840 the imports of fresh salmon into London amounted to about 1,700,000 lbs., and in 1841 they amounted to about 3,200,000 lbs. Here we have an increase of little less than 100 per cent. in the supply, and yet the wholesale price was only reduced from 11*d.* in 1840, to about 9*d.* in 1841; and it should be borne in mind that salmon is more of a luxury than beef, and that its consumption being necessarily at all times confined within a more limited circle, it has less power of expanding and contracting with variations of price.—(See art. SALMON.) Taking the average price of beef in England at 6*d.* per lb., a fall to 5½*d.* per lb. would certainly take off 100,000 additional head of cattle; that is, it would take off more than there is much probability we shall get from the Continent, under the existing arrangements, any time during the next dozen years.

We incline to think that the principal imports of beef and other articles of provision from the Continent and elsewhere under the existing tariff, will not come to us in the shape of live animals, but of salted provisions. But even of these, the importation, we

apprehend, will be much less than has been supposed. For some years past, foreign salted and cured beef has been admitted on paying a duty of 12s. a cwt. If, therefore, the price in any part of the Continent had been so low as most people here imagine, a large importation of salted and cured beef could hardly have failed to have taken place under this duty. But, in point of fact, the importation has been quite inconsiderable; the entries of foreign salted beef for home consumption in 1841 being only 1,698 cwt. This shows conclusively that the notions as to the cheapness of foreign beef are nearly if not altogether chimerical; and it also shows that the reduction of the duty from 12s. to 8s. a cwt. can have but little influence over the trade.

We believe, however, that there will, under the new arrangements, be a considerable importation of bacon and hams, the duty on which has been reduced from 28s. to 14s. a cwt. It is, indeed, much to be wished that such should be the case, inasmuch as a fall in the price of bacon would be a great boon to the labouring classes, at the same time that it could do little or no injury to any one else.

It may, perhaps, be asked, if you be right in these statements, if the new measures will not materially reduce the price of provisions, where is the advantage of having interfered with the former arrangements? Why not "have let well alone?" To that question we might reply by asking, has not the importation of cattle from Ireland been of vast advantage, though it has not sensibly influenced prices? Though the new measure should not lower the price of butcher's meat, it will, at all events, prevent its further increase, and enable provision to be made for the wants of our rapidly increasing population. It will also have the good effect of undeceiving the public, of proving to the conviction of every individual, that the price of butcher's meat in this country is what Adam Smith would call its natural and necessary price, and that it is not sensibly affected by restrictive regulations.

It is much to be regretted that the same manly and decisive course was not taken in respect of corn that has been taken in respect of butcher's meat. The delusion in the one case is quite as great as in the other. Suppose the ports were constantly open to importation at a fixed duty of 5s. a quarter on wheat, it admits of demonstration that our average prices would not thereby be in the least degree affected. But such a measure would give us an additional security against the mischievous effects of hail harvests, at the same time that it would make an end of a gigantic delusion, and dry up a most prolific source of misrepresentation, abuse, and agitation.

Cattle of the Continent.—Baron Malchus gave, in his work on European Statistics, published at Stuttgart in 1836, an account of the number of horned cattle, sheep, swine, &c. in most European countries. In so far as respects the British empire, the statements were mostly copied from Colquhoun, and are ludicrously inexact. Perhaps, however, they may, in so far as regards the Continental states, be better entitled to credit. The following statements, which we have endeavoured to deduce from the best authorities, are probably less wide of the mark:—

Countries.	Head of Cattle.	Countries.	Head of Cattle.	Countries.	Head of Cattle.
Sweden (1837)	1,657,076	Saxony	400,000	Austria	10,000,000?
European Russia	16,000,000	Hanover	900,000	France	7,000,000?
Denmark	1,650,000?	Wirttemberg	800,000?	Spain and Portugal	2,000,000?
Belgium	898,076	Baden	400,000?	Switzerland	800,000?
Prussia	4,838,622	Bavaria (1837)	2,350,388		

Laws as to Cattle.—No salesman, broker, or factor, employed in buying cattle for others, shall buy for himself in London, or within the bills of mortality, on penalty of double the value of the cattle bought and sold.—(31 Geo. 2. c. 40.)

Cattle not to be driven on Sunday, on penalty of 20s.—(3 Cha. 1. c. 1.)

Any person unlawfully and maliciously killing, wounding, or maiming any cattle, shall be guilty of felony, and, upon conviction, may be transported, at the discretion of the court, beyond seas for life, or for any term not less than 7 years, or be imprisoned for any term not exceeding 4 years, and kept to hard labour; and, if a male, may be once, twice, or thrice publicly or privately whipped, if the court shall think fit so to order.—(7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 36.)

Persons wantonly and cruelly abusing, beating, or ill-treating cattle, may, upon being convicted before a Justice of such offence, be fined in any sum not exceeding 5s. and not below 10s. 1 and upon nonpayment of fine, may be committed to the house of correction for any time not exceeding 3 months.

Complaint must be made within 10 days after the offence. Justices are instructed to order compensation to be made, not exceeding 20s., to persons vexatiously complained against.—(3 Geo. 4. c. 71.)

CAVIAR (Fr. *Caviar*, *Cavial*; Ger. *Kaviar*; It. *Caviario*, *Caviale*; Sp. *Caviario*; Rus. *Ikra*; Lat. *Caviarium*), a substance prepared in Russia, consisting of the salted roes of large fish. The best, which is made of the roe of the sturgeon, appears to consist entirely of the eggs, and does not easily become fetid. It is packed in small casks or kegs; the inferior sort being in the form of dry cakes. Caviar is highly esteemed in Russia, and considerable quantities are exported to other countries. It is principally made of the roe of the sturgeon caught in the Wolga, in the neighbourhood of Astrachan, as many as 30,000 barrels of caviar having been exported from that city in a single season.—(See *Geog. Diet.* art. *ASTRAKHAN*.)

CAYENNE PEPPER, or **GUINEA PEPPER**. See *CHILLIES*.

CEDAR (Ger. *Zeder*; Du. *Ceder*; Fr. *Cedre*; It. and Sp. *Cedro*; Rus. *Kedr*; Lat. *Cedrus*). The cedar of Lebanon, or great cedar (*Pinus cedrus*), is famous in Scripture: it is a tall majestic-looking tree. "Behold," says the inspired writer, "the Assyrian was a cedar in Lebanon, with fair branches, and with a shadowing shroud, and

of an high stature; and his top was among the thick boughs. His height was exalted above all the trees of the field, and his boughs were multiplied, and his branches became long. The fir trees were not like his boughs, and the chestnut trees were not like his branches, nor any tree in the garden of God was like unto him in beauty." — (*Ezekiel*, xxxi. 3. 5. 8.) The cedar grows to a very great size. The timber is resinous, has a peculiar and powerful odour, a slightly bitter taste, a rich yellowish brown colour, and is not subject to the worm. Its durability is very great; and it was on this account (*propter aternitatem*, Vitruvius, lib. ii. § 9.) employed in the construction of temples, and other public buildings, in the formation of the statues of the gods, and as tablets for writing upon. In the time of Vitruvius, cedars were principally produced in Crete, Africa, and some parts of Syria. — (*Loc. cit.*) Very few are now found on Lebanon; but some of those that still remain are of immense bulk, and in the highest preservation. Cedar exceeds the oak in toughness, but is very inferior to it in strength and stiffness. Some very fine cedars have been produced in England.

There are several other kinds of timber that are usually called cedar; thus a species of cypress is called white cedar in America; and the cedar used by the Japanese for building bridges, ships, houses, &c. is a kind of cypress, which Thunberg describes as a beautiful wood, that lasts long without decay. The *Juniperus oxycedrus* is a native of Spain, the south of France, and the Levant; it is usually called the brown berried cedar. The Bermudian cedar (*Juniperus Bermudiana*), a native of the Bermuda and Bahama islands, is another species that produces valuable timber for many purposes, such as internal joiners' work, furniture, and the like. The red cedar, so well known from its being used in making black-lead pencils, is produced by the Virginian cedar (*Juniperus Virginiana*), a native of North America, the West India islands, and Japan. The tree seldom exceeds 45 feet in height. The wood is very durable, and, like the cedar of Lebanon, is not attacked by worms. It is employed in various ways, but principally in the manufacture of drawers, wardrobes, &c., and as a cover to pencils. The internal wood is of a dark red colour, and has a very strong odour. It is of a nearly uniform texture, brittle, and light. — (See *Trulgold's Principles of Carpentry; Lib. of Entertaining Knowledge, Veget. Substances; Rees's Cyclopaedia, &c.*)

The duty on cedar (10s. a ton from a foreign country, and 1s. from a British possession) produced in 1842, 34s. Its price in bond varies from 6s. to 9s. a foot.

CERTIFICATES, in the customs. No goods can be exported by certificate, except foreign goods formerly imported, on which the whole or a part of the customs paid on importation is to be drawn back. The manner of proceeding is regulated by the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86. § 72. &c. The person intending to enter outwards such goods, is to deliver to the collector or comptroller of the port where the goods were imported or warehoused, two or more bills, specifying the particulars of the importation of such goods, and of the entry outwards intended to be made; and the officers, if they find such bills to agree with the entry inwards, are to issue a *certificate* of such entry, with the particulars necessary for the computation of the drawback upon the goods, the names of the person and ship by whom and in which the goods are to be exported, &c. The merchant then enters the goods outwards, as in the common way of exportation. The cockpit granted upon this occasion is called a *certificate cockpit*, and differs a little in form from common over-sea cockets. Notice of the time of shipping is to be given to the searcher. Some time after the departure of the vessel, the exporter may apply for the drawback. The collector and comptroller then make out on a proper stamp a debenture, containing a distinct narration of the transaction, with the exporter's or merchant's oath, that the goods are really and truly exported beyond seas, and not reloaded, nor intended to be reloaded; and also with the searcher's certificate of the quantity and quality of the goods at the time of shipping. The debenture being thus duly made out and sworn to, the duties to be repaid are indorsed, the merchant's receipt taken below, and the money paid.

Certificates of origin, subscribed by the proper officers of the places where the goods were shipped, are required, to entitle the importers of sugar, coffee, cocoa, and spirits, from any British plantation, to get them entered as such. A similar certificate is required in the case of blubber — (see *BLUBBER*); and in the case of wine from the Cape of Good Hope; and sugar from the limits of the East India Company's charter, &c. — (See *IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION*.)

CHAIN, in surveying, a measure of length, composed of a certain number of links made of iron wire, serving to take the distance between two or more places. Gunter's chain contains 100 such links, each measuring 7 $\frac{1}{8}$ inches, consequently equal to: 66 feet, or four poles.

CHALDRON, a dry English measure. 36 coal bushels make a chaldron, and 21 chaldrons a score. The coal bushel is 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide from the outside, and 8 inches deep. It contains 2,217.6 cubic inches; but when heaped, 2,815.5, making the chaldron 58.65 cubic feet. There are 12 sacks of coal in a chaldron; and if

5 chaldrons be purchased at the same time, the seller must deliver 63 sacks: the 3 sacks additional are called the *ingrain*. But coals are now sold in London, and almost everywhere else, by the ton of 20 cwt. avoirdupois. The Newcastle chaldron of coals is 53 cwt., and is exactly double the London chaldron. — (See COAL.)

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, is an assembly of merchants and traders, where affairs relating to trade are treated of. There are several establishments of this sort in most of the chief cities in France; and in this country, chambers of this kind have been erected for various purposes.

CHAMBRE OF ASSURANCE, in France, denotes a society of merchants and others for carrying on the business of insurance; but in Holland it signifies a court of justice, where causes relating to assurances are tried.

CHAMPAGNE, one of the most esteemed and celebrated of the French wines. See WINE.

CHANKS, or CHANK SHELLS, common conch shells, are fished up by divers in the Gulf of Manar, on the coast opposite Jaffnapatam, in Ceylon, in about 2 fathoms water; and at Travancore, Tuticoreen, and other places. Large fossil beds of chanks have also been found. They are of a spiral form, and form a considerable article of trade in India, where they are in extensive demand all over the country. They are sawn into narrow rings or bracelets, and are worn as ornaments for the arms, legs, fingers, &c. by the Hindoo women; many of them are also buried with the bodies of opulent and distinguished persons. Those which, from being taken with the fish, are called green chanks, are most in demand. The white chank, which is the shell thrown upon the beach by strong tides, having lost its gloss and consistency, is not worth the freight up to Calcutta. The value of the green chank depends upon its size. A chank opening to the right, called in Calcutta the right-handed chank, is so highly prized, as sometimes to sell for 400, or 500, or even 1,000 rupees. — (*Bell's Commerce of Bengal, and private communications.*)

The fishery of chanks is monopolised by government, who most commonly let the banks for about 4,000*l.* a year. Sometimes, however, they are fished by the servants of government on its account. But as the fishermen of the coast, and those belonging to the little islands where they are found, cannot be prevented from taking chanks, the better plan, as it appears to us, would be to give every one leave to fish them; but to lay a somewhat heavier duty on their exportation. We have been assured by those well acquainted with the circumstances, that this would be advantageous to all parties, but especially to government. We have heard that an arrangement of this sort has recently been made, but we have not learned any thing positive respecting it.

CHARCOAL (*Fr. Charbon de bois; Ger. Reine Kohle; It. Carbone di legna; Sp. Carbon de lena; La. Carbo ligni*), a sort of artificial coal, consisting of wood burned with as little exposure to the action of the air as possible. "It was customary among the ancients to *char* the outside of those stakes which were to be driven into the ground, or placed in water, in order to preserve the wood from spoiling. New-made charcoal, by being rolled up in clothes which have contracted a disagreeable odour, effectually destroys it. When boiled with meat beginning to putrefy, it takes away the bad taint: it is, perhaps, the best tooth-powder known. When putrid water at sea is mixed with about $\frac{1}{4}$ of its weight of charcoal powder, it is rendered quite fresh; and a much smaller quantity of charcoal will serve, if the precaution be taken to add a little sulphuric acid previously to the water. If the water casks be charred before they are filled with water, the liquor remains good in them for years: this precaution ought always to be taken for long sea voyages. The same precaution, when attended to for wine casks, will be found very much to improve the quality of the wine." — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

CHARLESTON, a city and sea-port of the United States, in South Carolina, in lat. 32° 46' 33" N., long. 79° 48' W. Population in 1840, 29,261. The situation of Charleston has a good deal of resemblance to that of New York, being built on a point of land between the Ashley and Cooper rivers, at their point of confluence. The exports principally consist of cotton and rice (particularly the former), which are the staple products of the state. There are a few other articles exported, such as naval stores, hams, bacon, &c., but their value is inconsiderable. All the cotton sent from South Carolina to foreign countries is shipped at Charleston. In 1840-41, the shipments of cotton to foreign countries (including 12,991 bales sea-island) amounted to 162,263 bales, of which 101,564 bales went to England: the shipments of cotton eastward during the same year were estimated at 63,959 bales. — (*Downes's Amer. Arc.* p. 238.: for the exports in 1841-42, see below.) The imports from foreign countries principally consist of cottons, woollens and linens, hardware, iron and steel, coffee, sugar, tea, wine, spices, &c. The greater part of the imports do not, however, come from abroad, but from the northern and middle states. The former supply her with fish, shoes, and all sorts of coarse manufactured goods for the use of the

it is made by him at home, under circumstances which afford evidence of the expressed or implied assent of the owners; is binding upon the latter. But, according to the law of England, no *direct actio* can be maintained upon the instrument itself against the owners, unless it be signed and sealed by them, or unless they authorize the master (or agent, as the case may be) to enter into the contract, and unless it be distinctly expressed in the charterparty that he acts only as agent.

When a ship is chartered by several owners to several persons, the charterparty should be executed by each, or they will not be liable to an action for nonperformance. But if the charterparty be not expressed to be made between the parties, but runs thus:—"This charterparty indented witnesseth, that C., master of the ship W., with consent of A. and B., the owners thereof, lets the ship to freight to E. and F.," and the instrument contains covenants by E. and F. to and with A. and B.; in this case A. and B. may bring an action upon the covenants expressed to be made with them; but unless they seal the deed, they cannot be sued upon it. This, therefore, is a very proper form.

The general rule of law adopted in the construction of this, as of other mercantile instruments, is, that the interpretation should be liberal, agreeable to the real intention of the parties, and conformable to the usage of trade in general, and of the particular trade to which the contract relates.

The charterparty usually expresses the burden of the ship; and by the famous French Ordinance of 1681, it is required to do so. According to Molley (book li. c. 4. § 8.), if a ship be freighted by the ton, and found of less burden than expressed, the payment shall be only for the real burden; and if a ship be freighted for 200 tons, or *thereabouts*, the addition of *thereabouts* (says the same author) is commonly reduced to *five tons more or less*; but it is now usual to say so many tons "register measurement."

The usual covenant, that the ship shall be seaworthy, and in a condition to carry the goods, binds the owners to prepare and complete every thing to commence and fulfil the voyage. But though the charterparty contained no such covenant, the owner of the vessel would be, at common law, bound, as a carrier, to take care that the ship should be fit to perform the voyage; and even though he should give notice, limiting his responsibility for losses occasioned to any cargo put on board his vessel, unless such loss should arise from want of ordinary care, &c., he would be liable if his ship were not seaworthy.—(See *Seaworthiness*.)

In all maritime transactions, expedition is of the utmost consequence; for even by a short delay, the object or season of a voyage may be lost; and therefore, if either party be not ready by the time appointed for the loading of the ship, the other may seek another ship or cargo, and bring an action to recover the damages he has sustained.

The manner in which the owner is to lade the cargo is, for the most part, regulated by the custom and usage of the place where he is to lade it, unless there be any express stipulation in the charterparty with respect to it. Generally, however, the owner is bound to arrange the different articles of the cargo in the most proper manner, and to take the greatest care of them. If a cask be accidentally staved, in letting it down into the hold of the ship, the master must answer for the loss.

If the owner covenants to load a full and complete cargo, the master must take as much on board as he can do with safety, and without injury to the vessel.

The master must not take on board any contraband goods, whereby the ship or cargo may be liable to forfeiture and detention; nor must he take on board any false or colourable papers; but he must take and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the protection and manifestation of the ship and cargo by the law of the countries from and to which the ship is bound, by the law of nations in general, or by any treaties between particular states.

If the master receive goods at the quay or beach, or send his boat for them, his responsibility commences with the receipt in the port of London. With respect to goods intended to be sent coastwise, it has been held, that the responsibility of the wharfer ceases by the delivery of them to the mate of the vessel upon the *truck*. As soon as he receives the goods, the master must provide adequate means for their protection and security; for even if the crew be overpowered by a superior force, and the goods taken while the ship is in a port or river within the country, the master and owners are liable for the loss, though they may have committed neither fraud nor fault. This may seem a harsh rule; but it is necessary, to put down attempts at collusive or fraudulent combinations.

The master must, according to the terms of the charterparty, commence the voyage without delay, as soon as the weather is favourable, but not otherwise.

Sometimes it is covenanted and agreed upon between the parties, that a specified number of days shall be allowed for loading and unloading, and that it shall be lawful for the freighter to detain the vessel a further specified time, on payment of a daily sum as *demurrage*.—(See *DEMURRAGE*.) If the vessel be detained beyond both periods, the freighter is liable to an action on the contract. The rate of demurrage mentioned in the charterparty will, in general, be the measure of the damages to be paid; but it is not the absolute or necessary measure; more or less may be payable, as justice may require, regard being had to the expense and loss incurred by the owner. When the time is thus expressly ascertained and limited by the terms of the contract, the freighter is liable to an action for damages if the thing be not done within the time, *although this may not be attributable to any fault or omission on his part*; for he has engaged that it shall be done.—(See *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 1.)

If there has been any undertaking or warranty to sail with convoy, the vessel must repair to the place of rendezvous for that purpose; and if the master neglect to proceed with convoy, he will be answerable for all losses that may arise from the want of it.

The owners or master should sail with the ship for the place of her destination with all due diligence, and by the usual or shortest course, unless in cases of convoy, which the master must follow as far as possible. Sometimes the course is pointed out in the charterparty. A *deviation* from the usual course may be justified for the purpose of repairs, or for avoiding an enemy or the perils of the seas, as well as by the sickness of the master or mariners, and the mutiny of the crew.

By an exception in the charterparty, not to be liable for injuries arising from the act of God and the king's enemies, the owner or master is not responsible for any injury arising from the sea or the winds, unless it was in his power to prevent it, or it was occasioned by his imprudence or gross neglect. "The question," said Lord Mansfield, in an action brought by the East India Company, "is, whether the owners are to pay for the damage occasioned by the storm, the act of God; and this must be determined by the intention of the parties, and the nature of the contract. It is a charter of freight. The owners let their ships in hire, and they never was an *it*—a that they insure the cargo against the perils of the sea. What are the obligations of the owners which arise out of the fair construction of the charterparty? Why, that they shall be liable for damages incurred by their own fault, or that of their servants, as from defects in the ship, or improper stowage, &c. If they were liable for damages occasioned by storms, they would become insurers." The House of Lords confirmed this doctrine by deciding (20th of May, 1789) that the owner is not liable to make satisfaction for damage done by goods by storm.

The charterparty of a ship may include it either with its own goods, or, if he have not sufficient, may take in the goods of other persons, or (if not prevented by a clause to that effect in the charterparty) he may wholly underlet the ship to another.—(For further details, see *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 1.; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 9. § 2.; and the articles BILL OF LADING, FREIGHT, MASTER, &c. in this Dictionary.)

Forms of Charterparties.

The following is one of the most usual forms of a charterparty:—

This charterparty, indented, made, &c., between A. B., &c., mariner, master, and owner of the good ship or vessel, called, &c., now riding at anchor, &c., of the burthen of 200 tons, or thereabouts, of the one

part, and C. D. of, &c., merchant, of the other part, witnesseth, that the said A. B., for the consideration hereinafter mentioned, hath granted, and to freight letten, and by these presents doth grant, and to freight let, unto the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, the whole tonnage of the hold, stern-sheets, and half-deck of the said ship or vessel, called, &c., (from the port of London, to, &c.,) in a voyage to be made by the said A. B. with the said ship, in manner hereinafter mentioned, (that is to say,) to sail with the first fair wind and weather that shall happen after, &c. next, from the port of London with the goods and merchandise of the said C. D., his factors or assigns, on board, to, &c. aforesaid, (the act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind, in so far as shippings are liable thereto, during the said voyage, always excepted,) and there unlade and make discharge of the said goods and merchandises; and also shall there take into and on board the said ship again, the goods and merchandises of the said C. D., his factors or assigns, and shall then return to the port of London with the said goods, in the space of, &c. limited for the end of the said voyage. In consideration whereof, the said C. D., for himself, his executors, administrators, and assigns, doth covenant, promise, and grant, to and with the said A. B., his executors, administrators, or assigns, by these presents, that the said C. D., his executors, administrators, factors, or assigns, shall and will well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto the said A. B., his executors, administrators, or assigns, for the freight of the said ship and goods, the sum of, &c. (or so much per ton,) within twenty-one days after the said ship arrived, and goods returned, and discharged at the port of London aforesaid, for the end of the said voyage; and also shall and will pay for demurrage, (if any shall be by default of him, the said C. D., his factors or assigns,) the sum of, &c. per day, daily, and every day, as the same shall grow due. And the said A. B., for himself, his executors and administrators, doth covenant, promise, and grant, to and with the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, by these presents, that the said ship or vessel shall be ready at the port of London to take in goods by the said C. D., on or before, &c. next coming. And the said C. D., for himself, his, &c., doth covenant and promise, within 10 days after the said ship or vessel shall be thus ready, to have his goods on board the said ship, to proceed on in the said voyage; and also, on arrival of the said ship at, &c., within, &c. days to have his goods ready to put on board the said ship, to return on the said voyage. And the said A. B., for himself, his executors and administrators, doth covenant and grant, to and with the said C. D., his executors, administrators, and assigns, that the said ship or vessel now is, and at all times during the voyage shall be, to the best endeavours of him, the said A. B., his executors and administrators, and at his and their own proper costs and charges, in all things made and kept stiff, staunch, strong, well-appareled, furnished, and provided, as well with men and mariners sufficient and able to sail, guide, and govern the said ship, as with all manner of rigging, boats, tackle, and apparel, furniture, provision, and appurtenances, fitting and necessary for the said men and mariners, and for the said ship during the voyage aforesaid. In witness, &c.

The great variety of circumstances under which different voyages are made produce a corresponding diversity in charterparties. The charterparty of which the following is a copy affords a good example of the more complex species of these instruments.

It is this day mutually agreed between Mr. T. B. Rann, owner of the good ship or vessel called the *Mormaid*, William Hoelich, master, of the measurement of 472 tons, of, &c. now in the river Thames, and Mr. David Thomson, of the firm of Messrs. Thomson, Passmore, and Thomson, of Mauritius, merchants, that the said ship, being tight, staunch, and strong, and every way fitted for the voyage, shall, with all convenient speed, sail and proceed to Calcutta, with leave to take convicts out to New South Wales, and from thence troops, merchandise, or passengers, to the aforementioned port of Calcutta, with leave to touch at Madras on her way thither, if required on owner's account, or so near thereto as she may safely get, and there load, from the factors of the said merchants at Calcutta, a full and complete cargo of rice, or any other lawful goods which the charterer engages to ship, and proceed with the same to Port Louis, in the Isle of France, and deliver the same free of freight; afterwards load there a full and complete cargo of sugar in bags, or other lawful merchandise of as favourable tonnage, which the charterer engages to ship, not exceeding what can reasonably stow and carry over and above the rigging, tackle, apparel, provisions, and furniture; and, being so loaded, shall therewith proceed to London, or so near thereto as she may safely get, and deliver the same on being paid freight, viz. for such quantity of sugar equal to the actual quantity of rice, or other goods, that may be shipped at Calcutta, at the rate of 5*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* per ton of 20 cwt. nett, shipped there; and should the vessel deliver more nett sugar in the port of London than the quantity of rice, or other goods, actually shipped in Calcutta, the owners to be paid on the excess at the regular current rate of freight for sugar which other vessels, loading at the same time at Port Louis, receive; the tonnage of the rice, wheat, or grain, to be reckoned at 20 cwt. nett per ton; that of other goods at the usual measurement (the act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, during the said voyage, always excepted). The freight to be paid on unloading and right delivery of the cargo, as is customary in the port of London. Ninety running days are to be allowed the said merchant (if the ship is not sooner despatched) for loading the ship at Calcutta, discharging the cargo at Port Louis, and loading the cargo there; the said lay days to commence on the vessel being ready to receive cargo, the master giving notice in writing of the same at Calcutta, and to continue during the loading there; and from the time of her arrival at Port Louis, and being ready to discharge, till the final loading at that port, and to be discharged in the port of London with all possible despatch; and 20 days on demurrage over and above the said laying days, at 12*s.* per day. Penalty for non-performance of this agreement, 4,000*l.* The cargo to be brought to and taken from alongside at the expense and risk of the merchants. The necessary cash for the disbursements of the vessel at Calcutta, not exceeding 300*l.*, to be advanced by the charterer's agents; they taking the master's drafts on the owner for the same, at the regular current rate of exchange, and at three months' sight; and if the said bills be not regularly accepted and paid when due, the same to be deducted from the freight payable by this charterparty. The vessel to be disbursed at Port Louis by the chartering agents; sum not to exceed 300*l.*, free of commission; and the amount to be deducted from the freight at the final settlement at the port of London. Captain not to ship goods without consent. In the event of the ship being prevented, by damage or any other cause, reaching the Mauritius on or before the 1st day of January, 1843, the charterer or his agents shall be at liberty to employ the vessel for one or two voyages to Calcutta, at the rate of 2*l.* per ton of rice, or other goods, delivered at Mauritius. Fifty running days, to load and discharge, to be allowed on each voyage; it being understood that the charterer or his agents shall load the ship, as before agreed, either at the end of the first or second voyage, as the case may be. The freight on the intermediate voyages (if any) to be paid on delivery of the cargo, in cash, or by bills on London at usance, at the option of the master. The vessel to be addressed, both at Calcutta and Isle of France, to the agents of the charterer. In witness whereof, the said parties have hereunto set their hands and seals, at London, the 23 day of December, 1841.

Signed, sealed, and delivered, }
in the presence of }
(Signed) E. FORSYTH.

(Signed) THOS. B. RANN, (L.S.)
D. THOMSON, (L.S.)

Stamp Duty on Charterparties. — The statute 55 Geo. 3. c. 181. enacts, that any charterparty, or any agreement or contract for the charter of any ship or vessel, or any memorandum, letter, or other writing, between the captain, master, or owner of any ship or vessel, and any other person, for or relating to the

freight or conveyance of any money, goods, or effects, on board of such ship or vessel, shall be charged with a duty of 1*l.* 1*s.*

And when the same, together with any schedule, receipt, or other matter, put or indorsed thereon, or annexed thereto, shall containe 2,160 words or upwards, then for every entire quantity of 1,080 words contained therein over and above the first 1,080 words, there shall be charged a further *progressive* duty of 1*l.* 5*s.*

CHAY or CHOY ROOT, the roots of a small biennial, rarely triennial, plant, growing spontaneously in light, dry, sandy ground near the sea; and extensively cultivated, especially on the coast of Coromandel. The cultivated roots are very slender, and from 1 to 2 feet in length, with a few lateral fibres; but the wild are shorter, and supposed to yield one fourth part more of colouring matter, and of a better quality. The roots are employed to dye the durable reds for which the Indian cotton yarn and chintzes have been long famous, and which can only be equalled by the Turkey red.

Chay root forms a considerable article of export from Ceylon. Only a particular set of people are allowed to dig it. It used to be all bought up by government, who paid the diggers a fixed price of 75 or 80 rix-dollars a candy, and sold it for exportation at about 175 rix-dollars. — (*Bertolucci's Ceylon*, p. 270.)

This root has been imported into Europe, but with no success. Dr. Bancroft suspects it may be injured by the long voyage; but he adds, that it can produce no effect which may not be more cheaply produced from madder. It is a very bulky article, and is consequently burdened with a very heavy freight. — (*Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 282—303.)

CHECKS, CHEQUES, or DRAFTS, are orders addressed to some person, generally a banker, directing him to pay the sum specified in the check to the person named i. , or bearer, on demand. The following is the usual form: —

£100.

London, 10th July, 1843.

Pay A. B. Esq., or bearer, One Hundred Pounds, on
account of

C. D.

Messrs. Jones, Loyd, and Co.

In point of form, checks nearly resemble bills of exchange, except that they are uniformly payable to bearer, and should be drawn upon a regular banker, though this latter point is not essential. They are assignable by delivery only; and are payable instantly on presentment, without any days of grace being allowed. But by the custom of London, a banker has until 5 of the afternoon of the day on which a check is presented for payment, to return it; so that where a check was returned before 5, with a memorandum of "cancelled by mistake" written under it, it was held a refusal to pay. If a check upon a banker be lodged with another banker, a presentment by the latter at the clearing-house is sufficient. Checks are usually taken conditionally as cash; for unless an express stipulation be made to the contrary, if they be presented in due time and not paid, they are not a payment. It is difficult to define what is the due or reasonable time within which checks, notes, or bills should be presented. A man, as Lord Ellenborough has observed, is not obliged to neglect all other business that he may immediately present them: nevertheless it is the safest plan to present them without any avoidable delay; and if received in the place where payable, they had better be presented that day, or next at furthest. If a check be not presented within a reasonable time, the party on whom it is drawn will be justified in refusing to pay it; and the holder will lose his recourse upon the drawer. Checks drawn on bankers residing 10 miles or more from the place where they are drawn, must be on a stamp of the same value as a bill of exchange of an equal amount; but checks drawn on a banker, acting as such within 10 miles of the place where they are issued, may be on plain paper. — (*Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. iii. p. 591.; *Wootrych on Commercial Law*, c. 3. § 2, &c.)

CHEESE (Ger. *Käse*; Du. *Kaas*; Fr. *Fromage*; It. *Formaggio*, *Cacio*; Sp. *Queso*; Rus. *Syr*; Lat. *Caseus*), the curd of the milk separated from the whey, and pressed or hardened. It has been used as an article of food from the earliest ages: vast quantities of it are consumed in Great Britain, and in most countries of Europe.

There is an immense variety of cheeses, the qualities of which depend principally on the richness and flavour of the milk of which they are made, and partly on the way in which they are prepared. England is particularly celebrated for the abundance and excellence of its cheese. Cheshire and Gloucestershire are, in this respect, two of its most famous counties; the cheese produced in the former has been estimated at 14,000 tons a year. There are two kinds of Gloucester cheese, double and single; the first is made of the milk and cream, the latter of the milk deprived of about half the cream. They are of various sizes, from 20 to 70 and even 80 lbs.; but they generally run from 50 to 60 lbs. A great deal of cheese is also made in that part of Shropshire which borders upon Cheshire, and in North Wiltshire. The former goes under the name of Cheshire cheese; the latter was, till lately, called Gloucestershire cheese: now it receives its appellation from the county where it is made. A strong cheese, somewhat resembling Parmesan, is made at Cleder in Somersetshire. The celebrated rich cheese called Stilton, is made in Leicestershire, principally in the villages round Melton Mowbray. It is not reckoned sufficiently mellow for eating unless it be two years old; and is not saleable unless it be decayed, blue, and moist. A rich cheese is also made at Leigh, in Lancashire. The other cheeses made in England, which have

required a peculiar name, either from the quantity made, or from the quality, are the Derbyshire, Cottingham, and Southern cheeses. The last two are now milk cheeses, of a peculiarly fine flavour; the others where they are made are in Cambridgeshire. Bath and York are remarkable for their cream cheeses. The county of Warwick, and Banbury in Oxfordshire, are also remarkable for cheeses; the former for the quantity made in it, very large supplies being sent from it to London and Birmingham. Banbury cheese is distinguished for its richness.

Southern is not celebrated for its cheese; the best is called Dunlop cheese, from a parish in Ayrshire, where it was originally manufactured. Dunlop cheeses generally weigh from 20 to 60 lbs. each; and are, in most respects, similar to those of Derbyshire, except that the latter are smaller. Cheeses made to resemble those of Dunlop are now extensively produced in other parts of Scotland.

Large quantities of very good cheese are produced in Holland. In the manufacture of Gouda cheese, which is reckoned the best made in Holland, muriatic acid is used in curdling the milk instead of rennet. This renders it pungent, and preserves it from mites.

Parmesan cheese, so called from Parma in Italy, where it is manufactured, is merely a skim-milk cheese, which owes its rich flavour to the fine herbage of the meadows along the Po, where the cows feed. The best Parmesan cheese is kept for 3 or 4 years, and none is ever carried to market till it be at least six months old.

Swiss cheese, particularly that denominated Gruyère, from the bailiwick of that name in the canton of Friburg, is very celebrated. Gruyère cheeses are made of skimmed or partially skimmed milk, and are flavoured with herbs. They generally weigh from 40 to 60 lbs. each, and are packed for exportation in casks containing 10 cheeses each.

According to Mr. Marshall, the average yearly produce of cheese from the milk of a cow in England, is from 3 to 4 cwt. or more than double the weight of the butter.

For further details, see *Statistical Account of the British Empire*, l. 501, 2d ed.

The duty on all descriptions of foreign cheese amounted, previously to 1842, to 10s. 6d. a cwt.; but in that year the duty on cheese imported from a British possession was reduced to 2s. 6d. a cwt. In 1845 the duties were still farther reduced, being then fixed at 5s. a cwt. and 1s. 6d. per ditto respectively on cheese from foreign parts and from British possessions.

We have hitherto derived by far the largest portion of our supplies of foreign cheese from Holland, but within the last few years the imports from the U. States have been rapidly increasing. The latter, which began in 1841, when 15,038 cwts. were imported, amounted in 1847 to 109,322 cwts. We subjoin

An Account of the Imports of Cheese and of the Quantities entered for Consumption, with the Revenue accruing thereon in 1846 and 1847.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 107, Sess. 1848.)

	Imports.	Quantities entered for Consumption.		Revenue.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	£	£
1846	311,690	357,385		85,546
1847	351,802	365,503		90,928

The contract price of the cheese furnished to Greenwich Hospital, in the undermentioned years, has been as follows:—

Years.	Prices per lb.						
1730	d.	1770	d.	1810	d.	1850	d.
1740	5	1780	5	1815	8	1855	4
1750	5	1790	4	1820	7	1860	4
1760	5	1800	6½	1825	7½	1865	4

CHERRIES, the fruit of a tree (*Prunus Cerasus*, Lin.) too well known to require any description.

They derive their name from Cerasus, a city of Pontus, whence the tree was brought by Lucullus, about half a century before the Christian era. It soon after spread into most parts of Europe, and is supposed to have been carried to Britain about a century after it came to Rome. The principal supplies of cherries for the London market are brought from the cherry orchards in Kent and Hertf. The wood of the cherry is close, takes a fine polish, and is not liable to split.—(*Rees's Cyclopædia*; *Landon's Encyclopedia of Agriculture*, &c.)

CHESTNUT, a forest tree (*Fagus castanea*) growing abundantly in most parts of the southern countries of Europe. It was at one time very common in England; and is still frequently met with. It is long lived; grows to an immense size; and is very ornamental. The wood is hard and compact; when young, it is tough and flexible; but when old, it is brittle, and often shaly. The chestnut contains only a very small proportion of sap-wood; and hence the wood of young trees is found to be superior to even the oak in durability. It is doubtful whether the roof of Westminster Hall be of oak or chestnut, the two woods being, when old, very like each other, and having been formerly used almost indifferently in the construction of buildings. A good deal of chestnut has been planted within the last thirty years.—(*Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*.)

CHESTNUTS (Fr. *Châtaignes*; Ger. *Kastanien*; It. *Castagne*; Sp. *Castanas*), the fruit of the chestnut tree. Chestnuts grow in this country, but are very inferior both in size and perfection to those imported from the south of Europe. In some parts of the Continent they are frequently used as a substitute for bread, and form a large proportion of the food of the inhabitants. This is particularly the case in the Limousin, in Corsica, and in several districts of Spain and Italy. The inhabitants of the Limousin are said to prepare them in a peculiar manner, which deprives them of their astringent and bitter properties. Chestnuts imported from Spain and Italy are frequently kiln-dried, to prevent their germination on the passage. In this country they are principally served up roasted at desserts.

The duty of 2s. a bushel on chestnuts produced, in 1842, 3,435l. 3s. 0d. nett, showing that the consumption must have amounted to 34,351 bushels.

CHETWERT, a measure of corn in Russia, equal to 5½ Winchester bushels; so that 100 chetwerts = 74½ Winchester quarters.

CHICCORY or **SUCCORY**, the wild endive, or *Cichorium Intybus* of Linnæus. This plant is found growing wild on calcareous soils in England, and in most countries of Europe. In its natural state the stem rises from 1 to 3 feet high, but when cultivated it shoots to the height of 5 or 6 feet. The root, which runs deep into the ground, is white, fleshy, and yields a milky juice. In Germany, and in some parts of the Netherlands and France, chiccory has long been extensively cultivated for the sake of its root, which is used as a substitute for coffee. When prepared on a large scale, the roots are partially dried, and sold to the manufacturers of the article, who wash them, cut them in pieces, kiln-dry them, and grind them between fluted rollers into a powder, which is packed up in papers containing from 2 oz. to 3 or 4 lbs. The powder has a striking resemblance to dark ground coffee, and a strong odour of liquorice. It is largely used in Prussia, Brunswick, and other parts of Germany; but as it wants the essential oil and the rich aromatic flavour of coffee, it has little in common with the latter, except its colour, and has nothing to recommend it except its cheapness.

Chiccory was formerly raised to some extent in England as an herbage plant, its excellence in this respect having been much insisted upon by the late Arthur Young. Latterly, however, chiccory has been largely substituted for coffee here, as well as on the Continent: and as foreign chiccory, when imported, pays a duty of 6*d.* per lb., while that raised at home pays no duty, its cultivation has been rapidly extended. It has, in fact, been affirmed, by those best acquainted with the subject, that in 1842 the growth of British chiccory was little, if at all, short of 3,000 tons! We need not, therefore, be surprised, considering the influence of this large and rapidly increasing supply of untaxed chiccory over the consumption of coffee and the revenue derived from it, that this subject has engaged a good deal of attention. We do not, however, think that it presents any real difficulty. If a duty is to be laid on coffee, the interests of the consumer and of the revenue alike require that an equal duty should be laid on all articles used either as substitutes for coffee, or (which is the usual method of employing chiccory) as means of adulterating the latter. We are well convinced that the substitution of chiccory for coffee has already occasioned a loss to the revenue of 100,000*l.* a year, besides its mischievous influence in adulterating and debasing a popular beverage. There cannot, therefore, as it appears to us, be a doubt that, if the culture of chiccory be permitted, it should be subjected to the same duty as coffee. Inasmuch, however, as the collection of the duty would be difficult, and much fraud and evasion would doubtless be practised, the better plan would be to follow the precedent set in the case of tobacco, by grubbing up the chiccory plantations, and making, at the same time, compensation to their owners. A measure of this sort would do justice to all parties, and would afford that protection to the interests of the consumer and of the revenue which is indispensable.

CHILLIES (Hind. *Gua Murrilge*; Javan. *Lombok*; Malay. *Chabai*), the pods or fruit of the *Capsicum ann.*, or Guinea pepper. This is one of the hardiest and most productive plants raised in tropical climates; growing luxuriantly in almost all dry soils, however indifferent. In the wild state, the pods are small, and so pungent and acrid as to blister the tongue; but when raised on rich soils, they are large, and comparatively mild. The plant is said to be a native of both Indies. It is very extensively cultivated; and, with the exception of salt, is far more extensively used than any other condiment. In tropical countries, the pods are frequently made use of when unripe and green: when ripe, they become of a deep red colour; and in this state they are exported dry and entire, or reduced to powder—that is, to *Cayenne pepper*; which, when genuine, consists wholly of the ground pods of the *capsicum*.—(See *PEPPER*.)

CHINA ROOT (Ger. *Chinawurzel*; Du. *Chinawortel*; Fr. *Squine*, *Esquine*; Sp. *Raiz China*, *Co. almeca*; Arab. *Rhubaine*), the root of a species of climber (*Smilax China* Lin.). It comes from the West Indies as well as from China: but that from the latter is best. It is oblong and thick-jointed, full of irregular knobs, of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and a pale red within; while new, it will snap short, and look glittering within; if old, the dust flies from it when broken, and it is light and kecky. It should be chosen large, sound, heavy, and of a pale red colour internally. It is of no value if the worm be in it.—(*Milburn's Orient. Commerce*.)

CHINA WARE. See *PORCELAIN*.

CHINTS or **CHINTZ** (Fr. *Indiennes*; Ger. *Zitze*; It. *Indiane*; Ven. *Siz*); Sp. *Chites*, *Zaraza*), fine printed calico, first manufactured in the East Indies, but now largely manufactured in Europe, particularly in Great Britain.—(See *CALICO*.)

CHIP HATS. See *HATS*.

CHOCOLATE (Du. *Chocolade*; Fr. *Chocolat*; Ger. *Schokolade*; It. *Cioccolata*; Por. *Chocolate*; Rus. *Schokolad*; Sp. *Chocolate*), a kind of cake or confection, prepared principally from the cocoa nut. The nuts are first roasted like coffee; and being next reduced to powder and mixed with water, the paste is put into tin moulds of the desired shape, in which it speedily hardens, being, when taken out and wrapped in paper, fit for

the market. Besides cocoa, the Spaniards use vanilla, sugar, maize, &c. in the preparation of chocolate. This article, though celebrated for its nutritious qualities, is but little used in Great Britain; a circumstance which is probably, in some considerable degree, ascribable to the fiscal regulations to which it has been subjected. Its importation used, indeed, to be prohibited; and though this prohibition no longer exists, yet, as the duties on it are proportionally heavier than upon cocoa, we manufacture at home almost all that is required for our consumption. British chocolate is said to be very largely adulterated with flour and Castile soap. — (See *Edward's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 364. ed. 1819; and the art. COCOA.) The quantity of chocolate brought from abroad, and left for home consumption in the United Kingdom, in 1841, amounted to only 1,543 lbs.

“ Alike easy to convey and employ as an aliment, it contains a large quantity of nutritive and stimulating particles in a small compass. It has been said with truth, that in Africa, rice, ginn, and shea butter, assist man in crossing the deserts. In the New World, chocolate and the flour of maize have rendered accessible to him the table lands of the Andes, and vast uninhabited forests.” — (*Humboldt's Pers. Nar.* vol. iv. p. 234. Eng. trans.)

CHRISTIANIA, the capital of Norway, situated at the bottom of a fiord or gulph, in the province of Aggerhuus; in lat. 59° 55' N., long. 10° 48' E. Population in 1835, 23,121. Christiania is about 60 miles from the open sea; the gulph is in some places very narrow, and its navigation somewhat difficult; but it is sufficiently deep for the largest vessels, having 6 or 7 fathoms water close to the quay. It is compulsory on all ships to take a pilot on board at the mouth of the bay. The trade of the town is considerable. The principal exports are timber and deals; glass, particularly bottles; iron and nails, bones, smalts, oak bark, &c. Salted and pickled fish, one of the staple products of Norway, is principally exported from Bergen. The deals of Christiania have always been in the highest estimation; a consequence of the excellence of the timber, and of the care with which the sap-wood and other defective parts are cut away; and not, as Mr. Coxe seems to have supposed, of the skillful sawing of the plank. The saw mills were formerly licensed to cut a certain quantity only, and the proprietors were bound to make oath that it was not exceeded. — (*Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, 5th edit. vol. iv. p. 28.) This absurd regulation no longer exists. There are far fewer restrictions on industry and commerce in Norway than in Sweden. In the former, British manufactured goods are admitted on moderate duties, and are very generally made use of. The principal articles of import are corn, colonial produce; woollen, linen, and cotton goods; butter, wine, brandy, &c. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles imported into the United Kingdom from Norway in 1838, 1839, 1840, and 1841; and of the Quantities and declared Value of the Principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the United Kingdom to Norway in 1839, 1840, and 1841.

Imports.								
Principal Articles.	1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantity.		Quantity.		Quantity.		Quantity.	
Dark for tanning or dyeing	94,469	cwts.	31,798		25,967		9,731	
Skins, gun, undressed	6,720	lbs.	7,603		8,201		6,156	
Smalts	78,839	lbs.	92,425		97,751		101,983	
Timber, battens and batten ends	7,000	gt. hund.	7,939		7,751		6,506	
Doals and deal ends	6,193		5,417		6,688		4,613	
Mats, yards, and bowsprits, under 12 inches in diameter	6,080	no.	10,066		9,027		7,741	
Fir, oak, and unenumerated, 8 inches square or upwards	55,496	loads	23,452		28,611		26,443	
Exports.								
Principal Articles.	1839.		1840.		1841.			
	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.		
Coals, culm, and slinders	10,702	£ 5,651	13,757	£ 4,701	15,801	£ 5,461		
Cotton manufactures entered by the yard	426,992	11,630	489,319	10,896	1,150,560	91,619		
Twist and yarn	315,303	11,415	374,615	15,609	608,161	30,529		
Earthenware of all sorts	556,876	4,013	514,421	3,556	560,236	4,279		
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	967	4,153	831	4,081	489	5,398		
Salt	143,070	4,386	128,972	4,058	75,290	853		
Woolen manufactures entered by the piece	5,438	3,708	3,532	3,132	3,731	10,013		
All other articles		31,627		29,653		39,483		
		£81,561		£78,016		£117,958		

Nothing would do so much to extend our trade with Norway, and not with it only, but with the whole north of Europe, as the repeal of the discriminating duty on Norwegian and Baltic timber. And, as this measure would be, in other respects, highly advantageous, it is to be hoped that its adoption may not be long deferred.

Customs Regulations.—Within 24 hours after a vessel has got to her moorings, the master should deliver to the collector his general report as to ships, cargo, or passengers, and the requisite documents for having such report made out with the assistance of a ship broker, whose services masters of foreign vessels cannot entirely dispense with. On making this general report, the measuring bill is to be exhibited, and payment of the tonnage and other dues inward is to be made. If the ship has not been previously measured in Norway, and, consequently, not provided with a Norwegian measuring bill, she is to be measured, in accordance with the Norwegian commercial laws, for the calculation of the tonnage duty.

The general report having been made, the Customs-house officers in charge of the vessel are furnished with the papers for delivery, and the discharge of the cargo commences under their inspection; and the consignees may make their special reports under their responsibility and signature. If they give without precise information as to the contents of any or all of the packages or bales to their address, these bales or packages may, at their request, be opened in the presence of the officers before report is made. If a consignee omits availing himself of this permission, his pretending thereafter, that more of other goods than he had ordered, or been advised of, have been sent to his address, will not be attended to. In the reports or entries it is to be stated, whether he is intended to pay the duties forthwith, whether the goods are intended for exportation, or whether they are to be landed.

Prior to commencing loading onwards, the master is to give verbal notice of his intention at the Customs-house. If he have no Norwegian measuring bill, the vessel is to be measured. This being done, the shipper or shippers of the outward cargo, are each of them to make their special entries as to the quality, weight, and measure of the goods therein to be landed.

A copy of such entries is to be deposited at the Customs-house, and the loading commences under the control of the officers. This applies to bonded cargoes; but if the cargo consists of cargo consist exclusively of wood, the shipper or shippers are only to notify that they intend loading wood, without specifying quantity, measure, &c., as the port duty. Goods are charged according to the bulletin of the vessel. When the master clears onwards, he produces the proper documents for showing the lading of his vessel, and to his port, the lading, and he is then, on proper application being made, provided with a pilot, who takes his vessel in tow.

Warehousing.—In Norway, goods brought from abroad may be bonded or warehoused, with a view to their being again exported some future period. Goods entered for home consumption may also be landed for a certain period, in order to facilitate the payment of the duties.

The former is called "free-opslag," that is, depositing or warehousing goods for exportation, subject to transit duties only. The latter is called "credit opslag," that is, warehousing or landing on credit.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—In Norway there are no gold coins. The principal silver coin, called a species dollar, is divided into 120 skillings. There are, also, half species, or 60 skilling pieces; and what is denominated skillingmynt, or small change.—That is, 4 and 2 skilling pieces. The species dollar contains 800/100 Eng. grs., and is consequently worth 4s. 6d. sterling, the par of exchange being 4 species dollars 42 6/10 skilling, or 14. All Norway coins, except the small change, are alloyed with 1-7th copper, so that the species dollar weighs 448 3/4 Eng. grs., and its divisions in proportion. Small change coins are alloyed with three times their weight of copper. There are 1 and 2 skilling pieces of copper.

Weights and Measures, same as at COPENHAGEN; which see.

Shipping Charges.—The various charges of a public nature payable by a shipper, entering the port of Christiania, are as follows:—

	£	s.	d.
1. Charges Inwards. —Pilotage from Farler, at the month of Christiania Bay, where all ships must take a pilot on board	2	2	9
Bill of health, assuming that the crew, including the master, consists of 12 persons	0	17	9
Tonnage dues and light money	0	16	9
Brokers' fees	0	14	0
2. Charges Outwards. —Pilotage	0	0	9
Cash dues	0	1	7
Master roll of crew	0	1	5
Pale or stake money	0	0	3
Measuring bill	0	2	4
Charity chest	0	1	7
Tonnage dues and light money	10	11	1
Highland light	0	0	9
Pilotage to Farler	1	14	8
Brokers' fees	0	14	11
	£	18	6

N.B.—There is no difference between the charges on native ships in Norwegian ports, and privileged foreign ships, that is, the ships of countries having reciprocity treaties with Norway; not in the duties on goods imported by native ships and such privileged foreign ships. Great Britain is a privileged country.

The shipping of Norway has declined considerably of late years; a proof, if any such were wanting, of the growing influence of the Linnæus kept up in this country as to the supposed pernicious influence of reciprocity treaties on our shipping.

Banking.—There are two public banks or establishments in Norway; but there is a public bank, having its principal office at Drontheim, with branches at Christiania, Bergen, and Christiania. It is established by a royal charter, and was organized in 1816. Its capital consists of 2,000,000 species dollars, in transferable shares, divided amongst those who were forced to contribute to its formation. These shares are now at a premium of 50 per cent. Its managers are appointed by, and are accountable to, the Norwegian or Christiania parliament. It issues notes for 100, 50, 10, and to low as 1 species dollar. These notes should be payable in specie on demand; but they are not redeemable in 55 per cent., and are paid by the bank at that rate. Its accounts, both at 2 and 3 months date at 5

1. **Transit Oplog.**—Under this system, goods from abroad may be warehoused for exportation free of import duty, paying only an importation or transit duty, which is to be paid of what they would pay if entered for home consumption. If the goods are deposited in the Customs-house warehouses, they are free of rent or dues during 14 days, and if in private warehouses, under the key and seal of the customs, during 6 months. If they remain long, viz. beyond 14 days in the one, and beyond 6 months in the other case, they are to be sold at 1-8th of the transit duty per month; which, after the lapse of 3 months, as regards goods in the Customs-house warehouses, is increased to 1-4th of the transit duty per month.

2. **Credit Oplog.**—This system allows most goods imported from abroad to be placed in the owner's or importer's own warehouses, under his own lock, free of duty, for a given time, in his reporting to the customs, every 3 months, how much he has sold, otherwise consumed, or exported, and then paying the duty on such amount; the Customs-house officers, who are bound quarterly to examine the goods, conveying themselves, by actual demonstration, that no more is missing than the quantity reported to have been taken away.

This credit on the duties in no case to exceed 3 years from the time the goods were imported.

Way of security for payment of the duties on which the credit is granted, government reserve to themselves.—

1. Priority of mortgage on all the goods in question.

2. Priority, or first right, in the property, goods, and effects of every description belonging to the trader availing himself of this credit, in as far as such property is not previously legally mortgaged.

3. Liberty for the Customs-house officers, when and as often as they shall deem it expedient, between the stated quarterly inspections, to look over the stock on hand, and to ascertain, retaining whether there remains sufficient value for the duties; and if they see reason to doubt this, full right, in default of their satisfactory security being given, to sell the whole, and to sell the whole, or as much as shall cover the duties.

4. In case of death or failure of the party, an equal right to go forthwith in the whole of his stock on hand, and to retain as much of the proceeds as shall cover the duties; and in case of delinquency, an established claim for the remainder on the estate of the deceased or bankrupt, as the case may be.

In charging the duties, no allowance is made for waste or damage in the warehouses.

The warehouse rent charged on goods bonded under the transit system, in the Customs-house warehouses, is as follows:—

On a quarter of wheat, for the first 3 months	0	0	5	588	per month
Afterwards	0	1	0	1076	—
On a ton of raw sugar, for the first 3 months	0	10	15	581	per month
Afterwards	1	11	0	769	—

per cent. per annum) advances money on mortgage at 4 per cent. and transacts the ordinary banking business of individuals. It does not allow interest on deposits.

Credit.—Goods are sold partly for ready money, and partly on credit, but principally the former.

Commission, &c.—The number of brokers in Christiania is limited to 4. Commission on the sale of goods, 2 per cent., or, if creditors included, 3 per cent. Brokerage is fixed by law at 5-6ths per cent., which, in practice, is paid by the sellers.

Insurance.—All houses situated in the Norwegian market towns must be insured in the general Insurance Company at Christiania, which is guaranteed by the state. The premium is moderate, being, on buildings situated in towns, 1-3th, and on those situated in the country, 1-5th per cent. Sometimes, however, when very destructive fires occur, it is raised.

Provisions, &c.—Christiania is not a favourable place for careening and repairing ships; but supplies of beef, bread, water, and other sea stores, may be had as cheap or cheaper than in any other part of Norway; but its climate from the sea is too great to allow of its being visited by ships desirous merely of victualing.—(We have derived these details from various sources, but principally from Consul's Returns.)

Tinifer.—A standard Christiania deal is 11 feet long, 12 inch thick, and 9 inches broad; and 31 2/3 such deals make a load.

Freight of deals from Norway to London is calculated at the rate of single deals, the standard measure of which for Christiania and all the southern ports of Norway, except Drammen, is small town on the Drammen, about 80 miles S.W. of Christiania), is 11 feet long, and 12 inch in thickness. A single deal from Drammen is reckoned 10 feet long and 12 inch thick.

Battens.—Three battens make 2 deals, retaining their own length and thickness. Half deals are only counted as deal counts, if they run under 6 feet; but if they run 6 or 6 1/2 feet long, 3 half deals are counted a deal, retaining their own thickness.

Ends of Deals.—Four ends of deals, although 5 feet long, make but a deal 11 feet long, retaining their thickness, while the owners and captains of ships think unreasonable; but as the first owners of ships seldom care to have their goods, which commonly run from 3 to 5 feet, and are taken on board as stowage, consequently for the advantage of the ship and not the buyer, the ship ought to be counted as 4 deals.

Ends of Battens, called Larvick Pulvis.—No less than 6 ought to be counted a single deal, 11 feet long and 12 inch thick.

Fair-boards, when they have their proper length, are 7 feet long; 3 pile-boards are counted a single deal.

Stow for logbook take up more room in consequence of which more than 10 cannot be computed a single deal.

The width of deal is never noticed in the calculation of freight; a good deal ought to run 2 inches within the stow,

which not a twentieth part of a cargo (as at present) but, though none may be above 9 inches wide, many are only 5, therefore care must be taken for the latter.

Timber of living chests, cannot be exactly computed according to the contents in shells, because it cannot be stowed in a ship in the same manner as stows; the freight is, therefore, agreed for by the tonnage, or according to the number of deals which the vessel may have taken on board on a former voyage.

One hundred deals = 100.
 A ton = 41 solid feet of timber, cut in a square.
 One load of deals, or timber, is 20 solid feet.
 Two loads of timber are reckoned for 100 deals.
 The several bills of lading contain together an exact account of the cargo which the captain has received on board his ship, consequently binding him to deliver according to their contents; when, therefore, the deals are mentioned as usual 9 and 10 feet, and 11 and 12 feet, he cannot insist on more freight than half of the length, according to his description.

One thousand Norway standard deals are reckoned equal to a keel of deals, which is 21 tons.

Boards pay duty as staves; capraves are above 1½ and under 18 inches in circumference at the middle, and without bark. Cleuboard is exported in whole pieces and unquartered. Deals from Germany pass as Norway deals; spruce deals are upwards of 30 feet in length; deals from Norway, above 7 feet long, are counted as whole deals; above 5 feet, and not above 7 feet in length, are accounted as half deals, and two of them pass as one whole deal.

The difference between the Christiania and Dram standard being nearly 1-11th part, the freight to Dram ought to be varied proportionally. It has sometimes happened that ships both for Christiania and Dram have been in company, and those for Christiania have got up, loaded, and sailed, before the others for Dram have got overboard, which runs very strong down in the spring of the year.—(Riddons's European Commercior.)

CHUNAM, the name given in India to lime. The best, obtained by the calcination of shells, is employed in the composition of **BETEL**—(which see), to prevent, it is said, its injuring the stomach.

CIDER, or **CYDER** (Fr. *Cidre*; Ger. *Zider*, *Apfelwein*; It. *Cidro*; Rus. *Sidor*; Sp. *Sidra*), the juice of apples expressed and fermented. The produce of the duty on cider and perry (the expressed and fermented juice of pears) amounted, in 1828, to 37,220,1 which, as the duty was 10s. a barrel, shows that the quantity produced and brought to charge must have amounted to 74,440 barrels, exclusive of what might be clandestinely manufactured. The perry is supposed to have amounted to about a fourth part of this quantity. The duty was repealed in 1830.—(See **APPLES**.) Perhaps the total produce of elder and perry may now be estimated at from 150,000 to 160,000 barrels.

CIGARS. See **TOBACCO**.

CINNABAR (Ger. *Zinnober*; Du. *Cinaber*, *Vermilion*; Fr. *Cinnabre*; It. *Cinabro*; Sp. *Cinabrio*; Rus. *Kinowar*; Lat. *Cinnabrium*).

1. *Native Cinnabar*—a mineral substance, red, heavy, and brilliant. It is found in various places, chiefly in quicksilver mines, being one of the ores of that metal. The cinnabar of the Philippine Islands is said to be of the highest colour; but that of Almaden, in Spain, is the richest. The best native cinnabar is of a high colour, brilliant and free from earthy or stony matter.

2. *Artificial Cinnabar*.—"When two parts of mercury and one of sulphur are triturated together in a mortar, the mercury gradually disappears, and the whole assumes the form of a black powder, formerly called *Ethiops mineral*. When this mineral is heated red hot, it sublimes; and if a proper vessel be placed to receive it, a cake is obtained of a fine red colour. This cake was formerly called cinnabar; and, when reduced to a fine powder, is well known in commerce under the name of *vermillion*."—(Thomson's *Chemistry*.)

CINNAMON (Du. *Kaneel*; Fr. *Cannelle*; Ger. *Zimmet*, *Kanehl*; It. *Cannella*; Lat. *Cinnamomum*, *Cavalla*; Por. *Canella*; Sp. *Canela*; Pers. and Hind. *Darchinie*; Arab. *Daraini*; Malay, *Kaimanta*; Greek, *Κινναμωμ*), the bark of the cinnamon tree (*Laurus cinnamomum*), a native of Ceylon, where it grows in great abundance Cochin China, and perhaps of some other countries. It is brought home in bags or bales weighing 92½ lbs. each; and, in stowing it, black pepper is mixed with the bales to preserve the cinnamon. The best cinnamon is thin and rather pliable: it ought to be about the substance of royal paper, or somewhat thicker; is of a light yellow colour, approaching nearly to that of Venetian gold; it is smooth and shining; fractures splintery; has an agreeable, warm, aromatic flavour, and a mild sweetish taste; when chewed, the pieces become soft, and seem to melt in the mouth; it is not so pungent but that it may be borne on the tongue without pain, and is not succeeded by any after taste. Whatever is hard, thick as a half-crown piece, dark-coloured or brown, or so hot that it cannot be borne, should be rejected. Particular care should be taken that it be not false packed, or mixed with cinnamon of an inferior sort.—(Milburn's *Orient. Comm.*; Marshall's *Essay*, quoted below.)

The cinnamon of Cochin China grows in the dry sandy districts lying N. W. of the town of Fnlbe, between 15° and 16° N. lat. It is preferred in China to the cinnamon of Ceylon; the annual imports into Canton and other ports vary from 250,000 to 300,000 lbs. There are no fewer than 10 varieties of this species in the market. It is not cured, like that of Ceylon, by freeing it from the epidermis.—(Crawford's *Embassy to Siam*, &c. p. 475.)

Cinnamon Monopoly.—Down to 1833, the cultivation of cinnamon in Ceylon was restricted to a few gardens in the neighbourhood of Colombo; the production and sale of the article being wholly monopolized by government. Upon the transference of the island from the East India Company to the king's government, the former agreed to pay 60,000*l.* a year for 400,000 lbs. or 4,342½ bales of cinnamon: it being stipulated, that if the quantity collected exceeded this amount, the surplus was to be burned! *

* See an article by H. Marshall, Esq., staff surgeon to the forces in Ceylon, in Thomson's *Annals of Philosophy*, vol. x. p. 336.

But this agreement was afterwards broken off, and the cinnamon was sent to England by government, and sold on its account at quarterly sales. The nett revenue derived from the cinnamon monopoly, in 1831, is said to have amounted to 127,961*l.* As the monopoly could not be enforced, except by confining the culture of cinnamon to certain districts, it necessarily led to the most oppressive interferences with the rights of individuals, to the creation of numberless imaginary offences, and the multiplication of punishments, forming a heavy drawback upon the prosperity of the island. A sense of these disadvantages led at length to the abolition of the monopoly system in 1833, when we ceased to be amenable to the charge of upholding, without improving, the worst part of the Dutch policy, and restored to the natives their right to cultivate cinnamon any where and in any way they think fit.

Duties on Cinnamon.—Unfortunately, however, the abolition of the old monopoly system was accompanied by the imposition of the exorbitant duty of 2*s.* per lb. on all cinnamon exported, without distinction of quality. This new system having been organised at the period when the former edition of this work was being printed, we took the liberty to animadvert upon it, as follows. "The natural cost of cinnamon does not, we believe, exceed 6*d.* or 8*d.* per lb., but taking it at 1*s.*, the proposed duty is no less than 200 per cent. 1 So enormous a tax, by confining the export of cinnamon within the narrowest limits, will go far to deprive the island of the advantages it would otherwise derive from the repeal of the monopoly, and will be, in all respects, most injurious. We have heard, that it is contended, in vindication of this oppressive tax, that Ceylon having a natural monopoly of cinnamon, it is sound policy to burden it with the highest duty it will bear; as the largest revenue is thus obtained at the least expense to the island. But, in addition to the cinnamon produced in Cochin China, and which it is more than probable will speedily find its way to the European markets, the extent to which *cassia lignea* is substituted for cinnamon, shows that the monopoly possessed by Ceylon is of very trifling importance. But though it were otherwise, though *cassia lignea* did not exist, and cinnamon were to be found nowhere but in Ceylon, we should not the less object to so exorbitant an export duty. So long as it is maintained, it will confine within the narrowest limits, whatever might otherwise become a most important branch of industry, and a copious source of wealth to the island. According to the crown commissioners, the average quantity and value of the different sorts of cinnamon annually sold of late years has been—

Sorts of Cinnamon		Quantity.	Rate.	Amount.
		<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>	<i>£</i> <i>s.</i> <i>d.</i>
First sort	- - -	90,000	7 8	59,400 0
Second sort	- - -	250,000	5 10	67,500 0
Third sort	- - -	180,000	4 3	34,437 10
All sorts	- - -	500,000	- -	159,337 10

"It is not at all probable that the exports will materially increase under the new system; but had the duty varied from about 6*d.* per lb. on the best, to 3*d.* or 4*d.* on the inferior sorts, we have little doubt, now that the culture is free, that the exports would, at no very distant period, have amounted to some millions of pounds. It is the high price of cinnamon—a price not caused by its scarcity or the difficulty of its production, but by the oppressive monopolies and duties to which it has been subjected—that has made it be regarded as a luxury attainable only by the rich. There is no other spice that is so universally acceptable; and there is none, were it charged with a reasonable duty, that would be so sure to command an immense sale. We know, quite as well as the writer of an article on this subject in the *Colombo Journal*, that 'the cook who employs 1 ounce of cinnamon to improve the flavour of his dishes, will not employ 4 ounces when the spice is a fourth of the price;' but we further know, what the journalist would seem to be ignorant of, that were its price reduced, as it might be, to a third of what it has hitherto cost, it would be used by ten or a dozen cooks, for every one who employs it at present. In fact, the entire consumption of cinnamon in Great Britain is under 20,000 lbs. a year!

"Should the exports of cinnamon from Ceylon under the new plan amount to 500,000 lbs. a year, government will receive from it an annual revenue of 75,000*l.*; and supposing them to amount to 600,000 lbs., the revenue will be 90,000*l.* And to secure the immediate payment of this trifling sum, every ulterior consideration of profit and advantage has been sacrificed. It is, however, pretty clear, that this shortsighted rapacity will be, in the end, no less injurious to the revenue, than to the industry and trade of the island. Were cinnamon allowed to be exported for a few years under a low duty, or till such time as the taste for it was fully diffused throughout this and other countries, it would then be easy, by gradually raising the duty, to obtain from it, without materially checking the consumption, a very large revenue; at least 5 or 6 times more than it will ever produce under the present plan.

"Suppose that we had had the power effectually to monopolise the inventions by which Sir Richard Arkwright and others have so prodigiously facilitated the spinning of cotton; what would have been thought of the policy of those who should have proposed laying a duty on exported cottons equivalent to the peculiar advantages we enjoyed in their production? Had this been done, we should have got a monopoly value for our exports of cotton; but instead of amounting, as at present, to 22,000,000*l.* a year, they would not, under such a plan, have amounted to 200,000*l.*; and instead of affording subsistence for some 1,300,000 or 1,400,000 individuals, the cotton manufacture would not have supported 50,000! And yet this is the mischievous nostrum—for it would be an abuse of terms to call it a principle—on which we have proceeded to regulate the export of the staple product of Ceylon."

The experience of the last 10 years has more than confirmed the truth of these statements. Instead of increasing, as they certainly would have done but for the exorbitancy of the duty, the exports of cinnaon have declined even below their amount during the monopoly. Notwithstanding the reduction of the duty in 1841 to 2*s.* per lb., the exports in that year amounted to only 323,461 lbs., producing a revenue of 33,111*l.* This result has been brought about, as we anticipated, partly by the high duty and its consequent high price restricting the demand for cinnamon; partly by the duty operating as a bounty to introduce the culture of the plant into other places; and partly and principally by its encouraging the use of *cassia lignea* and other substitutes in the place of the genuine article.

"It does not," says Mr. Cook, "admit of a doubt, that unless the export duty of 2*s.* per lb. payable on the shipment of cinnamon at Ceylon, be removed, the trade must speedily be annihilated. In 1798 the cultivation was known in no other part of the world, and notwithstanding the monopoly even then of such an exorbitant charge, the trade was comparatively little affected; but in 1825 a successful attempt was made in Java by an experienced planter from Ceylon, and the shipments from that island, which, having since been annually increasing, are now estimated for this year (1842) at 117,000 lbs. at least, on which is levied a duty, on the value, of 4 per cent. only. The culture has also extended itself to Guiana and the West Indies; and, judging from a small parcel lately received from Jamaica, there can be no question it can be successfully produced in that quarter, and that a supply may at no distant period confidently be expected from thence, the duty there being only 2*s.* per cent. From Cochin China, Malabar, &c. large quantities will also doubtless ere long find their way to Europe, their produce being comparatively free from fiscal charges. It is therefore evident that Ceylon cinnamon cannot, under existing circumstances, withstand the competition of that of other countries; and if the merits of the question were understood by the government, this interesting trade would assuredly be no longer allowed to remain in

* Of the firm of Trueman and Cook, brokers, the highest authority that can be referred to on such a subject.

its present anomalous state. Indeed Ceylon cinnamon, independently of other adverse influences, would be very soon driven out of the European markets by the increased use of *cassia lignea* as a substitute. The question of revenue will no doubt engage the attention of government, the cinnamon duty having yielded in 1833 as much as 160,000*l.*, or about half the revenue of the island; whereas in 1841 the governor estimated it at 47,000*l.* only, and it is doubtful if it will realise even this much. — (In fact it only realised 33,111*l.*); so that the levying an impost so oppressive has proved as injurious to the collection of revenue as to the prosperity of the trade.

It is unnecessary to add any thing to this conclusive statement. We may mention, however, that the export duty either has been or is to be immediately reduced to 1*s.* per lb. But even this reduced duty will be most oppressive. A duty of 3*d.*, or at most 4*d.* per lb., is the very highest that should be imposed. During the 3 years ending with 1842 the cinnamon entered for consumption, and the duties, were—

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.			1841.			1842.		
	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>d</i>
Quantities	16,438	15,625	17,009	410	12	10	415	10	10	327	2	11
In 1842 the home consumption duty was reduced from 6 <i>d.</i> to 3 <i>d.</i> per lb. The price of cinnamon varies in the London market from about 4 <i>s.</i> or 5 <i>s.</i> per lb. (export and import duty included) to from 7 <i>s.</i> to 10 <i>s.</i> per lb. Subjoined is an												

Account of the Quantities of Cinnamon shipped from Ceylon from 1837 to 1841 inclusive, the Amount of Duty received thereon, and the Rates of Duty. — (*Parl. Paper No. 186. Sess. 1843.*)

	Quantities shipped.				Amount of Export Duty collected.	Rates of Duty charged on the Export.
	First Sort.	Second Sort.	Third Sort.	Aggregate of the Three Sorts.		
	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	<i>l</i>	
From 5th April 1837 to 5th January 1838	47,800	157,429	115,054	390,283	37,161	Previously to 1st June 1841:
Year 1838	25,771	200,058	174,538	390,187	45,305	On the 1st sort - 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> 1/2 <i>l</i> .
1839	81,508	303,268	174,914	559,558	70,300	2 <i>d</i> sort - 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> -
1840	41,631	143,432	204,310	289,373	45,613	3 <i>d</i> sort - 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> -
1841	36,688	106,966	180,807	244,461	33,111	Subsequently to 1st June 1841:
						On all the three sorts - 1 <i>s.</i> -

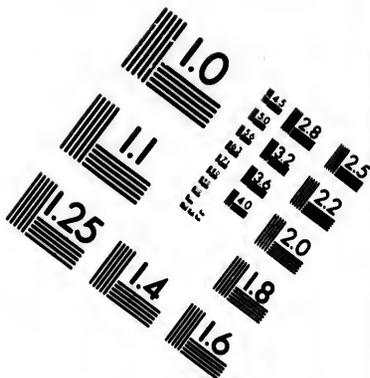
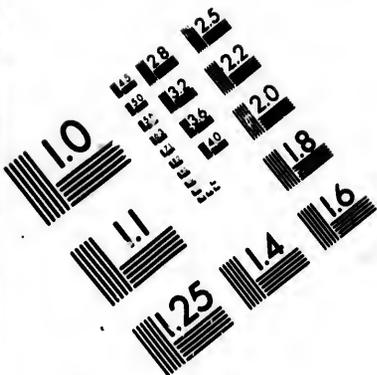
CINQUE PORTS. These are ancient trading towns, lying on the coast of Kent and Sussex, which were selected, from their proximity to France, and early superiority in navigation, to assist in protecting the realm against invasion, and vested with certain privileges by royal charter.

“The ports so privileged, as we at present account them, are Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, Hythe, and the two ancient towns of Winchelsea and Rye; although the two latter places appear to have been originally only members. The services which they were appointed to perform were either honorary, viz. assisting at the coronation and sending members to parliament; or auxiliary to the defence of the realm, as furnishing a certain supply of vessels and seamen, on being summoned to that service by the king's writ.

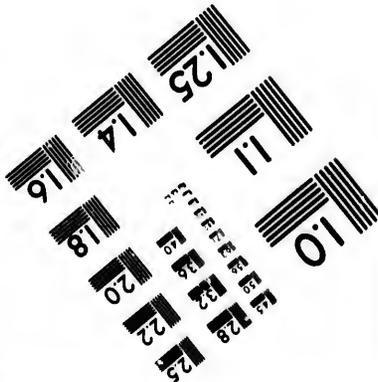
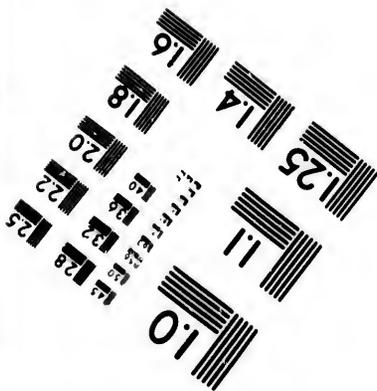
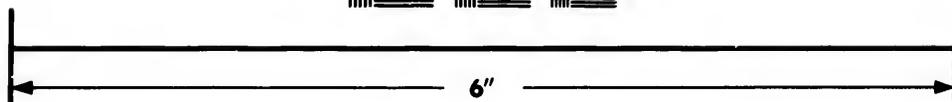
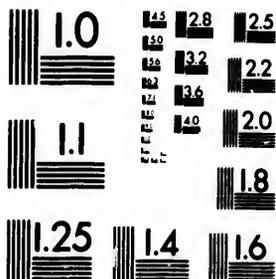
“In process of time the Cinque Ports grew so powerful, and, by the possession of a warlike fleet, so audacious, that they made piratical excursions in defiance of all public faith; on some occasions they made war, and formed confederacies as separate independent states. It seems, however, that these irregularities were soon suppressed, when the government was strong, and sufficiently confident to exert its powers. So long as the mode of raising a navy by contributions from different towns continued, the Cinque Ports afforded an ample supply; but since that time their privileges have been preserved, but their separate or peculiar services dispensed with. Their charters are traced to the time of Edward the Confessor; they were confirmed by the Conqueror, and by subsequent monarchs. William the Conqueror, considering Dover Castle the key of England, gave the charge of the adjacent coast, with the shipping belonging to it, to the constable of Dover Castle, with the title of Warden of the Cinque Ports; an office resembling that of the Count of the Saxon coast (*Comes littoris Saxonici*) on the decline of the Roman power in this island. The lord warden has the authority of admiral in the Cinque Ports and its dependencies, with power to hold a court of admiralty; he has authority to hold courts both of law and equity; is the general returning officer of all the ports, — parliamentary writs being directed to him, on which he issues his precepts; and, in many respects, he was vested with powers similar to those possessed by the heads of counties palatine. At present the efficient authority, charge, or patronage of the lord warden is not very great; the situation is, however, considered very honourable, and the salary is 3,000*l.* He has under him a lieutenant and some subordinate officers; and there are captains at Deal, Walmer, and Sandgate Castles, Arcliff Fort, and Moats Bulwark.

“There is an exclusive jurisdiction in the Cinque Ports (before the mayor and jurats of the ports), into which exclusive jurisdiction the king's ordinary writ does not run; that is, the court cannot direct their process immediately to the sheriff, as in other cases. In the Cinque Ports, the process is directed to the governor of Dover Castle, his deputy or lieutenant. A writ of error lies from the mayor and jurats of each port to the lord warden of the Cinque Ports, in his court of Shepway, and from the court of Shepway to the King's Bench; a memorial of superiority reserved to the crown at the original creation of the franchise; and prerogative writs, as those of habeas corpus, prohibition, certiorari, and mandamus, may issue, for the same reason, to all these exempt jurisdictions, because the privilege, that the king's writ runs not, must be intended between party and





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party, and there can be no such privilege against the king."—(*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. ii. p. 12.)

CITRON (Ger. *Succade*; Da. *Sukkat*; It. *Confetti di cedro*; Sp. *Acitron verde*; Fr. *Citronat verd*), an agreeable fruit, resembling a lemon in colour, smell, and taste. The principal difference lies in the juice of the citron being somewhat less acid, and the yellow rind being somewhat hotter, and accompanied with a considerable bitterness.—(*Lewie's Mat. Med.*) It is imported, preserved and candied, from Madeira, of the finest quality.

CIVET (Ger. *Zibeth*; Du. *Civet*; Fr. *Civette*; It. *Zibetto*; Sp. *Algalia*), a perfume taken from the civet cat. It is brought from the Brezils, Guinea, and the interior of Africa. When genuine, it is worth 80s. or 40s. an ounce.

CIVITA VECCHIA, a fortified sea-port town of the papal dominions, on the Mediterranean, lat. 42° 4' 58" N., lon. 11° 44' 52" E. Population 7,000.

Harbour.—The port of Civita Vecchia is artificial, and is formed by three large moles. Two of them projecting from the mainland, inclined one to the north and the other to the south, form the sides of the harbour; while a third mole, or breakwater, constructed opposite to the gap between the other two, serves to protect the harbour from the heavy sea that would otherwise be thrown in by the westerly gales. A lighthouse, having the lantern elevated 74 feet above the level of the sea, is erected on the southern extremity of the outward mole; the distance from its extremity to the extremities of the lateral moles, on which there are towers, being about 90 fathoms. Vessels may enter either by the south or north end of the outer mole, but the southern channel is the deepest, having from 8 to 6 and 4 fathoms. Ships may anchor within the port, in from 16 to 18 feet water; or between it and the outer mole, where the water is deeper. Within the port there is a dock and an arsenal.—(*Plans of Civita Vecchia*.)

Historical Notice.—This harbour, which is by far the best on the western side of the papal dominions, owes its origin to the Emperor Trajan, and affords the most unequivocal proof, not of his power merely, but of his sagacity and desire to promote the interests of commerce and navigation. There is in one of Pliny's Letters (lib. vi. epist. 31.) a clear and interesting account of this great work, which has obviously been planned and constructed with equal skill and judgment. The outer mole was mostly formed, precisely like the breakwater at Plymouth, by sinking immense blocks of stone into the sea, which became fixed and consolidated by their own weight, till by degrees it was raised above the waves. (*Assurgit autem arte visenda: ingentia saxa latissima navis provehit. Contra hæc alia super alia defecta ipso pondere manent, ac sensim quodam œstus aggeres construuntur.*) Originally it was called *Trajanus Portus*, and it is to be regretted that it did not always bear the name of its illustrious founder. But in the latter ages of the Roman empire it was called *Centum Celæ*, and in modern times *Civita Vecchia*.—(*Cellarii Notitia Orbis Antiquæ*, i. p. 734.)

Money.—Accounts are kept here, and throughout the papal states, in crowns or scudi, and scudi are three denari. 1 scudo = 10 pæoli, and 1 pæol = 10 bajocchi. The scudo contains 400 grains of English standard silver, and is consequently worth 4s. 4d. sterling. Payments above 5 scudi are made in credits, or schedules, a species of bank notes; but these, not being payable in specie on demand, are uniformly at a discount.

Weights.—The *libra*, or pound of 16 *onci* or 6,492 grains, contains 6,354 English grains. Hence, 100 Roman pounds =

14,771 lbs. avoirdupois = 90,868 lbs. Troy = 33,906 kilo grammes = 70,008 lbs. of Hamburg. There are three different cantares or quintals; viz. of 100, 160, and 250 lbs. The quintale = 1,000 lbs.

Measures.—The Roman foot = 11.75 Eng. inches; the cubit = 18.54 Eng. inches; the canna used by builders = 57.96 Eng. inches; the barrel of wine = 14.94 imp. gallons, and the barrel of oil = 12.64 imp. galls.; the soma of oil = 36.15 imp. dis.; the rubico of corn = 64.43 imp. bushels.—(*Kelly's Cambist; Nellesbrucher, Manual Universel.*)

Imports and Exports.—Though the wealth and population of the country round Civita Vecchia are much fallen off in modern times compared with antiquity, it still continues to be the entrepôt of Rome, and engrosses almost the entire trade of the papal dominions on the side of the Mediterranean. The imports consist principally of cotton, woollen, silk, and linen stuffs; coffee, sugar, cocoa, and other colonial products; salt and salted fish, wines, jewellery, glass and earthenware, &c. The exports consist of staves and timber, corn, coal, wool, cheese, potash, pumice-stone, alum, from Tofia, in the vicinity, and other articles. The total value of the imports may be reckoned at from 650,000, to 700,000, and it may be fairly presumed that the real value of the exports is not much inferior. Marseilles and Genoa have the largest share of the foreign trade of Civita Vecchia, and next to them England.

Duties.—Civita Vecchia is a free port, that is, a port into which produce may be imported, and either consumed or re-exported, free of duty.

Quarantine regulations are strictly enforced; no vessel with a full bill of health being permitted to enter any of the papal ports.—(*Annuaire du Commerce Maritime*, tom. ii. p. 366, &c.)

CLARET, one of the best French wines. See the articles **BORDEAUX** and **WINE**.

CLEARING, among *London Bankers*, is a method adopted by them for exchanging the drafts on each other's houses, and settling the differences. Thus, at half-past 3 o'clock, a clerk from each banker attends at the clearing-house, where he brings all the drafts on the other bankers, which have been paid into his house that day, and deposits them in their proper drawers (a drawer being allotted to each banker); he then credits their accounts separately with the articles which they have against him, as found in the drawer. Balances are then struck from all the accounts, and the claims transferred from one to another, until they are so wound up and cancelled, that each clerk has only to settle with two or three others, and their balances are immediately paid.

It appears from an account given in the Appendix to the Second Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Banks of Issue, that, in 1839, the aggregate demands made through the clearing-house on the different bankers who make use of its agency, amounted to the vast sum of 954,401,600*l.*, in the settlement of which the payment of only 66,275,600*l.* bank notes, or about $\frac{1}{14}$ th part of the total amount, was required.

"Such drafts as are paid into a banker's too late for clearing, are sent to the houses on which they are drawn, to be marked, which is understood as an engagement that they will be paid the next day."—(*Kelly's Cambist.*) The technical operations carried on at the clearing-house have been described by Mr. Gilbart, in his *Practical Treatise on Banking*, pp. 16—20.

CLEARING-HOUSE, the place where the operation termed clearing is carried on.

CLOCK, CLOCKS (Ger. *Uhren, Grosse Uhren, Wanduhrke; Du. Uren, Urwerken, Horologien; Fr. Horloges; It. Orologgi, Oriuoli; Sp. Relojes; Rus. Zhadani*), a kind of machine, put in motion by a gravitating body, and so constructed as to divide, measure, and indicate the successive portions of time with very great accuracy. Most clocks mark the hour by striking or chiming. It is a highly useful instrument, and is extensively employed for domestic and philosophical purposes. Clocks are made of an endless variety of materials and models, so as to suit the different uses to which they are to be applied, and the different tastes of their purchasers. Their price consequently varies from a few shillings to more than 100*l.* The Germans and Dutch are particularly celebrated for their skill in the manufacture of wooden clocks; while the English, French, and Genevese, especially the former, have carried the art of making metallic clocks, so as to keep time with the greatest precision, to a high degree of perfection.

The history of the invention, introduction, and successive improvements in the manufacture of clocks, has been carefully investigated by some very learned and industrious antiquaries—(see *Beckmann's Hist. of Inventions*, vol. i. pp. 419–462. Eng. ed.; and *Rees's Cyclopaedia*); but, notwithstanding these researches, the subject is still involved in considerable obscurity. It seems, however, that the middle of the fourteenth century may be regarded as the epoch when clocks, having weights suspended as a moving power, and a regulator, began to be introduced. The period when, and the individual by whom, the pendulum was first applied to clockwork, have been subjects of much contention. Galileo and Huygens have disputed the honour of the discovery. "But whoever may have been the inventor, it is certain that the invention never flourished till it came into the hands of Huygens, who insists, that if ever Galileo thought of such a thing, he never brought it to any degree of perfection. The first pendulum clock made in England was in the year 1662, by one Fromantel, a Dutchman."—(*Hutton's Math. Dictionary*.)

The clock manufacture is of considerable importance and value. It is carried on to a great extent in London.

The *ad valorem* duty of 25 per cent. on foreign clocks produced, in 1841, 7,378*l.* nett. It is principally derived from the wooden clocks brought from Holland and Germany. In 1842 the duty was reduced to 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Under the article WATCHES, the reader will find some statements as to the importation and exportation of clocks, as well as watches.

Clockmakers are obliged to engrave upon the dial-plate of all clocks made by them their name, and the place of their residence. No outward or inward box, case, or dial-plate of any clock or watch, with the maker's name engraved thereon, shall be exported without the movement or machinery being in or with such box or case, under forfeiture of double its value.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 52. § 104.) It is illegal to import, or to enter to be warehoused, any clock or watch impressed with any mark purporting to represent any legal British mark, or not having the name of some foreign maker visible on the frame, and also on the face, or not being in a complete state.—(§ 57.)

It is said, however, not to be an uncommon practice among the less reputable portion of the trade, to engrave their names and "London" on foreign clocks and watches, and to sell them to the public as English work. The fraud may be detected by referring to any respectable watchmaker.

By a Treasury order of the 4th of September, 1838, clocks and watches for private use, though not marked in the manner now specified, may be admitted on payment of the duty, on the parties making affidavit of their entire ignorance of the law in question.

Persons hired by, or in the employment of, clock and watch makers, who shall fraudulently embezzle, secrete, sell, &c. any metal, material, or precious stone, with which he may happen to be intrusted, shall, upon trial and conviction before a Justice of the peace, forfeit 20*l.* for the first offence; and for the second, and every subsequent offence, he shall forfeit 40*l.*; and, in default of payment, it to be committed to the house of correction.—(27 Geo. 2. c. 7. § 1.)—(See WATCH.)

CLOTH. See WOOL, LINEN, &c.

CLOVER (Ger. *Klee; Du. Klaver; Fr. Trefle, Luzerne; It. Trifoglio; Sp. Tredol; Rus. Triflistnik; Lat. Trifolium*), a very important species of grass. Some of the species in cultivation are annual; others biennial or triennial; and others perennial. The seed used formerly to be principally imported from Holland; but that which is raised in this country is now said to be of a superior quality.—(*Loudon's Encyclopedia of Agriculture*.) Culture for seed is, however, very precarious, and of uncertain profit.

The entries of clover seed for home consumption amounted, at an average of 1840 and 1841, to 111,318 cwt. a year, showing that notwithstanding the improvement of the home produce, foreign seed is still in very extensive demand. And there can be no doubt that the importation in the above years would have been much greater but for the heavy duty of 20*l.* a cwt. with which foreign clover seed was then loaded. Such duty had the mischievous effect of tempting farmers to use seed of inferior quality, and felt with peculiar severity on Scotland and those parts of the country which grow no seed. We are, therefore, glad to have to state that the duty was reduced to 10*l.* a cwt. in 1842; and we are much mistaken if, in addition to its beneficial influence in other respects, this reduced duty do not yield as great a revenue as the high duty did before. The price of foreign clover seed varies from 30*s.* to 3*s.* a cwt. ex duty.

CLOVES (Ger. *Nägeln, Gewürznelken; Du. Kruidnagelen; Fr. Clous de girofle, Girofles; It. Chiodi di garofano Garofani, Garofoli; Sp. Clavos de especia, Clavillos; Rus. Gwoadika; Arab. Kerenful; Malay, Chankee*), the fruit, or rather cups of the unopened flowers, of the clove tree, or *Caryophyllus aromaticus*. The clove tree is a

native of the Moluccas, where it was originally found; but plants have since been carried to Cayenne and other places, where they succeed tolerably well. Cloves are shaped like a nail; whence the name, from the French *clou*, nail. They are imported from the Dutch settlements; the best in chests, and an inferior kind in bags. The best variety of the Amboyna cloves is smaller and blacker than the other varieties, very scarce, and, as a mark of pre-eminence, is termed the Royal clove. Good cloves have a strong, fragrant, aromatic odour; and a hot, acrid, aromatic taste, which is very permanent. They should be chosen large sized, perfect in all parts; the colour should be a dark brown, almost approaching to black; and, when handled, should leave an oily moisture upon the fingers. Good cloves are sometimes adulterated by mixing them with those from which oil has been drawn; but these are weaker than the rest, and of a paler colour; and whenever they look shrivelled, having lost the knob at the top, and are light and broken, with but little smell or taste, they should be rejected. As cloves readily absorb moisture, it is not uncommon, when a quantity is ordered, to keep them beside a vessel of water, by which means a considerable addition is made to their weight — (*Thomson's Dispensatory; Milburn's Oriental Commerce.*)

Policy of the Dutch as to the Trade in Cloves. — From the expulsion of the English from Amboyna, in 1623, the Dutch have, a few short intervals only excepted, enjoyed the exclusive possession of the Moluccas, or Clove Islands. In their conduct as to the clove trade, they have exhibited a degree of shortsighted rapacity, which has been, we believe, seldom equalled even in the annals of monopoly. Their object has not been to encourage the growth and trade of cloves, but to confine both within the narrowest limits. They have preferred deriving a large profit from a stunted and petty trade, to a moderate profit from a trade that might have afforded employment for a very large amount of capital; and to prevent their narrow and selfish projects from being counteracted by the operations of the natives, they have subjected them to the most revolting tyranny. "That they might," says Mr. Crawford, "regulate and control production and price just as they thought proper, the clove trees were extirpated every where but in Amboyna, the seat of their power; and the surrounding princes were bribed, by annual stipends, to league with them for the destruction of their subjects' property and birthright. This plan was begun about the year 1651. The contracts are still in force, and an annual fleet visits the surrounding islands to suppress the growth of cloves, which, in their native country, spring up with a luxuriance which these measures of Satanic rigour, and of sacrifices towards bountiful nature, can scarce repress. By the plan on which the clove trade is now conducted, — a plan carried into effect through so much iniquity and bloodshed, — the country of spices is rendered a petty farm, of which the natural owners are reduced to the worst condition of predial slavery; and the great monopoliser and oppressor is that government, whose duty it should have been to insure freedom and afford protection. Human ingenuity could hardly devise a plan more destructive of industry, more hostile to the growth of public wealth, or injurious to morals, than this system framed in a barbarous age; and it reflects disgrace upon the character of a civilised people to persevere in it.

"It is curious to remark how the monopolisers, in carrying the details of this system into effect, at once impose upon the natives and deceive themselves. The nominal price paid to the natives is actually above the natural price of the commodity, but they are cheated in its details. The cultivator brings his produce to the public stores, where it is subjected at once to a deduction of one fifth for payment of the salaries of the civil and military officers. The price of the remainder is fixed at the rate of 9-8 Spanish dollars the picul; but before payment is made, another deduction of one fifth is made; one half of which is for the chiefs or *rajas*, and the other for the native *elders*, who are overseers of the forced cultivators. The real price, therefore, paid to the grower is 9 Spanish dollars per picul, or 3-4 per lb. avoirdupois, instead of 11-8 Spanish dollars per picul, or 4-2 per lb., which is pretended to be given.

"When cloves have been sold on the spot, the price usually exacted has been about 64 Spanish dollars the picul, or 8 times the price paid to the cultivator. The average price in Holland, previously to the war of the French revolution, may be taken at 6-2 per lb., or 177-7-8 Spanish dollars per picul, being 2-12 per cent. advance on the real cost of the commodity in the place of its growth. When brought direct to England, they have cost at an average 3-8d. the lb., making 108-5-10 Spanish dollars per picul, an advance on the natural export price of 1-2-4 per cent." — (*Eastern Archipelago*, vol. iii. pp. 288 — 290.)

The duty on cloves was considerably reduced in 1819; and there has been, in consequence, a considerable increase in the consumption of this article; though not nearly so great as it would have been, had it been supplied under a more liberal system. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, the entries of cloves for home consumption amounted to 85,015 lbs. a year, producing annually 2,319-4-1d. of revenue. The cultivation of the clove is carried on to some extent in the Moluccas. The superiority which the latter enjoy over every other place in the production of cloves is so very great, that were any thing like freedom given to those engaged in their culture, they would very speedily exclude every other from the market. It is not to be imagined, that so liberal and intelligent a government as that of Holland can much longer continue insensible to the disgrace of supporting a system like the present, and to the many advantages that would result from its abolition.

In 1842 the duty on cloves was farther reduced from 3s. per lb. to 6d., a reduction which, there can be no doubt, will be followed by a considerable increase of consumption.

The price of cloves, exclusive of the duty in the London market, varied, in January 1843, from 1s. to 2s. 2d. per lb.

CLOVES, OIL OF, is procured from cloves by distillation. When new, it is of a pale reddish brown colour, which becomes darker by age. It is extremely hot and fiery, and sinks in water. The kind generally imported from India contains nearly half its weight of an insipid expressed oil, which is discovered by dropping a little into spirits of wine; and on shaking it, the genuine oil mixes with the spirit, and the insipid separating, the fraud is discovered. — (*Milburn.*)

COACHES, vehicles for commodious travelling. They have sometimes two, and sometimes four wheels. The body of the coach is generally suspended, by means of springs, upon the framework to which the wheels are attached. They are usually drawn by horses, but recently have been impelled by steam. The forms and varieties of coaches are almost innumerable.

1. *Historical Notice.* — Beckmann has investigated the early history of coaches with

his usual care and learning. It is certain that a species of coaches was used at Rome; but whether they were hung on springs, like those now made use of, is not certain. After the subversion of the Roman power, horseback was almost the only mode of travelling. About the end of the fifteenth century, however, covered carriages began to be employed by persons of distinction on great occasions. In 1550, there were at Paris only three coaches; one of which belonged to the queen; another to the celebrated Diana of Poitiers; and the third to a corpulent, unwieldy nobleman, René de Laval, lord of Bois Dauphin. Coaches were seen, for the first time, in Spain, in 1546. They began to be used in England about 1580; and were in common use among the nobility in the beginning of the seventeenth century. — (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. pp. 111. 127. Eng. trans.)

2. *Manufacture of Carriages.* — This is a department of considerable value and importance. The best built and handsomest carriages are made in London, where only the trade of a coach currier is carried on; but the carriages made at Edinburgh, and some other places, are also very superior. Down to 1825, a duty was laid on all carriages made for sale; and it appears from the following account, that, in 1812, 1,591 four-wheeled carriages, 1,700 two-wheeled ditto, and 105 taxed carts (small carriages without springs), were made for sale.

3. *Duties on Carriages.* — These duties have been long imposed, and have fluctuated considerably at different periods. The Table on the next page shows the number of four-wheeled and other carriages (exclusive of hackney coaches) charged with duties in the years 1812, 1825, 1830, and 1840, the rates of duty on each species of carriage, and the produce of the duties.

4. *Stage Coaches, Travelling by.* — Owing to the improvement in the breed of horses and the building of carriages, but above all, to the extraordinary improvements that have been effected, within these few years, in the laying out, construction, and keeping of roads, the ordinary rate of travelling by stage coaches is seldom under 9 or 10 miles an hour, stoppages included, and, on some roads, is as much as 11 or 12! The stages having been shortened, this wonderful speed is not found to be materially more injurious to the horses than the slower rate at which they travelled some years ago. The surface of the roads being perfectly smooth, and most sharp turns or rapid descents having been got rid of, travelling even at this speed has been rendered comparatively safe; and it is astonishing, considering the number of coaches, how few accidents occur. They are occasioned, for the most part, by the misconduct of the drivers; and principally by their endeavouring to make up by increased speed for time lost at stoppages, or by their attempting to pass each other.

Law as to Stage Coaches. — This is now embodied in the acts 2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 120, and 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 43.

Definition. — A stage coach is any carriage travelling along the road at the rate of 3 miles or more an hour, without regard to form, provided the passengers pay separate fares for their places therein; but all carriages used wholly on a railway, or impelled by steam, are excepted from this definition. — (2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 120. § 4.)

Licences, Duties, &c. — A large portion of the act is occupied with regulations as to licences, duties, plates, &c. But it is sufficient for our purpose to give the following schedule of the duties: —

Duty.		s. d. d.	
s. d. d.		s. d. d.	
For and in respect of every original licence to be taken out yearly by the person who shall keep, use, or employ any stage carriage in Great Britain, (that is to say,) for every such stage carriage	5 0 0	And if such stage carriage shall be licensed to carry more than 21 passengers, then for every 3 additional passengers exceeding 21 which such stage carriage shall be licensed to carry, the additional duty of	0 0 0
And for and in respect of every supplementary licence for the same carriage, for which any such original licence shall have been granted, which shall be taken out in any of the several cases provided for by this act, during the period for which such original licence was granted	0 1 0	And where such excess above 21 shall not be exactly 2, or a multiple of 2, then such additional duty of <i>sd.</i> shall be payable for any number of such excess being less than 3, or progressively less than any multiple of 3, which such carriage shall be licensed to carry.	
And for and in respect of every mill which any such stage carriage shall be licensed to travel, the several sums following respectively, (that is to say,) if such stage carriage shall be licensed to carry —		Provided always, that the number of passengers for carrying of which any stage carriage shall be licensed, shall be reckoned exclusive of the coachman or driver, and also exclusive of the conductor or guard, if there shall be a conductor or guard.	
Not more than 4 passengers	0 0 10	And also the duties on passengers conveyed for hire by carriages travelling upon railways; (that is to say.)	
More than 4 and not more than 6 passengers	0 0 13	The proprietor or company of proprietors of every railway in Great Britain, along which any passengers shall be conveyed for hire, or in upon carriages drawn or impelled by the power of steam, or otherwise, shall pay for and in respect of all such passengers at and after the rate of <i>sd.</i> per mile for every 4 passengers so conveyed.	
More than 6 and not more than 9 passengers	0 0 2		
More than 9 and not more than 12 passengers	0 0 23		
More than 12 and not more than 15 passengers	0 0 3		
More than 15 and not more than 18 passengers	0 0 31		
More than 18 and not more than 21 passengers	0 0 4		

Want of Licence, &c. — Keeping, using, &c. any stage carriage without a licence, or without plates, or with recalled plates, or contrary to their licences, or with improper plates, are offences punishable each by a penalty of 20l. — § 27, 28.

Penalty on Drivers of Coaches without Plates, if not the owner, 10l.; if the owner, 20l. — § 30.

Forging Plates, a misdemeanor. — § 23.

Names of Proprietors, &c. to be painted outside, in legible and conspicuous characters, the names of the extreme places between which such carriage shall be licensed to go, and also the number of passengers licensed to be carried inside and outside. Penalty for neglect in this particular, 5l. — § 36.

Certain Carriages not to carry outside Passengers or Luggage, viz. those, the top or roof of which shall be more than 8 feet 9 inches from the ground, or the bearing of which on the ground, that is, the distance between the centres of the tracks of the wheels, shall be less than 4 feet 6 inches. Penalty 5l. — § 37.

Luggage on the Roof not to exceed a certain Height, viz. 10 feet 9 inches from the ground on a carriage drawn by 4 or more horses; and 10 feet 3 inches from ditto, if on a carriage drawn by 2 or 3 horses. Driver of any carriage where such offence is committed liable in a penalty of 5l. — § 43.

Account of the Numbers of four-wheeled and other Carriages (exclusive of Hackney Coaches) charged with Duties in 1812, 1825, 1830, and 1840, the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duties.

	1812.				1825.				1830.				1840.												
	Number of Carriages.		Rates of Duty.		Number of Carriages.		Rates of Duty.		Number of Carriages.		Rates of Duty.		Number of Carriages.		Rates of Duty.										
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.									
FOUR-WHEELED CARRIAGES.																									
Carriages charged at progressive rates:																									
Persons keeping 1 - - - - -	12,866	12	0	0	184,392	0	0	17,243	6	0	103,452	0	0	19,417	{The same as for 1825}	19,208	{The same as for 1825}	103,948	0	0					
2 - - - - -	3,752	13	0	0	26,286	0	0	3,293	6	10	21,398	0	0	5,173	do.	6,981	do.	43,276	10	0					
3 - - - - -	1,878	15	0	0	13,662	0	0	1,702	7	0	4,451	0	0	1,076	do.	1,263	do.	8,884	0	0					
4 - - - - -	180	15	0	0	27,000	0	0	152	7	0	1,500	6	6	110	do.	324	do.	3,430	0	0					
5 - - - - -	60	15	13	0	94.5	0	0	75	7	17	6	150	12	6	30	do.	136	do.	1,228	10	0				
6 - - - - -	18	16	8	0	285	4	0	30	8	10	0	246	0	0	29	do.	136	do.	246	10	0				
7 - - - - -	7	17	0	0	119	0	0	-	8	15	0	-	35	do.	5	do.	44	0	0	0					
8 - - - - -	16	17	12	0	281	12	0	-	10	9	1	0	14	do.	5	do.	44	0	0	0					
9 and upwards - - - - -	-	18	3	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	do.	70	do.	635	5	0	0					
Total	16,996	-	-	-	304,286	16	0	21,514	-	-	131,918	7	6	25,992	-	-	169,254	8	6	27,194	-	-	169,126	11	0
Additional bodies	143	6	0	0	900	18	0	68	3	3	0	214	4	0	54	do.	170	2	0	15	do.	As for 1825	47	5	0
Carriages let to hire without horses	249	12	0	0	2,288	0	0	419	6	0	2,514	0	0	518	do.	3,108	0	0	693	do.	do.	4,158	0	0	0
Foot chaises and other carriages let to hire with horses	5,295	10	10	0	53,997	10	0	5,786	5	5	0	30,376	10	0	6,983	do.	36,660	15	0	7,143	do.	{with name, & without, 91.2s.}	54,048	0	0
Public stage coaches - - - - -	1,355	10	10	0	14,227	10	0	2,747	5	5	0	14,421	15	0	3,138	do.	16,474	10	0	-	-	-	-	-	-
TWO-WHEELED CARRIAGES.																									
Drawn by 1 horse - - - - -	25,937	6	10	0	163,730	10	0	49,131	2	5	0	127,145	5	0	47,632	do.	155,611	10	0	39,688	do.	do.	128,386	0	0
2 or more horses - - - - -	1,229	9	0	0	11,961	0	0	330	4	10	0	2,425	10	0	468	do.	1,846	0	0	80	do.	do.	286	0	0
Total	27,286	-	-	-	180,691	10	0	38,680	-	-	129,668	15	0	59,133	-	-	214,060	17	0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Additional bodies - - - - -	11	3	3	0	34	13	0	20	1	11	6	31	10	0	18	do.	28	7	0	3	do.	do.	3	3	0
TAXED CARTS.																									
Without springs - - - - -	7,592	1	9	0	11,008	8	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
With springs - - - - -	11,549	2	15	0	31,759	15	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	19,141	-	-	-	42,768	3	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Horses paid by coachmakers and by persons selling carriages.																									
Four-wheeled carriages made for sale - - - - -	1,531	1	5	0	1,913	15	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Four-wheeled carriages made for hire - - - - -	1,301	0	12	0	1,656	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Taxed carts made for sale - - - - -	1,407	0	3	0	61	1	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Four-wheeled carriages sold by auction, or on commission - - - - -	105	1	5	0	131	5	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Two-wheeled carriages - - - - -	194	0	12	6	115	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Taxed carts - - - - -	46	0	3	0	6	18	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	3,974	-	-	-	3,591	1	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Repealed in 1825.

Exclusive of the above, there paid duty in 1830 - - - - -
 Four-wheeled carriages drawn by 1 horse, 26,271 0 0
 with wheels of less diameter than 30 in., 1,244 5 0
 drawn by ponies, 383, at 2l. 6s., - - - - - 447 10 0
 Two-wheeled carriages let to hire 2,466, at 7s. 6d. used by carriers, 241, at 1l. 5s. - - - - - 301 5 0

Total duty collected from carriages in 1830, 469,997 2 6

Total in 1840 - - - - - 128,717 0 0

The clauses in the act 3 & 3 Will. 4. c. 120. relating to the distribution of outside passengers, &c. have been repealed by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 48., which substitutes the following in their stead.

Number of outside Passengers, &c.—Any licensed stage carriage with 4 wheels or more, the top or roof of which shall not be more than 8 feet 9 inches from the ground, and the bearing of which on the ground shall not be less than 4 feet 6 inches from the centre of the tracks of the wheels, if such carriage shall be licensed to carry any number not more than 9 passengers, shall be allowed to carry not more than 5 of such passengers outside; and if licensed to carry more than 9 and not more than 13 passengers, shall be allowed to carry not more than 8 of such passengers outside; and if licensed to carry more than 13 and not more than 15 passengers, shall be allowed to carry not more than 11 of such passengers outside; and if licensed to carry more than 15 and not more than 18 passengers, shall be allowed to carry not more than 12 of such passengers outside; and if licensed to carry any greater number than 18 passengers, shall be allowed to carry not more than 2 additional passengers outside for every 3 additional passengers which such carriage shall be so licensed to carry in the whole; provided that in no case a greater number of passengers shall be carried on the outside than is authorised by the licence. If more be carried, driver to forfeit *£*.—*4* 3.

Driver, Guards, and Children in lap, not to be counted as passengers; 2 children under 7 years reckoned as 1 passenger.—*4* 3.

No Person to sit on Luggage on the Roof, nor more than 1 person besides driver on the box. Penalty *£*.—*4* 14.

Justices, Road-surveyors, Toll-keepers, &c. authorised to cause stage carriages and luggage to be measured; any passenger authorise to require the driver to stop at a toll-gate, and to require the gate-keeper to measure the carriage and luggage, and to count the number of inside and outside passengers. Penalty on driver refusing to stop, *£*.; on gate-keeper neglecting to provide a measure, or refusing to measure and count, *£*.—(2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 120. § 45.)

Conduct of Drivers, &c.—Drivers quitting the box before a proper person shall stand at the head of the horses; such person leaving the boxes before some other person shall be placed in like manner, or have the command of the horses, or before the driver has resumed his seat on the box and taken the reins; driver allowing any passenger or other person to drive for him, or leaving the box without any reasonable occasion, or for a longer time than is absolutely necessary; concealing or misplacing plates; guard discharging fire-arms unnecessarily; driver, conductor, or guard neglecting to take care of luggage; asking more than the proper fare; neglecting to account to his employer; or assaulting or using abusive language to any person having travelled, or about to travel, as a passenger, or to any person accompanying the same: shall in each and every such case forfeit *£*.—*4* 7.

Drunkness, &c.—Drivers, conductors, or guards having the care of any stage carriage, endangering, through intoxication, negligence, or wanton and furious driving, the safety of any passenger or other person, or the property of the owner of such carriage or other person, shall each person so offending forfeit *£*.—*4* 13.

Owners liable for penalties, when driver or guard is not known or cannot be found.—*4* 40.

Railway Proprietors are to render accounts of the passengers conveyed along the same to the Stamp Office, and to give security to keep and render such accounts, and to pay the duties.—*4* § 50, 51.

Treasury may compound with proprietors of railways for the duties chargeable on passengers conveyed by them.—*4* 55.

MAIL COACHES are under the regulations of the postmaster general; and the enactments in this act as to plates, inscriptions, outside passengers, and luggage, do not extend to them; but the other regulations as to the conduct of drivers, guards, &c. do apply to them. Mail coaches have only four outside passengers; one on the box, and three immediately behind the box. No passenger allowed to sit beside the guard. The rate of travelling, the time allowed for stoppages, the quantity of luggage to be carried, &c. are all regulated by the postmaster general.

Rates of Duty on Carriages.—On those having—

Rate.		Rate.		Rate.	
£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Four wheels.		Persons keeping 6	3 4 0	Carriages drawn by 1 horse	2 10 0
Persons keeping 1	3 6 10 0	—	7 3 10 0	Carriages used by common carriers	3 10 0
—	3 7 0 0	—	8 3 16 0	Two wheels	
—	3 10 0 0	9 and upwards	9 1 6	Drawn by 1 horse	3 5 0
—	5 7 17 6			Drawn by 2 or more	4 10 0
Additional bodies				Additional bodies	1 11 6
Carriages let to hire	6 0 0			Described in act 2 & 3 Will. 4. cap. 32. No. 1.	1 10 0
Post chaises	6 5 0			charged	1 10 0
Carriages with wheels of less diameter than 30 inches, drawn by ponies or mules not exceeding 13 hands	3 5 0			Ditto, ditto, No. 11., common stage carts	1 10 0
				Let out to hire	3 5 0
				Carriages used by common carriers	2 5 0

For an account of HACKNEY COACHES, see the term.

COAL (Du. *Steenkoolen*; Fr. *Charbon de terre*; Ger. *Steinkohlen*; It. *Carboni fossili*; Lat. *Lithanthrax*; Port. *Carvoes de terra, ou de pedra*; Rus. *Ugolj, Kamennoe*; Sp. *Carbones de tierra, Carbones de piedra*; Sw. *Stenkol*). This highly important combustible mineral is divided by mineralogists into the three great families of black coal, unflammable coal, and brown coal; each of these being again divided into many subordinate species.

All the common coals, as slate coal, foliated coal, cannel coal, &c., belong to the black coal family. Slate and foliated coal is found in vast quantities in Durham and Northumberland, at Whitehaven in Cumberland, in the river district of the Forth and Clyde, in South Wales, &c. The best Newcastle coal kindles easily; in burning it cakes or runs together into a solid mass, emitting a great deal of heat, as well as of smoke and flame; it leaves a small quantity of heavy, dark-coloured residuum or ashes. Most of the Scotch coals are what are familiarly called *open burning* coals. They do not last so long as the Newcastle coal, yield less heat, do not cake or run together in burning, and usually leave a considerable quantity of light, white ashes. They make, however, a very pleasant, cheerful fire; and, for most household purposes, the best fire is said to be made of a mixture of Scotch and Newcastle coal.

Cannel coal is sometimes met with in the Newcastle pits, in Ayrshire, &c.; but the largest beds of it, and of the purest kind, are near Wigan in Lancashire. It burns with a beautiful clear flame, emitting a great deal of light, but not much heat. It takes a good polish; and articles made of it are often passed off for pure jet.

Total 3,374 3,291 16

The unflammable coals are those known by the names of Welsh culm or stone coal, Kilkenny coal, and the *blind* or *deaf* coal of Scotland. These coals are difficult to kindle, which has given rise to their name; but when once thoroughly ignited, they burn for a long time; they make a hot, glowing fire, like charcoal, without either flame or smoke; but owing to their emitting noxious vapours, they cannot be used in dwelling houses, though they are in considerable demand among maltsters, dyers, &c.

Brown, or Bovey coal, so called from its being principally found at Bovey near Exeter, is light, yields but little heat in burning, and is seldom used as fuel.

In all, about *seventy* species of coal are said to be imported into London, of which *forty-five* are sent from Newcastle! Of course, many of them differ from each other by almost imperceptible degrees, and can only be distinguished by those thoroughly conversant with the trade.

Origin of Coal. Phenomena of Combustion, &c. — Coal beds, or strata, lie among those of gravel, sand, chalk, clay, &c., which form great part of the present surface of the earth, and have been evidently accumulated during remote ages by the agency of "moving water,"—similar to accumulations now in process of formation at the mouths of all great rivers, and in the bottoms of lakes and seas. When these strata had, by long contact and pressure, been solidified into a rocky crust to the earth, this crust, by subsequent convulsions of nature, of which innumerable other proofs remain, has been in various parts broken and heaved up above the level of the sea, so as to form the greater part of our dry or habitable land; in some places appearing as lofty mountains, in others as extended plains. In many situations, the fracture of the crust exhibits the edges of the various distinct strata found in a given thickness of it. When the fracture has the form of a precipitous cliff, these edges appear one above another, like the edges of piled planks or books; but often also they are met with in horizontal succession along a plain, as the edges of a pile of books laid down upon a table; or they may be seen surrounding hills of granite, which protrude through them. Coal, and other precious minerals, were first discovered at the fractures of the strata above described, and by the continued digging of the strata or veins the vast excavations called mines have been gradually formed. When it was at last discovered that the mineral strata occur every where in nearly the same order or succession, so that the exposure of a portion of one stratum is a good indication of the other strata being near, the operations of the miner became of much surer result, and expensive boring through superior strata might be prudently undertaken, even where no specimen of the desired but more deeply buried substance had yet been seen.

Before the discovery of coal mines, or the invention of cheap means of working them, wood was generally used as fuel; and in many countries where the arts have not much flourished, it continues to be principally employed as such. Coal, however, for many purposes, answers much better than wood; and, in fact, the two, although in appearance so different, are in their ultimate composition very nearly allied. They both have for their basis or chief ingredient the substance called by the chemists *carbon*, and for their chief other ingredient, the substance called hydrogen, which, when separated, exists in the form of air or gas. The hydrogen is easily driven away or volatilised from either coal or wood, by heating in a close place; and when it is caught and preserved, it forms the gas now used to light our streets and public buildings. What remains of coal, after being so treated, is the substance called *coke*; and what remains of wood, similarly treated, is the substance called *charcoal*,—both being nearly pure carbon, but differing as to the states of compactness. This kindred nature of coal and wood does not surprise, when the fact is known, that much of our coal is really transformed wood; many coal mines being evidently the remains of antediluvian forests, swept together in the course of the terrestrial changes already alluded to, and afterwards solidified to the state now seen. In these mines, the species of the plants or trees which formed them are still quite evident in abundant specimens, mixed often with the remnants of the animals which inhabited the earth at the same time. The extensive peat-mosses now existing on the surface of the earth, consist chiefly of vegetable remains in an early stage of the kind of change which terminates in the formation of coal.

A substance which, like coal or wood, cheaply answers the purpose of producing great heat and light, is called fuel, and the phenomenon of that production is called combustion. Now, modern discovery has ascertained that, in every instance, combustion is merely an appearance which accompanies the mutual action, when very intense, of two substances in the act of forming an intimate or chemical union. Where that act is less energetic, the heat produced is less intense, and there is no light. Thus, water and sulphuric acid when mixing produce great heat, but no light. Water and quicklime produce still greater heat; sufficient, it is known, to set fire to a ship in which the mixture unfortunately occurs. It is an occurrence of the same kind when heat is evolved from an acid dissolving a metal; and it is still of the same kind when a mass of coal or wood in a

fire-grate is, with the appearance of combustion, undergoing solution in the oxygen of the atmosphere. In this last case, however, the temperature of the fuel is, by the very intense action, raised so much that the fuel becomes incandescent or luminous; an appearance assumed by every substance, whether burning or not,—of a stone, for instance, or piece of metal,—when heated beyond the temperature indicated by 800° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The inferior degrees of such incandescence are called *red heat*; the superior degrees, *white heat*. The reason why any strongly heated body throws out light, we cannot yet explain. When a quantity of wood or coal has been burned to ash in a confined portion of air, the whole of the fuel, vanished from view, is held in solution by the air, as salt is held in water, and is again recoverable by the art of the chemist. The phenomenon of common fire, or combustion, then, is merely the fuel being chemically dissolved in the air of the atmosphere. If the fuel has nothing volatile in it, as is true of pure carbon, and nearly true of coke and charcoal, it burns with the appearance of red-hot stones; but if there be an ingredient, as hydrogen, which, on being heated, readily assumes the form of air, that ingredient dilates before burning, and in the act produces the more bulky incandescence called flame.

The two great purposes which combustion serves to man, are, to give light and heat. By the former he may be said to lengthen considerably the duration of his natural existence; for he converts the dismal and almost useless night into what, for many ends, serves him as well as day; and by the latter, besides converting winter into any climate which he desires, he is enabled to effect most important mutations in many of the substances which nature offers for his use; and, since the invention of the steam engine, he makes heat perform a great proportion of the work of society. From these considerations may be perceived the importance of having fire at command; and, as the cheapest means of commanding fire, of having abundance of coal.

As respects the supply of coal, Britain is singularly favoured; a large portion of the surface of the country having under it continuous and thick beds of this valuable mineral,—vastly more precious to us than would have been mines of the precious metals, like those of Peru and Mexico; for coal, since it has been applied to the steam-engine, is really hoarded power, applicable to almost every purpose which human labour directed by ingenuity can accomplish. It is the possession of her coal mines which has rendered Britain, in relation to the whole world, what a city is to the rural district which surrounds it,—the producer and dispenser of the various products of art and industry. Calling her coal mines the coal cellars of the great city, there is in them a supply, which, at the present rate of expenditure, will last for 2,000 years at least; and, therefore, a provision which, as coming improvements in the arts of life will naturally effect economy of fuel, or substitution of other means to effect similar purposes, may be regarded as inexhaustible.

The kinds or differences of coal depend on their comparative proportions of carbon and hydrogen, and of earthy impurities totally incombustible. While some species of coal contain nearly a third of their weight of hydrogen, others have not a fiftieth part. The former kinds are flaming coal, pleasing in parlour fires, and fit for the manufacture of gas. The other kinds—some of the Welch stone coal, for instance—will only burn when in large heaps, or when mixed with more inflammable coal: they have no flame. When flaming coal is burned where a sufficiency of oxygen cannot pass through or enter above the fire, to combine with and consume the hydrogen as fast as it rises, a dense smoke is given out, consisting of hydrogen and carbon combined in the proportions which form a pitchy substance. The Welch coal above mentioned can as little give out smoke as flame, and hence is now much used in great breweries, and in the steam-engine furnaces of towns, where smoke is a serious nuisance. The foliated or cubical coal, and slate coal, are chiefly used as fuel in private houses; the caking coals, for smithy forges; the slate coal, from its keeping open, answers best for giving great heats in a wind furnace, as in distillation on a large scale; and glance coal, found in Staffordshire, is used for drying grain and malt. The coals of South Wales contain less volatile matter than either the English or the Scotch; and hence, when employed in smelting the ore, produce a greater quantity of iron. It is supposed that 3 parts of good Newcastle coal are equivalent, as fuel, to 4 parts of good Scotch coal.

Consumption of Coal. Number of Persons engaged in the Trade. Supply of Coal.—The great repositories of coal in this kingdom are in Northumberland and Durham, whence London and most parts of the south of England are at present supplied; in Cumberland, whence large quantities of coal are exported to Ireland; and in Staffordshire, Derbyshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Leicestershire, Warwickshire, South Wales, &c. In Scotland, coal is found in the Lothians, Lanarkshire, Renfrewshire, Ayrshire, and other counties. In Ireland, coal is both deficient in quantity and inferior in quality to that of Great Britain; and turf forms the great article of fuel.

It is not easy to form any very accurate estimate of the annual consumption of coal in Great Britain; probably, however, the following may not be far from the mark.

	Tons.
Domestic consumption in 1848 and smaller manufactures	18,000,000
Production of pig and bar iron	9,000,000
Copper smelting, brass manufactures, &c.	1,000,000
Cotton manufacture	800,000
Woollen, linen, silk ditto	800,000
Salt works	400,000
Lime works	600,000
Railway carriages, steam boats, &c.	1,800,000
Home consumption	31,800,000
Exports to Ireland	1,000,000
Ditto to colonies and foreign parts	1,800,000
Total home and foreign consumption	34,600,000

Mr. Buddle, of Wallsend, an extremely well informed coal engineer, gave, in 1829, the following estimate of the number of persons engaged in the different departments of the coal trade on the Tyne and Wear, in the conveyance of coal to London, and in the London coal trade:—

"I hold a paper in my hand stating the number of people employed in the coal trade in each department. I would beg to observe, the returns from the Tyne are official documents; from the Wear I have no returns, but it is by an approximate calculation. The number of persons employed under-ground on the Tyne are,—men, 4,937; boys, 3,554; together 8,491; above ground,—men, 2,745; boys, 718; making 3,463; making the total employed in the mines above and below ground, 11,954, which in round numbers I call 12,000, because I am pretty sure there were some omissions in the returns. On the river Wear, I conceive there are 9,000 employed; making 21,000 employed in digging the coal, and delivering it to the ships on the two rivers. From the best calculations I have been able to make, it would appear that, averaging the coasting vessels that carry coals at the size of 220 London chaldrons each vessel, there would be 1,400 vessels employed, which would require 15,000 seamen and boys. I have made a summary. There are, seamen, 15,000; pitmen and above-ground people employed at the collieries, 21,000; keel-men, coal-boatmen, casters, and trimmers, 2,000; making the total number employed in what I call the Northern Coal Trade, 38,000. In London, whippers, lightermen, and so forth, 5,000; factors, agents, &c. on the Coal Exchange, 2,500;—7,500 in all, in London. Making the grand total in the North country and London departments of the trade, 45,500. This does not, of course, include the persons employed at the outports in discharging the ships there." It is necessary, however, to bear in mind that these statements apply only to 1830, and that there must have been a material increase in the interval.

In another place, Mr. Buddle states, that "colliers are always paid by the piece," and consequently their wages, although at the same rate per chaldron, vary according to the quantity of work they have to do; and it is difficult to form an average, they vary so very considerably: they have varied from 14s. a week, to, in some instances, 40s. "The colliers can earn up to 5s. or even more per day; but there is not full employment for them; they sometimes do not earn more than half that sum; 2s. 6d. is the certain wages that they are hired to receive from their employers, whether they are employed or not; that is, consequently, a tax on the coal owner, during the suspension of his colliery from any accident. The men have the option of finding work elsewhere; but if they cannot do this, they may call upon their master to pay them 14s. per week; it was 15s. a week till 1828."

We regret that we are unable to lay any estimates before our readers of the number of persons employed in the other branches of the coal trade; but taking into view the proportion which the trade on the Tyne and the Wear bears to the trade of Great Britain, and the increase since 1830, we are inclined to think that the total number of persons directly engaged in the coal trade may be set down at from 190,000 to 220,000.

The importance of coal as a necessary of life, and the degree in which our superiority in arts and manufactures depends upon our obtaining supplies of it at a cheap rate, has naturally attracted a good deal of attention to the question as to the period when the exhaustion of the coal mines may be anticipated. But the investigations hitherto made as to the magnitude and thickness of the different coal-beds, and the extent to which they may be wrought, are too vague and unsatisfactory to afford grounds for forming any thing like a tolerably near approximation to a solution of this question. But such as they are, they are sufficient to show that *many centuries* must elapse before posterity can feel any serious difficulties from a diminished supply of coal. According to an estimate prepared by Mr. Taylor, an intelligent coal engineer, in 1829, the coal-fields of Durham and Northumberland are adequate to furnish the present annual supply for a very long period. We subjoin Mr. Taylor's estimate.

ESTIMATE OF THE EXTENT AND PRODUCE OF THE DURHAM AND NORTHUMBERLAND COAL-FIELDS.

<i>Durham.</i>		Sq. Miles.
" From South Shields southward to Castle Eden, 21 miles; thence westward to West Auckland, 22 miles; north-east from West Auckland to Etringham, 23 miles; and then to Shields, 23 miles; being an extent or area of	-	804
<i>Northumberland.</i>		
" From Shields northward, 27 miles, by an average breadth of 9 miles	-	243
	-	637
<i>Portion excavated.</i>		
" In Durham, on Tyne, say	-	39
" on Wear	-	40
	-	79
" In Northumberland, say 13 miles by 2	-	26
	-	105
	-	732
Tons.		
" Estimating the workable coal strata at an average thickness of 12 feet, the contents of 1 square mile will be 12,300,000 tons, and of 732 square miles	-	9,060,480,000
" Deduct one third part for loss by small coal, interceptions by dikes, and other interruptions	-	3,023,160,000
	-	6,046,320,000

" This remainder is adequate to supply the present vend from Newcastle, Sunderland, Hartley, Blyth, and Stockton, of 3,500,000 tons, for a period of 1,727 years.

" It will be understood that this estimate of the quantity of coal in Durham and Northumberland can only be an approximation, especially as the south-eastern coal district of Durham is yet almost wholly unexplored; but the attempt is made, in the hope of satisfying your Lordships that no apprehension need be entertained of this valuable mineral being exhausted for many future generations.

" There is also a considerable extent of coal-field in the northern and south-western districts of Northumberland; but the foregoing comprises that which is continuous, and most suitable and available for exportation. It is, however, to be observed that the shipments of coal from the ports mentioned by Mr. Taylor has been largely increased during the last dozen years; so that, supposing the estimate to be in other respects accurate, it must now be modified accordingly."—(*Lords' Report, 1829, p. 124.*)

Dr. Buckland, the celebrated geologist, considers Mr. Taylor's estimate as greatly exaggerated; but in his examination before the committee of the House of Commons in 1829, he quoted with approbation a passage of Bakewell's *Geology*, in which it is stated that the coal-beds in South Wales were alone sufficient to supply the then demand of England for coal for 2,000 years. The passage is as follows:—

" Fortunately we have in South Wales, adjoining to the Bristol Channel, an almost exhaustless supply of coal and ironstone, which are yet nearly unwrought. It has been stated, that this coal-field extends over about 1,200 square miles; and that there are 23 beds of workable coal, the total average thickness of which is 95 feet; and the quantity contained in each acre is 100,000 tons, or 65,000,000 tons per square mile. If from this we deduct one half for waste, and for the minor extent of the upper beds, we shall have a clear supply of coal equal to 32,000,000 tons per square mile. Now, if we admit that 5,000,000 tons from the Northumberland and Durham mines is equal to nearly one third of the total consumption of coal in England, each square mile of the Welsh coal-field would yield coal for 100 years' consumption; and as there are from 1,000 to 1,200 square miles in this coal-field, it would supply England with fuel for 2,000 years, after all our English coal mines are worked out!"

But supposing this supply to last only 1,000 years, that carries us so far into futurity, that it appears to be quite idle either to prohibit, or impose heavy duties on the exportation of coal, on the ground of its accelerating the exhaustion of the mines.

Profits of Coal Mining. Coal Owners' Monopoly, &c.—Instead of the business of coal mining being, generally speaking, an advantageous one, it is distinctly the reverse. Sometimes, no doubt, large fortunes have been made by individuals and associations engaged in this business; but these are rare instances. The opening of a mine is a very expensive and hazardous operation, and of very uncertain result. Collieries are exposed to an infinite number of accidents, against which no caution can guard. The chances of explosion have, it is true, been a good deal lessened by the introduction of Sir Humphry Davy's lamp; and some mines are now wrought, that, but for the invention of this admirable instrument, must have been entirely abandoned. But besides explosions, which are still every now and then occurring, from the carelessness of the workmen, and other contingencies, mines are very liable to be destroyed by *creeps*, or by the sinking of the roof, and by drowning, or the irruption of water from old workings, through fissures which cannot be seen, and consequently cannot be guarded against. So great, indeed, is the hazard attending this sort of property, that it has never been possible to effect an insurance on a coal-work, against fire, water, or any other accident.

Mr. Biddle informed the committee of the House of Lords, in 1829, that " although many collieries, in the hands of fortunate individuals and companies, have been, perhaps, making more than might be deemed a reasonable and fair profit, according to their risk, like a prize in a lottery; yet, as a trade, taking the whole capital employed on both

rivers, he should say that certainly it has not been so."—(*First Report*, p. 56.) Again, being asked, "What have the coal owners on the Tyne and Wear, in your opinion, generally made on their capital employed?" he replied, "According to the best of my knowledge, I should think that by no means ten per cent. has been made at simple interest, without allowing any extra interest for the redemption of capital."—(p. 57.)

In addition to the vast expense attending the sinking of shafts, the erection of steam engines, &c., and the risk of accidents, the coal, after being brought to the surface, has frequently to be conveyed 7 or 8 miles to the place of shipping; and those whose collieries are in that situation, have to pay *way-leave* rents, amounting, in some cases, to 500*l.* a year, for liberty to open a communication, or a railroad, through the properties lying between them and the shore.

Much has frequently been said of the monopoly of the coal owners on the Tyne and the Wear; but we are satisfied, after a pretty careful investigation of the circumstances, that no such monopoly has ever existed; and that the high price of coal in the metropolis is to be ascribed wholly to the various duties and charges that have been laid upon it, from the time that it has passed from the hands of the owner to the time that it is lodged in the cellar of the consumer. What means have the coal owners of obtaining a monopoly price for their coal? They enjoy no exclusive privileges of any sort; they are a numerous body; and the trade is as open as any other to all capitalists to engage in. The number of places on the east and west coasts, both of England and Scotland, and the southern parts of Wales, from which coals are exported, render it quite visionary to suppose that any general agreement to keep up prices can take place amongst the various coal proprietors. And though such an agreement were entered into, it is impossible it could be maintained. The power of producing coal greatly exceeds the present demand; many new mines have been recently opened, and many others would be brought into activity were the price artificially enhanced. It is true that the coal owners referred to, having experienced the ruinous effects of throwing a superabundant quantity of coal upon restricted and already glutted markets, have occasionally met together; and each having named the price he thinks his coal will command, and at which he intends to sell it, they have proceeded jointly to regulate, according to the probable demand, the quantity that each shall raise during any particular period. By means of this arrangement, the supply and price of coal have been kept, during the time it has existed, comparatively steady. Common prudence prompts and justifies such an arrangement; but it also suggests the necessity of reducing the price of coal to the lowest level that will afford the customary rate of profit. For were the price demanded by the northern coal owners raised above this level, new mines would be opened in Durham and Northumberland; the imports from the Tees, whence a large supply of excellent coal is at present brought to the London market, would be augmented; and fresh competitors, from Swansea and other places, would come into the field and undersell them. Government should encourage and promote this fair competition; but it ought, at the same time, to do equal justice by all the competitors. It is not to lend assistance, or to remove burdens from, one set of adventurers, which it does not lend to or remove from others. It is no part of its duty to say how coals, or any species of produce, shall be carried to market. It is bound to give every reasonable facility for the opening of new channels or modes of conveyance between all parts of the country; but it would be glaringly unjust to lay a tax on the coals conveyed by a particular channel from which those conveyed by other channels were exempted.

Mr. Buddle thinks that the aggregate capital employed by the coal owners on the Tyne amounts to about 1,500,000*l.* exclusive of the craft in the river: and supposing this estimate to be nearly correct, it will follow, allowing for the value of the ships, that the total capital employed in the coal trade may be moderately estimated at from eight to ten millions; an immense sum to be almost wholly at the risk of the owners, without any insurance upon it.

Progressive Consumption of Coal. Duties and Regulations affecting it, particularly in the Port of London.—There are no mines of coal in either Greece or Italy; and no evidence has been produced to show that the ancients had learned to avail themselves of this most useful mineral. Even in England, it does not seem to have been used previously to the beginning of the thirteenth century; for the first mention of it occurs in a charter of Henry III., granting licence to the burgesses of Newcastle to dig for coal. In 1281, Newcastle is said to have had a considerable trade in this article. About the end of this century, or the beginning of the fourteenth, coals began to be imported into London, being at first used only by smiths, brewers, dyers, soap-boilers, &c. This innovation was, however, loudly complained of. A notion got abroad that the smoke was highly injurious to the public health; and, in 1316, parliament petitioned the king, Edward I., to prohibit the burning of coal, on the ground of its being an intolerable nuisance. His Majesty issued a proclamation conformably to the prayer of the petition; but it being but little attended to, recourse was had to more vigorous measures;

a commission of oyer and terminer being issued out, with instructions to inquire as to all who burned sea-coal within the city, or parts adjoining, to punish them for the first offence, by "pecuniary mullets;" and upon a second offence, to demolish their furnaces; and to provide for the strict observance of the proclamation in all time to come.

But notwithstanding the efforts that were thus made to prohibit the use of coal, and the prejudices that was long entertained against it, it continued progressively to gain ground. This was partly, no doubt, owing to experience having shown that coal smoke had not the noxious influence ascribed to it, but far more to the superior excellence of coal as an article of fuel, and the growing scarcity and consequent high price of timber. In the reign of Charles I. the use of coal became universal in London, where it has ever since been used to the exclusion of all other articles of fuel. At the Restoration, the quantity imported was supposed to amount to about 300,000 chaldrons. In 1670, the imports had increased to 270,000 chaldrons. At the Revolution, they amounted to about 300,000 chaldrons, and have since gone on increasing with the growing magnitude and population of the city; being, in 1750, about 500,000 chaldrons; in 1800, about 900,000 chaldrons; and at present about 1,700,000 chaldrons. — (*Campbell's Political Survey of Great Britain*, vol. ii. p. 80; *Edington on the Coal Trade*, p. 41, &c.)

It might have been supposed, considering that coal is, in this country, a prime necessary of life, and by far the most important of all the instruments of manufacturing industry, that it would have been exempted from every species of tax; and that every possible facility would have been given for its conveyance from the mines to the districts in the south of England, and other places in want of it. But such has not been the case. The coal trade of Great Britain was, for more than a century and a half, subjected to the most oppressive regulations. From a very early period, the corporation had undertaken the task of weighing and measuring the coal brought to London; and had been accustomed to charge 8*d.* a ton for their trouble. In 1613, the power to make this charge was confirmed to the city by royal charter, it being at the same time ordered that no coal should be unladen from any vessel till the Lord Mayor had given leave. The right to charge this sum according to the chaldron of coal, has since been confirmed to the city by act of parliament; and as the labouring meters, notwithstanding they have been very well paid, have received only 5*d.* out of the 8*d.*, the balance of 3*d.* per chaldron, which produced about 20,000*l.* a year, went to the city treasury.

But besides the above, duties for civic purposes have been laid on the coal imported into London from the reign of Charles II. downwards. They were originally imposed in 1667, after the great fire, in order to assist in the rebuilding of churches and other public edifices; and have ever since been continued, to enable the corporation to execute improvements in the city; though it is probable most of our readers will be inclined to think that few improvements could be so great, as a reduction in the price of so very important an article as coal.

Exclusive of the corporation duties, a duty payable to government was laid on *all sea-borne* coal in the reign of William III., which only ceased in 1831. This duty was at once glaringly unjust and oppressive: unjust, inasmuch as it fell only on those parts of the empire to which coals had to be carried by sea; and oppressive, inasmuch as it amounted to full *fifty* per cent. upon the price paid to the coal owner for the coal. This tax, after being long stationary at 5*s.* a chaldron, was raised to 9*s.* 4*d.* during the late war; but was reduced to 6*s.* in 1824. But the inequality of the tax was not confined to its affecting those parts only of the empire to which coal had to be carried by sea. Even there its pressure was not equal; for, while it amounted to 6*s.* a chaldron, or 4*s.* a ton, in the metropolis and all the south of England, it only amounted to 1*s.* 7*d.* a ton on coal carried by sea to Ireland, and to 1*s.* 8*d.* on that carried to Wales; while Scotland was for many years entirely exempted from the duty.

Besides this striking partiality and injustice, various troublesome Custom-house regulations were required, in consequence of distinctions being made between the duties on large and small coal, between those on coal and culm (a species of coal), and coal and cinders, and of coal being allowed to be imported duty free into Cornwall, Devon, &c. for the use of the mines. These distinctions were, however, wholly abolished in 1830, and no duties exist on coal except those collected in London and a few other ports, and appropriated to local purposes.

A small supply of coal was of late years brought to London from Staffordshire, by canal navigation. This coal was charged with a duty of 1*s.* a chaldron; but this is now also repealed.

The regulations to which the sale and delivery of coals were subjected in the city of London were, if possible, still more objectionable than the duties imposed on them. Instead of being sold by weight, all coals imported into the Thames were, previously to 1831, sold by measure. It is curious to observe the sort of abuses to which this practice has given rise. It is stated by the celebrated mathematician, Dr. Hutton, who, being a native of Newcastle, was well acquainted with the coal trade, that, "If

one coal, measuring exactly a cubic yard (nearly equal to 5 bolls), be broken into pieces of a moderate size, it will measure $7\frac{1}{2}$ bolls; if broken very small, it will measure 9 bolls; which shows that the proportion of the weight to the measure depends upon the size of the coals; therefore, accounting by weight is the most rational method.* The shippers were well aware of this, and insisted upon the coal owners supplying them with large coal only; and to such an extent was this principle carried, that all coal for the London market was *screened*, as it is technically termed, or passed over gratings, to separate the smaller pieces. Inasmuch, however, as coals were sold in all their subsequent stages by measure, no sooner had they been delivered by the owner, than it was for the interest of every one else into whose hands they came before reaching the consumer, to break them into smaller portions. In fact, the profit of many of the retailers in London has arisen chiefly from the increase of measure by the breakage of coal. And Mr. Brandling, a very intelligent and extensive coal owner, stated to the Commons' committee of 1829, that, in consequence of the breakage, coals are reduced in London to a size inferior to what they would be, were they put on board *unscreened*, and subjected to no additional breakage.

The statements now made sufficiently evince the nullity of all the regulations enforcing the sale of coal by correct measures: for even though these regulations had been enforced, instead of being, as they usually were, wholly neglected, they would have been of almost no use; inasmuch as any dishonest dealer was as able to cheat, by breaking his coals a little smaller than usual, as if he had sold them in deficient measures.

The loss occasioned by the useless process of screening has been very great. The quantity of coal separated by it has amounted in some cases to from 20 to 25 per cent. of the whole; and the greater part of this residue, containing a portion of the very best coal, is *burned on the spot*. "I have known," says Mr. Buddle, "at one colliery, as many as from 90 to 100 chaldrons a day destroyed. If they were not consumed, they would cover the whole surface, and in the burnings of them they are extremely destructive; they destroy the crops a great way round, and we pay large sums for injury done to the crops, and for damage to the ground."—(*First Lords' Report*, p. 72.) The waste of coal has been in this way enormous; and the coal owner has been obliged to charge a higher price upon the coal sold, in order to indemnify himself for the loss of so great a quantity, and for the mischief he does to others in burning.

The fact, that so monstrous a system should have been persevered in for more than a century, sets the power of habit in reconciling us to the most pernicious absurdities in a very striking point of view. Happily, however, the nuisance was at last abated; the sale of coal by weight taking away both the temptation to break coal, and the necessity of screening.

The duties of all sorts that were formerly paid to the corporation of the city of London were computed in 1830 for a duty of 1*s.* 1*d.* per ton[†], which produced in 1841 a gross revenue of 152,887*l.* 9*s.* 5*d.* (*Westminster Review*, No. 77, p. 332). Various oppressive duties and regulations were then also abolished, a measure which has been productive of a considerable saving to the public. Supposing the average price of a ton of coal, in the pool below London Bridge, to be at present (1843) 20*s.*, it would perhaps be made up nearly as follows:

Prime cost and shipping charges in the Tyne or the Wear	-	-	-	£	s.	d.	per ton.
Freight	-	-	-	0	9	3	
Insurance	-	-	-	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	
City dues	-	-	-	0	1	1	
Half weighage	-	-	-	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	
Allowance to the buyer, of tret, discount, and storage	-	-	-	0	0	6	
Factory, 3 <i>d.</i> <i>Del credere</i> , 1 <i>d.</i>	-	-	-	0	0	4	
Stamps and petty incidents	-	-	-	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	
				0			20
				0			0

The charges on the conveyance of coal from the vessel to the cellar of the consumer amounted, in 1830, to about 11*s.* a ton, but at present they do not exceed 7*s.*; thus:—

				£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		
Lightrage	-	-	-	0	1	3	Cartage	-	-	0	3	6
Wharfinger	-	-	-	0	0	6	Shooting	-	-	0	1	0
Loading	-	-	-	0	0	9						
				0			Total	-	0	7	0	

No doubt, however, the expenses attending the delivery of coal to the consumer might be farther and very materially reduced, were quays constructed at which ships could lie alongside, and discharge their cargoes without the intervention of lighters, and without being subject to the delays to which they are now exposed. It appears also, that, the practice of sending coals to the consumers in bags might in the great majority of cases be advantageously dispensed with. No such practice exists in Manchester, Liverpool, Glasgow, or other large towns; and, generally speaking, it seems in occasion not only a heavy, but a perfectly useless, expense. There is a very keen competition in the retail coal trade in London, and the individual who deals with a respectable coal merchant may be pretty well assured that he gets his coals at the lowest price at which, as matters now stand, they can be sold.

* Eightpence per ton of this duty will (unless the regulations under which it is now imposed be altered in the interval) cease in 1862, its produce having been mortgaged till that year, to defray the cost of certain civil improvements.

Account exhibiting the Quantities of the various Descriptions of Coal imported into London by Sea in 1842, and specifying also the Number of Ships or Cargoes.

Descriptions of Coal.	Ships or Cargoes.	Tons.
Newcastle	1,084	680,777
Newcastle Wallend	1,008	514,055
Sunderland	1,008	514,055
Sunderland Wallend	9,455	5,100
Rochton	10	5,100
Stockton Wallend	9,408	4,838,128
Blyth	408	100,984
Scott	401	19,484
Walc	445	17,000
Yorkshire	705	69,518
From sundry places	5	450
Small coal	5	1,100
Calm	9,667	4,710,793
Cinders	10	5,184
Total Imports	9,681	4,788,800

Account exhibiting the Importation of Coal into London by Sea during each of the 13 Years ending with 1844.

Years.	Cargoes.	Tons.	Years.	Cargoes.	Tons.
1834	7,588	4,159,078	1839	9,540	5,225,325
1835	7,077	4,010,409	1840	9,138	4,866,999
1836	7,404	4,073,685	1841	9,531	5,031,414
1837	7,058	4,008,819	1842	9,661	5,275,900
1838	8,108	4,306,539	1843	9,505	4,865,114
1839	8,780	4,895,957	1844	9,666	4,965,101
1838	9,003	4,961,085			

Regulations as to Sale in London.—A seller's ticket is to accompany all coals sold within the city of London and its environs, specifying the species of coal, and the number of sacks and weight of coal sent. The coals may be either in bags containing 1 or 2 cwt., or in bulk. The carman is in all cases bound to carry a weighing machine with the coal, which machine is to be made conformably to regulation; and, upon being desired, he is to weigh any one sack, or the whole sacks in his wagon. Penalty on refusing to weigh, or otherwise obstructing the purchaser, 20s. In the event of the weight being deficient, a penalty is imposed of 10s. or 20s., according to deficiency. Quantities of less than 500 lbs. may be sold without being weighed.—(1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 71.)

weighing, 20s. Penalty on non-delivery of ticket to purchaser, 20s. In the event of the weight being deficient, a penalty is imposed of 10s. or 20s., according to deficiency. Quantities of less than 500 lbs. may be sold without being weighed.—(1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 71.)

In order to save trouble in collecting the duties that still attach to coal in the port of London, the corporation is authorized to compound with the owner or master of any ship or vessel importing coal, for the tonnage upon which the duties are to be paid. A certificate of such composition, expressing the number of tons of coal, cinders, or small, agreed to be taken as the cargo of the ship or vessel compounded for, is to be given to the master or owner of the same, and to be taken as evidence of the quantity on board.

When an composition is entered into, the coal is to be weighed in the presence of an officer of the customs at the port of shipment; and the duties are to be paid upon the weight so shipped.

The shipment of coal in the Tyne is at present regulated by the Act 8 Geo. 4. c. 72. commonly called the *Turn Act*. The object of this act is to make all ships engaged in the trade of the Tyne be loaded in the order in which they arrive. It prevents any preference being given to particular ships; and renders it nearly impossible for any coal owner to give constant employment to any vessel in the trade which he may wish to employ. In some respects this act is probably advantageous, but, on the whole, its policy seems very questionable. Why should a coal owner be prevented from employing certain ships in preference to others? Under this act, if more ships engage in the trade than can be profitably employed in it, the loss produced by detentions in port, and waiting for a cargo, instead of falling, as it naturally would, were the trade free, on particular ships, and driving them from the business, falls equally on every ship employed, and depresses the whole trade. There is no regulation of this sort on the Wear.

Duty on Coal conveyed to London by Railway, Canal, &c.—The 8 & 9 Vict. c. 101. has imposed the same duties on coals conveyed to the metropolis by railway, canal, or other inland carriage that are imposed on them when conveyed by sea. It has further enacted that 1d. per ton of the produce of such duties shall be accumulated, from the 31st December, 1840, as a fund for the execution of improvements within the metropolis.

The question as to the policy of laying duties on the exportation of coal depends (as the exhaustion of the mines need not be thought of) on the fact, whether British coal be necessary or of considerable consequence to the progress of manufactures and of the arts in foreign countries. If it be, then certainly it would be good policy to preserve that superiority which we derive from the possession of coal by prohibiting its exportation, or burdening it when exported with a considerable duty; but if the possession of our coal be not necessary or of considerable importance to the foreigner, such prohibition or duty would encourage the working of foreign mines by discouraging the working of our own, without producing any corresponding advantage. It is not, however, very easy to say how the fact stands. But on the whole there seems to be little doubt that a supply of British coal, though not indispensable, is of very considerable advantage to the foreigner; and if so, it would seem to be sound policy to lay reasonable duties on its exportation, such, for example, as those imposed in 1842. These, however, were repealed in the course of the present year (1845).

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Coal, Culm, &c. exported from the United Kingdom in 1842, specifying the Quantity and Value of the Coal sent to different Countries.

Countries.	Coal exported.	Value.	Countries.	Coal exported.	Value.
	Tons.	£		Tons.	£
Russia	25,280	90,297	African Ports on the Red Sea	383	868
Norway	27,005	110,118	Cape Verde Islands	297	119
Norway	145,900	458,220	St. Helena and Ascension Islands	1,891	801
Denmark	113,081	31,507	Mauritius	1,848	1,237
Prussia	100,000	35,728	East Indies and China	84,103	29,748
Germany	100,154	60,059	Australian Settlements	1,730	1,511
Holland	3,092	1,017	New Zealand	405	151
Belgium	61,573	17,578	British North American Colonies	50,051	17,430
France	35,000	11,534	British West Indies	95,770	34,013
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	25,248	9,500	Foreign West Indies	26,609	24,959
Spain and the Canaries	14,210	5,047	United States of America	60,836	29,633
Siberia	40,987	21,708	Peru	1,094	28
Italy	30,158	10,127	Mexico	1,704	677
Malta	1,428	500	Columbia	1,000	28
Ionian Islands	3,719	1,347	Brazil	40,535	17,652
Morocco and Greek Islands	40,204	17,011	States of the Rio de la Plata	3,615	1,637
Turkey and Continental Greece	19,805	6,791	Chili	1,277	766
Syria and Palestine	9,000	3,200	Peru	40	510
Egypt	9,000	3,200	Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	85,408	29,796
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco	9,000	3,200			
Western Coast of Africa	9,000	3,200	Total	1,999,504	734,000
Cape of Good Hope	9,000	3,200			

An Account of the Quantities of Coals, Cinders, and Culm exported from the United Kingdom to Foreign Countries, and the British Settlements abroad in 1842, with the Rates and Amount of Duties received thereon.

Quantities exported.	Duties received thereon.									
	Duty payable on Exports from Foreign Ships.				Duty payable on Exports from British Ships.					
	Tons.	£	s.	d.	Tons.	£	s.	d.		
Large	1,829,069	25,031	8	9	25,706	19	50,738	8	6	
Small	147,811	3,834	17	9	5,515	9	7,170	7	6	
Culm	796	7	10	0	2	10	0	19	10	
Cinders	25,454	79	16	8	50	6	7	110	3	
Total	1,999,904	28,993	9	10	29,553	6	1	58,348	14	11

Rates of Duty on Coals, Cinders, and Culm exported from the United Kingdom in the Year 1842.

	To British Ships or to Foreign Ships under Reciprocity Treaties.	In Foreign Ships not under Reciprocity Treaties.
Coals, cinders, and culm exported Previously to the 10th July, To British possessions	Free	4 3/8 per ton.
To foreign countries	10 6 per cent. ad valorem.	4 3/8 per ton.
Subsequently to the 9th July To British possessions	Free	Free.
To foreign countries, viz.: Large coals	9 0 per ton	4 0 per ton.
Small coals and culm	1 0 per ton	4 0 per ton.
Cinders	Free	4 0 per ton.

An Account of the Quantities of Coals, Cinders, and Culm shipped at the several Ports of England, Scotland, and Ireland, coastwise to other Ports of the United Kingdom, during the Years 1841 and 1842.

Ports from which shipped.	Year 1841.				Year 1842.			
	Coals.	Cinders.	Culm.	Total.	Coals.	Cinders.	Culm.	Total.
England.								
Glooucester	Tons. 80,968	Tons. -	Tons. -	Tons. 80,968	Tons. 1,541	Tons. -	Tons. -	Tons. 1,541
Newport	910,574	104	-	910,678	615,813	93	-	615,906
Cardiff	135,576	9,851	-	145,427	234,707	5,618	-	240,325
Swansea	200,444	111	-	200,555	450,119	245,526	-	695,645
Llanelli	125,016	105	-	125,121	129,134	-	-	129,134
Whitehaven	-	-	-	-	985,137	-	-	985,137
Marjport	444,437	13	-	444,450	141,317	61	-	141,378
Newcastle	3,388,139	9,638	-	3,397,777	2,341,071	9,469	-	2,350,540
Sunderland	337,637	139	-	337,776	339,137	54	-	339,191
Stockton	1,476,942	136	-	1,483,618	1,501,398	-	-	1,501,398
Gosport	151,993	-	-	151,993	159,775	-	-	159,775
All other ports	184,920	839	-	185,759	336,194	1,474	-	337,668
Scotland.								
Borrowstoness	115,556	102	-	115,658	104,147	88	-	104,235
Aberdeen	80,374	-	-	80,374	79,317	-	-	79,317
Kirkcaldy	57,159	-	-	57,159	47,577	-	-	47,577
Glasgow	37,374	-	-	37,374	35,544	-	-	35,544
Perth	191,234	107	-	191,341	185,833	308	-	186,141
Arran	81,973	-	-	81,973	81,496	-	-	81,496
All other ports	27,124	-	-	27,124	23,185	76	-	23,261
Ireland.								
Waterford	2,530	-	-	2,530	2,813	-	-	2,813
Total	7,879,823	14,324	553,729	7,649,899	7,984,666	14,756	350,067	7,649,165

Price of Coal. — The following is an account of the contract price of coal supplied to Greenwich Hospital in the undermentioned years.

Years.	Per Chaldron.	Years.	Per Chaldron.	Years.	Per Chaldron.	Years.	Per Chaldron.
1730	£ s. d. 1 4 6	1755	£ s. d. 1 15 7 1/2	1780	£ s. d. 1 17 3 1/2	1805	£ s. d. 2 11 3 1/2
1735	1 5 0	1760	1 14 8	1785	1 14 2 1/2	1810	3 0 8
1740	1 9 0	1765	1 12 4 1/2	1790	1 11 4 1/2	1815	3 15 6 1/2
1745	1 10 0	1770	1 9 1 1/2	1795	1 11 9	1820	2 5 9
1750	1 7 7 1/2	1775	1 10 1 1/2	1800	2 1 7	1825	2 5 1/2

This table sets the beneficial influence of the abolition of the duty on coals, and of the other alterations that have been made in the management of the trade, in a very striking point of view.

COASTING TRADE, the trade or intercourse carried on by sea between two or more ports or places of the same country.

It has been customary in most countries to exclude foreigners from all participation in the coasting trade. This policy began in England in the reign of Elizabeth (5 Eliz. c. 5.), or, perhaps, at a more remote era; and was perfected by the acts of navigation passed in 1651 and 1660. A vast number of regulations have been since enacted at different periods. The existing rules with respect to it, which have been much simplified, are embodied in the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86., and are as follow: —

All Trade by Sea from one Part of the U. K. to another, or to the Isle of Man, to be deemed Coastwise, and no Part to be deemed beyond the Seas. — All trade by sea from any one part of the U. K. to any other part thereof, or to the Isle of Man, or from the Isle of Man to any part of the U. K., or from one part of the Isle of Man to another part thereof, shall be deemed to be a coasting trade, and all ships while employed therein shall be deemed to be coasting ships; and no part of the U. K. or of the Isle of Man, however situated with regard to any other part, shall be deemed in law, with reference to each other, to be parts beyond the seas in any matter relating to the trade or navigation or revenue of this realm: provided always, that all goods liable to duty of customs upon the importation or bringing of them into the Isle of Man, when brought from the U. K. into the said Isle, and all vessels bringing the same, shall be liable to the same rules and regulations as are required by law in respect of goods imported into the said Isle from foreign parts, and in respect of the vessels bringing the same; and all penalties and forfeitures inflicted by law for any breach of the said rules and regulations shall attach upon all goods so brought into the said Isle contrary to the said rules and regulations or any of them, and upon all persons committing any breach of any such rule or regulation: and such penalties and forfeitures may be recovered in the same manner as any penalty or forfeiture may be recovered by any act relating to the customs. — § 113.

Lords of Treasury to regulate what shall be deemed trading by Sea under this Act. — Whereas some parts of the coast of the U. K. may be so situated with regard to other neighbouring parts thereof that doubts may arise in some cases whether the passage between them by water shall be deemed to be a

passage by sea within the meaning of this act; and that in other cases, although such passage be by sea, it may be unnecessary for the purposes of this act, or of any act relating to the customs to subject ships passing between such places to the restraints of coast regulations; be it therefore enacted, that it shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury to determine and direct in what cases the trade by water from any place on the coast of the U. K. to another of the same shall or shall not be deemed a trade by sea within the meaning of this act or of any act relating to the customs.—§ 114.

Coasting Ship confined to coasting Voyage.—No goods shall be carried in any coasting ship except such as shall be laden to be so carried at some port or place in the U. K., or at some port or place in the Isle of Man respectively; and no goods shall be laden on board any ship to be carried coastwise until all goods brought in such ship from parts beyond the sea shall have been unladen; and if any goods shall be taken into or put out of any coasting ship at sea or over the sea, or if any coasting ship shall touch at any place over the sea, or deviate from her voyage, unless forced by unavoidable circumstances, or if the master of any coasting ship which shall have touched at any place over the sea shall not declare the same in writing under his hand to the collector or comptroller at the port in the U. K., or in the Isle of Man where such ship shall afterwards first arrive, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 500l.—§ 115.

Before Goods be laden or unladen, Notice of Intention or of Arrival to be given, and proper Documents to issue.—No goods shall be laden on board any ship in any port or place in the U. K., or in the Isle of Man to be carried coastwise, nor having been brought coastwise shall be unladen in any such port or place from any ship, until due notice in writing, signed by the master, shall have been given to the collector or comptroller, by the master, owner, wharfinger, or agent of such ship, of the intention to lade goods on board the same to be so carried, or of the arrival of such ship with goods so brought, (as the case may be), nor until proper documents shall have been granted as herein-after directed for the lading or for the unlading of such goods; and such goods shall not be laden or unladen except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods laden to be so carried, or brought to be so unladen, contrary hereto, shall be forfeited.—§ 116.

Particulars in Notice.—In such notice shall be stated the name and tonnage of the ship, and the name of the port to which she belongs, and the name of the master, and the name of the port to which she is bound or from which she has arrived, and the name or description of the wharf or place at which her lading is to be taken in or discharged (as the case may be); and such notice shall be signed by the master, owner, wharfinger, or agent of such ship, and shall be entered in a book to be kept by the collector for the information of all parties interested; and every such notice for the unlading of any ship or vessel shall be delivered within 24 hours after the arrival of such ship or vessel, under a penalty of 200l., to be paid by the master of such ship or vessel; and in every such notice for the lading of any ship or vessel shall be stated the last voyage on which such ship or vessel shall have arrived at such port; and if such voyage shall have been from parts beyond the sea there shall be produced with such notice a certificate from the proper officer of the discharge of all goods (if any) brought in such ship, and of the due clearance of such ship or vessel inwards of such voyage.—§ 117.

From and to Ireland with certain Goods, the Master must attend to deliver Notice, &c.—Upon the arrival of any coasting ship at any port in Great Britain from Ireland, or at any port in Ireland from Great Britain, the master of such ship shall within 24 hours after such arrival attend and deliver such notice, signed by him, to the collector or comptroller; and if such ship shall have on board any goods subject on arrival to any duty or excise, or any goods which had been imported from parts beyond the sea, the particulars of such goods, with the marks and numbers of the packages containing the same, shall be set forth in such notice; and if there shall be no such goods on board, then it shall be declared in such notice that no such goods are on board; and the master shall also answer any questions relating to the voyage as shall be demanded of him by the collector or comptroller; and every master who shall fail in due time to deliver such notice, and truly to answer such questions, shall forfeit the sum of 100l.—§ 118.

After Notice given of lading Goods on board Coasting Ships, Collector may grant a general Suffrance.—When due notice shall have been given to the collector or comptroller at the port of lading of the intention to lade goods on board any coasting ship, such collector or comptroller shall grant a general suffrance for the lading of goods (without specifying the same) on board such ship, at the wharf or place which shall be expressed in such suffrance; and such suffrance shall be a sufficient authority for the lading of any sort of goods, except such (if any) as shall be expressly excepted therein; provided always, that before any suffrance be granted for any goods prohibited to be exported the master or owner of any such ship, or the shipper of such goods, shall give bond, with 1 sufficient surety, in treble the value of the goods, that the same shall be landed at the port for which such suffrance is required, or shall be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs.—§ 119.

Master of Coasting Vessel to keep a Cargo Book.—The master of every coasting ship shall keep or cause to be kept a cargo book of the same, stating the name of the ship and of the master, and of the port to which she belongs, and of the port to which bound on each voyage; and in which book shall be entered, at the port of lading, an account of all goods taken on board such ship, stating the descriptions of the packages, and the quantities and descriptions of the goods therein; and the quantities and descriptions of any goods stowed loose, and the names of the respective shippers and consignees, as far as any of such particulars shall be known to him; and in which book, at the port of discharge, shall be noted the respective days upon which any of such goods be delivered out of such ship, and also the respective times of departure from the port of lading, and of arrival at any port of unlading; and such master shall produce such book for the inspection of the coast-writer or other proper officer, so often as the same shall be demanded, and who shall be at liberty to make any note or remark therein; and if such master shall fail correctly to keep such book, or to produce the same, or if at any time there be found on board such ship any goods not entered in the cargo book as laden, or any goods noted as delivered, or if at any time it be found that any goods entered as laden, or any goods not noted as delivered, be not on board, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 500l.; and if, upon examination at the port of lading, any package entered in the cargo book as containing any foreign goods shall be found not to contain such goods, such package, with its contents, shall be forfeited; and if at the port of discharge any shall be found to contain any foreign goods which are not entered in such book, such goods shall be forfeited.—§ 120.

Accounts of Foreign Goods, and of Goods subject to Coast Duty, to be delivered to Collector.—Before any coasting ship shall depart from the port of lading, an account, together with a duplicate of the same, all fairly written, and signed by the master, shall be delivered to the collector or comptroller; and in such account shall be set forth such particulars as are required to be entered in the cargo book of all foreign goods, and of all corn, grain, meal, flour, or malt laden on board, and generally, whether any other British goods or no other British goods be laden on board, as the case may be, or whether such ship be wholly laden with British goods not being any of the descriptions before mentioned; as the case may be; and the collector or comptroller shall inspect and retain one of such accounts, and shall return the other, dated and signed by him, and noting the clearance of the ship thereon; and such account shall be the clearance of the ship for the voyage, and the transfer for the goods expressed therein; and if any such account be false, or shall not correspond with the cargo book, the master shall forfeit the sum of 500l.—§ 121.

Transit to be delivered to Collector before Goods unladen.— Before any goods be unladen from any coasting ship at the port of discharge, the master, owner, wharfinger, or agent of such ship shall deliver the transit to the collector or comptroller of such port, who shall thereupon grant an order for the unloading of such ship at the wharf or place specified in such order: provided always, that if any of the goods on board such ship be subject to any duty of customs or excise payable on arrival coastwise at such port, the master, owner, wharfinger, or agent of such ship, or the consignee of such goods, shall also deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry of the particulars of such goods, expressed in words at length, together with a copy thereon, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, and shall pay down all duties of customs, or produce a permit in respect of all duties of excise, which shall be due and payable on any such goods, as the case may be; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall grant an order for the landing of such goods, in the presence or by the authority of the coast-waiter.— § 112.

Collector, in certain Cases, may grant general Transits.— It shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller, in the cases herein-after mentioned, to grant for any coasting ship a general transit, to continue in force for any time not exceeding 1 year from the date thereof, for the landing of any goods (except such goods, if any, as shall be expressly excepted therefrom), and for the clearance of the ship in which the goods shall be laden, and for the unloading of the goods at the place of discharge, viz.

For any ship regularly trading between places in the river Severn eastward of the Tide-mill.

For any ship regularly trading between places in the river Humber.

For any ship regularly trading between places in the Firth of Forth.

For any ship regularly trading between places to be named in the transit, and carrying only manure, lime, chalk, stone, gravel, sand, or any earth, not being fallers' earth.

And it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs, whenever it shall appear to them to be necessary, to grant general transits, under such regulations and for such time as they may see fit, for the landing of any goods, and for the clearing the ship in which the goods shall be laden, and for the unloading the goods at the place of discharge: provided always, that such transits shall be written in the cargo book

herein-before required to be kept by the masters of coasting ships: provided also, that if the said commissioners or the collector and comptroller shall at any time revoke such transit, and notice thereof shall be given to the master or owner of the ship, or shall be given to any of the crew whom on board the ship, or shall be entered in the cargo book by any officer of the customs, such transits shall become void, and shall be delivered up by the master or owner to the collector or comptroller, or to any officer of customs demanding the same.— § 113.

Coast-waiter, Landing-waiter, or Searcher may go on board and examine any Coasting Ship.— It shall be lawful in any case, and at all legal times, for the coast-waiter, and also for the landing-waiter, and for the searcher, and for any other proper officer of the customs, to go on board any coasting ship in any port or place in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, or at any period of her voyage, and strictly to search such ship, and to examine all goods on board, and all goods being laden or unladen, and to demand all documents which ought to be on board such ship.— § 114.

Times and Places for Landing and Shipping.— No goods shall be unshipped from any ship arriving coastwise in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, and no goods shall be shipped or waterborne to be shipped, in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, to be carried coastwise, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the daytime, (that is to say,) from the 1st day of September until the last day of March between sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the last day of March until the 1st day of September, between the hours of 7 of the clock in the morning and 4 of the clock in the afternoon: nor shall any such goods be so unshipped, shipped, or waterborne unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs, nor unless at places which shall be appointed or approved by the proper officer of the customs.— § 115.

Goods prohibited or restrained.— Whenever any goods which may be prohibited to be exported by proclamation or by order in council, under the authority of this act, shall be prohibited, it shall be lawful in such proclamation or order in council to prohibit or restrict the carrying of such goods coastwise; and if any such goods shall be carried coastwise, or shall be shipped or waterborne to be carried coastwise, contrary to any such prohibition or restriction, the same shall be forfeited.— § 116.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade, which entered inwards and cleared outwards, with Cargoes, at the several Ports of the United Kingdom, in 1843 and 1844, distinguishing the Vessels employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland from other Coasters.

	Entered inwards.				Cleared outwards.			
	1843.		1844.		1843.		1844.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
Employed in the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland.	10,104	1,255,901	10,117	1,249,273	16,760	1,670,574	16,946	1,817,756
Other coasting vessels.	121,357	9,566,275	123,751	9,615,431	124,937	9,650,564	128,294	9,277,161
Totals	131,461	10,822,176	133,868	10,864,707	141,697	11,321,138	145,242	11,694,861

COBALT (Ger. *Kobalt*; Du. *Kobal*; Sw. *Cobalt*; Fr. *Cobalt*; It. *Cobalto*; Rus. *Kobalt*; Lat. *Cobaltum*), a mineral of a grey colour, with a shade of red, and by no means brilliant. It has scarcely any taste or smell; is rather soft; specific gravity about 8.6. Sometimes it is composed of plates, sometimes of grains, and sometimes of small fibres adhering to each other. Its oxides are principally employed. — (See *SMALTS*, or *SMALTZ*.) They form the most permanent blue with which we are acquainted. The colouring power of oxide of cobalt on vitrifiable mixtures is greater, perhaps, than that of any other metal. One grain gives a full blue to 240 grains of glass. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*, and *Ure's Dictionary*.)

COCULUS INDICUS, or **INDIAN BERRY** (Sans. *Kakamari*; Malay. *Tubaidigi*), the fruit of the *Mentipernum Cocculus*, a large tree of the Malabar coast, Ceylon, &c. It is a small kidney-shaped berry, having a white kernel inside, of a most unpleasant taste. It is of a poisonous and intoxicating quality, and has been employed to adulterate ale and beer. But its employment in that way is prohibited under a penalty of 200*l.* upon the brewer, and of 500*l.* upon the seller of the drug, by the 56 Geo. 3. c. 58.

COCHINEAL (Ger. *Koschenilze*; Du. *Conchenilze*; Fr. *Cochenille*; It. *Cocciniglia*; Sp. *Cochinilla*; Grana; Port. *Cochinilha*; Rus. *Konsuel*), an insect (*Coccus cacti*) found in Mexico, Georgia, South Carolina, and some of the West India islands: recently, also, it has been introduced into Java, and promises to become an important product of that rapidly improving colony. Formerly it was in Mexico only that it was reared with care, and formed a valuable article of commerce; but its culture is now more or less attended to in various parts of the West Indies and of the United States. It is a small insect, seldom exceeding the size of a grain of barley; and was generally believed, for a considerable time after it began to be imported into Europe, to be a sort of vegetable grain or seed. There are two sorts or varieties of cochineal: the best or domesticated, which the Spaniards called *grana fina*, or fine grain; and the wild, which they call *grana villosa*. The former is nearly twice as large as the latter; probably because its size has been improved by the favourable effects of human care, and of a more

copious and suitable nourishment, derived solely from the *Cactus cochineifer*, during many generations. Wild cochineal is collected six times in the year; but that which is cultivated is only collected thrice during the same period. The insects, of which there are about 70,000 in a pound, being detached from the plants on which they feed by a blunt knife, are put into bags, and dipped in boiling water to kill them, after which they are dried in the sun. It is principally used in the dyeing of scarlet, crimson, and other esteemed colours. The watery infusion is of a violet crimson; the alcoholic, of a deep crimson; and the alkaline, of a deep purple, or rather violet hue. It is imported in bags, each containing about 200 lbs.; and has the appearance of small, dry, shrivelled, rugose berries or seeds, of a deep brown, purple, or mulberry colour, with a white matter between the wrinkles. In this state they suffer no change from length of keeping. Dr. Bancroft says that that cochineal is the best, which is "large, plump, dry, and of a silver white colour on the surface."

The species of cochineal called *granilla*, or dust, is supposed by Dr. Bancroft to be principally formed of *grana sylvestra*. The insects of which it consists are smaller than those composing the *finis cochineal*; and it does not yield more than a third part of the colouring matter that is yielded by the latter. The cochineal insect was introduced into India in 1795; but a very inferior sort only is produced. It has also been introduced into Java and Spain, but with what success remains to be seen. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory; Bancroft on Colours, &c.*)

An Account of the Quantities of Cochineal Imported into the United Kingdom in 1839, 1840, and 1841, specifying the Countries whence it came, and the Quantities brought from each, and specifying also the Quantities entered for Consumption, and the Produce of the Duties, in each of the 3 Years ending with 1842.

Countries.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
British West Indies	473,439	564,064	901,349	
Cuba and other foreign West Indies	55,560	14,180	11,405	
United States of America	160,553	190,789	190,443	
Mexico	195,303	41,074	80,678	
Guatemala	-	235,555	54,174	
Elsewhere	115,505	19,799	13,708	
Total Imports	1,001,581	1,105,554	566,587	
Quantities entered for home consumption	-	510,588	1,120,655	604,867
Duties paid thereon	-	£ 36 19 10	£ 36 15 2	£ 283 17 11

The duties on cochineal were reduced (foreign from 6*s.*, and colonial from 2*d.* per lb.) in 1842 to 1*s.* a cwt.

The price of cochineal fluctuated very much during the war, partly on account of the obstacles which it occasionally threw in the way of importation, and partly on account of its being an article of direct government expenditure. In 1814 the price of the best cochineal was as high as 35*s.* and 39*s.*; and it has since gone on regularly declining, with hardly a single rally, till it has sunk to from 4*s.* to 6*s.* per lb. Previously to the war it had never been under 12*s.* or 13*s.* Lac dye has recently been employed to some extent in dyeing scarlet; but notwithstanding this circumstance, the consumption of cochineal, occasioned, no doubt, partly by its cheapness, and partly, perhaps, by some change of fashion, has been materially increased since 1824. This, however, has not had any material influence on its price; and it would appear, from the long continuance of low prices, not only without any diminution, but with a large increase of imports, that they are still sufficient to remunerate the growers of the article. — (*Tooke, &c. on High and Low Prices; Cook's Commercial Circulars.*)

COCOA, or, more properly, CACAO, (Fr. and Sp. *Cacao*; Ger. *Kakao*) the seed or nuts of the cocoa tree (*Theobroma cacao*), growing in the West Indies, and in many parts of South America. It is said, by Mr. Bryan Edwards, to bear some resemblance, both in size and shape, to a young *blackheart cherry*. The nuts are contained in pods, much like a cucumber, that proceed immediately from all parts of the body and larger branches; each pod contains from 20 to 30 nuts, of the size of large almonds, very compactly set. The shell of the nut is of a dark brown colour, brittle, and thin; the kernel is, both internally and externally, brownish, divided into several unequal portions, adhering together, but separating without much difficulty; it has a light agreeable smell, and an unctuous, bitterish, rather rough and peculiar, but not ungrateful taste. The nuts should be chosen full, plump, and shining, without any mustiness, and not worm-eaten. They yield, by expression, a great deal of oil; but they are cultivated only that they may be employed in the preparation of the excellent beverage cocoa, and the manufacture of chocolate, of which they form the principal ingredient. The finest cocoa is said to be that of Socomusco. The principal importations are, however, derived from the Caraccas and Guayaquil, particularly the former, the cocoa of which is, also, the more valuable. The exports from Guayaquil amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1838, to 8,878,255 lbs. a year. — (*Geog. Dict. art. GUAYAQUIL.*)

M. Humboldt estimated the consumption of cocoa in Europe, in 1806, at 29,000,000 lbs., of which from 6,000,000 to 9,000,000 were supposed to be consumed in Spain. The production of cocoa had been languishing in the Caraccas for several years previously to the commencement of the disturbances in South America; and latterly the cultivation

of one or other of the great staples of cotton, sugar, and coffee, seems to have been, in most parts, gaining the ascendancy. — (*Humboldt, Pers. Narrative*, vol. iv. pp. 236—247. Eng. trans.)

Duties. Consumption in England. — Down to a late period the consumption of cocoa in England was confined within very narrow limits; a result which we are inclined to ascribe to the oppressiveness of the duties with which it has been loaded, and not to its being unsuitable to the public taste. It is now many years since Mr. Bryan Edwards declared that the ruin of the cocoa plantations, with which Jamaica once abounded, was the effect of "the heavy hand of ministerial exaction." — (*Hist. of West Indies*, II. 263. ed. 1819.) And, unaccountable as it may seem, this pressure was not materially abated till 1832, when the duties on cocoa from a British possession were reduced from 6*d.* to 2*d.* per lb. And such has been the influence of this judicious measure, that the consumption of cocoa, which, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, amounted to 440,578 lbs. a year, had increased, at an average of the 2 years ending with 1842, to 2,072,332 lbs. It is seen from the accompanying table that the duty on foreign cocoa continued from 1830 down to 1842 to be (generally 6*d.* per lb.), three times as great as that on coffee from a British possession; and in consequence of this enormous discrepancy, none of it was entered for home consumption under the duty, though it is worthy of remark that cocoa for the navy, which pays no duty, is almost always taken from foreign stock. In 1842 the duty on cocoa from a British possession was farther reduced 1*d.* per lb.; and it might have been expected that the ratio of protection in favour of plantation cocoa would then, also, have been diminished; but, on the contrary, it has been increased from 300 to 400 per cent., the duty on foreign cocoa being at this moment 4*d.* per lb.

Cocoa nut husks and shells may be imported and entered for consumption on paying a duty (if from a British possession) of about 4*d.* per lb. They are brought not only from the West Indies, but from Gibraltar and other places, being the refuse of the chocolate manufacturers carried on in them.

Cocoa cannot be entered as being the produce of a British possession in America, or of the Mauritius, until the master of the ship by which it is imported delivers to the collector or comptroller a certificate and declares that the goods are the produce of such places. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 37.) Neither shall they be deemed to be the produce of such places, unless imported direct from thence. — (7 Geo. 4. c. 48.)

No abatement of duty is made on account of any damage received by cocoa. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 32.)

An Account of the Quantity, in Pounds Weight, of Cocoa imported into the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1832 down to 1842, both inclusive, specifying the Quantities annually entered for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty, and the Total Annual Produce of the Duty: — Also, a similar Return for Cocoa Husks and Shells.

Years.	Cocoa.					Years.	Cocoa Husks and Shells.				
	Quantities imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Quantities re-ported to be re-ceived thereon.	Rates of Duty per Lb.			Quantities imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Quantities re-ported to be re-ceived thereon.	Rates of Duty per Lb.	
				Of British Possessions.	Foreign.					Of British Possessions.	Foreign.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	£			Lbs.	Lbs.	£			
1832	2,971,019	1,150,193	14,352	2 <i>d.</i>	6 <i>d.</i> (from 5 <i>d.</i> August.)	1832	349,504	399,978	3,374	1 <i>d.</i> (from 3 <i>d.</i> August.)	
1833	4,259,565	1,268,287	9,979	—	—	1833	515,688	449,158	1,978	—	
1834	4,294,394	1,175,795	9,799	—	—	1834	404,039	345,746	1,819	—	
1835	4,118,556	1,076,170	9,799	—	—	1835	475,401	368,422	2,533	—	
1836	3,788,441	1,150,169	9,434	—	—	1836	485,648	454,144	2,987	—	
1837	2,853,000	1,418,613	11,801	—	—	1837	511,757	481,170	1,995	—	
1838	4,296,409	1,601,787	13,586	—	—	1838	384,848	21,548	1,729	—	
1839	1,654,666	1,606,800	15,403	—	—	1839	609,309	418,157	2,147	—	
1840	3,499,746	2,041,678	17,515	2 <i>d.</i>	6 <i>d.</i> (from 15 <i>d.</i> May)	1840	692,091	753,660	3,229	1 <i>d.</i> (from 15 May)	
1841	5,014,861	1,928,847	18,891	—	—	1841	598,172	566,278	2,508	—	
1842	5,172,225	2,246,473	18,368	1 <i>d.</i>	4 <i>d.</i> (from 9 <i>d.</i> July.)	1842	839,770	640,057	2,800	Of & from British Possessions. Of & from Foreign Countries.	

Sources of Supply. — Trinidad furnishes by far the largest proportion of the cocoa brought from the British West Indies, the imports from that island, in 1841, having amounted to 2,493,302 lbs., while the imports from all the other islands amounted to only 426,296 lbs. Of 5,014,681 lbs. cocoa imported in 1841, 2,920,293 lbs. were brought from the West India colonies, 1,802,947 lbs. from Columbia, and 291,794 from Brazil.

British plantation cocoa was worth in bond in the London market, in June 1843, from 3*d.* to 4*d.* a cwt.

COCO, COKER, or, more properly, **COCOA NUTS** (Ger. *Kokonüsse*; Du. *Koekoeten*; Fr. and Sp. *Cocos*; It. *Cocchi*; Rus. *Kokos*; Sans. *Narikela*), the fruit of a species of palm tree (*Cocos nucifera* Lin.). This tree is common almost every where within the tropics, and is one of the most valuable in the world. It grows to the height of from 50 to 90 feet; it has no branches, but the leaves are from 12 to 14 feet in length, with a very strong middle rib. The fruit is nearly as large as a man's head; the external rind is thin, tough, and of a brownish red colour; beneath this there is a quantity of very tough fibrous matter, which is used in many countries in the manufacture of cordage, and coarse sail-cloth — (see *CORA*); within this fibrous coating is the shell of the nut, which is nearly globular, very hard, susceptible of a high polish, and used for many domestic purposes; the kernel is white, in taste and firmness resembling that of a hazel nut; it is hollow in the interior, the hollow being filled with a milky fluid. While the nut is green, the whole hollow of the shell is filled with fluid, which is refreshing, agreeable, and pleasant to the taste. The solid part of the ripe kernel is extremely nutritious, but rather indigestible. The kernels yield by expression a great deal of oil, which, when recent, is equal to that of sweet almonds; but it soon becomes rancid, and is then employed by painters. A tree generally yields about 100 nuts, in clusters near

the top of about a dozen each. The wood of the tree is made into boats, rafters, the frames of houses, and gutters to convey water. The leaves are used for thatching buildings; and are wrought into mats, baskets, and many other things, for which osiers are employed in Europe; so that every part of it is applied to some useful purpose.

If the body of the tree be bored, there exudes from the wound a white liquor, called palm wine or toddy. It is very sweet when fresh; kept a few hours, it becomes more poignant and agreeable; but next day it begins to grow sour, and in the space of 24 hours is changed into vinegar. When distilled, it produces the best species of Indian arrack; it also yields a great deal of sugar. Toddy is obtained from several species of palms, but that of the *Cocos nucifera* is the best. — (See *Ainslie's Materia Indica*; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.)

An improvement has recently been effected in the preparation of cocoa oil, which promises to be of much importance in the arts, by making it available in the manufacture of candles and soap, and for various purposes to which it was not previously applicable.

The palm oil met with in the market is not obtained from the *Cocos nucifera*, but from another species of palm. It is chiefly imported from the coast of Guinea. — (See PALM OIL.)

Cocoa nuts are produced in immense quantities in Ceylon, forming, with their products, — oil, arrack, and coir, — the principal articles of export from that island. They are also very abundant in the Maldivé Islands, Siam, and on several places of the coast of Brazil. Cocoa oil is in very extensive use all over India, and large quantities are manufactured in the lower provinces of Bengal. This latter is said to be superior to that imported from Ceylon.

The duty on cocoa nuts, which is imposed by tale, was judiciously reduced in 1832, from 6s. per 100 on those from a British possession to 1s. per 1,200; those from a foreign country pay 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

COD (Ger. *Kabjau*, *Bakalau*; Du. *Kabelfaauw*, *Baukaelja*; Da. *Kabliu*, *Shreitorsk*, *Bakelau*; Sw. *Kabelfjo*, *Bakelau*; Fr. *Morue*, *Cabillaud*; It. *Baccala*, *Baccalare*; Sp. *Bacalao*; Port. *Bacalhão*; Lat. *Gadus*), a species of fish, too well known to require any description. "It is amazingly prolific. Leewenhoek counted 9,384,000 eggs in a cod-fish of a middling size; a number that will baffle all the efforts of man to exterminate. In our seas they begin to spawn in January, and deposit their eggs in rough ground, among rocks. Some continue in roe till the beginning of April.

"The cod is only found in the northern parts of the world; it is an ocean fish, and never met with in the Mediterranean. The great rendezvous of the cod-fish is on the banks of Newfoundland, and the other sand banks that lie off the coast of Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, and New England. They prefer those situations, by reason of the quantity of worms produced in these sandy bottoms, which tempt them to resort there for food. But another cause of the particular attachment the fish have to these spots is their vicinity to the polar seas, where they return to spawn: there they deposit their roes in full security; but want of food forces them, as soon as the more southern seas are open, to repair thither for subsistence. Few are taken to the north of Iceland, but they abound on its south and west coasts. They are also found to swarm on the coasts of Norway, in the Baltic, and off the Orkney and Western Isles; after which their numbers decrease in proportion as they advance towards the south, when they seem quite to cease before they reach the mouth of the Straits of Gibraltar.

"Before the discovery of Newfoundland, the greater fisheries of cod were on the seas of Iceland, and off our Western Isles, which were the grand resort of ships from all the commercial nations; but it seems that the greatest plenty was met with near Iceland. The English resorted thither before the year 1415; for we find that Henry V. was disposed to give satisfaction to the King of Denmark for certain irregularities committed by his subjects on those seas. In the reign of Edward IV. the English were excluded from the fishery, by treaty. In later times, we find Queen Elizabeth condescending to ask permission to fish in those seas, from Christian IV. of Denmark. In the reign of her successor, however, no fewer than 150 English ships were employed in the Iceland fishery; which indulgence might arise from the marriage of James with a princess of Denmark." — (*Pennant's British Zoology*.)

Cod is prepared in two different ways; that is, it is either gutted, salted, and then barrelled — in which state it is denominated green or pickled cod, — or it is dried and cured — in which state it is called dried cod. Ready access to the shore is indispensable to the prosecution of the latter species of fishery.

Cod Fishery, British. — This fishery, including under the term not only that of common cod, but of haddock, ling, hake, torsk, &c., is of very considerable value and importance. It consists of two grand departments, which may be respectively termed the *home*, and the *distant* or *colonial* fishery. The first is carried on in a great variety of places contiguous to the shores of the British islands; but the most productive and valuable of the adjacent fisheries are those in the neighbourhood of the Shetland and Orkney islands, and off the shores of Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, &c. Formerly the principal part of the cod brought to London was taken round the edges of the Dogger-bank, or rather in the hollows between it and the Well-bank; and the finest is still brought from thence. But within the last few years the London market has been in great part supplied with cod taken between Yarmouth and the Nore; and in conse-

quence of its being procured so much nearer home, the average price of cod has fallen from 30 to 50 per cent. below what it was from 1815 to 1820. — (*Report on the Channel Fisheries*, p. 85.) This change has occasioned a great increase in the number of fishing smacks belonging to Barking, Gravesend, and other ports on the Thames; while those belonging to Harwich and the more distant ports have been materially reduced. The cod taken by the fishermen of Shetland and the Western Isles is mostly cured dried, but it is partially, also, cured green or in pickle; and it is sometimes, though much seldom now than formerly, conveyed alive in walled vessels to London. The haddocks taken on the Aberdeenshire coast, and cured at the village of Finnan, near Aberdeen, are held in the highest estimation. The haddocks taken in Dublin bay are the largest of any taken on the British coasts.

There are no means by which to form any estimate either of the number of fishing vessels, or of the quantity or value of the fish annually taken in the home cod fishery; by far the larger portion being landed without account or notice of any kind, and disposed of fresh. The following account contains such particulars only as have been brought under the notice of the commissioners for the improvement of the British fisheries.

Account of the Total Quantity of Cod, Ling, or Hake, cured, punched, or branded, and exported, since 1826, in so far as the same has been brought under the Cognisance of the Officers of the Fishery Board.

Periods.	Total Quantity of Cod, Ling, or Hake cured.			Total Quantity of Cod, Ling, or Hake punched or branded.		Total Quantity of Cod, Ling, or Hake exported.	
	Cured dried.	Cured in Pickle.		Cured dried.	Cured in Pickle.	Cured dried.	Cured in Pickle.
Year ended 5th April, 1826	Cwt. 89,156	Cwt. 3,834	Barrils. 5,791	Cwt. 66,319	Barrils. 5,337	Cwt. 7,281	qrs. 114
1827	95,161	9,273	9,093	82,185	8,094	14,081	3 27
1828	88,215	6,798	5,148	73,133	5,609	15,936	2 0
1829	81,521	5,768	6,819	73,500	5,914	20,287	3 4
1830	101,014	5,664	8,361	92,314	8,461	16,369	5 15
1831	37,647	—	2,953	34,377	2,459	11,980	1 1
1832	50,263	—	3,779	18,779	3,230	20,169	3 15
1833	58,461	—	6,467	13,561	4,393	14,731	1 26
1834	58,710	—	7,293	16,854	3,268	16,396	3 0
1835	44,152	—	3,767	9,424	2,235	10,632	0 0
1836	36,040	—	6,276	6,766	3,018	10,992	0 0
1837	36,978	—	7,374	9,589	3,308	10,105	0 0
1838	44,996	—	10,203	9,299	4,373	22,166	2 13
1839	85,279	—	10,651	25,866	5,063	36,701	5 0
1840	83,660	—	6,033	21,658	3,303	39,656	1 0
1841	81,494	—	6,490	21,093	3,881	30,550	1 0
1842	76,819	—	7,034	15,253	2,164	13,993	1 0

N.B.—The books of this department do not exhibit the total quantity of cod, ling, or hake cured till the year commencing 5th of April, 1825. The bounty from the commencement of this abstract to the 5th of April, 1830, was near 4s. per cwt. for fish cured dried, and 2s. 6d. per barrel for fish cured in pickle, taken by the crews of vessels or boats not on the tonnage bounty; while the bounty vessels licensed for cod, ling, or hake fishery, on the tonnage bounty, was 50s. per ton for tonnage and cargo to the 5th of July, 1826; 45s. from thence to the 5th of July, 1827; 40s. to the 5th of July, 1828; and 35s. to the 5th of April, 1830; when the bounties ceased altogether, and have not since been renewed.

Distant Cod Fishery.—The great bank of Newfoundland, discovered by John or Sebastian Cabot in 1497, was long, and perhaps still is, the principal seat of the distant cod fishery. The extraordinary abundance of cod-fish on its banks having been speedily ascertained, the French, Portuguese, and Spaniards soon after engaged in the fishery. The English were later in coming into the field. In 1578, France had on the banks of Newfoundland 150 vessels, Spain 120 or 130, Portugal 50, and England from 30 to 50. During the first half of last century, the fishery was principally carried on by the English, including the Anglo-Americans, and the French; but the capture of Cape Breton, and of their other possessions in America, gave a severe blow to the fishery of the latter. The American war divided the British fishery; that portion of it which had previously been carried on from New England being thereafter merged in that of the United States. Still, however, we contrived to preserve the largest share. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1789, we are said to have had 402 ships, 1,911 boats, and 16,856 men, engaged in the American fisheries. During last war, the French being excluded from the fisheries, those of England attained to an extraordinary degree of prosperity; the total value of the produce of the Newfoundland fishery in 1814 having exceeded 2,800,000. But since the peace, the British fishery on the Newfoundland banks has rapidly declined; and can hardly, indeed, be said, at this moment, to exist. It is now carried on almost entirely by the French and the Americans; the facilities enjoyed by the latter for its prosecution being greater than those of any other people, and the former being tempted to engage in it by the extraordinary encouragements afforded by government. At present, the British fishery carried on by the inhabitants of Newfoundland is confined entirely to the shore or boat fishery. But this, though probably not so good a nursery of sailors as the bank fishery, is admitted to be "the most productive of merchantable fish and oil." — (*McGregor's British America*, 2d ed. vol. i.

p. 206.) The average annual produce of the fisheries of all sorts, including seal, salmon, &c., exported from Newfoundland, during the 3 years ended with 1832, is stated by Mr. M'Gregor to have amounted to 516,417*l*. — (Vol. I. p. 161.) A considerable fishery is also carried on from the ports and harbours of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, New Brunswick, &c. But next to that of Newfoundland, the principal British fishery is carried on along the coast of Labrador. We borrow from the valuable work now referred to, the following statements with respect to it:—

"During the fishing season, from 280 to 300 schooners proceed from Newfoundland to the different fishing stations on the coast of Labrador, where about 20,000 British subjects are employed for the season. About one third of the schooners make two voyages, loaded with dry fish, back to Newfoundland during the summer, and several merchant vessels proceed from Labrador with their cargoes direct to Europe, leaving, generally, full cargoes for the fishing vessels to carry to Newfoundland. A considerable part of the fish of the second voyage is in a green or pickled state, and dried afterwards at Newfoundland. Eight or nine schooners from Quebec frequent the coast, having on board about 80 seamen and 100 fishermen. Some of the fish caught by them is sent to Europe, and the rest to Quebec; besides which, they carry annually about 6,000*l*. worth of furs, oil, and salmon to Canada.

"From Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, but chiefly from the former, 100 to 120 vessels resort to Labrador. The burden of these vessels may amount to 6,000 or 7,000 tons, carrying about 1,300 seamen and fishermen. They generally carry the principal part of their cargoes home in a green state.

"One third of the resident inhabitants are English, Irish, or Jersey servants, left in charge of the property in the fishing rooms, and who also employ themselves, in the spring and fall, catching seals in nets. The other two thirds live constantly at Labrador, as furriers and seal-catchers on their own account, but chiefly in the former capacity, during winter, and all are engaged in the fisheries during summer. Half of these people are Jerseymen and Canadians, most of whom have families.

"From 16,000 to 15,000 seals are taken at Labrador in the beginning of winter and in spring. They are very large; and the Canadians, and other winter residents, are said to feast and fatten on their flesh. About 4,000 of these seals are killed by the Esquimaux. The whole number caught produce about 850 tons of oil, value about 8,000*l*." — (Vol. I. p. 185.)

The total produce of the Labrador fishery in 1832 was estimated by Mr. M'Gregor at 302,050*l*.; and he farther estimated the total produce of the British fisheries in the various seas and rivers of America, including seal oil and skins, at an average of the 5 years ending with 1832, at 887,310*l*. year. — (Vol. II. p. 596.) We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities and Value of each kind of Fish taken in the Newfoundland Fishery (including that carried on at Labrador by Boats from Newfoundland) in 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Description.	1837.		1838.		1839.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
Cod-fish, dried	848,098	4528,098	781,515	4484,649	865,377	4508,157
Core fish	5,431	9,218	4,408	9,011	1,325	507
Salmon	2,785	9,185	4,408	15,310	5,032	11,692
Herrings	4,138	9,466	15,736	10,728	20,806	13,940
Mackerel	-	-	-	4	-	-
Caplin, cod sounds, and tongue	1,961	738	948	911	925	210
Seal and cod oil, and blubber	2,109,738	280,041	3,178,674	249,429	2,344,959	246,269
Seal skins	255,254	34,835	575,361	80,474	437,301	46,536
Total value	-	4857,849	-	4790,885	-	4836,011

Note. — The number of ships employed in the fisheries cannot be ascertained; and the number of boats was 6,159.

About eight tenths of the dried fish exported from Newfoundland by British subjects are sent to Spain, Portugal, Italy, and other Continental nations; the rest goes to the West Indies and to Great Britain.

The act 5 Geo. 4. c. 51. contains several regulations with respect to the Newfoundland fisheries. Aliens are prohibited from fishing on the coasts, or in the bays or rivers of Newfoundland, excepting, however, the rights and privileges granted by treaty to foreign states at amity with his Majesty.

All British subjects may take, cure, and dry fish, occupy vacant places, cut down trees for building, and do other things useful for the trade. — § 3.

Certificates shall be granted to vessels clearing out for the fishery; and on arrival at Newfoundland a report shall be made of such certificate, and registered; and on leaving the fishery the usual clearance shall be obtained. Vessels having on board any goods other than fish, &c. to forfeit the fishing certificate. — § 4.

Persons throwing out ballast, &c. to the prejudice of the harbours in Newfoundland, shall be subject to a penalty. — § 5.

A contract in writing, specifying wages, and how to be paid, must be entered into with seamen and fishermen. — § 7.

A fisherman is prohibited receiving more than three fourths of his wages during service; but the balance due to him is to be paid immediately upon the expiration of the contracted time of service. No fisherman to be turned off, except for wilful neglect of duty, or other sufficient cause, under a penalty, for such offence, of not less than 5*l*. nor more than 50*l*.

In order to fulfil the conditions in any treaty with a foreign state, his Majesty may empower the governor of Newfoundland to remove any works erected by British subjects for the purpose of carrying on the fishery between Cape St. John and Cape Ray, and to compel them to depart to another place. — § 12.

Every person so refusing to depart shall forfeit 50*l*. — § 13.

The governor is empowered to sell or lease places within the island called Ship-rooms. — § 14.

For the regulations, &c. as to the importation of fish into Great Britain, see FISHERY.

It is doubtful whether the distant cod fishery may not have passed its zenith. Spain, Italy, and other Catholic countries, have always been the great markets for dried fish; but the observance of Lent is every day becoming less strict; and the demand for dried fish will, it is most likely, sustain a corresponding decline. The relaxed observance of Lent in the Netherlands and elsewhere has done more than any thing else to injure the herring fishery of Holland.

Cod Fishery, American. — The Americans have at all times prosecuted the cod fishery with great vigour and success. Their fishermen are remarkable for their activity and

enterprise, sobriety, and frugality; and their proximity to the fishing grounds, and the other facilities they possess for carrying on the fishery, give them advantages with which it is very difficult to contend. In 1795, the Americans employed in the cod fishery about 31,000 tons of shipping; in 1807, they are said to have employed 70,306 tons; but it subsequently declined for several years, and was almost entirely suspended during the late war. According to the official returns (laid before Congress the 21st of July, 1842), the Americans had in the year ending the 30th of September, 1841, 66,556 tons shipping engaged in the cod fishery. During the same year they exported 252,199 quintals of dried, and 36,508 barrels of pickled cod; their aggregate value being 751,783 dollars.

"The Americans follow two or more modes of fitting out for the fisheries. The first is accomplished by 6 or 7 farmers, or their sons, building a schooner during winter, which they man themselves (as all the Americans on the sea coast are more or less seamen as well as farmers); and after fitting the vessel with necessary stores, they proceed to the banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or Labrador; and, loading their vessel with fish, make a voyage between spring and harvest. The proceeds they divide, after paying any balance they may owe for outfit. They remain at home to assist in gathering their crops, and proceed again for another cargo, which is salted down, and not afterwards dried; this is termed mud-fish, and kept for home consumption. The other plan is, when a merchant, or any other, owning a vessel, lets her to 10 or 15 men on shares. He finds the vessel and nets. The men pay for all the provisions, hooks and lines, and for the salt necessary to cure their proportion of the fish. One of the number is acknowledged master; but he has to catch fish as well as the others, and receives only about 30c. per month for navigating the vessel; the crew have five eighths of the fish caught, and the owners three eighths of the whole.

"The first spring voyage is made to the banks; the second either to the banks, Gulf of St. Lawrence, or the coast of Labrador; the third or fall voyage, is again to the banks; and a fourth, or second fall voyage, is also made, sometimes, to the banks."—(Mr. Gregor, vol. 1. p. 290.)

It is stipulated in the first article of a convention between Great Britain and the United States, signed at London, 20th of October, 1818, that the subjects of the United States shall have liberty to take all sorts of fish "on that part of the coast of Newfoundland from Cape Ray to the Ramsons Islands, on the western and northern coasts of Newfoundland from Cape Ray to the Quirpon Islands, on the Magdalen Islands, and also on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks, from Mount Joly, on the southern coast of Labrador, and through the Straits of Belleisle, and thence northward indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson's Bay Company; and that the American fishermen shall also have liberty, for ever, to dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of the southern part of the coast of Newfoundland here above described, and of the coast of Labrador; but so soon as the same, or any portion thereof, shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish without previous agreement for such purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground. And the United States hereby renounce for ever any liberty heretofore enjoyed or claimed by the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, or cure fish on or within 3 marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbours of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America not included within the above mentioned limits." The American fishermen are, however, admitted into all bays, &c. for the purpose of shelter, of repairing damages, of purchasing wood, and of obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatever; and when there, they are to be placed under such restrictions as may be necessary to prevent their abusing the privileges hereby reserved to them.

Cod Fishery, French.—France has always enjoyed a considerable share of the cod fishery. The following Table shows the extent to which she has carried it since the peace.

Account of the Number of Ships, with their Tonnage, Crews, and Cargoes, that have entered the different Ports of France during the under-mentioned Years.

Years.	Shipping.			Imports.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Codfish, green.	Codfish, dry.	Oil.
1795	828	35,173	6,511	Quint. 72,289	Quint. 138,237	Quint. 14,945
1820	377	45,036	6,174	104,003	156,437	11,560
1826	653	55,311	11,323	161,627	67,748	15,570
1840	458	24,243	6,897			
1841	449	24,064	5,259		204,740	17,968

The quantities of oil are exclusive of *draches* (hules non epurés); there are also sounds, &c. Marseilles, Granville, Dunkirk, Bordeaux, La Rochelle, and Nantes, are the principal ports whence ships are fitted out for the fishery.

But notwithstanding the apparent prosperity of this branch of industry, it may be doubted whether it be really so beneficial to France as would at first sight appear. It depends more upon artificial regulations than upon any thing else. Foreign cod is excluded from the French markets by the oppressive duty with which it is loaded; and the comparatively great demand for dried fish in Catholic countries renders this a very great boon to the French fishermen. But it is admitted that this would not be enough to sustain the fishery; and high bounties are paid to those engaged in it. These, however, have been reduced of late years; and they will probably, in no long time, undergo still further alterations.

St. Pierre and Miquelon, small islands on the coast of Newfoundland, belong to the French. Their right of fishing upon the shores of that island, and upon the great bank, was replaced, in 1814, upon the footing on which it stood in 1792. This concession has been much objected to by Mr. M'Gregor and others: we believe, however, that they have materially over-rated its influence.

COFFEE (Ger. *Kaffee*, *Kaffeebohnen*; Du. *Kaffy*, *Kaffeeboonen*; Da. *Kaffe*, *Kaffebønner*; Sw. *Kaffe*; Fr. It. and Port. *Caffè*; Sp. *Cafè*; Rus. *Koffè*; Pol. *Kawa*; Lat. *Coffea*, *Caffea*; Arab. *Bun*; Malay. *Kawa*; Pers. *Tschem*, *Kowsh*; Turk. *Choube*), the berries of the coffee plant (*Coffea Arabica* Lin.). They are generally of an oval form, smaller than a horse-bean, and of a tough, close, and hard texture; they are prominent on the one side and flattened on the other, having a deeply marked furrow running lengthwise along the flattened side; they are moderately heavy, of a greenish colour, and a somewhat bitterish taste.

Historical Notices of Coffee. — The coffee plant is a native of that part of Arabia called *Yemen* — *terris fuba misa Sabæis*; but it is now very extensively cultivated in the southern extremity of India, in Java, the West Indies, Brazil, &c. We are ignorant of the precise period when it began to be roasted, and the decoction used as a drink, though the discovery is not supposed to date further back than the early part of the fifteenth century. No mention of it is made by any ancient writer; nor by any of the moderns previously to the sixteenth century. Leonhart Rauwolf, a German physician, is believed to be the first European who has taken any notice of coffee. His work was published in 1573, and his account is, in some respects, inaccurate. Coffee was, however, very accurately described by Prosper Albinus, who had been in Egypt as physician to the Venetian consul, in his works *de Plantis Egypti*, and *de Medicina Egyptiorum*, published in 1591 and 1592.

A public coffee-house was opened for the first time, in London, in 1652. A Turkey merchant, of the name of Edwards, having brought along with him from the Levant some bags of coffee, and a Greek servant accustomed to make it, his house was thronged with visitors to see and taste this new sort of liquor; and, wishing to gratify his friends without putting himself to inconvenience, he allowed his servant to make and sell coffee publicly. In consequence of this permission, the latter opened a coffee-house in Newman's Court, Cornhill, on the spot where the Virginia Coffee-house now stands. Garraway's was the first coffee-house opened after the great fire in 1666. — (See the learned and elaborate treatise of Moseley on coffee, 5th ed. p. 15.)^{*}

M. de la Roque mentions that the use of coffee was introduced into France between 1640 and 1660; and he further states, that the first coffee-house for the sale of coffee in France was opened at Marseilles, in 1671. — (*Voyage de la Syrie*, tom. ii. pp. 310—319.) It was hardly, however, known, except to a few travellers who had visited the East, till 1669, when it was introduced to the best society in Paris by Solyman Aga, ambassador from the Grand Seignior to Louis XIV. It immediately became fashionable; and the taste for it having been quickly diffused, a coffee house was opened for its sale in 1672, which, in no long time, had several competitors. — (See the excellent work of Le Grand D'Aussy, *Vie Privée des Français*, iii. 127. ed. 1815.)

Some time between 1680 and 1690, the Dutch planted coffee beans they had procured from Mocha, in the vicinity of Batavia. In 1690, they sent a plant to Europe; and it was from berries obtained from this plant that the first coffee plantations in the West Indies and Surinam were derived.

Progressive Consumption of Coffee in Great Britain. Influence of the Duties. — In 1660, a duty of 4d. a gallon was laid on all coffee made and sold. Previously to 1732, the duty on coffee amounted to 2s. a pound; but an act was then passed, in compliance with the solicitations of the West India planters, reducing the duty to 1s. 6d. a pound; at which it stood for many years, producing, at an average, about 10,000*l.* a year. In consequence, however, of the prevalence of smuggling, caused by the too great magnitude of the duty, the revenue declined, in 1783, to 2,869*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.* And it having been found impossible otherwise to check the practice of clandestine importation, the duty was reduced, in 1784, to 6d. The consequences of this wise and salutary measure were most beneficial. Instead of being reduced, the revenue was immediately raised to near three times its previous amount, or to 7,200*l.* 15*s.* 9*d.*, showing that the consumption of legally imported coffee must have increased in about a *winefold proportion*! — a striking and conclusive proof, as Mr. Bryan Edwards has observed, of the effect of heavy taxation in defeating its own object. — (*Hist. of the West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 340. 8vo. ed.)

The history of the coffee trade abounds with similar and even more striking examples of the superior productiveness of low duties. In 1807, the duty was 1*s.* 8*d.* a pound; and the quantity entered for home consumption amounted to 1,170,164 lbs., yielding a revenue of 161,245*l.* 11*s.* 4*d.* In 1808, the duty was reduced from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 7*d.*;

^{*} Charles II. attempted, by a proclamation issued in 1675, to suppress coffee-houses, on the ground of their being resorted to by dissipated persons, who "devised and spread abroad divers false, malicious, and scandalous reports, to the defamation of his Majesty's government, and to the disturbance of the peace and quiet of the nation." The opinion of the Judges having been taken as to the legality of the proceeding, they resolved, "That retailing coffee might be an innocent trade; but as it was used to nourish sedition, spread lies, and scandalise *great men*, it might also be a common nuisance!"

and in 1809, no fewer than 9,251,847 lbs. were entered for home consumption, yielding, notwithstanding the reduction of duty, a revenue of 245,856*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* The duty having been raised, in 1819, from 7*d.* to 1*s.* a pound, the quantity entered for home consumption, in 1824, was, 7,998,041 lbs., yielding a revenue of 407,544*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* In 1824, however, the duty being again reduced from 1*s.* to 6*d.*, the quantity entered for home consumption, in 1825, was 10,766,112 lbs., and in 1831 it had increased to 22,740,697 lbs., yielding a nett revenue of 583,781*l.*

The rapid increase in the consumption from 1825 to 1839 must not, however, be wholly ascribed to the reduction of the duty. This, no doubt, had the greatest influence; but a good deal is also owing to the low price of coffee from 1824 to 1830; and also to the great reduction during the same period in the price of low brown sugar (fully 1*½d.* per pound), a cheap and abundant supply of which is so indispensable to the extensive use of coffee.

These statements, which are principally deduced from the accompanying account, No. I., refer to the consumption of Great Britain only; but the account No. II. includes the United Kingdom, and is brought down to 1844. The most remarkable features in this account are the reduction of the duty on coffee from the East Indies and Ceylon to the same level as that on coffee from the West Indies, and the farther reduction of the duty on coffee from British possessions in 1842 to 4*½d.* per lb. The equalisation of the duty on East and West India coffee had become indispensable after the rapid decline in the supplies from the West Indies consequent to the emancipation of the slaves; for, as foreign coffee is burdened with a high discriminating duty, the price of British coffee must otherwise have risen to such a height as materially to interfere with the consumption. The latter, indeed, has not increased since 1832, in the ratio which might have been expected from the increasing wealth and population of the country, and, in fact, rather declined during the years 1840, 1841, and 1842. This result was no doubt in part to be ascribed to the then comparatively depressed situation of the manufacturing classes; but we believe that it was mainly owing to the admixture of chicory, and other matters, with coffee. We have already seen (art. CHICORY) the extent to which chicory is produced free of duty in this country, and the rapid increase of its culture; and as it is wholly used as a substitute for coffee, or rather as a means for its adulteration, we need not be surprised at the stationary consumption of the latter, even with low prices and a reduced duty. It is, indeed, indispensable, if we would do justice to the coffee planters, and protect the revenue, either to lay the same duty on chicory that is laid on coffee, or if that be impracticable, to grub up the chicory plantations, on making compensation to their owners. But exclusive of chicory, it is affirmed, and we believe truly, that other and more objectionable substances have latterly been extensively employed in the adulteration of coffee. Something, perhaps, may be done to obviate such frauds by increased vigilance on the part of the police and the revenue officers; but the only effectual remedy is to buy coffee before it is ground; and as a mill for grinding may be bought for a small sum, and coffee is sold ready "roasted," there is, in this way, no great difficulty in obviating adulteration. Those who use ground coffee will also be secure against fraud if they resort only to shops of the highest character.

We observed in the former edition of this work, that "sound policy would seem to suggest that the duty on foreign coffee should be materially reduced; for though it be absolutely less now than formerly, it amounts to 8*½d.* per pound, being double that on coffee from a British possession. But its reduction to about 6*d.* per pound, at the same time that it would allow Brazil and other foreign coffee to be freely entered for consumption in the event of the supply of British colonial coffee becoming deficient, or rising in price, would leave a protection of no less than 50 per cent. in favour of the latter; which surely is as much as can be conceded with any due regard to the interests of the consumer." And we are glad to have to state that, in 1844, the duty on foreign coffee was reduced to 6*½d.* per lb.

The introduction of tea and coffee, it has been well remarked, "has led to the most wonderful change that ever took place in the diet of modern civilised nations, — a change highly important both in a moral and physical point of view. These beverages have the admirable advantage of affording stimulus without producing intoxication, or any of its evil consequences. Lovers of tea or coffee are, in fact, rarely drinkers; and hence the use of these beverages has benefited both manners and morals." — (*Scotsman*, 17th of October, 1827.) So early as 1710, the famous Latin poet Vanierius described the preparation and eulogised the virtues of coffee.

— "Illo medicamine vates
Ingenium emendat, lectusque infecta resumat
Carmina; nec fontes allos, quibus ara potitæ
Proluerint, fluxisse solum malo credit Achivo."

L. lib. xi. p. 272. ed. 1774.

I.—An Account of the Quantity of Coffee retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Produce of the Duties, in each Year from 1790 to 1832, both inclusive.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption. Lbs.	Rates of Duty on			Net Revenue of Customs and Excise.		
		British Plantations. Per lb. s. d.	East India. Per lb. s. d.	For cent. ad valorem. s. d.	£	s.	d.
1790	390,141	0 10½	3 0½	Nil.	46,965	17	11
1791	973,110	—	—	—	60,799	7	6
1792	1,047,376	—	—	—	57,636	5	11
1793	946,666	—	—	—	48,836	6	9
1794	1,070,438	—	—	—	67,357	11	9
1795	966,812	—	—	—	74,430	4	6
1796	1,054,668	1 5½	3 6½	—	65,748	8	7
1797	937,001	1 5½	3 7	—	67,048	6	11
1798	937,487	1 5½	3 7½	—	92,459	3	11
1799	694,432	1 5½	3 7½	3 0 0	79,966	6	9
1800	925,500	—	—	—	74,001	3	3
1801	750,661	1 5½	2 7	2 0 0	142,867	11	3
1802	820,435	1 6	3 7½	2 0 0	108,073	3	7
1803	908,533	1 0½	1 11½	3 16 3	72,183	3	8
1804	1,061,327	1 7½	2 0½	3 2 6	73,093	15	8
1805	1,301,736	1 7½	3 0	3 2 6	191,366	0	11
1806	1,137,014	1 7½	3 0	3 3 9	130,172	18	7
1807	1,170,164	—	—	3 7 11	159,750	8	9
1808	1,089,691	0 7	0 10	3 7 11	161,945	11	4
1809	9,251,837	0 7	0 10	3 6 8	329,739	16	8
1810	5,308,056	—	—	—	245,466	6	4
1811	6,290,152	—	—	—	175,567	1	4
1812	8,118,734	—	—	—	212,959	12	10
1813	8,788,601	0 7½	0 10½	3 19 2	268,184	7	1
1814	5,394,367	0 7½	0 11½	Nil.	213,513	18	4
1815	6,117,311	—	—	—	268,769	16	3
1816	7,687,471	—	—	—	290,434	0	11
1817	8,686,736	—	—	—	298,540	5	1
1818	7,967,657	—	—	—	250,106	4	10
1819	7,429,352	1 0	1 6	—	292,154	8	10
1820	5,869,246	—	—	—	340,223	8	7
1821	7,327,253	—	—	—	371,269	5	6
1822	7,424,304	—	—	—	374,656	19	7
1823	8,200,245	—	—	—	418,224	3	9
1824	7,993,040	—	—	—	407,644	4	3
1825	10,766,112	0 6	0 9	—	307,304	14	3
1826	12,724,139	—	—	—	334,667	11	1
1827	14,674,378	—	—	—	384,984	13	9
1828	16,522,423	—	—	—	425,269	3	7
1829	18,006,373	—	—	—	484,975	10	8
1830	21,840,520	—	—	—	558,544	3	10
1831	21,747,813	—	—	—	699,431	19	6
1832	22,053,326	—	—	—	676,264	18	9

II.—An Account of the Quantity, in Pounds Weight, of Coffee Imported into the United Kingdom, the Quantity retained for Consumption, the Produce of the Duties, and the Rates of Duty on the same, in each Year from 1820.

Years.	Quantities imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the U. Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon. £	Rates of Duty per Pound.		
	Lbs.	Lbs.		£	s.	d.
1820	48,841,626	7,103,409	342,828	Of any British possession in America or Africa	—	0 1 0
				From any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter	—	0 1 6
				All other coffee	—	0 2 6
1821	45,237,869	7,503,001	384,243	—	—	—
1822	44,003,124	7,669,351	387,312	—	—	—
1823	45,063,373	8,184,920	428,613	—	—	—
1824	50,674,249	8,262,943	430,586	—	—	—
1825	52,507,618	11,062,570	315,804	Of any British possession in America	0 0 6	
				Of any British possession within the limits of E. I. Company's charter	—	0 0 3
				Of any other place	—	0 1 3
				(From 5th April.)	—	—
				Of any British possession in America	0 0 6	
				Of Sierra Leone	—	0 0 9
				Imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter	—	0 0 9
1826	42,017,103	13,199,235	336,570	Imported from any other place within those limits	—	0 1 0
				Otherwise imported	—	0 1 3
				(From 5th July.)	—	—
1827	47,534,047	15,560,117	399,690	—	—	—
1828	41,069,731	17,114,635	440,245	—	—	—
1829	39,074,215	19,406,028	408,651	—	—	—
1830	40,952,163	22,669,253	579,363	—	—	—
1831	41,607,828	22,715,807	583,751	—	—	—
1832	49,682,939	22,952,627	508,038	—	—	—
1833	34,426,109	22,741,684	501,241	—	—	—
1834	41,865,111	23,785,050	614,134	—	—	—

Table 11.—continued.

Years.	Quantities im- ported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities re- tained for Home Consumption in the United King- dom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty per Pound.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	£ s. d.
1835	28,308,493	23,295,046	652,124	Of any B. poss. in America, or within the limits of the E. I. Co.'s charter, or of Sierra Leone - - - - - 0 0 6 Imported from any B. poss. within the limits of the E. I. Co.'s charter, not being the produce thereof - - - - - 0 0 9 Imported from any other place within those limits - - - - - 0 1 0 Otherwise imported - - - - - 0 1 3 (From 9th September.)
1836	24,054,837	24,947,690	691,616	
1837	36,412,514	26,346,961	696,645	
1838	30,932,279	25,768,673	685,082	
1839	41,003,316	26,789,945	779,115	
1840	70,250,766	28,664,341	921,551	Of any B. poss. in America, or within the limits of the E. I. Co.'s charter, or of Sierra Leone - - - - - 0 0 6½ Imported from any B. poss. within the limits of the E. I. Co.'s charter, not being the produce thereof - - - - - 0 0 9½ Imported from any other place within those limits - - - - - 0 1 0½ Otherwise imported - - - - - 0 1 5½ (From 15th May.)
1841	43,317,762	28,370,857	887,747	Of and from British possessions - - 0 0 4½ Of and from foreign countries - - 0 0 8½ (From 9th July.)
1842	41,444,414	28,519,616	768,986	Of and from foreign countries (From 6th June.) - - 0 0 6½
1843	38,942,469	29,679,404	697,376	
1844	46,523,188	31,352,382	681,616	
1845	50,377,915	31,318,095	717,871	
1846	51,813,651	36,793,061	756,838	
1847	55,354,044	37,411,373	746,436	

111.—An Account exhibiting the different Sources whence the Coffee imported into the United Kingdom in 1841, 1842, and 1843, was derived, with the Quantities imported from each, and the total Quantities retained for Home Consumption.

Countries from which imported.	Imported in 1841.			Imported in 1842.			Imported in 1843.		
	Prod. of British Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.	Prod. of British Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.	Prod. of British Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
British posses- sions in the W. Indies -	9,904,230	23,459	9,927,689	9,186,555	305,091	9,491,646	8,352,088	278,022	8,630,110
Sierra Leone and W. Coast of Africa -	402	93,842	94,244	588	63,613	64,203	274	15,009	15,283
Cape of Good Hope -	-	11,633,259	11,633,259	-	1,572,027	1,572,027	-	540	540
Mauritius -	534	61,079	61,606	69,012	33	69,045	43,268	348,656	691,264
E. India Com- pany's terri- tories, exclu- sive of Singa- pore -	39,192	2,305,036	2,344,228	72,592	2,804,918	2,877,510	463,875	3,346,349	3,810,217
Singapore -	-	6,463,853	6,463,853	166	4,174,718	4,174,884	3,379	487,850	490,229
Ceylon -	7,098,213	330	7,098,543	11,156,637	1,387	11,158,024	9,215,619	-	9,215,619
Java -	-	8,104	8,104	-	43,063	43,063	-	2,880,174	2,880,174
Philippine Islands -	-	-	-	-	26	26	-	64,607	64,607
Havill -	-	843,361	843,361	-	1,559,699	1,559,699	-	380,320	380,320
Cuba -	-	743,223	743,223	-	2,019,626	2,019,626	-	1,034,247	1,034,247
Porto Rico -	-	1,181	1,181	-	78,466	78,466	-	357,705	357,705
Columbia -	-	1,753,879	1,753,879	-	1,746,911	1,746,911	-	3,886,715	3,886,715
Brazil -	-	2,191,823	2,191,823	-	5,835,348	5,835,348	-	4,925,114	4,925,114
Chili -	-	70	70	-	413,651	413,651	-	4,297,545	4,297,545
Holland -	-	98,211	98,211	-	207,287	207,287	-	716,235	716,235
Other parts -	28,421	59,088	87,509	75	25,256	25,331	110	73,863	73,973
Total Import	17,061,992	26,256,770	43,317,762	20,481,655	20,962,759	41,444,414	18,377,533	20,661,916	38,942,469
Quantities re- tained for Home con- sumption in U. K. -	17,532,448	10,836,409	28,370,857	17,299,916	11,219,730	28,519,646	20,130,630	9,818,774	29,979,404
Amount of duty received thereon -	£ 460,701	£ 427,016	£ 887,747	£ 854,984	£ 413,902	£ 768,886	£ 352,682	£ 344,694	£ 697,376

It should be observed, with reference to the large quantity of coffee from the Cape of Good Hope admitted to consumption in 1842, that this coffee was not grown in the Cape Colony, but was sent to it from Brazil, Java, and other foreign countries. This round-about importation grew out of the fact that, the Cape being a British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, foreign coffee carried to it might, under the regulations established in 1835 and 1840, be imported thence and entered

for home consumption in the United Kingdom, on paying 6d. per lb. less duty than if it had been imported direct from the place of its growth. And this advantage was sufficient to make the coffee of Brazil, Cuba, Hayti, and other countries, intended for England, be carried to the Cape in the first instance. The act of 1842 has put an end to this costly and absurd method of introducing foreign coffee into our markets, by charging it with the same duty, however imported. The magnitude of the duty on foreign coffee is the only thing, in respect of its importation, that can possibly be now objected to.

Supply and Consumption of Coffee.—Owing to the increasing consumption of coffee in this country, the Continent, and America, the great value of the article, the large amount of capital and labour employed in its production, and the shipping required for its transport, it has become a commodity of primary commercial importance. It deserves particular attention, too, inasmuch as there are few, if any, articles that exhibit such variations, not only as to consumption, but also as to growth and price. These are occasioned partly by changes of commercial regulations and duties, and partly, also, by the plant requiring 4 or 5 years before it comes to bear; so that the supply is neither suddenly increased when the demand increases, nor diminished when it falls off. St. Domingo used formerly to be one of the greatest sources of supply, having exported, in 1786, about 35,000 tons; and it is supposed that, but for the negro insurrection which broke out in 1792, the exports of that year would have amounted to 42,000 tons. The devastation occasioned by this event caused, for a series of years, an almost total cessation of supplies. They have again, however, increased, and are understood to amount, at present, to about 15,000 tons a year. From Cuba, the exports of coffee have, for some years, owing partly to an increased consumption in the island, and partly to the efforts of the planters having been more directed to the cultivation of sugar, been comparatively stationary. They may at present amount to about 22,000 tons, or, including Porto Rico, to 25,000 tons. In Java and Brazil, the culture of coffee has increased with unprecedented rapidity (see *HATAVIA* and *RIO JANEIRO*); so much so, that the exports from Java, which did not, a few years ago, exceed 18,000 tons, now amount to at least 65,000; while those from Brazil, which have increased in an equal degree, amount to about 80,000 tons. The growth of coffee in India and Ceylon has been very greatly increased, especially in the latter, where, within the last few years, the plantations have been so much extended, that it is believed their produce will very shortly equal the present consumption of the U. Kingdom. There has, no doubt, been a serious decrease in the exports of coffee from the British West Indies; the imports into the U. Kingdom having declined from 11,014 tons in 1832 to 4,147 do. in 1844; but when reference is made to the whole supply, this diminution is but inconsiderable.

The following may, we believe, be regarded as a pretty fair estimate of the present (1848) exports of coffee from the principal places where it is produced, and of the annual consumption in those countries into which it is imported from abroad.

Exports.		Tons.
Mocha, Hodelda, and other Arabian ports	.	8,000
Java	.	65,000
Sumatra and other parts of Foreign India	.	8,000
Brazil and the Spanish Main	.	80,000
Hayti	.	15,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	.	25,000
British West India colonies	.	4,000
India and Ceylon	.	131,000
Dutch West Indies	.	5,000
French West Indies and the Isle de Bourbon	.	8,000
		231,000
Consumption.		Tons.
Great Britain	.	17,000
Netherlands and Holland	.	40,500
Germany, Russia, and countries round the Baltic	.	50,000
France, Spain, Italy, Turkey in Europe, the Levant, &c.	.	50,000
The United States	.	45,000
Canada, Australia, &c.	.	8,000
		210,500

Of the entire export of coffee from Arabia, not more, perhaps, than 4,000 or 5,000 tons finds its way to the places mentioned above; so that, supposing these estimates to be about correct, it follows that the supply of coffee at present exceeds the demand by about 20,000 tons a-year. The latter, however, is rapidly increasing; and it is not easy to say whether it be destined to outrun, keep pace with, or fall short of the supply. On the whole, however, we should be inclined to think, that though they may occasionally vary to the extent of a few thousand tons on the one side or the other, the probability is that the supply and demand will be pretty nearly balanced; so that, supposing peace to be preserved, we do not anticipate any very great variation of price. When prices are considerably depressed, consumption is stimulated, and production checked, and conversely when prices are high. Oscillations will, no doubt, continue to take place in future, as they have done hitherto; but unless the cost of producing coffee

a. d.
0 6
0 9
1 0
1 3
0 6 1/2
0 9 3/4
1 0 1/2
1 5 1/2
0 4 1/2
0 8 1/2
0 6 1/2
King-
e total
Total.
Lbs.
5,530,110
15,383
519
591,564
1,810,217
490,209
215,619
880,174
84,607
380,389
258,287
857,704
886,705
925,114
937,515
70,255
75,972
842,169
Lbs.
1979,404
897,576
Cape
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should be seriously affected, which probably is not very likely, (unless some violent measures should be adopted with respect to the slaves in Brazil,) they will not be more than temporary.

The consumption of coffee in the United States has increased with great rapidity since 1821, in which year it amounted to only 5,306 tons. Part of this increase is, no doubt, to be ascribed to the reduction of the duty, first from 5 to 2 cents per pound, and its subsequent repeal; part to the fall in the price of coffee; and a part, perhaps, to the increase of temperance societies. Probably, also, it was in some degree ascribable to the comparatively high duties formerly laid on the teas imported into the United States; these, however, finally ceased in 1833.

Account of the Imports of Coffee into the United States, the Exports from the same, and the Quantities left for Home Consumption, during each of the 12 Years ending the 30th of September, 1841.— (Papers published by Order of Congress.)

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Left for Home Consumption.
1835	103,199,577 lbs.	11,446,775 lbs.	91,752,802 lbs. 40,961 tons.
1836	93,790,507	18,143,207	77,647,300 34,664
1837	98,140,403	12,096,332	76,044,071 33,948
1838	88,139,720	5,267,087	82,871,633 36,996
1839	106,696,992	6,824,475	99,872,517 44,886
1840	94,996,095	6,698,334	86,297,761 38,625
1841	114,984,783	6,784,536	108,200,247 48,750

According to Mr. Cook, the prices of Jamaica and St. Domingo (Hayti) coffee, exclusive of duty in the London market, at the close of each year, since 1830, have been—

Years.	Jamaica.	St. Domingo.	Years.	Jamaica.	St. Domingo.
1830	32s. to 7s. per cwt.	34s. to 35s. per cwt.	1837	75s. to 127s. per cwt.	42s. 6d. to 44s. per ct.
1831	50 — 86	45 — 46	1838	77 — 141	43 — 45s. 6d.
1832	60 — 90	55 — 57	1839	88 — 146	47 — 49
1833	77 — 110	65 — 66	1840	73 — 148	41 — 43s. 6d.
1834	68 — 124	48 — 52	1841	54 — 144	37 — 42
1835	80 — 113	51 — 53	1842	47 — 138	31 — 34
1836	66 — 120	46 — 54			

The following Statement shows the Prices of the different varieties of Coffee in the London Market, 6th December, 1845.

Jamaica:—	s. d.	s. d.	Havannah:—	s. d.	s. d.
Good middling to fine, of the mountain	120 0	130 0	Good ordinary foy	4 0	35 0
quality	—	—	Ordinary	27 0	39 0
Low to good middling	78 0	80 0	Cuba:—	—	—
Firm to firm ordinary	68 0	69 0	Ventura or washed	58 0	68 0
Good ordinary	48 0	52 0	Ordinary	30 0	33 0
Ordinary and triage	25 0	40 0	Laguaira:—	—	—
Demerara and Berbice:—	—	—	Fine	60 0	70 0
Low to good middling	56 0	76 0	Good ordinary	40 0	50 0
Fine and fine fine ordinary	55 0	58 0	Low	38 0	50 0
Good ordinary	46 0	48 0	Costa Rica:—	—	—
Ordinary and triage	25 0	35 0	Good middling	70 0	80 0
Ceylon (native growth):—	—	—	Fine ordinary and low middling	38 0	45 0
Good ordinary	47 0	49 0	Good ordinary	36 0	44 0
Ordinary	44 0	45 0	St. Domingo	30 0	34 0
Triage	19 0	25 0			
Carlon (plantation):—	—	—			
Good middling and fine	80 0	95 0			
Low middling and middling	68 0	75 0			
Fine and fine fine ordinary	60 0	66 0			
Good ordinary pale	52 0	55 0			
Triage	35 0	44 0			
Mocha:—	—	—			
Fine yellow, long berry	78 0	84 0			
Middling and good middling yellow	62 0	71 0			
Ordinary brown	52 0	58 0			
Uncarried	43 0	44 0			
Mysore	48 0	50 0			
Java:—	—	—			
Company's	46 0	48 0			
Sincapura	38 0	38 0			
Panang	22 0	25 0			
Sumatra	21 0	22 0			
Mantilla:—	—	—			
Good to fair ordinary	38 0	36 0			
Brazil: Rio:—	—	—			
Plantation or washed	58 0	66 0			
Good ordinary colony	30 0	34 0			
Ordinary	30 0	38 0			
Bahia:—	—	—			
Good ordinary colony	30 0	34 0			
Ordinary	30 0	38 0			

Species of Coffee. Roasting, &c.— The coffees of Jamaica, Ceylon, and Mocha are generally esteemed the best; then follow the coffees of Costa Rica, Dominica, Berbice, Demerara, Bourbon, Java, Martinique and Hayti. Arabian or Mocha coffee is produced in a very dry climate, the best being raised upon mountainous slopes and sandy soils. The most fertile soils are not suitable for the growth of very fine coffee. Mr. Bryan Edwards observes, that "a rich deep soil, frequently ameliorated by showers, will produce a luxuriant tree and a great crop; but the beans, which are large, and of a dingy green, prove, for many years, rank and vapid." And the same remark is made by Mr. Crawford, with respect to the coffee of Java.—(East Indian Archipelago, vol. 1. p. 487.) Coffee is improved by being kept; it then becomes of a paler colour. Coffee berries readily imbibe exhalations from other bodies, and thereby acquire an adventitious and disagreeable flavour. Sugar placed near coffee will, in a short time, so impregnate the berries, and in-

Coffee is sold in bond: the business being done in the public market either by private or public sales. It is always sold as landing weights and retent tares; the latter being on casks, barrels, and boxes identical with the real tares, and an average rate on boxes and bags. Draft is allowed for as follows; viz. on packages weighing under 1 cwt., 1 lb.; 1 cwt. and under 3 cwt., 2 lbs.; 3 cwt. and under 5 cwt., 4 lbs.; and 5 cwt. and upwards 5 lbs. Coffee is sold at a prompt 1 month, allowing a discount of 3 1/2 per cent. or 1 per cent. Thus the coffee of St. Domingo, Havannah, and Brazil, (with the exception of the "plantation" variety of the last two) are sold at a discount of 2 1/2 per cent., whereas all coffee of British plantations, or that liable to the low duty, including also the coffees of Laguaira, Costa Rica, "plantation" Rio and Havannah, Mocha, Java, and other East India varieties, are sold at a discount of 1 per cent. The following *Pro forma* account of the sale of coffee from Ceylon may be taken as representing coffee sold at a discount of 1 per cent., and that of the sale of Rio coffee as representing coffee sold at a discount of 3 1/2 per cent. (but, of course, the freight and insurance would vary according to the port it came from. These sales are made out as if the goods were sold within one month from arrival. There is no charge for rent, as the consolidated rate covers that charge for 12 weeks. Coffee is always rent-free to the purchaser to the prompt day, and lies at the seller's risk till then, unless paid for.

COINS, pieces of metal, most commonly gold, silver, or copper, impressed with a public stamp, and frequently made legal tender in payment of debts, either to a limited or an unlimited extent.

1. *Circumstances which led to the Introduction and Use of Coins.* — When the precious metals first began to be used as money, or as standards by which to measure the value of different articles, and the equivalents for which they were most commonly exchanged, they were in an unfashioned state, in bars or ingots. The parties having agreed upon the quantity of metal to be given for a commodity, the exact amount was then ascertained by weight. But it is obvious that a practice of this sort must have been attended with a great deal of trouble and inconvenience. There can, however, be little doubt that the greatest obstacle to the use of unfashioned metals as money would be found in the difficulty of determining their quality, or the degree of their purity, with sufficient precision. The operation of assaying is one of great nicety and difficulty; and could not be performed in the early ages otherwise than in a clumsy, tedious, and inaccurate manner. It is, indeed, most probable, that when the precious metals were first used as money, their quality would be appreciated only by their weight and colour. A very short experience would, however, be sufficient to show the extreme inexactness of conclusions derived from such loose and unsatisfactory criteria; and the devising of some method, by which the fineness of the metal might be easily and correctly ascertained, would very soon be felt as indispensable to the general use of gold and silver as money. Such a method was not long in presenting itself: it was early discovered, that, to ascertain the purity of the metal, and also to avoid the trouble and expense of weighing it, no more was necessary than to mark each piece with a *stamp*, declaring its weight and fineness. This invention was made at a very early period. According to Herodotus, the Lydians were the first who coined money. — (Lib. i. c. 94.) Other ancient authors say that the art of coining was invented during the period when Saturn and Janus reigned in Italy; that is, in a period antecedent to authentic history. — (*Goguet, de l'Origine des Loix, &c. tom. i. p. 267.*)

2. *Metal used in the Manufacture of Coins.* — Before the art of metallurgy was well understood, the baser metals were frequently used as money. Iron was the primitive money of the Laacedemonians, and copper of the Romans. But both iron and copper deteriorate by being kept; and besides this defect, the rapid improvement of the arts, by lowering their price, rendered their bulk too great in proportion to their value to permit of their continuing to be used as money. Copper, indeed, is still used in the form of tokens, convertible into silver in very small payments. In this country, copper pence and halfpence are rated at about 72 per cent. above their real value; but as their issue is exclusively in the hands of government, and as they are only legal tender to the extent of one *shilling* in any one payment, this over-valuation is not productive of any bad effect. The use of copper in other countries is limited in much the same way; gold and silver being every where the only metals made use of in the manufacture of the coins used in considerable payments.

3. *Standard of Coins.* — By the standard of a coin, is meant the degree of its purity, and its weight; that is, the fineness of the metal of which it is made, and the quantity of metal contained in it.

(1.) *Silver Coins.* — A pound Troy, or 12 ounces, of the metal of which English silver coins are made, contains 11 oz. 2 dwts. pure silver, and 18 dwts. alloy. This pound is coined into 66 shillings; so that each shilling contains 80·727 grains fine silver, and 87·27 grains standard silver; and the *money pound*, consisting of 20 shillings, contains 1614·545 grains pure silver, and 1745·454 grains standard silver. From 1600 down to 1816, the pound weight of standard silver bullion was coined into 62 shillings. All the English silver coins have been coined out of silver of 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, from the Conquest to this moment, except for the short period of 16 years, from the 34th Henry VIII. to the 2d Elizabeth.

(2.) *Gold Coins.* — The purity of gold is not estimated by the weights commonly in use, but by an Abyssinian weight called a *carat*. The carats are subdivided into four parts, called grains, and these again into quarters; so that a *carat grain*, with respect to the common divisions of a pound Troy, is equivalent to 2½ dwts. Gold of the highest degree of fineness, or pure, is said to be 24 carats fine. When gold coins were first made at the English mint, the standard of the gold put in them was of 23 carats 3½ grains fine and ½ grain alloy; and so it continued, without any variation, to the 18th of Henry VIII., who, in that year, first introduced a new standard of gold of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats alloy. The first of these standards was called the old; and the second the new standard, or crown gold; because crowns, or pieces of the value of 5s., were first coined of this new standard. Henry VIII. made his gold coins of both these standards under different denominations; and this practice was continued by his successors until 1633. From that period to the present, the gold of which the coins of this kingdom have been made has been invariably of the *new* standard, or

rown gold; though some of the coins made of the old standard, previously to 1633, continued to circulate till 1732, when they were forbidden to be any longer current. — (*Liverpool on Coins*, p. 27.)

The purity of our present gold coins is, therefore, 11 parts fine gold and 1 part alloy. The sovereign, or 20 shilling piece, contains 113·001 grains fine gold, and 123·274 grains standard gold. The pound Troy of standard gold is coined into 46 $\frac{2}{3}$ sovereigns, or into 46l. 14s. 6d. The mint, or standard price of gold is, therefore, said to be 46l. 14s. 6d. per lb. Troy, or 3l. 17s. 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. an ounce.

The alloy in coins is reckoned of no value. It is allowed, in order to save the trouble and expense that would be incurred in refining the metals, so as to bring them to the highest degree of purity; and because, when its quantity is small, it has a tendency to render the coins harder, and less liable to be worn or rubbed. If the quantity of alloy were considerable, it would lessen the splendour and ductility of the metals, and would add too much to the weight of the coins.

The standard of the coins of foreign countries may be learned at a glance, by inspecting the *Table of Coins* subjoined to this article.

4. *Variations of the Standard.* — The value of all sorts of property being estimated, and the stipulations in almost all contracts for its purchase, sale, or hire, being made in money or coins, it is plain that no change can take place in the value of such money or coins, without virtually subverting these estimates and contracts, and enriching the debtor portion of society at the expense of the creditor portion, or *vice versâ*. As the cost of producing all commodities is liable to vary from improvements in the arts, the exhaustion of the present or the discovery of new sources of supply, none can be selected to serve as money or coin that may not vary in its real value. It is believed, however, that the precious metals vary less than any material that could be suggested. And with the exception of the extraordinary fall in their value caused by the discovery of the American mines, it seems to have been remarkably constant at other periods.

But in addition to the fluctuations naturally inherent in the value of coins, arising from variations in the cost of the metal of which they are made, their standard has been repeatedly changed. Notwithstanding that money or coin, from its being universally used as a scale by which to compute the value of all commodities, and as the equivalent for which they are commonly exchanged, is by far the most important of all the measures used in society; and should, consequently, be preserved as invariable as possible; there is none that has been so frequently altered. The necessities or extravagance of governments have forced them to borrow; and to relieve themselves of the incumbrances thus contracted, they have almost universally had recourse to the disgraceful expedient of degrading the coin; that is, of *cheating* those who lent them money, to the extent of the degradation, and of enabling every other debtor in their dominions to do the same.

The ignorance of the public in remote ages facilitated this species of fraud. Had the names of the coins been changed when the quantity of metal contained in them was diminished, there would have been no room for misapprehension. But, although the weight of the coins was undergoing perpetual, and their purity occasional, reductions, their ancient denominations were almost uniformly preserved; and the people who saw the same names still remaining after the substance was diminished; who saw coins of a certain weight and fineness circulate under the names of florins, livres, dollars, and pounds; and who saw them continue to circulate as such, after both their weight and the degree of their fineness had been lessened; began to think that they derived their value more from the *stamp* affixed to them by authority of government, than from the quantity of the precious metals they contained. This was long a very prevalent opinion. But the rise of prices which invariably followed every reduction of the standard, and the derangement that was thereby occasioned in every pecuniary transaction, undeceived the public, and taught them, and their rulers, the expediency of preserving the standard of money inviolate.

The standard may be reduced by simply raising the denomination of the coin; by ordering, for example, that a half-sovereign should pass for a sovereign, and the latter for a double sovereign, &c. If injustice be resolved upon, this is the least mischievous way in which it can be perpetrated, inasmuch as it saves all the trouble and expense of a recoinage. But as it renders the fraud obvious and glaring, it has rarely been resorted to; and most reductions have been effected either by diminishing the weight of the coins, or by increasing the proportion of alloy in the metal of which they are made, or both.

Originally the coins of all countries seem to have had the same denomination as the weights commonly used in them; and contained the exact quantity of the precious metals indicated by their name. Thus, the *talent* was a weight used in the earliest period by the Greeks, the *as* or *pondo* by the Romans, the *livre* by the French, and the *pound* by the English and Scotch; and the coins originally in use in Greece, Italy,

France, and England, bore the same names, and weighed precisely a talent, a pondo, a livre, and a pound. The standard has not, however, been preserved inviolate, either in modern or ancient times. It has been less degraded in England than any where else; but even here the quantity of silver in a pound sterling is less than the *third* part of a pound weight, — the quantity it contained in 1300. In France, the livre current in 1789 contained less than *one sixty-sixth* part of the silver implied in its name, and which it had actually contained previously to 1103. In Spain, and some other countries, the degradation has been carried still further.*

From 1296 to 1355, the coins of England and Scotland were of the same weight and purity; but at the last mentioned epoch the standard of Scotch money was, for the first time, sunk below that of England; and by successive degradations, the value of Scotch money, at the union of the crowns in 1600, was only a *twelfth* part of the value of the English money of the same denomination. It remained at this point till the union of the kingdoms cancelled the separate coinage of Scotland.

The gold and silver coins of Ireland have been for a considerable period the same as those of Great Britain; but, until 1825, they were nominally rated 8½ per cent. higher. This difference of valuation, which was attended with considerable inconveniences, was put an end to by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 79., which assimilated the currency throughout the empire.

The Tables annexed to this article contain all the information that can be desired by mercantile men with respect to the weight, fineness, &c. of English and Scotch gold and silver coins, from the earliest periods to the present moment.

5. *Mint, or Government Valuation of Gold and Silver Coins.* — If both gold and silver coins be made legal tenders, it is obviously indispensable that their value with respect to each other should be fixed by authority; or that it should be declared, that individuals shall be entitled to discharge the claims upon them by payments, either of gold or silver coins, according to some regulated proportion. The practice of making both metals legal tenders was long adopted in England. From 1257 till 1664, the value of gold coins was regulated by proclamation; or, which is the same thing, it was ordered that the gold coins, then current, should be taken as equivalent to certain specified sums of silver. — (*Liverpool on Coins*, p. 128.) From 1664, down to 1717, the relation of gold to silver was not fixed by authority; and silver being then the only legal tender, the value of gold coins fluctuated, according to the fluctuations in the relative worth of the metals in the market. But, in 1717, the ancient practice was again reverted to; and it was fixed that the guinea should be taken as the equivalent of 21 shillings, and conversely.

But the value of each of the precious metals is liable to perpetual changes. And hence, how accurately soever their proportional value, as fixed by the mint regulations, may correspond with the proportion which they actually bear to each other in the market when the regulation is made, the chances are 10 to 1 that it will speedily cease to express their relation to each other. But the moment that such a change takes place, it becomes the obvious interest of every one who has a payment to make, to make it in the *overvalued* metal; which, consequently, becomes the sole, or nearly the sole, currency of the country. Hence the reason why the coins of some countries are almost wholly of silver, and others almost wholly of gold. It is estimated, for example, that when it was fixed, in 1717, that the guinea should exchange for 21 shillings, gold was overvalued as compared with silver to the extent of 1½ per cent. — (*Liverpool on Coins*, p. 85.); and as the real value of silver with respect to gold continued to increase during the greater part of last century, the advantage of paying in gold in preference to silver became more decided, and ultimately led to the universal use of gold in all large payments, and to the fusion or exportation of all silver coins of full weight it. — (*Liverpool, loco cit.*)

In France, a different valuation of the metals has had a different effect. Previously to the recoinage in 1785, the *Louis d'or* was rated in the mint proportion at only 24 livres, when it was really worth 25 livres 10 sols. Those, therefore, who should have discharged the obligations they had contracted by payments of gold coin instead of silver, would plainly have lost 1 livre 10 sols on every sum of 24 livres. In consequence, very few such payments were made; gold was almost entirely banished from circulation, and silver became almost the only species of metallic money used in France. — (*Soy. Traité d'Economie Politique*, tom. i. p. 393.)

In 1816, however, a new system was adopted in this country; it being then enacted (56 Geo. 3. c. 68.), that gold coins only should be legal tender in all payments of more than 40 shillings. The pound of silver bullion, that had previously been coined into 62 shillings, was then also coined into 66 shillings, the additional four shillings being retained by government as a *seigniorage* or duty (amounting to 6½ per cent.) upon the

* For an account of the degradation of the coins of the ancient and modern Continental nations, see this article *Money*, in the Supplement to the old, or in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

coinage. To prevent the silver coins from becoming redundant, government has retained the power to issue them in its own hands. Under these regulations, silver has ceased to be a standard of value, and forms merely a subordinate or subsidiary species of currency, or change, occupying the same place in relation to gold that copper occupies in relation to itself. This system has been found to answer exceedingly well.

A good deal of difference of opinion has existed as to whether gold or silver coins are best fitted for being made legal tender. It does not seem that the one possesses any very striking advantage over the other; none, certainly, that would justify a change, after a selection has been made, and acted upon for any considerable period.

Down to 1626, a seignorage or duty upon the coinage was usually charged upon the gold and silver coins issued by the mint; and it may be easily shown that the imposition of such a duty, when it is not carried to an undue height, is advantageous. A coin is more useful than a piece of uncoined bullion of the same weight and purity; the coinage fitting it for being used as money, while it does not unfit it for being used for any other purpose. When, therefore, a duty or seignorage is laid upon coin equal to the expense of coinage, it circulates at its real value; but when this charge is defrayed by the public, it circulates at less than its real value, and is consequently either melted down or exported whenever there is any demand for bullion in the arts, or any fall in the exchange. It is, indeed, true, that were a seignorage to be laid on gold coins, it would be necessary, to prevent an enhancement of the value of the currency, that their weight should be proportionally reduced; and it is on this account better, perhaps, to let them remain on the present footing. But when a seignorage was laid on the silver coins, in 1816, it was not necessary to take the circumstance now alluded to into consideration; for as they were made subordinate to gold, and were intended to serve as change merely, its imposition had no tendency to raise the value of the currency, at the same time that it was calculated effectually to prevent the fusion of the coins, and to yield a small revenue to government.

6. *Coinage since 1790. Amount of Coin in Circulation.*—No. V. of the subjoined Tables shows the amount of the gold and silver coinage at the British mint, each year, from 1790 downwards.

It will be seen from this account, that gold coin to the amount of 60,126,047, has been coined at the mint between 1817 and 1841, both inclusive. It is not, however, possible to form any very precise estimate of the portion of this immense sum now in circulation. In consequence of the exemption of gold coin from any seignorage, large quantities of the coins carried abroad during an unfavourable exchange find their way to the foreign mints, where they are melted and recoined. Large quantities are also conveyed away by emigrants, of which no account is or can be taken; and it is neither possible to estimate the sums in the coffers of the different banks or of individuals. On the whole, however, we shall not perhaps be far wrong if we estimate the stock of coin at present (1843) in possession of the public and of the different private and joint stock banks (ex. Bank of England) at 30,000,000.

7. *The Exportation and Importation of Gold and Silver Coins* was formerly prohibited: but in 1819 it was enacted (59 Geo. 3. c. 49.), that they might be freely exported and imported, without being liable to any charge or duty whatever; and they may be imported without being either reported or entered at the Custom-house. This regulation has rendered it next to impossible to ascertain the value of the bullion imported.

8. *Forgery of Coin. Issue of forged or spurious Coins.*—The forgery of coin is an offence that is practised more or less at all periods. The most effectual means of preventing it is to improve the fabric of the genuine coins, to cut the dies with great delicacy, and occasionally to vary the form of the coins. During the lengthened period from 1770 down to 1816, the genuine silver coins in circulation were so much worn and defaced, that it was very difficult to distinguish between them and counterfeit, which, in despite of the severest penalties, were thrown into circulation in immense quantities. But since the issue of the new coins, in 1816, forgery has been comparatively rare. Sufficient time has not yet been afforded for determining the influence of the law exempting the offence of counterfeiting from the punishment of death.

9. *Law as to the counterfeiting, &c. of Coin.*—The acts as to this were consolidated and amended by the 2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 34., of which the following is a brief abstract:—

Counterfeiting the gold or silver coin of the realm, transportation for life, or for not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 4 years; and every such offence shall be deemed to be complete, although the counterfeiting be not finished.—§ 3.

Colouring counterfeit coin, or any pieces of metal, with intent to make them pass for gold or silver coin; colouring or altering genuine coin, with intent to make it pass for higher coin; transportation for life, or for any term not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for any term not exceeding 4 years.—§ 4.

Impairing the gold or silver coin, with intent to make the coin so impaired pass for gold or silver coin of full weight, transportation for not exceeding 14, nor less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 3 years.—§ 5.

Buying or selling, &c. counterfeit gold or silver coin for lower value than its denomination, importing counterfeit coin from beyond seas, transportation for life, or for not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 4 years.—§ 6.

Uttering counterfeit gold or silver coin, imprisonment for not exceeding 1 year; and uttering, accompanied by possession of other counterfeit coin, or followed by a second uttering within 10 days, imprisonment for not exceeding 2 years; every second offence of uttering after a previous conviction, shall

be felony; transportation for life, or for not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 4 years.—§ 7.

Having 3 or more pieces of counterfeit gold or silver coin in possession, with intent to utter the same, imprisonment for not exceeding 3 years; second offence, transportation for life, or for not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 4 years.—§ 8.

Making, mending, having possession of, or selling any mould, &c., or coining tools, or any press or engine, conveying tools or monies out of the mint without authority, felony; transportation for life, or for not less than 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 4 years.—§ 10, 11.

Counterfeiting any current copper coin, or making, mending, or having in his possession any coining tool, or buying, selling, &c. any counterfeit copper coin for lower value than its denomination, transportation for not exceeding 7 years, or imprisonment for not exceeding 3 years; and uttering any counterfeit copper coin, or having in his possession 3 or more pieces of counterfeit copper coin, imprisonment for not exceeding 1 year.—§ 12.

Gold or silver coin tendered to any person suspecting any piece to be counterfeit, may be broken by such person; and if it shall appear to be counterfeit, the person tendering shall bear the loss; but if it shall be of due weight, and appear to be of lawful coin, the person breaking it is to receive it at the rate it was coined for, and any dispute shall be finally determined by any justice; and the tellers of the Exchequer and the receivers-general of the revenue are to break or deface every piece of counterfeit coin tendered for payment.—§ 13.

Any person discovering any counterfeit coin, gold, silver, or copper, or any coining tool, is to carry the same forthwith before some justice, and on reasonable cause to suspect any person of counterfeiting, or having such coin, or any tool, &c., such justice may cause any place under the control of such suspected person to be searched, either in the day or night, and if any such coin or tool shall be found, to cause the same to be seized forthwith, and carried before a justice, who is to secure the same for the purpose of being produced in evidence, and afterwards of being delivered up to the mint.—§ 14.

The necessity of the evidence of any officer of the mint to prove counterfeit coin dispensed with.—§ 17. The court may order hard labour or solitary confinement.—§ 19.

The words "king's coin" include all coin lawfully current in the United Kingdom, and wilfully having, in any dwelling-house or other building, lodging, apartment, field, or other place, open or inclosed, whether belonging to or occupied by himself or not, and whether for his own use or benefit, or for that of another, shall be deemed having in his possession within this act.—§ 21.

Persons acting in the execution of this act, protected in the usual manner, by requiring notice of action, &c., and allowing tender of amends, &c.—§ 22.

10. *Convictions for Coining and Uttering.*—In the 7 years ending with 1818, 63 persons were convicted in England and Wales of the offence of counterfeiting the coin of the realm, of whom 1 was executed. In the next 7 years the convictions for coining were reduced to 14, but of these 5 were executed. In the last septennial period, ending with 1832, the convictions were 34, and the executions 7. The convictions for issuing forged coins in the first of the above periods were 21, in the second, 9, and in the third, 32.

TABLES RELATIVE TO THE COINS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND OTHER COUNTRIES.

No. I. ENGLISH COINS.—Account of the Quantity of *Fine Silver* coined into 20s. or the Pound Sterling; and the Quantity of *Standard Silver*, of 11 oz. 2 dwts. Fine and 11 dwts. Alloy, contained in 20s. or the Pound Sterling, in the different Reigns, from the Time of Edward I. to the Reign of William IV.—A similar Account with respect to Gold.—And an Account of the proportional Value of Fine Gold to Fine Silver, according to the Number of Grains contained in the Coins.—*Calculated in Grains and 1000ths Parts Troy Weight.*

A. D.	Anno Regni.	Silver.		Gold.		Proportionate Value of Standard Gold (Gold to Fine Silver, according to the Quantity of each Metal contained in the
		1.	2.	3.	4.	
		Number of Grains of Fine Silver in 20 Shillings, or the Pound Sterling, as coined by the Mint Indentures.	Number of Grains of Standard Silver, 11 oz. 2 dwts. Fine in 30 Shillings, or the Pound Sterling, as coined by the Mint Indentures.	Number of Grains of Fine Gold in 20 Shillings, or the Pound Sterling, as coined by the Mint Indentures.	Number of Grains of Standard Gold, 23 Carats fine, in 20 Shillings, or the Pound Sterling, as coined by the Mint Indentures.	
		<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>Gold to Silver.</i>
1506	Conquest	4,958,000	5,400,000			
1280	3 Edward I.	4,958,000	5,400,000			
1344	18 Edward III.	4,933,333	5,333,333	407,990	445,080	1 to 12,001
1349	23	4,440,000	4,800,000	383,705	418,588	1 — 11,571
1356	30	3,956,000	4,320,000	358,125	390,682	1 — 11,158
1401	2 Henry IV.	3,956,000	4,320,000	358,125	390,682	1 — 11,158
1421	5 Henry V.	3,330,000	3,600,000	322,312	331,618	1 — 10,331
1464	4 Edward IV.	2,664,000	2,880,000	257,850	281,291	1 — 10,331
1465	5	2,664,000	2,880,000	238,750	260,454	1 — 11,158
1470	49 Henry VI.	2,664,000	2,880,000	238,750	260,454	1 — 11,158
1482	22 Edward IV.	2,664,000	2,880,000	238,750	260,454	1 — 11,158
1502	1 Henry VIII.	2,664,000	2,880,000	238,750	260,454	1 — 11,158
1527	18	2,358,000	2,360,000	210,140	229,253	1 — 11,268
1543	34	2,000,000	2,162,162	191,666	209,090	1 — 10,434
1545	36	1,200,000	1,297,297	176,000	192,000	1 — 6,818
1546	37	800,000	864,864	160,000	174,545	1 — 8,000
1547	1 Edward VI.	800,000	864,864	160,000	174,545	1 — 8,000
1549	3	800,000	864,864	155,294	169,412	1 — 9,151
*1551	5	400,000				
		1,760,000	1,902,702	160,000	174,545	1 — 11,000
1552	6	1,768,000	1,911,351	160,000	174,545	1 — 11,050
1553	1 Mary	1,760,000	1,902,702	159,166	173,636	1 — 11,067
1560	2 Elizabeth	1,776,000	1,920,000	160,000	174,545	1 — 11,100
1600	43	1,718,709	1,858,064	157,612	171,940	1 — 10,904
1604	2 James I.	1,718,709	1,858,064	141,936	154,836	1 — 12,109
1626	2 Charles I.	1,718,709	1,858,064	128,780	140,487	1 — 13,346
1666	18 Charles II.	1,718,709	1,858,064	118,651	129,438	1 — 14,485
1717	3 George I.	1,718,709	1,858,064	118,001	123,374	1 — 15,269
1816	56 George III.	1,614,845	1,745,454	113,001	123,274	1 — 14,297

* 1551—5 Edward VI.] The coinage of debased silver money in the 5th year of Edward VI. of 3 oz. fine, ought more properly to be considered as Tokens. The sum of 120,000*l.* only was so coined.—(See *Janet's Essays*, chap. iv.)

† 1816—56 George III.] The government having taken the coinage of silver into its own hands, there is at present no fixed price paid to the public, by the mint, for standard silver. And supposing the government to continue the present mint regulations, and to keep gold at 77*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.* an ounce, as the price of silver varies, the relative value of gold to silver will vary in like proportion.

No. II. ENGLISH COINS.—Account of the English Silver and Gold Coins; showing their Value, the Seignorage or Profit upon the Coinage, and the Price of the Pound Troy of Standard Gold and Silver, from the Conquest to the present Time.

A. D.	Anno Regni.	Silver.								Gold.							
		1.		2.		3.		4.		5.		6.		7.		8.	
		Fineness of the Silver in the Coins.	Weight of such Silver coined into	Profit or Seignorage on the Coinage.	Equal to the Mint Price for Standard Silver of 11s. 3d. wt. fine Troy weight.	Fineness of the Gold in the Coins.	Weight of such Gold coined into	Profit or Seignorage on the Coinage.	Equal to the Mint Price for Standard Gold of 22 Carats fine Troy weight.	Crta. gra.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.			
1606	Conquest	Os. dts.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Crta. gra.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.				
1280	8 Edward I.	11 2	1 0 0	0 1 0	1 0 3½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1300	1 Edward II.	11 2	1 0 0	0 1 0	1 0 3½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1344	18 Edward III.	11 2	1 0 3	0 1 3	1 0 3½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1349	23 Edward III.	11 2	1 2 8	0 1 3	1 2 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1356	30 Edward III.	11 2	1 5 0	0 1 0	1 5 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1384	18 Richard II.	11 2	1 5 0	0 1 0	1 5 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1401	3 Henry IV.	11 2	1 5 0	0 1 0	1 5 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1421	9 Henry V.	11 2	1 10 0	0 1 0	1 10 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1425	4 Henry VI.	11 2	1 10 0	0 1 0	1 10 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1464	4 Edward IV.	11 2	1 17 6	0 4 6	1 15 2½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1465	5 Edward IV.	11 2	1 17 6	0 4 6	1 15 2½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1470	49 Henry VII.	11 2	1 17 6	0 4 6	1 15 2½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1482	22 Edward IV.	11 2	1 17 6	0 1 8	1 18 4	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1483	1 Richard III.	11 2	1 17 0	0 1 6	1 18 4	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1485	1 Henry VII.	11 2	1 17 6	0 1 6	1 18 4	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1509	1 Henry VIII.	11 2	1 17 6	0 1 0	1 18 11½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1527	18 Henry VIII.	11 2	2 5 0	0 1 0	2 4 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1543	34 Henry VIII.	11 2	2 8 0	0 8 0	2 4 4½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1548	36 Henry VIII.	11 2	2 8 0	2 0 0	2 11 9½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1548	37 Henry VIII.	11 2	2 8 0	4 4 0	2 15 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1547	1 Edward VI.	11 2	2 8 0	4 4 0	2 15 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1549	3 Edward VI.	11 2	2 8 0	4 4 0	2 15 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1551	5 Edward VI.	11 2	2 8 0	4 4 0	2 15 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1552	6 Edward VI.	11 2	2 8 0	4 4 0	2 15 8	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1553	1 Mary I.	11 2	3 0 0	0 1 0	2 19 6½	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1560	2 Elizabeth I.	11 2	3 0 0	0 1 6	2 18 6	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1600	43 Elizabeth I.	11 2	3 2 0	0 2 0	3 0 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1604	3 James I.	11 2	3 2 0	0 2 6	2 19 6	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1625	2 Charles I.	11 2	3 2 0	0 2 0	3 0 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1666	18 Charles II.	11 2	3 3 0	0 0 0	3 2 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1717	3 George I.	11 2	3 3 0	0 0 0	3 2 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								
1816	56 George III.	11 2	3 6 0	0 4 0	3 2 0	23 3½	18 3 4	0 8 4	12 10 8								

(The preceding Tables, Nos. I. and II., are taken from Part II. of *Essays on Money, Exchanges, and Political Economy*, by Henry James.)

No. III. SCOTCH COINS.—Account of the Number of Pounds, Shillings, and Pennies Scotch which have been coined out of One Pound Weight of Silver, at different Times; with the Degree of Purity of such Silver, or its Fineness, from the Year 1107 to the Year 1601.—(From *Cardonnet's Numismata Scotica*, p. 24.)

A. D.	Anno Regni.	Purity.	Alloy.	Value of the Money coined out of a Lb. Weight of Silver.	A. D.	Anno Regni.	Purity.	Alloy.	Value of the Money coined out of a Lb. Weight of Silver.
From 1107	Alexander I.	Os. gw.	Os. gw.	£ s. d.	1451	James II.	15 11 2	0 18	3 4 0
to 1296	David I.	11 2	0 18	1 0 0	1475	James III.	20 11 2	0 18	4 16 0
1306	William I.	11 2	0 18	1 0 0	1484	James IV.	11 2	0 18	7 4 0
1329	Alexander II.	11 2	0 18	1 0 0	1488	James IV.	11 2	0 18	7 0 0
1365	Alexander III.	11 2	0 18	1 0 0	1489	James IV.	11 2	0 18	7 0 0
1367	John Balliol	11 2	0 18	1 0 0	1529	James V.	15 11 0	1 0	9 12 0
1396	Robert I.	11 2	0 18	1 1 0	1544	Mary	2 11 0	1 0	9 12 0
1397	Robert I.	11 2	0 18	1 1 0	1556	James VI.	14 11 0	1 0	13 0 0
1398	David II.	36 11 2	0 18	1 5 0	1565	James VI.	23 11 0	1 0	18 0 0
1399	David II.	39 11 2	0 18	1 9 4	1567	James VI.	1 11 0	1 0	18 0 0
1399	Robert II.	11 2	0 18	1 0 4	1571	James VI.	3 9 0	3 0	16 14 0
1399	Robert II.	11 2	0 18	1 0 4	1576	James VI.	10 8 0	4 0	16 14 0
1399	Robert III.	4 11 2	0 18	1 12 0	1579	James VI.	13 11 0	1 0	22 0 0
1424	James I.	19 11 2	0 18	1 17 6	1581	James VI.	15 11 0	1 0	24 0 0
					1597	James VI.	31 11 0	1 0	30 0 0
					1601	James VI.	35 11 0	1 0	36 0 0

* 1527—Henry VIII.] The Saxon or Tower pound was used at the mint up to this time, when the pound Troy was substituted in its stead. The Tower pound was but 11 oz. 5 dwts. Troy; so that, from the Conquest to the 28th of Edward I., 20 shillings in tale were exactly a pound in weight.

† 1666—18 Charles II.] The seignorage on the coinage was at this time given up, and the gold bullion brought to the mint has ever since been coined free of expense. A seignorage of 1/4 per cent. was imposed on the coinage of silver by b6 Geo 3.

No. IV. SCOTCH COINS. — Account of the Number of Pounds, Shillings, and Pennies Scotch which have been coined out of One Pound Weight of Gold (with the Degree of their Purity, and the Proportion that the Gold bore to the Silver. — (Cardonnet, p. 25.)

A. D.	Anno Regni.	Fineness.		Alloy.		Value of the Coin coined out of One Pound of Gold.	Pound of Pure Gold weighed of Pure Silver.
		Os. grs.	grs.	Os. grs.	grs.		
1371, &c.	Robert II.	-	11 5 18	0 1 6	17 12 0	£ s. d.	Lib. os. grs. grs.
1380, &c.	Robert II.	-	11 6 18	0 1 6	19 4 0	11 1 17 32	11 1 17 32
1424	James I.	19	11 18 18	0 1 6	22 10 0	11 1 17 32	11 1 17 32
1461	James II.	15	11 18 18	0 1 6	33 6 0	9 8 4 14	9 8 4 14
1466	James II.	30	11 18 18	0 1 6	50 0 0	9 8 4 14	9 8 4 14
1476	James III.	16	11 18 18	0 1 6	78 15 0	10 3 0 30	10 3 0 30
1484	James III.	24	11 18 18	0 1 6	78 15 0	10 5 7 9	10 5 7 9
1488	James IV.	1	11 18 18	0 1 6	78 15 0	10 5 7 9	10 5 7 9
1529	James V.	16	11 18 18	0 1 6	108 0 0	10 5 7 9	10 5 7 9
1566	James VI.	14	11 0 0	1 0 0	144 0 0	10 5 8 6	10 5 8 6
1567	James VI.	10	11 0 0	1 0 0	240 0 0	10 5 8 6	10 5 8 6
1579	James VI.	13	10 10 0	1 10 0	240 0 0	11 5 3 20	11 5 3 20
1597	James VI.	31	11 0 0	1 0 0	360 0 0	12 0 0 0	12 0 0 0
1601	James VI.	33	11 0 0	1 0 0	432 0 0	12 0 0 0	12 0 0 0
1631	Charles I.	9	11 0 0	1 0 0	492 0 0	13 3 7 11	13 3 7 11

No. V. — Account of the Value of the Gold and Silver Coins, specifying each, coined at the Mint, each Year since 1790.

Years.	Gold coined.			Silver coined.			Years.	Gold coined.			Silver coined.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1790	2,560,621	10	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1810	Nil.	Nil.	0	1,805,251	16	0
1791	2,456,565	17	6	Nil.	Nil.	0	1817	4,275,537	10	0	2,436,227	12	0
1792	1,171,863	0	0	261	17	6	1818	2,862,373	10	0	376,379	0	0
1793	2,747,430	0	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1819	3,674	10	8	1,267,372	12	0
1794	2,588,894	12	6	Nil.	Nil.	0	1820	949,516	10	10	847,717	4	0
1795	493,416	0	0	293	11	11	1821	9,620,758	13	10	433,686	0	0
1796	454,680	2	6	Nil.	Nil.	0	1822	5,350,787	12	6	31,480	7	1
1797	3,000,397	5	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1823	759,748	10	0	283,371	16	0
1798	2,967,504	15	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1824	4,065,076	0	0	282,070	16	0
1799	449,961	15	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1825	4,580,919	0	0	417,535	16	0
1800	189,987	2	6	Nil.	Nil.	0	1826	5,896,461	7	6	608,605	16	0
1801	450,242	2	0	53	7	1	1827	2,512,636	17	6	35,019	16	0
1802	437,018	18	6	62	0	0	1828	1,008,359	2	6	15,988	3	0
1803	596,444	12	6	72	6	8	1829	2,446,754	12	6	108,259	16	0
1804	718,396	17	6	77	10	0	1830	2,387,881	2	6	151	16	0
1805	54,668	5	0	182	18	0	1831	587,949	14	5	33,090	5	8
1806	406,105	15	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1832	3,780,757	12	6	145	4	0
1807	Nil.	Nil.	0	108	10	0	1833	1,225,269	13	6	145	4	0
1808	371,744	2	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1834	66,949	12	5	432,775	4	0
1809	298,946	11	0	114	14	0	1835	1,109,718	8	10	151,615	4	0
1810	316,935	13	6	120	18	0	1836	1,787,782	5	5	508,867	4	0
1811	319,263	3	6	Nil.	Nil.	0	1837	1,283,088	8	2	76,111	4	0
1812	Nil.	Nil.	0	52	14	0	1838	2,835,294	15	0	201,198	0	0
1813	519,722	3	6	89	18	0	1839	504,310	14	8	492,534	0	0
1814	Nil.	Nil.	0	161	4	0	1840	Nil.	Nil.	0	316,414	0	0
1815	Nil.	Nil.	0	Nil.	Nil.	0	1841	378,472	10	0	96,175	4	0

No. VI. GOLD COINS OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES. — A Table containing the Assays, Weights, and Values of the principal Gold Coins of all Countries, computed according to the Mint Price of Gold in England, and from Assays made both at London and Paris, which have been found to verify each other.*

* The publishers of this work purchased the right to publish this Table from Dr. Kelly, in the second edition of whose *Cambist* it originally appeared.

COUNTS.		Assay.	Weight.	Standard.	Contents in Pure Gold.	Value in Sterling.
		Cor. grs.	Dwt. grs.	Dwt. grs. m.	Grains.	£ s. d.
AUSTRIAN	Souverain	-	W. 0 04	3 14	3 13 15	78 6
	Double ducat	-	B. 1 24	4 12	4 20 5	105 4
DOMINIONS	Ducat Krennits, or Hungarian	-	B. 1 3	2 54	2 10 3	53 8
	Carolin	-	W. 3 2	6 54	5 15 11	118
BAVARIA	Max d'or, or Maximilian	-	W. 3 24	4 4	3 14 0	77
	Ducat	-	B. 1 24	3 54	2 19 11	52 8
BERN	Ducat (double, &c. in proportion)	-	B. 1 12	1 23	2 2 1	45 9
	Pistole	-	W. 0 14	4 21	4 19 0	105 8
BRAUNSWICK	Pistole (double in proportion)	-	W. 0 14	4 21	4 19 0	105 7
	Ducat	-	H. 1 04	3 54	3 8 9	51 8
COLOGNE	Ducat	-	B. 1 2	3 54	2 9 8	52 6
	Ducat current	-	W. 0 24	2 0	1 21 19	42 2
DENMARK	Ducat specie	-	B. 1 2	2 54	2 9 8	52 6
	Christian d'or	-	W. 0 1	4 7	4 8 16	93 3

* The London Assays in this Table were made by Robert Bingley, Esq. F.R.S., the King's Assay Master of the Mint, and those at Paris by Pierre Frédéric Bonneville, Essayeur du Commerce, as published in his elaborate work on the coins of all nations.

Specimens of all the foreign coins brought to London for commercial purposes have been supplied for this Table from the Bullion-office, Bank of England, by order of the Bank Directors, and have been selected by John Humble, Esq., the chief clerk of that office, who also examined the Tables in their progress. It may likewise be added, that the Mint Reports of these commercial coins are chiefly from average assays; and that all the computations have been carefully verified by different calculators. — (Notes by Dr. Kelly, to second edition of the *Cambist*, published in 1821.)

COINS.		Assay.	Weight.	Standard Weight.	Contents in Pure Gold.	Value in Sterling.
		Car. gr.	Dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr. md.	Grains.	s. d.
ENGLAND	Guinea	Stand.	5 9 10	5 9 10	118 7 10	21 0 0
	Half-guinea	Stand.	2 16 10	2 16 10	59 3 0	10 0 0
	Seven shilling piece	Stand.	1 19 0	1 19 0	29 6 0	7 0 0
FRANCE	Sovereign	Stand.	5 3 4	5 3 5	118 1 0	20 0 0
	Double Louis (coined before 1786)	W. 0 2	10 11 1	10 5 6	224 9	39 9 64
	Louis	W. 0 2	5 5 1	5 2 19	112 4	10 10 71
	Double Louis (coined since 1786)	W. 0 1 1	9 20	9 18 19	212 6	50 7 38
	Louis	W. 0 1 1	4 22	4 19 19	103 8	16 9 75
FRANCE	Double Napoleon, or piece of 40 francs	W. 0 1 1	6 7	6 3 0	179 9	31 8 36
	Napoleon, or piece of 20 francs	W. 0 1 1	4 3 1	4 1 10	89 7	18 10 8
New Louis (double, &c.) the same as the Napoleon.						
FRANKFORT ON THE MAINE	Ducat	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 0 14	52 9	9 4 34
GENEVA	Pistole, old	W. 0 2	4 7 1	4 15 4	92 5	9 4 48
	Pistole, new	W. 0 0 4	3 15 1	3 15 4	80 4	14 1 9
GENOA	Sequin	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 10 5	53 4	9 9 75
HAMBURGH	Ducat (double in proportion)	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 0 14	52 9	9 4 35
HANOVER	George d'or	W. 0 1 1	4 6 1	4 5 3	92 6	16 4 68
	Ducat	B. 1 3 1	2 5 2	2 10 3	52 9	9 5 19
HOLLAND	Gold florin (double in proportion)	W. 3 0 4	2 2	1 18 6	36 9	6 10 83
	Double ryder	Stand.	12 4	12 21 0	283 2	57 7 75
MALTA	Ryder	Stand.	6 9	6 9 0	140 2	24 9 75
	Ducat	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 9 12	52 8	9 4 18
MILAN	Double Louis	W. 1 3 1	10 16	9 18 18	215 3	38 1 25
	Louis	W. 1 3	5 8	4 21 16	108 3	19 1 37
NAPLES	Demi Louis	W. 1 2 1	2 16	2 11 3	54 5	9 7 75
	Sequin	B. 1 3	2 16	2 10 0	52 2	6 4 88
NETHERLANDS	Three ducat piece, or onesta, of 1818	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 15 1	52 1	10 3 40
	Doppia or pistole	W. 0 1 1	4 1 1	4 0 8	88 4	15 7 74
PARMA	Forty lire piece of 1808	W. 0 1 1	8 8	8 4 0	179 7	31 9 64
	Six ducat piece of 1783	W. 0 2 1	5 16	5 12 18	121 9	21 6 89
PIEDMONT	Two ducat piece, or sequin, of 1762	W. 1 2 1	1 20 4	1 15 6	37 4	7 4 48
	Three ducat piece, or onesta, of 1818	B. 1 2 1	2 16	2 15 1	52 1	10 3 40
PORTUGAL	Gold lion, or 14 florin piece	Stand.	5 7 1	5 7 16	117 1	20 8 69
	Ten florin piece (1820)	W. 0 1 1	4 7 1	4 5 10	93 2	16 9 38
PRUSSIA	Quadruple pistole (double in proportion)	W. 1 0	18 9	17 12 18	385 9	68 3 78
	Pistole or Doppia of 1787	W. 0 3	4 14	4 10 4	97 4	17 2 35
PRUSSIA	Ditto of 1796	W. 1 0 1	4 14	4 8 14	95 9	18 11 67
	Maria Theresa (1818)	W. 0 1 1	4 3 1	4 1 10	89 7	18 10 8
PRUSSIA	Pistole coined since 1785 (1/2, &c. in proportion)	W. 0 1 1	5 20	5 17 0	125 6	22 2 75
	Sequin (1/2 in proportion)	B. 1 1 1	2 5 2	2 9 12	52 9	9 4 34
PRUSSIA	Carlino, coined since 1785 (1/2, &c. in proportion)	W. 0 1 1	29 6	28 20 0	634 4	112 3 33
	Piece of 20 francs, called <i>Marcngo</i>	W. 2 0	4 2 1	3 18 4	82 7	14 7 63
PORTUGAL	Ducat	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 9 12	52 9	9 4 34
	Dobraon of 24,000 rees	Stand.	34 12	34 12 0	753 134	3 56
PORTUGAL	Dobra of 12,800 rees	Stand.	18 6	18 6 0	401 5	71 0 70
	Moldore or Lisbonnise (1/2, &c. in prop.)	Stand.	6 22	6 22 0	152 2	26 11 24
PORTUGAL	Piece of 16 testoons, or 1,600 rees	W. 0 0 2	2 6	2 5 14	49 3	8 8 70
	Old cruzado of 400 rees	W. 0 0 1	0 15	0 14 18	13 6	2 4 88
PORTUGAL	New cruzado of 480 rees	W. 0 0 1	0 15 1	0 16 2	14 8	2 7 43
	Milree (coined for the African colonies 1785)	Stand.	0 19 1	0 19 15	19 1	3 2 44
PRUSSIA	Ducat of 1746	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 9 14	52 9	9 4 04
	Ducat of 1787	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 9 6	52 6	9 3 71
PRUSSIA	Frederick (double) of 1769	W. 0 1 1	9 14	8 9 18	185 9	32 8 90
	Frederick (single) of 1778	W. 0 1 1	4 7	4 5 4	92 8	16 3 42
PRUSSIA	Frederick (double) of 1800	W. 0 2	8 14	8 9 6	184 5	32 7 84
	Frederick (single) of 1800	W. 0 2	4 7	4 4 13	92 2	16 3 42
ROME	Sequin (coined since 1760)	B. 1 3 1	2 4 1	2 9 0	52 2	9 2 86
	Scudo of the Republic	W. 0 1 1	17 0 1	16 16 8	367 9	64 11 43
RUSSIA	Ducat of 1796	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 10 0	52 2	9 4 98
	Ducat of 1763	B. 1 2	2 5 2	2 9 8	52 6	9 3 71
RUSSIA	Gold ruble of 1786	Stand.	1 0 1	1 0 10	22 5	3 11 78
	Ditto of 1799	W. 0 0 1	0 18 1	0 18 14	17 1	3 0 31
RUSSIA	Gold poltin of 1777	Stand.	0 9	0 9 0	8 2	1 5 41
	Imperial of 1801	B. 1 2 1	7 17 1	6 5 8	161 9	32 2 31
RUSSIA	Half Imperial of 1801	B. 0 0 1	3 20 4	4 3 4	90 9	16 1 05
	Ditto of 1818	B. 0 0 1	4 3 1	4 3 13	91 3	16 1 98
SARDINIA	Carlino (1/2 in proportion)	W. 0 2 1	10 7	9 23 16	219 8	30 8 10
SAXONY	Ducat of 1784	B. 1 2	2 5 2	2 9 8	52 6	9 3 71
	Ducat of 1797	B. 1 2 1	2 5 2	2 9 14	52 9	9 4 34
SICILY	Augustus of 1754	W. 0 2 1	4 6 1	4 3 8	91 2	16 1 89
	Augustus of 1784	W. 0 1 1	4 6 1	4 4 12	92 2	16 3 81
SPAIN	Once of 1761	W. 1 2 1	2 20 1	2 15 8	58 2	10 3 60
	Double ounce of 1758	W. 1 2	5 17	5 7 14	117 9	20 8 48
SPAIN	Doubleon of 1772 (double and single in proportion)	W. 0 2 1	17 8 1	16 9 16	372 9	65 10 05
	Quadruple pistole of 1801	W. 1 1	17 9	16 9 6	360 5	63 9 62
SPAIN	Pistole of 1801	W. 1 1	4 8 1	4 2 6	90 1	15 11 35
	Coronilla, gold dollar, or vintcom of 1801	W. 1 2 1	1 3	1 0 18	22 8	4 0 42
SWEDEN	Ducat	B. 1 2	2 5	2 8 12	51 9	9 2 22

* Much variation is found in the fineness of the Sicilian gold coins.

COINS.		Assay.		Weight.		Standard Weight.		Contents in Pure Gold.		Value in Sterling.	
		Car. gr.	Dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr. ml.	Grains.			s.	d.	
SWITZERLAND	Pistole of the Helvetic Republic of 1800	W. 0 14	4 21	4 19 9	105.0	18 8.91					
TAVERN	Ducat	B. 1 3	3 54	3 9 8	52.6	9 3.71					
TURKEY	Sequin fondueli of Constantinople of 1773	W. 2 34	3 54	1 23 6	43.3	7 7.94					
	Sequin fondueli of 1789	W. 3 34	3 54	1 22 16	42.3	7 7.81					
	Half misal (1818)	W. 5 34	0 154	0 13 5	12.16	3 2.3					
	Sequin fondueli	W. 3 3	3 6	1 22 7	42.6	7 6.25					
	Yarmeebeshlek	B. 0 24	2 18	3 4 13	70.3	12 3.20					
TUSCANY	Zecchino or sequin	B. 1 34	3 54	2 10 14	53.6	9 5.83					
	Ruspone of the kingdom of Etruria	B. 1 34	6 124	7 7 13	181	29 8.28					
UNITED STATES	Eagle (1 and 2 in proportion)	W. 0 04	11 6	11 4 8	246.1	43 6.68					
VENICE	Zecchino or sequin (1 and 2 in proportion)	B. 1 34	3 6	3 10 10	53.6	9 5.83					
WIETEMBERG	Carolin	W. 3 3	6 24	6 4 0	113.7	20 1.47					
	Ducat	B. 1 2	2 5	2 8 12	51.9	9 2.22					
	Ducat (double and 1/2 ducat in proportion)	B. 1 2	3 54	3 9 8	52.6	9 3.71					
EAST INDIES.											
	Mohur of 1770	B. 1 34	7 23	8 11 15	186.8	33 0.72					
	Mohur, Half (1787), (1/2 in proportion)	B. 1 24	3 23	4 16 10	94	16 7.64					
	Mohur Sica of Bengal	B. 1 34	7 23	6 15 0	195.8	30 1.04					
	Mohur of the Dutch East India Company (1783)	W. 3 34	10 2	8 6 0	183.4	32 5.50					
	Mohur, Half Ditto (1801)	W. 3 14	5 24	4 18 16	95.2	17 0.30					
	Rupce, Bombay (1818)	B. 1 24	7 11	7 11 13	164.7	28 1.50					
	Rupce of Madras (1818)	Stand.	7 12	7 12 0	165	29 3.42					
	Pagoda, star	W. 3 0	2 44	1 21 11	41.8	7 4.77					

No. VII. SILVER COINS OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.—A Table containing the Assays, Weights, and Values of the principal Silver Coins of all Countries, computed at the Rate of 5s. 2d. per Ounce Standard, from Assays made both at the London and Paris Mints.

COINS.		Assay.		Weight.		Standard Weight.		Contents in Pure Silver.		Value in Sterling.	
		Gr. dwt.	Dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr. ml.	Grains.			s.	d.	
AUSTRIA	Rixdollar of Francis II. (1800)	W. 1 5	18 1	16 0 4	353.5	4 1.64					
	Rixdollar of the kingdom of Hungary	W. 1 3	18 1	16 6 1	360.9	4 2.33					
	Half rixdollar, or Berlin, Convention	W. 1 3	9 0 4	8 2 1	179.6	2 1.07					
	Copfsack, or 30 creutzer piece	W. 4 3	4 64	2 16 3	59.4	0 8.29					
	17 Creutzer piece	W. 4 8	4 0	3 9 18	53.5	0 7.47					
	Halbe creutz, or 10 creutzer piece	W. 5 6	2 11	1 7 1	28.8	0 4.01					
BADEN	Rixdollar	W. 1 4	18 2	16 3 1	358.1	4 2					
BAVARIA	Rixdollar of 1800 (1/2 in proportion)	W. 1 44	17 12	15 13 13	345.6	4 0.25					
	Copfsack	W. 4 3	4 64	2 16 3	59.4	0 8.29					
BERN	Patagon or crown (1/2 in proportion)	W. 0 7	18 22	16 7 14	406.7	4 8.79					
	Piece of 10 baen	W. 1 2	5 3	4 14 17	102.5	1 2.31					
BREMEN	Piece of 48 grotes	W. 2 2	11 0	8 22 1	198	2 3.64					
BRUNAWICK	Rixdollar, Convention	W. 1 3	18 1	16 4 4	359.2	4 2.15					
	Half rixdollar	W. 1 3	9 0 4	8 2 2	179.6	2 1.07					
	Golden, or piece of 3/4 fine, of 1764	B. 0 18	8 104	9 1 1	200.8	2 4.03					
	Golden, common, of 1764	W. 1 2	9 0	8 2 10	180	2 1.13					
	Golden, ditto, of 1798	W. 2 2	11 14	8 23 7	199.1	2 3.80					
	Half golden, or piece of 1/2, of 1764	W. 1 2	4 12	4 1 5	90	1 0.56					
DENMARK	Rykdaler, specie, of 1798	W. 0 18	18 14	17 11 17	394.4	4 6.23					
	New piece of 4 marka	W. 0 12	12 9	11 16 14	259.8	3 0.27					
	Half rykdaler	W. 0 12	9 7	8 17 8	194.2	2 3.11					
	Mark, specie, or 1/2 rykdaler	W. 3 1	4 0	3 21 12	64.4	0 7.59					
	Rixdollar, specie, of Sleswig and Holstein (pieces of 1/2 and 1/4 in prop.)	W. 0 12	18 13	17 12 6	389.4	4 6.37					
	Piece of 24 skilling	W. 4 7	5 24	3 2 10	68.9	0 9.62					
ENGLAND	Crown (old)	Stand.	19 84	19 8 10	429.7	5 0					
	Half-crown	Stand.	9 16 1/2	9 16 5	214.8	2 6					
	Shilling	Stand.	3 21	3 21 0	85.9	1 0					
	Sixpence	Stand.	1 22 1/2	1 22 10	43.9	0 6					
	Crown (new)	Stand.	18 44	18 4 7	403.6	4 8.36					
	Half-crown	Stand.	9 22	9 2 4	201.8	2 4.18					
	Shilling	Stand.	3 15 1/2	3 15 6	80.7	0 11.27					
	Sixpence	Stand.	1 19 1/2	1 19 14	40.3	0 5.63					
FRANCE	Ecu of 6 livres	W. 0 7	18 18	18 7 16	403.1	4 8.28					
	Demi ecu	W. 0 7	9 9	9 1 18	201.5	2 4.13					
	Piece of 24 sous (divisions in prop.)	W. 0 7	3 20	3 16 19	83.4	0 11.64					
	Piece of 30 sous (1/2 in proportion)	W. 3 8	6 12	4 12 4	100.2	1 1.99					
	Piece of 3 francs	W. 0 7	16 1	15 12 4	344.9	4 0.18					
	Piece of 2 francs	W. 0 7	6 11	6 6 3	138.8	1 7.38					
	Franc	W. 0 7	3 54	3 3 1	69.4	0 9.69					
	Demi franc	W. 0 84	1 16	4 13 6	34.7	0 4.84					
FRANKFORT †	Patagon	W. 1 0	17 9	15 19 8	351	4 1.03					
GENEVA	Piece of 16 sous of 1794	W. 2 6	3 14	1 15 1	36.1	0 5.04					

* This value of the American eagle is taken from average assays of the coins of twelve years.

† By one of the articles of the Zollverein, or Customs-union of Germany, it was stipulated that the settlements for the duties should be made either in Prussian dollars or in Rorins, at the rate of 7 Rorins

COINS.		Assay.	Weight.	Standard Weight.	Composition in Finer Silver.	Value in Sterling.
		Os. dwt. gr.	Dwt. gr. d.	Dwt. gr. md.	Groites.	s. d.
GENOA	Scudo, of 5 lire, of 1796 (½, ¼ &c. in proportion)	W. 0 8	21 9	20 14 10	487.4	5 3.87
	Scudo of the Ligurian Republic	W. 0 9	21 9	20 11 2	464.2	5 3.43
	Rixdollar, specie	W. 0 10	18 18	17 21 12	397.5	4 7.49
HAMBURG	Double mark, or 52 schilling piece (single in proportion)	W. 3 3	11 18	9 11 8	210.5	3 6.26
	Piece of 6 schillings	W. 3 12	3 8½	2 6 4	60.1	0 6.95
	Piece of 4 schillings	W. 4 6	3 3	1 6 12	39.3	0 3.95
	Rixdollar, Constitution	W. 0 9	18 19	18 0 14	400.3	4 7.89
HANOVER	Florin, or piece of ½, fine	B. 0 16	6 10	9 0 10	300.3	3 3.96
	Half florin, or piece of ¼, ditto	B. 0 16	4 4	4 11 4	99.2	1 1.85
	Quarter, or piece of 6 good groschen, ditto	B. 0 16	2 1	2 4 10	48.0	0 6.78
	Florin, or piece of ½, bass	W. 2 1	11 0½	8 22 15	199.6	3 3.87
HESSE CASSEL	Rixdollar, Convention	W. 1 6	18 1	15 22 6	352	4 1.39
	Florin, or piece of ½ (¼ in proportion)	W. 0 10	12 7½	11 7 5	297.7	3 0.26
	Thaler of 1799	W. 1 6	17 23½	15 21 2	349.3	4 0.77
	Eu, Convention (1811)	W. 6 14	1 4	0 11 3	10.3	0 1.43
HOLLAND	Bon gros	B. 0 3	20 22	21 4 15	471.0	5 3.85
	Ducatton	W. 0 3	20 7	20 9 2	445.4	5 2.38
	Piece of 3 florins	W. 0 16	18 6	16 20 8	375.9	4 0.99
	Rixdollar (the assay varies)	W. 0 16	9 0	8 8 8	185.4	2 1.88
	Half rixdollar	W. 0 4	6 18	6 14 14	146.8	1 8.49
	Florin or guilder (¼ in proportion)	W. 0 16	4 12	4 3 18	92.4	1 0.90
LUBEC	12 Silver piece	W. 0 5	6 13	6 9 2	141.6	1 7.77
	Florin of Batavia	W. 0 12	18 8	17 15 12	291.9	4 6.72
	Rixdollar, or 52 silver piece	W. 2 3	11 18	9 11 8	210.3	2 5.26
	Double mark	W. 3 3	5 21	4 17 14	105.1	1 2.67
	Mark	W. 0 3	17 0	16 18 10	372.3	4 3.98
	Barbene	W. 3 3	1 20½	1 7 14	25.3	0 3.49
LUCCA	Scudo	W. 2 5	19 1½	15 4 14	337.4	3 11.11
	2 Tari piece	W. 3 10	1 2	0 10 2	17.7	0 2.41
	Quince of 30 tari of Emmanuel Pinto	W. 0 7	14 20½	14 9 10	319.6	3 8.62
MILAN	2 Tari piece	W. 4 10	4 0	2 9 0	52.8	0 7.37
	Scudo of 1796	W. 0 8	2 10	2 9 4	52.3	0 7.38
	Lira, new	W. 0 7	14 21½	14 10 4	320.2	3 8.71
	Scudo of the Cisalpine Republic	W. 2 18	4 17	3 11 8	77.2	0 10.78
MODENA	Piece of 30 soldi of ditto	W. 0 14	18 12½	17 8 9	385.2	4 5.78
	Scudo of 15 lire, 1799 (double, &c. in proportion)	W. 0 3	5 15	3 17 2	126.8	1 5.70
	Scudo of 5 lire, of 1792	W. 0 3	16 1½	12 22 12	287.4	3 5.43
NAPLES	Ducat, new (¼ in proportion)	W. 1 0	14 15	12 7 8	293.4	3 5.24
	Piece of 12 Carlini of 1791	W. 1 0	17 15	16 0 18	356	4 1.71
	Ditto of 1796	W. 1 2	17 16½	18 22 12	353.9	4 1.41
	Ditto of .45 (¼ in proportion)	W. 1 2	17 18½	15 23 18	255.2	4 1.60
NETHERLANDS	Ditto of 10 Carlini (1818)	W. 1 2	14 18	12 7 0	295.1	3 5.20
	Crown (½, &c. in proportion)	W. 0 14	19 0	17 19 4	395.2	4 7.18
	5 Silver piece	W. 6 3	3 4	1 9 13	31.2	0 4.37
	Florin of 1816	W. 0 7	6 22	6 16 6	144.4	1 8.72
Half florin (with divisions in prop.)	W. 4 5	8 11	3 9 2	75	0 10.46	

for four Prussian dollars. There were, however, no florins in existence exactly of this value; but as the nearest approach to it was a valuation called the 24 guldennuss or florin-foot, these Zollverein florins were nominally reckoned to be in this rate, though the difference amounts to more than 2 per cent.

"The term 24 guldennuss implies that the mark weight of fine silver is rated at 24 gulden or florins. It was formed by giving to the coins minted or valued to 20 guldennuss an increased value of one-fifth, as rating the 20 kreutzer piece at 24 kreutzers. At 624 per ounce standard, the value of this mark of fine silver is worth 40s. 1½d. sterling, from which the value of the different German monetary integers is readily obtained; as reckoning 27½ marks banco or 34 marks current of Hamburg, 14 dollars of Prussia, 2½ florins of South Germany, 20 florins of Austria, and also 60 lire Austriache of Lombardy, to be of this amount.

"In order, therefore, to prevent the loss or inconvenience which would attend their adhering to this mode of valuation, a money convention was entered into on the 25th of August, 1837, among the states forming the union, by which it was agreed upon that a new basis of valuation should be adopted for their coins, under the term of Süddeutscher Währung, or South German valuation, at the rate of 24½ gulden or florins from the mark's weight of fine silver.

"Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, and Saxony have since issued their coins at this rate, and the other states of the confederation are doing or preparing to do the same. Among these Frankfurt, in 1840, began the mintage of coins of this value; and by a regulation of the Chamber of Commerce of this free city, all the rates of exchange, as well as the values of bullion and foreign coins, were ordered to be expressed in this Süddeutscher Währung from the beginning of this present year (1843). One of these new and very exactly-minted florins was assayed by Messrs. Johnson and Cock, of Hatton Garden, who reported it to be, full weight, 6 dwts. 10½ grains, worse 6 dwts., gold under 2 grains; from which the value, at 624 per ounce standard, is very exactly 10½d. sterling, making the par of exchange with London 120½ florins in S. D. W. for 10l. sterling.

"I have been thus particular in these explanations, partly because several persons imagine that the late alteration in the rate of exchange with Frankfurt was made in compliance with the wishes, or to suit the convenience, of one or more of our leading houses in exchange negotiations, but more particularly because it is maintained by many that the valuation of this rate is not merely nominal, but really, in 24 guldennuss. This is a point of no small importance to the commercial world, for had it been so, the par of exchange with London would have been only 118 florins for 10l. sterling, and the difference between this and the present price of sight bills on Frankfurt would have exceeded 22 per cent.; a variation which every practical cambist well knows could not exist, except under very extraordinary circumstances, and with nearly corresponding differences in the other rates of exchange: neither of which causes is now in operation." — (Letter of William Tate, Esq., cambist to the Times.)

COINS.		Assay.	Weight.	Standard Weight.	Contents in Pure Silver.	Value in Sterling.
		<i>Oz. dwt. gr.</i>	<i>Dozt. gr. mt.</i>	<i>Dozt. gr. mt.</i>	<i>Grains.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
PARMA	Ducat of 1784	W. 0 9 16 11	15 18 18	350.6	4 0 9.6	
	Ducat of 1796 (½ in proportion)	W. 0 9 16 12 1/2	16 2 18	357.9	4 1 9.7	
	Piece of 3 lire	W. 1 4 4 14	4 2 2	1 0 6.6		
PIEMONTE	Scudo, 1755 (½ &c. in proportion)	W. 0 5 22 14	22 0 10	486.9	3 8 26	
	Scudo, 1770 (½ and ¼ in proportion)	W. 0 5 22 14	22 1 16	490	5 8 42	
	Piece of 2 lire (1716)	W. 0 4 7 20 1/2	7 16 13	170.8	1 1 8.5	
POLAND	5 Franc piece (1801)	W. 0 8 15 14	15 11 12	345.7	3 11 9.9	
	Rixdollar, old	W. 1 2 18 14	18 8 0	360.4	4 2 38	
	Rixdollar, new (1794)	W. 2 17 15 10 1/2	11 11 6	324.3	3 11 5.1	
PORTUGAL	Florin, or gulden	W. 4 2 6 0	3 18 16	84	0 11 7.2	
	New cruzado (1690)	W. 0 4 11 0	10 19 0	233.2	2 9 40	
	Doze vintems, or piece of 240 rees (1799)	W. 0 6 9 9	9 1 18	201.6	2 4 15	
	Testoon (1796)	W. 0 7 4 16	4 12 10	100.4	1 2 0.1	
	New cruzado (1802)	W. 0 7 2 0 1/2	1 22 18	43.4	0 6 0.6	
	Seis vintems, or piece of 120 rees (1802)	W. 0 4 9 3	8 23 0	198.2	2 4 6.7	
	Testoon (1802)	W. 0 9 2 4 1/2	2 2 8	40.8	0 6 5.0	
	Tres vintems, or piece of 60 rees (1802)	W. 0 9 2 0	1 22 0	42.5	0 6 9.3	
	Half testoon (1802)	W. 0 9 1 2 1/2	1 4	23.3	0 3 2.5	
PORTUGUESE COLONIES	Piece of 8 macuts, of Portuguese Africa	W. 0 9 7 12	7 4 14	159.8	1 10 3.1	
	Ditto of 6 ditto	W. 0 9 5 13	5 7 12	118	0 4 4.7	
	Ditto of 4 ditto	W. 0 9 3 16	3 12 8	78.1	1 10 9.0	
PRUSSIA	Rixdollar, Prussian currency, (½ in proportion)	W. 2 5 14 6 1/2	11 9 0	252.6	2 11 2.7	
	Rixdollar, Convention	W. 1 2 19 1	16 4 2	359	4 2 1.3	
	Florin, or piece of 3	W. 2 3 11 2	8 22 7	198.4	3 3 7.0	
	Florin of Silesia	W. 2 2 9 11	7 16 0	170.3	1 11 7.6	
	Drittel, or piece of 8 good groschen	W. 3 2 5 5 1/2	6 20 4	83.3	0 11 4.1	
	Piece of 6 groschen	W. 2 8 3 1 1/2	2 19 2	62.3	0 8 9.9	
ROME	Scudo, or crown (colined since 1758)	W. 0 4 17 1	16 17 13	371.5	4 3 8.7	
	Mexco scudo, or half-crown	W. 0 4 8 12 1/2	8 8 18	185.7	2 1 9.8	
	Testone (1785)	W. 0 5 5 2	4 23 4	110.3	1 3 40	
	Paolo (1785)	W. 0 4 1 17	1 16 4	37.2	0 8 1.9	
	Grosso, or half Paolo (1785)	W. 0 5 0 20 1/2	0 20 0	16.5	0 3 5.8	
	Scudo of the Roman Republic (1799)	W. 0 6 17 1	16 13 18	368.1	4 3 40	
RUSSIA	Rouble of Peter the Great	W. 2 7 18 1	14 1 8	312.1	3 7 5.8	
	Ditto of Catherine I. (1725)	W. 2 4 17 11	18 23 0	309.9	3 7 2.7	
	Ditto of Peter II. (1727)	W. 2 12 18 6 1/2	18 23 4	310	3 7 2.8	
	Ditto of Anne (1734)	W. 1 11 16 1 1/2	14 6 16	317.2	3 8 2.9	
	Ditto of Elizabeth (1750)	W. 1 7 16 12	14 11 16	321.8	3 8 3.3	
	Ditto of Peter III. (1762)	W. 2 2 15 10	12 12 0	277.5	3 3 2.5	
	Ditto of Catherine II. (1780)	W. 2 4 15 12	12 10 6	275.9	3 3 2.2	
	Ditto of Alexander	W. 0 16 13 12	12 12 12	278.1	3 3 2.3	
	<i>N.B.</i> It was ordered by a ukase, dated the 1st of July, 1829, that this coin should be the standard of value in Russia. It is divided into 100 copecks; and the other silver coins are of the value of 25, 50, 75, and 100 copecks each. The same ukase enacts, that 1 silver rouble shall henceforth be equal to 34 old paper roubles.					
SARDINIA	Scudo, or crown (½ and ¼ in prop.)	W. 0 7 16 2 1/2	14 15 0	324.7	3 9 3.4	
SAXONY	Rixdollar, Convention (½ and ¼ in proportion)	W. 1 3 18 0	16 3 4	358.2	4 2 0.1	
	Piece of 16 groschen of Leipzig	W. 2 2 9 9 1/2	7 14 16	169.1	1 11 0.1	
	Rixdollar current of Saxe Gotha	W. 4 4 18 1	11 4 2	246.1	2 10 6.4	
	Thaler of 1804	W. 4 11 3 11	2 0 19	43.3	0 6 3.2	
	Ditto of 1808	W. 4 11 3 5 1/2	1 21 8	42.1	0 5 8.7	
	Ditto of Jerome Bonaparte of 1809	W. 5 4 3 17	1 23 6	43.7	0 6 10	
SICILY	Scudo (½ in proportion)	W. 1 4 17 14	15 16 6	348.2	4 0 6.2	
	Piece of 40 grains	W. 1 2 5 21	5 7 2	117.5	1 4 40	
	1 Dollar, of late coinage	W. 0 8 17 8	16 17 0	370.9	4 3 7.9	
SPAIN	Half dollar, ditto	W. 0 8 8 16	8 8 10	185.4	2 1 3.8	
	Mexican pecta (1774)	W. 0 8 4 7 1/2	4 3 16	92.3	1 0 8.8	
	Real of Mexican plate (1775)	W. 0 8 2 3 1/2	3 1 20	46.1	0 6 4.3	
	Peceta provincial of 2 reals of new plate (1775)	W. 1 9 1 3 1/2	3 6 0	72.2	0 10 0.6	
	Real of new plate (1795)	W. 1 0 1 21	1 15 0	36.1	0 5 0.4	
	Rixdollar (1762)	W. 0 12 18 20	17 19 10	395.5	4 7 2.2	
SWITZERLAND	Rixdollar of late coinage	W. 0 14 18 17	17 12 0	388.5	4 6 2.8	
	Ecu of 40 batzen of Lucerne (1796)	W. 0 5 19 0	18 13 14	412.3	4 9 5.7	
	Half ditto	W. 1 2 9 20	8 20 12	196.7	2 3 4.6	
	Florin, or piece of 40 schillings of Lucerne (1793)	W. 1 5 4 22	4 8 14	96.8	1 1 5.1	
	Ecu of 40 batzen of the Helvetic Republic, 1798 (½ in proportion)	W. 0 6 18 23	18 10 14	409.5	4 9 1.8	
	Ecu of 4 franken	W. 0 7 18 23	18 8 12	407.6	4 9 1.8	
TURKEY	Piastre of Selim of 1801	W. 5 6 8 6	4 7 8	95.7	1 1 3.6	
	Piastre of Crim Tartary (1778)	W. 0 13 10 5	4 2 4	90.9	1 0 6.9	
	Piastre of Tunis (1787)	W. 6 5 16 0	4 8 6	96.5	1 1 4.7	
TUSCANY	Piastre (1818)	W. 5 14 6 6 1/2	3 1 4	67.7	0 9 4.5	
	Piece of 10 Paoli of the kingdom of Etruria (1801)	W. 0 4 17 13 1/2	17 5 18	382.9	4 5 4.6	

* The Prussian coins, having been debased at different periods, vary in their reports.

† This is the coin which is universally circulated under the name of the Spanish dollar.

COINS.	Assay.	Weight.	Standard Weight.	Contents in Pure Silver.	Value in Sterling.
Scudo Pisa of ditto (1803)	W. 0 2	17 12	17 8 4	385.0	4 5 7 1/2
Piece of 10 lire ditto (1803)	B. 0 7	28 8	28 1 12	878.7	6 8 8 0
Lira (1803)	B. 0 7	3 8	2 9 16	63.4	0 7 4 5
UNITED STATES Dollar, 1796 (1/4, &c. in proportion)	W. 0 6 1/2	17 8	16 19 16	373.5	4 4 1 5
Dollar (1798)	W. 0 7	17 10 1/2	16 21 8	374.9	4 4 3 5
Dollar (1802)	W. 0 10 1/2	17 10	16 14 0	368.8	4 3 4 2
Dollar, an average of 8 years	W. 0 8 1/2	17 8	16 18 0	370.1	4 3 6 8
Dime, or one-tenth dollar	W. 0 4	1 19 1/2	1 18 14	39.5	0 3 7 1
Half dime	W. 0 7	0 2 1 1/2	0 21 0	19.5	0 3 7 2
VENICE - Piece of 2 lire, or 94 creutzers (1800)	W. 8 4 1/2	5 19 1/2	1 12 2	33.4	0 4 6 6
Ditto of 2 lire, called moneta provinciale (1808)	W. 8 2	5 13 1/2	1 11 8	22.8	0 4 5 8
Ditto of 2 lire, 1802 (1/4 and 1/2 in prop.)	W. 8 4	5 6 1/2	1 8 19	30.5	0 4 2 5
WIRTEMBERG Rixdollar, specie	W. 1 3	18 1	16 14 2	359.1	4 2 14
Copistack	W. 4 2	4 16 1/2	2 16 12	69.8	0 8 3 5
EAST INDIES.					
Rupce Bleea, coined by the East India Company at Calcutta	B. 0 13	7 11 1/2	7 22 0	175.8	2 0 5 4
Company's or Standard	Stand.	-	-	165	1 11 11
Calcutta (1818)	Stand.	8 0	8 0 0	175.9	2 0 5 6
Bombay, new, or Surat (1818)	W. 0 0 1/2	7 11	7 10 4	164.7	1 11 0 1
Fanar, Canners	W. 0 1 1/2	1 11 1/2	1 11 10	32.9	0 4 2 2
Bombay, old	B. 0 13	1 11 1/2	1 13 16	35	0 4 8 8
Pondicherry	B. 0 5 1/2	1 0 1/2	1 1 2	22.8	0 8 1 8
Ditto, double	W. 0 3	1 18 1/2	1 18 2	39	0 8 4 4
Gulden of the Dutch E. I. Co. (1820)	W. 0 7 1/2	6 22	6 16 6	148.4	1 8 7 2

The sterling value of the foreign coins, in the foregoing tables, has been computed from the assays as follows:—Let it be required to assign the value, in sterling, of a French double Louis d'or coined since 1780, the assay master's report being as follows:—Weight, 9 dwts. 20 grs.; assay W. 1 1/2 grs.; that is, 0 car. 1 1/2 grs. worse than the English standard. We proceed as under:—

From 22 car. 0 gr. the fineness of English standard gold, } There remains 21 car. 2 1/2 gr.

Then, as 22 car. : 21 car. 2 1/2 grs. :: 0 dwts. 20 grs. : 9 dwts. 18 grs., the standard gold contained in the Louis d'or; and hence, as 1 os. 12s. 17s. 10d. :: 9 dwts. 18 grs. : 1s. 17s. 7d., the value of the Louis in sterling money, and so for any of the other coins.

Ancient Coins.—We subjoin, for the convenience of such of our readers as may at any time have occasion to consult works in which reference is made to ancient coins, the following tables of those that were principally current among the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. They were calculated by Dr. Arbuthnot (*Tables of Ancient Coins, Weights, &c.* 4to ed. Lond. 1764), and do not differ materially from the tables of Pausan, whose *Metrologie* (4to, Paris, 1780) is the most complete and elaborate work that has ever been published with respect to ancient monies, weights, and measures. At the same time we confess we should not be disposed to place much reliance on these tables, and we have elsewhere stated our reasons for holding this opinion.—(*Encyc. Britannica*, art. *Money*.)

Names and Proportions.

JEWISH COINS.

Names and Proportions.	Value in Sterling.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Gerah	0 0 1 1/100
10 Bekah	0 1 1 1/10
20 Shekel	0 2 2 1/2
1,200 Mina Hebraica } Mina	5 14 0 1/2
60,000 Talent	342 3 9
Solidus aureus, or sextulus, worth	0 12 0 1/2
Silius aureus, worth	1 18 6
A talent of gold, worth	5,475 0 0

GRÆCIAN COINS.

Names and Proportions.	Value in Sterling.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Lepton	0 0 0 3/100
7 Chalcus	0 0 0 3/10
14 Diobolus	0 0 0 1 1/2
28 Hemilibolus	0 0 0 2 1/2
56 Obolus	0 1 1 1/2
112 Minobolus	0 2 2 1/2
224 Tetrobolus	0 5 0 1/2
336 Drachma	0 7 3
669 Didrachma	1 3 2
1,324 Tetradrachma	2 7 0
1,650 Pentadrachma	3 3 3

* The American dollars, and inferior silver pieces of late coinage, vary in fineness from W. 4 dwts. to W. 9 1/2 dwts.

Of the foregoing Grecian coins, the drachma and didrachma were of silver; the rest, for the most part, of brass.

The drachma is here, with the generality of authors, supposed equal to the denarius; though there is reason to believe that the drachma was somewhat the weightier.

	Value in Sterling.
	£ s. d.
The Grecian gold coin was the stater aureus, weighing 2 Attic drachms, or half of the stater argenteus; and exchanging usually for 25 Attic drachmas of silver	} 0 16 1½
But according to our proportion of gold to silver it was worth	} 1 0 9
There were likewise the stater Cypriacus, exchanging for 25 Attic drachmas, or the stater Philippius, and stater Alexandrinus, were of the same value.	} 0 16 1
Stater Daricus, according to Josephus, worth 50 Attic drachmas, or	} 1 12 3½
Stater Croesus, of the same value.	

VALUE AND PROPORTION OF THE ROMAN COINS.

	Sterling.
	s. d. grs.
Teruncius	0 0 0 ⁷⁷⁸ / ₁₀₀₀
2 Sembella	0 0 1 ⁴⁵ / ₁₀₀
4 2 Libella } As	0 0 3 ¹⁰ / ₁₀
10 5 2½ Sestertius	0 1 3½
20 10 5 2 Quinarius } Victoriatus }	0 3 3½
40 20 10 4 2 Denarius	0 7 3

The Roman gold coin, or aureus, weighed generally double the denarius; its value, according to the proportion of gold to silver, mentioned by Pliny, was £ 1 4 3½. According to the proportion that now obtains amongst us - 1 0 9. According to the decuple proportion mentioned by Livy and Julius Pollux - 0 12 11. According to the proportion mentioned by Tacitus, by which the aureus exchanged for 25 denarii, its value - 0 16 1½.

COIR, a species of yarn manufactured out of the husk of cocoa nuts. The husks being steeped in water, the dry dusty substance mixed with the fibres is separated. These are afterwards spun into yarn, and manufactured into cordage, that is deemed by some superior to that made of hemp. The goodness of coir depends on the fineness of the filaments, and on their being of a bright yellow colour. About 3,000,000 lbs. weight are annually exported from Ceylon, principally to Calcutta, and other ports in the East Indies. It is also prepared in the Maldive Islands, and many other places; and is very extensively used throughout the East. — (*Bertolacci's Ceylon*; *Bell's Commerce of Bengal*, &c.)

COLOCYNTHIS, COLOQUINTIDA, OR BITTER CUCUMBER (Ger. *Koloquinten*; Du. *Bitter-appelen*; Fr. *Coloquintes*; It. *Coloquintida*; Sp. *Coloquintidas*; Arab. and Pers. *Hunzil*), the produce of an annual plant (*Cucumis colocynthis* Lin.) growing in Turkey, Nubia, India, and other places, much resembling the cucumber in herbage. When ripe, the fruit is peeled and dried in a stove; and in this state is brought to England. It is inodorous, but has an extremely nauseous taste. It is an exceedingly powerful drastic cathartic. When it is larger than a St. Michael's orange, and has black acute pointed ends, it is not good. — (*Ainslie's Materia Indica*.)

COLONIES. — COLONY TRADE. — Colonies are establishments founded on foreign countries by individuals who either voluntarily emigrate from, or are forcibly sent abroad by, their mother country. The colony trade is the trade carried on between colonies and their parent states.

I. ESTABLISHMENT OF COLONIES.

II. INFLUENCE OF THE MONOPOLY OF THE COLONY TRADE.

III. MAGNITUDE, POPULATION, TRADE, &c. OF BRITISH COLONIES. — DISPOSAL OF LAND IN THE COLONIES, &c.

IV. REGULATIONS UNDER WHICH THE COLONY TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

V. FOREIGN COLONIES.

I. ESTABLISHMENT OF COLONIES.

(1.) *Greek Colonies.* — Various motives have, in different countries and ages, led to the formation of colonies.* The Greek colonies of antiquity seem to have been chiefly

* Seneca has given, in a few words, a very clear and accurate statement of the different motives that induced the ancients to found colonies. — "Nec omnibus eodem causa retinendi quaerendique patriam fuit. Alios exordia urbium suarum, hostilibus armis clausas, in aliena, spoliatas suta, expulerunt; Alios domesticis aditio submovit; Alios nimia superfuerunt populi frequentia, ad exonerandas vires, emisit; Alios pestilentia, aut frequens terrarum hiatus, aut aliqua intoleranda infelicitas soli cjecerunt; Quosdam fertilitas orae, et in majus laudate, fama corruptit; Alios alia causa exivit domibus suis." — (Consol. ad Helviam, c. 6.)

founded by citizens whom the violence and fury of contending factions forced to leave their native land; but they were sometimes formed for the purpose of relieving the mother country of a redundant population, and sometimes also for the purpose of extending the sphere of commercial transactions, or of providing for their security. The relations between the mother country and the colony depended, in a great measure, on the motives which led to the establishment of the latter. When a colony was founded by fugitives forcibly expelled from their ancient homes; or when it was founded, as was frequently the case, by bodies of voluntary emigrants, who received no assistance from, and were in no respect controlled by, the parent state, it was from the first independent; and even in those rarer cases in which the emigration was conducted under the superintendence of the parent city, and when the colony was protected by her power and influence, the dependence was, mostly, far from being absolute and complete. The great bulk of the Greek colonies were really independent states; and though they commonly regarded the land of their forefathers with filial respect, though they yielded to its citizens the place of distinction at public games and religious solemnities, and were expected to assist them in time of war, they did so as allies only, on fair and equal terms, and never as subjects. Owing to the freedom of their institutions, and their superiority in the arts of civilised life to the native inhabitants of the countries among whom they were generally placed, these colonies rose, in a comparatively short period, to a high pitch of opulence and refinement; and many among them, as Miletus and Ephesus in Asia Minor, Syracuse and Agrigentum in Sicily, and Tarentum and Locri in Italy, not only equalled, but greatly surpassed, their mother cities in wealth and power.

(2.) *Roman Colonies.*—The Roman colonies were, for the most part, founded by and under the authority of government; being intended to serve both as outlets for poor and discontented citizens, and as military stations, or garrisons, to secure the subjection of the conquered provinces over which they were scattered. The most intimate political union was always maintained between them and the mother city. Their internal government was modelled on that of Rome; and, while their superior officers were mostly sent from the capital, they were made to contribute their full quota of troops and taxes, to assist in carrying on the contests in which the Republic was almost constantly engaged.

(3.) *Spanish Colonies.*—The early colonies of most modern nations were founded by private adventurers, influenced either by the hope of gain, or by a desire to escape from religious persecution, without any wish to relieve the mother country of a surplus population, or to bridle subjugated provinces. On their first institution, therefore, the modern colonies approached, though with some essential variations, more nearly to the Grecian than the Roman model—but the period of their freedom was of very limited duration. They were very soon subjected to laws and regulations framed in the metropolis, and calculated, as was to be supposed, rather to promote its interests than those of the colony. At a somewhat later period the foundation of colonial establishments was eagerly patronised by most European governments, in the view of extending commerce, and of enriching the mother country, by securing to her the exclusive possession of the market of distant countries; and where, from the thinness of the aboriginal population, or their inferiority in the arts of civilised life, the colonists were enabled to amass fortunes with comparative rapidity.

The Spaniards who first resorted to America after its discovery, had no intention of settling in the country, or of colonising it. The idea that gold and silver alone constituted wealth was then universally prevalent; and the bold and enterprising companions and followers of Columbus, instead of engaging in industrious undertakings, which they neither understood nor relished, sought only to enrich themselves by plundering the feeble and defenceless natives of the gold and silver in their possession, and of the abundance of which the most exaggerated accounts were immediately spread throughout Europe. When new adventurers arrived on an unknown coast, their single inquiry was, whether it abounded in gold. If it did, they remained, for some time at least, in the country; if not, they immediately set sail for some other quarter. *Auri rabida sitis a cultura Hispanos dicitur*, is the expressive statement of a contemporary writer (Petrus Martyrus, in the *Novus Orbis* of Grynaeus, p. 511.). The slow progress of the Spanish colonies, after their first discovery, must principally be ascribed to this cause. The gold and silver accumulated by the natives were very soon exhausted; and the skill and energy of the successive swarms of adventurers, who continued to pour into the country, were principally directed to the unproductive and generally ruinous trade of mining. The few large fortunes that were made in this way, like the large prizes in a lottery, inflamed the cupidity of the multitude, and gave an appearance of credibility to the fabulous accounts of the excessive productiveness of the mines. After the gambling spirit which had exclusively actuated the early adventurers had begun to subside, the colonists gradually betook themselves to agricultural and commercial pursuits; and the vast variety of valuable productions with which Mexico and the other Spanish colonies

abound, the extreme richness of the soil, and their advantageous situation, would, had they been only tolerably well governed, have occasioned their rapid increase in wealth and civilisation. But a blind and intolerant despotism paralysed their energies, and fettered and retarded their progress. All the abuses and defects of the government of Old Spain were transferred to, and multiplied in, the colonies. The whole property of those vast regions was considered as vested in the crown of Spain; and every law or regulation, whether of a local or general nature, affecting their government, emanated from the council of the Indies, in which it was supposed the king was always present. We cannot stop to describe the sort of regulations to which the colonists were subjected with any degree of minuteness; but we may notice a few of them, to furnish the means of judging of their general spirit and probable effect. It was, for example, made a capital offence to carry on any intercourse with foreigners; and the inhabitants of the different colonies were even forbidden any intercourse with each other, unless under the strictest and most vexatious regulations. There were several articles, such as flax, hemp, and wine, which they were not permitted to cultivate; at the same time that the crown reserved to itself the monopoly of salt, tobacco, gunpowder, and some other less important articles. The alcavala, and other oppressive imposts, which had proved destructive of industry in Old Spain, were rigorously levied as well on the exports as on the imports of the colonies. No situation of power or emolument could be filled except by a native of Old Spain. The Catholic religion was established, to the exclusion of every other; and bishops, tithes, and the inquisition, followed in its train: while, in order still better to consolidate and strengthen the foundations of this monstrous despotism, the government endeavoured to make the colonists insensible of their degradation, by proscribing every species of instruction, and watchfully opposing the introduction and progress of all useful knowledge!

Under such circumstances, we cannot be surprised that the Continental colonists, among whom the monopoly system was maintained in its greatest purity, should have languished for above two centuries in a state of sluggish inactivity. Though surrounded by all the means of producing wealth, they were not generally wealthy. Oppression rendered them indolent; and went far to deprive them not only of the power, but also of the wish, to emerge from poverty. The progress of the colonists who occupied the West India islands was not quite so slow. It is certain, however, that down to the middle of last century, Spain reaped no greater advantage from the possession of Cuba, Hispaniola, and Porto Rico, than England or France from the smallest of its dependencies. In proof of this we may mention, that the noble island of Cuba, which could without difficulty supply all Europe with sugar, did not, in 1750, produce a sufficient quantity even for the consumption of Old Spain. But the combined influence of an arbitrary and intolerant government, and of a degrading superstition, could not balance the means of improvement, which the fertility of the soil, and the command thence arising over most of the necessaries and many of the conveniences of life, gave to the colonists. Owing also to the total incapacity of Old Spain to furnish her transatlantic provinces with a sufficient supply of the articles she had forced them to import from Europe, and the consequent extension of the contraband trade carried on with them by the other European nations, she had been compelled gradually to relax the severity of her commercial monopoly. A new impulse was thus given to the spirit of industry. The colonists began to be more sensible of the natural advantages of their situation, and less inclined to submit to the blind and bigoted policy of the Spanish court. In 1781, a rebellion broke out in Peru, in consequence of an attempt made by the government to establish a new monopoly in that province, which threatened to end in the total dissolution of the connection between Spain and South America, and was not quelled without great difficulty and much bloodshed. But the spirit of liberty, when once excited, could not be suppressed. It continued to gain ground progressively, until the commencement of the late contest between France and Spain interrupted the communication with the mother country, and gave the colonists an opportunity of proclaiming that independence which, after a lengthened and bloody struggle, they happily succeeded in achieving.

(4.) *British Colonies.*—The English, who, like all the other nations of Europe, had been impressed with mingled feelings of admiration and envy by the extent and importance of the acquisitions made by the Spaniards in the New World, speedily entered with enthusiasm and ardour into the career of discovery. Owing, however, to the bull which Ferdinand and Isabella had obtained from the Pope, conveying to them the ample donation of all the countries inhabited by infidels that the Spaniards had discovered, or might discover, the English, to avoid encroaching on the dominions of their rivals, directed their efforts further to the north. Several attempts to found colonies on the coast of America were made in the reign of Elizabeth by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Sir Richard Grenville, Sir Walter Raleigh, and others. But in consequence of their ignorance of the country, the deficiency of their supplies of provisions,

the loss of time in fruitless searches after gold, and the various difficulties incident to the first settlement of a colony, none of these attempts proved successful: and it was not until 1607, that a small body of adventurers founded the first permanent establishment of the English in America, at James Town in Virginia. Letters patent were granted in 1609, by King James, to the principal persons resident in London, by whom the expense attending the formation of the colony was to be defrayed, incorporating them into a company, and establishing a council in England for the direction of their proceedings, the members of which were to be chosen by, and removeable at the pleasure of, the majority of the partners of the company; permitting whatever was necessary for the support and sustenance of the colony for the first 7 years to be exported free of duty; declaring that the colonists and their descendants were to be secured in all the rights and privileges of Englishmen, the same as if they had remained at home, or been born in England; and reserving only, as the stipulated price of these concessions, and in imitation of the policy of the Spaniards, *one fifth* part of the gold and silver ore to be found in the colonies, which was to be paid to his Majesty and his successors in all time to come. In virtue of these powers, the company issued, in 1621, a charter or ordinance, which gave a legal and permanent form to the constitution of the colony. By this charter the supreme legislative authority was lodged, partly in the governor, who held the place of the sovereign, partly in a council of state, named by the company, and partly in a general council, or assembly composed of the representatives of the people, in which were vested powers and privileges similar to those of the House of Commons. It was not long, however, before the king and the company quarrelled. The latter were in consequence divested of all their rights, partly by open violence, and partly under colour of law, without compensation, after having expended upwards of 150,000*l.* in founding the colony; and a governor and council of state appointed by the king succeeded to the powers of those appointed by the committee.—(*Robertson's History of America*, book ix. *passim*; *Jefferson's Notes on Virginia*, p. 179.)

The founders of the colony in Virginia had been actuated solely by the hopes of gain: but the colonies that were soon after established in New England, were chiefly planted by men who fled from religious and political persecution. The form of government in the New England colonies, though at first modified a good deal by the peculiar religious opinions entertained by the colonists, was in its leading principles essentially free. For a considerable period, the colonists elected their own governors, coined money, and exercised most of the rights of sovereignty; while the English, wholly engrossed with the contest between freedom and prerogative at home, had no leisure to attend to their proceedings. Subsequently to the Restoration, however, the governments of most of the New England states were established nearly on the same footing as that of Virginia; which, indeed, became the favourite model, not only for the constitution of the colonies established on the Continent, with the exception of the proprietary governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland, but also for those that were established in the West India islands. But under every vicissitude of government and fortune, the New England colonists were distinguished by the same ardent and enthusiastic love of liberty that had first induced them to quit their native land. Every thing relating to the internal regulation and administration of the different colonies was determined, in the colonial assemblies, by representatives freely chosen by the settlers. The personal liberty of the citizens was well secured and vigilantly protected. And, if we except the restraints on their commerce, the monopoly of which was jealously guarded by the mother country, the inhabitants of Virginia, Pennsylvania, and New England enjoyed nearly the same degree of freedom, when colonists of England, that they now enjoy as citizens of the powerful republic of North America. Their progress in wealth and population was in consequence quite unprecedented in the history of the world. The white population of the colonies had increased in 1776, at the commencement of the revolutionary war, to above 2,000,000, and the value of the exports from Great Britain to them amounted to about 1,300,000*l.* a year!

It is not difficult to discover the causes of the unexampled prosperity and rapid growth of our North American colonies, and generally of all colonies placed under similar circumstances. The North American colonists carried with them a knowledge of the arts and sciences practised by a civilised and polished people. They had been trained from their infancy to habits of industry and subordination. They were practically acquainted with the best and wisest form of civil polity that had been established in Europe; and they were placed in a situation that enabled them, without difficulty, to remedy its defects, and to try every institution by the test of utility. But the thinness of the aboriginal population, and the consequent facility of obtaining inexhaustible supplies of fertile and unoccupied land, must certainly be placed at the head of all the causes which have promoted the rapid increase of wealth and population in the United States, and in all the other colonies both of North and South America. On the first foundation of a colony, and for long after, each colonist gets an ample supply of land of

the *best quality*; and having no rent, and scarcely any taxes, to pay, his industry necessarily becomes exceedingly productive, and he has every means, and every motive, to amass capital. In consequence, he is eager to collect labourers from all quarters, and is both willing and able to reward them with high wages. But these high wages afford the means of accumulation, and, joined to the plenty and cheapness of the land, speedily change the more industrious labourers into proprietors, and enable them, in their turn, to become the employers of fresh labourers; so that every class participates in the general improvement, and capital and population advance with a rapidity hardly conceivable in old settled and fully peopled countries.

It has been frequently said, that the establishment of our American and West India colonies was a device of the supporters of the exclusive or mercantile system — that they founded them in the view of raising up a vast agricultural population, whose commerce should be confined entirely to an exchange of their raw products for our manufactured goods. There is, however, no truth in these assertions. On the contrary, the charters granted to the founders of the settlement in Virginia distinctly *empower the colonists to carry on a direct intercourse with foreign states*. Nor were they slow to avail themselves of this permission; for they had, so early as 1620, established tobacco warehouses in Middleburg and Flushing — (*Robertson's America*, book ix. p. 104.); and the subsequent proceedings of the British government, depriving them of this freedom of commerce, were the chief cause of those disputes which broke out, in 1676, in an open rebellion of ominous and threatening import. — (*Robertson's America*, p. 147.) It was not until the colonists had surmounted the difficulties and hardships incident to their first establishment, and had begun to increase rapidly in wealth, that their commerce became an object of importance, and that regulations were framed in the view of restricting its freedom, and of rendering it peculiarly advantageous to the mother country. The act of 1650, passed by the republican parliament, laid the first foundations of the monopoly system, by confining the import and export trade of the colonies exclusively to British or colony built ships. But the famous Navigation Act of 1660 (12 Charles 2. c. 18.) went much further. It enacted, that certain specified articles, the produce of the colonies, and since well known in commerce by the name of *enumerated* articles, should not be exported directly from the colonies to any foreign country; but that they should first be sent to Britain, and there unladen (the words of the act are, *laid upon the shore*), before they could be forwarded to their final destination. Sugar, molasses, ginger, fustic, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, were originally enumerated; and the list was subsequently enlarged by the addition of coffee, hides and skins, iron, corn, lumber, &c. In 1739, the monopoly system was so far relaxed, that sugars were permitted to be carried directly from the British plantations to any port or place southward of Cape Finisterre; but the conditions under which this indulgence was granted, continued so strict and numerous down to 1803, when they were a good deal simplified, as to render it in a great degree nugatory — (*Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 452. ed. 1819.); and with this exception, the oppressive and vexatious restrictions on their direct exportation to foreign countries were maintained on most of the other *enumerated* commodities of any importance, down to a late period.

But besides compelling the colonists to *sell* their produce exclusively in the English markets, it was next thought advisable to oblige them to *buy* such foreign articles as they might stand in need of entirely from the merchants and manufacturers of England. For this purpose it was enacted, in 1663, that “no commodity of the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe, shall be imported into the British plantations, but such as are laden and put on board in England, Wales, or Berwick-upon-Tweed, and in English-built shipping, whereof the master and three fourths of the crew are English.” The preamble to this statute, which effectually excluded the colonists from every market for European produce, except that of England, assigns the motive for this restriction to be, “the maintaining a greater correspondence and kindness between the subjects at home and those in the plantations; keeping the colonies in a firmer dependence on the mother country; making them yet more beneficial to it, in the further employment and increase of English shipping, and the vent of English manufactures and commodities; rendering the navigation to and from them more safe and cheap; and making this kingdom a staple, not only of the commodities of the plantations, but also of the commodities of other countries and places for their supply; it being the usage of other nations to keep their plantation trade exclusively to themselves.”

It was also a leading principle in the system of colonial policy, adopted as well by England as by the other European nations, to discourage all attempts to manufacture such articles in the colonies as could be provided for them by the mother country. The history of our colonial system is full of efforts of this sort; and so essential was this principle deemed to the idea of a colony, that Lord Chatham did not hesitate to declare, in his place in parliament, that “the British colonists of North America had no right to manufacture even a nail for a horseshoe!” — (*Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 566.) And

when such were the enactments made by the legislature, and such the avowed sentiments of a great parliamentary leader and a friend to the colonies, we need not be surprised at a declaration of the late Lord Sheffield, who did no more, indeed, than express the opinion of almost all the merchants and politicians of his time, when he affirmed that "THE ONLY use of American colonies or West India islands is THE MONOPOLY of their consumption, and the carriage of their produce!"

II. INFLUENCE OF THE MONOPOLY OF THE COLONY TRADE.

(1.) It is not necessary to enter into any lengthened disquisitions with respect to this part of our subject. The rules by which we are to form our judgment upon it, are unfolded in the article *COMMERCE*. Here it is sufficient to observe, in the first place, that, though it could be shown that restrictions on the colony trade were really advantageous to the mother country, that is not enough to prove that they should be adopted. In dealing with a colony, we are not dealing with a foreign country, but with an integral part of our own empire. And hence, in order to show that restrictions on the colony trade are advantageous, it must not merely be shown that they are beneficial to the mother country, but it must further be shown that they are beneficial, or, at all events, not injurious, to the colony. The advantage of one part of the empire is not to be purchased by the oppression of some other part. The duty of government is to promote the prosperity and to maintain the equal rights and privileges of all; not to enrich one class, or one province, at the expense of others.

This principle is decisive of the whole question. Owing to the identity of language, manners, and religion, the merchants of the mother country must always have very great advantages in the colony markets; and if the commodities which they have to sell be about as suitable for them, and as low priced, as those of others, none else will be imported into them; but if they be not, it would plainly be to the injury of the colony to compel her to buy from the mother country what she might procure cheaper from others. It will immediately be seen that such forced sale could be of no real advantage to the mother country; but whether that were so or not, its mischievous influence upon the colony is manifest. Were Jamaica, for example, obliged to import any article from England which cost her 100,000*l.* a year more than she could procure a similar article for elsewhere, she would manifestly lose this amount; and though it were true that every shilling of this sum found its way as *extra profit* into the pockets of the merchants or manufacturers of England, that would be no sufficient justification of the policy of such a system. The protection due by a government to its subjects does not depend on the varying degrees of latitude and longitude under which they happen to live. It would not be more glaringly unjust to lay peculiar burdens on the Lothians for the sake of Middlesex, than it is to lay them on Jamaica for the sake of England.

In point of fact, however, the monopoly of the colony trade is of no real use, but the reverse, to the mother country. If, as has been already observed, she can supply her colonists with goods as cheaply as they can be supplied by others, she will have no competitors in their markets; and if she cannot do this, the monopoly is really hostile to her interests. Each country has some natural or acquired capabilities that enable her to carry on certain branches of industry more advantageously than any one else. But the fact of a country being liable to be undersold in the markets of her colonies, shows conclusively, that instead of having any superiority, she labours under a disadvantage, as compared with others, in the production of the peculiar articles in demand. And hence, in providing a forced market in the colonies for articles that we should not otherwise be able to dispose of, we really engage a portion of the capital and labour of the country in a less advantageous channel than that into which it would naturally have flowed. We impress upon it an artificial direction; and withdraw it from those secure and really beneficial businesses in which it would have been employed, to engage it in businesses the existence of which depends only on the continuance of oppressive regulations, and in which we are surpassed by foreigners.

Even were it conceded that the possession of an outlet in the colonies for goods that could not otherwise be disposed of, was an advantage, it is one that can exist in theory only. Practically it can never be realised. The interests of the colonists, and the dexterity and devices of the smuggler, are too much for Custom-house regulations. Cheap goods never fail of making their way through every obstacle. All the tyrannical laws and *guarda costas* of Old Spain did not hinder her colonies from being glutted with prohibited commodities. And we may be assured that the moment a competitor appears in the field capable of supplying the Canadians and people of Jamaica with cottons, woollens, hardware, &c. cheaper than we can supply them, that moment will they cease to be our customers. All the revenue officers, and all the ships of England, supposing them to be employed for that purpose, would be unable to avert this result.

The consequences of the American war should have led to sounder opinions than those that are still current as to the value of the monopoly of the colony trade. Has

the independence of the United States been in any respect injurious to us? So far from this, it is certain that it has redounded materially to our advantage. We have been relieved from the expense and trouble of governing extensive countries at a great distance from our shores, at the same time that we have continued to reap all the advantage that we previously reaped from our intercourse with them. It is visionary to imagine that we could have succeeded either in preventing them from establishing manufactories at home, or from importing products from abroad, had any one been able to undersell us. Our command of the American market depends, at this moment, on the very same principle—the comparative cheapness of our goods—on which it depended when we had a governor in every state. So long as we preserve this advantage, we preserve the only means by which the monopoly of any distant market can be maintained, and the only means by which such monopoly is rendered of the least advantage.

Being integral parts of the empire, the trade with the colonies should, as far as circumstances will permit, be conducted on the footing of a coasting trade. The state of the revenue requires that moderate duties should be laid on sugar, coffee, and rum, when imported into Great Britain or Ireland; but the duties on cotton, cocoa, and most other colonial products, might be repealed without injury to the revenue, and with advantage to all parties. Unfortunately, however, the system we pursued down to a late period was in most respects the reverse of what it should have been. By excluding the colonists from the cheapest markets for their food and lumber, we artificially raised the cost of their produce; and then, to protect them from the consequences of such short-sighted policy, we gave them a monopoly of the British market! It is thus that one unjust and vicious regulation is sure to give birth to others; and that those who depart from sound principle have nothing left but to endeavour to bolster up one absurdity by another. It is time, surely, that an end were put to every vestige of so ruinous a system. It is as much for the interest as it is the duty of England, to remove all restrictions from the colonists, not essential for the sake of revenue: for this is the only means by which she can provide for their real prosperity, by turning their industry into those departments for the prosecution of which they are naturally fitted, and rid herself of those monopolies that form the heaviest clog upon her industry.

We could not, however anxious, exclude manufactured articles, and such foreign goods as are valuable without being very bulky, from our West India islands, provided they were offered cheaper by others. But such is not the case with lumber, provisions, &c. They are too bulky to be easily smuggled; and may be, and indeed were, very much raised in price by restrictions on their importation. For many years, all direct intercourse between our West India colonies and the United States was interdicted; and, in consequence, the planters were compelled either to supply themselves with lumber, staves, &c. by a distant voyage from Canada, or, which was by far the most common practice, from the United States, through the circuitous and expensive channel of St. Thomas and other neutral islands! In papers laid by the West India merchants and planters before the House of Commons (No. 120. Session 1831), they estimated the increased expense they thus incurred on lumber, staves, flour, shingles, fish, &c. at 15 per cent. of the entire value of these articles, or at 187,576*l.* a year. And it will be observed, that no part of this sum went into the pockets of any British merchant. It went wholly to indemnify the Americans and others for being obliged to bring their products round about by St. Thomas, instead of direct from the States.

This system grew out of the American war; but it is due to Mr. Pitt to state that it received no countenance from him. On the contrary, he introduced a bill, in 1785, for reviving the beneficial intercourse that existed previously to the war, between the United States and the West India islands. But being opposed by a powerful party in parliament, and by the ship owners and Canada merchants, he was obliged reluctantly to withdraw the bill. The following remarks of Mr. Bryan Edwards on this subject, written in 1794, are too interesting to be omitted.

“This,” says he, “is not a business of selfishness or faction; nor (like many of those questions which are daily moved in parliament merely to agitate and perplex government) can it be dismissed by a vote. It will come forward again and again, and haunt administration in a thousand hideous shapes, until a more liberal policy shall take place; for no folly can possibly exceed the notion that any measures pursued by Great Britain will prevent the American states from having, some time or other, a commercial intercourse with our West Indian territories on their own terms. With a chain of coast of 20° of latitude, possessing the finest harbours for the purpose in the world, all lying so near the sugar colonies and the track to Europe, with a country abounding in every thing the islands have occasion for, and which they can obtain no where else; all these circumstances necessarily and naturally lead to a commercial intercourse between our islands and the United States. It is true we may ruin our sugar colonies, and ourselves also, in the attempt to prevent it; but it is an experiment which God and nature have marked out as impossible to succeed. The present restraining system is forbidding men

to help each other; men who, by their necessities, their climate, and their productions, are standing in perpetual need of mutual assistance, and able to supply it."—(*Hist. West Indies*, Preface to 2d ed.)

We have also thought fit to interdict the West Indians from the refining, or, as it is technically termed, the *claying* of sugars. This is one of the few manufactures that might be advantageously set up in the islands. The process adds considerably to the value of sugar; and it might be carried on in the buildings, and by the hands, that are required to boil the cane, or to prepare the raw or muscovado sugar. Instead, however, of being allowed to refine their sugars on the spot, and where it might be done for a third part of the expense that is required in England, the planters have been prohibited from engaging in this branch of industry; and have been obliged to export all their sugars, either raw or crushed, to England. Nothing can exceed the oppressiveness of such a regulation; and what is most singular, it has not been enforced, like most regulations of the sort, in order to bolster up any of the leading interests of the country, but merely to give a factitious employment to a very small class,—that of the sugar refiners, whose natural residence is in the West Indies. The planters and merchants estimated (in 1830) the loss caused by this preposterous regulation at 75,550*l.* a year; and we regret to say that it is still enforced.

The distillation of spirits from sugar has only been occasionally allowed; but provided the duties were so adjusted as to give no advantage to the planters over the growers of barley, or to the latter over the former, we think the distillers should be, at all times, allowed to distil indiscriminately from sugar, molasses, or grain. It is the business of government to take care that the duties be so arranged as to give no unfair advantage to one party over another; but, having done this, it should do nothing more. To prohibit distillation from sugar, that a forced market may be opened for grain; or distillation from grain, that a forced market may be opened for sugar; are interferences with the freedom of industry, for which no good reason has been, nor, we believe, can be assigned.

(2.) *Relaxation of the Monopoly.*—But though a good deal remains to be done, it is not to be denied that a very material progress has been made towards the adoption of a sound system of colonial policy since 1822, when measures for the relaxation of the monopoly were introduced by Mr. Robinson (now Lord Ripon). These measures were further followed up by Mr. Huskisson in 1825, by the act 6 Geo. 4, cap. 114.; and since his time by the 3 & 4 Will. 4, cap. 59, and more recently by the 5 & 6 Vict. cap. 49., which came into operation in the West Indies on the 5th of April last (1843). These acts have repealed several of the prohibitions that formerly existed against the importation of certain articles into the West Indian colonies and the Mauritius, and they have also either repealed or very materially reduced the duties that were previously laid on others. For example, the barrel of American or other foreign flour, that down to the present year paid a duty of 5*s.*, may now be imported on paying a duty of 2*s.* Most other duties on articles of food have been reduced in the same proportion; and rice, wood, and lumber, articles of great importance in the colonies, which formerly paid high duties, may now be imported duty free.—(See *post.*) We believe, indeed, that it would be sound policy to carry still farther this liberal system, by entirely repealing the duties on flour, salt meat, and all other articles of provision. Jamaica and our other West Indian colonies, may be viewed as immense sugar, rum, and coffee manufactories, which, though situated at a distance from England, belong to Englishmen, and are carried on by English capital. But to promote the prosperity of any manufacture without injury to others, there are no means, at once so obvious and effectual, as to give those engaged in it the means of carrying it on with the least outlay, and to keep the duties on its produce as low as possible. And, how much soever we may fail in the last of these necessary conditions, we have now but little to reproach ourselves with in regard to the former. It were better certainly that the duties on necessaries imported into the colonies should be wholly repealed; but if they are to be retained, those imposed by the late act are as moderate as can well be desired.

Formerly, though American and other foreign flour could not be imported from a foreign country into the West India islands without paying a duty of 5*s.* a barrel, it might be imported free of duty into Canada and our other possessions on the continent of N. America, and be thence exported in British ships to the islands free of duty. In consequence of this regulation a large proportion of the flour, lumber, and other articles required for the supply of the islands, instead of being shipped direct for them from New Orleans, Baltimore, and other American ports, was sent in the first instance to Canada, whence it was conveyed in British ships to its final destination. So that the influence of the duty was not so much to raise a revenue, or to open a market for the flour, provisions, and lumber of Canada, as to make the flour and other necessaries supplied to the colonists by the United States be carried, at a heavy expense, a roundabout voyage of some 2,000 miles and transhipped, that employment might be found for a few

thousand tons of British and colonial shipping! But this preposterous system is happily at an end. American flour is now charged with a duty of 5s. a barrel in Canada; and, independently of this, the duties on foreign articles directly imported into the colonies are too low to give any encouragement to their indirect conveyance.

It is, however, not a little singular, that while the imperial legislature has thus endeavoured, by repealing and lowering the duties on most articles of foreign produce, to provide for the future prosperity of the colonies, the legislature of Jamaica should have passed an act imposing heavy duties on the same articles. Luckily, however, this most impolitic act expires on the 31st of December 1843 and government has most properly directed the governor to refuse his assent should it be attempted to renew it, or to propose any similar measure. — (*Parl. Paper No. 292. Sess. 1843.*)

Hitherto, however, concession has been all on the one side; and while we have all but emancipated the trade of the colonies, and allowed them to resort to all the markets of the world, we confine our demand for colonial produce exclusively to their markets. So long, indeed, as the colonists were compelled to take all that they wanted from us, it was but fair that we should be compelled to take the sugar and other articles with which they could supply us exclusively from them. But having liberated them from this obligation and permitted them to resort to whatever markets they think most advantageous, where is the justice or policy of continuing to confine the people of the U. Kingdom to their markets? This, of all possible cases, is that in which reciprocity would seem to be most desirable. If it be right, as no doubt it is, that the planters of Jamaica should, if they deem it most for their interest, be allowed to draw supplies of flour, provisions, and manufactured goods from New Orleans or Baltimore, on what pretence is the British manufacturer or merchant to be prevented from importing sugar from Rio, the Havannah, or Batavia?

Having done so much to abolish prohibitions on one side, we are bound to do as much for their abolition on the other. Having deprived the merchants and manufacturers of the U. Kingdom of the monopoly of the colony market, we cannot, without violating every principle of consistency and justice, refuse to deprive the colonists of the monopoly of the British markets. Indeed the ablest and most zealous defenders of the colony system have admitted that one part of it could not be supported independently of the rest, that it is of a piece, and must either stand or fall together. "The British dominions," says Lord Sheffield, "are as much entitled to the markets of the British West Indies, as the latter are entitled to those of the former, and whenever that monopoly is given up it will be the HIGHEST ABSURDITY NOT TO OPEN ALL THE BRITISH PORTS TO FOREIGN RAW SUGARS." — (*Observations on the Commerce of the American States, p. 288.*) Inasmuch, indeed, as the well-being and prosperity of the people of the U. Kingdom is of incomparably more importance than that of the West Indian colonists, every argument that has been or that may be brought forward to show the impolicy of the restraints on the trade of the latter, applies with tenfold force to those laid on the trade of the former.

Influence of the Monopoly on the Sugar, Timber, &c. imported into the U. Kingdom. — It appears from the official returns given in the *Parl. Paper No. 226. Sess. 1843*, that during the three years ending with 1842, 3,840,309 cwt. sugar were annually retained for home consumption in the U. Kingdom; and it farther appears, from the same return, that while the average price of British muscovado sugar during that period was 41s. 10d. a cwt., the average price of Brazil sugar was only 20s. 2d. a cwt. Hence it follows that if the present prohibitory duty of 63s. a cwt. on foreign sugar had been reduced to the same level (24s.) as that on British colonial sugar, we might have purchased the same supply of sugar for 20s. 2d. a cwt. that cost us 41s. 10d., which, on the average quantity consumed during the last three years, would have been a total saving in this single article of no less than 4,168,335l. a year! But it may, perhaps, be said, that had our ports been open to the free importation of Brazil and other foreign sugars, the price of the latter would have been raised; and so, probably, it would; though, considering the vast extent and productiveness of the field from which sugar may now be brought, we doubt whether this effect would be very sensible. But supposing that the opening of our ports had raised the price of foreign sugar from 20s. 2d. to 25s. a cwt., still the saving would have amounted to 3,240,260l. 6s. a year! — (*See art. SUGAR.*)

This is bad enough, certainly; but this is not all. Not only do we force the people of the U. Kingdom to pay the planters of the West India islands and the Mauritius twice the price for their sugar for which they could supply themselves with equally good foreign sugar, but, in order to force a trade with Canada, we admit its inferior timber at a duty of 1s. a load, while we impose a duty of 25s. a load on the superior timber brought from the Baltic and other foreign countries. — (*See art. TIMBER.*) It is needless to dwell on the glaring impolicy of such *felo de se* regulations. In Great Britain sugar is no longer a luxury but a necessary; and the largest supply of the best and cheapest timber is of the last importance to a manufacturing nation possessed of a great mercantile and warlike navy. And yet we load these indispensable articles with

oppressive duties, not for the sake of revenue, but merely that we may consume the produce of Jamaica and Canada rather than of Brazil or Prussia. It is surely impossible that we should continue to subject ourselves to such burdens for such an object. If sugar cannot be as cheaply produced in Jamaica and our other islands as in Brazil and Cuba, its culture must be a public loss, and should be abandoned for the culture of other articles more suitable to their peculiar capacities. It might, no doubt, be wrong at once to reduce the duty on foreign sugar to the same level as that on the sugar brought from our colonies. But the duties on the former should be progressively, and not very slowly, lowered, till they are reduced to the same level as those on the latter. The monopoly against the colonies having been abandoned, it is not to be endured that the monopoly against the mother country should be indefinitely prolonged.

The expense of the colonies is, also, a very heavy item in the national expenditure — far more so than is generally supposed. Not only are we subjected to oppressive discriminating duties on foreign articles, that similar articles from the colonies may enjoy the monopoly of our markets, but we have to defray a very large sum on account of their military and naval expenditure. There are no means by which to estimate the precise amount of this expense; but it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain, that Canada and the islands in the West Indies cost us annually, in military and naval outlays, upwards of a million and a half in time of peace, exclusive of the revenue collected in them. And if to this heavy expense be added the vast additional sums their defence costs during war, the debtor side of a fairly drawn up colonial budget would attain to a very formidable magnitude; and one which we apprehend could not possibly be balanced.

With the exception of the outlet which they afford to emigrants (which, however, is not so great as that afforded by the U. States), we have yet to learn what are the advantages we derive from our colonies in N. America. They do not, we are bold to say, furnish a single article which we might not import at a less cost from elsewhere; and if we said that their occupation costs us directly and indirectly (through the unjust preference given to their products in our markets) the sum of 3,500,000*l.* a year, over and above every countervailing advantage, we are pretty confident we should be considerably within the mark. Some, if not all, of our West India colonies are in the same, or nearly the same predicament. And on the whole, it is all but certain that we should be considerable gainers by providing, under judicious regulations, for the independence of our transatlantic dominions.

In entertaining this opinion we are not singular. "If," said Lord Sheffield, "we have not purchased our experience sufficiently dear, let us derive a lesson of wisdom from the misfortunes of other nations, who, like us, pursued the phantom of foreign conquest and distant colonisation; and who, in the end, found themselves less populous, opulent, and powerful. By the war of 1739, which may be truly called an American contest, we incurred a debt of upwards of 31,000,000*l.*; by the war of 1755 we incurred a further debt of 71,500,000*l.*; and by the war of the revolt we have added to both these debts nearly 100,000,000*l.* more! And thus we have expended a far larger sum in defending and retaining our colonies, than the value of all the merchandise we have ever sent them. So egregious has our impolicy been, in rearing colonists for the sake of their custom!" — (*On the Commerce of the American States*, p. 240.)

We hope it will not be supposed, from any thing now stated, that we consider the foundation of colonial establishments as, generally speaking, inexpedient. We entertain no such opinion. We do not object to the establishment of colonies, provided they be placed in advantageous situations, but we do object to the trammels that have been laid on their industry, the interference exercised by the mother countries in their domestic concerns, and the attempts to govern and coerce them after they have attained to maturity. Every individual should have full liberty to leave his native country; and occasions very frequently occur, when governments may advantageously interfere to settle emigrants in foreign countries, and when the soundest policy dictates the propriety of their supporting and protecting them until they are in a situation to support and protect themselves. There can be no question that Europe has been prodigiously benefited by the colonisation of America. The colonists carried the arts, the sciences, the language, and the religion of the most civilised communities of the Old World to regions of vast extent and great natural fertility, occupied only by a few miserable savages. The empire of civilisation has in consequence been immeasurably extended: and while the experience afforded by the rise and progress of communities placed under such novel circumstances, has served to elucidate and establish many most important and fundamental principles in government and legislation, Europe has been enriched by the vast variety of new products America has afforded to stimulate the inventive powers of genius, and to reward the patient hand of industry.

But whatever may have been the advantages hitherto derived from the colonisation of America, they are trifling compared to what they would have been, had the European

powers left the colonists at liberty to avail themselves of all the advantages of their situation, and avoided encumbering themselves with the government of extensive territories 3,000 miles distant. Fortunately, however, a new era has begun—*Novus seculorum nascitur ordo!* The monopoly of the trade of America is destroyed, and her independence achieved. From Canada to Cape Horn, every port is ready to receive adventurers from Europe; and a boundless field has, in consequence, been opened for the reception of our surplus population, and for the advantageous employment of European arts, capital, and skill. The few remains of the old colonial system which still exist, cannot be of long duration. Their mischievous operation is no longer doubtful, and they will disappear according as the knowledge of sound commercial principles is more generally diffused.

The colonisation of Australia will also contribute in no ordinary degree to extend the blessings of civilisation; and there can be no doubt that this newly discovered quarter of the globe, the native inhabitants of which were still fewer in number and more barbarous than those of America, is destined, at no very remote period, to be the seat of flourishing communities: and while they preserve the language and literature, it is to be hoped that they may also pursue the mild, liberal, and tolerant policy, of the illustrious people from whom it should ever be their proudest boast to have descended.

(3.) *Slavery.*—Since the publication of the first edition of this work, a vast change has been effected in the condition of society in our West India colonies and the Mauritius, by the abolition of slavery, under the provisions of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 73. (See art. SLAVES AND SLAVE TRADE.)

In the second edition of this work, published soon after the act for the abolition of slavery had been passed, and before its provisions had been carried into effect, we ventured to speculate as follows on its probable results:—

“Nothing but vague conjectures can, of course, be indulged in as to the future working of this measure in the colonies. We believe, however, that those who have contended that it will not be productive of any falling off in the industry of the blacks will be found to have taken a very erroneous view of the matter. Field labour in the West Indies has hitherto been always associated with slavery and degradation, and been enforced by the lash. The fair inference, consequently, is, that when the fetters are struck off the slave, and he is left to follow his own inclinations, he will be desirous of escaping from what he cannot fail to consider an ignominious occupation. Necessity, no doubt, will prevent him from becoming altogether indolent; but the effect will in this, as in other instances, be proportioned to its cause; and necessity in the West Indies is very different from necessity in Europe. Most articles that are here deemed indispensable, would there be positive incumbrances; and those essential to subsistence may be procured with less, certainly, than half the labour hitherto exacted from the slaves. At some future period, perhaps, when the recollection of their degradation has begun to fade, and a taste for conveniences and gratifications has been introduced amongst them, they may become more industrious; but this is a distant and a very uncertain prospect. We therefore look, at first, for a very considerable decline in the industry of the slaves, and a proportional falling off in the exports from the islands.”

It will be seen, from the returns given in a subsequent part of this article, that these anticipations have been more than realised, and that there has been a most extraordinary falling off in the imports from the colonies. We confess, also, that we are a good deal more sceptical than formerly in our anticipations of their future increase. Industry, when carried on by free labourers, is prosecuted only as a means by which they may require an adequate supply of necessaries and conveniences. And it is all but contradictory and absurd to suppose that a population with few wants, occupying a soil of great natural fertility, lying under a burning sun which unfits for exertion, should voluntarily engage in severe, and, to them, useless labour. We believe, indeed, that it will be found wholly impossible, except under peculiar circumstances, to carry on the culture of sugar on its present plan, in tropical countries, by the agency of *really* free labourers. Hayti, formerly the most important and productive of all the sugar colonies, does not now produce a single cwt. of sugar. Mexico is, also, fast relapsing into the most deplorable barbarism (see *Geog. Dict.*, art. *Mexico*); and experience seems to show that some sort of modified slavery, or, which is the same thing, of compulsory labour, is indispensable to the successful prosecution of industry in tropical countries. It is to this that the extraordinary increase of produce in Java is to be ascribed; and, how much soever we may cry out against the slavery of the U. States, there cannot, we apprehend, be a doubt that its existence, how objectionable soever in many respects, is necessary to the advantageous cultivation of the Southern states. It is the same in Cuba and Brazil. Were their slaves emancipated, may it not be fairly presumed that they would gradually, and not very slowly, sink into the state of Mexico and Hayti? and that instead of an extensive culture of sugar and other articles for foreign demand, the bulk of the population would be satisfied if they supplied themselves with those

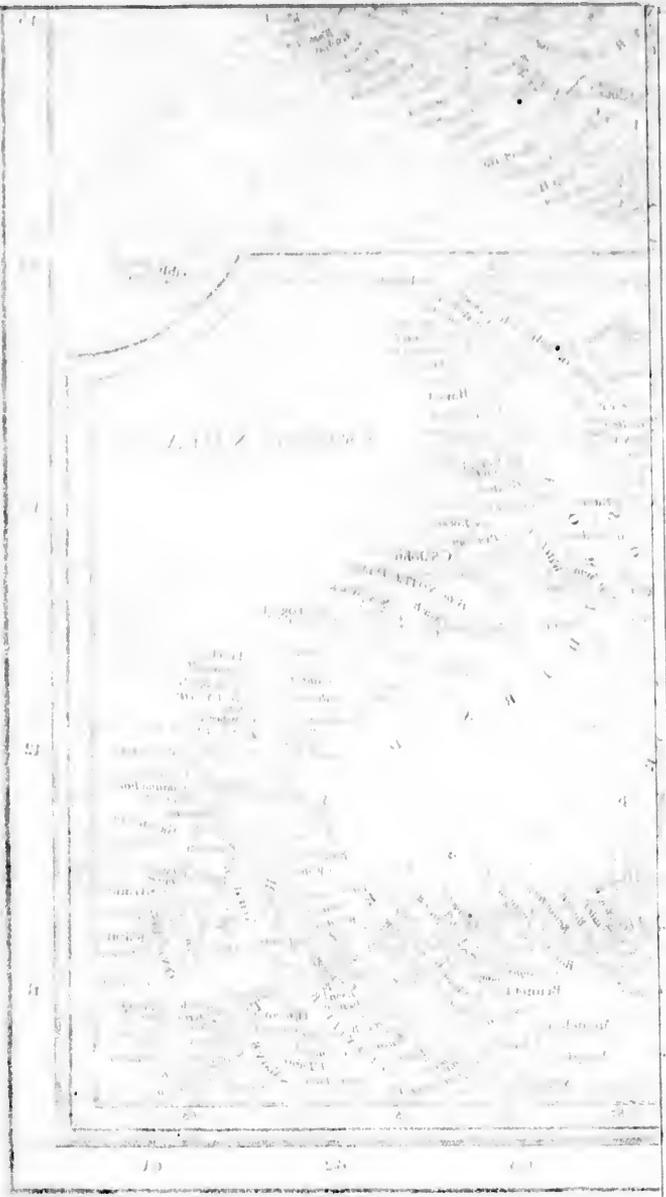
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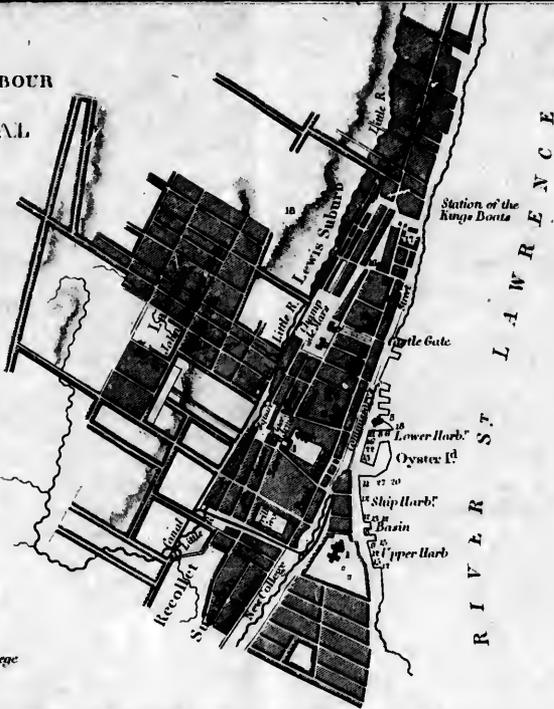
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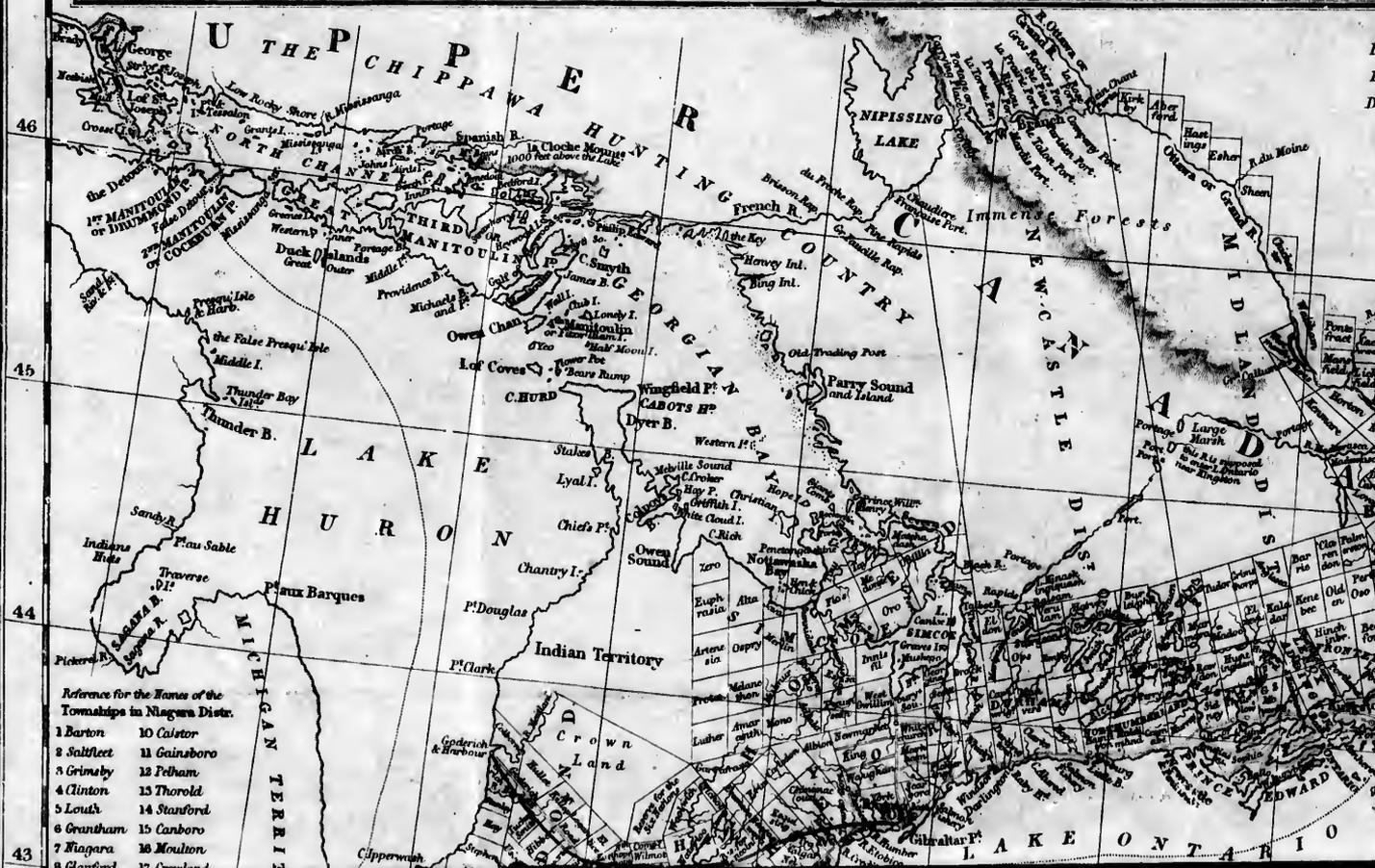
PLAN
of the
CITY AND HARBOUR
of
MONTREAL

References

1. Hospital General
2. Beccollet Church
3. the Bank
4. College
5. Mon. Cat. Cathedral
6. Hotel Dieu
7. Convent Chapel
8. Scotch Church
9. Court House
10. Canal
11. Market
12. Government House
13. Theatre
14. Mansion House
15. Notre Dame Church
16. Ordnance Office
17. Quebec Barracks
18. New Church and College

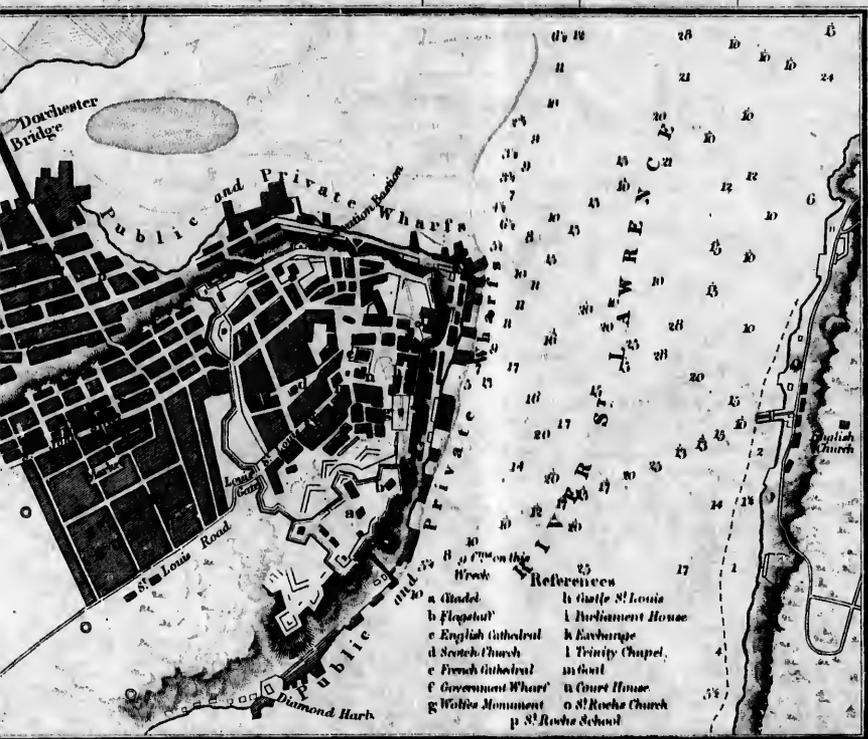


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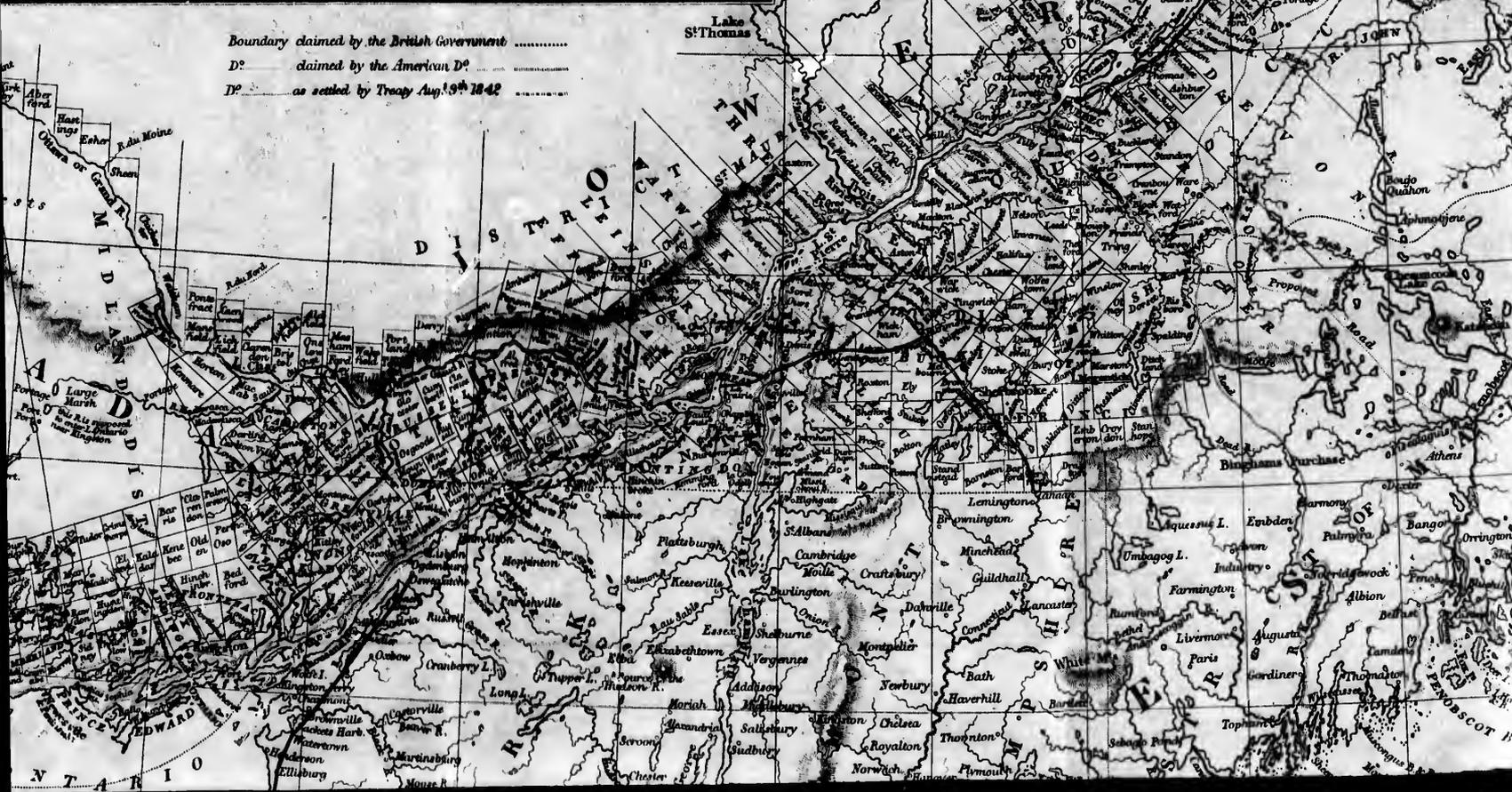


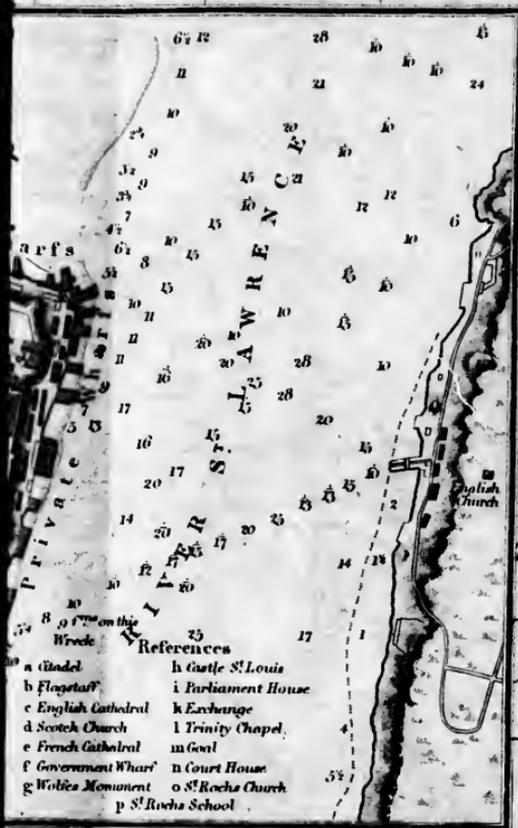
Reference for the Names of the Townships in Niagara Distr.

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1 Barton | 10 Calster |
| 2 Saltfleet | 11 Gainsboro |
| 3 Grimsby | 12 Pelham |
| 4 Clinton | 13 Thorold |
| 5 Louisa | 14 Stamford |
| 6 Grantham | 15 Canboro |
| 7 Niagara | 16 Moulton |
| 8 Glanford | 17 Crowland |

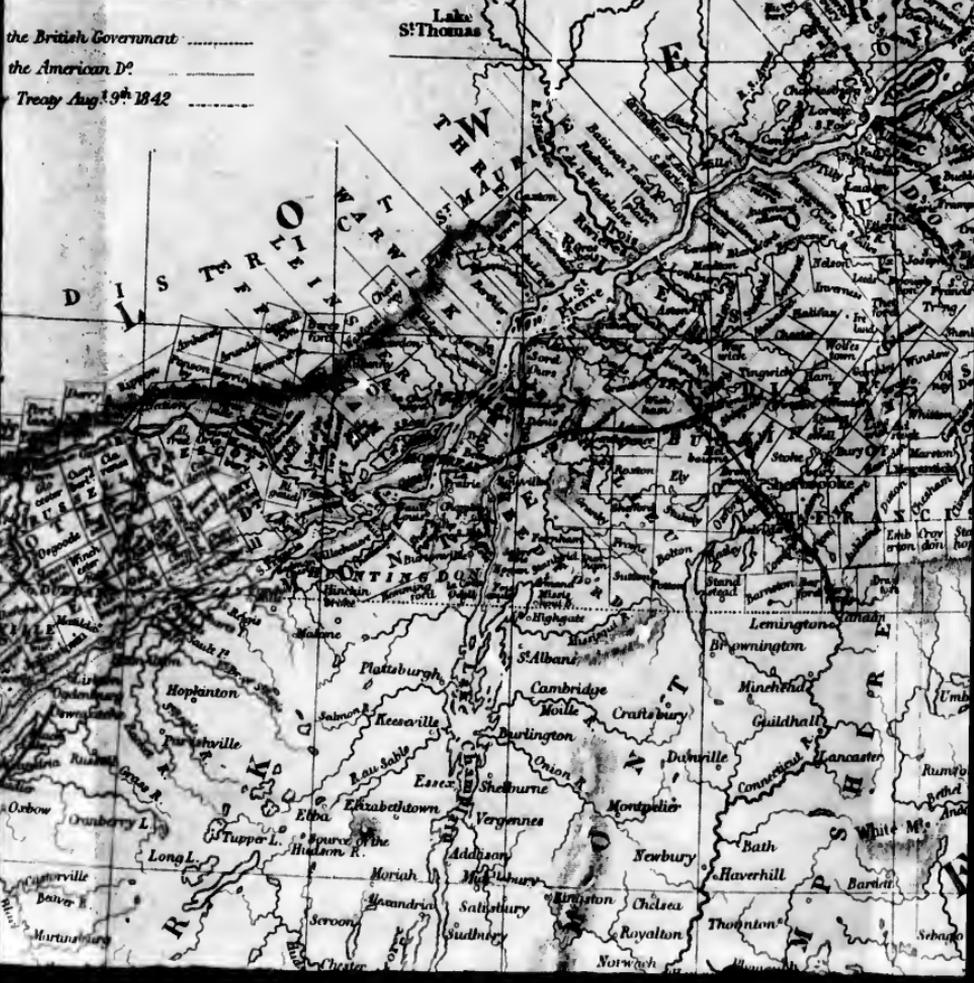


Boundary claimed by the British Government
 D? claimed by the American D?
 D? as settled by Treaty Aug. 7th 1842





the British Government
 the American D^o
 Treaty Aug. 19th 1842





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64

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ANTICOSTI

GULF OF

ST. LAWRENCE

MAGDALEN ISLANDS

BAY OF ST. GEORGE

CAPE BRETON

STRAIT

NEWFOUNDLAND.

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S. Genevieve B.
P. Ferrolle
S. Johns B.
S. Johns I.
P. Rich

Belle Isle
Quirpon I.
White P.
J. J. J. B.
S. Laurens B.
Goose C.
Hare B.
C. H. H.
G. H. H.
Belle I. S.
C. H. H.

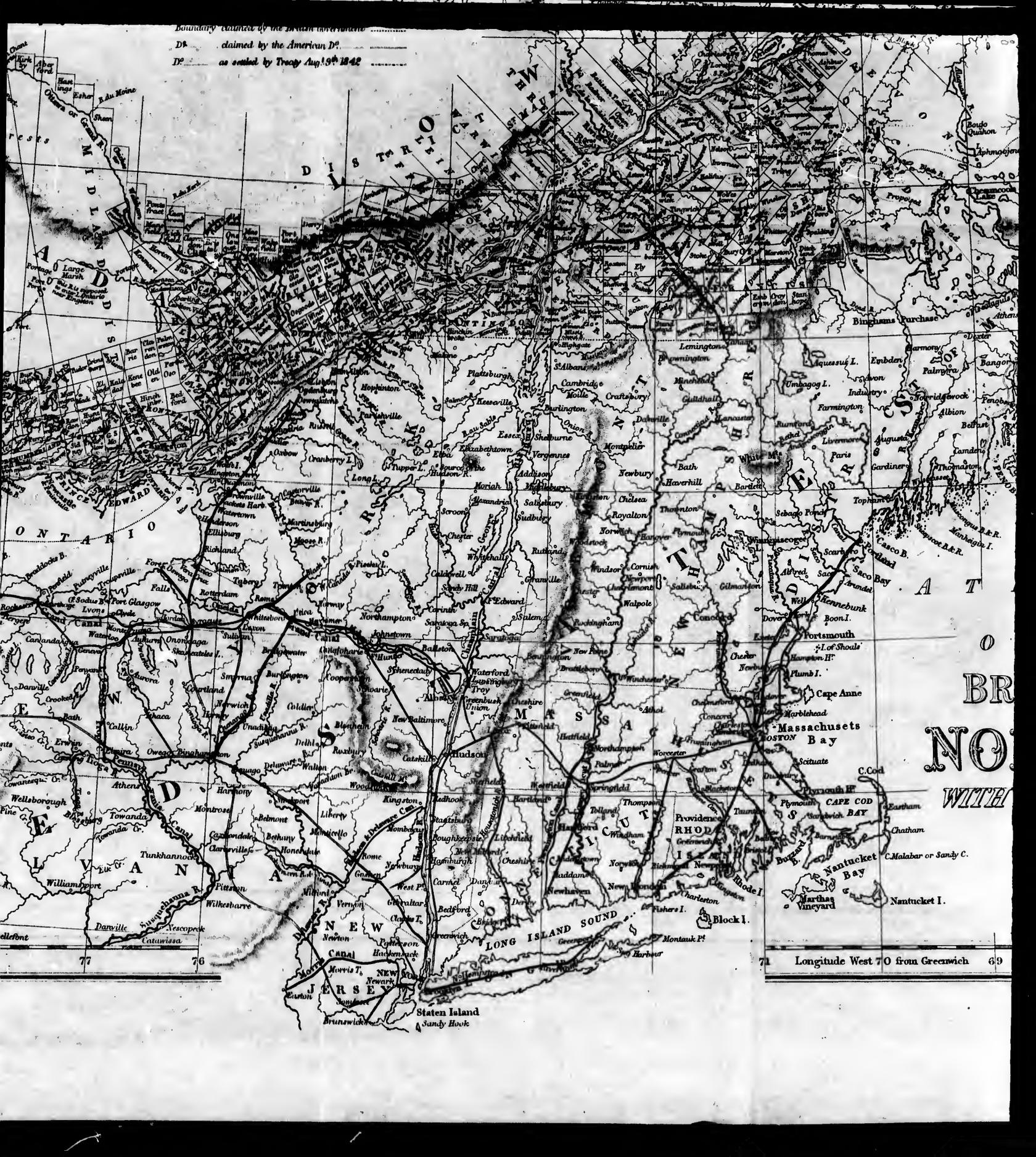
Sable Island



Boundary claimed by the British Government

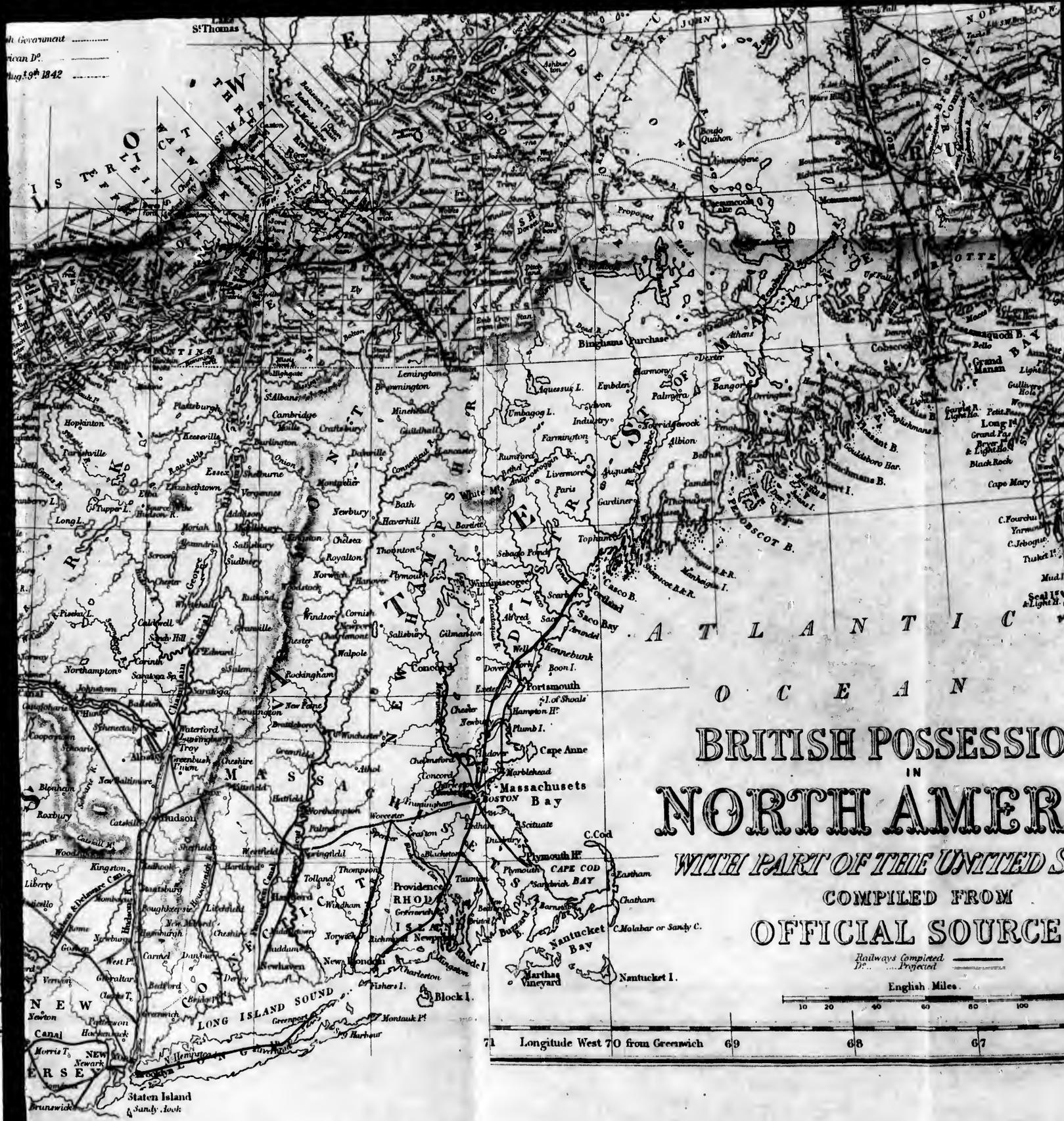
D^a claimed by the American D^a

D^b as settled by Treaty Aug. 9th 1842



Longitude West 70 from Greenwich 69

U.S. Government
Ocean D.
Aug 19th 1842



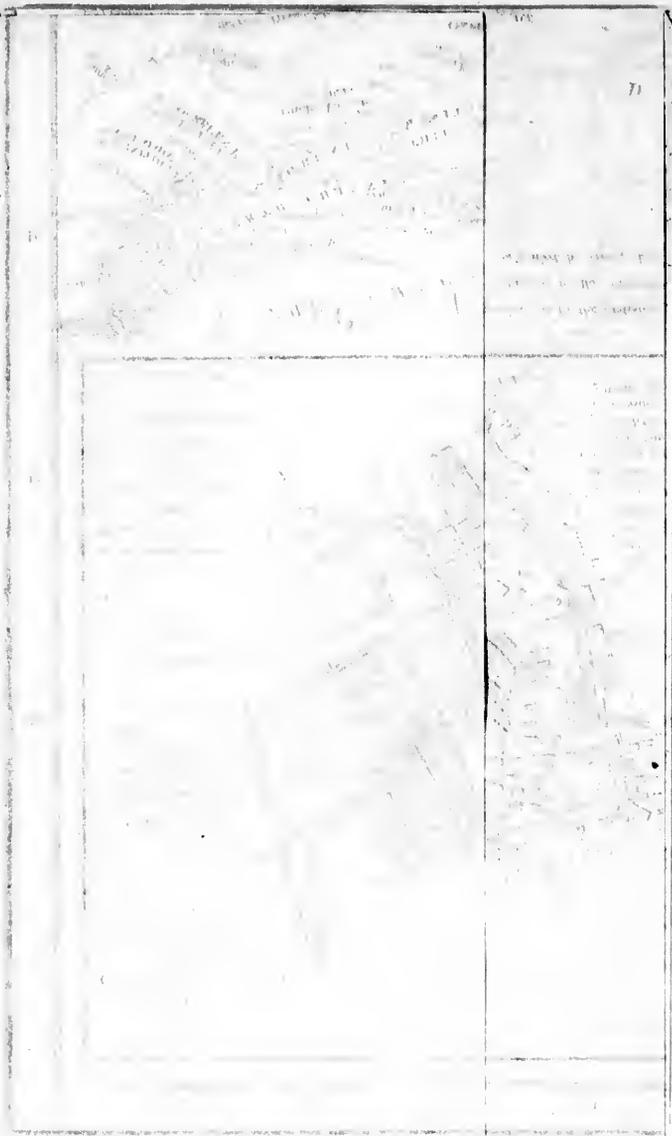
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
**BRITISH POSSESSIONS
IN
NORTH AMERICA**

WITH PART OF THE UNITED STATES
COMPILED FROM
OFFICIAL SOURCES

Hallways Completed
Projected
English Miles

10 20 40 60 80 100

71 Longitude West 70 from Greenwich 69 68 67



77

necessary for their subsistence? We need not, therefore, wonder that the projects for slave emancipation should make but little progress among the Americans, Brazilians, and Cubans. Whether the West India colonies cease to produce sugar and cotton is a matter of excessively little importance to the people of Britain; but it is a matter of the very last importance to the white people of the Southern states of America, of Brazil, and of Cuba; and they will be much to blame if they do not exercise extreme caution in legislating upon this most delicate matter. Perhaps the better policy will be for them gradually to relax the rigours of servitude, and to endeavour to improve the character and condition of the slaves, so as to fit them the better for emancipation, which may, probably, in the end be forced upon them: but they should carefully eschew all rash or precipitate measures.

III. MAGNITUDE, POPULATION, TRADE, ETC. OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

Notwithstanding the loss of the U. States, the colonies of Great Britain, exclusive of India, exceed in number, extent, and value, those of every other country. Previously, indeed, to the breaking out of the late contests, the colonial dominions of Spain far exceeded in extent and importance those of any other power. But Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands are now all that remain to her. These, indeed, are very valuable possessions, though inferior to those of England.

(1.) *North American Colonies.* — In N. America we possess the provinces of Lower and Upper, or of East and West Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and their dependencies. The situation and boundaries of these provinces will be more easily learned from the inspection of the accompanying map, than they could be from any description. The shores of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick are washed by the Atlantic Ocean; and the noble river St. Lawrence, by its communication with the great American lakes, gives to Canada all the benefits of a most extensive inland navigation, and forms a natural outlet for her surplus produce, as well as for the surplus produce of that part of the U. States which is washed by the lakes. There is every variety in the soil and climate of these regions. In Lower Canada, the winter is very severe. The surface of the country is covered with snow for nearly half the year. From the beginning of December to the middle of April, the St. Lawrence is frozen over, and affords a smooth and convenient passage for the sledges by which it is then covered. But though severe, the climate is far from being unhealthy or disagreeable. The weather is generally clear and bracing; and the labour of artisans, at their out-door employments, is rarely suspended for many days in succession. On the breaking up of the ice in the latter end of April, or the beginning of May, the powers of vegetation almost immediately resume their activity, and bring on the fine season with a rapidity that is astonishing to a stranger. The highest temperature in Lower Canada varies from 96° to 102° of Fahrenheit; but the purity of the atmosphere abates the oppressive heat that is felt in most countries where the mercury ranges so high; and the weather is, on the whole, decidedly pleasant.

That part of the province of Upper or West Canada, which stretches from Lake Simcoe and the rivers Trent and Severn, westward to Lake Huron and the St. Clair River, and southward to Lake Erie, and part of Lake Ontario, has a soil of extraordinary fertility, capable of producing luxuriant crops of wheat, and every sort of grain. The climate, says Mr. Bouchette, late surveyor-general of Lower Canada, "is so particularly salubrious, that epidemic diseases, either among men or cattle, are almost entirely unknown. Its influence on the fertility of the soil is more generally perceptible than it is in Lower Canada, and is supposed to be congenial to vegetation in a much superior degree. The winters are shorter, and not always marked with such rigour as in the latter. The duration of frost is always accompanied with a fine clear sky and a dry atmosphere. The spring opens, and the resumption of agricultural labours takes place, from 6 weeks to 2 months earlier than in the neighbourhood of Quebec. The summer heats rarely prevail to excess, and the autumns are usually very friendly to the harvest, and favourable for securing all the late crops." — (*Bouchette's Topographical Description of Canada*, p. 695.) The ground on the shores of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, as far west as the junction of the Thames with the St. Clair Lake, is laid out in townships, and partly settled. But the population is still very thin. To the north of the river Thames, along the banks of the St. Clair, and the shores of Lake Huron, round to the River Severn, and thence to the river that joins Lake Nipissing and Lake Huron, is a boundless extent of country that is almost entirely unoccupied. The interior of this space has hitherto been but imperfectly explored; but the banks of the St. Clair and the shores of Lake Huron afford the finest situations for settlements. The soil is in many places of the greatest fertility, the river and lake teem with fish, and every variety of the best timber is found in the greatest profusion.

The winters in the provinces of Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, and New Brunswick are more severe than in Upper Canada, and they are a good deal infested with fogs and mists. But their proximity to England, and their favourable situation for the fishing business, give them considerable advantages.

In addition to the above, we possess the Hudson's Bay territory, a tract of vast extent, but situated in an inhospitable climate, and worth very little except as hunting grounds. We also possess the large islands of Newfoundland and Cape Breton, the latter being a dependency of Nova Scotia; but their soil is barren, and the climate severe and foggy; so that they are valuable principally as fishing stations.

The following table exhibits the population of the different N. American colonies at the under-mentioned epochs: —

Colony.	Population (and Date of Census.)	Colony.	Population (and Date of Census.)
Eastern (Lower) Canada	(1841) 695,649	Prince Edward's Island	(1842) 47,054
Western (Upper) Canada	(1847) 695,000	Newfoundland	(1835) 75,994
New Brunswick	(1840) 166,162	Nova Scotia and Cape Breton	(1838) 178,537

Of the inhabitants of Lower Canada in 1844 no fewer than 518,565 were of French extraction, forming what is called the *Nation Canadienne*. In Upper Canada, on the other hand, the population is almost wholly of British origin.

Number of Emigrants. — There emigrated to the British Colonies in N. America in

Years.	Individuals.	Years.	Individuals.	Years.	Individuals.	Years.	Individuals.
1825	9,741	1831	58,077	1837	89,884	1843	27,518
1826	12,818	1832	66,439	1838	4,277	1844	29,354
1827	12,618	1833	28,808	1839	12,658	1845	31,805
1828	12,014	1834	40,003	1840	15,646	1846	45,459
1829	15,507	1835	15,273	1841	38,164	1847	109,580
1830	30,571	1836	31,226	1842	54,123		

Total Emigration of the 23 years — 735,308.

Of these the great majority have been destined for Upper Canada.— (For the total emigration from the U. Kingdom, see *PASSENGERS*.)

Information for Emigrants to British North America.— In January, 1840, a board of "Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners" was appointed. It consists of 3 commissioners, whose proceedings are guided by instructions from the secretary of state for the colonies, and their practical duties may be divided under 3 heads, viz. the sale of colonial lands; the superintendence of emigration; and the diffusion of information in respect of the colonies.

1. The functions of the commissioners under the first head do not extend to the North American colonies. The crown having placed the revenue derived from the sale of their waste lands at the disposal of the local legislatures, these lands are, of course, disposed of by the authorities on the spot.

2. The board endeavours, in as far as possible, to protect poor emigrants from imposition, and from the effects of improvident arrangements on their parts, and takes care that the provisions of the *Passengers' Acts* are duly carried out and enforced.

3. The board publishes from time to time such authentic information as they may receive on matters connected with the settlement of waste lands in the colonies, the prices of the principal articles of colonial produce, the wages of labour, and such other matters as may appear to be useful to persons who propose to settle in the colonies. They likewise answer all applications from individuals, and afford them, so far as may be in their power, such information as may be adapted to their particular cases.

No pecuniary assistance is afforded by government to parties desirous of proceeding to the N. American colonies; and emigrants after their arrival no longer receive grants of land, that being now wholly disposed of in the way stated below.

But though government makes no gifts at the public expense to emigrants to N. America, it maintains agents at the principal colonial ports, whose business is to protect emigrants from imposition upon their first landing, to acquaint them with the demand for labour in different districts, to point out the most advantageous routes, and to furnish them with useful advice upon the objects which they have had in view in emigrating, without making any charge for the same. Persons newly arrived should not omit to consult these agents, and should avoid detention in the ports, where they are exposed to all kinds of imposition, and pretences for keeping them at taverns till any money they may possess has been expended.

We subjoin a Table, extracted from the Colonisation Circular of the Emigration Commissioners, issued July, 1848, showing the cost of a passage to the different colonies.

Cost of Passage to the principal British Colonies, in private Ships, from some of the principal Ports of the U. Kingdom.													
		CABIN.		INTERMEDIATE.				STEEAGE.					
		Cost, including Provisions.		Cost, with Provisions.		Cost, without Provisions.		Cost, with full Allowance of Provisions.		Cost, without Provisions beyond the legal Allowance.			
		From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To		
Quebec	London	210	230	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	15	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	15	20	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Londonderry	10	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Brunswick	Cork	12	15	6	6 10s.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	15	20	8	10	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	15	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	15	20	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Halifax	Londonderry	10	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	15	20	8	10	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	15	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	15	20	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Indies	Cork	10	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	30	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	20	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Cork	20	60	20	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cape of Good Hope	Liverpool	50	—	25	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	60	65	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	45	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	70	100	30	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sydney	Ports in the Clyde	55	60	30	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	70	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	65	60	30	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Port Phillip	London	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Liverpool	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Van Diemen's Land	Liverpool	60	90	30	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	50	65	30	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Cork	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Australia	London	60	90	30	40	—	—	—	—	18*	20	—	—
	Liverpool	60	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	21	25	—	—
	Cork	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—	—	—
	London	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Zealand	Liverpool	60	90	30	40	—	—	—	—	18	20	—	—
	Ports in the Clyde	70	80	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	London	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	Cork	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

* These are the prices when the passengers are victualled according to the ordinary Diet Scale of the ship. *Charges for Children.*— The general practice in charging for children is, to compute them according to the *Passengers' Acts*, viz. Children from 2 to 14 years of age, half the price of adults; under 1, no charge; but there are some exceptions to this rule.

Passage.— Emigrants intending to settle in Canada will find it in all respects more advantageous to proceed by Quebec. The best months for leaving England are March and April; the later emigrants do not find employment so abundant, and have less time in the colony before the commencement of winter. For information respecting the cost of passage and probable opportunities of sailing, application should be made to the government emigration agents at the various ports at which they are stationed; but in every case apply who does not intend to pay his own passage. The following are the ports at which agents are established:— London, Liverpool, Leth, Greenock, Belfast, Londonderry, Bilbao, Limerick, and Cork. The following notification was put forth in 1843 by Messrs. Carter and Bonus, eminent shipping agents:— "Ships will be despatched from London to Quebec and Montreal at short intervals during the ensuing season, by which steerage passengers may be conveyed at the following reduced rates:— To Quebec, To Montreal. For each person 14 years of age and upwards . . . 5s. 7s. 6d. 5s. 15s. 0d. For each child of 1 and under 14 years of age . . . 2 13 9 2 17 6 Infants under 1 year old free of charge. * In these rates are included provisions on an ample and much improved scale, as below; medicines, medical comforts, sleeping-berths, cooling hearth and fuel, mass-bowls, plates, and hook-pots, and emigrant tax in Canada. * The passengers must provide themselves with bedding, small casks or metal bottles for containing water, knives and forks, and spoons.

* The office of the commissioners is at No. 9, Park Street, Westminster.— Secretary, Stephen Walcott, Esq.

Loggage will be taken free of charge in the proportion of 10 cubic feet for each adult, and 5 cubic feet for each child between 1 and 14 years old; and any further quantity will be subject to a charge of 6d. per cubic foot for freight.

If half passage money is required to be paid when berths are engaged, and the remainder at or before embarkation; and parties who engage passage for themselves or others, who shall fail to embark on the day appointed, will be required to forfeit

and pay half the passage money, whether their places shall be filled by others or not.

If a properly qualified surgeon will be appointed to a ship carrying passengers equal to 100 adults or upwards.

Ships will be sent to any good and safe ports at which sufficient numbers of emigrants may be obtained.

These ships will be despatched on fixed days, with strict regularity.

Scale of Allowance of Provisions for each Person, Male and Female, above 14 Years of Age.

Days.	Pre-Prepared Meats		Pork.	Beef.		Rice.	Soft Cabin Bread.		Potatoes.	Flour.	Salt Meat.		Sugar.	Tea.	Cheese.	Canned.	Wine.	Whisky.
	lb.	oz.		lb.	lb.		lb.	lb.			lb.	oz.						
Sunday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Monday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Tuesday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Wednesday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Thursday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Friday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1
Saturday	1	1	1	1	1	5	7	3	4	6	8	11	1	1	1	1	1	1

For each child, male and female, from 1 to 14 years of age, one half the above allowance.

When the potatoes are expended, 4 lb. of rice to be issued daily in lieu of 1 lb. of potatoes.

In case of the occasional substitution of any of the following articles—

- 1 lb. raisins, or ½ lb. currants, is considered equal to 1 lb. meat.
- 1 lb. suet - - - - - 1 lb. do.
- 1 lb. lard - - - - - 1 lb. do.
- 1 lb. flour - - - - - 1 lb. do.
- 1 lb. rice, or pint oatmeal - - - - - 1 lb. do.
- 1 lb. potatoes - - - - - 1 lb. do.

N.B. Passengers have the option of agreeing upon the above terms, or of being supplied by the ship. These provisions only which are required by the *Passengers' Act*, viz. for each adult, 7 pounds of bread, biscuit, flour, oatmeal, or rice per week, of which at least one half must be bread or biscuit, and potatoes may be employed for the remainder, in the proportion of 5 pounds of potatoes to 1 pound of the other articles enumerated. Half allowance for each child between 1 and 14 years old. The charge in this case, including water as above, medicines, medical combi., soap, hair-oil, and emigrant tax, is 3s. 10s. to Quebec, and 4s. 2s. to Montreal, for each adult, and half price for children between 1 and 14 years of age. Sick passengers are allowed to take any reasonable quantity of provisions for their own use in addition to the bread stuff above stated, but no person will be permitted on any account to bring intoxicating liquors on board.

The conveyance of passengers to foreign parts is regulated by the acts 5 & 6 Vic. c. 107, 10 & 11 Vic. c. 105, and 11 & 12 Vic. c. 57. They however apply only to such ships as carry more than 1 passenger to every 55 tons of their registered burthen. Sick passengers are, in all cases, exempt from the operation of the law. We subjoin an abstract of the principal provisions in these acts, prepared by the Emigration Commissioners.

1. All the provisions of the acts extend to foreign as well as British vessels, except those which relate to the rules to be prescribed by Orders in Council for preserving order and for securing cleanliness and ventilation on board. These rules are only binding upon British ships proceeding to North America.

2. The length of the voyage to North America is, for the purposes of the law, to be computed at ten weeks.

3. Parties contracting to provide emigrants with passages to North America are bound to give contract tickets in a prescribed form, containing an acknowledgment for the money received, under a penalty not exceeding 100s., and the forfeiture of his licence in the case of a passage broker.

4. Any persons inducing passengers to part with or destroy their contract tickets during the existence of the contract are liable to a penalty not exceeding 5s. in each case.

5. No vessel proceeding to North America is to carry more than 1 passenger to every 2 tons of the registered tonnage of the ship; nor, whatever be the tonnage, more than 1 passenger to every 12 clear superficial feet of deck on which the passengers live, and 1 passenger for every 30 superficial feet on the orlop deck. The master is liable to a penalty not exceeding 5s. for every person in excess.

6. In computing these proportions, 2 children between the ages of 1 and 14 are to count as 1 person. Children under 1 year are, in no case, to be reckoned.

7. All ships carrying 100 or more passengers are to carry a duly-qualified surgeon, or if a surgeon be not carried, the space allotted to each passenger is to be increased from 12 to 14 clear superficial feet, and every child above 1 year old is to count as a passenger.

8. The lower deck of the ship must be not less than 1½ inch in thickness, and properly secured to the hold beams.

9. The height between the lower and upper berths must be not less than 2½ feet of berths, and the bottom of the lower tier must be 1½ inches above the deck. The berths are not to be less than 18 inches in length and 15 inches in width for each passenger, and to be securely constructed.

10. All vessels coming within the acts are to be surveyed by two or more competent surveyors, to be approved either by the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, or by the Commissioners of Customs, and are to be reported seaworthy, and in all respects fit for the intended voyage.

11. Sufficient boats are to be taken in the ship according to the following scale:—

Boats	When the tonnage is more than 150, but less than 250 tons	250	500	1000 and upwards
Boats	2	3	4	5

One of the boats must be a long boat of a proper size.

14. No ship is to be allowed to clear out until properly manned with a full complement of men.

15. At least 3 quarts of water are to be issued daily to each passenger, and a supply of provisions, and a supply of fuel, for a week, at the rate of seven pounds of bread, biscuit, flour, oatmeal, or rice per week; half at least in bread or biscuit, the other half may be potatoes, at the rate of one bushel of potatoes for one pound of such bread stuffs. The Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, acting under the authority of the Secretary of State, may substitute for any of these articles of food such other articles of food as they may think fit.

16. The food and water for the use of the passengers are required to be provided and put on board at the expense of the owner or charterer of the ship, and are to be provided in a way approved by the emigration officer or his assistant at the port of clearance; if there is no such officer, then by the officer of customs.

17. No gunpowder, vitriol, or green hides are to be taken on board.

18. Vessels carrying 100 or more passengers must, under a penalty not exceeding 50s., be provided with a ship's cook engaged for the passengers, a proper cooking apparatus, and a convenient place set apart for cooking. The whole is to be subject to the approval of the government authorities at the port.

19. A proper supply of medicine is to be provided for the voyage, and no ship is to proceed until the medicine chest and passengers have been inspected by a medical practitioner, and a certificate granted by him that the provisions are sufficient, and the passengers free from infectious disease.

20. All passengers who may be discovered to be afflicted with any infectious disease, either at the original port of embarkation, or at any port in the U. Kingdom into which the vessel may subsequently enter, and who are found with those members of their families, if any, who may be dependent on them, or unwilling to be separated from them.

21. Passengers re-landed are entitled to receive their passage money, which may be recovered from the party to whom it was paid, or from the owner, charterer, or master of the ship, by summary process, before 3 or more justices of the peace.

22. Any persons failing to obtain a passage in the terms of their contract tickets, are entitled to be provided with a passage by some equally eligible ship, within a reasonable time, and in the mean time to be maintained at the contractor's expense. In default of this, they may recover from the contractor or from the owner, charterer, or, in case of any accident or default after the voyage has begun, from the master of the ship, any passage money they may have paid, together with compensation for the inconvenience they may have incurred. In case this breach of contract shall arise from any accident happening to the ship on her voyage, the compensation is limited to 5s.; in other cases it is not to exceed 10s.

23. If the ship does not sail on the day named in the contract ticket, the passengers are entitled to be victualled on board, in the same manner as if the voyage had commenced. If, after the departure (except caused by wind or weather) the vessel does not clear away twice, the passengers are to have the option of receiving, instead, 1s. per diem.

24. Ships that, after sailing, may put into any port of the U. Kingdom, must have their provisions and water replenished before they can be allowed again to sail, under a penalty not exceeding 100s.

25. Passengers are at all times during the voyage (whether permitted to have free access to and from the vessel) to be kept in the same hatchway situation over the space appropriated to their use.

26. Such regulations as may be prescribed by order of the Queen in Council, are to be enforced by the surgeon, or, in the absence of a surgeon, by the master of the vessel, neglecting or refusing to obey them will be liable to a penalty of 2s.; and any person obstructing the master or surgeon in the execution of his duty imposed on him by the Queen in Council will be liable to the same penalty, and moreover, to 3 months' imprisonment at the end of the voyage.

27. The sale of spirits on board to the passengers is prohibited, under a penalty not exceeding 100s.

28. Two copies of the acts, with such abstracts of them, and of any Order in Council relating to them, as the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners may prepare, are to be delivered to the master, who is bound, under a penalty not exceeding 40s. per diem, to keep copies of such abstracts posted up in at least two conspicuous places between the decks, so long as any passengers are entitled to remain on board. Any person displacing or defacing this abstract is liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s.

29. Passengers are not to be landed against their consent, at any place other than the one contracted for.

30. Passengers are to be maintained on board for forty-

eight hours after arrival, unless the ship, in the prosecution of her voyage, quits the port sooner.
 31. It is possible, indeed, by the three acts to be recovered before it or more justice of the peace to the use of Her Majesty. They can only be recovered in the Kingdoms by the emigration officers, or by the officers of Her Majesty's customs; and, in the British possessions abroad, by those officers, or any other persons duly authorized for the purpose by the Governor of the colony.

Besides the sea voyage from England, persons proceeding to Canada should be provided with the means of paying for the journey, which they may have to make. The cost of this journey must, of course, depend upon the situation of the place where the individual may find employment, or where he may have previously formed a wish to settle. The Emigration Commissioners have published the following Hints to Emigrants to the N. American colonies:—

Hints to Emigrants to the North American Provinces.

1. **Caution to keep Contract Tickets.**—Emigrants ought to keep possession of their contract tickets, in other wise, in the event of the ship being prevented by any accident from reaching her destination, or of the passengers for any other reason, not being landed at the place named in the tickets, they may have a difficulty in obtaining a return of their passage money, to which in that case they would be lawfully entitled.
2. **Caution to provide means for subsistence and transport after arrival.**—Many emigrants having lately been found to rely on public funds for their subsistence in the colonies, they are hereby warned that they have no claim of right on such fund, and that they should provide themselves with sufficient means for their own for their subsistence and transport into the interior from the port where they land.
3. **Tools.**—It is not generally considered desirable that agricultural labourers should take out implements of husbandry, as these can be easily procured in the colonies; but artisans are recommended to take such tools as they may possess, if not very bulky.
4. **Time to arrive in the Colony.**—The best period is in May, so as to be in time to take advantage of the spring and autumn work, and to get settled before the winter sets in.

5. **Average Length of Passage**—
 To Quebec 46 days.
 Edward's Island (say) 40
 Nova Scotia 36

By the Passengers' Act (5 & 6 Vic. c. 107) provisions are, however, required to be laid in for 70 days, to which period passages are sometimes protracted.

6. **Maintenance on arrival, &c.**—Passengers are entitled by law to be maintained on board, in the same manner as during the passage, for 48 hours after arrival, unless within that time the ship should quit the port in the prosecution of her voyage. The water of the river St. Lawrence is stated to have a strong tendency to produce bowel complaints in strangers. It should at first, therefore, be drunk as sparingly as possible.

7. **Colonial Tax on Emigrants.**—
Canada.—By an Act of the Colonial Legislature, passed 23rd March, 1843, and to be in force until the end of the first session of the provincial parliament after the 31st December 1849, a capitation tax of 10s. currency (about 8s. 4d. sterling) is to be levied for every emigrant, of whatever age, arriving by sea. The rate is increased to 9s. if the emigrant arrive after the 10th of September, and to 30s. if after the 30th of September. An additional charge of 2s. 6d. is also levied for each emigrant on board for every three days during which the ship may be detained in quarantine, unless for observation by the medical authorities, or the cleaning of the vessel or passengers; but the whole additional rate thus imposed is not to exceed 40s. on each emigrant.

New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.—By recent Acts of the Colonial Legislatures, to be in force for a limited period, a tax of 10s. is levied for each emigrant in ships reported by the master to the colonial authorities on arrival, between the 1st of April and 1st of September in any year. If the report of arrival be made between the 1st of September and 1st of October, the tax is increased to 15s. a-head, and if between the 1st of October and the 1st of the ensuing April, to 30s. An additional rate is charged, so in the case of Canada, for emigrants on board ships placed in quarantine, except for purposes of cleaning or observation; this rate is 5s. a-head, and if the ship is detained in quarantine more than 10 days, a further sum.

Prince Edward's Island.—The tax, according to the latest information, is 10 dollars, or 5s. currency (about 4s. 2d. sterling), on each adult coming from the U. K., reckoning every person above 14, and 2 children between 7 and 14, and 3 children under 7 years of age, as an adult. No charge is made on children under 1 year of age.

In each of the colonies the tax is made payable by the master of the ship.

8. **Caution not to refuse good wages.**—Until emigrants become acquainted with the labour of the country, their services are of comparatively little value to their employers. They should therefore be careful not to fall into the common error of refusing reasonable wages on their first arrival.

9. **Route for Emigrants to Canada.**—Emigrants intending to settle in Canada will find it in all respects more advantageous to proceed by Quebec.

32. **Passengers themselves, however, or the emigration officers on their behalf, may recover by a similar process any sum of money made recoverable by the acts, to their own use as return of passage money, subsistence money, or compensation; and, in such cases the complainants are not to be deemed incompetent witnesses.**
33. **The right of passengers to proceed at law for any breach of contract is reserved.**

As there is some competition among the steam-boat companies at Quebec and the forwarding companies at Montreal, emigrants should exercise a little caution before agreeing for their passage, and they should avoid those persons who crowd on board ships and steam-boats, offering their service to get passage, &c.

Emigrants destined for Upper Canada are advised not to pause at Quebec or Montreal, but to proceed at once on their journey. If, however, they require advice or direction, they should apply only to the government agents, who will furnish gratuitously all requisite information.

The following is the usual route for emigrants from Quebec, as to Hamilton:—

Steamers leave Quebec for Montreal every afternoon at 5 o'clock (Sundays excepted), calling at Three Rivers, St. Francis, and Grosse, and arrive early the next morning. On reaching Montreal, emigrants proceeding further west would go at once to the emigrants' sheds at the entrance of the Lachine Canal, where shelter and medical advice, if required, may be obtained gratis. Barges, towed by steam, proceed from Montreal every afternoon (Sundays excepted) for Bytown, and thence, through the Rideau Canal, to Kingston, reaching the latter place in about 6 days. The fare to any of the intermediate places on the Rideau Canal is the same as to Kingston. From Kingston there are steamers daily for Toronto, calling at Cobourg and Port Hope. From Toronto they ply to Niagara (35 miles), and to Hamilton, at the head of Lake Ontario, the landing-place for all emigrants proceeding to London, Guelph, Goderich, Oxford, Leamington, and the Western District. In no case are emigrants furnished with food on the route. The probable expense of provisions may be taken at 1s. per day; thus making the total expense of travelling from Quebec to Hamilton about 1l. 17s. currency per adult. Emigrants will, on application to the government agents at Montreal, Kingston, or Toronto, obtain permission to stop in the emigrant sheds, and thus avoid the expense of lodging, which is from 4d. to 6d. per night.

The following Table shows the Distances, Fares, and other particulars relating to the Routes from Quebec to Hamilton.

Usual Route for Emigrants.	Distance.	Fare for each Adult.	Charge for Personal Baggage.	Time on the Journey.
From Quebec to Montreal, calling at Three Rivers, about 81 miles.	180	5s.	No Charge.	About 14 hours.
From Montreal to Kingston (via Bytown) 120 miles.	247	10s.	2s. 6d. per cwt.	About 6 days.
From Kingston to any Port on the Bay of Quinte.	35 to 70	2s.	—	—
From Kingston to Cobourg, or Port Hope.	50	7s. 6d.	—	About 9 hours.
From Kingston to Toronto.	180	10s.	—	About 18 hours.
From Kingston to Hamilton.	293	14s.	—	About 22 hours.
Total from Quebec to Hamilton.	667	29s.	—	About 6 days.

From Kingston to Darlington, Whitby, or Bond Head, 5s. 6d.; Oakville, 12s. 6d. To Niagara or (Greenston), 12s. 6d., and to Fort Hurwell and Stanley, on Lake Erie, by schooners through the Welland Canal, 7s. 6d. to 10s., and carriage from 1d. to 3d. per mile. The rates here given are for adults or persons above 12 years; for children between 12 and 3 years of age, half price is charged, and children under 3 years go free. One cwt. of luggage is allowed to each passenger.

It must be observed, that the prices of conveyance are necessarily fluctuating, and that the foregoing accounts is only presented as sufficiently accurate for purposes of information in this country, leaving it to the government agent at Quebec to supply emigrants with more exact particulars, according to the circumstances of the time at which they may arrive.

* During the year 1846, owing to the completion of the Beauharnois and St. Lawrence Canals, a shorter route was opened from Montreal to Kingston, and steamers now perform the distance regularly in about 26 hours, without any increase in the charges for passage. The whole distance from Quebec to Hamilton by this route appears to be 571 miles, and is performed in from 72 to 80 hours, a less time than required to go from Montreal to Kingston by the Rideau Canal route. The cost of passage is 30s. currency, or 21s. sterling for each adult.

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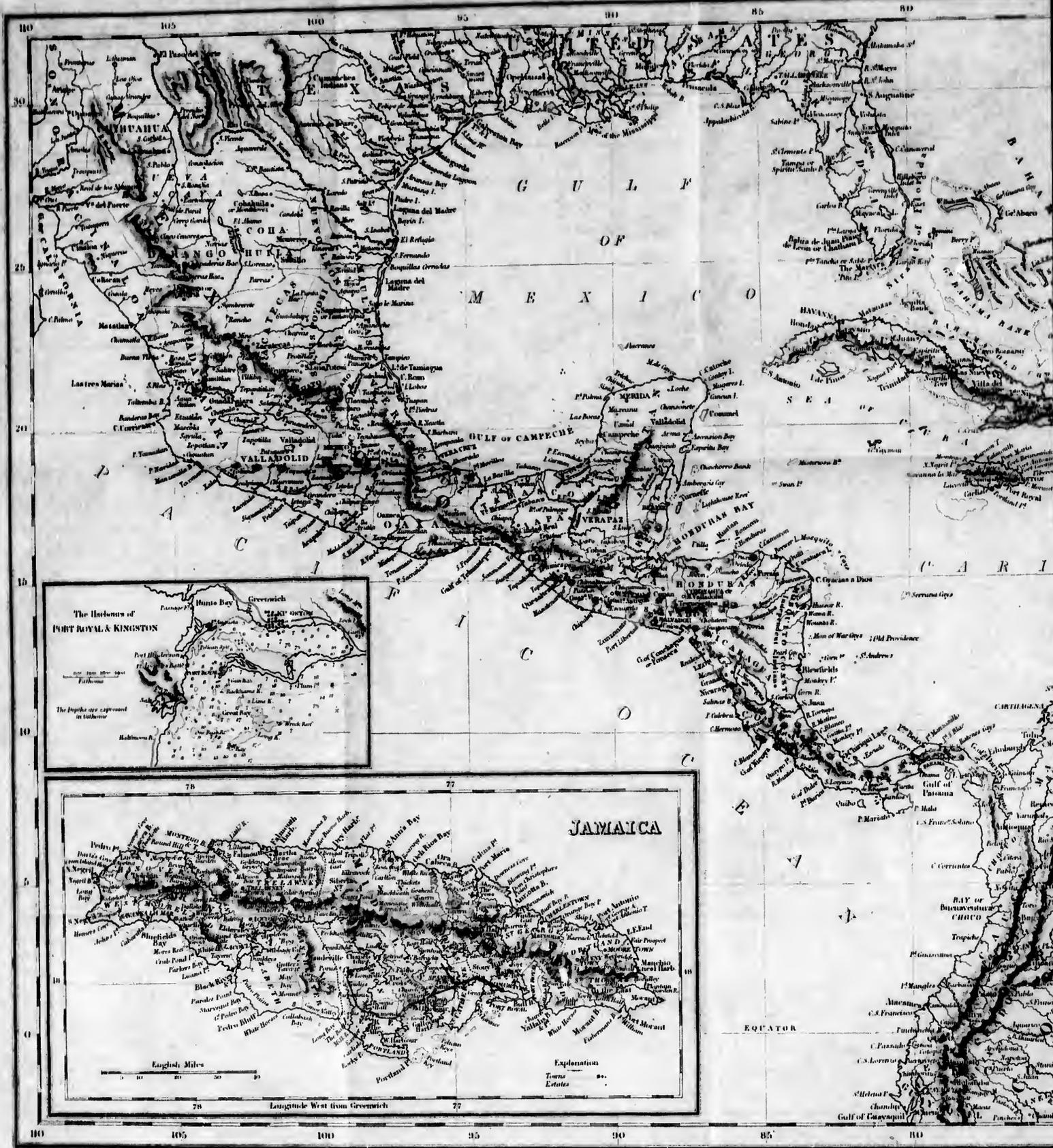
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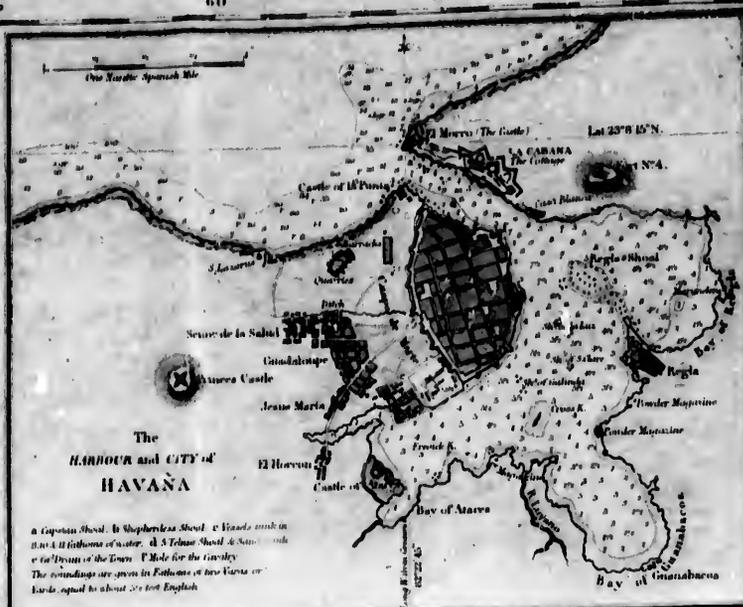
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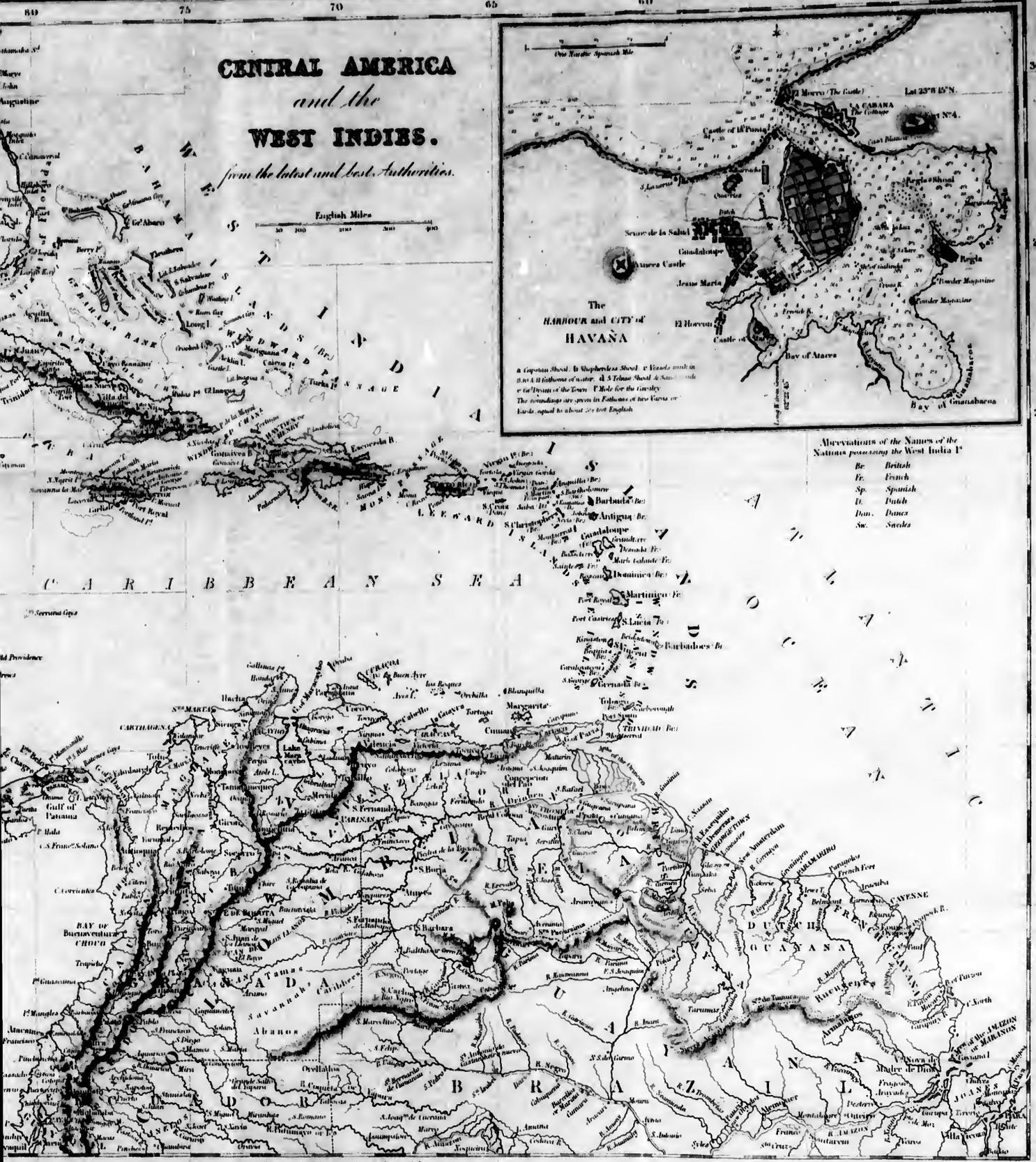
from the latest and best Authorities.

English Miles

50 100 150 200 250



- Abbreviations of the Names of the Nations possessing the West India I^l
- Br. British
 - Fr. French
 - Sp. Spanish
 - D. Dutch
 - Dan. Danish
 - Sw. Swedish



Longitude West 70 from Greenwich

Wages in the North American Colonies.

Trade or Calling.	WESTERN (LOWER) CANADA, December, 1846.		WESTERN (UPPER) CANADA, December, 1846.				NEW BRUNSWICK, December, 1847.		
	Average Wages per Diem.	Average Wages per Ann.	Average Wages per Diem.		Average Wages per Annum.	Average Wages per Diem.		Average Wages per Ann.	
			Without Board and Lodging.	With Board and Lodging.		Without Board and Lodging.	With Board and Lodging.		
	In Sterling.			Sterling.			Sterling.		
Blacksmiths	5s. 6d.	-	5 0	4 0	-	5s.	5s.	5 0	
Bread and biscuit bakers	3s. 4d.	-	4 0	3 8	30 0 0	4s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	30 0 0	
Butchers	-	50s. 2s.	4 0	3 8	30 0 0	4s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	30 0 0	
Bricklayers	5s.	-	4 0	3 0	-	4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d.	5s. 6d. to 6s. 6d.	-	
Bricklayers	6s. to 7s.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s. to 7s.	5s. to 5s.	-	
Carriers	4s. 2d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	5s. 0	
Carpenters and joiners	5s. 2d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	5s. 0	
Cabinet makers	5s. 7d.	-	6 3	5 0	-	5s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	5s. 0	
Copers	5s. 12d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s.	5 0	
Carpenters	3s. 6d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	4s.	5s. 6d.	5 0	
Cooks (women)	18s. to 27s. per month,	and found.	-	-	12 0 0	-	-	12 0 0	
Draymen	15s. 6d. to 18s. per month,	and found.	-	-	12 0 0	-	-	12 0 0	
Dressmakers and milliners	1s.	-	3 0	1 3	-	2s. 3d.	1s. 3d.	10 0	
Farin labourers	2s. to 3s. 6d.	-	3 0	2 3	70 0 0	1s. 3d.	1s. 3d.	17 0	
Gardeners	4s. to 5s. in spring.	37l. 18s.	4 0	3 0	-	4s. 6d.	5s.	12 10	
Ironmasons	77s. to 36s. per month,	and found.	-	-	30 0 0	-	-	18 0 0	
Millwrights	5s. 10d.	-	5 0	4 0	-	5s. 6d.	4s. 6d.	18 0 0	
Millers	4s. 6d.	-	5 0	4 0	35 0 0	5s. 6d.	4s.	38 0	
Painters	4s. 2d.	-	5 0	4 0	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	40 0	
Plasterers	4s. 6d. to 5s.	-	5 0	4 0	-	5s.	4s.	-	
Plumbers and glaziers	4s. 6d.	-	3 0	3 8	-	Very little employment.	-	-	
Quartermen	5s.	-	4 0	3 0	-	5s.	1s. 3d.	35 0	
Rope-makers	3s. 4d.	-	4 0	3 0	-	5s.	5s.	35 0	
Shoemakers	5s. 2d.	-	4 3	5 0	-	3s. 6d.	5s.	31 0	
Sawyers	4s. 2d. per 100 ft. pine and	hard wood.	3 0	5 8	per 100 ft.	4s. to 6s.	3s. 6d. to 4s. 6d.	32 10	
Shipwrights and boatbuilders	5s. 7d.	-	5 0	5 0	-	5s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	32 10	
Millwrights	5s. to 6s. 2d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	4s. to 5s. 6d.	5s. 6d.	32 10	
Sailmakers	4s. 11d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Miners and shinglers	3s. 4d. per 100 shingles.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Tanners	5s. 1d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Tailors	4s. 6d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Tinsmiths	4s. 6d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Wheelwrights	4s. 0d.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	
Whitesmiths	5s.	-	5 0	3 8	-	5s.	5s. 6d.	37 10	

* Tradesmen in Eastern (Lower) Canada are not boarded with their employers. The charge for board and lodging to mechanics is from 10s. 6d. to 15s. 6d. a-week.

Retail Price of Provisions in the North American Colonies.

Articles.	Lower Canada, Dec. 1846.	Upper Canada, Dec. 1846.	New Brunswick, Dec. 1847.	Nova Scotia, 1847.	Prince Edward's Island, 1847.	New- foundland, 1848.
	Sterling. s. d.	Sterling. s. d.	Sterling. s. d.	Sterling. s. d.	Sterling. s. d.	Sterling. s. d.
Salt beef, per lb.	0 5	0 4	0 3	6d. to 8d.	0 3	3d. to 4d.
Fresh ditto "	2d. to 4d.	0 3	0 4	3d. to 4d.	0 3	3d. to 4d.
Mutton "	0 4	0 3	0 3	3d. to 4d.	0 3	3d. to 4d.
Fresh Pork "	0 5	0 3	0 3	3d. to 4d.	0 3	3d. to 4d.
Salt ditto "	0 3	0 3	0 3	3d. to 4d.	0 3	3d. to 4d.
Powls, per pair	2 0	1 0	1 5	1s. to 2s.	1 0	6d. to 8d.
Bacon, "	6d. to 7d.	0 4	0 5	6d.	0 5	6d. to 8d.
Salt butter "	0 8	0 6	0 8	6d.	0 8	6d. to 8d.
Fresh ditto "	0 10	0 8	0 10	10d. to 1s.	0 9	8d. to 1s.
Cheese, per lb.	0 5	0 5	0 6	6d. to 8d.	0 7	6d. to 8d.
Eggs, per dozen	0 6	0 4	0 10	6d. to 1s.	0 6	1 3
Potatoes, per bushel	8 3	1 8	4 0	10d. to 1s.	0 8	8 5
Bread, best wheaten, per 4 lb. loaf	0 8	0 6	0 7	6d. to 8d.	0 7	6d. to 8d.
do per 8 lb. loaf	0 10	0 6	0 9	6d. to 8d.	0 8	6d. to 8d.
do Best wheat flour, per bar. (100 lbs.)	25 0	22 5	33 0	2s. to 3s.	35 0	35 0
do Seconds "	19s. 6d. per cwt.	-	38 0	10s. per cwt.	-	-
(Patmeal), per cwt.	12 0	-	18 0	12s.	-	-
Coals, per chaldron	30 0	-	30 0	20s. to 25s.	24 0	35 0

* Potatoes in New Brunswick are dearer than usual, owing to the general failure of the crop, and the great demand from abroad. In Prince Edward's Island the price, in ordinary seasons, is about 5d. per bushel, but the last two or three crops have been very limited.

(2.) *West India Colonies.* — In the West Indies we possess Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Antigua, Grenada, Trinidad, and some other islands, exclusive of Demerara and Berbice in South America. Jamaica, by far the largest and most valuable of our insular possessions, is about 120 miles in length and 40 in mean breadth, containing about 2,800,000 acres, of which from 1,100,000 to 1,200,000 are supposed to be in cultivation. Being situated within the tropic of Cancer, the heat in the West Indies is intense, but is moderated by the sea breeze which blows regularly during the greater part of the day. The rains make the only distinction of seasons. They sometimes fall with prodigious impetuosity, giving birth to innumerable torrents, and laying all the low country under water: the trees are green the whole year round: they have no snow, no frost, and but rarely some hail. The climate is very humid; iron rusts and corrodes in a very short time; and it is this, perhaps, that renders the West Indies so unfriendly to European constitutions, and produces those malignant fevers that are so very fatal. The vegetable produc-

tions are numerous and valuable; but the sugar cane and the coffee plant are incomparably more important than the others, and constitute the natural riches of the islands.

The West Indies are occasionally assailed by the most dreadful hurricanes, which destroy in a moment the hopes and labours of the planters, and devastate entire islands. Whole fields of sugar canes are sometimes torn up by the roots, houses are either thrown down or unroofed, and even the heavy copper boilers and stills in the works have, in numerous instances, been wrenched from the ground and battered to pieces. The rain pours down in torrents, sweeping before it every thing that comes in its way. The destruction caused by such dreadful scourges seldom fails to produce a very great scarcity, and not unfrequently famine; and we are grieved to have to add, that the severity of the distress has on several occasions been materially aggravated by a refusal on the part of the authorities to allow importation direct from the United States^{1*}. This was the case at Dominica so late as 1817.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus in 1494, and continued in possession of the Spaniards till 1655, when it was wrested from them by the English. Although it had thus been for more than a century and a half under the power of Spain, such was the deadening influence of her colonial system, that it did not, when we conquered it, contain 1,500 white inhabitants, and these were immersed in sloth and poverty. Of the many valuable articles which Jamaica soon after produced in such profusion, many were then altogether unknown, and of those that were known, such a supply only was cultivated as was required for the consumption of the inhabitants. "The Spanish settlers," says Mr. Bryan Edwards, "possessed none of the elegancies of life; nor were they acquainted even with many of those gratifications which, in civilised states, are considered necessary to its comfort and convenience. They were neither polished by social intercourse, nor improved by education; but passed their days in gloomy languor, enfeebled by sloth, and depressed by poverty. They had been for many years in a state of progressive degeneracy, and would probably in a short time have expiated the guilt of their ancestors, by falling victims themselves to the vengeance of their slaves."—(*Hist. West Indies*, vol. i. p. 297. 8vo. ed.)

For a considerable number of years after we obtained possession of Jamaica, the chief exports were cocoa, hides, and indigo. Even so late as 1773, the exports of sugar amounted to only 11,000 hogsheads. In 1774, they had increased to 28,000 hogsheads of sugar, 35,000 punchons of rum, and 6,547 bags of coffee. The American war was very injurious to the West India settlements; and they may, indeed, be said to be still suffering from its effects, as the independence of America led to the enactment of those restrictions on the importation of food, lumber, &c. that have been so very hurtful to the planters. In 1780, Jamaica was visited by a most destructive hurricane, the devastation occasioned by which produced a dreadful famine; and other hurricanes followed in the immediately succeeding years. But in 1787, a new era of improvement began. The devastation of St. Domingo by the negro insurrection which broke out in 1793, first diminished, and in a few years almost entirely annihilated, the annual supply of 115,000 hogsheads of sugar, which France and the Continent had previously been accustomed to receive from that island. This diminution of supply, by causing a greatly increased demand for, and a consequent rise in the price of, the sugar raised in the other islands, occasioned an extraordinary extension of cultivation. So powerful in this respect was its influence, that Jamaica, which, at an average of the 5 years preceding 1799, had produced only 83,000 hogsheads, exported, in 1801 and 1802, upwards of 286,000 hogsheads, or 143,000 a year!

The same rise of price, which has operated so powerfully in Jamaica, occasioned a similar though less rapid extension of cultivation in our other islands, and in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the foreign colonies generally. The vacuum caused by the cessation of the supplies from St. Domingo being thus more than filled up, a re-action commenced. The price of sugar rapidly declined; and, notwithstanding a forced market was for a while formed to it, by substituting it for malt in the distillery, prices did not attain to their former elevation. On the opening of the Continental ports, in 1813 and 1814, they, indeed, rose, for a short time, to an extravagant height; but they very soon fell, involving in ruin many of the speculators upon an advance. Prices, however, continued at a pretty high level down to 1818; but they sustained a material fall in the course of the following year, and were comparatively low from that period down to 1835, when the extraordinary falling off in the supplies of sugar consequent to the measures connected with the emancipation of the slaves, again occasioned a considerable rise of price. But, as already seen, this high price is entirely fictitious, being wholly caused by our excluding foreign sugar from our market. Were the sugar of Brazil, Cuba, and Java admitted on paying the same duty as British colonial sugar, there can be no doubt that the price of the latter would be diminished a half or more. And from the extraordinary facility with which sugar may be raised in the countries referred to and elsewhere, we have no idea, provided they adopt no rash or ill-advised measures in relation to slaves, that the price of sugar in their markets would be at all likely to sustain any material increase, even though the demand for it were doubled or more. The imports of sugar from our West India colonies, which amounted to 4,103,800 cwt. in 1831, had sunk, in 1841, to 2,151,217 cwt. But in 1847 they rose to 3,202,774 do.

The devastation of St. Domingo gave the same powerful stimulus to the growth of coffee in the other West Indian colonies, that it did to the growth of sugar; and owing to the extraordinary increase in the demand for coffee in this and other European countries, the supply went on increasing till it was checked by the influence of the measures relating to slavery. In 1793, for example, only 60,000 lbs. of coffee were exported from Jamaica; in 1775 the export amounted to 440,000 lbs.; in 1797 it had increased to 7,931,611 lbs.; and in 1832, when it had attained its maximum, the exports to England only amounted to 19,408,533 lbs. Such, however, and so rapid has been their subsequent decline, that in 1847 the exports to England had fallen off to 6,370,363 lbs. (See opposite.)

We have already seen, that when Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards, it only contained 1,500 white inhabitants. In 1673, the population amounted to 7,768 whites and 9,504 slaves. It would have been well for the island had the races continued to preserve this relation to each other; but, unfortunately, the black population has increased more than five times as rapidly as the white; the latter having only increased from 7,768 to about 30,000, while the former has increased from 9,504 to about 310,000 exclusive of persons of colour.

The real value of the exports to Jamaica amounts to about 1,500,000*l.* a year, being more than half the amount of the exports to the West Indian colonies. It should, however, be observed, that a considerable portion of the articles sent to Jamaica, and some of the other colonies, are only sent there as a *rentrée*, being subsequently exported in the Spanish main. During the ascendancy of the Spanish dominion in Mexico and South America, this trade, which was then contraband, was carried on to a very great extent. It is now much fallen off; but the central situation of Jamaica will always secure to her a considerable share of this sort of transit trade.

* It is stated in a report by a committee of the Assembly of Jamaica, that 15,000 negroes perished between the latter end of 1780 and the beginning of 1787, through famine occasioned by our war and the prohibition of importation from the United States.—(*Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 515.)

Barbadoes was the earliest of our possessions in the West Indies. It is the most easterly of the Caribbean islands; Bridge Town, the capital, being in long. 59° 41' W. Barbadoes is by far the best cultivated of all the West India Islands. It contains about 105,000 acres, having a population of about 13,000 whites, 6,600 people of colour, and 83,000 blacks. Of late years it has exported from 250,000 to 470,000 cwts. of sugar. Barbadoes had attained the acme of its prosperity in the latter part of the seventeenth century, when the white population is said to have amounted to about 50,000, though this is probably an exaggeration. But it is only as compared with itself that it can be considered as having fallen off; for, compared with the other West India Islands, its superiority is manifest. It raises nearly as much food as is adequate to its supply.

The islands next in importance are St. Vincent, Grenada, Trinidad, Antigua, &c. It is unnecessary to enter into any special details with respect to them; their population and trade being exhibited in the annexed Tables.

During the late war, we took from the Dutch the settlements of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo, in Guiana, which were definitely ceded to us in 1814. The soil of these settlements is naturally very rich; and they have, in this respect, a decided advantage over most of the West India Islands. Their advance, since they came into our possession, was for a while very great; but recently their progress has been checked, and their exports have declined most materially. This, however, is entirely in consequence of the want of labour; for, in other respects, these colonies have every facility of production. Various schemes have been suggested for supplying this want; but none of them, unless they involve the principle of compulsory service, will, we apprehend, be successful. The rum of Demerara enjoys a high reputation. The best samples of Iheribe coffee are very superior, and it is extensively cultivated both in that colony and in Demerara. In 1831, the exports amounted, from both colonies, to 3,876,744 lbs., whereas in 1847 they only amounted to 188,950 lbs! Considerable quantities of cotton were formerly exported from Guiana; but the Americans having superior facilities for its production, its culture has nearly ceased. Cocoa, annatto, &c. are produced, but not abundantly.

Exclusive of the above, we possess the settlement of Balize on the Bay of Honduras. This is of importance, as affording a means of obtaining abundant supplies of mahogany; but it is of more importance as an *entrepôt* for the supply of Guatemala and central America with English manufactured goods.

The exports from this country to our West India colonies consist of coarse cottons, linens, checks, hats, and other articles of negro clothing; hardware and earthenware; staves, hoops, coal, lime, paint, lead; Irish provisions, herrings, and other salt fish; along with furniture, wine, beer, medicines, and, indeed, almost every article which a great manufacturing country can supply to one situated in a tropical climate, which has very few mechanics and hardly any manufactures. Since the opening of the ports on the Spanish main to ships from England, the exports to the West Indies have decreased both in quantity and value; this decrease being, however, more than balanced by the shipments to Mexico, Columbia, &c. The declared or real value of the exports amounted, as appears from the following account, in 1847, to 2,273,041*l.*

Account of the Declared Value of the Exports of British and Irish produce to the West India Colonies in each Year from 1814 to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce exported to the British West Indies.	Years.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce exported to the British West Indies.	Years.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce exported to the British West Indies.	Years.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce exported to the British West Indies.
1814	7,019,938	1833	5,878,780	1832	2,439,807	1841	2,504,004
1815	7,419,767	1834	5,827,449	1833	2,257,591	1842	2,501,483
1816	4,257,054	1835	3,626,434	1834	2,690,292	1843	2,889,841
1817	5,890,199	1836	3,199,865	1835	5,181,510	1844	2,451,477
1818	5,181,388	1837	3,888,298	1836	3,785,635	1845	2,749,096
1819	4,611,323	1838	3,489,704	1837	3,456,713	1846	2,545,695
1820	4,197,761	1839	3,818,095	1838	5,393,441	1847	2,273,041
1821	4,780,581	1840	2,838,448	1839	5,985,598		
1822	5,459,818	1831	2,941,910	1840	3,574,970		

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to the West India Colonies during each of the 5 Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantity.	Declared Value.								
Apparel, shoes, & haberdashery	£	269,150	£	256,086	£	296,196	£	251,908	£	249,680
Beef and pork	bar.	33,618	27,506	97,817	47,291	163,229	31,171	104,618	11,929	41,754
Butter and cheese	cwt.	25,101	104,456	96,219	106,114	211,031	129,445	29,831	111,608	29,557
Coals, cuts, and cinders	tons.	59,090	51,208	65,438	49,767	64,078	43,640	59,867	71,311	43,291
Cotton manufactures entered by the yard	yds.	37,693,944	885,020	43,496,618	913,398	58,961,857	1,927,850	58,397,100	1,668,887	51,806,134
Hosiery, lace, and small wares	£	43,811	£	46,446	£	53,329	£	61,768	£	49,501
Twist and yarn	lbs.	55,519	4,487	56,532	3,809	157,450	10,209	178,253	10,038	183,188
Furths: wares of all kinds	£	3,418,838	2,934,944	4,741	4,741	5,651,734	41,799	2,829,611	33,131	2,035,369
Glass entered by weight	£	37,469	51,125	44,611	60,110	41,413	58,585	49,506	60,708	42,488
Hardware and cutlery	£	25,350	117,762	20,568	85,169	35,008	99,915	19,001	70,878	16,008
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	tons.	6,821	148,963	6,223	131,377	5,381	118,510	4,796	128,289	6,165
Leathers, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	567,117	100,193	681,775	114,167	919,660	171,005	755,546	121,153	718,415
Linens manufactures entered by the yard	yds.	12,391,446	370,114	11,775,148	518,105	11,529,110	312,271	11,936,657	328,369	8,147,450
Machinery and mill-work	£	27,892	£	42,638	£	28,071	£	32,333	£	44,288
Painters' colours	£	23,153	£	26,911	£	30,381	£	34,041	£	16,918
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	£	40,416	£	35,965	£	35,391	£	29,223	£	21,069
Silk manufactures	£	36,918	£	36,918	£	36,918	£	36,921	£	35,155
Soap and candles	lbs.	5,134,900	104,168	7,279,716	140,558	9,716,295	190,267	9,360,757	174,370	7,139,430
Stationery of all sorts	£	97,500	£	97,500	£	35,381	£	34,066	£	36,661
Sugar, refined	cwt.	6,359	18,061	6,511	19,114	6,570	19,027	6,008	37,198	14,354
Tin and pewter wares and tin plates	£	15,864	£	13,237	£	15,849	£	13,727	£	12,069
Woolen manufactures entered by the yard	yds.	269,157	19,511	263,370	15,717	150,319	19,298	293,844	15,899	176,895
Wine by the piece	pe.	39,836	83,169	24,113	68,463	19,745	58,474	29,590	64,198	41,938
Woolens and small wares	£	11,001	£	10,852	£	10,852	£	10,852	£	10,102
All other articles	£	628,397	£	628,397	£	628,397	£	628,397	£	556,646
Total	£	8,436,748	£	8,436,748	£	8,436,748	£	8,436,748	£	8,436,748

Money.—What used to be called West India currency was an imaginary money, and had a different value in different colonies. The value is here, as compared with sterling money, was supposed to represent the corresponding value of the coins in circulation in the different islands at the time the proportion was fixed: these coins being for the most part mutilated, and otherwise worn and defaced, currency was in all cases less valuable than sterling. The following are the old values of 100*l.* sterling, and of a dollar, in the currencies of the different islands:—

	Sterl.	Curr.	Dol.	Curr.
Jamaica	100 <i>l.</i>	= 140 <i>l.</i>	1	= 6 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>
Hartitudes	100 <i>l.</i>	= 152 <i>l.</i>	1	= 6 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>
Windward Islands (except Barbadoes)	100 <i>l.</i>	= 175 <i>l.</i>	1	= 8 <i>s.</i> 3 <i>d.</i>

Leeward Islands
100*l.* = 200*l.*
But lately these currencies have been in a great measure superseded by the introduction of sterling money, current at the same rate as in England, and of the Spanish dollar. By an order in council of the 31st of March 1825, British silver money was made legal tender throughout all British colonial possessions, at the same nominal value as in England; and bills for the same are given on the Treasury of London, of 100*l.* each bill for 10*5*s.** such silver money. By this order, also, the value of the Spanish dollar was fixed at 4*s.* 6*d.* British silver money throughout all the colonies where it is current; but this value was further reduced on the 11th of September, 1826, to 4*s.* 2*d.* The value of the doubloon was then, also, fixed at 6*s.*

(3.) *Australian Colonies.*—This group of colonies, though founded in a very distant part of the world, and at a comparatively recent epoch, promises, at no very remote period, to equal or surpass the others in magnitude and importance. The countries in which they are situated, including the great Australian continent, formerly called New Holland, with Van Diemen's Land or Tasmania, New Zealand, &c., are of vast extent, and differ in many respects from each other. Hitherto, also, by far the larger portion of the continent is wholly unexplored; and even the islands are but very imperfectly known. Enough, however, has transpired to show that this great division of the globe differs in some most important respects from most or all countries with which we were previously acquainted; and that it is, in fact, full of anomalies. The interior of the continent has not been sufficiently explored to enable any distinct opinion to be formed as to the height of the mountain chains; but it appears to be pretty well established, that it has no great rivers, or, at least, none that reach the sea. Indeed it seems, speaking generally, to be a law in this new world, that rivers are largest near their source; and that they gradually diminish as they proceed, and most commonly dwindle into insignificance, or lose themselves in marshes, before they reach the ocean.

In consequence, perhaps, of this singular constitution of its river system, it is found that in Australia the best land is not at the mouths, but towards the sources, of the rivers. There are, no doubt, exceptions to this rule; but it appears to hold in by far the greater number of instances. Generally, also, the extent of fine land appears to be comparatively limited; and, in so far as the continental portion of the country has been explored, it appears to be much better adapted for pasturage than for tillage.

The northern portion of Australia, including, perhaps, about a third part of the entire continent, lies between the tropics; the other portion of the continent, with the adjacent islands of Van Diemen's Land and New Zealand being in the south temperate zone. The climate of the different parts of the continent must, therefore, it is obvious, differ very widely. We, however, know but little of the climate of inter-tropical Australia, except that it is within the range of the Indian monsoon; that the temperature along the coast is rapidly raised by a wind from the south, which has been supposed to afford a strong presumption of the existence of sandy deserts in the interior; and that the air is so very moist that during the season of the dry monsoon iron articles are with the utmost difficulty preserved from rusting.

It is commonly said that the climate of extra-tropical Australia, and especially of New South Wales, assimilates closely to that of Southern Italy. But this statement must be taken with considerable limitation; for, 1st, the atmosphere is very decidedly denser; 2nd, the extremes of temperature are greater; 3rd, the average heat is rather less; and 4th, the temperature appears to decline more rapidly by increase of elevation. The grand defect in the climate of extra-tropical Australia, which would otherwise be excellent, appears to consist in the periodical recurrence of wet and dry seasons. Sometimes hardly a single drop of rain falls for an entire year or more; and though, happily, dews are in such seasons peculiarly abundant, they form no adequate substitute for rain. During long continued droughts crops of all kinds are destroyed; and herbage, except in a few favoured spots, suffers severely.

Hence, as already stated, all the eastern parts of extra-tropical Australia, and perhaps, also, the southern, would seem to be much better fitted for pasturage than for husbandry. The droughts are exceedingly injurious to the latter, and they would necessarily involve any large population that depended principally on the indigenous products of the soil in extreme privations. Certainly, however, no country seems to be better fitted for grazing, or rather for the growth of sheep and wool. A dry climate is especially suitable to the latter; and though the pastures be far from luxuriant, their boundless extent compensates for every other deficiency. Sheep are not native to the country, a small flock of 29 head having been introduced for the first time by the original English settlers in 1788. For a while, however, their value was not appreciated; but the importance of sheep-farming, and its suitableness to the country, having been demonstrated by John McArthur, Esq. (to whom the colony is under the greatest obligations), it has since increased with unprecedented rapidity. In proof of this, it is only necessary to mention that while the export of wool from New South Wales amounted, in 1822, to only 152,880 lbs., it had increased, in 1825, to 411,600 lbs., in 1830 to 899,750 lbs., and in 1846 to the enormous amount of 16,363,158 lbs. — (See next page.)

1841.	Declared Value.
-	919,680
929	41,724
937	91,653
511	43,394
124	590,941
-	42,501
-	7,741
188	96,522
488	44,653
908	68,642
165	106,886
410	102,834
430	228,865
-	37,989
-	18,918
-	81,069
-	25,155
450	138,452
-	25,669
554	36,031
-	12,069
395	10,879
544	41,058
-	10,109
-	836,646
-	2,261,004

Van Diemen's Land being less subject to droughts than New South Wales, husbandry is carried on in it to a greater extent, and with more advantage; but there also sheep-farming is the principal and most advantageous employment. — (See VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.)

New Zealand, which has only been very recently resorted to by regular colonists, will, no doubt, from its situation, be better fitted for agriculture than either Australia or Van Diemen's Land. The ground in it is, however, very difficult to clear; the natives are also much more formidable, and it is not near so suitable for sheep-farming.

In 1846 the imports of wool into the U. Kingdom from the Australian colonies, were —
 New South Wales 18,363,158 lbs. | Western Australia 810,267 lbs.
 Van Diemen's Land 3,683,078 | South Australia 1,473,793
 Making a grand total of 21,865,270 lbs.

The first of the Australian colonies, that in New South Wales, founded so late as 1788, and that in Van Diemen's Land, founded in 1808, were originally intended to serve as penal settlements; and great numbers of convicts have since been carried to them. Latterly, however, these colonies, notwithstanding their distance, have been a favourite resort of free settlers, consisting partly of voluntary emigrants, and partly of emigrants carried out at the public expense. The settlement at Swan River, on the western coast of Australia, founded in 1829, and that on the south coast of Australia, founded in 1834, have been wholly formed of free settlers. New Zealand was not constituted a colony till 1840; but various establishments, chiefly consisting of adventurers from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, had previously been formed on different parts of its coasts.

Population. — The European population of the Australian colonies is believed to have been in 1846 nearly as follows: —
 New South Wales, including Port Philip 190,000
 Van Diemen's Land (1847) 70,154
 South Australia 22,410
 Western Australia 3,900
 New Zealand 17,000
 Total 301,564

Passage. — The cost of a passage to the Australian colonies, including provisions, is for the
 Cabin, from 50*l.* to 100*l.*
 Intermediate, from 30*l.* to 40*l.*
 Steerage, about 20*l.*

The average length of the voyage is about four months; and at whatever season of the year it may be made, the passengers have to pass through both very hot and very cold weather, and should, therefore, be prepared accordingly with suitable clothing.

The prices of cabin and intermediate passages to New Zealand are about the same as to the Australian colonies; but a steerage passage is rather higher.

Emigration. — We subjoin a return of the number of individuals that have emigrated from the United Kingdom to the Australian colonies, from 1825 down to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	Emigrants.	Years.	Emigrants.
1825	483	1837	5,454
1826	1,805	1838	14,021
1827	715	1839	15,786
1828	1,656	1840	16,859
1829	2,016	1841	38,625
1830	1,942	1842	6,534
1831	1,561	1843	5,478
1832	3,733	1844	8,249
1833	4,093	1845	830
1834	2,900	1846	3,347
1835	1,969	1847	4,349
1836	5,194		

Making a grand total of 129,491.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to the British Australian Colonies during each of the 5 Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.		
	Quantity.	Decl. Value.									
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery	£	173,512	£	225,775	£	272,452	£	270,176	£	200,510	
Beef and pork	bar.	8,301	22,907	7,156	27,279	5,854	21,213	18,575	66,488	6,557	21,869
Beer and ale	tuns	2,440	42,603	3,226	65,007	5,414	99,865	51,735	124,519	52,802	81,163
Cotton manufactures entered by the yard	yds.	2,610,873	81,450	5,689,982	167,369	9,052,153	254,490	5,070,819	171,112	8,607,815	64,492
Hosiery, lace, and small wares	£	43,809	£	47,218	£	39,541	£	37,073	£	19,026	
Earthenware of all sorts	pa.	814,950	6,689	1,256,162	13,621	1,855,623	24,491	4,112,350	27,283	1,148,531	16,175
Glass entered by weight	cwt.	15,274	31,879	24,953	38,084	37,033	51,749	61,169	83,371	44,876	63,279
Hosiery and cutlery	£	6,410	30,994	9,761	44,732	15,490	64,373	22,926	100,816	13,599	60,126
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	tons	3,593	50,131	5,077	71,350	5,818	90,420	9,158	152,574	6,841	81,487
Leather, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	97,484	21,403	127,251	23,212	173,186	26,865	209,426	39,163	219,770	45,407
Linens manufactures entered by the yard	yds.	1,023,839	43,098	1,752,410	89,328	1,166,625	86,519	2,097,716	83,677	297,585	40,128
Machinery and mill-work	£	8,923	£	5,091	£	14,112	£	17,021	£	15,071	
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	£	20,351	£	23,411	£	17,962	£	23,365	£	26,553	
Silk manufactures	£	42,097	£	52,459	£	46,724	£	27,845	£	30,577	
Soap and candles	lbs.	761,170	14,803	1,153,729	22,694	4,307,901	38,098	4,281,533	70,737	1,907,010	32,216
Stationery of all sorts	£	17,536	£	19,046	£	24,698	£	50,669	£	40,835	
Sugar, refined	cwt.	3,650	5,286	9,025	21,719	7,116	15,092	12,267	33,502	4,772	7,692
Woolen manufactures entered by the piece	pa.	9,860	41,799	16,014	64,639	19,083	79,214	20,227	79,214	15,872	55,571
Wine by the yard	yds.	270,205	23,304	379,183	27,161	517,329	40,092	668,452	47,719	895,238	27,713
Hosiery and small wares	£	7,137	£	12,369	£	17,029	£	16,120	£	8,537	
All other articles	£	217,160	£	301,107	£	368,899	£	509,410	£	325,639	
Totals	£	921,568	£	1,536,662	£	1,679,390	£	2,001,385	£	1,269,511	

(4.) Disposal of Land in the Colonies. — The question as to the best method of disposing of the unoccupied lands in colonies planted in unsettled countries is one of considerable nicety and difficulty. Land in old settled and fully occupied countries being, for the most part, very valuable, and its possession bringing along with it great consideration and influence, and frequently, also, great wealth, colonists are very apt, wherever they have the opportunity, to appropriate a much larger extent of land than they have the means of cultivating, or of turning to any useful account. Not only, however, are settlers disposed to act in this way, but speculators, who have no thought of emigrating, and

relieving the mother country of those who might otherwise have had to be supported at the public expense. Inasmuch, too, as an extraordinary quantity of labour is thus supplied to the colony, the injury done to the capitalists by making land artificially dear, is partially, at least, compensated by its making labour artificially cheap. The immense emigration to the Australian colonies in the 4 years ending with 1847 was principally a consequence of the principle now stated, and a very large proportion of the emigrants having been carried out at the public expense. It is, however, to be borne in mind, that when the revenue derived from the sale of land in the Australian colonies was at its maximum, its price was only 12s. an acre; since it has been raised in 20s. the sales have been considerably less.

It would obviously be the extreme of folly for any one intending to emigrate who has a little, but not a great deal of capital, to think of establishing himself in a colony where a high price is set upon land. At all events, such person must not expect in such a colony to become a landowner, or to be independent, but must make up his mind to be a hired labourer; whereas, if he emigrates to a colony where land is sold at a low price, or given away on condition of certain improvements being effected upon it within a given time, he may at once acquire an estate, and exchange the condition of a hired servant for that of landowner.

"Seeing that the Americans sell the best lands in the valley of the Mississippi at less than a dollar an acre, it is not easy to discover on the principles on which we proceed in exacting 6s. 7d. an acre for the worst land in Upper Canada. If this regulation were meant to divert the current of voluntary emigration from Canada to the U. States, nothing could be found to say against it; but otherwise it seems alike contradictory and absurd. Notwithstanding the facilities of getting out to Quebec in timber ships, the direct emigration to the U. States generally exceeds that to British N. America, the emigrants to the former being also of a superior description, and enjoying a greater command of capital. And there can be no doubt that the U. States are in no inconsiderable degree indebted for this influx of comparatively valuable immigrants to the fact of the public lands being sold at a less price than ours. "It is population alone which imparts value to land, and a more effectual method could not be devised for preventing an influx of inhabitants into Upper Canada, and drawing away many of these already settled, than government adhering to the present prices of land."—(See Shireff's valuable *Agricultural Tour through N. America*, p. 365.)

Regulations for the Disposal of Lands in the Colonies, 1848.

Canada.—By a provincial act of 1841, Crown lands are to be sold at a price to be fixed from time to time by the governor in council. The prices fixed for the present are as follows: For Canada, West (Upper Canada) and Jersey (about 6s. 7d. sterling) per acre; for Canada, East (Lower Canada), in the county of Ottawa, a half of the rate of St. Lawrence; to the west of the River St. Lawrence, the rate of St. Lawrence; and elsewhere in that division of the province, 4s. currency (about 5s. 2d. sterling).

These prices do not apply to lands reserved by government for non-performance of the conditions of settlement on which they were granted, to the lands reserved for the use of the Crown, to lands called Indian reserves, and other reserves; which three classes are, as well as town and village lots, subject to special valuation.

The size of the lots of country lands is usually 200 acres; but they are sold as frequently by half as by whole lots.

The following are the conditions of sale at present in force:—

1. The lots are to be taken at the contents in acres marked in the public documents, without guarantee as to the actual quantity contained in them.

2. No payments of purchase money will be received by instalments, but the whole purchase money, either in money or land scrip*, must be paid at the time of sale.

3. On the payment of the purchase money, the purchaser will receive a receipt which will entitle him to enter on the land which he has purchased, and arrangements will be made for lodging to him the patent without delay.

The receipt thus given not only authorises the purchaser to take immediate possession of the land, but also, under the provisions of the Land Act, to maintain legal proceedings against any wrongful possessor or trespasser, as effectually as if the patent deed had issued on the day the receipt is dated.

Government land agents are appointed in the several municipal districts, with full power to sell to the first applicant any of the advertised lands which the returns to public inspection may show to be vacant within their districts.

Now Sold.—The public lands are here sold at a fixed price of 1s. 5d. sterling per acre, payable at once. The smallest regular farm lot contains 100 acres. Any less quantity of land may be had, but the cost would be the same as for 100 acres, viz. 1s. 5d., the minimum sum for which a deed of grant is issued.

New Brunswick.—The mode of sale in this province is by auction. The upset price is generally about 5s. 6d. sterling (6s. currency), but varies according to situation, &c. Fifty acres is the smallest quantity usually sold.

Prince Edward's Island.—In this colony the Crown has but little land at its disposal, namely, about 6,100 acres. Sales by auction prevail, and the average price realised for ordinary country lands has been from 10s. to 14s. currency per acre.

South Island.—The sales by auction return the surveyed and accessible land at the disposal of the Crown in this colony. The area has been estimated at about 9,500,000 acres, of which about 20,000 have been sold. In a colony, where, by law, Crown lands are to be sold by auction at an upset price, to be fixed by the governor, at not less than 2s. per acre, land exposed to sale more than once on different days may afterwards be sold, without further competition, at the last upset price. Although the agriculture of the province is progressively increasing, there are yet comparatively few persons exclusively engaged in it, the population being nearly all engaged in the fisheries.

Australian Colonies.—The following are the regulations now in force under the provisions of the Australian Land Act,

* This scrip is issued by the local government in satisfaction of certain old militia claims.

Van Diemen's Land and New Zealand have been withdrawn from the operation of the Australian Land Act by the 8 & 9 Vic. c. 95, (August, 1845), and 9 & 10 Vic. c. 104, (1846). In the disposal of land in New Zealand, however, the same rules substantially will be followed as in the other Australian colonies.

The Act 9 & 10 Vic. c. 104, also empowers the Crown to grant leases and licences of occupation, for any term not exceeding 11 years, of the waste lands in New South Wales, South Australia, and Western Australia.

5 & 6 Vic. c. 38, for the disposal of the waste lands in the colonies of New South Wales (including the Sydney and Port Phillip districts, and any other districts that may hereafter be opened), South Australia and Western Australia.

1. All lands will be disposed of by sale, and must have one at least been exposed to public auction.

2. The lowest upset price will be not less than 17. per acre; but the government will have power to raise the same by proclamation, though not again to reduce it.

3. The lands will be distinguished into three different classes, viz. town lots, suburban lots, and country lots.

4. Upon town and suburban lots, as well as upon a proportion not exceeding one-tenth of the whole of the country lots offered for sale at any auction, the governor will have power to name a higher than the general or lowest upset price; the country lots on which such power is exercised to be designated as special country lots.

5. Town and suburban lots will in no case be disposed of except by public auction, but country lots which have already been put up to public auction and not sold, may be disposed of afterwards by private contract at the upset price.

6. No land will be sold by private contract save for ready money. When sold by public auction, one-tenth at least of the whole purchase money must be paid down, and the remainder within one calendar month, or the deposit will be forfeited.

7. Lands will be cut up for sale in lots not exceeding one acre, unless in extent.

8. As an exception to the general regulations, and subject to certain restrictions laid down in the Australian Land Act, the governor will have it in his discretion to dispose, by private contract, at a price not less than the lowest upset price for the district, of blocks comprising 20,000 acres or more.

9. Persons will be at liberty to make payments for colonial lands in this country, for which payment or deposit they will receive an order for credit to the same amount in any purchase of land they may effect in the colony, and will have the privilege of naming a proportionate number of emigrants for a free passage, as explained in the next article. The deposit must be made in one or more sums of 100s. each at the Bank of England, to the account of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners; and the depositor must date at the time the colony in which the land to be selected, and give notice to the commissioners of the deposit. Upon production of the bank's receipt for the money to the commissioners, they will furnish the depositor with a certificate, stating the amount which he has paid, and entitling him to obtain credit for that sum in any purchase which he may effect in the colony, as set out in all rules and regulations in force in the colony at the time such purchase may be made.

10. For every sum of 100s. deposited as above, the depositor will be entitled, for six months from the date of payment, to name a number of persons, not exceeding 10, to be sent to the colony, for a free passage. Two children between 1 and 14 are to be reckoned as equal to 1 adult. The emigrants are to be chosen from the class of mechanics and handicraftsmen, agriculturists, labourers, or domestic servants, and must be going out of their own interest, and not for wages. They are to be subject to the approval of the commissioners, and must, in all respects, fall within their general regulations on the selection of labourers.

The Falkland Islands.—The lands in this colony are now open for sale. The mode of sale is the same as that adopted in the Australian colonies. The upset price of country lands is, for the present, 10s. per acre. Town lots of an acre each, and suburban lots of 10 acres each, will be put up at 20s. deposits of purchase money may be made in this colony, but in the mode prescribed for the Australian colonies, but the depositor will be entitled to nominate, for a free passage, 6, instead of 5, adult labourers, for every 100s. deposited.

West India.—In the West India Colonies lands are to be sold by auction at an upset price of not less than 10s. per acre.

In the Bahamas the mode of sale is also by auction, but the lieutenant-governor is, from time to time, to name the upset price, which is never to be less than 6s. per acre. Lands exposed to auction may, in the discretion of the lieutenant-

governor, be sold by private contract at the upset price.

In the peculiar circumstances of South Australia, the lieutenant-governor has, for the present, caused to be auctioned the disposal of the public lands otherwise than by auction and in lots of moderate size.

governor, be afterwards sold by private contract, at not less than the upset price of such land. The ordinary size of the lots in the Bahamas is to be 10 acres, but lots of 5 acres may, if thought expedient, be disposed of.

Case of Good Hope.—1. The unappropriated Crown lands in this colony will be sold in freehold, and by public auction only.

2. Unless it is otherwise notified, the upset price for such sales will be two shillings (2s.) per acre, one acre is about half a morgen, but the governor, for the time being, will have the power to fix such higher upset price as the locality, or other circumstances, may render expedient, of which due notice will always be publicly given.

3. Persons desirous of becoming purchasers will apply, in writing, to the secretary to government respecting the land they wish to have put up for sale; stating in what division it is situated, and as far as practicable, its position, boundaries, and probable extent.

4. These applications, after being recorded in the colonial office, will be transmitted to the surveyor general, who, if he sees no objection to the land being disposed of, will call upon the applicant to deposit with him the whole expense of the survey; which expense will be calculated upon the following tariff, and be borne by the eventual purchaser.

For a piece of ground, and dividing the same into small lots, or terms for the first four lots, each	£ s. d.
For any beyond that number	0 12 0
For the measurement of any piece of land up to 10 morgens	0 9 0
For every morgen above 10 up to 100, per morgen	0 12 0
For 100 morgens	0 6 0

For every morgen above 100, as far as 500, per morgen	0 0 0
For 500 morgens	0 4 0
For every morgen above 500, per morgen	0 4 0
For 500 morgens	13 12 10
For every morgen above the same	0 0 0
For every diagram	0 12 0

4. Should the applicant not become the purchaser, the amount deposited by him will be returned when paid by the eventual purchaser; but should no sale take place, no interest can be made.

5. Lands offered for sale will be advertised for two months in the Government Gazette, at the expiration of which time they will be sold by public auction.

6. Ten per cent. of the purchase money must be paid at the time of sale, and the balance, (with the expenses of the survey, if the purchaser did not make the deposit,) within one calendar month from the day of sale; in default of which, the 10 per cent. so paid will be forfeited to the Colonial Treasury.

Ceylon.—In this colony the Crown lands are sold by auction, at an upset price, which is to be fixed by the governor, but which is not to be less than 17. per acre. Before being exposed to auction, the lands are surveyed by the government, and duly advertised.

Hong Kong.—The Crown lands will not be alienated in perpetuity, but in leases, which are to be offered for sale at public auction. The duration of the leases will not exceed 99 years for country lands, intended for purposes of cultivation; but country lands required for erecting residences and lands for building purposes, will be let on leases for 75 years, not renewable at right, but at the option of the government, and on the holder paying an increased rent.

Summary of Modes of Sale, and Prices, in the principal Land-selling Colonies, in 1848.

Colony.	Mode of Sale.	Price per Acre.
North American Colonies:		
Canada (West)	Fixed Price	Rs. Currency.
Canada (East)	Ditto	6s. and 1s. do. according to situation.
Nova Scotia	Ditto	1s. 6d. sterling.
New Brunswick	Auction	3s. currency upset price.
Prince Edward's Island	Ditto	10s. to 20s. ditto.
Australian Colonies:		
Springer	By Auction. Country lands not sold	
Port Phillip	At the public sales may afterwards be bought at the upset price as a fixed price	Lowest upset price 17. sterling
Western Australia		
South Australia		
New Zealand		
Falklands	Auction. Ditto. Ditto.	Lowest upset price 8s. sterling.
Bahamas	Ditto. Ditto. Ditto.	Ditto 6s.
Other West India Colonies	Ditto.	Ditto 11.
Cape of Good Hope	Ditto.	Lowest upset price 2s. sterling.
Ceylon	Ditto.	Ditto 17. sterling.
Hong Kong	Ditto. Only leases granted.	17s. to be ascertained by auction.

Account of the Amounts received from the Sale of Crown Lands in the Colony of New South Wales (including the District of Port Phillip), from the year 1834 to 1845 inclusive.

Years.	Amounts.	Years.	Amounts.
1834	£ 4,944 9 6	1840	£ 316,495 4 3
1835	30,784 14 6	1841	90,387 16 10
1836	126,458 16 0	1842	14,578 10 3
1837	190,427 9 8	1843	11,297 9 9
1838	116,328 38 11		
1839	192,968 16 4	Total	1,071,688 13 7

Note.—In 1831, Lord Ripon's regulations for the abolition

of free grants, and the sale by auction of all crown lands, were first promulgated in the colony.

1839. In this year the minimum price was raised from 5s. to 12s. an acre, but did not extend to lands previously advertised at the former rate, of which there was a very large quantity at the time.

1841. In this year, the system of sale at a fixed price of 11. per acre was introduced into the district of Port Phillip.

1842. In this year, the system of sale by auction was resumed throughout the colony, at a minimum upset price of 12s. per acre for country lands, with liberty to select portions not bid for at the upset price.

1843. In this year, the minimum price was raised to 17. per acre by the Act of the Imperial Parliament, 6 & 7 Vict. c. 36, with liberty to select, at the upset price, country portions put up to auction and not bid for, or on which the deposit had been forfeited.

Considering that it may, speaking generally, be laid down that in New South Wales from 3 to 4 acres are required to depasture a single sheep, it is plain that the plan of selling land at a minimum price of 12s. or 20s. an acre, is, in the majority of cases, and in practice as it is palpably mischievous and absurd. And, in point of fact, incomparably the greater number of the sheep belonging to the colony, are depastured on what has been called the *squatting system*. A capitalist intending to become a wool-grower formerly took out an annual licence, for which he paid 10l., authorizing him to depasture a run, or tract of land, of no definite magnitude, but usually varying in size from 3000 or 4000 to perhaps 25,000 or 30,000 acres, under the important proviso that he should pay in addition an annual rent of 1d. for every head of sheep and of 1d. for every head of cattle depastured on the run. This system, having been acted upon for a lengthened period the runs began to be regarded as a sort of quasi property and thence in preferable situations were disposed of by one holder to another for considerable sums. Recently, however, government has interfered with this system; and the act 9 & 10 Vict. c. 104. empowers the authorities to eject persons unlawfully occupying waste lands, provided they have not held them without interruption, for 21 years previously to the passing of the act. If they have done this, their title is secured. From the passing of the act waste lands, when let, are to be leased for 14 years only, at such rents and under such conditions as may be agreed on. But the better plan would be, at least for the interests of the colony and the colonists, to let the waste lands in moderate-sized tracts, at a reasonable quit-rent of 2d. or at most 2d. an acre. Instead of throwing difficulties in the way of the squatting or wool-growing system, it should receive every fair encouragement. But the only encouragement it has met with has grown out of the plan that was intended to effect its suppression. The oppressive price of 20s. an acre demanded for land, instead of concentrating the population and hindering squatting, as it was affirmed it would do, has had a precisely opposite effect, and has contributed to the dispersion of the population. For it has tempted people with capital to squat and become the lessors of large tracts of pasture land, rather than become the purchasers (at a ruinous cost) and cultivators of smaller freehold properties. The truth is that in every point of view the present system of land sales is a nuisance; and it is not easy to decide whether its impolicy or the tenacity with which it is supported be the more remarkable.

The table in the next page embodies, within a brief space, a good deal of important information respecting our colonies in all parts of the world.

COLONIES AND

Returns relative to the Population and Trade of the Colonies or Foreign Possessions of the British Crown.

Table of Returns from each Colony or Foreign Possession of the British Crown, stating the Date at which each Colony or Possession was captured, ceded, or settled; the Number of the Population, and whether having Legislative Assemblies, or governed by the Queen in Council; stating, also, the Value of Exports and Imports, and Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered inward and cleared outward in each Colony, in 1842. — (*Part. Paper No. 46. Sess. 1842, with corrections.*)

Colonies.	Date of Capture, Cession, or Settlement.	Whether having Legislative Assemblies, or governed by Orders in Council.	Population, 1842, or last Census.	Trade between the United Kingdom and the several British Colonies in 1842.		Exports from Parts of U. Kingdom.				
				Imports into the U. Kingdom (Official Value).	Exports from the U. Kingdom (Official Value).	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	
										British and Irish Produce and Manufactures (Official Value).
Lower Canada	Constitution, 14th Sept. 1759		893,640	1,591,255	1,592	840,948	1,369	645,370	17,220	81,866
Upper Canada	Ditto, 4th Sept. 1763, and cession by treaty, 1763	(1842)	339,000	510,297	72	10,528	107	21,220	31,278	1,278
New Brunswick	Settlements, 1672		121,198	266,247	12	20,268	107	21,220	31,278	1,278
Newfoundland	Ditto, 1763		18,491	86,247	72	5,051	11	2,678	11	2,678
Prince Edward's Island	Settlements, 1759		10,459	20,247	12	2,051	11	2,678	11	2,678
Antigua	Settlements, 1672		37,433	1,211,277	189	47,776	815	81,293	815	81,293
Barbadoes	Settlements, 1627		7,219	24,244	6	1,265	5	641	5	641
Bahama	Settlements, 1649		1,278	2,244	2	5,072	18	5,871	18	5,871
St. Lucia	Ceded by France, 1763		27,214	82,244	30	2,211	20	7,228	20	7,228
St. Vincent	Settlements, 1666		13,008	81,244	12	146	13	5,212	13	5,212
Tobago	Settlements, 1666		8,234	9,216	1	146	1	963	1	963
Trinidad	Settlements, 1763		5,214	92,279	22	19,219	22	81,266	22	81,266
Demerara	Settlements, 1763		9,230	16,248	6	985	6	18,448	6	18,448
British Guiana	Constitution, 18th Sept. 1803		102,354	189,244	185	32,216	171	45,295	171	45,295
Surinam	Settlements, 1654		9,230	43,223	25	6,158	25	5,265	25	5,265
Demerara	Settlements, 1654		10,000	864,292	47	19,278	47	5,265	47	5,265
St. Kitts	Settlements, 1627		90,208	8,215,765	714	191,288	808	881,244	808	881,244
St. Eustace	Settlements, 1627		11,218	20,291	81	30,602	528	43,204	528	43,204
St. John	Settlements, 1627		12,226	23,214	122	21,265	509	40,141	509	40,141
St. Thomas	Settlements, 1627		39,243	380,274	69	4,260	75	16,409	75	16,409
St. Vincent	Settlements, 1627		4,243	89,225	26	18,464	66	13,219	66	13,219
St. Lucia	Settlements, 1627		1,221,251	1,211,266	31	26,650	31	10,259	31	10,259
St. Kitts	Settlements, 1627		180,000	208,207	108	26,650	54	10,259	54	10,259
St. John	Settlements, 1627		70,154	134,170	79	22,265	159	51,254	159	51,254
St. Thomas	Settlements, 1627		35,127	59,244	4	1,242	8	9,231	8	9,231
St. Eustace	Settlements, 1627		17,000	10,299	1	3,250	10	9,286	10	9,286
St. Vincent	Settlements, 1627		4,234	5,759	1	17,330	1	2,222	1	2,222
TOTALS			4,209,154	3,097,999	302	198,245	802	904,119	802	904,119

* The trade with Hong Kong in this year not distinguished from the general trade with China.

IV. REGULATIONS UNDER WHICH COLONY TRADE IS CONDUCTED. These are embodied in the act 8 & 9 Victoria, c. 93., which came into operation on the 4th of August, 1845. We subjoin a copious abstract of this act:—

Importation and Exportation confined to Free Ports.—No goods shall be imported into, nor shall any goods, except the produce of the fisheries in British ships, be exported from any of the British possessions in America by sea, from or to any place other than the U. Kingdom, or some other of such possessions, except into or from the several ports to such possessions, called "Free Ports," enumerated or described in the table following; viz.,

Kingston	Old Harbour	Jamaica.	Nassau	New Providence	Bahamas
Havana in Mes	Matanzas		(Grand Key	Turk's Island	
Montego Bay	San Juan		Pitt's Town	Crooked Island	
Falmouth	St. Lucia		Any Port where there is a Custom House		Bermuda.
Fort Marlborough	St. Ann's		Porte St. George's and Hamilton		
Port Antonio	Annatto Bay		Halifax		Canada.
Morant Bay	Port Morant		Pictou		
Bridgetown		Barbadoes.	Liverpool		
St. John's		Antigua.	Yarmouth		
Plymouth		Montserrat.	Lunenburg		
Basseterre		St. Kitt's.	Shelburne		
Christown		Anguilla.	Digby		Nova Scotia.
Road Harbour		Toronto.	Windsor		
Casimir		St. Lucia.	Paraboro		
Rosetta		St. Vincent.	Cumberland		
Kingstown		Grenada.	New Edinburgh		
St. George's		Trinidad.	Arichat		
Port of Spain		Tobago.	Sydney, Cape Breton		
Ran Fernando		Dominica.	Charlotte Town		Prince Edward's Island.
Rearborough		Barbice	George Town		
George Town			St. John's		
New Amsterdam			Miramichi		New Brunswick.
			Dalhousie		
			St. Andrew's		
			Magnusville		
			George Bell		
			St. John's		Newfoundland.
			Herbhour Grise		

And if any goods be imported into any port or place in any of the said possessions contrary hereto, such goods shall be forfeited: provided always, that if H. Majesty deem it expedient to extend the provisions of this act to any port or ports not enumerated in the said table, it shall be lawful for H. Majesty, by order in council, to extend the provisions of this act to such port or ports; and from and after the day mentioned in such order in council all the privileges and advantages of this act, and all its provisions, penalties, and forfeitures, (subject to the limitations and restrictions herein-after provided) shall be deemed and construed to extend, to any such port or ports respectively, as fully as if the same had been inserted and enumerated in the said table at the time of passing this act: provided also, that nothing herein contained shall extend to prohibit the importation or exportation of goods, into or from any ports or places in Newfoundland or Labrador in British ships; provided also, that it shall be lawful to import from the islands of Guernsey and Jersey in British ships, into any port or place in the British possessions in N. America, or from whence the British fisheries in N. America are carried on, any sort of craft, food, victuals (except spirits), and all sorts of clothing, and implements and materials fit and necessary for said fisheries, though such port or place be not a free port. — § 2.

Her Majesty may appoint Ports for limited Purposes.—And whereas there are in the said possessions many places situated in rivers and in bays at which it may be necessary to establish ports for particular and limited purposes only; be it enacted, that it shall be lawful for H. Majesty, in any order in council made for the appointment of any free port, to limit and confine such appointments respectively to such purposes only as shall be expressed in such order. — § 3.

Limitation of the Privileges of Foreign Ships.—And whereas by the law of navigation foreign ships are permitted to import into any of the British possessions in Asia, Africa, or America, from the countries to which they belong, goods the produce of those countries, and to export goods from such possessions to be carried to any foreign country whatever; and whereas it is expedient that such permission should be subject to certain conditions; be it therefore enacted, that the privileges thereby granted to foreign ships shall be limited to the ships of those countries which, having colonial possessions, shall grant the like privileges of trading with those possessions to British ships, or which, not having colonial possessions, shall place the commerce and navigation of this country, and of its possessions abroad, upon the footing of the most favoured nation, unless H. Majesty, by order in council, shall in any case deem it expedient to grant the whole or any of such privileges to the ships of any foreign country, although the conditions aforesaid be not in all respects fulfilled by such foreign country: provided always, that no foreign country shall be deemed to have fulfilled the before-mentioned conditions, or to be entitled to the privileges aforesaid, until H. Majesty shall, by some order or orders, have declared that such foreign country hath so fulfilled the said conditions, and is entitled to the said privileges. — § 4.

This Act not to affect certain Acts.—Nothing contained in this act, or any other act passed in the present session of parliament, shall repeal or in any way alter or affect the act 4 Geo. 4, c. 77., intitled "An Act to authorize his Majesty, under certain Circumstances, to regulate the Duties and Drawbacks on Goods Imported or Exported in certain Circumstances, and to exempt certain foreign Vessels from Pilotage, nor to repeal or in any way alter or affect the act 5 Geo. 4, c. 50., amending the last-mentioned act; and that all trade and intercourse between the British possessions and foreign countries shall be subject to the powers granted to his late Majesty by those acts. — § 5.

Goods prohibited.—The several sorts of goods enumerated in the table following, denominated "A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions," are hereby prohibited to be imported or brought, either by sea or inland carriage or navigation, into the British possessions in America or the Mauritius, or shall be so imported or brought only under the restrictions mentioned in such table, according as the several sorts of such goods are set forth therein; viz.,

A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions.

Gunpowder, ammunition, arms, or utensils of war, prohibited to be imported, except from the U. Kingdom, or from some other British possession.	Imported into any of the British possessions on the continent of N. America or in the West Indies (the Bahama and Bermuda Islands not included), or into the Mauritius, except to be warehoused for exportation only, and may also be prohibited to be imported into the Bahama or Bermuda Islands by H. Majesty's order in council.
Coffee, sugar not being refined, in bond in the U. Kingdom, molasses, rum, and the produce of any manufactory of any British possessions within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, except as hereinafter is provided, or being of foreign make, or manufacture, prohibited to be imported.	Base or counterfeit coin, prohibited to be imported.

And if any goods be imported or brought into any of the British possessions in America or the Mauritius contrary to the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in the above table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited; and if the ship or vessel in which such goods shall be imported be of less burden than 50 tons, such ship or vessel shall be forfeited. — § 6.

Coffee, Sugar, and Rum may be Imported in certain Cases.—It shall be lawful to import into any British possession in the West Indies and S. America, and into the Mauritius, any coffee the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and also any sugar the

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produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, into which the importation of sugar the produce of any foreign country, or of any British possession into which foreign sugar may be legally imported has been prohibited, and also any rum the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, into which the importation of rum the produce of any foreign country, or of any British possession into which foreign sugar or rum may be legally imported has been prohibited: provided nevertheless, that no such coffee, sugar, or rum shall be entered in any British possession in the West Indies or S. America, or in the island of Mauritius, as being the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter from which the same may be so legally imported, unless the master of the ship importing the same shall have delivered to the collector or principal officer of customs at the port of importation such certificate of origin as is herein-after mentioned, under the hand and seal of the proper officer at the place where the same shall have been taken on board; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the proper officer of the customs that such certificate was received by him at the place where such coffee, sugar, or rum was taken on board, and that the coffee, sugar, or rum so imported is the same as is mentioned therein; and such certificate of origin shall, as regards coffee, certify that a declaration in writing had been made and signed before the officer giving such certificate, the contents of which be believed to be true, by the shipper of such coffee, that the same was really and bona fide the produce of some British possession; and such certificate of origin shall, as respects sugar, state the name of the district in which such sugar was produced, the quantity and quality thereof, the number and denomination of the packages containing the same, and the name of the ship in which they were laden, and of the master thereof, and the officer giving the same; the shipper of such sugar shall likewise certify that there had been produced a certificate under the hand and seal of the collector or assistant collector of the land or customs revenue of the district within which such sugar was produced, that such sugar was of the produce of such district, and that the importation into such district of foreign sugar, or sugar the growth of any British possession into which foreign sugar can be legally imported, is prohibited; and such certificate of origin shall, as respects rum, state the name of the district in which such rum was produced, the quantity and strength thereof, the number and denomination of the packages containing the same, and the name of the ship in which they were laden, and of the master thereof, and shall also testify that there has been produced to the party giving such certificate, by the shipper of such rum, a certificate under the hand and seal of the collector or assistant collector of the land or customs revenue of the district within which such rum was produced, that the same was the production of such district. — § 7.

Coffee, &c., though British, deemed Foreign in certain Cases.—All coffee, sugar, molasses, and rum (although the same may be of British plantations) exported from any of the British possessions in America, into which the like goods of foreign production can be legally imported, shall upon subsequent importation from thence into any of the British possessions in America or the Mauritius into which such goods, being of foreign production, cannot be legally imported, or into the U. Kingdom, be deemed to be of foreign production, and shall be liable, on such importation respectively, to the same duties or the same forfeitures as articles of the like description, being of foreign production, would be liable to, unless the same have been warehoused under the provisions of this act, and exported from the warehouse direct to such other British possession, or to the U. Kingdom, as the case may be. — § 8.

Foreign Imports of Books under Copyright prohibited.—Any books whereof the copyright shall be subsisting, first composed or written or printed in the U. Kingdom, and printed or re-printed in any other country, are hereby absolutely prohibited to be imported into the British possessions abroad: provided always, that no such books shall be prohibited to be imported as aforesaid unless the proprietor of such copyright, or his agent, shall have given notice in writing to the commissioners of customs that such copyright subsists, when the copyright when the copyright is subsisting, and the commissioners shall make and publicly expose at the several ports in the British possessions abroad, from time to time, printed lists of books respecting which such notice has been duly given, and all books imported contrary thereto shall be forfeited. — § 9.

Foreign Manufactures with British Marks.—If any articles of foreign manufacture, or packages of such articles bearing any names, brands, or marks of manufacturers resident in the U. Kingdom, be imported into any British possession abroad, the same shall be forfeited. — § 10.

Import Duties.—There shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto H. Majesty the several duties of customs, respectively set forth in the following Table of Duties, upon goods, wares, and merchandise not being the growth, production, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom, or of any British possession in America, or of the Mauritius, or of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, or the produce of any of the British fisheries imported or brought into any British possession in America or the Mauritius by sea or inland carriage or navigation, viz.:

		Table of Duties.			
		s.	d.		
Woolen manufactures	per barr. of 106 lbs.	2	0	Woolen manufactures	per barr. of 106 lbs.
Leather ditto	per cwt.	3	0	Leather ditto	per cwt.
Paper ditto	per barr.	4	0	Paper ditto	per barr.
Hardware	per cwt.	3	0	Hardware	per cwt.
Clocks and watches	per piece	8	0	Clocks and watches	per piece
Manufactured tobacco	per lb.	5	0	Manufactured tobacco	per lb.
Soap	per lb.	5	0	Soap	per lb.
Candles, other than spermaceti	per lb.	1	0	Candles, other than spermaceti	per lb.
Corks, cordage, and oakum	per lb.	3	0	Corks, cordage, and oakum	per lb.
Oil, blubber, fins, and skins, the produce of fish and creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, 15 per centum ad valorem.				Oil, blubber, fins, and skins, the produce of fish and creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, 15 per centum ad valorem.	
Articles not enumerated, except such as are comprised or referred to in the subjoined Table of Exemptions.	per lb.	0	1	Articles not enumerated, except such as are comprised or referred to in the subjoined Table of Exemptions.	per lb.
And if any of the goods hereinbefore charged with duty, except sugar, shall be imported through the United Kingdom, having been warehoused therein, and being exported from the warehouse, or the duties thereon, (if there paid, having been drawn back).				And if any of the goods hereinbefore charged with duty, except sugar, shall be imported through the United Kingdom, having been warehoused therein, and being exported from the warehouse, or the duties thereon, (if there paid, having been drawn back).	

Table of Exemptions.

Corn, bullion, and diamonds.	Hemp, flax, and tow.
Horses, mules, asses, neat cattle, and all other live stock.	Drugs.
Hay and straw.	Gums and resins.
Tallow and raw hides.	Porcellan.
Salt.	Manures of all kinds.
Rice.	Specimens illustrative of natural history.
Corn and grain unground.	Herrings taken and cured by the inhabitants of the Isle of Man, and imported from thence.
Biscuit or bread.	Tee imported direct from China or from the U. K. or from any British possession.
Meal or flour, except wheat flour.	Provisions and stores of every description, imported or supplied for the use of H. Majesty's land and sea forces.
Fresh fish.	All goods imported from the U. K. after having thereon paid the duties of consumption, and imported from thence without drawback.
Fruit and vegetables, fresh.	
Fruitages of travellers.	
Wood and lumber.	
Cotton wool.	

And also such of the following articles, namely,

Stuffed or cured meats,
Fats,
Butter,
Cheese,
Milk,
Cork-wood,
Corkage,

Oakum,
Tobacco,
Turpentine,
Leather, and Leather-ware,
Fishermen's clothing and hosiery,
Fishing craft, utensils, instruments, and bait,

as shall be imported for the use of the British fisheries in America into any place at or from whence any such fishery is carried on.—§ 11.

Commissioners of Customs may make necessary Regulations.—The commissioners of customs, or the principal officer of customs at the place of importation, shall make and establish such regulations as may be necessary for the purpose of ascertaining that such articles as last aforesaid are *bona fide* intended to be applied to the use of such fisheries, or that such provisions and stores as aforesaid are *bona fide* imported or supplied for the use of H. Majesty's land and sea forces.—§ 12.

Import Duty on Sugar refined in Bond.—There shall be levied, collected, and paid unto H. Majesty a duty of 10*l.* for every 100*l.* of the value upon sugar refined in bond in the U. Kingdom, not being of the growth of any British possession in America or of the Mauritius, or of any British possession within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, imported into any British possession in America or into the Mauritius.—§ 13.

Crown Goods sold after Importation to be charged with Duty.—All goods, wares, and merchandise, the property of the Crown, shall, in case of the sale thereof after importation into any British possession abroad, be liable to and be charged with the same duties of customs as may by law be payable or charged on the like goods, wares, and merchandise, not being the property of the Crown.—§ 14.

Duties to be increased in certain Cases.—If in any British possession in America or in the Mauritius any duty be chargeable under this act upon any articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom, or of the British possessions in America or in the Mauritius, or of the British possessions within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, or the produce of the British fisheries, beyond the duty (if any) chargeable by such colonial law upon similar foreign articles, a duty equal to such excess or amount (as the case may be) of the duties so chargeable by such colonial law upon such British articles shall be chargeable under this act upon such foreign articles, in addition to the imperial duties (if any) hereby imposed thereon; and if in any British possession in America or in the Mauritius any duty be chargeable by any colonial law upon tea imported direct from China, or imported from the U. Kingdom, or any British possession, beyond the duty (if any) chargeable by such colonial law upon tea not so imported, the imperial duty hereby imposed upon tea not so imported shall be increased by such excess or amount (as the case may be) of the duties so chargeable by such colonial law upon tea imported direct from China, or imported from the U. Kingdom, or from any British possession.—§ 15.

H. Majesty may by Order in Council exempt certain Articles from Duty.—H. Majesty may, by and with the advice of H. privy council, by any order or orders in council, direct that any article described in such order, being an article chargeable under this act as an unenumerated article, with a duty of 4 *per cent. ad valorem*, shall be added to the list of exemptions herein-before set forth, and shall be free from such duty; and from and after the time mentioned in such order for the commencement of such exemption, not being less than 6 months from the date thereof, such exemption shall take effect, and such article shall thenceforth, whilst such order continues in force, be free from such duty; and any such order may at any time be suspended or revoked by H. Majesty, with the advice of her privy council, by any other order in council.—§ 16.

Monies, Weights, &c.—All sums of money granted or payable under this act as duties, penalties, or forfeitures in the British possessions in America or the Mauritius are hereby declared to be sterling money of Great Britain, and shall be collected, recovered, and paid to the amount of the value which such nominal sums bear in Great Britain, and such money may be received and taken in sterling money of Great Britain, or in foreign coins at such rates as shall be equivalent to such sterling money, and shall have been fixed by proclamation issued by H. Majesty; and all duties under this act shall be paid and received in the British possessions in America and in the Mauritius according to the imperial weights and measures now by law established; and in all cases where such duties are imposed according to any specific quantity or any specific value, the same shall be deemed to apply in the same proportion to any greater or less quantity or value; and all such duties shall be under the management of the commissioners of H. M. customs.—§ 17.

Net Produce of Duties here to be applied.—The net produce of the duties received under this act shall be paid by the collector of the customs into the hands of the treasurer or receiver-general of the colony, or other proper officer authorized to receive the same in the colony in which the same shall be levied, to be applied to such uses as shall be directed by the local legislatures of such colonies respectively; and the produce of such duties so received in the colonies which have no local legislature shall be applied in such manner as shall be directed by the commissioners of H. M. treasury.—§ 18.

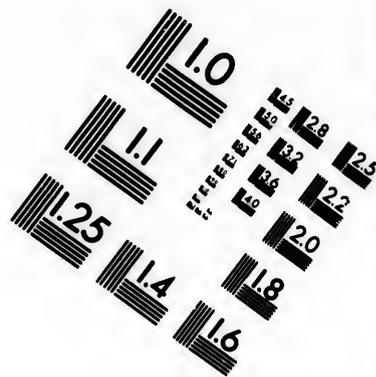
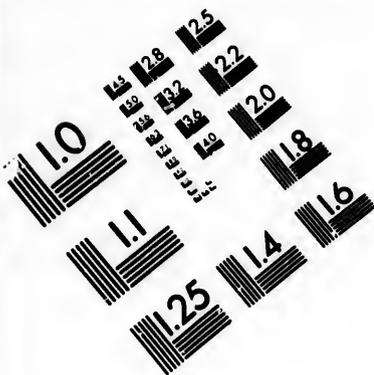
Goods from the Channel Islands.—Goods the produce or manufacture of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, when imported from such islands into the British possessions in America or the Mauritius, shall be admitted to entry upon payment of the same duties as are payable upon the like goods the produce or manufacture of the U. Kingdom or of any of the said possessions, upon production to the principal officer of customs at the port of importation of the proofs now required by law that such goods be the production or manufacture of the islands aforesaid.—§ 19.

All British Vessels shall be subject to equal Duties in the Colonies, except Coasting Vessels.—Whereas in some of H. M. possessions abroad certain duties of tonnage are by acts of the local legislatures of such possessions made payable upon British vessels, to which duties the like vessels built within such possessions, or owned by persons resident there, are not subject; be it enacted, that there shall be levied and paid at the several British possessions abroad upon all vessels built in any such possession, or owned by any person or persons there resident, other than coasting or drogueing vessels employed in coasting or drogueing, all and the like duties of tonnage and shipping as are or shall be payable in such possessions upon the like British vessels built in other parts of H. M. dominions, or owned by persons not resident in such possessions.—§ 20.

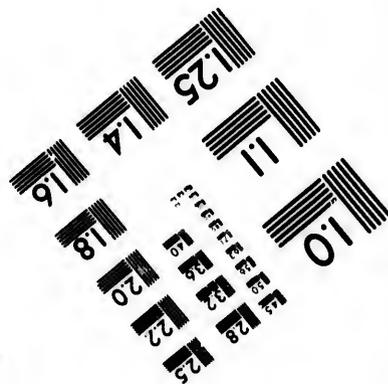
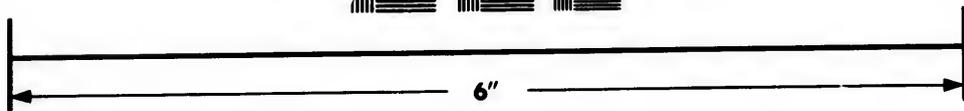
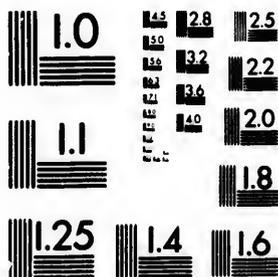
Ship and Cargo to be reported on Arrival.—The master of every ship arriving in British possessions in America or in the Mauritius, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, whether laden or in ballast, shall come directly, and before bulk be broken, to the custom house for the port or district where he arrives, and there make a report in writing to the collector or comptroller, or other proper officer, of the arrival of such ship, stating her name, country, and tonnage, and, if British, the port of registry, the name and country of the master, the country of the owners, the number of the crew, and how many are of the country of such ship, and whether she be laden or in ballast, and, if laden, the marks, numbers, and contents of every package and parcel of goods on board, and where the same was laden, and where and to whom consigned, and where any and what goods, if any, had been unladen during the voyage, as far as any such particulars can be known to him; and the master shall further answer all such questions concerning the ship and cargo, and the crew and the voyage, as shall be demanded of him by such officer; and if any goods be unladen from any ship before such report be made, or if the master fail to make such report, or make an untrue report, or do not truly answer the questions demanded of him, he shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*, and if any goods be not reported, such goods shall be forfeited.—§ 21.

Entry Outwards.—The master of every ship bound from any British possession abroad, except the territories subject to the government of the presidencies of Fort William in Bengal, Fort Saint George,





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and Bombay, shall, before any goods be laden therein, deliver to the collector or comptroller, or other proper officer, an entry outwards under his hand of the destination of such ship, stating her name, country, and tonnage, and, if British, the port of registry, the name and country of the master, the country of the owners, the number of the crew, and how many are of the country of such ship; and if any goods be laden on board any ship before such entry be made, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 50*l.*; and before such ship depart, the master shall bring and deliver to the collector or comptroller, or other proper officer, a content in writing under his hand of the goods laden, and the names of the respective shippers and consignees of the goods, with the marks and numbers of the packages or parcels of the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth of such content as far as any of such particulars can be known to him; and the master of every ship bound from any such possession, whether in ballast or laden, shall, before departure, come before the collector or comptroller, or other proper officer, and answer all such questions concerning the ship and the cargo, if any, and the crew and the voyage, as shall be demanded of him by such officer; and thereupon the collector and comptroller, or other proper officer, if such ship be laden, shall make out and give to the master a certificate of the clearance of such ship for her intended voyage, containing an account of the total quantities of the several sorts of goods laden therein, or a certificate of her clearance in ballast, as the case may be; and if the ship shall depart without such clearance, or if the master shall deliver a false content, or shall not truly answer the questions demanded of him, he shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 22.

Goods not stated to be Produce of British Possession to be deemed of Foreign Production. — No goods shall be stated in such certificate of clearance of any ship from any British possession to be the produce of such possession unless such goods shall have been expressly stated so to be in the entry outwards of the same; and all goods not expressly stated in such certificate of clearance to be the produce of such possession shall, at the place of importation in any other such possession or in the U. Kingdom, be deemed to be of foreign production. — § 23.

Clearing Officers to ascertain and certify that the Cargo of certain Ships is below Deck. — Before any clearing officer permits any vessel wholly or in part laden with timber or wood goods to clear out from any British port in N. America, for the settlement of Honduras, for any port in the U. Kingdom, at any time after the first day of September or before the first day of May in any year, he shall ascertain that the whole of the cargo of such vessel is below deck, and shall give the captain or other person having command of such vessel a certificate to that effect; and no captain or other person having command of any vessel so laden as aforesaid shall sail from any of the ports aforesaid for any port of the U. Kingdom, at any such time as aforesaid, until he has obtained such a certificate as aforesaid from the clearing officer. — § 24.

No Part of the Cargo of such Ship to be placed on Deck. — No captain, owner, supercargo, or other person having command of any vessel in respect of which such certificate as aforesaid has been obtained shall place, or permit or cause to be placed, or to remain or be upon or above the deck of such vessel any part of the cargo thereof until such vessel has arrived at the port of her destination; provided always, that if the captain or other person having command of any such vessel consider that it is necessary, in consequence of the springing a leak, or of other damage received or apprehended during the voyage, to remove any portion of the cargo upon deck, he may remove or cause to be removed upon the deck of such vessel so much of the cargo, and may permit the same to remain there for such time as he considers expedient; provided also, that the store spars or other articles necessary for the vessel's use shall not be taken to be cargo for the purposes of this act. — § 25.

Penalty for Default. — If any captain or other person having the command of any vessel for which such certificate as aforesaid is hereby required, sails or attempts to sail without having obtained such certificate, or places or permits, or causes to be placed or to remain or be upon or above the deck of such vessel any part of the cargo thereof, except in the cases in which the same is not hereby forbidden, he shall for every offence forfeit and pay any sum not exceeding 100*l.* — § 26.

Certain Produce of the State of Maine to be treated as the Produce of New Brunswick. — Whereas a treaty has been concluded between H. M. and the U. States of America, dated the 9th of August 1842, whereby it is stipulated that all the produce of the forest in logs, lumber, timber, timber boards, staves, or shingles, or of agriculture not being manufactured, grown on any of those parts of the state of Maine waters by the river St. John or by its tributaries, of which fact reasonable evidence shall, if required, be produced, shall have free access into and through the said river and its said tributaries having their source within the state of Maine, to and from the seaport at the mouth of the river St. John, and to and round the falls of the said river, either by boats, rafts, or other conveyance; and that when within the province of New Brunswick the said produce shall be dealt with as if it were the produce of the said province; and whereas it is the intention of the high contracting parties to the said treaty that the aforesaid produce should be dealt with as if it were the produce of the province of New Brunswick; be it therefore enacted, that the produce in the said recited treaty and herein-before described shall, so far as regards all laws relating to duties, navigation, and customs in force in the U. Kingdom, or in any of H. M.'s dominions, be deemed and taken to be and be dealt with as the produce of the province of New Brunswick; provided, that in all cases in which declarations and certificates of production or origin and certificates of clearance would be required in respect of such produce, if it were the produce of New Brunswick, similar declarations and certificates shall be required in respect of such produce, and shall state the same to be the produce of those parts of the state of Maine which are watered by the river St. John or by its tributaries. — § 27.

Newfoundland Fishing Certificates in lieu of Clearance during the Fishing Season. — Whenever a ship shall be cleared out from any port in Newfoundland, or in any other part of H. M.'s dominions, for the fisheries on the banks or coasts of Newfoundland, Labrador, or the dependencies thereof, without having on board any article of traffic, (except only such provisions, nets, tackle, and other things as are usually employed in and about the said fishery, and for the conduct and carrying on of the same), the master of such ship shall be entitled to demand from the collector or other principal officer of the customs at such port a certificate under his hand that such ship hath been specially cleared out for the Newfoundland fishery, and such certificate shall be in force for the fishing season for the year in which the same may be granted, and no longer; and upon the first arrival in any port in the said colony of Newfoundland, or its dependencies, of any ship having on board any such certificate as aforesaid, a report thereof shall be made by the master of such ship to the principal officer of customs at such port, and all ships having such certificate which has been so reported, and being actually engaged in the said fishery, or in carrying coastwise, to be landed or put on board any other ships engaged in the said fishery, any fish, oil, salt, provisions, or other necessaries for the use and purposes thereof, shall be exempt from all obligation to make an entry at or obtain any clearance from any custom-house at Newfoundland, upon arrival or departure from any of the ports or harbours of the said colony or its dependencies, during the continuance of the fishing season for which such certificate may have been granted; and previously to obtaining a clearance at the end of such season for any voyage at any of such ports the master of such ship shall deliver up the before-mentioned certificate to the principal officer of the customs of such port; provided that in case any such ship shall have on board during the time the same may be engaged in the said fishery any goods or merchandises whatsoever other than fish, seals, oil made of fish or seals, salt, provisions, or other things, being the produce of or usually employed in the said fishery, such ship shall forfeit the said fishing certificate, and shall thenceforth be subject and liable to the same rules, restrictions, and regulations as ships in general are subject to. — § 28.

Entry of Goods to be laden or unladen. — No goods shall be laden or waterborne to be laden on board any ship, or unladen from any ship, in any British possessions in America or in the Mauritius, or the

islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney or Sark, until due entry have been made of such goods, and warrant granted for the lading or unlading of the same; and no goods shall be so laden or waterborne, or so unladen, except at some place at which an officer of the customs is appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods, or at some place for which a surerance shall be granted by the collector and comptroller or other principal officer for the lading and unlading of such goods; and no goods shall be so laden or unladen except in the presence or with the permission in writing of the proper officer; provided, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to make such other regulations for the carrying coastwise of any goods, or for the removing of any goods for shipment, as to them shall appear expedient; and all goods laden, waterborne, or unladen contrary to the regulations of this act, or contrary to any regulations so made and appointed, shall be forfeited. — § 29.

Commissioners of Customs may declare Trade between neighbouring Colonies a Coasting Trade. — Whenever it shall appear to the commissioners of customs expedient to establish a coasting trade for the removal of goods generally, or for the removal of any particular goods between neighbouring ports of different colonies similarly circumstanced in respect of duties in any British possession abroad, the said commissioners may issue directions for that purpose, and from and after the publication thereof in the Gazette, or other public paper printed in the said colonies to which such coasting trade has been extended, the same shall be in full force and effect; and such coasting trade shall be subject to the like rules, regulations, penalties, and forfeitures as the said commissioners are authorised to make for the carrying coastwise of any goods under the provisions of this act. — § 30.

Particulars of Entry of Goods Inwards and Outwards. — The person entering any goods shall deliver to the collector or comptroller or other proper officer a bill of the entry thereof, fairly written in words at length, containing the name of the exporter or importer, and of the ship and of the master, and of the place to or from which bound, and of the place within the port where the goods are to be laden or unladen, and the particulars of the quality and quantity of the goods, and the packages containing the same, and the marks and numbers on the packages, and setting forth whether such goods be the produce of the British possessions in or out of the said colonies or not, and shall also deliver at the same time one or more duplicates of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures; and the particulars to be contained in such bill of entry shall be written and arranged in such form and manner, and the number of such duplicates shall be such, as the collector or other principal officer shall require, and such person shall at the same time pay down all duties due upon the goods; and the collector and comptroller or other proper officer shall then be authorised to receive and to lading or unlading of such goods. — § 31.

If no Officer of Customs be resident at Port of Shipment, by whom Certificate may be granted. — Where there is no collector or comptroller or officer of customs at the port or place of shipment of such goods, then the principal civil officer in the service of H. M. at such place, or his sufficient representative, shall be deemed and taken to be the proper officer for the performance of all such duties with respect to such goods as are hereby required to be performed by the collector or other officer or officers of customs. — § 32.

Entry Inwards by Bill of Sight. — If the importer of any goods make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller or other proper officer that he cannot, for want of full information, make perfect entry thereof, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller or other proper officer to receive an entry by bill of sight for the packages or parcels of such goods by the best description which can be given, and to grant a warrant thereupon, in order that the same may be landed and secured to the satisfaction of the officer of the customs, and at the expense of the importer, and may be seen and examined by such importer to the presence of the proper officers; and within 3 days after the goods shall have been so landed the importer shall make a perfect entry thereof, and pay down all duties due thereon, and in default of such entry such goods shall be taken to the Queen's warehouse; and if the importer shall not, within 1 month after such landing, make perfect entry of such goods, and pay the duties thereon, together with charges of removal and warehouse rent, such goods shall be sold for the payment thereof, and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods. — § 33.

Goods subject to ad valorem Duty. — In all cases where the duties imposed by this act upon the importation of articles into H. M.'s possessions in America or the Mauritius are charged according to the value thereof, such value shall be ascertained by the declaration of the importer of such articles, or his known agent, in manner and form following; viz. —

‘ I, A. B. do hereby declare, that the articles mentioned in the entry, and contained in the packages
 [here specifying the several packages, and describing the several marks and numbers, as the case may be,] are of the value of _____ Witness my hand the _____ day of _____ A. B.

The above declaration signed this _____ day of _____ in the presence of C. D., collector [or other principal officer.]

Which declaration shall be written on the bill of entry of such articles, and shall be subscribed with the hand of the importer thereof, or his known agent, in the presence of the collector or other principal officer of the customs at the port of importation; provided that if upon view and examination of such articles by the proper officer of the customs it shall appear to him that the said articles are not valued according to the true price or value thereof, and according to the true intent and meaning of this act, then and in such case the importer or his known agent shall be required to declare on oath before the collector or comptroller what is the invoice price of such articles, and that he verily believes such invoice price is the current value of the articles at the place from whence the said articles were imported; and such invoice price, with the addition of 10l. per cent. thereon, shall be deemed to be the value of the articles, in lieu of the value so declared by the importer or his known agent, and upon which the duties imposed by this act shall be charged and paid; provided also, that if it appear to the collector or comptroller or other proper officer that such articles have been invoiced below the real and true value thereof at the place from whence the same were imported, or if the invoice price is not known, the articles shall in such case be examined by two competent persons, to be nominated and appointed by the governor or commander in chief of the colony, plantation, or island into which the said articles are imported; and such persons shall declare on oath before the collector or comptroller or other proper officer what is the true and real value of such articles in such colony, plantation, or island; and the value so declared on the oaths of such persons shall be deemed to be the true and real value of such articles, and upon which the duties imposed by this act shall be charged and paid. — § 34.

If importer refuse to pay such Duty the Goods may be sold. — If the importer of such articles shall refuse to pay the duties hereby imposed thereon, it shall be lawful for the collector or other chief officer of the customs where such articles shall be imported, and he is hereby required, to take and secure the same, with the casks or other packages thereof, and to cause the same to be publicly sold within the space of 30 days at the most after such refusal made, and at such time and place as such officer shall, by 4 or more days public notice, appoint for that purpose, which articles shall be sold to the best bidder; and the money arising from the sale thereof shall be applied in the first place in payment of the said duties together with the charges occasioned by the said sale, and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to such importer or proprietor, or other person authorised to receive the same. — § 35.

If Goods be not entered in 30 Days, the Officer may land and secure them. — Every importer of any goods shall, within 30 days after the arrival of the importing ship, make due entry inwards of such goods, and land the same; and in default of such entry and landing it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such goods to the Queen's warehouse; and if the duties due upon such goods be not paid within 3 months after such 30 days shall have expired, together with all charges of removal and warehouse rent, the same shall be sold, and the produce thereof shall be applied first to the payment of

freight and charges, next of duties, and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods, or other person authorised to receive the same. — § 36.

In Places where there is no Comptroller, &c. — Every act, matter, or thing required by any law at any time in force to be done or performed by the collector and comptroller of customs in any of H. M.'s possessions abroad shall and may be done or performed at such ports or places where there is no comptroller of customs by the collector or other principal officer of customs; and every such act, matter, or thing so done or performed by such collector or other principal officer of customs shall be as valid and effectual in law, as if the same had been done and performed by any collector and comptroller of customs under any law now in force, or hereafter to be made. — § 37.

Goods must appear in Cocker, &c. — No goods shall be imported into any British possession as being imported from the U. Kingdom, or from any other British possession (if any advantage attach to such distinction), unless such goods appear upon the cockets or other proper documents for the same to have been duly cleared outwards at the port of exportation in the U. Kingdom, or in such other British possession, nor unless the ground upon which such advantage be claimed be stated in such cocket or document. —

Goods when to be deemed Growth of U. Kingdom, &c. — No goods shall, upon importation into any British possession in America, or in the Mauritius, be deemed to be of the growth, production, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom, or of any British possession in America or the Mauritius respectively, unless imported from the U. Kingdom, or from some British possession in America or the Mauritius respectively. — § 38.

Entry not valid if Goods be not properly described. — No entry, nor any warrant, for the landing of goods, or for the taking of goods out of any warehouse, shall be deemed valid, unless the particulars of the goods and packages in such entry correspond with the particulars of the goods and packages purporting to be the same in the report of the ship, or in the certificate or other document, where any is required, by which the importation or entry of such goods is authorised, nor unless the goods have been properly described in such entry and with the characters and circumstances according to which such goods are charged with duty or may be imported; and any goods taken or delivered out of any ship or warehouse by virtue of any entry or warrant not corresponding or agreeing in all such respects, or not properly describing the same, shall be deemed to be goods landed or taken without due entry thereof, and shall be forfeited. — § 40.

Certificate of Production for Sugar, Coffee, Cocoa, or Spirits. — Before any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits be shipped for exportation in any British possession in America, or in the island of Mauritius, as being the produce of such possession or of the said island, the proprietor of the estate on which such goods were produced, or his known agent, shall make and sign a declaration in writing before the collector, comptroller, or other officer of customs at the port of exportation, or before one of H. M.'s justices of the peace, residing in or near the place where such estate is situated, declaring that such goods are the produce of such estate; and such declaration shall set forth the name of the estate, and the description and quantity of the goods, and the packages containing the same, with the marks and numbers thereon, and the name of the person to whose charge at the place of shipment they are to be sent; and if any justice of the peace or other officer aforesaid shall subscribe his name to any writing purporting to be such declaration, unless the person purporting to make the same actually appear before him, and declare to the truth of the same, such justice of the peace or officer aforesaid shall forfeit and pay for any such offence the sum of 50*l.*; and the person entering and shipping such goods shall deliver such declaration to the collector or comptroller or other proper officer, and shall make and subscribe a declaration before him that the goods which are to be shipped by virtue of such entry are the same as are mentioned in such first-mentioned declaration; and the master of the ship in which such goods shall be laden, shall, before clearance, make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller or other proper officer that the goods shipped by virtue of such entry are the same as are mentioned and intended in such first-mentioned declaration, to the best of his knowledge and belief; and thereupon the collector and comptroller or other proper officer shall sign and give to the master a certificate of production, stating that proof has been made in manner required by law that such goods (describing the same) are the produce of such British possession, or of the said island, and setting forth in such certificate the name of the exporter and of the exporting ship, and of the master thereof, and the destination of the goods; and if any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits be imported into any British possession in America, as being the produce of some other such possession or of the said island, without such certificate of production, the same shall be forfeited. — § 41.

Certificate of Production on Re-exportation from another Colony. — Before any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits shall be shipped for exportation in any British possession in America as being the produce of some other such possession, the person exporting the same shall in the entry outwards state the place of production, and refer to the entry inwards and landing of such goods, and shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller to the identity of the same; and thereupon, if such goods have been duly imported with a certificate of production within 12 months prior to the shipping for exportation, the collector and comptroller shall sign and give to the master a certificate of production founded upon and referring to the certificate of production under which such goods had been so imported, and containing the like particulars, together with the date of importation. — § 42.

Goods brought over Land, or by Inland Navigation. — It shall be lawful to bring or import by land or by inland navigation into any British possession in America from any adjoining foreign country any goods which might be lawfully imported by sea into such possession from such country, and so to bring or import such goods in the vessels, boats, or carriages of such country, as well as in British vessels, boats, or carriages. — § 43.

What Vessels shall be deemed British on the Lakes in America. — No vessel or boat shall be admitted to be a British vessel or boat on any of the inland waters or lakes in America, except such as have been built at some place within the British dominions, and are wholly owned by British subjects, and have not been repaired at any foreign place to a greater extent than in the proportion of 10*l.* for every ton of such vessel or boat at any one time; provided, that nothing herein-before contained shall extend to prevent the employment of any vessel or boat as a British vessel or boat on such inland waters or lakes which shall have wholly belonged to British subjects before the 1st of July, 1825, and which shall not have been since that day repaired as aforesaid in any foreign place. — § 44.

Goods must be brought to a Place where there is a Custom House. — It shall not be lawful to bring or import any goods except into some port or place of entry at which a custom house is or hereafter may be lawfully established; provided, that it shall be lawful for the governor, Lieutenant-governor, or person administering the government of any of the said possessions respectively, by and with the advice and consent of the executive council thereof, if any executive council be there established, from time to time to diminish or increase, by proclamation, the number of ports or places of entry which are or may be appointed in such province for the entry of goods brought or imported as aforesaid. — § 45.

Duties to be collected in the same Manner as on Goods Imported by Sea. — The duties imposed by this act shall be ascertained, levied, and recovered for and upon all goods so brought or imported in the same manner, and by the same means, and under the same rules, regulations, restrictions, penalties, and forfeitures, as the duties on the like goods imported by sea may and can be ascertained, levied, or recovered, as far as the same are applicable; and if any goods be brought or imported contrary hereto, or if any goods, so brought or imported, be removed from the station or place appointed for the examination of such goods by the officers of the customs before such examination have been made, and before all duties payable thereon have been paid or satisfied, such goods shall be forfeited, together with the vessel,

boat, or carriage, and the horses or other cattle in or by which such goods have been so imported or brought or so removed. — § 46.

Duties in Canada on American Boats to be the same as in America on British Boats. — The same tonnage duties shall be paid upon all vessels or boats of the U. States of America importing any goods into either of the provinces of Upper or Lower Canada as are or may be payable in the U. States of America on British vessels or boats entering the harbours of the state from whence such goods have been imported. — § 47.

Ports herein mentioned to be free Warehousing Ports. — The several ports herein-after mentioned; (that is to say),

Kingstons	•	Jamaica,	•	Halifax	•	
Montego Bay	•	Barbadoes,	•	Liverpool	•	New Scotia,
Falmouth	•	Antigua,	•	Digby	•	
St. John's	•	Montserrat,	•	St. John's (Cape Breton)	•	
Plymouth	•	St. Kitts,	•	St. Andrew's	•	
St. John's	•	Navis,	•	Wichwood	•	New Brunswick,
Charlottetown	•	Toronto,	•	Quebec	•	Campe Belle,
Road Harbour	•	St. Lucia,	•	St. John's	•	Canada,
Co-trier	•	Dominica,	•	Harbour (Prince)	•	Newfoundland,
Neouan	•	St. Vincent,	•	Charlotte Town	•	Prince Edward's Island,
Kingstons	•	Trinidad,	•	Charlottetown	•	shall be free warehousing ports for all the purposes of this Act ;
St. George's	•	St. Thomas,	•			
Port of Spain	•	Demerara	•	British Guiana.		
Southborough	•	Beritica	•	Kingston	•	
George Town	•	New Providence	•	Toronto	•	
Nav Amsterdam	•	Turk's Island	•	Hamilton	•	In Canada,
Assuan	•	Bermudas,	•	and		
Grand Key	•			Montreal	•	
Hamilton	•					
St. George's	•					

shall be warehousing ports for the warehousing of goods brought by land or inland navigation, or imported in British ships; and it shall be lawful for the several collectors and comptrollers of the said ports respectively, by notice in writing under their hands, to appoint from time to time such warehouses at such ports respectively as shall be approved of by them for the free warehousing and securing of goods therein for the purposes of this act, and also in such notice to declare what sorts of goods may be so warehoused, and also by like notice to revoke or alter any such appointment or declaration; provided always, that every such notice shall be transmitted to the governor of the place, and shall be published in such manner as he shall direct. — § 48.

Goods may be warehoused without Payment of Duty. — It shall be lawful for the importer of any such goods into the said ports to warehouse the same in the warehouses so appointed without payment of any duty on the first entry thereof, subject to the rules, regulations, &c. herein-after contained. — § 49.

Regulation as to warehousing of Goods in Canada. — Upon the arrival of any goods at any frontier port in the Canada, such goods may be entered with the proper officer of the customs at such port, to be warehoused at some warehousing port in the Canada, and may be delivered by such officer to be passed on to such warehousing port, under bond, to the satisfaction of such officer, for the due arrival and warehousing of such goods at such port. — § 50.

Storage of Goods in Warehouse. — All goods so warehoused shall be stored in such parts or divisions of the warehouse, and in such manner as the collector and comptroller shall direct, and the warehouse shall be locked and secured in such manner, and opened and visited only at such times, and in the presence of such officers, and under such rules and regulations, as the collector and comptroller shall direct; and such goods shall, after being landed upon importation, be carried to the warehouse, or shall, after being taken out of the warehouse for exportation, or for stores, be carried to be shipped under such rules and regulations as the collector and comptroller shall direct. — § 51.

Bonds upon Entry of Goods to be warehoused. — Upon the entry of any goods to be warehoused, the importer of such goods, instead of paying down the duties due thereon, shall give bond with two sufficient sureties, to be approved of by the collector or comptroller, in treble the duties payable on such goods, with condition that he shall be answerable for the duties on the goods in the warehouse mentioned in such entry, and for the payment of all duties due upon such goods, or for the exportation thereof or shipment thereof as stores, according to the first account taken of such goods upon the landing of the same; and with further condition, that no part thereof shall be taken out of such warehouse until cleared from thence upon due entry and payment of duty, or upon due entry for exportation or for shipment as stores; and with further condition, that the whole of such goods shall be so cleared from such warehouse, and the duties, upon any deficiency of the quantity according to such first account, shall be paid within two years from the date of the first entry thereof; and if after such bond shall have been given the goods or any part thereof shall be sold or disposed of, so that the original bondholder shall be no longer interested in or have any control over the same, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to admit fresh security to be given by the bond of the new proprietor or other person having control over such goods, with his sufficient sureties, and to cancel the bond given by the original bondholder of such goods, or to exonerate him to the extent of the fresh security so given. — § 52.

Goods not duly warehoused, to be forfeited. — If any goods which have been entered to be warehoused shall not be duly carried into and deposited in the warehouse, or shall afterwards be taken out of the warehouse without due entry and clearance; or having been entered and cleared for exportation, or for shipment as stores, from the warehouse, shall not be duly carried and shipped, or shall afterwards be re-landed, except with the permission of the proper officer of the customs, such goods shall be forfeited. — § 53.

Account of Goods to be taken on landing. — Upon the entry and landing of any goods to be warehoused the proper officer of the customs shall take a particular account of the same, and mark the contents on such package, and enter the same in a book to be kept for that purpose; and no goods which have been so warehoused shall be taken out of the warehouse, except upon due entry and under the care of the proper officers for exportation, or for stores, or upon due entry and payment of duty for home use; and whenever the whole of the goods warehoused under any entry shall be cleared from the warehouse, or whenever further time shall be granted for any such goods to remain warehoused, an account shall be made out of the quantity upon which the duties have been paid, and of the quantity exported, and of the quantity (to be then ascertained) of the goods still remaining in the warehouse, as the case may be, deducting from the whole the quantity contained in any whole packages (if any) which may have been abandoned for duties; and if upon such account there shall in either case appear to be any deficiency of the original quantity, the duty payable upon the amount of such deficiency shall then be paid. — § 54.

Samples may be taken. — It shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller, under such regulations as they shall see fit, to permit moderate samples to be taken of any goods so warehoused, without entry, and without payment of duty, except as the same shall eventually become payable, as on a deficiency of the original quantity. — § 55.

Goods may be sorted and repacked. — The collector and comptroller may, under such regulations as they shall see fit, permit the proprietor or other person having control over the goods so warehoused to sort, separate, and pack and repack any such goods, and to make such lawful alterations therein, or arrangements and assortments thereof, as may be necessary for the preservation of such goods, or in order to the sale, shipment, or legal disposal of the same, and also to permit any parts of such goods so separated to

be destroyed, but without prejudice to the claim for duty upon the whole original quantity of such goods; provided always, that it shall be lawful for any person to abandon any whole packages to the officers of the customs for the duties, without being liable to any duty upon the same. — § 46.

Goods warehoused may be delivered for Removal without Payment of Duty. — Goods warehoused at any warehousing port in any of the British possessions in America, being first duly entered, may be delivered, under the authority of the proper officer of customs, without payment of duty, except any deficiency thereof, for the purpose of removal to another warehousing port in the same possession, under bond, to the satisfaction of such officer, for the due arrival and re-warehousing such goods at such other port. — § 47.

All Goods to be cleared within 3 Years, or sold. — All goods which have been so warehoused or re-warehoused shall be duly cleared, either for exportation or for home consumption, within 3 years from the day of first entry for the warehousing thereof; and if any such goods be not a cleared, the collector and comptroller may cause the same to be sold, and the produce shall be applied first to the payment of the duties, next of warehouse rent and other charges, and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the proprietor; provided always, that it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to grant further time for any such goods to remain warehoused, if they see fit so to do; provided also, that foreign salted beef or pork so warehoused or re-warehoused may be delivered into the charge of a searcher or other proper officer of customs to be shipped as stores; and such beef and pork may be so shipped without entry or payment of any duty for every ship of the burden of 60 tons at least bound upon a voyage to foreign parts, the probable duration of which, out and home, will not be less than 40 days, and such foreign beef or pork so shipped shall be deemed to be exported; provided also, that such foreign beef and pork be duly borne upon the ship's clearance, and be shipped in such quantities, and subject to such directions and regulations, as the collector or other chief officer of customs at the port of shipment shall appoint; provided also, that the surplus stores of such foreign beef or pork may be delivered into the charge of the searcher or other proper officer of customs to be re-shipped as stores, under such directions and regulations as the collector or other chief officer of customs shall appoint; and any such beef or pork shipped as stores contrary to such directions and regulations shall be forfeited. — § 58.

Bond on Entry for Exportation. — Upon the entry outwards of any goods to be exported from the warehouse, the person entering the same shall give security by bond in treble the duties on importation on the quantity of such goods, or if such goods are to be imported for home use, in the value of such goods, with two sufficient sureties, to be approved by the collector or comptroller, that the same shall be landed at the place for which they are entered outwards, or be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller. — § 59.

Power to appoint other Ports. — His Majesty may, by order in council, from time to time appoint any port in His Majesty's possessions in America to be a free warehousing port for any of the purposes of this act; and every such port so appointed shall be, for all the purposes expressed in such order, a free warehousing port under this act, as if appointed by the same. — § 60.

Goods from Mauritius liable to same Duties, &c. as West India Goods. — All goods, wares, and merchandise the growth, produce, or manufacture of the island of Mauritius, and all goods, wares, and merchandise which having been imported into the said island, shall be imported from thence into any part of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, or into any possessions of His Majesty, his heirs or successors, shall be liable, upon such importation into the U. K., or into any such possessions respectively, to the payment of the same duties, and shall be subject to the same regulations, as the like goods, wares, and merchandise, being of the growth, produce or manufacture of His Majesty's islands in the West Indies, or having been imported into or exported from any of the said islands, and imported from the same into the said U. K., or into any such possessions respectively, would on such importation be liable to the payment of or would be subject unto; and upon the exportation of any goods, wares, or merchandise from the U. K. to the Mauritius such goods, wares, or merchandise shall be liable to the same duties, and shall be entitled to the like drawbacks respectively, as would or ought by law to be charged or allowed upon the like goods from the U. K. to any of His Majesty's islands in the West Indies; and that all goods, wares, and merchandise which shall be imported into or exported from the Mauritius from or to any place whatever other than the U. K. shall, upon such importation or exportation respectively, be liable to the payment of the same duties, and shall be subject to the same regulations so far as any such regulations can or may be applied, as the like goods, wares, and merchandise would be liable to the payment of or would be subject to upon importation into or exportation from any of His Majesty's islands in the West Indies; and all ships and vessels whatever which shall arrive at or depart from the Mauritius shall be liable to the same duties, and subject to the same regulations, as such ships or vessels would be liable or subject to if arriving at or departing from any of His Majesty's islands in the West Indies. — § 61.

Cape of Good Hope within Limits of E. I. Company's Charter. — In all trade with the British possessions in America and the Mauritius, the Cape of Good Hope, and the territories and dependencies thereof, shall be deemed to be within the limits of the East India Company's Charter. — § 62.

Colonial Laws repugnant to Act of Parliament null and void. — All laws, by laws, usages, or customs at this time or which hereafter shall be in practice, or endeavoured or pretended to be in force or practice, in any of the British possessions in America, which are in anywise repugnant to this act, or to any act of parliament made or hereafter to be made in the U. Kingdom, in far as such act shall relate to and mention the said possessions, are and shall be null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever. — § 63.

Exemption to extend only to Duties by Act of Parliament. — Exemption from duty in any of the British possessions abroad contained in any act of parliament, shall extend to any duty not imposed by act of parliament, unless and so far only as any duty not so imposed is or shall be expressly mentioned in such exemption. — § 64.

Officers may board Ships in Port or hovering on Coasts. — It shall be lawful for the officers of customs to go on board any ship in any port in any British possession in America, and to rummage and search all parts of such ship for prohibited and uncustomed goods, and also to go on board any ship hovering within one league of any of the coasts thereof, and in either case freely to stay on board such ship so long as the shall reach such distance; and if any such ship be bound elsewhere, shall continue so hovering for the space of 24 hours after the master shall have been required to depart, the officer of customs may bring such ship into port, and search and examine her cargo, and examine the master on oath touching the cargo and voyage; and if there be any goods on board prohibited to be imported into such possession, such ship and her cargo shall be forfeited; and if the master shall not truly answer the questions asked of him on such examination he shall forfeit the sum of 100. — § 65.

Forfeiture of Vessels, Carriages, &c. receiving Goods liable to Forfeiture. — All vessels, boats, carriages, and cattle made use of in the removal of any goods liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall be forfeited; and every person who shall assist or be otherwise concerned in the unshipping, landing, or removal, or in the harbouring, of such goods, or into whose hands or possession the same shall knowingly come, shall forfeit the treble value thereof, or the penalty of 100. at the election of the officers of the customs; and the averment in any information or libel to be exhibited for the recovery of such penalty, that the officer proceeding has elected to sue for the sum mentioned in the information, shall be deemed sufficient proof of such election, without any other or further evidence of such fact. — § 66.

Goods, Vessels, &c., liable to Forfeiture may be seized by Officers.—All goods, and all ships, vessels, and boats, and all carriages, and all cattle, liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall and may be seized and secured by any officer of the customs or navy, or by any person employed for that purpose, by or with the concurrence of the commissioners of H. M.'s customs, or of any one of them, in any way hinder, oppose, molest, or obstruct any officer of the customs or navy, or any person so employed as aforesaid, in the exercise of his office, or any person acting in his aid or assistance, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 67.

Officer making collusive Seizures, or taking Bribes, and Persons giving Bribes, subjected to Penalties.—If any officer of customs, or any person duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, shall make any collusive seizure, or deliver up, or make any agreement to deliver up, or not to seize, any vessel, boat, or goods liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, or shall take any bribe, gratuity, recompence, or reward for the neglect or nonperformance of his duty, every such officer or other person shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 500*l.*, and be rendered incapable of serving H. M. in any office whatever; and every person who shall give or offer, or promise to give or procure to be given, any bribe, recompence, or reward to, or shall make any collusive agreement with, any such officer or person as aforesaid in any of H. M.'s possessions abroad, to induce him in any way to neglect his duty, or to do, conceal, or connive at anything whereby the provisions of any such act may be evaded, shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 68.

Seized Goods, if undamned for a Month, to be condemned and dealt with accordingly.—All vessels, boats, goods, and other things which have been or shall hereafter be seized as forfeited in or near any of the British possessions abroad, under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall be deemed and taken to be condemned, and may be dealt with in the manner directed by law in respect to vessels, boats, goods, and other things seized and condemned for breach of any such act, unless the person from whom such vessels, boats, goods, and other things shall have been seized, or the owner of them, or some person acting in his aid or assistance, shall, within a calendar month from the day of seizing the same, give notice in writing to the person or persons seizing the same, or to the collector, comptroller, or other chief officer of customs at the nearest port, that he claims the vessel, boat, goods, or other thing, or intends to claim them.—§ 69.

Writ of Assistance to search for and seize Goods liable to Forfeiture.—Under the authority of a writ of assistance granted by the Justice of the Peace, or of vice-admiralty, or by the High Court of Admiralty, in the place (who are hereby authorized and required to grant such writ of assistance, upon application made to them for that purpose by the principal officers of H. M. customs), it shall be lawful for any officer of the customs, taking with him a peace officer, to enter any building or other place in the daytime, and to search for and seize and secure any goods liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, and, in case of necessity, to break open any doors and any chests or other packages for that purpose; and such writ of assistance, when issued, shall be deemed to be in force during the whole of the reign in which the same shall have been granted, and for twelve months from the conclusion of such reign.—§ 70.

Obstructing Officers by Force.—If any person shall, by force or violence, assault, resist, oppose, molest, hinder, or obstruct any officer of the customs or navy, or other person employed as aforesaid, in the exercise of his office, or any person acting in his aid or assistance, such person, being thereof convicted, shall be adjudged a felon, and shall be proceeded against as such, and punished at the discretion of the court before whom such person shall be tried.—§ 71.

Goods seized to be secured at the next Custom House, and sold by Auction.—All things which shall be seized as being liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall be taken forthwith and delivered into the custody of the collector and comptroller of the customs at the custom house next to the place where the same were seized, who shall secure the same by such means and in such manner as shall be provided and directed by the commissioners of H. M. customs, and after condemnation thereof the collector and comptroller shall cause the same to be sold by public auction to the best bidder: provided always, that the said commissioners may direct in what manner the produce of such sale shall be applied, or, in lieu of such sale, to direct that any of such things shall be destroyed, or shall be reserved for the public service.—§ 72.

The clauses from § 73. to § 89. both inclusive, relate to the mode of proceeding in actions in regard to seizures for the recovery and application of penalties, &c. It seems unnecessary to specify these clauses in this place. Every one who has the misfortune to be engaged in a law-suit with the Crown will of course refer to an official copy of the act, and will also find it for his advantage to employ a lawyer.

The Queen may regulate the Trade of certain Colonies.—H. M. may, by and with the advice of H. P. council, by any order or orders in council issued from time to time, give such directions and make such regulations touching the trade and commerce to and from any British possessions on or near the continent of Europe, or within the Mediterranean Sea, or in Africa, or within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter (excepting the possessions of the said company), as to H. M. in council shall appear most expedient and salutary, any thing in this act to the contrary notwithstanding; and if any goods be imported or exported in any manner contrary to any such order of H. M. in council, the same shall be forfeited, together with the ship importing or exporting the same.—§ 90.

Certificate of Production of East India Sugar.—It shall be lawful for any person, being the shipper of any sugar the produce of some British possession within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, about to be exported from any place in such possession, to go before the collector or comptroller or other chief officer of the customs at such place, or, if there be no such officer of the customs, to go before the principal officer of such place, or the Judge or commercial resident of the district, and make and sign a declaration before him that such sugar was really and *bona fide* the produce of such British possession to the best of his knowledge and belief; and such officer, Judge, or resident is hereby authorized and required to grant a certificate thereof, setting forth in such certificate the name of the ship in which the sugar is to be exported, and the destination of the same.—§ 91.

Ships built prior to 1st January 1816 deemed British Ships within certain Limits.—All ships built at any place within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter prior to the 1st January 1816, and which then were and have continued ever since to be solely the property of H. M. subjects, shall be deemed to be British ships for all the purposes of trade within the said limits, including the Cape of Good Hope, any thing in this act or in any other act or acts passed in this present session of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 92.

Certificate of Production of Cape Wine.—The shipper of any wine the produce of the Cape of Good Hope or of its dependencies which is to be exported from thence may go before the chief officer of the customs, and make and sign a declaration before him that such wine was really and *bona fide* the produce of the Cape of Good Hope or of its dependencies; and such officer is hereby authorized and required to grant a certificate thereof, setting forth in such certificate the name of the ship in which the wine is to be exported, and the destination of the same.—§ 93.

Certificate of Production of Goods in Guernsey, &c.—Any person who is about to export from any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark to the U. K., or to any of the British possessions in America or the West Indies, any goods of the growth or produce of any of those islands, or any goods manufactured from materials which were the growth or produce thereof, or of the U. K., or of materials duty-free in the U. K., or whereupon the duty has been there paid, and not drawn back, may go before any magistrate of the island from which the goods are to be exported, and make and sign before him a declaration that such goods, describing the same, are of such growth or produce, or of such

manufacture, and such magistrate shall administer and sign such declaration; and thereupon the governor, lieutenant governor, or commander in chief of the island from which the goods are to be exported shall, upon the delivery to him of such declaration, grant a certificate under his hand of the proof contained in such declaration, stating the ship in which, and the port to which, in the U. K. or in any such possession, the goods are to be exported; and such certificate shall be the receipt for the goods to be produced at such ports respectively in proof that the goods mentioned therein are of the growth, produce or manufacture of such islands respectively. — § 94.

Spirits not to be imported into or exported from Jersey, &c., except in Vessels of 60 Tons, and in Casks of 50 Gallons or less.—No brandy, Geneva, or other spirits (except rum of the British plantations) shall be imported into or exported from the Islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, or Sark, or any one of them, or be removed from any one of the said islands, or be carried coastwise from any one of them to any other part of any one of the said islands, or shall be shipped in order to be so removed or carried, or shall be waterborne for the purpose of being so shipped in any vessel of less burden than 10 tons, nor in any cask or other vessel capable of containing liquids not being of the size or content of 50 gallons at the least; and that all brandy, Geneva, or other spirits imported, exported, removed, carried, shipped, or waterborne contrary hereto shall be forfeited, together with the vessel or boat importing, exporting, removing, or carrying the same, and all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel thereof; provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to any spirits imported in glass bottles in square-rigged ships as part of the cargo thereof, nor to any spirits being really intended for the consumption of the seamen and passengers during their voyage, and not being more in quantity than is necessary for that purpose. — § 95.

Not to extend to Vessels of 10 Tons supplying Island of Sark, having Licence so to do.—Nothing herein contained shall subject to forfeiture or seizure, under any of the provisions of this act, any boat not exceeding the burden of 10 tons for having on board at any one time any foreign spirits of the quantity of 10 gallons or under, such boat having a licence from the proper officer of customs at either of the Islands of Guernsey or Jersey for the purpose of being employed in carrying commodities for the supply of the said island of Sark, which licence such officer of customs is hereby required to grant, without taking any fee or reward for the same; provided also, that every such boat having on board at any one time any greater quantity of spirits than 10 gallons, unless such greater quantity of spirits shall be in casks or packages of the size and content herein-before required, shall be forfeited.

Penalty on Persons found on board Vessels liable to Forfeiture within 1 League of Guernsey, &c.—Every person who shall be found or discovered to have been on board any vessel or boat liable to forfeiture under any act relating to the revenue of customs, for being found within 1 league of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, having on board or in any manner attached or affixed thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, such goods or other things as subject to such forfeiture, or who shall be found or discovered to have been on board any vessel or boat from which any part of the cargo shall have been thrown overboard during chase, or staved or destroyed, shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 97.

Re-exportation of British Coals in Foreign Ships.—It shall not be lawful for any person to re-export from any of H. M.'s possessions abroad to any foreign place in any foreign ship any coals the produce of the U. K., except upon payment of the duty to which such coals would be liable upon exportation from the U. K. to such foreign place; and no such coals shall be so shipped at any such possessions to be exported to any British place until the exporter or the master of the exporting vessel have given bond, with one sufficient surety, in double the value of the coals, that such coals shall not be landed at any foreign place. — § 98.

Penalty for using Documents counterfeited or falsified.—If any person shall, in any of H. M.'s possessions abroad, counterfeit or falsify, or wilfully use when counterfeited or falsified, any entry, warrant, cockpit, transire, or other document for the unloading, lading, entering, reporting, or clearing any ship or vessel, or for the landing, shipping, or removing of any goods, stores, baggage, or article whatever, or shall by any false statement procure any writing or document to be made for any such purposes, or shall falsely make any oath or affirmation required by this act, or shall forge or counterfeit a certificate of the said oath or affirmation, or shall publish such certificate knowing the same to be so forged or counterfeited, every person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 300*l.*; and such penalty shall and may be prosecuted, sued for, and recovered in like manner and by such ways and means as any penalty may be prosecuted, sued for, and recovered under the provisions and directions of this act. — § 99.

§ 3 W. 4. c. 78. not repealed by any Act passed in Third Year of King William the Fourth.—Nothing contained in any act passed in the 3rd and 4th years of the reign of H. M. William 4. or in the present session of parliament, did or doth repeal, abrogate, annul, or alter the act 3 & 3 Will. 4. c. 78. or any part thereof, or any of the provisions therein contained; but from and out of the net proceeds of all duties levied from year to year within the said colony of Newfoundland by any act of the said last-mentioned session of parliament, or any act thereafter passed or to be passed, such deduction shall be annually made as in the said recited act is mentioned; and the sum of money so from year to year to be deducted shall be applied from time to time in such manner, and for such purposes, and under such authority as in the said recited act is particularly mentioned and set forth. — § 100.

Privileges to Military and Naval Officers settling in the Colonies.—1. The colonies in which military and naval officers are allowed privileges in the acquisition of public lands are the following:—1st. The Australian Settlements, consisting of New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, South Australia, Western Australia, and New Zealand; 2d. Ceylon; 3d. Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, the only province in North America where privileges are still allowed.

2. In the different Australian settlements, and in Ceylon, land is disposed of by sale only; but officers purchasing land are allowed a remission of the purchase money, according to the undermentioned scale:—

Field officers, of 25 years' service and upwards, in the whole	500
Field officers, of 20 years' service and upwards, in the whole	350
Field officers, of 15 or less years' service, in the whole	200
Captains, of 30 years' service and upwards, in the whole	500
Captains, of 15 years' service or less, in the whole	150
Subalterns, of 30 years' service and upwards, in the whole	150
Subalterns, of 7 years' service and upwards, in the whole	100

Subalterns, under 7 years' standing, are not entitled to any remission in the purchase of land.
Regimental staff officers, and medical officers of the army and navy, are allowed the benefit of this rule.

In Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, allotments of land are granted to officers on the following scale and conditions, viz:—

To a Lieutenant-colonel	1800	acres.
To a Major	1000	—
To a Captain	500	—
To a Subaltern	500	—

3. Officers of the army or navy, proposing to proceed to the colonies, in order to take advantage of this indulgence, should provide themselves with certificates from the office of the Commander-in-Chief, or of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, or of the Master General of the Ordnance, showing that their emigration has been sanctioned, and stating exactly their rank and length of service. No document from the office of the Secretary of State is necessary.

4. Officers on half-pay, residing in the colony where they propose to settle, are admitted to the privileges of military and naval officers, without referring to this concession, provided they can satisfy the governor that there is no objection to their being allowed the indulgence, and that the statement of their rank and length of service is accurate; and provided, if they belong to the navy, that they produce their letter of leave of absence from the Admiralty.

5. Military chaplains, commissariat officers, and officers of any of the civil departments of the army; purser, chaplains, midshipmen, warrant officers of every description, and officers of any of the civil departments of the navy, are also allowed privileges in respect of land. Although members of these classes may have been admitted formerly, in unusual circumstances, they are now excluded. Aides of the royal navy rank with ensigns in the army, and mates of three years standing, with lieutenants in the army, and are entitled respectively to corresponding privileges in the acquisition of lands.

6. Gentlemen who have ceased to belong to H. M.'s service are not allowed the advantages to which they were entitled while in the army or navy. This rule, however, is not to affect officers who desire to go to the service, or who are in possession of settling in the colonies; it is only required, that when they resign their commissions, they should apply for a certificate from the Commander-in-Chief, or from the Secretary of the Admiralty, or from the Master General of the Ordnance, that they

do so with a view of emigrating; and such certificate, if produced to the governor of any of the colonies before mentioned within 1 year from its date, but not otherwise, will be a sufficient warrant for allowing the bearer the same advantages as officers who are still in H. M.'s service.

7. An actual residence of 2 years in the colony must be proved before the titles can be granted, except in cases in which death may have occurred before the expiration of that period.

Connection of the Planter and Home Merchant. Mode of transacting Business in England.—The mode of transacting West India business is as follows:—A sugar planter forms a connection with a mercantile house in London, Bristol, Liverpool, or Glasgow; stipulates for an advance of money on their part; grants them a mortgage on his estate; and binds himself to send them annually his crop, allowing them the full rate of mercantile commissions. These commissions are $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the amount of sugar sold, and of plantation stores sent out; along with $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on all insurances effected. During the war, when prices were high, the amount of those commissions was large; but, like other high charges, the result has, in nine cases in ten, been to the injury of those who received them; they led the merchants to undertake too much, and to make too large advances to the planters, for the sake of obtaining their business. At that time it was usual to allow a permanent loan at the rate of 3,000*l.* for the assured consignment of 100 hogsheads of sugar; but that ratio was very often exceeded by the planter, the 3,000*l.* becoming 4,000*l.*, 5,000*l.*, 6,000*l.*, and, in very many cases, still more, in consequence of unforeseen wants and too sanguine calculations on his part.

Persons resident in the West Indies are almost always bare of capital, and for obvious reasons. A climate of such extreme heat, and a state of society possessing so few attractions to persons of education, offer no inducement to men of substance in Europe to go thither. Those who do go, must trust to their personal exertion and the support of others; and when, after a continued residence in the West Indies, they have made some progress in acquiring a competency, and have become accustomed to the climate, they hardly ever consider themselves as settled there for life; their wish and hope is, to carry their acquisitions so far as to be enabled to pass the remainder of their days comfortably at home. The readiest means, in the view of the planter, of accomplishing this, is the extension of his undertakings; which he can do only by borrowing money. Hence a continued demand on his mercantile correspondents at home for fresh advances; the consuming effect of heavy commissions, and of the interest on borrowed money, is, or rather was, overlooked in his ardent speculations. But when prices unfortunately fall, he finds himself 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* in debt, with a reduced income. The merchants at home become equally embarrassed, because the case of one is the case of three fourths of their correspondents; and the capital of the merchants, large as it may be, is absorbed and placed beyond their control. The mortgages they hold are of value only in an ultimate sense: to foreclose them, and to take possession of the estates, is, in general, a very hazardous course.

Such has been for a number of years the state of our West India trade. Perhaps it is impossible to point out any means of effectual relief: our planters must not build expectations on such doubtful, or rather improbable, events as the stoppage of distillation from malt, or an insurrection or emancipation of the negroes in rival countries, such as Cuba or Brasil. Of a bounty on exportation it is idle to speak: so that their only rational and substantial ground of hope seems to be in a further reduction of the duties on sugar, coffee, and rum; and a farther reduction of the duties on imports, with the abolition of the remaining restrictions on their trade.

The sale of West India articles takes place through the medium of produce brokers, who in London reside chiefly in Mincing Lane and Tower Street. Samples of sugar and rum are on show in their respective sale rooms during four days of the week, viz. Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, from 11 to 1 o'clock; during which time the sugar refiners, wholesale grocers, and other dealers in produce, call in, observe the state of the market, and buy what they require. The term of credit is short; only 1 month for coffee and rum, and 2 months for sugar. Coffee is generally sold by public auction, sugar and rum by private contract. The broker's commission is usually $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the amount; but in the case of coffee, as they guarantee the buyers, their charge amounts to 1 per cent. The brokers have no correspondence or connection with the planters; they are employed by the merchants; and their sales, though for large amounts, being very simple, a brokerage house of consequence generally does the business of a number of merchants. Neither merchant nor broker see, or are in the least under the necessity of seeing, the bulky packages containing the different articles of produce of which they effect the sales: all is done by sample; the packages remaining in the bonded warehouse from the time of landing till they are sold; after which they pass to the premises of the refiner, wholesale grocer, or whoever may be the purchaser.

The allowances made to the buyer in respect of weight, consist, first of the tare, which

is the exact weight of the cask; and, in the second place, of a fixed allowance of 5 lbs. per cask in the case of coffee, called *trott*, and of 2 lbs. per cask on sugar, under the name of *draft*. — (See *Account Sales* of both, in p. 146.)

The shipping of stores from England to the plantations is also a very simple transaction. West India merchants in London, Liverpool, or Bristol, receive from the planters, in the autumn of each year, a list of the articles required for the respective estates; these lists they divide, arrange, and distribute among different wholesale dealers in the course of September and October, with instructions to get them ready to ship in a few weeks. November and December are the chief months for the despatch of outward-bound West Indiamen, as the plantation stores ought, by rights, to arrive about the end of December, or in the course of January. That is a season of activity, and generally of health, in the West Indies; the comparatively cool months of November and December having cleared the air, and the produce of the fields having become ripe and ready to carry. Crop time lasts from January to the end of July, after which the heavy rains put a stop to field work in the islands. Demerara, being so near the line, experiences less difference in the seasons, and it is customary there to continue making sugar all the year round.

The arrivals of West Indiamen in England with homeward cargoes begin in April and continue till October; after which, with the exception of occasional vessels from Demerara and Berbice, they cease till the succeeding April. This corresponds with the time of carrying and loading the crops; for it would be quite unadvisable, on the score of health, as well as of the interruptions to work from the heavy rains, to attempt loading vessels in the sugar islands during the autumnal months.

The unloading of West Indiamen in London usually takes place at the West India docks; and did so uniformly from the autumn of 1802, when the docks were first opened, till August, 1823, when the dock monopoly expired. The delays in discharging occasionally complained of during the war, arose from two causes; from the vessels arriving in fleets (in consequence of sailing with convoy), and from the imperfections inseparable from a new establishment. The latter have been long remedied; and as to the former, though at particular seasons, and after a change of wind, the vessels still come close on each other, the crowding in the docks is by no means to be compared to that arising from the arrival of a convoy. Cargoes are discharged very speedily, the time seldom exceeding 3 days. The dock dues have also been materially reduced since the peace; and the whole exhibits a striking example of the advantage attendant on transacting a mass of business on one spot; an advantage which can be enjoyed only in great sea-ports, such as London, Liverpool, or Amsterdam. — (See *Docks*.)

The rates of freight during the war were, on sugar from 7s. to 8s. per cwt., and on coffee from 10s. to 11s.; whereas they now amount, the former to 4s. and 4s. 6d., and the latter to 6s. The ship owners complain that these freights leave them very little profit; but in consequence of the speed with which vessels may now be unloaded and cleared at London, it is probable that the practice of making two voyages in the season will become general.

Selection of Sites for Colonial Establishments. — Nothing can be more unwise than the plan, if so we may call it, hitherto followed in the selection of places at which to found colonies. The captain of a ship, without any knowledge whatever of the nature of soils or the capacities of a country in an agricultural point of view, falls in after a long cruise with a river or bay, abounding with fish and fresh water, and surrounded with land that looks fertile and is covered with herbage. He forthwith reports all these circumstances, duly embellished, to the Admiralty, strongly recommending the situation as an admirable one at which to found a colony; and, in nine cases out of ten, this is all the information that is required in taking a step of such infinite importance! No wonder, therefore, that many fine schemes of colonisation should have ended only in loss and disappointment; and that situations which the colonists were taught to look upon as a species of paradise, have proved to be any thing but what they were represented. Botany Bay, though described by Captain Cook as one of the finest places in the world, had to be abandoned by the colonists that were sent out to it; as the country round it, instead of being favourable for cultivation, is a mere sandy swamp. Is it possible to suppose, had the proper inquiries been entered into, that any attempt would have been made to establish a colony in so pestilential a climate as that of Sierra Leone? The colony on Swan River may be adduced as another instance of misplaced or premature confidence in the reports of those who were really without the means of forming a correct estimate of the various circumstances necessary to be attended to in forming a colony.

We, therefore, hope that an end may be put to this system, — a system which is in no common degree injurious to the public interests, and is highly criminal towards those who embark as colonists. The founding of a colony should be looked upon in its true point of view — as a great national enterprise. It is not an adventure to be intrusted to presumptuous ignorance; but should be maturely weighed, and every circumstance

connected with it carefully investigated. Above all, the situation in which it is proposed to found the colony should be minutely surveyed; and its climate, soil, and capacities of production deliberately inquired into by competent persons employed for the purpose. Were this done, government and the public would have the best attainable grounds upon which to proceed; and neither party would have much reason to fear those disappointments, which have hitherto so often followed the exaggerated representations of those to whom the important and difficult task of selecting situations for colonies has been delegated.

V. FOREIGN COLONIES.

1. *Spanish Colonies.*—Spain, whose colonial possessions extended a few years ago from the frontiers of the U. States to the Straits of Magellan, is not, at present, possessed of a foot of ground in the whole American continent. Still, however, her colonial possessions are of great value and importance. In the West Indies, she is mistress of Cuba and Porto Rico;—the former by far the largest and finest of the West India islands; and the latter also a very valuable possession. In the East, Spain is mistress of the Philippine Islands, which, were they in the hands of an enterprising people, would speedily become of very great commercial importance.—(See the articles HAVANNAH, MANILLA, PORTO RICO.)

2. *Dutch Colonies.*—Java is the principal Dutch colonial possession, and it is one of which it is not easy to exaggerate the value and importance.—(See BATAVIA.) In the East the Dutch also possess the Moluccas, Bencoolen on the coast of Sumatra, Macassar, and the eastern coast of Celebes, Banda, &c. They have several forts on the Gold Coast in Africa; and in the West Indies, they possess the islands of Curaçao and St. Eustatius, Saba, and part of St. Martin; and on the continent of South America, they are masters of Dutch Surinam. Curaçao and St. Eustatius are naturally barren, but they have been both highly improved. From its being very conveniently situated for maintaining a contraband traffic with the Caraccas and other districts in South America, Curaçao was formerly a place of great trade, particularly during war. But since the independence of South America, Curaçao has ceased in a great measure to be an entrepôt; the goods destined for the continent being now, for the most part, forwarded direct to the places of their destination.

That district of Surinam ceded to the British in 1814, comprising the settlements of Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo (see *ante*, p. 332.), formed the most valuable portion of Surinam, or Dutch Guiana. The district which still belongs to the Dutch lies to the south of Berbice. It contains about 38,000 square miles, and a population of about 65,000. It is daily becoming of more value and importance. The exports of sugar may amount to about 25,000,000 lbs., and those of coffee to about 4,000,000 lbs.

3. *French Colonies.*—Previously to the negro insurrection that broke out in 1792, St. Domingo was by far the most valuable colony in the West Indies. But this disastrous event, having first devastated the island, terminated in the establishment of the independent black republic of Hayti.—(See *POUR AU PARCER.*) Having also sold Louisiana to the Americans, and ceded the Mauritius to the English, without making any new acquisitions, the colonial dominions of France are, at this moment, of very limited extent. They consist of Gaudeloupe and Martinique, and the small islands of Marie-Galante and Desada, in the West Indies; Cayenne, in South America; Senegal and Goree, in Africa; the Isle de Bourbon, in the Eastern Ocean; St. Marie, in Madagascar; and Pondicherry and Chandernagor, with a very small surrounding territory, in the East Indies. The annexed tabular statements show the population, trade, &c. of the French colonies.

Account of the Population of the French Colonies, and of their Commerce with France, in 1836.

Colonies.	Population on the 1st Jan. 1837.			Commerce with France.		Navigation, 1836.			
	Free.	Slave.	Total.	Real Value, 1836.		Entered.		Cleared out.	
				Imp. into France.	Exps. from France.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
NORTH AMERICA.	No.	No.	No.	France.	France.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	1,400	-	1,400	8,484,244	760,556	144	25,926	143	25,306
THE ANTILLES.									
Martinique	40,043	77,450	117,502	16,423,438	17,028,892	358	48,861	353	122,814
Gaudeloupe	24,038	95,609	119,668	21,575,141	22,119,138	311	70,087	545	69,636
SOUTH AMERICA.									
Cayenne	5,066	16,692	21,648	5,131,758	3,693,166	41	6,798	45	7,950
AFRICA.									
Bourbon	36,803	89,206	126,099	15,743,899	9,804,040	166	43,850	149	45,483
Senegal	18,040	-	18,040	2,574,794	5,466,923	36	4,791	52	8,963
ASIA.									
French factories in India (1835)	167,736	-	167,736	4,323,023	441,336	76	11,098	84	16,598
Totals	301,137	226,956	528,093	70,986,221	58,348,191	1,350	206,822	1,368	290,163

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles produced in the French Colonies in 1836.

Colonies and Establishments.	Stature of all Qualities.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.	Cloves and Blices.	Annotto.	Tobacco.	Gum.	Wax.	Skins.	Wool.
	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.	Kilg.
Martinique	54,159,580	697,507	133,210	14,700	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Guadeloupe	84,836,728	471,285	10,503	66,194	230	-	56,047	-	-	-	10,500
Reunion	35,764,116	989,809	10,000	-	109,260	-	52,000	-	-	-	-
Mayenne	9,482,700	42,000	35,000	990,000	107,000	315,000	-	1,791,510	45,134	927,788	10,500
Senegal	-	1,124	1,447	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Factories in India (1833)	-	52,084	-	6,790	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,650
St. Pierre and fisheries of Miquelon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	91,803,214	9,133,108	172,758	373,610	300,419	315,000	118,047	1,791,510	48,154	927,788	34,148

4. *Danish Colonies.*—In the West Indies, these consist of the islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. St. Croix contains about 100 square miles, and has about 32,000 inhabitants, of whom 27,000 are slaves. The soil is fertile, and it is well cultivated. The principal productions are sugar, rum, and coffee. St. Thomas has long been, and still continues to be, one of the principal emporiums in the West Indies. It owes this distinction partly to its convenient situation, partly to its spacious and safe harbour at St. Thomas, on the S. side of the island, and partly and principally to the moderation of the import duties, which vary from 1 to 1½ per cent. St. Thomas has, in consequence, become as it were a depôt for the supply of the neighbouring islands; goods being sent to it to be warehoused till opportunity offers for conveying them to their final destination. The great articles of importation are manufactured goods, principally from England, but partly, also, from other countries of Europe, with provisions, lumber, &c. from the United States. We subjoin an

Account of the Import Trade of St. Thomas in 1840.

	Vessels entered.	Tonnage.	First Cost Value of Imports.
From Great Britain	48	9,204	\$,100,000
France	26	6,541	610,000
Spain	7	780	85,000
Italy	0	1,288	55,000
Hamburg and Altona	23	5,950	260,000
Flensburg	12	2,403	41,000
Bremen	9	1,432	195,000
Holland	2	348	15,000
U. States of America and British America	317	30,879	968,000
Totals	368	58,132	4,997,000

In India, the Danes possess Tranquebar, near Madras; and Serampoor, near Calcutta. The former contains about 20,000 inhabitants, and has greatly improved since the peace, both in commerce and population. Serampoor is a neat but not very considerable place. It serves as an asylum for the debtors of Calcutta, and is the capital station of the missionaries. The Danes have a few forts on the coast of Guinea.

5. *Swedish Colonies.*—The Swedes possess one colony—the small island of St. Bartholomew, in the West Indies. It is only about 25 square miles in extent, but is very fertile. It has no springs, nor fresh water of any sort, except such as is supplied by the rain. Population between 8,000 and 9,000.

COLUMBO, the modern capital of Ceylon, on the south-west coast of the island; lat. 6° 56' 6" N., lon. 79° 49' 48" E. It is defended by a very strong fort, nearly surrounded by the sea, in which is a light-house 97 feet high. Population of the town and fort, in 1831, 31,549. The houses, generally only one story high, are of stone, clay, and lime; and the town has more of a European appearance than any other in India. The inhabitants are principally Cingalese. The temperature is remarkable for its equality; and though very humid, the climate may, on the whole, be esteemed salubrious and temperate. There is no harbour at Colombo for large vessels, but only an open roadstead. A projecting rock, on which two batteries are erected, affords shelter to a small semicircular bay on the north side of the fort, having a wooden quay to facilitate the loading and unloading of boats. The depth of water is not sufficient to allow sloops or large dhonies to come alongside the quay; those exceeding 100 tons burden lying at about a cable's length from it. A bar of sand, on some parts of which the water is not more than 7 feet deep, extends from the projecting rock across this bay. The channel where it may be crossed by the larger class of ships is liable to shift; and it is only in the fine weather of the safe season—that they venture within the bar. The outer road affords secure anchorage for half the year, from the beginning of October to the end of March, during the prevalence of the N. E. monsoon, when the wind blows off the land; during the other, or S. W. monsoon, when the wind blows from the sea on shore, the road is very far from safe; and the ships that

frequent it are sometimes obliged to slip their cables and stand out to sea. — (*Milburn's Orient. Comm.; Hamilton's Gazetteer, &c.*)

As respects its harbour, Colombo is, therefore, very inferior to Trincomalee, the harbour of which is accessible at all times, and is one of the best in India; but the country in the vicinity of Colombo is more fertile; and it has the command of an internal navigation, stretching in a lateral direction along the coast, from Putlam, to the north of the city, to Caltura on the south, a distance of about 100 miles, partly obtained by rivers, and partly by canals. Many flat-bottomed boats are employed in this navigation, the smallest depending on the wind. Nearly all the foreign trade of Ceylon is carried on from Colombo; and it has also a large proportion of the coasting traffic.

Money.—The six dollar is 12. 6d.; but accounts are kept in pounds, shillings, and pence, as in England. The Bank of Ceylon, established in 1840, has its head office in London, its principal office in Colombo. It transacts all sorts of banking business, remitting money to and from the island, granting cash credits on the hutch system, discounting bills, &c.

Weights, Measures, &c.—The weights are divided into pounds, pounds, &c., and are the same as in Great Britain. The candy or kahar is 500 lbs. avoirdupois, or 441 lbs. Dutch

Try weight. The principal dry measures are *covee* or *perreals*. The former is a perfect cylinder, of the depth and diameter under-mentioned:—

Seer	4-53 inches.	Diameter	4-30 inches.
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The *perreah* is a perfect cube, its internal dimensions being every way 11-85 inches.

The liquid measure consists of gallons, and their multiples and sub-multiples. 150 gallons is 1 league or *logger*. The bulk of cinnamon consists of 94 lbs. very moist.

The great articles of export from Ceylon are coffee, tobacco, pearls, &c. The island is peculiarly suitable for the culture of coffee, the growth of which has rapidly increased since the reduction, in 1855, of the duty on coffee from Ceylon to the same level as that on coffee from the West Indies, the imports into the U. Kingdom from Ceylon in the former year having been only 1,870,143 lbs., whereas in 1841 they amounted to 7,098,848 lbs., and the supply appears to be susceptible of an indefinite increase.—(*Forster's Progress of the Nation, lib. 257.*) The exports of cocoa nut oil and tobacco might, also, be greatly increased; and it will be in the art. CINNAMON, how the growth of that important staple has been restricted by the enormous duty laid on its exportation.

Sailing Directions and Remarks on the Port of Colombo, by James Stewart, Esq., Master Attendant.

The land about Colombo is low near the sea, with some hills to the eastward at a distance in the country. The high mountain having on it a Adam's Peak, the distance from Colombo E. 70° S. distant 184 leagues; its height above the level of the sea is estimated as about 7,000 feet, according to a rough trigonometrical measurement of Colonel Walker. When the atmosphere is clear, it may be seen 50 leagues. During the prevalence of the N. E. monsoon, Adam's Peak is generally visible in the morning, and frequently the whole of the day; but it is rarely seen in the S. W. monsoon, dense vapours generally prevailing over the island at this season.

Ships approaching Colombo in the night have a brilliant light to direct them, which is exhibited every night from a light-house in the fort; the height of the light above the level of the sea is 87 feet, and may be seen in calm weather as far as the light appears above the horizon.

A steep bank of coral, about a mile broad, with 13 fathoms water on it, lies 7 miles W. from Colombo, extending northward towards Negambo (where it strikes a sand), and a few miles to the southward of Colombo, and the bank the water deepens at once to 25 fathoms, and in 4 miles to 28 fathoms, greenish sand, and is not far from the edge of corals.

Within the bank there are 25 fathoms gradually shoaling towards the shore.

A bed of sunken rocks, called the Drunken Sailor, lies S. W. by W. ½ W. from Colombo Light-house, distant 1,000 yards. The length of the ledge may be estimated at 100 yards, and the breadth 50 yards; on its N. end a small spit, about the size of the hull of a 30 ton boat, is said to have only 9 feet water on it at low water; but during several recent visits, when some of the coral from its surface was brought up, there did not appear to be less than 7 feet 6 inches water on the shallowest part; on the other parts of the ledge there is 4, 5, and 6 fathoms. The sea breaks on the shallow part of these rocks almost constantly during the S. W. monsoon; but this is very seldom the case during the N. E. monsoon.

The Drunken Sailor should not be approached under 9 fathoms during the night, as there are 6 fathoms very near to it, and in its stream to the southward.

The passage within the Drunken Sailor is clear, and some ships have sailed through; but no advantage can be gained by approaching the rocks to very near at this point.

The Drunken Sailor lies so near the land, and so far to the southward of the anchorage in Colombo road, as scarcely to form any impediment to ships bound to or from Colombo.

The currents off Colombo are subject to considerable variation; but they are never so strong as to cause inconvenience to ships which may have to communicate with the shore in either monsoon without coming to anchor.

Colombo road affords good anchorage, free from foul ground; and is frequented at all seasons of the year.

The best anchorage during the prevalence of S. W. winds from April to October is in from 7 to 8 fathoms, with the light-house bearing S. by E. ½ E. Dutch church E. by E. to the N. E. monsoon from November to April, it is more convenient to anchor in 6½ fathoms, with the light-house bearing S. or S. ½ E. and the Dutch church E. ½ E.

Ships requiring pilots to conduct them to the anchorage should make the usual signal; the charge for pilotage is 15s.

The bar is a bank of sand with 7 feet water on its shallowest part, the northern extremity being about 400 yards N. W. of the Custom-house Point; small vessels that draw less than 10 feet water, ride within the bar protected from the S. W. wind and sea.

When the sea is high, it breaks with great force on the bar, and renders the passage from the shipping in the water most dangerous for small boats; the native boats generally pass out and in to the southward of the bar, close to the breakers on the rocky point of the Custom-house Point; the passage leading in a row, it should not be attempted by strangers; when the sea breaks on the bar, it is better to proceed round to the northward of the bar, which may be easily distinguished by the breakers.

What is strictly understood by a gale of wind, is a rare occurrence at Colombo; this may be owing to the vicinity of the equator. The strong gales which blow on the Malabar coast are felt in small degree, and a high sea but there is scarcely wind to endanger vessels properly found in ground tacking; it is true, ships have sometimes required the aid of a second

anchor, but in most cases the cause has been attributable to some defect in the first anchor or cable, a light anchor, an anchor swelling, a short chain, or the chain coming unshackled; on the contrary, in Colombo, each of two ships receiving cargo during the S. W. monsoon, whose chain cables were of the usual good twist; twice did it occur in each ship.

Customs Duties.—Account of the Customs Duties payable on goods, wares, and merchandise imported into and exported from the island of Ceylon.

Imports.	Rate, porter, and other malt liquor in casks	Imp. gall.	0 2½
Ditto in bottles	doz. quart	0 0 6	
Printed paper			
Bullion, coin, pearls, and precious stones			
Coal and coke			Free.
Garden seeds and plants			
Spice powder			0 0 3
Horns, oxen, asses, neat cattle, and other live stock			
Instruments (musical and scientific)			
Iron tanks, casks, staves, headings, and hoops			Free.
Machinery, implements and tools for agriculture, and for any kind of manufacture			Free.
Alaps			
Opium		lb.	0 10
Faddy		bush	0 5
Residential clothing and accoutrements			
Sticks		bush	0 7
Specimens illustrative of natural history		imp. gall.	0 4
Wines and liquors		imp. gall.	0 0 6
Tea		lb.	0 0 6
Timber			Free.
Wearing apparel and personal baggage			Free.
Wheat, rye, peas, and beans		bush	0 7
Wine in bottles		imp. gall.	0 7
Ditto not in bottles		imp. gall.	0 0 6
Ditto the produce of any British possessions			Free.

Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise charged with duty, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any British possession abroad, for every 100l. of the value thereof in this market — 8 0 0

Ditto, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign state, for every 100l. of the value thereof in this market — 10 0 0

Outwards.—Books (printed)

Bullion, coin, pearls, and precious stones		Free.
Cinnamon	lb.	0 8
Ditto from 1 MAR, 1843		1 10
Ditto oil	ca.	0 0 4

Horns, asses, mules, neat cattle, and all other live stock

Implements (musical)

Iron tanks, casks, staves, headings, and hoops

Flax and seeds

Specimens illustrative of natural history

Wearing apparel, and personal baggage

Goods, wares, and merchandise, of the growth, produce, or manufacture of this island, not being subject to other export duty, not particularly exempted from export duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof — 10 0 0

Prohibitions and Restrictions Inwards.—Arms, ammunition, and utensils of war, except under special authority of the governor.

Cinnamon, cinnamon oil, cassia, or cassia buds.

Coffee, except to be warehoused for exportation.

Gold, viz. — false money, or counterfeit sterling.

Ditto, silver of the main, or any money purporting to be such, not being of the established standard in weight or fineness.

Iron-ware, except under special authority of the governor.

Rum, and rum shrub, the produce of any foreign country, or rum shrub, can be legally imported.

Salt, except under authority of the governor.

Sugar (foreign), and sugar the growth of any British possession into which foreign sugar can be legally imported, except to be warehoused for exportation.

When the sea is high, it breaks with great force on the bar, and renders the passage from the shipping in the water most dangerous for small boats; the native boats generally pass out and in to the southward of the bar, close to the breakers on the rocky point of the Custom-house Point; the passage leading in a row, it should not be attempted by strangers; when the sea breaks on the bar, it is better to proceed round to the northward of the bar, which may be easily distinguished by the breakers.

What is strictly understood by a gale of wind, is a rare occurrence at Colombo; this may be owing to the vicinity of the equator. The strong gales which blow on the Malabar coast are felt in small degree, and a high sea but there is scarcely wind to endanger vessels properly found in ground tacking; it is true, ships have sometimes required the aid of a second

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles produced in and exported from Ceylon during 1844.

Articles.	Quantities.	Values.
Arrack	gall.	145,695
Arach nuts	wt.	55,385
Cassia	No.	1,647,066
Cinnamon	lbs.	1,097,241
Cocoa nuts, betelnuts, and shells		14,891,780
Coffee	wt.	25,977
Fair		3,152
Irony	gals.	443,501
Oil, cinnamon and clove, and citronella	gall.	8,511
Cocoa nut	wt.	90,119
Phenobago		—
Tobacco		—
Wood, various		—
Other articles		—
Total		805,251
Add bullion	pack.	15,448
Total exports		820,699

Imports.—The total imports into Ceylon in 1844 amounted, including 517,204 cwt. of bullion, to 1,267,501 cwt., whereof rice and other grain, principally brought from India, amounted to 356,925 cwt. Cotton goods, nearly in equal proportions from Eng-

land and India, 198,936 cwt. live stock, 45,249 cwt. haberdashery, 21,494 cwt. machinery and tools, principally from England, 11,247 cwt. with iron, earthenware, malt liquor, &c.

Values of Exports and Imports to and from Ceylon from the Year 1830 to 1842 inclusive, distinguishing the Trade with Great Britain from that with other Parts of the World.—N. B. The valuation is made by the officers of customs.

Years.	Exports.		Total.	Imports.		Total.
	To Great Britain.	Elsewhere.		From Great Britain.	Elsewhere.	
1830	168,576	106,254	274,830	40,777	308,304	519,561
1831	89,903	69,590	159,493	24,559	354,428	395,907
1832	96,923	69,061	165,984	17,798	305,430	558,228
1833	45,403	90,137	135,540	60,813	350,067	320,891
1834	76,442	58,844	135,286	71,073	301,650	374,735
1835	72,472	116,578	189,050	199,987	293,078	352,076
1836	128,501	106,018	234,519	93,296	317,909	411,167
1837	131,583	104,140	235,723	156,468	384,771	541,239
1838	160,349	69,095	229,444	97,253	399,200	490,043
1839	212,980	118,716	331,696	131,616	379,448	510,668
1840	320,536	100,841	421,377	115,522	436,455	558,977
Year ended 30th Sept.						
1841	247,063	97,650	344,713	162,874	401,094	564,476
1842	327,285	94,125	421,410	204,586	417,961	628,447

Rates of Warehouse Rent chargeable upon all Goods Imported, and remaining in any Queen's Warehouse.

	Per week.
For every ton built	0 0 9
League cask	0 0 8
Half ditto	0 0 3
Pipe or puncheon	0 0 3
Hophead	0 0 1A
Barrel	0 0 1A
Cask or bag of smaller size	0 0 1
Cask containing one dozen of liquor	0 0 0 1/2
Crate, cask, or case of hardware, earthenware, or ironmongery	0 0 4
Bale of cloth, Indian	0 0 4
Half ditto	0 0 2
Quarter ditto	0 0 1
Bale, case, or box, not exceeding half a ton meas.	0 0 4
Ditto, exceeding half a ton	0 0 6
Bag rice, sugar, or coffee	0 0 2
Small package not otherwise enumerated	0 0 1
Tin of heavy goods ditto	0 0 1

N. B.—A week's rent chargeable for all fractions of a week.

Port Dues.—4d. per ton of the registered tonnage of any ship or vessel anchoring in any port of the island, excepting chartered transports, and vessels belonging to this government.

Vessels employed between one port and another of the island are allowed to compound for port dues for 12 months at 1s. per ton.

No coasting vessel is liable to pay port dues within 30 days from the date of the last payment thereof.

Pilotage.—Rates of Pilotage payable by all Square-Rigged Vessels, Schooners, or Schooners, at the Ports of Colombo, Trincomalee, and Galle.

	Back Bay.	Harbour.
Vessels of 500 tons and upwards	3 0 0	4 0 0
400 tons and under 500	1 10 0	3 0 0
300 tons and under 400	1 0 0	3 0 0
100 tons and under 300	0 10 0	3 0 0
under 100	0 0 0	0 10 0

The above rates of pilotage are charged to all vessels going into the Inner Harbours of Trincomalee and the Harbour of Galle, whether they make a signal for a pilot or not. In Colombo, and the Back Bay at Trincomalee, the charge is only made if the vessel make the signal, and a pilot actually present on board.

General Rates of Agency Commission and Godown Rents, agreed upon by the Chamber of Commerce of Ceylon, on the 23rd April, 15th May, and 18th June, 1839, and recommended for general adoption, viz. —

- On all sales, purchases, and shipments — Per cent.
 - With the following exceptions, viz. —
 - On all purchases of government cinnamon, on the purchase money, and duty included. — 2 1/2
 - On returns made with the proceeds of goods on which commission has been previously charged, if in coffee or cocoa-nut oil — 5
 - In every description of produce — 2 1/2
 - On diamonds, pearls, precious stones, and jewellery — 2 1/2
 - On treasure and bullion — 1
 - On all property withdrawn, shipped, or delivered to order — 2 1/2
- On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, contracts, or other engagements — 2 1/2
- On ships' disbursements — 2 1/2
- On advertising for freight and passengers, on the amount of freight or passage money, whether the same pass through the agent's hands or not — 5
- On effecting insurance, or writing orders for insurance — 2 1/2
- On settling losses, partial and general, and returns of premium — 1
- On procuring money on responsibility — 2 1/2
- On attending the delivery of contract goods, or receiving and delivering private commissions of wines, cattle, and merchandise — 2 1/2
- On the total sum of the debit or credit side of an account at the option of the agent, excepting items on which a commission of 5 per cent. is chargeable — 1
- On effecting remittance, or on purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange — 1
- On subscription to government loans, selling, transferring, or exchanging public securities — 1
- On delivering up public securities, or lodging them in any of the public offices — 1
- On the sale of lottery tickets from the other settlements — 5
- On the purchase of lottery tickets, and amount of prizes — 1
- On letters of credit granted — 1/2
- On the management of estates as executors, administrators, or attornies — 5
- On debts, when a process at law or arbitration is necessary, and if recovered by such means, — 2 1/2
- On bills of exchange, notes, &c. dishonoured — 1
- On overdue debts collected for absentees — 2 1/2

Rates of Godown Rent per Month.

	Back Bay.	Harbour.
Coffee, rice, sugar, pepper, and saltpeetre	bag 0 0 3	bag 0 0 3
Cinnamon	bag 0 1 0	bag 0 1 0
Fine goods	bag or case 0 1 0	bag or case 0 1 0
Cotton, screwed	bag 0 0 0	bag 0 0 0
Ditto, raw	— 0 0 0	— 0 0 0
Cole, rope, or junk	— 0 0 0	— 0 0 0
Wine, spirits, beer, oil, &c.	— 0 0 0	— 0 0 0
Wine in 6 dozen cases	— 0 0 0	— 0 0 0
Rough goods, such as earthenware, in crates, per 50 cubic ft.	— 0 0 0	— 0 0 0

All other articles in proportion to the above.

Extent, Population, Revenue, &c. of Ceylon.—The area of Ceylon is estimated at 24,448 sq. miles. Its population, according to a census taken in 1881, amounted to 960,000, of whom about 6,800 were whites. And if this statement may be depended upon, it would seem that the population has increased very rapidly in the interim, for it is said to have amounted in 1843 to 1,237,082, of whom 7,600 were whites. It appears, from a statement in the *Ceylon Almanac* (p. 205.), that during the 5 years ending with 1843, the colonial expenditure exceeded the colonial income about 30,000*l.* a year. In fact the whole income of the island, including land rent, customs, cinnamon duty, and everything else, amounted in 1841 to only 241,837*l.* But looking at the extent of the island, its fertility, its favourable situation for commerce, and the advantage it enjoys in the possession of cinnamon, can any one doubt that its trade and revenue should be far greater than they really are? The rapid extension of the culture of coffee will, no doubt, contribute in no ordinary degree to introduce a better state of things; but we incline to think that nothing would do so much to increase the wealth and importance of the island, as the reduction of the export duty on cinnamon to *hd.* or *4d.* per lb. (See *CINNAMON*.)

COLUMBO ROOT (*Du. Colombo wortel; Fr. Racine de Colombo; Ger. Columbo-wurzel; It. Radice di Colombo; Port. Raiz de Colombo; Sp. Raiz de Colombo; Mosamb. Kalumb*), the root of the plant of that name. It is a staple export of the Portuguese from Mosambique. It is not cultivated, but grows naturally in great abundance. It is imported in circular pieces, from $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch to 3 inches in diameter, generally from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch thick; the bark is wrinkled and thick, of a brownish colour without, and a brightish yellow within; the pith is spongy, yellowish, and slightly striped; when fresh, its smell is rather aromatic; it is disagreeably bitter, and slightly pungent to the taste, somewhat resembling mustard that has been too long kept. Choose the largest pieces, fresh, and of a good colour, as free from worms as possible, rejecting that which is small and broken. The freight is calculated at 16 cwt. to a ton. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

COMMERCE, from *commutatio mercium*, is simply, as its name imports, the exchange of commodities for commodities.

- I. ORIGIN OF COMMERCE. — MERCANTILE CLASSES.
- II. HOME TRADE.
- III. FOREIGN TRADE.
- VI. RESTRICTIONS ON COMMERCE.

I. ORIGIN OF COMMERCE. — MERCANTILE CLASSES.

(1.) *The Origin of Commerce* is coeval with the first dawn of civilisation. The moment that individuals ceased to supply themselves directly with the various articles and accommodations they made use of, that moment must a commercial intercourse have begun to grow up amongst them. For it is only by exchanging that portion of the produce raised by ourselves that exceeds our own consumption, for portions of the surplus produce raised by others, that the division of employments can be introduced, or that different individuals can apply themselves in preference to different pursuits.

Not only, however, does commerce enable the inhabitants of the same village or parish to combine their separate efforts to accomplish some common object, but it also enables those of different provinces and kingdoms to apply themselves in an especial manner to those callings, for the successful prosecution of which the district or country which they occupy gives them some peculiar advantage. This territorial division of labour has contributed more, perhaps, than anything else to increase the wealth and accelerate the civilisation of mankind. Were it not for it, we should be destitute of a vast number of the necessaries, comforts, and enjoyments which we now possess; while the price of the few that would remain would, in most instances, be very greatly increased. But whatever advantages may be derived — and it is hardly possible to exaggerate either their magnitude or importance — from availing ourselves of the peculiar capacities of production enjoyed by others, are wholly to be ascribed to commerce as their real source and origin.

We do not mean to say any thing in this article with respect to the practical details connected with the different departments of commerce. These will be found under the various titles to which they refer. Our object, at present, is merely to show the nature and influence of commerce in general, and of the restrictions that have sometimes been imposed upon it. We shall begin by endeavouring, first of all, to give some account of the nature of the services performed by the individuals by whom commercial undertakings are usually carried on. In the second place, we shall consider the influence of the home trade, or of the intercourse subsisting amongst individuals of the same country. In the third place, we shall consider the influence of foreign trade, or of that intercourse which subsists amongst individuals belonging to different countries. After these topics have been discussed, we shall offer a few remarks on what has been termed the restrictive system; or on the principles involved in the regulations enacted at different times, in this and other countries, for the government and direction of commerce.

(2.) *Mercantile Classes.* — While the exchange of different products is carried on by the producers themselves, they must unavoidably lose a great deal of time, and experience many inconveniences. Were there no merchants, a farmer wishing to sell his

crop would be obliged, in the first place, to seek for customers, and to dispose of his corn as nearly as possible in such quantities as might suit the demands of the various individuals inclined to buy it; and after getting its price, he would next be obliged to send to 10 or 20 different and, perhaps, remote places, for the commodities he wanted to get in its stead. So that, besides being exposed to a world of trouble and inconvenience, his attention would be continually diverted from the labours of his farm. Under such a state of things, the work of production, in every different employment, would be meeting with perpetual interruptions, and many branches of industry that are successfully carried on in a commercial country would not be undertaken.

The establishment of a distinct mercantile class effectually obviates these inconveniences. When a set of dealers erect warehouses and shops for the purchase and sale of all descriptions of commodities, every producer, relieved from the necessity of seeking customers, and knowing beforehand where he may at all times be supplied with such products as he requires, devotes his whole time and energies to his proper business. The intervention of merchants gives a continuous and uninterrupted motion to the plough and the loom. Were the class of traders annihilated, all the springs of industry would be paralysed. The numberless difficulties that would then occur in effecting exchanges would lead each particular family to endeavour to produce all the articles they had occasion for; society would thus be thrown back into primeval barbarism and ignorance; the divisions of labour would be relinquished; and the desire to rise in the world and improve our condition would decline, according as it became more difficult to gratify it. What sort of agricultural management could be expected from farmers who had to manufacture their own wool, and make their own shoes? And what sort of manufacturers would those be, who were every now and then obliged to leave the shuttle for the plough, or the needle for the anvil? A society, without that distinction of employments and professions resulting from the division of labour, that is, *without commerce*, would be totally destitute of arts or sciences of any sort. It is by the assistance each individual renders to and receives from his neighbours, by every one applying himself in preference to some peculiar task, and combining, though probably without intending it, his efforts with those of others, that civilised man becomes equal to the most gigantic efforts, and appears endowed with almost omnipotent power.

The mercantile class has generally been divided into two subordinate classes — the wholesale dealers, and the retail dealers. The former purchase the various products of art and industry in the places where they are produced, or are least valuable, and carry them to those where they are more valuable, or where they are more in demand; and the latter, having purchased the commodities of the wholesale dealers, or the producers, collect them in shops, and sell them in such quantities and at such times as may best suit the public demand. These classes of dealers are alike useful; and the separation that has been effected between their employments is one of the most advantageous divisions of labour. The operations of the wholesale merchant are analogous to those of the miner. Neither the one nor the other makes any change on the bodies which he carries from place to place. All the difference between them consists in this, — that the miner carries them from below ground to the surface of the earth, while the merchant carries them from one point to another on its surface. Hence it follows that the value given to commodities by the operations of the wholesale merchant may frequently exceed that given to them by the producers. The labour or expense required to dig a quantity of coal from the mine, does not exceed what is required for its conveyance from Newcastle to London; and it is a far more difficult and costly affair to fetch a piece of timber from Canada to England, than to cut down the tree. In this respect there is no difference between commerce and agriculture and manufactures. The latter give utility to matter, by bestowing on it such a shape as may best fit it for ministering to our wants and comforts; and the former gives additional utility to the products of the agriculturist and manufacturer, by bringing them from where they are of comparatively little use, or are in excess, to where they are of comparatively great use, or are deficient.

If the wholesale merchant were himself to retail the goods he has brought from different places, he would require a proportional increase of capital; and it would be impossible for him to give that exclusive attention to any department of his business, which is indispensable to its being carried on in the best manner. It is for the interest of each dealer, as of each workman, to confine himself to some one business. By this means each trade is better understood, better cultivated, and carried on in the cheapest possible manner. But whether carried on by a separate class of individuals or not, it is obvious that the retailing of commodities is indispensable. It is not enough that a cargo of tea should be imported from China, or a cargo of sugar from Jamaica. Most individuals have some demand for these articles; but there is not, perhaps, a single private person, even in London, requiring so large a supply for his own consumption. It is clear, therefore, that they must be *retailed*; that is, they must be sold in such quanti-

ties and at such times as may be most suitable for all classes of consumers. And since it is admitted, on all hands, that this necessary business will be best conducted by a class of traders distinct from the wholesale dealers, it is impossible to doubt that their employment is equally conducive as that of the others to the public interest, or that it tends equally to augment national wealth and comfort.

II. HOME TRADE.

The observations already made serve to show the influence of the home trade in allowing individuals to confine their attention to some one employment, and to prosecute it without interruption. But it is not in this respect only that the establishment of the home trade is advantageous. It is so in a still greater degree, by its allowing the inhabitants of the different districts of the empire to turn their labour into those channels in which it will be most productive. The different soils, different minerals, and different climates of different districts, fit them for being appropriated, in preference, to certain species of industry. A district, like Lancashire, where coal is abundant, which has an easy access to the ocean, and a considerable command of internal navigation, is the natural seat of manufactures. Wheat and other species of grain are the natural products of rich arable soils; and cattle, after being reared in mountainous districts, are most advantageously fattened in meadows and low grounds. Hence it follows, that the inhabitants of different districts, by confining themselves to those branches of industry for the successful prosecution of which they have some peculiar capability, and exchanging their surplus produce for that of others, will obtain an incomparably larger supply of all sorts of useful and desirable products, than they could do, were they to apply themselves indiscriminately to every different business. The territorial division of labour is, if possible, even more advantageous than its division among individuals. A person may be what is commonly called *Jack of all trades*; and though it is next to certain that he will not be well acquainted with any one of them, he may nevertheless make some sort of rude efforts in them all. But it is not possible to apply the same soils or the same minerals to every different purpose. Hence it is, that the inhabitants of the richest and most extensive country, provided it were divided into small districts without any intercourse with each other, or with foreigners, could not, how well soever labour might be divided among themselves, be otherwise than poor and miserable. Some of them might have a superabundance of corn, at the same time that they were wholly destitute of wine, coal, and iron: while others might have the largest supplies of the latter articles, with but very little grain. But in commercial countries no such anomalies can exist. Opulence and comfort are there universally diffused. The labours of the mercantile classes enable the inhabitants of each district to apply themselves principally to those employments that are naturally best suited to them. This superadding of the division of labour among different provinces to its division among different individuals, renders the productive powers of industry immeasurably greater; and augments the mass of necessities, conveniences, and enjoyments, in a degree that could not previously have been conceived possible, and which cannot be exceeded except by the introduction of foreign commerce.

"With the benefit of commerce," says an eloquent and philosophical writer, "or a ready exchange of commodities, every individual is enabled to avail himself, to the utmost, of the peculiar advantage of his place; to work on the peculiar materials with which nature has furnished him; to humour his genius or disposition, and betake himself to the task in which he is peculiarly qualified to succeed. The inhabitant of the mountain may betake himself to the culture of his woods and the manufacture of his timber; the owner of pasture lands may betake himself to the care of his herds; the owner of the clay-pit to the manufacture of his pottery; and the husbandman to the culture of his fields, or the rearing of his cattle. And any one commodity, however it may form but a small part in the accommodations of human life, may, under the facility of commerce, find a market in which it may be exchanged for what will procure any other part, or the whole: so that the owner of the clay-pit, or the industrious potter, without producing any one article immediately fit to supply his own necessities, may obtain possession of all that he wants. And commerce, in which it appears that commodities are merely exchanged, and nothing produced, is, nevertheless, in its effects, very productive, because it ministers a facility and an encouragement to every artist in multiplying the productions of his own art; thus adding greatly to the mass of wealth in the world, in being the occasion that much is produced." — (*Ferguson's Principles of Moral Science*, vol. ii. p. 424.)

The roads and canals that intersect a country, and open an easy communication between its remotest extremities, render the greatest service to internal commerce, and also to agriculture and manufactures. A diminution of the expense of carriage has, in fact, the same effect as a diminution of the direct cost of production. If the coals brought into a city sell at 20s. a ton, of which the carriage amounts to a half, or 10s., it is plain

that in the event of an improved communication, such as a more level or direct road, a railway, or a canal, being opened for the conveyance of the coals, and that they can, by its means, be imported for half the previous expense, their price will immediately fall to 15s. a ton; just as it would have done, had the expense of extracting them from the mine been reduced a half.

Every one acquainted with the merest elements of political science is aware that employments are more and more subdivided, that more powerful machinery is introduced, and the productive powers of labour increased, according as larger masses of the population congregate together. In a great town like London, Glasgow, or Manchester, the same number of hands will perform much more work than in a small village, where each individual has to perform several operations, and where the scale of employment is not sufficiently large to admit of the introduction of extensive and complicated machinery. But the great towns with which England is studded could not exist without our improved means of communication. These, however, enable their inhabitants to supply themselves with the bulky products of the soil and of the mines almost as cheaply as if they lived in country villages; securing to them all the advantages of concentration, with but few of its inconveniences. Roads and canals are thus productive of a double benefit; for while, by affording comparatively cheap raw materials to the manufacturers, they give them the means of perfecting the divisions of labour, and of supplying proportionally cheap manufactured goods; the latter are conveyed by their means, and at an extremely small expense, to the remotest parts of the country. The direct advantages which they confer on agriculture are not less important. Without them it would not be possible to carry to a distance sufficient supplies of lime, marl, shells, and other bulky and heavy articles necessary to give luxuriance to the crops of rich soils, and to render those that are poor productive. Good roads and canals, therefore, by furnishing the agriculturists with cheap and abundant supplies of manure, reduce, at one and the same time, the cost of producing the necessaries of life, and the cost of bringing them to market.

In other respects, the advantages resulting from improved communications are probably even more striking. They give the same common interest to every different part of the most widely extended empire; and put down, or rather prevent, any attempt at monopoly on the part of the dealers of particular districts, by bringing them into competition with those of all the others. Nothing in a state enjoying great facilities of communication is separate and unconnected. All is mutual, reciprocal, and dependent. Every man naturally gets into the precise situation that he is best fitted to fill; and each, cooperating with every one else, contributes to the utmost of his power to extend the limits of production and civilisation. — (See ROADS.)

Such being the nature and vast extent of the advantages derived from the home trade, it is obviously the duty of the legislature to give it every proper encouragement and protection. It will be found, however, on a little consideration, that this duty is rather negative than positive — that it consists less in the framing of regulations, than in the removal of obstacles. The error of governments in matters of trade has not been that they have done too little, but that they have attempted too much. It will be afterwards shown that the encouragement which has been afforded to the producers of certain species of articles in preference to others, has uniformly been productive of disadvantage. In the mean time it is sufficient to observe, that the encouragement which a prudent and enlightened government bestows on industry, will equally extend to all its branches; and will be especially directed to the removal of every thing that may in any respect fetter the freedom of commerce, and the power of individuals to engage in different employments. All regulations, whatever be their object, that operate either to prevent the circulation of commodities from one part of the empire to another, or the free circulation of labour, necessarily tend to check the division of employments and the spirit of competition and emulation, and must, in consequence, lessen the amount of produce. The same principle that prompts to open roads, to construct bridges and canals, should lead every people to erase from the statute book every regulation which either prevents or fetters the operations of the merchant, and the free disposal of capital and labour. Whether the freedom of internal commerce and industry be interrupted by impassable mountains and swamps, or by oppressive tolls or restrictive regulations, the effect is equally pernicious.

The common law and the ancient statute law of England are decidedly hostile to monopolies, or to the granting of powers to any particular class of individuals to furnish the market with commodities. Lord Coke distinctly states, "that all monopolies concerning trade and traffic are against the liberty and freedom granted by the great charter, and divers other acts of parliament which are good commentaries upon that charter." — (2 Inst. 63.) And he affirms, in another place, that, "*Commercium jure gentium commune esse debet, et non in monopolium et privatum pauculorum quantum convertendum. Iniquum est aliis permittere, aliis inhibere mercaturam.*"

But, notwithstanding this concurrence of the common and statute law of the country in favour of the freedom of industry, during the arbitrary reigns of the princes of the house of Tudor, the notion that the crown was by its prerogative entitled to dispense with any law to the contrary, and to establish monopolies, became fashionable among the court lawyers, and was acted upon to a very great extent. Few things, indeed, occasioned so much dissatisfaction in the reign of Elizabeth as the multiplication of monopolies; and notwithstanding the opposition made by the crown, and the court party in parliament, the grievance became at length so intolerable as to give rise to the famous statute of 1624 (21 James 1. c. 3.), by which all monopolies, grants, letters patent, and licences, for the sole buying, selling, and making of goods and manufactures, not given by an act of the legislature, are declared to be "*altogether contrary to the laws of this realm, void, and of none effect.*" This statute has been productive of the greatest advantage; and has, perhaps, contributed more than any other to the development of industry, and the accumulation of wealth. With the exception of the monopoly of printing Bibles, and the restraints imposed by the charters of bodies legally incorporated, the freedom of internal industry has ever since been vigilantly protected; full scope has been given to the principle of competition; the whole kingdom has been subjected to the same equal law; no obstacles have been thrown in the way of the freest transfer of commodities from one country or place to another; the home trade has been perfectly unfettered; and though the public have not been supplied with commodities at so low a price as they might have obtained them for, had there been no restrictions on foreign commerce, they have obtained them at the lowest price that would suffice to pay the *home producers* the cost of producing and bringing them to market. It is to this freedom that the comparatively flourishing state of industry in Great Britain is mainly to be ascribed.

III. FOREIGN TRADE.

What the home trade is to the different provinces of the same country, foreign trade is to all the countries of the world. Particular countries produce only particular commodities, and, were it not for foreign commerce, would be entirely destitute of all but such are indigenous to their own soil. It is difficult for those who have not reflected on the subject, to imagine what a vast deduction would be made, not only from the comforts, but even from the necessities, of every commercial people, were its intercourse with strangers put an end to. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that in Great Britain we owe to our intercourse with others a full half or more of all that we enjoy. We are not only indebted to it for the cotton and silk manufactures, and for supplies of wine, tea, coffee, sugar, the precious metals, &c.; but we are also indebted to it for most of the fruits and vegetables that we now cultivate. At the same time, too, that foreign commerce supplies us with an immense variety of most important articles, of which we must otherwise have been wholly ignorant, it enables us to employ our industry in the mode in which it is sure to be most productive, and reduces the price of almost every article. We do not misemploy our labour in raising sugar from the beet-root, in cultivating tobacco, or in forcing vines; but we employ ourselves in those departments of manufacturing industry in which our command of coal, of capital, and of improved machinery give us an advantage; and obtain the articles produced more cheaply by foreigners, in exchange for the surplus produce of those branches in which we have a superiority over them. A commercial nation like England avails herself of all the peculiar facilities of production given by Providence to different countries. To produce claret here is perhaps impossible; and at all events it could not be accomplished, unless at more than 100 times the expense required for its production in France. We do not, however, deny ourselves the gratification derivable from its use; and to obtain it, we have only to send to France, or to some country indebted to France, some articles in the production of which we have an advantage, and we get claret in exchange at the price which it takes to raise it under the most favourable circumstances. One country has peculiar capacities for raising corn, but is at the same time destitute of wine, silk, and tea; another, again, has peculiar facilities for raising the latter, but is destitute of the former; and it is impossible to point out a single country which is abundantly supplied with any considerable variety of commodities of domestic growth. *Non omnis fert omnia tellus.* Providence, by giving to each particular nation something which the others want, has evidently intended that they should be mutually dependent upon one another. And it is not difficult to see that, *ceteris paribus*, those must be the richest and most abundantly supplied with every sort of useful and desirable accommodation, who cultivate the arts of peace with the greatest success, and deal with all the world on fair and liberal principles.

"The commerce of one country with another is, in fact," to use the words of an able and profound writer, "merely an extension of that division of labour by which so many benefits are conferred upon the human race. As the same country is rendered the richer by the trade of one province with another; as its labour becomes thus infinitely

more divided and more productive than it could otherwise have been; and as the mutual supply to each other of all the accommodations which one province has, and another wants, multiplies the accommodations of the whole, and the country becomes thus in a wonderful degree more opulent and happy; the same beautiful train of consequences is observable in the world at large, — that great empire of which the different kingdoms and tribes of man may be regarded as the provinces. In this magnificent empire, too, one province is favourable to the production of one species of accommodation, and another province to another: by their mutual intercourse they are enabled to sort and distribute their labour as most peculiarly suits the genius of each particular spot. The labour of the human race thus becomes much more productive, and every species of accommodation is afforded in much greater abundance. The same number of labourers, whose efforts might have been expended in producing a very insignificant quantity of home-made luxuries, may thus, in Great Britain, produce a quantity of articles for exportation, accommodated to the wants of other places, and peculiarly suited to the genius of Britain to furnish, which will purchase for her an accumulation of the luxuries of every quarter of the globe. There is not a greater proportion of her population employed in administering to her luxuries, in consequence of her commerce; there is probably a good deal less; but their labour is infinitely more productive: the portion of commodities which the people of Great Britain acquire by means of the same labour, is vastly greater." — (*Mill's Commerce defended*, p. 38.)

What has been already stated is sufficient to expose the utter fallacy of the opinion that has sometimes been maintained, that whatever one nation may gain by her foreign commerce, must be lost by some one else. It is singular, indeed, how such a notion should ever have originated. Commerce is *not directly productive*, nor is the good derived from it to be estimated by its immediate effects. What commercial nations give is uniformly the fair equivalent of what they get. In their dealings they do not prey upon each other, but are benefited alike. The advantage of commerce consists in its enabling labour to be divided, and giving each people the power of supplying themselves with the various articles for which they have a demand, at the lowest price required for their production in those countries and places where they are raised with the greatest facility. We import wine from Portugal, and cotton from America, sending in exchange cloth and other species of manufactured goods. By this means we obtain two very important articles, which it would be all but impossible to produce at home, and which we could not, certainly, produce, except at an infinitely greater cost. But our gain is no loss to the foreigners. They derive precisely the same sort of advantage from the transaction that we do. We have very superior facilities for manufacturing, and they get from us cloth, hardware, and other important articles, at the price at which they can be produced in this country, and consequently for far less than their direct production would have cost them. The benefits resulting from an intercourse of this sort are plainly mutual and reciprocal. Commerce gives no advantage to any one people over any other people; but it increases the wealth and enjoyments of *all* in a degree that could not previously have been conceived possible.

But the influence of foreign commerce in multiplying and cheapening conveniences and enjoyments, vast as it most certainly is, is perhaps inferior to its indirect influence — that is, to its influence on industry, by adding immeasurably to the mass of desirable articles, by inspiring new tastes, and stimulating enterprise and invention by bringing each people into competition with foreigners, and making them acquainted with their arts and institutions.

The apathy and languor that exist in a rude state of society have been universally remarked. But these uniformly give place to activity and enterprise, according as man is rendered familiar with new objects, and is inspired with a desire to obtain them. An individual might, with comparatively little exertion, furnish himself with an abundant supply of the commodities essential to his subsistence; and if he had no desire to obtain others, or if that desire, however strong, could not be gratified, it would be folly to suppose that he should be laborious, inventive, or enterprising. But, when once excited, the wants and desires of man become altogether illimitable; and to excite them, no more is necessary than to bring new products and new modes of enjoyment within his reach. Now, the sure way to do this is to give every facility to the most extensive intercourse with foreigners. The markets of a commercial nation being filled with the various commodities of every country and every climate, the motives and gratifications which stimulate and reward the efforts of the industrious are proportionally augmented. The husbandman and manufacturer exert themselves to increase their supplies of raw and manufactured produce, that they may exchange the surplus for the products imported from abroad. And the merchant, finding a ready demand for such products, is prompted to import a greater variety, to find out cheaper markets, and thus constantly to afford new incentives to the vanity and ambition, and consequently to the enterprise and industry, of his customers. The whole powers of the mind and the body are thus

called into action; and the passion for foreign commodities—a passion which has sometimes been ignorantly censured—becomes one of the most efficient causes of wealth and civilisation.

Not only, however, does foreign commerce excite industry, distribute the gifts of nature, and enable them to be turned to the best account, but it also distributes the gifts of science and of art, and gives to each particular country the means of profiting by the inventions and discoveries of others as much as by those of her own citizen. The ingenious machine invented by Mr. Whitney, of the United States, for separating cotton wool from the pod, by reducing the cost of the raw material of one of our principal manufactures, has been quite as advantageous to us as to his own countrymen. And the discoveries and inventions of Watt, Arkwright, and Wedgwood, by reducing the cost of the articles we send abroad, have been as advantageous to our foreign customers as to ourselves. Commerce has caused the blessings of civilisation to be universally diffused, and the treasures of knowledge and science to be conveyed to the remotest corners. Its humanising influence is, in this respect, most important; while, by making each country depend for the means of supplying a considerable portion of its wants on the assistance of others, it has done more than any thing else to remove a host of the most baleful prejudices, and to make mankind regard each other as friends and brothers, and not as enemies. The dread, once so prevalent, of the progress of other nations in wealth and civilisation, is now universally admitted to be as absurd as it is illiberal. While every people ought always to be prepared to resist and avenge any attack upon their independence or their honour, it is not to be doubted that their real prosperity will be best secured by their endeavouring to live at peace. "A commercial war, whether crowned with victory or branded with defeat, can never prevent another nation from becoming more industrious than you are; and if they are more industrious they will sell cheaper; and consequently your customers will forsake your shop and go to theirs. This will happen, though you covered the ocean with fleets, and the land with armies. The soldier may lay waste; the privateer, whether successful or unsuccessful, will make poor; but it is the eternal law of Providence that *'the hand of the diligent can alone make rich.'*"—(*Tucker's Four Tracts*, p. 41. 3d ed.)

Mr. Hume has beautifully illustrated the powerful and salutary influence of that spirit of industry and enterprise resulting from the eager prosecution of commerce and the arts. "Men," says he, "are then kept in perpetual occupation, and enjoy, as their reward, the occupation itself, as well as those pleasures which are the fruits of their labour. The mind acquires new vigour; enlarges its powers and faculties; and, by an assiduity in honest industry, both satisfies its natural appetites, and prevents the growth of unnatural ones, which commonly spring up when nourished with ease and idleness. Banish those arts from society, you deprive men both of action and of pleasure; and, leaving nothing but indolence in their place, you even destroy the relish of indolence, which never is agreeable but when it succeeds to labour, and recruits the spirits, exhausted by too much application and fatigue.

"Another advantage of industry and of refinements in the mechanical arts is, that they commonly produce some refinements in the liberal; nor can the one be carried to perfection, without being accompanied in some degree with the other. The same age which produces great philosophers and politicians, renowned generals and poets, usually abounds with skilful weavers and ship-carpenters. We cannot reasonably expect that a piece of woollen cloth will be wrought to perfection in a nation which is ignorant of astronomy, or where ethics are neglected. The spirit of the age affects all the arts; and the minds of men, being once roused from their lethargy, and put into a fermentation, turn themselves on all sides, and carry improvements into every art and science. Profound ignorance is totally banished; and men enjoy the privilege of rational creatures, to think as well as to act, to cultivate the pleasures of the mind as well as those of the body.

"The more these refined arts advance, the more sociable do men become; nor is it possible that, when enriched with science, and possessed of a fund of conversation, they should be contented to remain in solitude, or live with their fellow citizens in that distant manner which is peculiar to ignorant and barbarous nations. They flock into cities; love to receive and communicate knowledge; to show their wit or their breeding; their taste in conversation or living, in clothes or furniture. Curiosity allures the wise, vanity the foolish, and pleasure both. Particular clubs and societies are every where formed; both sexes meet in an easy and sociable manner; and the tempers of men, as well as their behaviour, refine apace. So that beside the improvements they receive from knowledge and the liberal arts, it is impossible but they must feel an increase of humanity from the very habit of conversing together, and contributing to each other's pleasure and entertainment. Thus *industry, knowledge, and humanity* are linked together by an indissoluble chain; and are found, from experience as well as reason, to be peculiar to the

more polished, and what are commonly denominated the more luxurious ages."— (*Essay of Refinement in the Arts.*)

Most commercial treatises, and most books on political economy, contain lengthened statements as to the comparative advantages derived from the home and foreign trade. But these statements are almost always bottomed on the most erroneous principles. The quantity and value of the commodities which the inhabitants of an extensive country exchange with each other, is far greater than the quantity and value of those they exchange with foreigners; but this is not, as is commonly supposed, enough to show that the home trade is proportionally more advantageous. Commerce, it must be borne in mind, is not a direct but an indirect source of wealth. The mere exchange of commodities adds nothing to the riches of society. The influence of commerce on wealth consists in its allowing employments to be separated and prosecuted without interruption. It gives the means of pushing the divisions of labour to the furthest extent; and supplies mankind with an infinitely greater quantity of necessaries and accommodations of all sorts, than could have been produced, had individuals and nations been forced to depend upon their own comparatively feeble efforts for the supply of their wants. And hence, in estimating the comparative advantageousness of the home and foreign trades, the real questions to be decided are, which of them contributes most to the division of labour? and which of them gives the greatest stimulus to invention and industry? These questions do not, perhaps, admit of any very satisfactory answer. The truth is, that both home trade and foreign trade are most prolific sources of wealth. Without the former, no division of labour could be established, and man would for ever remain in a barbarous state. Hence, perhaps, we may say that it is the most indispensable; but the length to which it could carry any particular country in the career of civilisation, would be limited indeed. Had Great Britain been cut off from all intercourse with strangers, there is no reason for thinking that we should have been at this day advanced beyond the point to which our ancestors had attained during the Heptarchy! It is to the products and the arts derived from others, and to the emulation inspired by their competition and example, that we are mainly indebted for the extraordinary progress we have already made, as well as for that we are yet destined to make.

Dr. Smith, though he has satisfactorily demonstrated the impolicy of all restrictions on the freedom of commerce, has, notwithstanding, endeavoured to show that it is more for the public advantage that capital should be employed in the home trade than in foreign trade, on the ground that the capitals employed in the former are more frequently returned, and that they set a greater quantity of labour in motion than those employed in the latter. But we have elsewhere endeavoured to show that the rate of profit which different businesses yield is the only test of their respective advantageousness. — (*Principles of Political Economy*, 3d ed. pp. 165—181.) Now, it is quite evident that capital will not be employed in foreign trade, unless it yield as much profit as could be made by employing it at home. No merchant sends a ship to China, if it be in his power to realise a larger profit by sending her to Dublin or Newcastle; nor would any one build a ship, unless he expected that the capital so laid out would be as productive as if it were employed in agriculture or manufactures. The more or less rapid return of capital is a matter of very little importance. If the average rate of profit be 10 per cent., an individual who turns over his capital 10 times a year, will make one per cent. of profit each time; whereas if he turns it only once a year, he will get the whole 10 per cent. at once. Competition reduces the rate of nett profit to about the same level in all businesses; and we may be quite certain that those who employ themselves in the departments in which capital is most rapidly returned, do not, at an average, gain more than those who employ themselves in the departments in which the returns are most distant. No one is a foreign merchant because he would rather deal with foreigners than with his own countrymen, but because he believes he will be able to employ his capital more advantageously in foreign trade than in any other business: and while he does this, he is following that employment which is most beneficial for the public as well as for himself.

IV. RESTRICTIONS ON COMMERCE.

The statements already made, by explaining the nature and principles of commercial transactions, are sufficient to evince the inexpediency of subjecting them to any species of restraint. It is obvious, indeed, that restrictions are founded on false principles. When individuals are left to pursue their own interest in their own way, they naturally resort to those branches of industry which they reckon most advantageous for themselves; and, as we have just seen, these are the very branches in which it is most for the public interest that they should be employed. Unless, therefore, it could be shown that a government can judge better as to what sort of transactions are profitable or otherwise than private individuals, its regulations cannot be of the smallest use, and may be exceedingly injurious. But any such pretension on the part of government would be

universally scouted. It is undeniably certain that a regard to our own interest is, if not an unerring guide to direct us in such matters, at least incomparably better than any other. If the trade with a particular country or in a particular commodity be a losing one, or merely a less profitable one than others, it is quite as unnecessary to pass an act to prevent it from being carried on, as it would be to interfere to prevent individuals from selling their labour or their commodities below the market price. It appears, therefore, that all regulations affecting the freedom of commerce, or of any branch of industry, are either useless or pernicious. They are useless, when they are intended to protect the interest of individuals by preventing them from engaging in disadvantageous businesses; and pernicious, when they prevent them from engaging in those that are advantageous. The self-interest of the parties concerned is the only safe principle to go by in such matters. When the acts of the legislature are in unison with it, there is nothing to object to in them, save only that they might as well not exist; but whenever they are inconsistent with it, — that is, whenever they tend to divert capital and industry into channels into which individuals, if left to their own discretion, would not have carried them, — they are decidedly injurious.

No one denies that it is possible to confer, by means of a restrictive regulation, an advantage on a greater or less number of individuals. This, however, is no proof that it is advantageous in a public point of view; and it is by its influence in this respect that we are to decide concerning it. If the exclusion of an article imported from abroad, in order to encourage its manufacture at home, raise its price in the home market, that circumstance will, for a while at least, be advantageous to those engaged in its production. But is it not clear that all that is thus gained by them is *lost by those who purchase the article*? To suppose, indeed, that the exclusion of commodities that are comparatively cheap, to make room for those that are comparatively dear, can be a means of enriching a country, is equivalent to supposing that a people's wealth might be increased by destroying their most powerful machines, and throwing their best soils out of cultivation.

But it is contended, that though this might be the case in the instance of commodities produced at home, it is materially different when the commodity excluded came to us from abroad. It is said, that in this case the exclusion of foreign produce increases the demand for that produced at home, and consequently contributes to increase the demand for labour; so that the rise of price it occasions is, in this way, more than balanced by the other advantages which it brings along with it. But the fact is, that though the demand for one species of produce may be increased by a prohibition of importation, the demand for some other species is sure to be at the same time equally diminished. There is no jugglery in commerce. Whether it be carried on between individuals of the same country, or of different countries, it is in all cases bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity. Those who will not buy need not expect to sell, and conversely. It is impossible to export without making a corresponding importation. We get nothing from the foreigner gratuitously; and hence, when we prevent the importation of produce from abroad, we prevent, by the very same act, the exportation of an equal amount of British produce. All that the exclusion of foreign commodities ever effects, is the substitution of one sort of demand for another. It has been said, that "when we drink beer and porter we consume the produce of English industry, whereas when we drink port or claret we consume the produce of the industry of the Portuguese and French, to the obvious advantage of the latter, and the prejudice of our countrymen!" But, how paradoxical soever the assertion may at first sight appear, there is not at bottom any real distinction between the two cases. What is it that induces foreigners to supply us with port and claret? The answer is obvious: — We either send directly to Portugal and France an *equivalent in British produce*, or we send such equivalent, in the first place to South America for bullion, and then send that bullion to the Continent to pay for the wine. And hence it is as clear as the sun at noon-day, that the Englishman who drinks only French wine, who eats only bread made of Polish wheat, and who wears only Saxon cloth, gives, by occasioning the exportation of a corresponding amount of British cotton, hardware, leather, or other produce, the same encouragement to the industry of his countrymen, that he would give were he to consume nothing not immediately produced at home. A quantity of port wine and a quantity of Birmingham goods are respectively of the same value; so that, whether we directly consume the hardware, or, having exchanged it for the wine, consume the latter, must plainly, in so far as the employment of British labour is concerned, be altogether indifferent.

It is absolutely nugatory, therefore, to attempt to encourage industry at home by restraining importation from abroad. We might as well try to promote it by interdicting the exchange of shoes for hats. We only resort to foreign markets, that we may supply ourselves with articles that cannot be produced at home, or that require more labour to produce them here than is required to produce the equivalent exported to pay for them. It is, if any thing can be, an obvious contradiction and absurdity to attempt

to promote wealth or industry by prohibiting an intercourse of this sort. Such prohibition, even when least injurious, is sure to force capital and labour into less productive channels; and cannot fail to diminish the foreign demand for one species of produce, quite as much as it extends the home demand for another.

It is but seldom, however, that a restriction on importation from abroad does no more than substitute one sort of employment for another. Its usual effect is both to alter the distribution of capital and to increase the price of commodities. A country rarely imports any commodity from abroad that may be as cheaply produced at home. In the vast majority of instances, the articles bought of the foreigner could not be directly produced at home, without a much greater outlay of capital. Suppose that we import 1,000,000*l.* worth of any commodity, that its importation is prohibited, and that the same quantity of produce cannot be raised in this country for less than 1,000,000*l.* or 1,500,000*l.* in a case of this sort, — and this is actually the case in 99 out of every 100 instances in which prohibitions are enacted, — the prohibition has the same effect on the consumers of the commodity, as if, supposing it not to have existed, they had been burdened with a peculiar tax of 200,000*l.* or 300,000*l.* a year. But, had such been the case, what the consumers lost would have gone into the coffers of the treasury, and would have afforded the means of repealing an equal amount of other taxes; whereas, under the prohibitory system, the high price, being occasioned by an increased difficulty of production, is of no advantage to any one. So that, instead of gaining any thing by such a measure, the public incurs a dead loss of 100,000*l.* or 500,000*l.* a year.

We have said that a prohibition of importation may be productive of immediate advantage to the home producers of the prohibited articles. It is essential, however, to remark that this advantage cannot continue for any considerable time, and that it must be followed by a period of distress. Were the importation of foreign silks put an end to, that circumstance, by narrowing the supply of silk goods, and raising their prices, would, no doubt, be, in the first instance, advantageous to the manufacturers, by elevating their profits above the common level. But the consequence would be, that those already engaged in the trade would immediately set about extending their concerns; at the same time that not a few of those engaged in other employments would enter a business which presented such a favourable prospect; nor would this transference of capital to the silk manufacture be stopped, till such an increased supply of silks had been brought to market as to occasion a glut. This reasoning is not founded upon hypothesis, but upon the widest experience. When a business is carried on under the protection of a restriction on importation, it is limited by the extent of the home market, and is incapable of further extension. It is, in consequence, particularly subject to that fluctuation which is the bane of industry. If, owing to a change of fashion, or any other cause, the demand be increased, then, as no supplies can be brought from abroad, prices suddenly rise, and the manufacture is rapidly extended, until a reaction takes place, and prices sink below their usual level: and if the demand decline, then, as there is no outlet abroad for the superfluous goods, their price is ruinously depressed, and the producers are involved in inextricable difficulties. The businesses deepest entrenched behind ramparts of prohibitions and restrictions, such as the silk trade previously to 1823, the West India trade, and agriculture since 1815, have undergone the most extraordinary vicissitudes; and have been at once more hazardous and less profitable than the businesses carried on under a system of fair and free competition.

A prohibition against buying in the cheapest markets is really, also, a prohibition against selling in the dearest markets. There is no test of high or low price, except the quantity of other produce for which an article exchanges. Suppose that, by sending a certain quantity of cottons or hardware to Brazil, we might get in exchange 150 lbs*l.* of sugar, and that the same quantity, if sent to Jamaica, would only fetch 100 lbs*l.*; is it not obvious, that by preventing the importation of the former, we force our goods to be sold for *two thirds* of the price they would otherwise have brought? To suppose that a system productive of such results can be a means of increasing wealth, is to suppose what is evidently absurd. It is certainly true that a restrictive regulation, which has been long acted upon, and under which a large amount of capital is employed, should not be rashly or capriciously repealed. Every change in the public economy of a great nation ought to be gone about cautiously and gradually. Adequate time should be given to those who carry on businesses that have been protected, either to withdraw from them altogether, or to prepare to withstand the fair competition of foreigners. But this is all that such persons can justly claim. To persevere in an erroneous and oppressive system, merely because its abandonment might be productive of inconvenience to individuals, would be a proceeding inconsistent with every object for which society is formed, and subversive of all improvement.

It may, perhaps, be supposed that in the event of commodities being imported from abroad, after the abolition of a protecting regulation, that were previously produced

at home, the workmen and those engaged in their production would be thrown upon the parish. Such, however, is not the case. We may, by giving freedom to commerce, change the *species* of labour in demand, but it is not possible that we should thereby change its *quantity*. If, in consequence of the abolition of restrictions, our imports were increased 4,000,000*l.* or 5,000,000*l.*, our exports, it is certain, must be augmented to the same extent; so that whatever diminution of the demand for labour might be experienced in certain departments would be balanced by a corresponding increase in others.

The pressure of taxation has often been alleged as an excuse for restrictions on commerce; but it is not more valid than the rest. Taxation may be heavy, and even oppressive; but so long as it is impartially and fairly assessed, it equally effects *all* branches of industry carried on at home, and consequently affords no ground whatever for the enactment of regulations intended to protect any particular business. And to propose to protect *all* branches of industry from foreign competition, is, in effect, to propose to put a total stop to commerce; for if nothing is to be imported, nothing can be exported. The imposition of moderate duties on foreign commodities, for the sake of revenue, is quite another thing. Several of these commodities are among the very best subjects of taxation; and when the duties on them are confined within proper bounds,—that is, when they are not so high as to exert any injurious influence over trade, or to occasion smuggling and fraud,—they cannot fairly be objected to.

It is sometimes contended, by those who assert, on general grounds, that restrictions are inexpedient, that it would be unwise, on the part of any country, to abolish them until she had obtained a security that those imposed by her neighbours would also be abolished. But the reasons that have been alleged in favour of this statement are not entitled to the least weight. It is our business to buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest markets, without being, in any degree, influenced by the conduct of others. If they consent to repeal the restrictions they have laid on commerce, so much the better. But whatever others may do, the line of policy we ought to follow is clear and well defined. To refuse, for example, to buy claret, brandy, &c. from the French, because they lay restrictions on the importation of British hardware, cottons, &c., is not to retaliate upon them, but upon ourselves. The fact that we *do* import French wine and brandy shows that we do export to France, or to some other country to which France is indebted, an equivalent, in some sort, of British produce. The fear of being glutted with foreign products, unless we secure beforehand a certain outlet for our own, is the most unfounded that can be imagined. The foreigner who will take nothing of ours, can send us nothing of his. Though our ports were open to the merchants of all the countries of the world, the exports of British produce must always be equal to the imports of foreign produce; and none but those who receive our commodities, either at first or second hand, could continue to send any thing to us.

“Les Étrangers ne peuvent demander ni désirer rien mieux, que la liberté de vous acheter et de vous vendre chez vous et dans vos colonies. Il faut à leur accorder, non par faiblesse et par impuissance, mais parcequ'elle est juste en elle-même, et qu'elle vous est utile. Ils ont tort sans doute de la refuser chez eux: mais cette faute d'ignorance, dont, sans le savoir, ils sont punis les premiers, n'est pas un raison qui doit vous porter à vous nuire à vous-même en suivant cet exemple, et à vous exposer aux suites et aux dépenses d'une guerre pour avoir la vaine satisfaction d'user des représailles, dont l'effet ne peut manquer de retomber sur vous, et de rendre votre commerce plus désavantageux.”

— (*Le Troisième de l'Ordre Social*, p. 416.)

There are some, however, who contend, that though restrictions on importation from abroad be unfavourable to opulence, and the advancement of individuals and nations in arts and civilisation, they may, notwithstanding, be vindicated on other grounds, as contributing essentially to independence and security. The short and decisive answer to this is to be found in the reciprocity of commerce. It does not enrich one individual or nation at the expense of others, but confers its favours equally on all. We are under no obligations to the Portuguese, the Russians, or any other people with whom we carry on trade. It is not *our* advantage, but *their own*, that they have in view in dealing with us. We give them the full value of all that we import; and they would suffer quite as much inconvenience as we should do were this intercourse put an end to. The independence at which those aspire who would promote it by laying restrictions on commerce, is the independence of the solitary and unsocial savage; it is not an independence productive of strength, but of weakness. “The most flourishing states, at the moment of their highest elevation, when they were closely connected with every part of the civilised world by the golden chains of successful commercial enterprise, were, according to this doctrine, in the most perfect state of absolute dependence. It was not till all these connections were dissolved, and they had sunk in the scale of nations, that their true independence commenced! Such statements carry with them their own refutation. There is a natural dependence of nations upon each other, as there is a natural dependence of

individuals upon each other. Heaven has so ordered it. Some soils, some climates, some situations, are productive exclusively of some peculiar fruits, which cannot elsewhere be profitably produced. Let nations follow this as their guide. In a rich and rising community, the opulent capitalists may be as dependent upon the poor labourers, as the poor labourers upon the opulent capitalists. So it is with nations. The mutual dependence of individuals upon each other knits and binds society together, and leads to the most rapid advancement in wealth, in intelligence, and in every kind of improvement. It is the same, but on a far larger scale, with the mutual dependence of nations. To this alone do we owe all the mighty efforts of commerce; and what lights, what generous feelings, and multiplied means of human happiness, has it not every where spread!" — (*North American Review*, No. 57.)

The principles of commercial freedom, and the injurious influence of restrictive regulations, were set in a very striking point of view by Dr. Smith, in his great work; and they have been since repeatedly explained and elucidated. Perhaps, however, the true doctrines upon this subject have nowhere been better stated than in the petition presented by the merchants of London to the House of Commons on the 8th of May, 1820. This document is one of the most gratifying proofs of the progress of liberal and enlarged views. It was subscribed by all the principal merchants of the metropolis, who did not scruple to express their conviction, that the repeal of every *protective regulation* would be for the public advantage. Such an address, confirming, as it did, the conclusions of science, by the approval of the best informed and most extensive merchants of the world, had a powerful influence over the legislature. During the last 20 years several most important reforms have been made in our commercial system; so that, besides being the first to promulgate the true theory of commerce, we are now entitled to the praise of being the first to carry it into effect. No doubt our trade is still fettered by many vexatious restraints; but these will gradually disappear, according as experience serves to disclose the benefits resulting from the changes already made, and the pernicious operation of the restrictions that are still allowed to continue.

The petition now referred to is too important to be omitted in a work of this sort. It is as follows:—

- "To the Honourable the Commons, &c. The Petition of the Merchants of the City of London,
 "Sheweth,
 "That foreign commerce is eminently conducive to the wealth and prosperity of a country, by enabling it to import the commodities for the production of which the soil, climate, capital, and industry of other countries are best calculated, and to export, in payment, those articles for which its own situation is better adapted.
 "That freedom from restraint is calculated to give the utmost extension to foreign trade, and the best direction to the capital and industry of the country.
 "That the maxim of buying in the cheapest market, and selling in the dearest, which regulates every merchant in his individual dealings, is strictly applicable, as the best rule for the trade of the whole nation.
 "That a policy founded on these principles would render the commerce of the world an interchange of mutual advantages, and diffuse an increase of wealth and enjoyments among the inhabitants of each state.
 "That, unfortunately, a policy the very reverse of this has been and is more or less adopted and acted upon by the government of this and every other country; each trying to exclude the productions of other countries, with the specious and well-meant design of encouraging its own productions; thus inflicting on the bulk of its subjects, who are consumers, the necessity of submitting to privation in the quantity or quality of commodities; and thus rendering what ought to be the source of mutual benefit and of harmony among states, a constantly recurring occasion of jealousy and hostility.
 "That the prevailing prejudices in favour of the protective or restrictive system may be traced to the erroneous supposition that every importation of foreign commodities occasions a diminution or discouragement of our own productions to the same extent; whereas it may be clearly shown, that although the particular description of production which could not stand against unrestrained foreign competition would be discouraged, yet, as no importation could be continued for any length of time without a corresponding exportation, direct or indirect, there would be an encouragement, for the purpose of that exportation, of some other production to which our situation might be better suited; thus affording at least an equal, and probably a greater, and certainly a more beneficial, employment to our own capital and labour.
 "That of the numerous protective and prohibitory duties of our commercial code, it may be proved that, while all operate as a very heavy tax on the community at large, very few are of any ultimate benefit to the classes in whose favour they were originally instituted, and none to the extent of the loss occasioned by them to other classes.
 "That among the other evils of the restrictive or protective system, not the least is, that the artificial protection of one branch of industry or source of production against foreign competition, is set up as a ground of claim by other branches for similar protection; so that if the reasoning upon which these restrictive or prohibitory regulations are founded were followed out consistently, it would not stop short of excluding us from all foreign commerce whatsoever. And the same train of argument, which, with corresponding prohibitions and protective duties, should exclude us from foreign trade, might be brought forward to justify the re-enactment of restrictions upon the interchange of productions (unconnected with public revenue) among the kingdoms composing the union, or among the counties of the same kingdom.
 "That an investigation of the effects of the restrictive system at this time is peculiarly called for, as it may, in the opinion of your petitioners, lead to a strong presumption, that the distress, which now so generally prevails, is considerably aggravated by that system; and that some relief may be obtained by the earliest practicable removal of such of the restraints as may be shown to be most injurious to the capital and industry of the community, and to be attended with no compensating benefit to the public revenue.
 "That a declaration against the anti-commercial principles of our restrictive system is of the more importance at the present juncture; inasmuch as, in several instances of recent occurrence, the merchants and manufacturers of foreign countries have assailed their respective governments with applications for further protective or prohibitory duties and regulations, urging the example and authority of this country, against which they are almost exclusively directed, as a sanction for the policy of such

measures. And certainly, if the reasoning upon which our restrictions have been defended is worth any thing, it will apply in behalf of the regulations of foreign states against us. They insist upon our superiority in capital and machinery, as we do upon their comparative exemption from taxation, and with equal foundation.

"That nothing would tend more to counteract the commercial hostility of foreign states, than the adoption of a more enlightened and more conciliatory policy on the part of this country.

"That although, as a matter of mere diplomacy, it may sometimes answer to hold the removal of particular prohibitions, or high duties, as depending upon corresponding concessions by other states in our favour, it does not follow that we should maintain our restrictions in cases where the desired concessions on their part cannot be obtained. Our restrictions would not be the less prejudicial to our own capital and industry, because other governments persisted in preserving impolitic regulations.

"That, upon the whole, the most liberal would prove to be the most politic course on such occasions.

"That independent of the direct benefit to be derived by this country, on every occasion of such concession or relaxation, a great incidental object would be gained, by the recognition of a sound principle or standard, to which all subsequent arrangements might be referred; and by the salutary influence which a promulgation of such just views, by the legislature and by the nation at large, could not fail to have on the policy of other states.

"That in thus declaring, as your petitioners do, their conviction of the *impolicy and injustice of the restrictive system*, and in desiring every practicable relaxation of it, they have in view only such parts of it as are not connected, or are only subordinately so, with the public revenue. As long as the necessity for the present amount of revenue exists, your petitioners cannot expect so important a branch of it as the customs to be given up, nor to be materially diminished, unless some substitute less objectionable be suggested. But it is *against every restrictive regulation of trade, not essential to the revenue, against all duties merely protective from foreign competition, and against the excess of such duties as are partly for the purpose of revenue, and partly for that of protection*, that the prayer of the present petition is respectfully submitted to the wisdom of parliament.

"May it therefore," &c.

For examples of the practical working and injurious operation of restrictions, see the articles *BORDEAUX*, *CADIZ*, *CAGLIARI*, *COLONY TRADE*, *CORN LAWS* and *CORN TRADE*, *NAFLES*, *TIMBER*, &c., in this Dictionary; the articles on the American Tariff and the French Commercial System in Nos. 96. and 99. of the *Edinburgh Review*; the *petition and Memoire a l'Appui*, addressed, in 1828, by the landowners and merchants of the Gironde to the Chamber of Deputies. &c. &c.

For an account of the doctrines with respect to the *balances of trade*, and the importation and exportation of the precious metals, see the articles *BALANCE OF TRADE*, and *EXCHANGE*.

For an account of the articles exported from and imported into Great Britain, see *IMPORTS AND EXPORTS*.

COMPANIES. In commerce or the arts, a company is a number of persons associated for the purpose of carrying on some commercial or industrious undertaking. When there are only a few individuals associated, it is most commonly called a *copartnery*; the term company being usually applied to large associations, like the East India Company, the Bank of England, &c., who conduct their operations by means of agents acting under the orders of a Board of directors.

Companies have generally been divided into two great classes—exclusive or joint stock companies, and open and regulated companies.

1. *Exclusive or Joint Stock Companies.*—By an institution of this sort is meant a company having a certain amount of capital, divided into a greater or smaller number of transferable shares, managed for the common advantage of the shareholders by a body of directors chosen by and responsible to them. After the stock of a company of this sort has been subscribed, no one can enter it without previously purchasing one or more shares belonging to some of the existing members. The partners do nothing individually; all their resolutions are taken in common, and are carried into effect by the directors and those whom they employ.

According to the common law of England, all the partners in a joint stock company are jointly and individually liable, to the whole extent of their fortunes, for the debts of the company. They may make arrangements amongst themselves, limiting their obligations with respect to each other; but unless established by an authority competent to set aside the general rule, they are all indefinitely responsible to the public. Parliament sometimes limits the responsibility of the shareholders in joint stock companies established by statute, to the amount of the shares they respectively hold. Charters of incorporation granted by the Crown were also, until lately, supposed necessarily to have this effect; but by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 96, the Crown is empowered to grant charters of incorporation by which the members of corporate bodies may be made *individually liable, to such extent, and subject to such regulations and restrictions*, as may be deemed expedient. Hence charters are now frequently granted for the purpose merely of enabling companies to sue and be sued in courts of law, under the names of some of their office-bearers, without in any respect limiting the responsibility of the shareholders to the public. This limitation cannot be implied in a charter any more than in an act of parliament, and will be held not to exist unless it be distinctly set forth.

"In a private copartnery, no partner, without the consent of the company, can transfer his share to another person, or introduce a new member into the company. Each member, however, may, upon proper warning, withdraw from the copartnery, and demand payment from them of his share of the common stock. In a joint stock com-

pany, on the contrary, no member can demand payment of his share from the company; but each member may, without their consent, transfer his share to another person, and thereby introduce a new member. The value of a share in a joint stock is always the price which it will bring in the market; and this may be either greater or less, in any proportion, than the sum which its owner stands credited for in the stock of the company."
—(*Wealth of Nations*, p. 333.)

2. *Utility of Joint Stock Companies.* — Whenever the capital required to carry on any undertaking exceeds what may be furnished by an individual, it is indispensable, in order to the prosecution of the undertaking, that an association should be formed. In all those cases, too, in which the chances of success are doubtful, or where a lengthened period must necessarily elapse before an undertaking can be completed, an individual, though ready enough to contribute a small sum in connection with others, would, generally speaking, be very little inclined, even if he had the means, to encounter the whole responsibility of such enterprises. Hence the necessity and advantage of companies or associations. It is to them that we are indebted for those canals and railways by which every part of the country is intersected, for the formation of so many noble docks and warehouses, for the institution of our principal banks and insurance offices, and for many other establishments of great public utility carried on by the combined capital and energies of large bodies and individuals.

3. *Branches of Industry, for the Prosecution of which Joint Stock Companies may be advantageously established.* — In order to ensure a rational prospect of success to a company, the undertaking should admit of being carried on according to a regular systematic plan. The reason of this is sufficiently obvious. The business of a great association must be conducted by factors or agents; and unless it be of such a nature as to admit of their duties being clearly pointed out and defined, the association would cease to have any effectual control over them, and would be, in a great measure, at their mercy. An individual who manages his own affairs reaps all the advantage derivable from superior skill, industry, and economy; but the agents, and even directors of joint stock companies labour, in most cases, entirely or principally for the advantage of others; and cannot therefore, however conscientious, have the same powerful motives to act with energy, prudence, and economy. "Like," says Dr. Smith, "the stewards of a rich man, they are apt to consider attention to small matters as not for their masters' honour, and very easily give themselves a dispensation from having it. Negligence and profusion, therefore, must always prevail more or less in the management of the affairs of such a company." It also not unrequently happens that they suffer from the bad faith, as well as the carelessness and extravagance of their servants; the latter having in many instances endeavoured to advance their own interests at the expense of their employers. Hence the different success of companies whose business may be conducted according to a nearly uniform system, — such as dock, canal, and insurance companies, railroad companies, &c., — and those whose business does not admit of being reduced to any regular plan, and where much must always be left to the sagacity and enterprise of those employed. All purely commercial companies, trading upon a joint stock, belong to the latter class. Not one of them has ever been able to withstand the competition of private adventurers; they cannot subject the agents they employ to buy and sell commodities in distant countries to any effectual responsibility; and from this circumstance, and the abuses that usually insinuate themselves into every department of their management, no such company has ever succeeded, unless when it has obtained some exclusive privilege, or been protected from competition.

The circumstances now mentioned would seem to oppose the most formidable obstacles to the success of the companies established in this country for the prosecution of mining in America. This business does not admit of being reduced to a regular routine system. Much must always depend on the skill and probity of the agents employed at the mines; and it must plainly be very difficult, if not quite impossible, for directors resident in London to exercise any effectual *surveillance* over the proceedings of those who are at so great a distance. Hence it is not at all likely that these establishments will ever be so productive to the undertakers, as if they had been managed by the parties themselves.

The Abbé Morellet has given, in a tract published in 1769 (*Examen de la Réponse de M. N.*, pp. 35—38.), a list of 55 joint stock companies, for the prosecution of various branches of foreign trade, established in different parts of Europe since 1600, every one of which had failed, though most of them had exclusive privileges. Most of those that have been established since the publication of the Abbé Morellet's tract have had a similar fate.

But notwithstanding both principle and experience concur in showing how very ill fitted a large association is for the purpose of prosecuting commercial undertakings, there are cases in which they cannot be prosecuted except by associations of this sort, and when it may be expedient to grant them certain peculiar privileges. When, owing either to the disinclination or inability of government to afford protection to those engaged in any

particular department of trade, they are obliged to provide for their own defence and security, it is obviously necessary that they should have the power to exclude such individuals as may refuse to submit to the measures, or to bear their due share of the expense, required for the common protection of all. The Russian Company, the East India Company, the Levant or Turkey Company, and most of the other great trading companies which have existed in this country, seem principally to have grown out of a real or supposed necessity of this sort. It was not believed that any safe or advantageous intercourse could be carried on with barbarous countries without the aid of ships of war, factories, interpreters, &c. And as government was not always able or willing to afford this assistance, the traders were formed into companies or associations, and vested with such peculiar privileges as appeared to be necessary for enabling them to prosecute the trade without any extrinsic support. "When," says Dr. Smith, "a company of merchants undertake, at their own risk and expense, to establish a new trade with some remote and barbarous nation, it may not be unreasonable to incorporate them into a joint stock company, and to grant them, in case of success, a monopoly of the trade for a certain number of years. It is the easiest and most natural way in which the state can recompense them for hazarding a dangerous and expensive experiment, of which the public is afterwards to reap the benefit. A temporary monopoly of this kind may be vindicated upon the same principles upon which a like monopoly of a new machine is granted to its inventor, and that of a new book to its author. But upon the expiration of the term, the monopoly ought certainly to determine; the forts and garrisons, if it was found necessary to establish any, to be taken into the hands of government, their value to be paid to the company, and the trade to be laid open to all the subjects of the state." — (*Wealth of Nations*, p. 339.)

It may be doubted, however, whether it be really necessary, even in such a case as that now mentioned, to establish a joint stock company with peculiar privileges, and whether the same thing might not be more advantageously effected by the establishment of an open or regulated company.

4. *Open or Regulated Companies.* — The affairs of such companies or associations are managed by directors appointed by the members. They do not, however, possess a common or joint stock. Each individual pays a fine upon entering into the company, and most commonly an annual contribution: a duty applicable to the business of the company is also sometimes charged upon the goods imported and exported from and to the countries with which they trade. The sums so collected are applied by the directors to fit out ambassadors, consuls, and such public functionaries as may be required to facilitate commercial dealings, or to build factories, maintain cruisers, &c. The members of such companies trade upon their own stock, and at their own risk. So that when the fine, or the sum payable on admission into a regulated company, is moderate, it is impossible for its members to form any combination that would have the effect of raising their profits above the common level; and there is the same keen and close competition amongst them that there is amongst other classes of traders. A regulated company is, in fact, a device for making those engaged in a particular branch of trade bear the public or political expenses incident to it, at the same time that it leaves them to conduct their own business with their own capital, and in their own way.

Should, therefore, government at any time refuse, or be unable to afford, that protection to those engaged in any branch of trade which is necessary to enable them to carry it on, their formation into a regulated company would seem to be the most judicious measure that could be adopted; inasmuch as it would obtain for them that protection which is indispensable, without encroaching on the freedom of individual enterprise.

The African, the Levant, and some other branches of trade, were for a long time conducted by open or regulated companies. These, however, have been recently abolished: the African Company, by the act 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 28.; and the Levant Company, by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 33. The Russia Company still exists. — (See *RUSSIA COMPANY*.)

In so far as relates to protection, it may perhaps be thought, for the reasons given by Dr. Smith, that a joint stock company is better calculated to afford it than a regulated company. The directors of the latter having, Dr. Smith alleges, no particular interest in the prosperity of the general trade of the company, for behoof of which, ships of war, factories, or forts have to be maintained, are apt to neglect them, and to apply their whole energies to the care of their own private concerns. But the interest of the directors of a joint stock company are, he contends, in a great measure identified with those of the association. They have no private capital employed in the trade; their profits must depend upon the prudent and profitable management of the common stock; and it may, therefore, it is argued, be fairly presumed that they will be more disposed to attend carefully to all the means by which the prosperity of the association may be best secured. On the other hand, however, it is seldom that the directors of joint stock companies stop at the proper point; having almost invariably attempted to extend their commercial dealings by force, and to become not only merchants but sovereigns. Nor is this any thing but

what might have been expected, seeing that the consideration and extensive patronage accruing from such measures to the directors is generally of far more importance to them than a moderate increase of the dividends on their stock. Whenever they have been able, they have seldom scrupled to employ arms to advance their projects; and instead of contenting themselves with shops and factories, have constructed fortifications, embodied armies, and engaged in war. But such has not been the case with regulated companies. The businesses under their control have uniformly been conducted in a comparatively frugal and parsimonious manner; their establishments have been, for the most part, confined to factories; and they have rarely, if ever, allowed themselves to be seduced by schemes of conquest and dominion.

And hence, considering them as *commercial machines*, it does not really seem that there can be any doubt as to the superiority of a regulated over a joint stock company. The latter has the defect, for which nothing almost can compensate, of *entirely excluding individual enterprise and competition*. When such a company enjoys any peculiar privilege, it naturally, in pursuing its own interest, endeavours to profit by it, how injurious soever it may be to the public. If it have a monopoly of the trade with any particular country, or of any particular commodity, it rarely fails, by understocking the home and foreign markets, to sell the goods which it imports and exports at an artificially enhanced price. It is not its object to employ a comparatively large capital, but to make a large profit on a comparatively small capital. The conduct of the Dutch East India Company, in burning spices, that their price might not be lowered by larger importations, is an example of the mode in which such associations uniformly and, indeed, almost necessarily act. All individuals are desirous of obtaining the highest possible price for what they have to sell: and if they are protected by a monopoly, or an exclusive privilege, from the risk of being undersold by others, they never hesitate about raising the price of their products to the highest elevation that the competition of the buyers will allow them; and thus frequently realise the most exorbitant profits.

And yet, notwithstanding these advantages, such is the negligence, profusion, and peculation, inseparable from the management of great commercial companies, that even those that have had the monopoly of the most advantageous branches of commerce have rarely been able to keep out of debt. It will be shown in the article *EAST INDIA COMPANY*, that that association has lost by its trade; and that, had it not been for the aid derived from the revenues of India, it must long since have ceased to exist. To buy in one market; to sell with profit in another; to watch over the perpetually occurring variations in the prices, and in the supply and demand of commodities; to suit with dexterity and judgment the quantity and quality of goods to the wants of each market; and to conduct each operation in the best and cheapest manner; requires a degree of unremitting vigilance and attention, which it would be visionary to expect from the directors or servants of a great joint stock association. Hence it has happened, over and over again, that branches of commerce which proved ruinous to companies, have become exceedingly profitable when carried on by individuals.

5. *Constitution of Companies.* — When application is made to parliament for an act to incorporate a number of individuals into a joint stock company for the prosecution of any useful undertaking, care should be taken not to concede to them any privileges that may be rendered injurious to the public. If a company be formed for the construction of a dock, a road, or a canal, it may be necessary, in order to stimulate individuals to engage in the undertaking, to give them some peculiar privileges for a certain number of years. But if other persons were to be permanently hindered from constructing new docks, or opening new lines of communication, a lasting injury might be done to the public. It may be highly expedient to incorporate a company for the purpose of bringing water into a city; but supposing there were no springs in the vicinity, other than those to which this company has acquired a right, they might, unless restrained by the act incorporating them, raise the price of water to an exorbitant height; and make large profits for themselves at the expense and to the injury of the public. In all cases of this sort; and in the case, indeed, of all joint stock companies established for the formation of canals, railroads, &c.; it would be sound policy to limit the rates charged for their services, or on account of the water, ships, goods, &c. conveyed by their means, and also to limit the dividends, or to fix a *maximum* beyond which they should not be augmented: enacting, that if the rates charged by the company produce more than sufficient to pay the maximum rate of dividend, and to defray the wear and tear of the aqueduct, canal, &c., they shall be allowed to reduce them till they only yield this much; and, in the event of their declining to do so, that the whole surplus above paying the dividend shall be applied to purchase up the stock of the association, so that ultimately the charges on account of dividends may be entirely abolished. Had this principle been acted upon when canals first began to be formed in England, the carriage of goods conveyed by some of the most important lines of communication would now have cost almost nothing; and this desirable result might have been accomplished in the way now suggested, with-

out, we believe, diminishing in any degree the number of those undertakings. Probably, however, the better way, in such cases, would be for the legislature to reserve to itself, where it institutes such companies, power periodically to revise these rates of charges. There are few who, at the time they engage in such enterprises, suppose that they will yield more than 10 or 12 per cent. ; and vast numbers will always be disposed to engage in them, if there be any reasonable prospect of their yielding this much. Now, when such is the case, is it not the duty of government to provide, in the event of the undertaking becoming in an *unexpected and unusual degree profitable*, that the public should derive some advantage from it? This is not a case in which competition can reduce profits to the common level. The best, perhaps the only practicable, line for a canal or railroad between any two places will be appropriated by those who are first in the field ; who thus, in fact, obtain a natural monopoly of which they cannot be deprived : and hence the advantage of limiting the charges and dividends : without discouraging enterprise, it affords a security that private individuals shall not reap an unusual and unlooked-for profit at the expense of the public.

In all those cases in which companies are formed for the prosecution of undertakings that may be carried on, with equal advantage to the public, by individuals ; or where there are no very considerable difficulties to overcome, or risks to encounter ; they ought to enjoy no privilege whatever, but should be regarded, in every point of view, as if they were mere individuals.

For accounts of the principal joint stock and regulated companies established in this country, see the articles *BANK OF ENGLAND, DOCKS, EAST INDIA COMPANY, INSURANCE, RUSSIA COMPANY, &c. &c.*

6. *Compagnies en Commandite.* — In France there is a sort of companies denominated *sociétés en commandite*. A society of this description consists of one or more partners liable, without limitation, for the debts of the company ; and one or more partners, or *commanditaires*, liable only to the extent of the funds they have subscribed. A *commanditaire* must not, however, take any part in the business of the company ; if he do this, he loses his inviolability, and makes himself responsible for the debts of the association. The names of the partners in such societies must be published, and the amount of the sums contributed by the *commanditaires*.

It has been proposed to introduce partnerships of this sort into this country ; but it seems very doubtful whether any thing would be gained by such a measure. Partnerships *en commandite* may be very easily abused, or rendered a means of defrauding the public. It is quite visionary to imagine that the *commanditaires* can be prevented from indirectly influencing the other partners ; and supposing a collusion to exist amongst them, it might be possible for them to divide large sums as profit, when, perhaps, they had really sustained a loss ; and to have the books of the association so contrived, that it might be very difficult to detect the fraud. This, it is alleged, is by no means a rare occurrence in France.

7. *Civic Companies, or Corporations.* — Exclusive of the companies previously mentioned, a number of ancient companies or corporations exist in this and most other European countries, the members of which enjoy certain political as well as commercial privileges. When the feudal system began to be subverted by the establishment of good order and regular government in the towns, the inhabitants were divided into certain trades or corporations, by which the magistrates and other functionaries were chosen. The members of these trades, or corporations, partly to enhance the value of their privileges, and partly to provide a resource, in case of adversity, for themselves, acquired or usurped the power of enacting by-laws regulating the admission of new members, and at the same time set about providing a fund for the support of such as accident or misfortune might reduce to a state of indigence. Hence the origin of apprenticeships, the refusal to allow any one not a member of a corporation to carry on any business within the precincts of any town corporate, and the various regulations that had to be submitted to, and the fees that had to be paid by the claimants for enrolment in corporations. For a lengthened period these privileges and regulations were very oppressive. Within the last century, however, their influence has been progressively diminishing. In France, where the abuses inseparable from the system had attained to a very great height, it was entirely swept off by the Revolution : and though corporations still exist in this country, they have been stripped of several of their peculiar franchises ; and should now, for the most part, be regarded more, perhaps, in the light of charitable than of political institutions. It would be well, however, were they reduced entirely to the former character ; and were the few political and commercial privileges, which they still enjoy, communicated to the rest of the citizens. At their first institution, and for some time after, corporations, considered as political bodies, were probably useful ; but such is no longer the case ; and in so far as they now possess any special immunities, they tend to obstruct that free competition that is so advantageous.

The following extract from a *Report on the Commerce and Manufactures of the United*

States, drawn up by Albert Gallatin, Esq., then secretary to the Treasury, and laid before Congress in 1816, sets the superior advantages resulting from the unrestricted freedom of industry in a very striking point of view. "No cause," says he, "has, perhaps, more promoted in every respect the general improvement of the United States, than the absence of those systems of internal restriction and monopoly which continue to disfigure the state of society in other countries. No laws exist here, directly or indirectly, confining men to a particular occupation or place, or excluding any citizen from any branch he may, at any time, think proper to pursue. Industry is, in every respect, free and unfettered; every species of trade, commerce, and profession, and manufacture, being equally open to all, without requiring any regular apprenticeship, admission, or licence. Hence the improvement of America has not been confined to the improvement of her agriculture, and to the rapid formation and settlement of new states in the wilderness; but her citizens have extended their commerce to every part of the globe, and carry on with complete success even those branches for which a monopoly had heretofore been considered essentially necessary."

There is in *Rees's Cyclopaedia*, article *Compass*, a list of the different Civic Companies belonging to the City of London, in which the periods of their incorporation, and various other important particulars with respect to several of them, are specified.

COMPASS (Ger. *Ein Kompass*; Du. *Schkompass*; Da. *Sjökompas*; Sp. *Sjücompass*; Fr. *Boussole*, *Compas de mer*; It. *Bussola*; Sp. *Aguja de marear*; Port. *Compasso de marear*; Rus. *Kompass korabelnüt*), or mariner's compass, an instrument composed of a needle and card, by which the ship's course is directed. The needle, with little variation, always points towards the north; and hence the mode of steering by the compass.

The common opinion is that the compass was invented by Flavio Gioia, a citizen of the once famous republic of Amalphi, very near the beginning of the fourteenth century. Dr. Robertson has adopted this opinion, and regrets that contemporary historians furnish no details as to the life of a man to whose genius society is so deeply indebted. — (*Hist. of America*, vol. I. p. 47. 8vo ed.) But though Gioia may have made improvements on the compass, it has been shown that he has no claim to be considered as its discoverer. Passages have been produced from writers who flourished more than a century before Gioia, in which the polarity of the needle, when touched by the magnet, is distinctly pointed out. Not only, however, had this singular property been discovered, but also its application to the purposes of navigation, long previously to the fourteenth century. Old French writers have been quoted (*Maepherson's Annals of Commerce*, anno 1200; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*), that seem fully to establish this fact. But whatever doubts may exist with respect to them, cannot affect the passages which the learned Spanish antiquary, Don Antonio de Capmany (*Questiones Criticas*, p. 73—132.) has given from a work of the famous Raymond Lully (*De Contemplationibus*) published in 1272. In one place Lully says, "as the needle, when touched by the magnet, naturally turns to the north" (*sicut acus per naturam vertitur ad septentrionem dum sit tacta à magnete*). This is conclusive as to the author's acquaintance with the polarity of the needle; and the following passage from the same work — "as the nautical needle directs mariners in their navigation" (*sicut acus nautica dirigit marinarios in sua navigatione, &c.*) is no less conclusive as to its being used by sailors in regulating their course. There are no means of ascertaining the mode in which the needle Raymond Lully had in view was made use of. It has been sufficiently established — (see the authorities already referred to, and *Azumi, Dissertation sur l'Origine de la Boussole*,) — that it was usual to float the needle, by means of a straw, on the surface of a basin of water; and Capmany contends that we are indebted to Gioia for the card and the method now followed of suspending the needle; improvements which have given to the compass all its convenience, and a very large portion of its utility. But this part of his *Dissertation*, though equally learned and ingenious, is by no means so satisfactory as the other. It is difficult to conceive how mariners at sea could have availed themselves of a floating needle; but, however this may be, it seems most probable that Gioia had considerably improved the construction of the compass; and that, the Amalphitans having been the first to introduce it to general use, he was, with excusable partiality, represented by them, and subsequently regarded by others, as its inventor.

The reader will not consider these details out of place in a work on commerce, which the compass has done so much to extend. "Its discovery," to borrow the language of Mr. Maepherson, "has given birth to a new æra in the history of commerce and navigation. The former it has extended to every shore of the globe, and increased and multiplied its operations and beneficial effects in a degree which was not conceivable by those who lived in the earlier ages. The latter it has rendered expeditious, and comparatively safe, by enabling the navigator to launch out upon the ocean free from the danger of rocks and shoals. By the use of this noble instrument, the whole world has become one vast commercial commonwealth, the most distant inhabitants of the earth

are brought together for their mutual advantage, ancient prejudices are obliterated, and mankind are civilised and enlightened."—(Vol. 1. p. 366.)

COMPOSITION, in commerce, commonly implies the dividend or sum paid by an insolvent debtor to his creditors, and accepted by them in payment for their debts.

CONEY WOOL (Ger. *Kastinchenwolle*; Du. *Konyshair*; Fr. *Poil de lapin*; It. *Pelo di Coniglio*; Sp. *Conejuna*), the fur of rabbits. This article is extensively used in the hat manufacture; and besides the large supplies raised at home, a great deal is imported. The imports usually range from about 300,000 to about 500,000 skins a year.

CONSTANTINOPLE, a famous city of South-eastern Europe, formerly the metropolis of the Eastern, as it still is of the Turkish Empire, on a triangular point or land, on the European side of the Sea of Marmara (Propontis), at the point where it unites with the Bosphorus, or channel leading to the Black Sea, lat. $41^{\circ} 0' 12''$ N., lon. $28^{\circ} 59' 2''$ E. Population variously estimated at from 300,000 to 600,000, but believed, by the best authorities, to be about 450,000. The situation of this renowned city is, in a commercial point of view, one of the finest imaginable. Standing on the narrow straits uniting the Mediterranean and Euxine Seas, she at once commands, and is the *entrepôt* for, the commerce between them. The harbour is most excellent. It consists of an extensive inlet, or arm of the sea, stretching along the north-east side of the city, which it divides from the suburbs of Galata and Pera. It has sufficient depth of water to float the largest ships, and can accommodate more than 1,000 sail. The strong current that sets through the Bosphorus into the sea of Marmara strikes against Seraglio Point—(see Plan); a part of the water, being in consequence forced into the harbour, runs along its south-western side in the direction marked by the arrows—(see Plan), till, arriving at its extremity, it escapes by the opposite side. In the middle the water is still. On leaving the port, it is necessary to keep well over to the northern side; for otherwise the ship might be taken by the current, and driven on Seraglio Point. It may be worth while, however, to remark, that, notwithstanding this inconvenience, the current has been of signal service to the city, by scouring the harbour, and carrying away the filth and ballast by which it must otherwise have been long since choked up. The distance across from Seraglio Point to the opposite suburb of Scutari, on the Asiatic coast, is rather more than an English mile. Within less than $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile of the latter is a rocky islet, upon which is a tower and light-house, known by the name of the Tower of Leander. Foreigners reside in Galata, Pera, and the suburbs on the eastern side of the harbour; and it is there, consequently, that the principal trade of the place is carried on. The quays are good, and ships lie close alongside.

The Bosphorus, or channel of Constantinople, runs in a N. E. by N. direction about 15 miles, varying in breadth from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile. It is swept by a rapid current, which it requires a brisk gale to stem, and has throughout a great depth of water. The Hellespont, or strait of the Dardanelles, leading from the Archipelago to the Sea of Marmara, is about 13 leagues in length. Its direction is nearly N. E. Where narrowest, it is little more than a mile across. It also is swept by a strong current, and has deep water throughout.

The subjoined plan of part of Constantinople and its port is copied, without reduction, from the beautiful plan of the city and Bosphorus, drawn and engraved by M. Merzoff Robert of Munich, and published by Mr. Wilde, of this city.

Nothing can be more imposing than the appearance of the city when seen from the sea, but on landing the illusion vanishes. The streets are narrow, dark, ill-paved, and irregular. Owing to the want of any effective system of police, and of the most ordinary attention to cleanliness, they are extremely filthy; and are infested with herds of dogs, and also with rats, which perform the functions of scavengers. The houses are mostly built of wood, and fires are very frequent. Most of these happen designedly; the burning of a few hundred houses being deemed the readiest and most effectual means of making the government aware of the public dissatisfaction, and of procuring a redress of grievances!

Money.—Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or 120 aspers. The Turkish coin has been so much degraded, that the piastre, which a few years ago was worth $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling, is now worth little more than $\frac{1}{4}$. A bag of silver (*küprü*) = 500 piastres, and a bag of gold (*akçe*) = 30,000 piastres.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are—176 drams = 1 rotolo; 8 478 rotoli = 1 oke; 8 okes = 1 bismian; 74 bismians = 1 quintal, or cantaro = 134 195 (114 very nearly) lbs. avoirdupois = 55 457 kilogrammes = 118 927 lbs. of Hamburg.

The quintal of cotton is 45 okes = 127 9 lbs. avoirdupois.

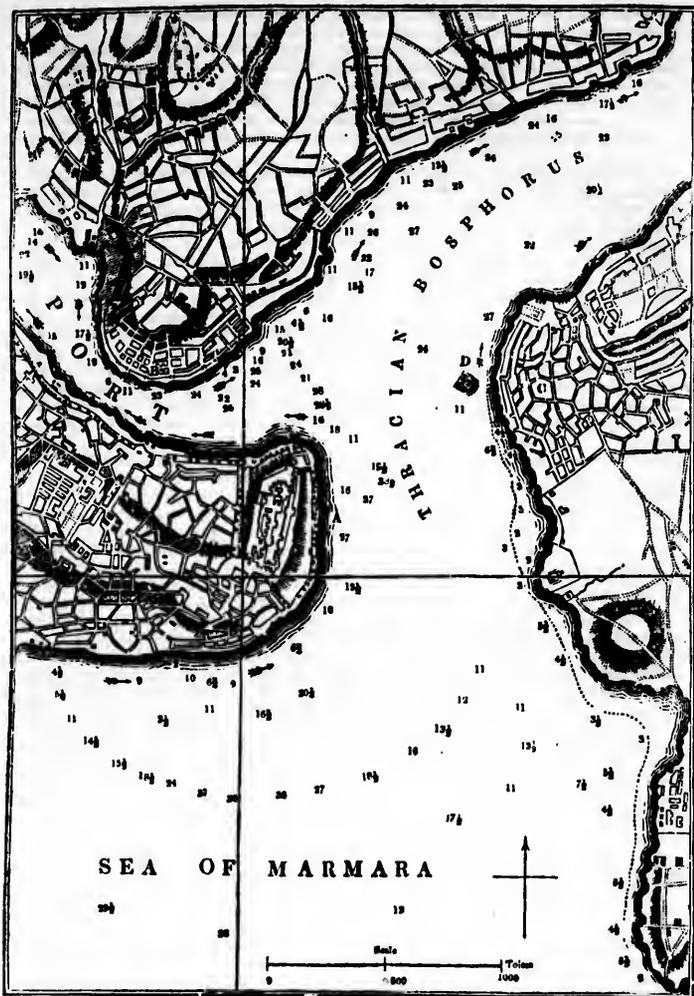
The pik, or pikr, is of two sorts, the greater and the less. The greater, called *halib* or *avastin*, used in the measurement

of silks and woollens, is very near 26 inches (27-9). The lesser, called *endage*, used in the measuring of cottons, carpets, &c. = 27 1/2 inches. Hence 100 long piks = 77 600 English yards, and 100 short piks = 75 154 do. But in ordinary commercial affairs, the pik is estimated at $\frac{1}{4}$ of an English yard.

Corn is measured by the *hikol* or *bidon* = 0 611 of a Winchester bushel; $\frac{1}{2}$ hikol = 1 quarter. The *fortin* = 4 hikols.

Oil and other liquids are sold by the *alon* or *meter* = 1 gallon 3 pints English wine measure. The *alm* of oil should weigh 8 okes. —(Melville's *Travels* and Dr. Kelly.)

The Port Charges on account of English vessels in the harbours of the Ottoman empire are fixed by treaty at 300 aspers, neither more nor less.



References to Plans. — A, Scutlo Point; B, Galata; C, Scutari; D, Tower and light-house of Leander. The arrows show the direction of the currents. The soundings are in fathoms.

Trade, &c. — Owing to the vicious institutions of the Turks, and the disorganised state of the empire, the trade of Constantinople is very far from being so extensive as might be supposed from its situation and population. The imports consist of corn, iron, timber, tallow, and furs, principally from the Black Sea; and of cotton stuffs and yarn, coal, tin, tin plates, woollens, silks, cutlery, watches and jewellery, paper, glass, furniture, indigo, cochineal, &c. from England and other European countries. Corn and coffee are imported from Alexandria; but considerable quantities of Brazil and West India coffee are also imported, particularly in British and American bottoms. Sugar is partly imported from the East, but principally from the West Indies. The exports consist of silk, which is by far the most important article, carpets, hides, wool, Angola goats' hair, yellow berries, boxwood, opium, galls, bullion and diamonds, and a few

other articles. But the exports are always very much less than the imports; and ships carrying goods to Constantinople, either return in ballast, or get return cargoes at Smyrna, Odessa, Salonica, &c., on which places they frequently procure bills at Constantinople. Trade is chiefly in the hands of English, French, and other European merchants (denominated Franks), and of Armenians and Greeks. Bargains are negotiated on their account by Jew brokers, some of whom are rich.

If we formed an estimate of the trade of Constantinople from the number of vessels by which its port is visited, it would appear to be much greater than it really is. This arises from the circumstance of almost all the vessels passing from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea, and from the latter to the former, calling here, where they frequently discharge and take on board part of their cargoes. In 1842 the port was visited by 250 ships from the U. Kingdom, respecting which the consul has supplied the following details.

Vessels.	Tons.
29 of the burden of 19,284 arrived from Liverpool.	
27	5,480
25	84,450
1	158
1	161
11	9,047
11	7,755
35	7,451
250	55,105

The articles imported in the Liverpool vessels were principally British cotton manufactured goods, some woollen goods, colonial produce, and a little iron and tin. In the London vessels East and West India produce, and various descriptions of articles of British manufacture.

Of the 69 vessels from Liverpool—

- 1 touched at Smyra, and delivered a part of her cargo.
- 1 — Smyrna, — — — — —
- 1 — Athens, — — — — —
- 1 — Smyra, — — — — — nearly all their cargoes.

Of the remaining 64 vessels—

- 3 took on a part of their cargoes to Odessa.
- 3 — — — — — Trebizond.
- 3 — — — — — Galatz.

3 took on the whole of their cargoes to Galatz.

Of the 27 vessels from London—

- 3 touched at Smyra, and delivered a part of their cargoes.
- 1 — — — — — Piræus, and delivered a part of her cargo.

Of the remaining 23 vessels—

- 13 took on a part of their cargoes to Odessa.
- 1 took on a part of her cargo to Trebizond.

The quantity of coals brought to this port amounted to 23,260 tons, of which 3,500 were taken on to Trebizond and Sinope, and 1,460 tons to Galatz.

The quantity of iron imported amounted to 3,550 tons. The cargoes from Liverpool may be estimated at an average value of about 15,000*l.* each. Those from London may be estimated at about 10,000*l.* A according to this calculation the value of the importation by the preceding vessels would be as follows:—

69 vessels from Liverpool @ 15,000	1,045,000	
Deduct 1/2 of 3 cargoes landed at Smyra, Smyrna, and Athens	15,500	
Deduct 1/2 of 3 cargoes landed at Smyra	31,500	
Deduct 1/2 of 8 cargoes taken on to Odessa, and 3 to Trebizond	84,750	
Deduct 1/2 of 1 cargo taken on to Galatz	9,000	
Deduct 3/4 whole cargoes taken on to Galatz	54,000	
	132,750	
27 vessels from London @ 10,000	270,000	1,109,250
Deduct 1/2 of 3 cargoes landed at Smyra	15,500	
Deduct 1/2 of 1 cargo landed at the Piræus	5,000	
Deduct 1/2 of 19 cargoes taken on to Odessa and Taganrog	47,500	
	65,533	804,167
1 vessel from Bristol	10,000	
Deduct 1/2 of the cargo landed at Smyra	5,000	5,000

27,260 tons of coals @ 10 <i>l.</i> 1/2 ton	16,160
Deduct 3,500 tons taken to Trebizond and Sinope	1,650
Deduct 1,460 tons taken to Galatz	750
	9,880
3,550 tons of iron @ 7 <i>l.</i> 1/2 ton	26,625
	15,800
	94,500
Total	41,307,087

25 vessels arrived from foreign ports, some with cargoes, others with parts of cargoes, and some in ballast; the value of the merchandise brought by them is not noticed, not being the produce of Great Britain or the colonies, and only affording employment to British shipping.

11 vessels were landed in this port during the year for Great Britain, the articles of Turkish produce known to have been exported in them were as follows:— (It is possible that more may have been exported than what has been declared, but it is not believed to have been of any great amount.)

Silk	bales and cases	2,577
Opium	cases	65
Syras	—	5
Tobacco	—	4
Pipe box is	—	4
Angora goat's wool	bales	5,469
Sheep's wool	—	614
Mohair yarn	—	175
Rafuse silk	—	13
Hare skins	—	21
Ox hides	—	10
Yellow berries	sacks	568
Galls	—	254
Linseed	—	90
Wool (about)	—	18
Horwood (about)	—	159
Yalomen	coats	17
Manila	—	12
Salep	—	66
Copper	pieces	19
Waxes	kilos	45,235

The following goods were also taken to Smyrna by British vessels:—

Borwood (about)	tons	809
Wool	bales	141
Ditto	kintals	200
Sheep skins	skins	75
Lamb ditto	—	37
Pipe sticks	cases	—
Hazel nuts (from Trebizond)	kintals	1,700

1 vessel loaded valones at Panderrum, and another bones at Rodosto, both for England.

3 vessels landed at Galatz and Thralla the following articles for England:—

Wheat (Galatz measure)	kilos	734
Linseed	sacks	545
Yellow berries	—	108
Tallow	hhd. and casks	1,335
Salt beef	—	32
Wool	bales	152
Silk	—	7

3 vessels loaded full cargoes of bones at Galatz, and 2 at Sulina, for England.

Steam Navigation.—Constantinople is now visited by steamers from Trieste, Odessa, the Danube, Smyrna, and other places, and its commerce, as well as that of the empire, has, in consequence, been materially promoted. These steamers principally belong to the Lloyd-Austriaco at Trieste, the Danube Steam Company) on which they are said to reflect the greatest credit.

Commercial Policy of the Turks.—It is singular that as respects commerce, the policy of the Turkish government, whether originating in design or carelessness, is entitled to the highest praise. "No restrictions," says Mr. Thornton, "are laid on commerce, except in the instance of a general prohibition of exporting the articles necessary for the support of human life to foreign countries, especially from the capital, where alone it is rigorously enforced; and this impolitic restraint will no doubt be removed when the Turkish government shall become sensible, that what is intended as the means of securing abundance, is, in fact, the sole cause of that scarcity which is sometimes experienced. With this one exception, commerce is perfectly free and unfettered. Every article of foreign or domestic growth or manufacture is conveyed into every port, and over every province, without any interference on the part of the magistrates, after payment of the duties. On this subject I speak from actual experience, and may appear



The arrows show the organized extensive as corn, iron, and yarn, furniture, and coffee West India Sugar is The exports pol, Angola and a few

to every foreign or native merchant in Turkey for its general truth." — (*Present State of Turkey*, vol. i. p. 82.)

The duties, too, are extremely moderate, being only three per cent. on imports, and as much on exports; so that, in almost all that relates to her commercial regulations, Turkey is entitled to read a lesson to the most civilised European powers; and this she has done in a very able manner, in an official paper published in the *Moniteur Ottoman*, in September, 1832. We extract a few paragraphs from this interesting document.

"It is recognised throughout Europe that it would be useful to the great majority to substitute, for the system of prohibitions, that of liberty, which theoretical men advocate; the difficulty is, to find means to separate the future from the past without a violent rupture. Hence the difficulties of government in satisfying all the exigencies of agriculture, industry, and commerce, driven in a circle where every measure in favour of one acts immediately in an inverse sense on the other. The endeavour is vain to establish, between so many crossing interests, a factitious equilibrium which absolute liberty of exchange alone can give.

"Thus, one of the most important questions which occupies the meditation of statesmen in Europe, is, to discover how the palings which pen commerce up in narrow spaces may be thrown down without shocks that might endanger public order.

"Good sense, tolerance, and hospitality have long ago done for the Ottoman empire, what the other states of Europe are endeavouring to effect by more or less happy political combinations. Since the throne of the sultans has been elevated at Constantinople, commercial prohibitions have been unknown; they opened all the ports of their empire to the commerce, to the manufactures, to the territorial produce of the Occident, or, in say better, of the whole world. Liberty of commerce has reigned here without limits, as large, as extended as it was possible to be.

"Never has the divan dreamed, under any pretext of national interest, or even of reciprocity, of restricting that faculty which has been exercised, and is to this day, in the most unlimited sense, by all the nations who wish to furnish a portion of the consumption of this vast empire, and to share in the produce of its territory.

"Here every object of exchange is admitted, and circulates without meeting any obstacle other than the payment of an infinitely small portion of the value to the Custom-house. The chimera of a balance of trade never entered into heads sensible enough not to dream of calculating whether there was most profit in buying or selling. Thus the markets of Turkey, supplied from all countries, refusing no objects which mercantile spirit puts in circulation, and imposing no charge on the vessels that transport them, are seldom or never the scenes of those disordered movements occasioned by the sudden deficiency of such or such merchandise, which, exorbitantly raising prices, are the scourges of the lower orders, by unsettling their habits, and by inflicting privations. From the system of restrictions and prohibitions arise those devouring tides and ebbs which sweep away in a day the labour of years, and convert commerce into a career of alarms and perpetual dangers. In Turkey, where this system does not exist, these disastrous effects are unknown.

"The extreme moderation of the duties is the complement of this régime of commercial liberty; and in no portion of the globe are the officers charged with the collection, of more confiding facility for the valuations, and of so decidedly conciliatory a spirit in every transaction regarding commerce.

"Away with the supposition that these facilities granted to strangers are concessions extorted from weakness! The dates of the contracts termed capitulations, which establish the rights actually enjoyed by foreign merchants, recall periods at which the Mussulman power was altogether predominant in Europe. The first capitulation which France obtained was in 1535, from Soltiman the Conqueror (the Magnificent). The dispositions of these contracts have become antiquated, the fundamental principles remain. Thus, 300 years ago, the sultans, by an act of munificence and of reason, anticipated the most ardent desires of civilised Europe, and proclaimed unlimited freedom of commerce."

Did the policy of Turkey in other respects harmonise with this, she would be one of the most civilised and powerful of nations, instead of being one of the most abject and degraded. Unfortunately, however, this is very far from being the case. Tyranny, corruption, and insecurity universally prevail. "The cultivator of the soil," says one of her eulogists, "is ever a helpless prey to injustice and oppression. The government agents have to suffer in their turn from the cruelty and rapacity of which they themselves have been guilty; and the manufacturer has to bear his full share of the common insecurity; he is fixed to the spot, and cannot escape the grasp of the local governor. The raw material monopolised by a bey or ayan, may be forced upon him at a higher price than he could purchase it himself, and perhaps of inferior quality; fines may be imposed upon him, he may be taken for forced labour, or troops may be quartered on his workshop." — (*Urquhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 139.)

This miserable system has overspread some of the fairest provinces of Europe and Asia with barbarism — turned their cities into villages, and their palaces into cottages; but the degradation in which they are involved would have been still more complete, but for the freedom of commerce they have always enjoyed. This has tended to keep alive the seeds of industry, and to counteract the destructive influence of oppression and insecurity. Had their intercourse with foreigners been either prohibited, or placed under oppressive restrictions, the barbarism of Turkey would have been completed, and it is difficult to suppose that there could have been either wealth or industry in the empire.

Trade of Turkey with England. — The trade between this country and Turkey is of much greater value and importance than is generally supposed. Cotton stuffs and twist are the great articles of export from Great Britain to Turkey; and notwithstanding the convulsed and distracted state of the latter, she has continued to take off a rapidly increasing amount of these staple articles. In 1825, for example, we exported direct for Turkey, (including what is now the kingdom of Greece), 13,674,000 yards of cotton cloth, and 446,462 lbs. of cotton twist; in 1831, we exported to Turkey (exclusive of the Morea),

24,565,000 yards of cloth, and 1,735,760 lbs. of twist. And in 1840, we exported to Turkey, exclusive of the Morea and of Syria and Palestine, no fewer than 45,000,000 yards cotton cloth, and 8,272,805 lbs. twist and yarn, being an increase in the course of 15 years of nearly 400 per cent. in the exports of stuffs, and of more than 600 per cent. in those of twist and yarn. In consequence, most of the Turkish establishments for the manufacture of cottons, except a few which use English yarn, have been given up. But the great consumption of Turkey consists of home-made fabrics, and hitherto these have been but little interfered with. Most part of the stuffs we send out are what are called plain goods; and if our coarser fabrics should once begin to supersede those made by the Turkish peasantry, it is not easy to say to what degree the demand for them might be extended.

Of the European states, Austria and Switzerland have been our most formidable rivals in the supply of Turkey with cottons. The stuffs were, in several respects, well fitted for the Eastern markets; but owing to the difficulty they lay under of getting returns, and the continued and rapid reduction in the price of English cottons, we seem to have gained a decided advantage over them, and are now nearly in the exclusive possession of the market. Cheapness is every where the grand desideratum. Though our muslins and chintzes be inferior in fineness to those of the East, and our red dye (a colour in great esteem in Turkey, Persia, &c.) be inferior in brilliancy, these defects are more than balanced by the greater cheapness of our goods; and from Smyrna to Canton, from Madras to Samarcand, we are every where supplanting the native fabrics; and laying the foundations of a commerce that will be eminently beneficial to all parties.

Our commerce with Turkey would be considerably facilitated by the farther reduction of the duties on figs, currants, and oil. Nothing, however, would contribute so much to its extension, as the establishment of order and tranquillity throughout the country. But this, we fear, is beyond the ability of the Ottoman government. The abuses which have reduced the empire to its present state of degradation seem to be inherent in the structure of Turkish society, and to be in harmony with the habits and prejudices of the people. If such be the case, reform must come from without, and not from within. But of whatever other advantages a revolution might be productive, it is difficult to believe that it would bring along with it a more liberal system of commercial policy than that which at present exists.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce Imported into the United Kingdom from Turkey, including Continental Greece, but excluding Syria and Palestine, in 1840 and 1841; and of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce exported to the same in 1839 and 1840.

Principal Articles of Import.	1840.		1841.		Principal Articles of Export.	1839.		1840.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.		Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
Flax - - - - - cwt.	17,863	16,823			Coals, culm, and cinders - - - tons	27,707	411,822	27,527	411,047
Woolsey root - - - - - "	86,529	24,929			Custom manufac. entd. by yd. - yds.	45,167,735	333,577	45,000,000	741,880
Olive oil - - - - - gal.	39,099	44,838			Twist and yarn - - - lbs.	5,290,816	108,811	3,472,905	125,774
Opium - - - - - lbs.	50,745	160,906			Earthenware of all sorts - - - pieces	418,428	6,113	652,213	8,180
Indians - - - - - cwt.	24,383	26,972			Iron & steel, wrought & un-w. - tons	8,103	69,720	7,611	66,946
Wine & liquors - - - - - bush.	16,408	267			Iron manufac. entd. by yd. - yds.	79,242	5,228	69,083	3,623
Wool, raw & waste lbs.	120,189	798,628			Machinery and mill-work - - - "	-	10,586	-	19,222
Wool, clean - - - - - "	148,998	1,528			Plates, plated ware, jewellery and watch-bes - - - - - "	-	12,789	-	9,223
Woolen shawls - - - - - no.	173,524	117,729			Sugar, refined - - - - - cwt.	10,585	19,730	23,278	63,609
Woolen shawls - - - - - cwt.	148,998	1,528			Woolen manufac. entd. by piece pce.	10,563	18,553	13,401	20,766
Woolen shawls - - - - - lbs.	405,978	169,534			All other articles - - - - - "	-	99,811	-	59,510
Woolen shawls - - - - - "	658,984	147,569							
							£ 1,178,714		£ 1,158,559

CONSUL, in commerce, an officer appointed by competent authority to reside in foreign countries, in the view of facilitating and extending the commerce carried on between the subjects of the country which appoints him, and those of the country or place in which he is to reside.

Origin and Appointment of Consuls. — The office of consul appears to have originated in Italy, about the middle of the twelfth century. Soon after this, the French and other Christian nations trading to the Levant began to stipulate for liberty to appoint consuls to reside in the ports frequented by their ships, that they might watch over the interests of their subjects, and judge and determine such differences with respect to commercial affairs as arose amongst them. The practice was gradually extended to other countries; and in the sixteenth century was generally established all over Europe. — (*Martens, Præcis du Droit des Gens*, § 147.)

British consuls were formerly appointed by the Crown, upon the recommendation of great trading companies, or of the merchants engaged in the trade with a particular country or place; but they are now directly appointed by government, without requiring any such recommendation, though it, of course, is always attended to when made.

The right of sending consuls to reside in foreign countries depends either upon a

tacit or express convention. Hence their powers differ very widely in different states. In some they exercise a very extensive jurisdiction over the subjects of the state which appoints them; but the extent of this jurisdiction is not discretionary, and must, in all cases, be regulated either by an express convention between the state appointing and the state receiving the consul, or by custom. Consuls established in England have no judicial power; and the British government has rarely stipulated with other powers for much judicial authority for its consuls. Turkey, however, is an exception to this remark. English consuls enjoy in that country several peculiar privileges conferred by ancient treaties, and confirmed by that signed at the Dardanelles in 1809. It is there stipulated and agreed upon—

"That if there happen any suit, or other difference or dispute, among the English themselves, the decision thereof shall be left to their own ambassador or consul, according to their custom, without the judge or other governors, our slaves, intermeddling therein.

"That if an Englishman, or other subject of that nation, shall be involved in any lawsuit, or other affair connected with law, (with a Turk,) the judge shall not hear nor decide thereon, until the ambassador, consul, or interpreter shall be present; and all suits exceeding the value of 4,000 aspers shall be heard at the Sublime Porte, and nowhere else.

"That the consuls appointed by the English ambassadors in our sacred dominions, for the protection of their merchants, shall never, under any pretence, be imprisoned, nor their houses sealed up, nor themselves sent away; but all suits or differences in which they may be involved, shall be represented to our Sublime Porte, where their ambassador will answer for them.

"That in case any Englishman, or other person subject to that nation, or navigating under its flag, should happen to die in our sacred dominions, our fiscal and other officers shall not, upon pretence of his not being known to whom the property belongs, interpose any opposition or violence, by taking or seizing the effects that may be found at his death, but they shall be delivered up to such Englishman, whoever he may be, to whom the deceased may have left them by his will; and should he have died intestate, then the property shall be delivered up to the English consul, or his representative who may be then present; and in case there be no consul, or consular representative, they shall be registered by the judge, in order to his delivering up the whole thereof, whenever any ship shall be sent by the ambassador to receive the same."

Conformably to these capitulations, and the by-laws of the Levant Company, Nos. 89, 40, and 41., the consuls were authorised to administer justice in all cases of contention amongst British subjects within the Turkish dominions; and they were further authorised to send to England, in safe custody, any British subject resident in Turkey, who should decline their jurisdiction, or appeal from them to the courts of the Grand Signior, or of any other potentate. And the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 33. § 4., for the abolition of the Levant Company, expressly provides for the continuance to the consuls appointed by his Majesty, of the same rights and duties of jurisdiction over British subjects in Turkey, that were enjoyed by the consuls appointed by the Company.

At present, therefore, consuls in Turkey enjoy extensive judicial powers; but owing to the freedom of Turkish commerce, and the simplicity of the regulations under which it is carried on, their other functions, with the exception of furnishing statistical details, Mr. Urquhart, whose opinion as to all that respects Turkey is deservedly of considerable weight, seems to think that the judicial powers enjoyed by the European consuls in that country have been productive of much mischief. Still, however, we doubt whether they could be entirely dispensed with in a country so peculiarly situated. But there can be no doubt that it is highly necessary that the greatest care should be taken in the selection of the individuals to whom such powers are intrusted.

Other states have occasionally given to consuls similar powers to those conceded to them in Turkey. Thus, in the treaty between Sweden and the United States of America, ratified on the 24th of July, 1818, it is stipulated that the consuls appointed by either government to reside within the dominions of the other, or their substitutes, "shall, as such, have the right of acting as judges or arbiters in all cases of differences which may arise between the captains and crews of the vessels of the nation whose affairs are intrusted to their care. The respective governments shall have no right to interfere in these sort of affairs, except in the case of the conduct of the crews disturbing public order and tranquillity in the country in which the vessel may happen to be, or in which the consul of the place may be obliged to call for the intervention and support of the executive power, in order to cause his decision to be respected; it being, however, well understood, that this sort of judgment or arbitration cannot deprive the contending parties of their rights of appealing on their return to the judicial authorities of their country."

Duties of Consuls.—The duties of a consul, even in the confined sense in which they are commonly understood, are important and multifarious. It is his business to be always on the spot, to watch over the commercial interests of the subjects of the state whose servant he is; to be ready to assist them with advice on all doubtful occasions; to see that the conditions in commercial treaties are properly observed; that those he is appointed to protect are subjected to no unnecessary or unjustifiable demands in conducting their business; to represent their grievances to the authorities at the place where they reside, or to the ambassador of the sovereign appointing him at the court on which the consulship depends, or to the government at home; in a word, to exert himself to render the condition of the subjects of the country employing him, within the

limits of his consulship, as comfortable, and their transactions as advantageous and secure, as possible.

The following more detailed exposition of the *general duties of a British consul*, is taken from Mr. Chitty's work on *Commercial Law* : —

" A British consul, in order to be properly qualified for his employment, should take care to make himself master of the language used by the court and the magistracy of the country where he resides, so as to converse with ease upon subjects relating to his duties. If the common people of the port use another, he must acquire that also, that he may be able to settle little differences without troubling the magistracy of the place for the interposition of their authority ; such as accidents happening in the harbour, by the ships of his nation running foul of and doing damage to each other.

" He is to make himself acquainted, if he be not already, with the law of nations and treaties, with the tariff or specification of duties on articles imported or exported, and with all the municipal ordinances and laws.

" He must take especial notice of all prohibitions to prevent the export or import of any articles, as well on the part of the state wherein he resides, as of the government employing him ; so that he may admonish all British subjects against carrying on an illicit commerce, to the detriment of the revenues, and in violation of the laws, of either. And it is his duty to attend diligently to this part of his office, in order to prevent smuggling, and consequent hazard of confiscation or detention of ships, and imprisonment of the masters and mariners. — (*Beawes, Lex Merc.* vol. ii. p. 42.)

" It is also his duty to protect from insult or imposition British subjects of every description within his jurisdiction. If redress for injury suffered is not obtained, he is to carry his complaint by memorial to the British minister residing at the court on which the consulship depends. If there be none, he is to address himself directly to the court ; and if, in an important case, his complaint be not answered, he is to transmit the memorial to his Majesty's secretary of state. — (*Beawes, Warden, &c.*)

" When insult or outrage is offered by a British subject to a native of the place, and the magistrate thereof complains to the consul, he should summon, and in case of disobedience may by armed force bring before him the offender, and order him to give immediate satisfaction ; and if he refuse, he resigns him to the civil jurisdiction of the magistrate, or to the military law of the garrison ; nevertheless *always acting as counsellor or advocate at his trial*, when there is question of life or property.

" But if a British subject be accused of an offence alleged to have been committed at sea, within the dominion or jurisdiction of his sovereign, it is then the duty of the consul to claim cognizance of the cause for his sovereign, and to require the release of the parties, if detained in prison by the magistracy of the place on any such accusation brought before them, and that all judicial proceedings against them do instantly cease ; and he may demand the aid of the power of the country, civil and military, to enable him to secure and put the accused parties on board such British ship as he shall think fit, that they may be conveyed to Great Britain, to be tried by their proper judges. If, contrary to this requisition, the magistrates of the country persist in proceeding to try the offence, the consul should then draw up and transmit a memorial to the British minister at the court of that country ; and if that court give an evasive answer, the consul should, if it be a sea offence, apply to the Board of Admiralty at London, stating the case ; and upon their representation, the secretary for the proper department will lay the matter before the king, who will cause the ambassador of the foreign state, resident in England, to write to his court abroad, desiring that orders may immediately be given by that government, that all judicial proceedings against the prisoner be stayed, and that he be released. — (*See Case of Horseman and his Crew, Beawes, vol. ii. p. 422.*)

" It is the duty also of a British consul to relieve all distressed British mariners, to allow them 6d. daily for their support, to send them home in the first British vessels that sail for England, and to keep a regular account of his disbursements, which he is to transmit yearly, or oftener if required, to the Navy Office, attested by two British merchants of the place : this is provided for by positive enactment. — (*1 Geo. 2. s. 2. c. 14. § 12.*) He is also to give free passes to all poor British subjects wishing to return home, directed to the captains of the king's packet boats, or ships of war, requiring them to take them on board. — (*See SEAMEN.*)

" The consul is not to permit a British merchant ship to leave the port where he resides without his passport, which he is not to grant until the master and crew thereof have satisfied all just demands upon them ; and for this purpose he ought to see the governor's pass of a garrisoned town, or the burgomaster's ; unless the merchant or factor to whom the ship was consigned will make himself responsible. — (*Beawes, Lex Merc.* vol. ii. p. 423.)

" It is also his duty to claim and recover all wrecks, cables and anchors, belonging to British ships, found at sea by fishermen or other persons, to pay the usual salvage, and to communicate a report thereof to the Navy Board.

"The consuls and vice-consuls of his Majesty are, by express enactment (46 Geo. 3 c. 98. § 2.), empowered to administer oaths in all cases respecting quarantines, in like manner as if they were magistrates of the several towns or places where they respectively reside. It is also laid down, that a consul is to attend, if requested, all arbitrations where property is concerned between masters of British ships and the freighters, being inhabitants of the place where he resides."—(*Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. i. pp. 58—61., and the numerous authorities there quoted.)

Any individual, whether he be a subject of the state by which he is appointed, or of another, may be selected to fill the office of consul, provided he be approved and admitted by the government in whose territory he is to reside. In most instances, however, but not always, consuls are the subjects of the state appointing them.

Much, however, of the peculiar duties of a consul must always depend on the nature of the intercourse with the country to which he is sent, and of the instructions given him. British consuls are regularly supplied with copies of all acts relating to trade and navigation, quarantine, slave trade suppression, emigration, &c., and with the treaties between this and other countries, and must, of course, shape their conduct accordingly. They are strictly forbidden from corresponding with private parties on public matters. We subjoin an extract from the *General Instructions for British Consuls*.

"He will bear in mind that it is his principal duty to protect and promote the lawful trade and trading interests of Great Britain, by every fair and proper means, taking care to conform to the laws and regulations in question; and whilst he is supporting the lawful trade of Great Britain, he will take special notice of all prohibitions with respect to the export or import of specified articles, as well on the part of the state in which he resides, as of the government of Great Britain, so that he may caution all British subjects against carrying on an illicit commerce to the detriment of the revenue, and in violation of the laws and regulations, of either country; and he will not fail to give to this department immediate notice of any attempt to contravene those laws and regulations.

"The consul will give his best advice and assistance, when called upon, to his Majesty's trading subjects, quieting their differences, promoting peace, harmony, and good-will amongst them, and conciliating as much as possible the subjects of the two countries, upon all points of difference which may fall under his cognisance. In the event of any attempt being made to injure British subjects, either in their persons or property, he will uphold their rightful interests, and the privileges secured to them by treaty, by due representation in the proper official quarter. He will, at the same time, be careful to conduct himself with mildness and moderation in all his transactions with the public authorities, and he will not upon any account urge claims, on behalf of his Majesty's subjects, to which they are not justly and fairly entitled. If redress cannot be obtained from the local administration, or if the matter of complaint be not within their jurisdiction, the consul will apply to his Majesty's consul-general, or to his Majesty's minister, if there be no consul-general in the country wherein he resides, in order that he may make a representation to the higher authorities, or take such other steps in the case as he may think proper; and the consul will pay strict attention to the instructions which he may receive from the minister or consul-general."

Emoluments of Consuls. Prohibition of Trading, &c.—The emoluments of our consuls were, until these few years, principally derived from certain fees, depending on the tonnage, length of the voyages, &c. of the British ships entering and clearing out of the limits of their consularships. But this mode of remunerating them was materially changed by the act of 6 Geo. 4. c. 87. The fees payable under this act—(see *post*)—are but inconsiderable: but the deficiency has been, partly at least, compensated by salaries allowed by government.

At present British consuls are, in some instances, permitted to carry on trade, while in others they are interdicted from having any thing to do with it. The principle on which the distinction is made does not seem very obvious. We observe, for example, that the consul at Petersburg, who must have a great deal to do, is allowed to trade; while the consul at Odessa, whose duties must be much lighter, is denied this privilege. There is the same distinction between the consuls at Venice and Trieste; the latter, whose duties must be the heavier of the two, being allowed to act as a merchant, while the other is not. If this distinction must be kept up, the preferable plan would seem to be to interdict all consuls resident at the great ports, and those resident at other ports, principally in the character of political agents, from trading; and to permit it to others. The public duties of the former are either quite sufficient wholly to engross their attention, or they are of such a kind as would make it very inexpedient for those employed in them to be occupied in mercantile pursuits; in the case of the smaller class of ports, but little frequented by British ships, and where the consuls have no peculiar political functions to discharge, there is a less urgent necessity for prohibiting them from carrying on business on their own account. At the same time, however, we are clearly of opinion that it would in all cases be better not to allow consuls to engage, either directly or indirectly, in any sort of industrious undertaking. The main end and purpose of their institution is the facilitating of commerce with the nation in which they reside; and in furtherance of such object they ought, on all occasions, to communicate the fullest and earliest information to their power touching commercial matters, not only to the government that appoints them, but to such of its subjects as may apply for their advice and assistance. But, however advantageous publicity may be to others, it may in various ways be extremely hostile to the interests of the consul considered in his capacity of a merchant; and, when his own advantage and his public duty are set in opposition, it requires little sagacity to discover

which will have the ascendancy. Hence the fair presumption is, that a trading consul will rather endeavour to profit by the peculiar information his situation may enable him to obtain, than to communicate it to others. His interests as a merchant must frequently, also, even when such is not really the case, appear to be in opposition to those of the parties for whose behoof he is said to be appointed; and under such circumstances, his proceedings, however fair, will always be liable to the suspicion of partiality. It is material, also, to observe that mercantile consuls labour under peculiar disadvantages in the obtaining of information. If a consul, not engaged in business, make a proper application to a public functionary, or merchant, for information as to any subject with which they may be acquainted, he will, in most instances, learn all that they know. But it is obvious, on general principles, and we have been assured of the fact by some of the most intelligent officers of the class, that if a trading consul make the same application, the chances are 10 to 1 he will either learn nothing, or nothing that is not false or misleading. The inquiries of the former excite no jealousy, those of the latter invariably do. The former is known to be actuated only by a feeling of liberal curiosity, or by a wish properly to discharge his public duties; but the latter, being engaged in business, gets credit only for selfish and interested motives, and is believed to be seeking the information merely that he may turn it to his own account. A mercantile consul is, therefore, uniformly the object of the suspicions of all parties, both of his countrymen, and of the foreigners amongst whom he resides. Instead of being, as he ought to be, an independent public functionary, he necessarily gets entangled in the cabals and intrigues of those whose differences it is his province to conciliate. He is tempted, also, to engage in smuggling adventures, contrary to his duty, and highly injurious to the character of his nation. And though he should be proof against temptations of this sort, he is, like all other individuals, subject to misfortune and bankruptcy; and may, in this way, bring discredit and embarrassment on the government that appoints him. These reasons seem to be far more than sufficient to vindicate the policy of interdicting consuls from trading. But were it otherwise, it is enough to decide the question to state, that if they be made properly to perform the functions of their office, it will occupy every moment of their time. To the argument in favour of the existing system derived from economical considerations, we do not attach the smallest weight. To attempt to save a few thousand pounds by allowing an important class of public functionaries to engage in avocations inconsistent with their duty, and destructive of their utility, would be something the very reverse of economy.

Cost of the Establishment. Improvements made in it.— We had occasion, in the former edition of this work, to complain of the cost and inadequacy of our consular establishment. But its expense has since been very much, and, in some instances perhaps, too much, reduced; and at the same time that measures have been taken for increasing the duties of the consuls, by making them furnish details as to the trade, manufactures, duties, prices, &c. of the districts in which their consulships are situated. Hitherto this important department of what ought to be the peculiar duty of a consul has been most strangely neglected; but if it be properly attended to, it will occupy a large portion of the consul's time, and will be a field for the display of superior talents. Some of the answers made by the consuls to the *Circular Queries* prepared for the former edition of this work were drawn up with great care and intelligence, and reflected much credit on their authors. There were a good many certainly of a very inferior description; but this is not to be wondered at— it being hardly possible for those who have not given a good deal of their time to such subjects, to make a proper reply to queries relating to them. And if the system is to be perfected to the degree of which it is susceptible, the salaries allowed to the consuls ought to be such as to afford a sufficient remuneration for the services of gentlemen of character, familiar with the principles of public law, commerce, and statistics; and such only ought to be nominated to consular situations. We subjoin that part of the *General Instructions for the Consuls* that has reference to statistical inquiries.

"The consul will forward to the secretary of state, in duplicate, so soon as the information he can collect will enable him so to do, but at any rate within a period of 6 months from the date of his arrival at his residence, a general Report on the trade of the place and district, specifying the commodities, as well of the export as import trade, and the countries which supply the latter, together with the increase or decline in late years, and the probable increase or decline to be expected, and the causes in both cases. He will state the general regulations with respect to trade at the place where he is resident, and their effects. He will give the average market prices within the year of the several articles of export and import; he will particularise what articles, if any, are absolutely prohibited to be imported into the country wherein he resides; what articles are prohibited to be imported from any other places than from the places of their growth or production; whether there be any privileges of importation, and what those privileges are, in favour of ships that are of the bulk of, or belonging to, the country wherein he resides; whether there be any difference in the duty on goods when imported into that country in a foreign ship, and if so, whether it be general, or applicable only to particular articles; what are the rates of duty payable on goods imported into the said country; whether there be any tonnage duty or other port dues, and what, payable on shipping entering at, or clearing from, the ports

of that country; whether there be any (and, if so, what) ports in that country wherein goods may be warehoused on importation, and afterwards exported with or without payment of any duties, and under what regulations."

He is also to transmit an annual statement of the trade with the principal ports of his consulships; and quarterly returns of the prices of corn, &c. Mr. Maegregor's Tariffs have been mostly compiled from these returns.

The following are the provisions of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 87. with respect to the salaries and charges of consuls:—

Salaries to Consuls.—"Whereas the provision which hath hitherto been made for the maintenance and support of the consuls general and consuls appointed by his Majesty to reside within the dominions of sovereigns and foreign states in amity with his Majesty, is inadequate to the maintenance and support of such consuls general and consuls, and it is expedient to make further and due provisions for that purpose; it is therefore enacted, that it shall be lawful for his Majesty, by any orders to be issued by the advice of his privy council, to grant to all or any of the consuls general or consuls appointed by his Majesty to reside within any of the dominions of any sovereign or foreign state or power in amity with his Majesty, such reasonable salaries as to his Majesty shall seem meet, and by such advice from time to time to alter, increase, or diminish any such salaries or salary as occasion may require.—(6 Geo. 4. c. 87. § 1.)

Terms on which Salaries shall be granted. Leave of Absence.—Such salaries shall be issued and paid to such consuls general and consuls without fee or deduction; provided that all such salaries be granted during his Majesty's pleasure, and not otherwise, and be held and enjoyed by such consuls general and consuls so long only as they shall be actually resident at the places at which they may be so appointed to reside, and discharging the duties of such their offices: provided nevertheless, that in case his Majesty shall, by any order to be for that purpose issued through one of his principal secretaries of state, grant to any such consul general or consul of absence from the place to which he may be so appointed, such consul general or consul shall be entitled to receive the whole, or such part as to his Majesty shall seem meet, of the salary accruing during such period of absence.—§ 2.

Salaries in lieu of Fees formerly paid. Consuls not to take other than the Fees hereinafter mentioned.—The salaries so to be granted shall be taken by the consuls general and consuls as a compensation for all salaries heretofore granted, and all fees of office and gratuities heretofore taken by them from the masters or commanders of British vessels, or from any other persons, for any duties or services by such consuls general or consuls done or performed for any such persons; and no such consul general or consul shall, from the 1st of January, 1826, be entitled, on account of any thing by him done in the execution of such his office, or for any service by him rendered to any masters or commanders of British vessels, or to any other person in the execution of such his office, to ask or take any fees, recompence, gratuity, compensation, or reward, or any sum of money, save as hereinafter is excepted.—§ 3.

Certain Fees still allowed to be taken.—It shall be lawful for all consuls general and consuls appointed by his Majesty, and resident within the dominions of any sovereign, or any foreign state or power in amity with his Majesty, to accept the several fees particularly mentioned in the tables to this present act annexed, marked with the letters A and B, for the several things and official acts and deeds particularly mentioned in the said schedules; and it shall be lawful for his Majesty, by any orders to be by him made, by the advice of his privy council, from time to time, as occasion may require, to diminish, or wholly to abolish, all or any of the fees aforesaid, and to establish and authorise the payment of any greater or smaller or new or additional fees for the several things mentioned in the said schedules, or for any other thing to be by any such consul general or consul done in the execution of such his office.—§ 4.

Penalty on Consuls demanding more Fees than specified in the Schedule.—In case any consul general or consul appointed by his Majesty as aforesaid shall, by himself or deputy, or by any person authorised thereto in his behalf, ask or accept, for any thing by him done in the execution of such his office, or for any service or duty by him rendered or performed in such his office, for any person whomsoever, any other or greater fee or remuneration than is specified in the schedule, or than shall be sanctioned and specified in or by any such order in council, the person so offending shall forfeit and become liable to pay to his Majesty any sum of sterling British money, not exceeding the amount of the salary of such person for 1 year, nor less than the 12th part of such annual salary, at the discretion of the court in which such penalty may be recovered; and shall moreover upon a second conviction for any such offence forfeit such his office, and for ever after become incapable of serving his Majesty in the same or the like capacity.—§ 5.

Table of Fees to be exhibited at Custom-houses.—A printed copy of the tables of fees allowed by this act, or which may be sanctioned or allowed by any order to be made in pursuance of this act by his Majesty in council, shall be exhibited in a conspicuous manner, for the inspection of all persons, in the Custom-house in the port of London, and in all other Custom-houses in the several ports and harbours of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and printed copies thereof shall, by the collector or other chief officer of customs in all such ports and harbours, be delivered gratuitously, and without fee or reward, to every master of any vessel clearing out of any such port or harbour, and demanding a copy thereof.—§ 6.

Table of Fees to be exhibited at Consuls' Offices.—A copy of the schedule or table of fees to this present act annexed, or which may be established and authorised by any such order in council, shall be hung up and exhibited in a conspicuous place in the public offices of all consuls general or consuls appointed by his Majesty, in the foreign places to which they may be so appointed, for the inspection of all persons interested therein; and any consul general or consul omitting or neglecting to exhibit any such copy of the schedules in such his public office, or refusing to permit the same to be inspected by any person interested therein, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay a sum of British sterling money not exceeding one half the amount of the salary of such person for 1 year, nor less than the 12th part of such annual salary, at the discretion of the court in which such penalty may be recovered.—§ 7.

Superannuation.—"And whereas it is expedient that his Majesty should be enabled to grant to the said consuls general and consuls, appointed as aforesaid, allowances in the nature of superannuation, or reward for meritorious public services; it is further enacted, that all the regulations contained in 50 Geo. 3. c. 117. 3 Geo. 4. c. 113. 5 Geo. 4. c. 104., respecting superannuation allowances, are hereby extended to the said consuls general and consuls, so far as such regulations can be applied to the case; of such several persons respectively, as fully to all intents and purposes as if the same were repeated and re-enacted in this present act.—§ 8.

Allowances during War.—If it shall at any time happen that by reason of any war which may hereafter arise between his Majesty and any sovereign, or foreign state or power, within the dominions of whom any such consul general or consul shall be appointed to reside, he shall be prevented from residing, and shall in fact cease to reside, at the place to which he may be so appointed, it shall be lawful for his Majesty, by any order to be issued by the advice of his privy council, to grant to any such consul general or consul who may have served his Majesty in that capacity for any period not less than 2 years, nor more than 10 years next preceding the commencement of any such war, a special allowance not exceeding the proportion of their respective salaries to which such consuls general and consuls would be entitled

under the provisions of the said act of 3 Geo. 4., in case the period of their respective service had exceeded 10 years and had not exceeded 15 years; provided that in case any such consul general or consul shall have served in such his office for the space of 10 years and more, it shall be lawful for His Majesty, by any such order in council as aforesaid, to grant to him such a proportion of his salary, which, by the said act is authorised to be granted, as a superannuation allowance, according to the several periods of service exceeding 10 years, in the said act.—§ 9.

Commencement.—This act shall take effect from the 1st of January, 1826, except where any other commencement is particularly directed.—§ 22.

Table of Fees allowed to be taken by Consuls General and Consuls, by the preceding Act 3 Geo. 4. c. 87.

Table A.—Certificate of due landing of goods exported from the United Kingdom 2 dollars.
 Signature of ship's manifest 2 do.
 Certificate of origin, when required 2 do.
 Bill of health, when required 2 do.
 Signature of master-coal, when required 2 do.
 Attestation of a signature, when required 1 do.
 Administering an oath, when required 1 do.
 Seal of office, and signature of any other document not specified herein, when required 1 do.

Table B.—Bottomry or arbitration bond 2 do.
 Noting a protest 1 do.
 Order of survey 2 do.
 Extending a protest or survey 1 do.

Registrations 1 dollar.
 Visa of passport 2 do.
 Valuation of goods 1 percent.
 Attending sales, 2 per cent. where there has been a charge for valuing; otherwise, 1 per cent.
 Attendance out of consular office at a shipwreck, 5 dollars per diem for his personal expenses, over and above his travelling expenses.
 Ditto on opening a will 5 dollars.
 Management of property of British subjects dying intestate 2 1/2 per cent.

The dollars mentioned in the preceding tables are in all cases to be paid by the delivery of dollars, such of which is to be of the value of 4s. 6d. sterling, and no more, according to the rate of exchange prevailing at the place where such payment is made.

CONTRABAND, in commerce, a commodity prohibited to be exported or imported, bought or sold.

CONTRABAND is also a term applied to designate that class of commodities which neutrals are not allowed to carry during war to a belligerent power.

It is a recognised general principle of the law of nations, that ships may sail to and trade with all kingdoms, countries, and states in peace with the princes or authorities whose flags they bear; and that they are not to be molested by the ships of any other power at war with the country with which they are trading, unless they engage in the conveyance of *contraband* goods. But great difficulty has arisen in deciding as to the goods comprised under this term. The reason of the limitation suggests, however, the species of articles to which it principally applies. It is indispensable that those who profess to act upon a principle of neutrality, should carefully abstain from doing any thing that may discover a bias in favour of either party. But a nation who should furnish one of the belligerents with supplies of warlike stores, or with supplies of any article, without which that belligerent might not be able to carry on the contest, would obviously forfeit her neutral character; and the other belligerent would be warranted in preventing such succours from being sent, and confiscating them as lawful prize. All the best writers on international law admit this principle; which, besides being enforced during every contest, has been sanctioned by repeated treaties. In order to obviate all disputes as to what commodities should be deemed contraband, they have sometimes been specified in treaties or conventions.—(See the references in *Lampredi del Commercio de' Popoli Neutrali*, § 9.) But this classification is not always respected during hostilities; and it is sufficiently evident that an article which might not be contraband at one time, or under certain circumstances, may become contraband at another time, or under different circumstances. It is admitted on all hands, even by M. Hubner, the great advocate for the freedom of neutral commerce—(*De la Saisie des Bâtimens Neutres*, tom. i. p. 193.)—that every thing that may be made *directly available* for hostile purposes is contraband, as arms, ammunition, horses, timber for ship-building, and all sorts of naval stores. The greatest difficulty has occurred in deciding as to provisions, which are sometimes held to be contraband, and sometimes not. Lord Stowell has shown that the *character of the port* to which the provisions are destined, is the principal circumstance to be attended to in deciding whether they are to be looked upon as contraband. A cargo of provisions intended for an enemy's port, in which it was known that a warlike armament was in preparation, would be liable to arrest and confiscation; while, if the same cargo were intended for a port where none but merchantmen were fitted out, the most that could be done would be to detain it, paying the neutral the same price for it he would have got from the enemy.

By the ancient law of Europe, a ship conveying any contraband article was liable to confiscation as well as the article. But in the modern practice of the courts of admiralty of this and other countries, a milder rule has been adopted, and the carriage of contraband articles is attended only with the loss of freight and expenses, unless when the ship belongs to the owner of the contraband cargo, or when the simple misconduct of conveying such a cargo has been connected with other malignant and aggravating circumstances. Of these a false destination and false papers are justly held to be the worst.—(*5 Rob. Adm. Rep. 275.*)

The right of visitation and search is a right inherent in all belligerents; for it would be absurd to allege that they had a right to prevent the conveyance of contraband goods to an enemy, and to deny them the use of the only means by which they can give effect to such right.—(*Vattel*, book iii. c. 7. § 114.) The object of the search is twofold: *first*, to ascertain whether the ship is neutral or an enemy, for the circumstance of its hoisting a neutral flag affords no security that it is really such; and, *secondly*, to ascertain

whether it has contraband articles, or enemies' property, on board. All neutral ships that would navigate securely during war must, consequently, be provided with passports from their government, and with all the papers or documents necessary to prove the property of the ship and cargo — (see *SHIP'S PAPERS*); and they must carefully avoid taking any contraband articles or belligerent property on board. And hence, as Lampredi has observed, a merchant ship which seeks to avoid a search by crowding sail, or by open force, may justly be captured and subjected to confiscation. — (§ 12.)

It has, indeed, been often contended that *free ships make free goods* (*que le pavillon couvre la marchandise*), and that a belligerent is not warranted in seizing the property of an enemy in a neutral ship, unless it be contraband. The discussion of this important question would lead us into details which do not properly come within the scope of this work. We may, however, shortly observe, that no such privilege could be conceded to neutrals, without taking from belligerents the right, inseparable from a state of war, of seizing an enemy's property if found in places where hostilities may be lawfully carried on, as on the high seas. In fact, were the principle in question admitted, the commerce of a belligerent power with its colonies, or other countries beyond sea, might be prosecuted in neutral ships, with as much security during war as in peace; so that neutrals would, in this way, be authorised to render a belligerent more important assistance than, perhaps, they could have done had they supplied him with troops and ammunition! But it is surely unnecessary to say, that to act in this way is a proceeding altogether at variance with the idea of neutrality. Neutrals are bound to conduct themselves in the *spirit of impartiality*; and must not afford such aid or assistance to one party, as may the better enable him to make head against the other. It is their duty "*non interponere se bello, non hoste imminente hostem eripere.*" And yet it is manifest that the lending of neutral bottoms to carry on a belligerent's trade is in direct contradiction to this rule. The ships or cruisers of a particular power may have swept those of its enemy from the sea, and reduced him to a state of great difficulty, by putting a stop to his commerce with foreigners, or with his own colonies; but of what consequence would this be, if neutrals might step in to rescue him from such difficulties, by carrying on that intercourse for him which he can no longer carry on for himself? It is natural enough that such a privilege should be coveted by neutrals: but, however advantageous to them, it is wholly subversive of the universally admitted rights of belligerent powers, as well as of the principles of neutrality; and cannot, therefore, be truly said to be bottomed on any sound principle.

In the war of 1756, the rule was laid down by Great Britain, that neutrals are not to be allowed to carry on a trade during war, that they were excluded from during peace; so that, supposing a nation at war with Great Britain had, while at peace, prohibited foreigners from engaging in her colonial or coasting trade, we should not have permitted neutrals to engage in it during war. This rule has been much complained of; but the principle on which it is founded seems a sound one, and it may in most cases be safely adopted. The claims of neutrals cannot surely be carried further than that they should be allowed to carry on their trade during war, as they had been *accustomed* to carry it on during peace, except with places under blockade; but it is quite a different thing when they claim to be allowed to employ themselves, during war, in a trade in which they had not previously any right to engage. To grant them this, would not be to preserve to them their former rights, but to give them new ones which may be fairly withheld. Supposing, however, that either of the belligerent powers has *force sufficient to prevent any intercourse between the other and its colonies, or any intercourse between different parts of the other*, she might, in the exercise of the legitimate rights of a belligerent, exclude neutrals from such trade, even though it had formerly been open to them; because otherwise she would be deprived of the advantage of her superior force; and the neutrals would, in fact, when employed in this way, be acting as the most efficient allies of her enemy.

For a full discussion of this important and difficult question, and of the various distinctions to which it gives rise, see the work of Hubner (*De la Soaite des Bâtimens Neutres*, 2 tomes, 12mo. 1757), in which the different arguments in favour of the principle that "the flag covers the cargo," are stated with great perspicuity and talent. The opposite principle has been advocated by Lampredi, in his very able treatise *Del Commercio de' Popoli Neutrali*, § 10.; by Lord Liverpool, in his *Discourse on the Conduct of Great Britain in respect to Neutrals*, written in 1757; and, above all, by Lord Stowell, in his justly celebrated decisions in the Admiralty Court. Martens inclines to Hubner's opinion. — (See *Précis du Droit des Gens*, liv. 8. c. 7.)

CONVOY, in navigation, the term applied to designate a ship or ships of war, appointed by government, or by the commander in chief on a particular station, to escort or protect the merchant ships proceeding to certain ports. Convoys are mostly appointed during war; but they are sometimes, also, appointed during peace, for the security of ships navigating seas infested with pirates.

Individuals have not always been left to themselves to judge as to the expediency of sailing with or without convoy. The governments of most maritime states have thought proper, when they were engaged in hostilities, to oblige their subjects to place themselves under an escort of this sort, that the enemy might not be enriched by their capture. Acts to this effect were passed in this country during the American war and the late French war. The last of these acts (43 Geo. 3. c. 57.) enacted, that it should not be lawful for any ship belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects (except as therein provided) to depart from any port or place whatever, unless under such convoy as should be appointed for that purpose. The master was required to use his utmost endeavours to continue with the convoy during the whole voyage, or such part thereof as it should be directed to accompany his ship; and not to separate therefrom without leave of the commander, under very heavy pecuniary penalties. And in case of any ship departing without convoy contrary to the act, or wilfully separating therefrom, all insurances on the ship, cargo, or freight, belonging to the master, or to any other person directing or privy to such departure or separation, were rendered null and void. The customs officers were directed not to allow any ship that ought to sail with convoy to clear out from any place in the U. Kingdom for foreign parts, without requiring from the master, bond with one surety, with condition that the ship should not depart without convoy, nor afterwards desert or wilfully separate from it. The regulations of this act did not extend to ships not requiring to be registered, nor to those licensed to sail without convoy, nor to those engaged in the coasting trade, nor to those belonging to the East India Company, &c.

It is very common, during periods of war, to make *sailing or departing with convoy* a condition in policies of insurance. This, like other warranties in a policy, must be *strictly* performed. And if a ship warranted to sail with convoy, sail without it, the policy becomes void, whether this be imputable to any negligence on the part of the insured, or the refusal of government to appoint a convoy.

There are five things essential to sailing with convoy: *viz. first*, it must be with a regular convoy under an officer appointed by government; *secondly*, it must be from the place of rendezvous appointed by government; *thirdly*, it must be a convoy for the voyage; *fourthly*, the master of the ship must have sailing instructions from the commanding officer of the convoy; and *fifthly*, the ship must depart and continue with the convoy till the end of the voyage, unless separated by necessity.

With respect to the third of these conditions we may observe, that a warranty to sail with convoy generally means a *convoy for the voyage*; and it is not necessary to add the words "for the voyage" to make it so. Neither will the adding of these words in some instances, make the omission of them, in any case, the ground of a different construction. A warranty to sail with convoy does not, however, uniformly mean a convoy that is to accompany the ship insured the entire way from the port of departure to her port of destination; but such convoy as government may think fit to appoint as a sufficient protection for ships going the voyage insured, whether it be for the whole or only a part of the voyage.

Sailing instructions, referred to in the fourth condition, are written or printed directions delivered by the commanding officer of the convoy to the several masters of the ships under his care, that they may understand and answer signals, and know the place of rendezvous appointed for the fleet in case of dispersion by storm, or by an enemy, &c. These sailing instructions are so very indispensable, that no vessel can have the full protection and benefit of convoy without them: hence, when, through the negligence of the master, they are not obtained, the ship is not said to have sailed with convoy; and a warranty in a policy of insurance to that effect is held not to be complied with. If, however, the master do all in his power to obtain sailing instructions, but is prevented from obtaining them by any insuperable obstacle, as the badness of the weather; or if they be refused by the commander of the convoy; the warranty in the policy is held to be complied with.

For further information as to convoy, see *Abbot on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.; *Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 9. § 5., and the *Act 43 Geo. 3. c. 57.*, &c.

COPAIVA. See BALSAM.

COPAL, improperly called gum copal, is a valuable and singular kind of resin, that naturally exudes from different large trees, and is imported partly from America, and partly from the East Indies. The best copal is hard and brittle, in rounded lumps of a moderate size, easily reducible to a fine powder, of a light lemon yellow colour, beautifully transparent, but often, like amber, containing parts of insects and other small extraneous bodies in its substance. Its specific gravity varies from 1.045 to 1.199. It has neither the solubility in water common to gums, nor the solubility in alcohol common to resins, at least in any considerable degree. It may be dissolved by digestion in drying linseed oil, and other volatile menstrua. This solution forms a beautiful transparent varnish, which, when, properly applied, and slowly dried, is very hard and very durable.

Copal varnish was first discovered in France, and was long known by the name of *vernis martin*. It is applied to snuff-boxes, tea-boards, and other utensils. It preserves and gives lustre to paintings; and contributes to restore the decayed colours of old pictures, by filling up cracks, and rendering the surface capable of reflecting light more uniformly. Copal is liable to be confounded with *gum animé*, when the latter is very clear and good. But it is of importance to distinguish between them, as the animé, though valuable as a varnish, is much less so than the finest copal; the varnish with the former being darker coloured, and not so hard. Besides the external appearance of each, which is pretty distinct to a practised eye, the solubility in alcohol furnishes a useful test, — the animé being readily soluble in this fluid, while the copal is hardly affected by it; copal is also brittle between the teeth, whereas animé softens in the mouth. — (*Rees's Cyclopædia*; *Ure's Dictionary*, &c.)

The imports of gum animé and copal are not distinguished in the custom-house accounts. The entries of both for home consumption amounted, in 1842, to about 983 cwt. The duty was, in the same year, reduced from 6s. to 1s. a cwt. Copal fetches in the London market from 3l. to 3l. 10s. a cwt.

COPENHAGEN, the capital of Denmark, on the E. coast of the island of Zealand, in the channel of the Baltic called the Sound; lat. 55° 41' 4" N., lon. 12° 35' 46" E. Population, in 1834, 119,292. It is a well-built, handsome city. In going into Copenhagen, the course is between the buoy on the Stubben Bank to the left, and the buoy on the Middle-grounds, and those in advance of the three Crown batteries on the right, W. S. W. by compass. From the three crowns to the roads the course is S. S. W. The water in the channel is from 6 to 4 fathoms deep; but it is narrow, and the navigation rather difficult. There is no obligation to take a pilot on board; but if a vessel wish for one, she may heave to abreast of the battery, when he will come to her. Vessels not intending to come into harbour bring up in the roads, at from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ mile from shore, in about 4 fathoms, the town bearing S. S. W. In the harbour, within the boom, the water is from 17 to 18 feet deep. Vessels in harbour load and unload alongside the quay. The anchorage in the roads is good and safe.

Money. — Accounts are kept in rixdollars of 6 marks, or 96 skilling; the rixdollar being formerly worth about 4s. 1d. sterling. But in 1813, a new monetary system was adopted, according to which the new or Rigsbank-dollar is worth 50 skils., being half the value of the old specie dollar, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of the old current dollar. But the money generally used in commercial transactions is bank money, which is commonly at a heavy discount. The par of exchange, estimated by the Rigsbank dollar, would be 5 dollars 7 5 skilling per pound sterling. *Weights and Measures.* — The commercial weights are, 16 pounds = 1 lipound; 40 lipound = 1 shippound; 100 lbs. = 110 lbs. avoirdupois = 134 lbs. Troy = 101 lbs. of Amsterdam = 116 of Hamburg.

The liquid measures are, 4 ankers = 1 alm or ohm; 1½ ahn = 1 hoghead; 3 hogheads = 1 pipe; 2 pipes = 1 quarter. The anker = 10 (very nearly) English wine gallons. A fuder of wine = 300 pots; and 100 pots = 2½ wine-gallons. The dry measures are, 4 virels = 1 scheffel; 8 scheffels = 1 tonde of ton; 12 tons = 1 last = 47½ Winchester bushels. The last of oil, butter, herrings, and other oily substances should weigh 2½ lbs. net. The measure of length is the Rhineland foot = 19 inches very nearly. The Danish ell = 2 feet; 100 ells = 68½ English yards.

Trade of Copenhagen. — This is not very considerable, and has latterly declined. Timber, pitch and tar are chiefly imported from Sweden and Norway; flax, hemp, masts, sail-cloth, and cordage, from Russia; West India produce, from the Danish and foreign West India islands; tobacco, from America; wines and brandy, from France; coal, earthenware, iron and steel, and salt, are the principal articles of direct importation from England. Of coal, we sent to Denmark (principally to Copenhagen), in 1840, 126,779 tons, and of salt, 584,460 bushels. Owing to the erroneous policy of the Danish government, which is attempting, at a great public loss, to raise and bolster up manufactures, the direct imports of woollens and cottons are inconsiderable. These articles are not, however, absolutely prohibited. Down to 1841 they were admitted on condition of their being stamped and put up to auction by the custom-house, which, after retaining 30 per cent. of the gross produce of the sale, paid over the surplus to the importer. In the above year, however, the duty, in imitation of the German plan, was ordered to be assessed, partly according to the description of the goods, and partly according to their weight; so that the existing duty varies on cotton goods, from 3l. 15s. to 22l. 10s. per 100 lbs. Danish (equal to 110 lbs. English); and on woollens, from 2l. 16s. 3d. to 14l. 1s. 3d. per 100 lbs. Danish. But, though advantageous in some respects, this change will be mischievous in others; for, while it has facilitated the collection of the duties, and reduced those on the finer descriptions, it has added materially to those on the coarser and most essential fabrics. Hence we need not be surprised that there is an extensive illicit importation of these articles by the Elbe and Holstein frontier. The exports consist principally of the produce of the soil, as corn, rape seed, butter and cheese, beef and pork, horses and cattle, wool, hides and skins, bones, corn-brandy, &c. At an average of the seven years ending with 1839, the annual exports of corn from Denmark were—wheat, 140,989 imp. qrs.; rye, 127,521 do.; barley, 388,068 do.; and oats, 125,986 do. In 1842 we imported from Denmark 89,583 qrs. wheat, 19,047 do. barley, and 38,046 do. oats. (See *Coast Laws*.) We subjoin an

Insurance. — Marine insurance is effected, on liberal terms, by a company established in 1746. A good many risks are, however, insured at Amsterdam and Hamburg.

Careening, Ship's Stores, &c. — Copenhagen has good building-yards, and is in all respects an eligible place for the repair of ships, and for supplying them with provisions.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce Imported into the United Kingdom from Denmark in 1840 and 1841; and of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce exported to the same in 1839 and 1840.

Principal Articles of Import.	1840.		Principal Articles of Export.	1839.		1840.	
	Quantities.	Values.		Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.
Butter - cwt.	74,080	16,196	Coals, culm, and cinders - tons	129,005	34,485	136,779	35,504
Com, wheat - qrs.	150,531	236,230	Cotton manufac. entered by yd.	143,856	3,491	101,673	2,183
barley - "	302,137	81,246	twist and yarn - lbs.	43,558	1,041	101,749	4,094
oats - "	78,919	25,088	Earthenware of all sorts - pieces	1,366,218	14,121	1,446,371	14,183
peas and beans - "	46,807	25,335	Hardware and cutlery - cwt.	538	2,618	895	3,984
wheat-meal & flour - cwt.	10,951	4,810	iron and steel, wrought and unwork.	6,133	47,640	13,840	97,292
Seeds, clover - bush.	15,699	17,334	Machinery and mill-work - bush.	695,960	1,376	4,629	5,356
flaxseed & linseed - bush.	455,299	345,298	Salt - "	840	584,460	9,330	3,569
taxes - "	86,963	31,548	Tin and pewter wares and tin plates - "	-	20,535	-	26,732
Wool, sheep's - lbs.	605,221	778,256	All other articles - "	-	-	-	-
			Total - "	-	145,728	-	201,462

Taxes. — Statement of the Taxes allowed by the Custom-house at Copenhagen, on the principal Articles of Importation.

Articles.	Description of Packages.	Taxes.	Articles.	Description of Packages.	Taxes.
Almonds	Linen bags -	4 per ct.	Olives	All sorts of packages -	10 per ct.
Cassia lignea	All sorts of packages -	16 -	Olive oil	In single and double casks -	18 -
Cinnamon	do. -	16 -		Bottled, in baskets and straw -	20 -
Cocoa	In linen bags -	4 per ct.		do. in boxes and sawdust -	40 -
Coffee	Casks of 400 lbs. and under -	16 -	Pepper	Bags of 150 lbs. and under -	2 lbs.
	exceeding 400 lbs. -	12 -		exceeding 150 lbs. -	4 -
	Matted bags of 150 lbs. & under -	2 lbs.		Linen bags -	do.
	exceeding 150 lbs. -	4 -		do. -	do.
	East India bags, double -	2 lbs.		do. -	do.
	do. single -	4 -		do. -	do.
Cotton	Bags, or bales -	4 -		do. -	do.
Curran	All sorts of packages -	16 per ct.		Casks exceeding 4 barrels -	10 per ct.
Belit ware	do. -	12 -		do. under 4 barrels -	10 -
Figs	do. -	12 -		Casks -	10 -
	2 casks -	12 lbs.		Barrels -	24 lbs.
	3 do. -	18 -		Bags of 100 lbs. and not exceed- ing 150 lbs. -	4 -
	4 do. -	10 per ct.		do. 150 lbs. and under -	4 -
	Baskets, or frails -	3 -		do. 150 lbs. and under -	10 per ct.
Glass ware	Boxes -	32 -	Sulphure	All kinds of packages -	14 -
	Bottles in crates and in straw -	20 -	Soap, white	do. -	14 -
	do. in boxes and in sawdust -	40 -	Sugar, raw	In casks -	17 -
Hardware	In casks and boxes -	12 -		Iron boxes -	do.
	Packed in mats, per piece -	4 lbs.		Havannah do. -	12 -
Hops	Bags and packages -	4 per ct.		Casks (transit) -	do.
Indigo	All sorts of packages -	30 -	Tobacco	do. -	do.
Mustard	Glasses, in boxes and casks -	12 -		Baskets packed in mats -	3 -

General Remarks. — On the whole, the commerce of Denmark may be pronounced to be in a stationary state; a consequence partly of the peculiar circumstances under which the country is placed, and partly of the policy of government. The latter has long been exerting itself to bolster up a manufacturing interest, by laying oppressive duties on most species of manufactured articles. Even under the most favourable circumstances, such conduct, though it may benefit a few individuals, is sure to be productive of great national loss. But in the case of Denmark, the circumstances are such as to render the restrictive system peculiarly injurious. All, or nearly all, the branches of industry carried on in the kingdom are subject to the government of guilds or corporations; no person can engage in any line of business until he has been authorised by its peculiar guild; and as the sanction of this body is rarely obtained without a considerable sacrifice, the real effect of the system is to fetter competition and improvement, and to perpetuate monopoly and routine. Even the Danish writers acknowledge that such is the influence of the present regulations. "Nos ouvriers," say they, "sont chers, travaillent lentement, et souvent mal et sans goût; leur éducation est négligée. On ne les forme point à penser, et l'apprentif suit machinalement ce qu'il voit faire au maître." — (Cateau, *Tableaux des Etats Danois*, tome II. p. 260.) But, however favourably situated in other respects, it would be idle to expect that a country without waterfalls, and without coal, should be able to manufacture cottons, woollens, &c. at so cheap a rate as they may be imported from others enjoying greater natural facilities for their production. Happily, however, the staple business of Denmark, her agriculture and rural economy, has been most materially improved of late years; and, as already seen, her exports of raw produce are now of great value and importance.

The trade of the country suffers from the too great magnitude of the port dues and of the transit duties; and the Sound duties, being charged on native as well as foreign ships, operate as an inland duty on trade. Considerable improvements have, however, been effected in the commercial legislation of the country during the last dozen years, by the opening of the trade to the East and West Indies, and the abolition and reduction of other regulations and duties; and it may be fairly presumed that the benefits resulting from these measures will pave the way for the introduction of others of a similar character.

In compiling this article, we have consulted *Odly's European Commerce*, pp. 330—369; *Dictionnaire du Commerce (Ency. Méthodique)*, tome II. pp. 3—16.; *Cateau, Tableaux des Etats Danois*, tome II. pp. 292—371; the valuable Reports of Mr. McGregor, consul at Eslinore, &c.

COPPER (Ger. *Kupfer*; Du. *Koper*; Da. *Kobber*; Sw. *Kopper*; Fr. *Cuivre*; It. *Rame*; Sp. *Cobre*; Port. *Cobre*; Rus. *Mjed*, *Krasnoi mjed*; Pol. *Miedz*; Lat. *Cuprum*; Arab. *Nehas*; Sans. *Tamra*), a well-known metal, so called from its having been first discovered, or at least wrought to any extent, in the island of Cyprus. It is of a fine red colour, and has a great deal of brilliancy. Its taste is styptic and nauseous; and the hands, when rubbed for some time on it, acquire a peculiar and disagreeable odour. It is harder than silver; its specific gravity varies according to its state, being,

when quite pure, near 9000. Its malleability is great; it may be hammered out into leaves so thin as to be blown about by the slightest breeze. Its ductility is also considerable. Its tenacity is so great, that a copper wire 0.078 of an inch in diameter is capable of supporting 302.26 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. Its liability to oxidation from exposure to air or damp is its greatest defect. The rust with which it is then covered is known by the name of verdigris, and is one of the most active poisons. — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

If we except gold and silver, copper seems to have been more early known than any other metal. In the first ages of the world, before the method of working iron was discovered, copper was the principal ingredient in all domestic utensils and instruments of war. Even now it is applied to so many purposes, as to rank next, in point of utility, to iron.

Alloys of Copper are numerous and of great value. Those of tin are of most importance. Tin added to copper makes it more malleable, less liable to rust, or to be corroded by the air and other common substances, harder, denser, and more sonorous. In these respects the alloy has a real advantage over unmixed copper; but this is in many cases more than counterbalanced by the great brittleness which even a moderate portion of tin imparts; and which is a singular circumstance, considering that both metals are separately very malleable.

Copper alloyed with from 1 to 5 per cent. of tin is rendered harder than before; its colour is yellow, with a cast of red, and its fracture granular; it has considerable malleability. This appears to have been the usual composition of many of the ancient edged tools and weapons, before the method of working iron was brought to perfection. The *χαλκός* of the Greeks, and perhaps the *æ* of the Romans, was nothing else. Even their copper coins contain a mixture of tin. The ancients did not, in fact, possess (as has been often contended) any peculiar method of hardening copper, except by adding to it a small quantity of tin. An alloy in which the tin is from 0.1 to $\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole is hard, brittle, but still a little malleable, close grained, and yellowish white. When the tin is as much as $\frac{1}{4}$ of the mass, it is entirely brittle; and continues so in every higher proportion. The yellowness of the alloy is not entirely lost till the tin amounts to 0.3 of the whole.

Copper (or sometimes copper with a little zinc), alloyed with as much tin as will make from 0.1 to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the whole, forms an alloy, which is principally employed for bells, brass cannon, bronze statues, and various other purposes. Hence it is called *bronze* or *bell metal*; and is excellently fitted for the uses to which it is applied, by its hardness, density, sonorousness, and liability. For cannon, a lower proportion of tin is commonly used. According to Dr. Watson, the metal employed at Woolwich consists of 100 parts of copper and from 8 to 12 of tin; hence it retains some little malleability, and, therefore, is tougher than it would be with a larger portion of tin. This alloy being more sonorous than iron, brass guns give a louder report than iron guns. A common alloy for bell metal is 80 parts of copper and 20 of tin; some artists add to these ingredients zinc, antimony, and silver, in small proportions; all of which add to the sonorousness of the compound. — (See *BELL METAL.*)

When, in an alloy of copper and tin, the latter metal amounts to about $\frac{1}{3}$ of the mass, the result is a beautiful compound, very hard, of the colour of steel, and susceptible of a very fine polish. It is well adapted for the reflection of light for optical purposes; and is therefore called *spectrum metal*. Besides the above ingredients, it usually contains a little arsenic, zinc, or silver. The application of an alloy similar to the above, to the construction of mirrors, is of great antiquity, being mentioned by Pliny; who says, that formerly the best mirrors were reckoned those of Brundisium, of tin and copper mixed (*stanno et ære mixta*). — (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxxiii. § 9.*)

For the alloys of copper with zinc, see the articles BRASS, PITCHBLISS. See, also, *Thomson's Chemistry*; *Rees's Cyclopædia*; *Dr. Watson's Chemical Essays*, vol. iv., &c.

British Copper Trade.—Great Britain has various copper mines, in Cornwall, Devonshire, Wales, &c., but particularly in the first. Though known long before, the Cornish copper mines were not wrought with much spirit till last century. From 1726 to 1735, they produced at an average about 700 tons a year of pure copper. During the ten years from 1766 to 1775, they produced, at an average, 2,650 tons. In 1798, the produce exceeded 5,000 tons; and it now amounts to from 11,000 to 12,500 tons, worth, at 100*l.* a ton, from 1,100,000*l.* to 1,250,000*l.* sterling! In 1758, the famous mines in the Parys mountain, near Antwerp, in Anglesia, were discovered. The supplies of ore furnished by them were for a long time abundant beyond all precedent; but for many years past the productiveness of the mine has been declining, and it now yields comparatively little copper. At present the mines in Anglesia, and other parts of Wales, yield from 1,700 to 2,000 tons of copper; those of Devonshire yield about 500 tons; the quantity produced in the other parts of England being quite inconsiderable. The Irish mines produce about 800 tons. Those of Scotland never were productive, and have been almost entirely abandoned. The entire produce of the copper mines of the empire may, therefore, be estimated at present at from 14,000 to 15,000 tons.

In consequence of the greatly increased supplies of copper that were thus obtained, England, instead of being, as formerly, dependent on foreigners for the greater part of her supplies of this valuable metal, became, previously to 1793, one of the principal markets for the supply of others. And notwithstanding the vastly increased demand for copper during the war for the sheathing of ships and other purposes, the exports continued to increase and the imports to diminish; the greater productiveness of the Cornish mines having sufficed not only to balance the increased demand, but also to make up for the falling off in the supplies from Anglesia.

Owing to the want of coal in Cornwall, the ores are not smelted on the spot, but are, for the most part, sent to Swansea; it being found cheaper to carry the ores to the coal than the contrary.

The East Indies and China, France, the U. States, and Italy, are the great markets for British copper. Thus, in 1842, of the total quantity exported, amounting, as seen above, to 194,061 cwts., 99,990 went to the East Indies and China, 21,392 to France, 16,378 to the U. States, and 10,765 to Italy. — (*Parl. Paper No. 227. Sess. 1843.*)

Foreign Copper.—Copper ores are abundant in Sweden, Russia, Persia, Japan, Cuba, Chili, Colombia, &c. Near Fahlun, in the province of Dalecarlia, in Sweden, is the celebrated copper mine of the same name, supposed to have been wrought nearly 1,000 years. For a long time it was extremely productive, yielding, towards the beginning of the seventeenth century, an annual produce of about 8,000,000 lbs. of pure metal; but it has since greatly declined; and it is most probable that at no distant period it will be wholly abandoned. — (*Thomson's Travels in Sweden*, p. 321.) There are copper mines in other parts of Sweden; but the entire produce of copper in that country does not at present exceed from 750 to 800 tons, of a quality inferior to that of England. The produce of the copper mines in the government of Olonetz, in Russia, has been estimated at 210,000 poods, or 3,375 tons (Eng.) a year. — (*Schnitzler, Essai d'une Statistique Générale*, &c. p. 41.) The copper mines of Japan are said to be among the richest in the world. The Dutch and Chinese export considerable quantities of their produce, which is spread all over the East, and is regularly quoted in the price currents of Canton, Calcutta, and Singapore. It is uniformly met with in the shape of bars or ingots; and when the copper of S. America is worth in the

A good eligible

into the principal

Values.

25,504
3,183
4,984
14,183
3,981
27,990
4,628
9,355
3,969
26,739
301,469

Articles

Tares.

10 per ct.
18
20
2
3 lbs.
4
do.
do.
12
10 per ct.
18
10
34 lbs.
4
do.
10 per ct.
14
do.
17
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Fr. Cuivre; Miedz; Lat. on its having Cyprus. It is and nauseous; disagreeable to state, being,

Canton market from 15 to 16 dollars per picul, that of Japan is worth from 18 to 20 per ditto. Copper the produce of the Persian mines, is imported into Bombay and Calcutta from Bushire and Busorah.

But, in a commercial point of view, the copper mines of Cuba and Chili are, after those of England, by far the most important. The working of the mines of Cuba, which had been abandoned for a lengthened period, was resumed a few years ago, principally by an English company, which has been eminently successful. Large quantities of Cuba ore are brought to Swansea to be smelted; and large quantities of Chili ore are also brought hither for the same purpose. Of the total imports of copper ore in 1842, amounting to above 50,000 tons, Cuba furnished 32,370 tons, and Chili 12,643 ditto; the rest being supplied by Colombia, Brazil, &c. Considerable supplies of ore are now (1848) derived from S. Australia. Foreign copper imported into this country, and the copper obtained from the smelting of foreign ore, were, previously to 1842, wholly, or almost wholly, re-exported; the duty on the copper ore when it was taken or smelted for home use being so very heavy as to make it be altogether exported in an unwrought state. But, in 1842, the duty on copper ore and unwrought copper was materially reduced; and it has been substantially repealed in the course of the present year (1848), by the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 127, which has reduced the duty on copper ore to 1s. per ton, and that on old copper to 2s. 6d. per do. The presumption, therefore, is that the imports of ore for smelting will be largely increased, and that considerable quantities of copper derived from foreign ores will be brought into use in this country.

Account of the copper produced from the Mines in Cornwall in the following years, since 1800; showing the Quantity of Ore (in tons of 21 cwt.) of Metal or Fine Copper, the Value of the Ores in Money, the average Percentage of Produce, and the average Standard or Miner's Price of Fine Copper, made up to the end of June in each Year.

Years.	Quantity of Ore.	Metal or Fine Copper.		Value of the Ores.		Produce of Ore % cent.	Average Standard Price of Ton.
		Tons, cwt. qrs. lb.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
1800	55,981	5,187 0 3 7	550,922	1 0	84	133 3 6	
1805	78,458	6,254 8 9 6	869,410	18 0	79	189 16 0	
1810	66,648	6,688 10 3 37	270,535	12 0	84	129 0 0	
1815	78,483	6,253 6 3 23	554,813	8 6	81	117 16 0	
1816	77,554	6,697 4 0 17	447,558	0 0	86	98 12 0	
1817	18,701	6,496 3 0 16	484,010	12 6	84	108 10 0	
1818	86,174	6,849 7 1 1	686,095	4 6	78	154 15 0	
1819	54,758	6,804 2 7 7	633,565	4 6	80	137 10 0	
1820	91,473	7,508 0 3 26	608,441	19 0	56	113 15 0	
1821	96,493	8,514 19 8 19	605,968	19 6	68	103 0 0	
1822	104,485	9,140 3 3 20	685,085	18 6	69	103 0 0	
1823	95,750	7,927 17 9 7	606,033	1 0	81	109 18 0	
1824	99,700	7,983 13 1 10	567,174	3 6	77	110 0 0	
1825	107,154	8,329 3 0 21	736,333	12 0	84	124 4 0	
1826	117,508	9,086 11 3 15	788,071	15 6	78	123 3 0	
1827	136,710	10,311 14 3 16	745,178	1 0	66	106 1 0	
1828	150,568	9,391 1 11 11	756,174	16 0	119	119 7 0	
1829	134,502	9,656 10 3 4	717,334	0 0	78	109 14 0	
1830	133,364	10,743 0 0 0	775,846	0 0	8	106 0 0	
1831	144,072	11,044 0 0 0	806,090	0 0	81	110 0 0	
1832	137,257	11,941 4 0 0	825,518	11 0	89	100 16 0	
1833	134,506	11,184 7 0 0	856,708	10 0	87	110 10 0	
1834	145,486	11,424 10 9 27	887,908	0 0	78	114 4 0	
1835	150,817	12,271 14 1 1	895,408	15 0	84	106 11 0	
1836	140,981	11,639 11 0 0	837,788	8 0	81	118 12 0	
1837	140,725	10,323 3 1 26	909,613	15 0	78	119 5 0	
1838	145,898	11,527 4 1 17	857,719	11 0	78	109 3 0	
1839	159,531	12,650 18 1 44	936,267	6 0	110	110 0 0	
1840	147,966	11,037 16 3 1	792,758	3 6	79	108 10 0	
1841	135,096	9,587 8 1 23	857,719	2 0	79	119 8 0	
1842	154,180	9,897 0 15 13	878,470	0 0	77	130 16 0	
1843	169,657	12,383 3 1 23	918,384	6 0	78		
1844	160,631	11,850 10 3 23	796,182	6 0	78		
1847	165,562	12,754 0 8 23	885,387	0 6	84		

Exports of British Copper in the undermentioned Years.

Years.	Unwrought.	Cobs.	Sheets, Nails, &c.	Wire.	Wrought Copper of other Sorts.	Total of British Copper exported.
1880	41,155	10	56,131	8	22,663	121,958
1825	41,155	1,154	51,437	40	25,008	78,694
1830	56,722	—	86,251	16	56,413	183,134
1835	39,409	—	100,807	49	20,919	161,184
1840	50,358	291	119,366	39	10,487	150,478
1841	6,638	788	100,649	85	8,454	118,532
1842	65,448	810	180,848	64	9,493	194,661

N.B.—The quantity of copper smelted from foreign ores in the U. Kingdom in 1842 was almost exactly equal to the quantity of British copper exported.

Customs Regulations.—Old copper sheathing, old copper utensils, and old copper and pewter utensils of British manufacture, imported from British plantations, and also old copper striped off vessels in ports in the U. Kingdom, may be admitted to entry, duty free, under the following regulations; viz.—

1st. Old copper sheathing stripped off British vessels in ports in the British possessions, upon proof to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that such sheathing was stripped off in such ports, and also that the said sheathing is the property of the owner of the ship from which it was so stripped, to be delivered to such owner.

2d. Old copper sheathing stripped off any ship in any port in the U. Kingdom, upon the fact being certified by the landing-water superintending the process; the old copper to be delivered only to the coopersmith who may re-copper the vessel from which the copper was stripped, he making proof to that fact.

3d. Old worn-out British copper and pewter utensils to be in all cases delivered when brought from British possessions abroad in British ships, upon the consignee submitting proof that they had been used on a particular estate, and are consigned on account of the owner of that estate, and that he (the consignee) verily believes them to have been of British manufacture.—(Min. Com. Cas., 10th of Feb. 1833.)

The act 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 88. § 23. authorised copper ore to be taken out of warehouses to be smelted, on proper notice being given to the customs officers, and giving sufficient security, by bond, for returning

the computed quantity of fine copper in it; but this provision was repealed by the act 5 & 6 Victoria, cap. 47. § 9.

Copper is in extensive demand all over India; being largely used in the dock-yards, in the manufacture of cooking utensils, in alloying spelter and tin, &c. The funeral of every Hindoo brings an accession to the demand, according to his station; the relatives of the deceased giving a brass cup to every Brahmin present at the ceremony; so that 5, 10, 50, 100, 1,000, and sometimes more than 10 times this last number, are dispensed upon such occasions.—(*Bell's Commerce of Bengal.*)

COPPERAS, a term employed by the older chemists, and popularly as synonymous with vitriol. There are three sorts of copperas: the *green*, or sulphate of iron; the *blue*, or sulphate of copper; and the *white*, or sulphate of zinc. Of these, the first is the most important.

Sulphate of iron is distinguished in common by a variety of names, as Martial vitriol, English vitriol, &c. When pure, it is considerably transparent, of a fine bright, though not very deep, grass green colour; and of a nauseous astringent taste, accompanied with a kind of sweetness. Its specific gravity is 1.834. It uniformly reddens the vegetable blues. This salt was well known to the ancients; and is mentioned by Pliny (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxiv. § 12.*) under the names of *nisy*, *sory*, and *thalphantum*. It is not made in the direct way, because it can be obtained at less charge from the decomposition of pyrites on a large scale in the neighbourhood of collieries. It exists in two states; one containing oxide of iron, with 0.22 of oxygen, which is of a pale green, not altered by gallic acid, and giving a white precipitate with prussiate of potass. The other, in which the iron is combined with 0.30 of oxygen, is red, not crystallisable, and gives a black precipitate with gallic acid, and a blue with prussiate of potass. In the common sulphate, these two are often mixed in various proportions.

Sulphate of iron is of great importance in the arts. It is a principal ingredient in dyeing; in the manufacture of ink, and of prussian blue: it is also used in tanning, painting, medicine, &c. Sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol, was formerly manufactured from sulphate of iron.—(See ACIDS.)

Sulphate of copper, or *blue vitriol*, commonly called Roman or Cyprian vitriol, is of an elegant sapphire blue colour, hard, compact, and semi-transparent; when perfectly crystallised, of a flattish, rhomboidal, decahedral figure; its taste is extremely caustic, styptic, and acrid; its specific gravity is 2.1943. It is used for various purposes in the arts, and also in medicine.

Sulphate of zinc, or *white vitriol*, is found native in the mines of Goslar and other places. Sometimes it is met with in transparent pieces, but more commonly in white efflorescences. These are dissolved in water, and crystallised into large irregular masses, somewhat resembling fine sugar, having a sweetish, nauseous, styptic taste. Its specific gravity, when crystallised, is 1.912; when in the state in which it commonly occurs in commerce, it is 1.9375. Sulphate of zinc is prepared in the large way from some varieties of the native sulphuret. The ore is roasted, wetted with water, and exposed to the air. The sulphur attracts oxygen, and is converted into sulphuric acid; and the metal, being at the same time oxidised, combines with the acid. After some time the sulphate is extracted by solution in water; and the solution being evaporated to dryness, the mass is run into moulds. Thus, the white vitriol of the shops generally contains a small portion of iron, and often of copper and lead.—(*Lewis's Mat. Medica; Ure's Dictionary; Res's Cyclopaedia; Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*)

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CORAL (Ger. *Korallen*; Du. *Koraalen*; Fr. *Corail*; It. *Corale*; Sp. and Port. *Coral*; Rus. *Koralit*; Lat. *Corallium*; Arab. *Besed*; Pers. *Merjon*; Hind. *Moonga*), a marine production, of which there are several varieties. It was well known to the ancients, but it was reserved for the moderns to discover its real nature. It is, in fact, the nidus or nest of a certain species of vermes, which has the same relation to coral that a snail has to its shell. As an ornament, black coral is most esteemed; but the red is also very highly prized. Coral is found in very great abundance in the Red Sea, the Persian Gulph, in various places in the Mediterranean, on the coast of Sumatra, &c. It grows on rocks, and on any solid submarine body; and it is necessary to its production that it should remain fixed to its place. It has generally a shrub-like appearance. In the Straits of Messina, where a great deal is fished up, it usually grows to nearly a foot in length, and its thickness is about that of the little finger. It requires 8 or 10 years to arrive at its greatest size. The depth at which it is obtained is various—from 10 to 100 fathoms or more; but it seems to be necessary to its production that the rays of the sun should readily penetrate to the place of its habitation. Its value depends upon its size, solidity, and the depth and brilliancy of its colour; and is so very various, that while some of the Sicilian coral sells for 8 or 10 guineas an ounce, other descriptions of it will not fetch 1s. a pound. It is highly prized by opulent natives in India, as well as by the fair sex throughout Europe. The inferior or worm-eaten coral is used in some parts of the Madras coast, in the celebration of funeral rites. It is also used medicinally. Besides the fishery in the Straits of Messina already alluded to, there are valuable

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fisheries on the shores of Majorca and Minorca, and on the coast of Provence. A good deal of Mediterranean coral is exported to India, which, however, draws the largest portion of its supplies from the Persian Gulph. The produce of the fishery at Messina is stated by Spallanzani (*Travels in the Two Sicilies*, vol. iv. p. 408, &c.) to amount to 12 quintals of 250 lbs. each.

The manner of fishing coral is nearly the same every where. That which is most commonly practiced in the Mediterranean is as follows:—Seven or 8 men go in a boat, commanded by the proprietor; the cater throws his net, if we may so call the machine which he uses to tear up the coral from the bottom of the sea; and the rest work the boat, and help to draw in the net. This is composed of two beams of wood tied crosswise, with leads fixed to them to sink them; to these beams is fastened a quantity of hump, twisted loosely round, and intermingled with some loose netting. In this condition the machine is let down to the sea; and when the coral is pretty strongly entangled in the hump and nets, they draw it up with a rope, which they unwind according to the depth, and which is sometimes requires half a dozen boats to draw. If this rope happen to break, the fishermen run the hazard of being lost. Before the fishers go to sea, they agree for the price of the coral; and the produce of the fishery is divided, at the end of the season, into 13 parts; of which the proprietor has 4, the cater 3, and the other 6 men 1 each; the thirteenth belongs to the company for payment of boat-hire, &c.—(See *Annales des Indes*; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*; *Ency. Metrop.*; *Bell's Com. of Bengal*, &c.)

CORDAGE (Ger. *Tauwerk*; Du. *Touwwerk*; Fr. *Manœuvres, Cordage*; It. *Cavenna*; Sp. *Jarcia, Cordaje*), a term used in general for all sorts of cord, whether small, middling, or great, made use of in the rigging of ships. The manufacture of cordage is regulated by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 56., which specifies the sort of materials that are to be employed in the manufacture of cables, hawsers, and other ropes, the marks that are to be affixed to them, and the penalties of non-compliance with their respective enactments.—(See *CABLE*.) Masters of British ships are obliged, on coming into any port in Great Britain or the colonies, to report, under a penalty of 100*l.*, the foreign cordage, not being standing or running rigging, in use on board such ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 55. § 8.)

The following table shows how many fathoms, feet, and inches, of a rope of any size, not exceeding 14 inches, make 1 cwt.

At the top of the table, marked inches, fathoms, feet, inches, the first column is the circumference of a rope in inches and quarters; the second, the fathoms, feet, and inches that make up 1 cwt. of such a rope. One example will make it plain.

Suppose it is required how much of a 7-inch rope will make 1 cwt.; find 7 in the 3d column, under inches, or circumference of the rope, and immediately opposite to it you will find 9, 5, 6; which shows that in a rope of 7 inches, there will be 9 fathoms 5 feet 6 inches required to make 1 cwt.

Inches.	Fathoms.	Feet.	Inches.												
1	456	0	0	2	34	3	9	6	11	3	0	9	5	4	0
1 1/4	313	3	0	4	30	1	6	7	10	4	0	10	5	0	0
1 1/2	216	3	0	4 1/2	26	5	3	7	9	5	6	10	5	0	6
1 3/4	159	3	0	4 3/4	24	0	0	7 1/2	9	1	6	10	4	6	0
2	124	3	0	4 1/2	21	3	0	7 1/2	8	4	0	10	4	4	1
2 1/4	96	2	0	5	19	3	0	7 1/2	8	3	6	10	4	0	9
2 1/2	77	3	0	5 1/2	17	4	0	8	7	3	6	10	4	1	8
2 3/4	65	4	0	5 3/4	16	1	0	8 1/2	7	0	8	11	4	1	8
3	54	0	0	6	14	4	6	8 1/2	6	4	3	11 1/2	3	5	7
3 1/4	45	5	2	6 1/4	13	3	0	8 1/2	6	2	1	11 1/2	3	4	1
3 1/2	39	3	0	6 1/2	12	2	9	9	6	0	0	11 1/2	3	0	0

CORK (Ger. *Kork*; Du. *Kork, Kurk, Vlothout*; Fr. *Lège*; It. *Suphero, Suvero*; Sp. *Corcho*; Port. *Cortica (de Sobreiro)*; Rus. *Korkowoe derewo*; Lat. *Suber*), the thick and spongy bark of a species of oak (*Quercus Suber* Linn.), abundant in dry mountainous districts in the south of France, and in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Barbary. The tree grows to the height of 30 feet or more, has a striking resemblance to the *Quercus Ilex*, or evergreen oak, and attains to a great age. After arriving at a certain state of maturity, it periodically sheds its bark; but this valuable product is found to be of a much better quality when it is artificially removed from the tree, which may be effected without any injury to the latter. After a tree has attained to the age of from 20 to 30 years, it may be barked; and the operation may be subsequently repeated once every 8 or 10 years*, the quality of the cork improving with the increasing age of the tree. The bark is taken off in July and August; and trees that are regularly stripped are said to live for 150 years, or more.—(Poiret, *Hist. Philosophique des Plantes*, tom. vii. 419.)

Cork is light, porous, readily compressible, and wonderfully elastic. It may be cut into any sort of figure, and notwithstanding its porosity, is nearly impervious to any common liquor. These qualities make it superior to all other substances for stoppers for bottles, in the manufacture of which it is principally made use of. It is also employed as buoys to float nets, in the construction of life-boats, the making of waterproof shoes, and in various other ways. Before being manufactured into stoppers, the

* Beckmann (vol. ii. p. 115. Eng. ed.) says, that "when the tree is 15 years old, it may be barked, and this can be done successfully for 8 years." This erroneous statement having been copied into the article Cork in Rees's Cyclopaedia, has thence been transplanted to a multitude of other works.

cork is charred on each side; this makes it contract, lessens its porosity, and consequently fits it the better for cutting off all communication between the external air and the liquid in the bottle. Spanish black is made of calcined cork.

The Greeks and Romans were both well acquainted with cork. They seem also to have occasionally used it as stoppers for vessels (*Cadorum obturamentis*, Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xvi. cap. 8.); but it was not extensively employed for this purpose till the 17th century, when glass bottles, of which no mention is made before the 15th century, began to be generally introduced.—(*Beckmann's Hist. Invent.* vol. ii. pp. 114—127. Eng. ed.)

The duty on manufactured cork is *2l. 14s. 8d.* a cwt., plus 5 per cent.; but unmanufactured cork is admitted duty-free. The quantity entered for home consumption amounts, at an average, to from 40,000 to 80,000 cwt. Its price, including duty, varies with the variations in its quality, from about 17*l.* to about 60*l.* a ton. The Spanish is the best, and fetches the highest price.

CORN (Ger. *Corn, Getreide*; Du. *Graanen, Koren*; Da. *Korn*; Sw. *Sad, Spanmal*; Fr. *Blés, Grains*; It. *Biade, Grani*; Sp. *Granos*; Rus. *Chleb*; Pol. *Zboze*; Lat. *Frumentum*), the grain or seed of plants separated from the spica or ear, and used for making bread, &c. Such are wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, peas, &c.; which see.

CORNELIAN. See **CARNELIAN.**

CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE. — From the circumstance of corn forming, in this and most other countries, the principal part of the food of the people, the trade in it, and the laws by which that trade is regulated, are justly looked upon as of the highest importance. But this is not the only circumstance that renders it necessary to enter at some length into the discussion of this subject. Its difficulty is at least equal to its interest. The enactments made at different periods with respect to the corn trade, and the opinions advanced as to their policy, have been so very various and contradictory that it is indispensable to submit them to some examination, and, if possible, to ascertain the principles which ought to pervade this department of commercial legislation.

- I. HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE CORN LAWS.
- II. PRINCIPLES OF THE CORN LAWS.
- III. BRITISH CORN TRADE.
- IV. FOREIGN CORN TRADE.

I. HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE CORN LAWS.

For a long time the regulations with respect to the corn trade were principally intended to promote abundance and low prices. But though the purpose was laudable, the means adopted for accomplishing it had, for the most part, a directly opposite effect. When a country exports corn, it seems, at first sight, as if nothing could do so much to increase her supplies as the prevention of exportation; and even in countries that do not export, its prohibition seems to be a prudent measure, and calculated to prevent the supply from being diminished, upon any emergency, below its natural level. These are the conclusions that immediately suggest themselves upon this subject; and it requires a pretty extensive experience, an attention to facts, and a habit of reasoning upon such topics, to perceive their fallacy. These, however, were altogether wanting when the regulations affecting the corn trade began to be introduced into Great Britain and other countries. They were framed in accordance with what were supposed to be the dictates of common sense; and their object being to procure as large a supply of the prime necessary of life as possible, its exportation was either totally forbidden, or forbidden when the home price was above certain limits.

The principle of absolute prohibition seems to have been steadily acted upon, as far as the turbulence of the period would admit, from the Conquest to the year 1456, in the reign of Henry VI. But at the last-mentioned period an act was passed, authorising the exportation of wheat whenever the home price did not exceed *6s. 5d.* (equal in amount of pure silver to *12s. 10d.* present money) per quarter, and barley when the home price did not exceed *3s. 4d.* In 1463, an additional benefit was intended to be conferred on agriculture by prohibiting importation until the home price exceeded that at which exportation ceased. But the fluctuating policy of the times prevented these regulations from being carried into full effect; and, indeed, rendered them in a great measure inoperative.

In addition to the restraints laid on exportation, it has been common in most countries to attempt to increase the supply of corn, not only by admitting its unrestrained importation from abroad, but by holding out extraordinary encouragement to the importers. This policy has not, however, been much followed in England. During the 500 years immediately posterior to the Conquest, importation was substantially free; but it was seldom or never promoted by artificial means; and during the last century and a half it has, for the most part, been subjected to severe restrictions.

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Besides attempting to lower prices by prohibiting exportation, our ancestors attempted to lower them by proscribing the trade carried on by corn dealers. This most useful class of persons were looked upon with suspicion by every one. The agriculturists concluded that they would be able to sell their produce at higher prices to the consumers, were the corn dealers out of the way; while the consumers concluded that the profits of the dealers were made at their expense; and ascribed the dearths that were then very prevalent entirely to the practices of the dealers, or to their buying up corn and withholding it from market. These notions, which have still a considerable degree of influence, led to various enactments, particularly in the reign of Edward VI., by which the freedom of the internal corn trade was entirely suppressed. The *engrossing* of corn, or the buying of it in one market with intent to sell it again in another, was made an offence punishable by imprisonment and the pillory; and no one was allowed to carry corn from one part to another without a licence, the privilege of granting which was confided by a statute of Elizabeth to the quarter sessions. But as the principles of commerce came to be better understood, the impolicy of these restraints gradually grew more and more obvious. They were considerably modified in 1624; and, in 1668, the engrossing of corn was declared to be legal so long as the price did not exceed 4s. a quarter — (15 *Chas.* 2. c. 7.); an act which, as Dr. Smith has justly observed, has, with all its imperfections, done more to promote plenty than any other law in the statute book. In 1773, the last remnant of the legislative enactments restraining the freedom of the internal corn dealers, was entirely repealed. But the engrossing of corn has, notwithstanding, been since held to be an offence at common law; and, so late as 1800, a corn dealer was convicted of this imaginary crime. He was not, however, brought up for judgment; and it is not very likely that any similar case will ever again occupy the attention of the courts.

The acts of 1496 and 1463, regulating the prices when exportation was allowed and when importation was to cease, continued, nominally at least, in force till 1562, when the prices at which exportation might take place were extended to 10s. for wheat and 6s. 8d. for barley. But a new principle — that of imposing duties on exportation — was soon after introduced; and, in 1571, it was enacted that wheat might be exported, paying a duty of 2s. a quarter, and barley and other grain a duty of 1s. 4d., whenever the home price of wheat did not exceed 20s. a quarter, and barley and malt 12s. At the Restoration, the limit at which exportation might take place was very much extended; but as the duty on exportation was, at the same time, so very high as to be almost prohibitory, the extension was of little or no service to the agriculturists. This view of the matter seems to have been speedily taken by the legislature; for in 1663, the high duties on exportation were taken off, and an *ad valorem* duty imposed in their stead, at the same time that the limit of exportation was extended. In 1670, a still more decided step was taken in favour of agriculture; an act being then passed which extended the exportation price to 53s. 4d. a quarter for wheat, and other grain in proportion, imposing, at the same time, prohibitory duties on the importation of wheat till the price rose to 53s. 4d., and a duty of 8s. between that price and 80s. But the real effects of this act were not so great as might have been anticipated. The extension of the limit of exportation was rendered comparatively nugatory, in consequence of the continuance of the duties on exportation caused by the necessities of the Crown; while the want of any proper method for the determination of prices went far to nullify the prohibition of importation.

At the accession of William III. a new system was adopted. The interests of agriculture were then looked upon as of paramount importance; and to promote them, not only were the duties on exportation totally abolished, but it was encouraged by the grant of a bounty of 5s. on every quarter of wheat exported, while the price continued at or below 48s.; of 2s. 6d. on every quarter of barley or malt, while their respective prices did not exceed 24s.; and of 3s. 6d. on every quarter of rye, when its price did not exceed 52s. — (1 *Will. & Mary*, c. 12.) A bounty of 2s. 6d. a quarter was subsequently given upon the exportation of oats and oatmeal, when the price of the former did not exceed 15s. a quarter. Importation continued to be regulated by the act of 1670.

Much diversity of opinion has been entertained with respect to the policy of the bounty. That it was intended to raise the price of corn is clear, from the words of the statute, which states, "that the exportation of corn and grain into foreign parts, when the price thereof is at a low rate in this kingdom, hath been a great advantage not only to the owners of land, but to the trade of the kingdom in general; therefore," &c. But admitting this to have been its object, it has been contended that the low prices which prevailed during the first half of last century show that its real effect was precisely the reverse; and that, by extending tillage, it contributed to reduce prices. It will be afterwards shown that this could not really be the case; and the fall of prices may be sufficiently accounted for by the improved state of agriculture, the gradual consolidation of farms, the diminution of sheep husbandry, &c., combined with the slow increase of the population. In point of fact, too, prices had begun to give way 30 years before the bounty was

granted; and the fall was equally great in France, where, instead of exportation being encouraged by a bounty, it was almost entirely prohibited; and in most other Continental states. — (For proof of what is now stated, see the article *Corn Laws*, in the new edition of the *Ency. Brit.*)

The Tables annexed to this article show that, with some few exceptions, there was, during the first 86 years of last century, a large export of corn from England. In 1750, the wheat exported amounted to 947,000 quarters; and the total bounties paid during the 10 years from 1740 to 1751 reached the sum of 1,515,000*l.* But the rapid increase of population subsequently to 1760, and particularly after the peace of Paris, in 1763, when the commerce and manufactures of the country were extended in an unprecedented degree, gradually reduced this excess of exportation, and occasionally, indeed, inclined the balance the other way. This led to several suspensions of the restrictions on importation; and at length, in 1773, a new act was framed, by which foreign wheat was allowed to be imported on paying a nominal duty of 6*d.* whenever the home price was at or above 48*s.* a quarter, and the bounty on exportation were together to cease when the price was at or above 44*s.* This statute also permitted the importation of corn at any price, duty free, in order to be again exported, provided it were in the mean time lodged under the joint locks of the king and the importer.

The prices when exportation was to cease by this act seem to have been fixed too low; and, as Dr. Smith has observed, there appears a good deal of impropriety in prohibiting exportation altogether the moment it attained the limit when the bounty given to force it was withdrawn; yet, with all these defects, the act of 1773 was a material improvement on the former system, and ought not to have been altered unless to give greater freedom to the trade.

The idea that this law must, when enacted, have been injurious to the agriculturists, seems altogether illusory; the permission to import foreign grain, when the home price rose to a moderate height, certainly prevented their realising exorbitant profits, in dear years, at the expense of the other classes; and prevented an unnatural proportion of the capital of the country from being turned towards agriculture. But as the limit at which importation at a nominal duty was allowed was fixed a good deal above the average price of the reign of George II., it cannot be maintained that it had any tendency to reduce previous prices, which is the only thing that could have discouraged agriculture; and, in fact, no such reduction took place.

It is, indeed, true, that, but for this act, we should not have imported so much foreign grain in the interval between 1773 and 1791. This importation, however, was not a consequence of the decline of agriculture; for it is admitted that every branch of rural economy was more improved in that period than in the whole of the preceding century; but arose entirely from a still more rapid increase of the manufacturing population, and hence, of the effective demand for corn.

By referring to the Tables annexed to this article, it will be seen that, in 1772, the balance on the side of wheat imported amounted to 18,515 quarters; and in 1773, 1774, and 1775, all years of great prosperity, the balance was very much increased. But the loss of a great part of our colonial possessions, the stagnation of commerce, and difficulty of obtaining employment, occasioned by the American war, diminished the consumption; and this, combined with unusually productive harvests, rendered the balance high on the side of exportation, in 1778, 1779, and 1780. In 1783 and 1784 the crops were unusually deficient, and considerable importations took place; but in 1785, 1786, and 1787 the exports again exceeded the imports; and it was not till 1788, when the country had fully recovered from the effects of the American war, and when manufacturing improvements were carried on with extraordinary spirit, that the imports permanently overbalanced the exports.

The growing wealth and commercial prosperity of the country had thus, by increasing the population and enabling individuals to consume additional quantities of food, caused the home supply of corn to fall somewhat short of the demand; but it must not therefore be concluded that agriculture had not at the same time been very greatly meliorated. "The average annual produce of wheat," says Mr. Comber, "at the beginning of the reign of George III. (1760), was about 3,800,000 quarters, of which about 300,000 had been sent out of the kingdom, leaving about 3,500,000 for home consumption. In 1773, the produce of wheat was stated in the House of Commons to be 4,000,000 quarters, of which the whole, and above 100,000 imported, were consumed in the kingdom. In 1796, the consumption was stated by Lord Hawkesbury to be 500,000 quarters per month, or 6,000,000 quarters annually, of which about 180,000 were imported; showing an increased produce in about 20 years of 1,820,000 quarters. It is evident, therefore, not only that no defalcation of produce had taken place in consequence of the cessation of exportation, as has been too lightly assumed from the

* The bounty amounted to 5*s.* on every quarter of wheat; 2*s.* 6*d.* on every quarter of barley; 3*s.* 6*d.* on every quarter of rye; and 2*s.* 6*d.* on every quarter of oats.

occasional necessity of importation, but that it had increased with the augmentation of our commerce and manufactures."— (*Comber on National Subsistence*, p. 180.)

These estimates are, no doubt, very loose and unsatisfactory; but the fact of a great increase of produce having taken place is unquestionable. In a report by a committee of the House of Commons on the state of the *waste lands*, drawn up in 1797, the number of acts passed for enclosing, and the number of acres enclosed, in the following reigns, are thus stated:—

In the reign of	Number of Acts.	Number of Acres.
Queen Anne	2	1,489
George I.	16	17,860
George II.	226	318,778
George III. to 1797	1,532	2,804,197

It deserves particular notice, that from 1771 to 1791, both inclusive, the period during which the greater number of these improvements were effected, there was no rise of prices.

The landholders, however, could not but consider the liberty of importation granted by the act of 1773 as injurious to their interests, inasmuch as it prevented prices from rising with the increased demand. A clamour, therefore, was raised against that law; and in addition to this interested feeling, a dread of becoming habitually dependent on foreign supplies, operated on many, and produced a pretty general acquiescence in the act of 1791. By this act, the price when importation could take place from abroad at the low duty of *6d.* was raised to *5s.*; under *5s.* and above *50s.* a middle duty of *2s. 6d.*; and under *50s.* a prohibiting duty of *2s. 3d.* was exigible. The bounty continued as before, and exportation without bounty was allowed to *46s.* It was also enacted, that foreign wheat might be imported, stored under the king's lock, and again exported free of duty; but, if sold for home consumption, it became liable to a warehouse duty of *2s. 6d.* in addition to the ordinary duties payable at the time of sale.

In 1797, the Bank of England obtained an exemption from paying in specie; and the consequent facility of obtaining discounts and getting a command of capital, which this measure occasioned, gave a fresh stimulus to agriculture; the efficacy of which was most powerfully assisted by the scarcity and high prices of 1800 and 1801. Inasmuch, however, as the prices of 1804 would not allow the cultivation of the poor soils, which had been broken up in the dear years, to be continued, a new corn law was loudly called for by the farmers, and passed in 1804. This law imposed a prohibitory duty of *24s. 3d.* per quarter on all wheat imported when the home price was at or below *63s.*; between *63s.* and *66s.* a middle duty of *2s. 6d.* was paid, and above *66s.* a nominal duty of *6d.* The price at which the bounty was allowed on exportation was extended to *50s.*, and exportation without bounty to *54s.* By the act of 1791, the maritime counties of England were divided into 12 districts, importation and exportation being regulated by the particular prices of each; but by the act of 1804 they were regulated, in England, by the *aggregate average* of the maritime districts; and in Scotland by the aggregate average of the 4 maritime districts into which it was divided. The averages were taken 4 times a year, so that the ports could not be open or shut for less than 3 months. This manner of ascertaining prices was, however, modified in the following session; it being then fixed that importation, both in England and Scotland, should be regulated by the average price of the 12 maritime districts of England.

In 1805, the crop was very considerably deficient, and the average price of that year was about *22s.* a quarter above the price at which importation was allowed by the act of 1804. As the depreciation of paper, compared with bullion, was at that time only few per cent., the high price of that year must have been principally owing to the new law preventing importation from abroad till the home price was high, and then fettering mercantile operations; and to the formidable obstacles which the war threw in the way of importation. In 1806*, 1807, and 1808, the depreciation of paper was nearly 3 per cent.; and the price of wheat in those years being generally from *66s.* to *75s.*, the importations were but small. From autumn 1808, to spring 1814, the depreciation of the currency was unusually great; and several crops in that interval being likewise deficient, the price of corn, influenced by both causes, rose to a surprising height. At that time no vessel could be laden in any Continental port for England without purchasing a licence, and the freight and insurance were at least 5 times as high as during peace. But the destruction of Napoleon's anti-commercial system, in the autumn of 1813, having increased the facilities of importation, a large quantity of corn was poured into the kingdom; and, in 1814, its *bullion* price fell below the price at which importation was allowed.

* Several impolitic restraints had been for a long time imposed on the free importation and exportation of corn between Great Britain and Ireland, but they were wholly abolished in 1806; and the act of that year (46 Geo. 3. c. 97.), establishing a free trade in corn between the 2 great divisions of the empire, was not only a wise and proper measure in itself, but has powerfully contributed to promote the general advantage.

Before this fall of price, a committee of the House of Commons had been appointed to inquire into the state of the laws affecting the corn trade; and recommended in their Report (dated 11th of May, 1813) a very great increase of the prices at which exportation was allowable, and when importation free of duty might take place. This recommendation was not, however, adopted by the House; but the fact of its having been made when the home price was at least 112s. a quarter, displayed a surprising solicitude to exclude foreigners from all competition with the home growers.

The wish to lessen the dependence of the country on foreign supplies formed the sole ostensible motive by which the committee of 1813 had been actuated, in proposing an alteration in the act of 1804. But after the fall of price in autumn 1813, and in the early part of 1814, it became obvious, on comparing our previous prices with those of the Continent, that without an alteration of the law in question this dependence would be a good deal increased; that a considerable extent of such poor lands as had been brought into cultivation during the high prices, would be again thrown into pasturage; and that rents would be lowered. These consequences alarmed the landlords and occupiers; and in the early part of the session of 1814, a series of resolutions were voted by the House of Commons, declaring that it was expedient to repeal the bounty, to permit the free exportation of corn whatever might be the home price, and to impose a graduated scale of duties on the importation of foreign corn. Thus, foreign wheat imported when the home price was at or under 64s. was to pay a duty of 24s.; when at or under 65s. a duty of 23s.; and so on, till the home price should reach 86s., when the duty was reduced to 1s., at which sum it became stationary. Corn imported from Canada, or from the other British colonies in North America, was to pay half the duties on other corn. As soon as these resolutions had been agreed to, two bills founded on them — one for regulating the importation of foreign corn, and another for the repeal of the bounty, and for permitting unrestricted exportation — were introduced. Very little attention was paid to the last of these bills; but the one imposing fresh duties on importation encountered a very keen opposition. The manufacturers, and every class not directly supported by agriculture, stigmatised it as an unjustifiable attempt artificially to keep up the price of food, and to secure excessive rents and large profits to the landholders and farmers at the expense of the consumers. Meetings were very generally held, and resolutions entered into strongly expressive of this sentiment, and dwelling on the fatal consequences which, it was affirmed, a continuance of the high prices would have on manufactures and commerce. This determined opposition, coupled with the indecision of ministers, and perhaps, too, with an expectation on the part of some of the landholders that prices would rise without any legislative interference, caused the miscarriage of this bill. The other bill, repealing the bounty, and allowing an unlimited freedom of exportation, was passed into a law.

Committees had been appointed in 1814, by both Houses of Parliament, to examine evidence and report on the state of the corn trade; and, in consequence, a number of the most eminent agriculturists were examined. The witnesses were unanimous in this only, — that the protecting prices in the act of 1804 were insufficient to enable the farmers to make good the engagements into which they had subsequently entered, and to continue the cultivation of the inferior lands lately brought under tillage. Some of them thought that 120s. should be fixed as the lowest limit at which the importation of wheat free of duty should be allowed: others varied from 90s. to 100s. — from 80s. to 90s. — and a few from 70s. to 80s. The general opinion, however, seemed to be that 80s. would suffice; and as prices continued to decline, a set of resolutions founded on this assumption were submitted to the House of Commons by Mr. Robinson, of the Board of Trade (now Lord Ripon); and having been agreed to, a bill founded on them was, after a very violent opposition, carried in both Houses by immense majorities, and finally passed into a law (55 Geo. 3. c. 26.). According to this act, all sorts of foreign corn, meal, or flour might be imported at all times free of duty into any port of the United Kingdom, in order to be warehoused; but foreign corn was not permitted to be imported for home consumption, except when the average prices of the several sorts of British corn were as follows: viz. wheat, 80s. per quarter; rye, peas, and beans, 53s.; barley, bear, or bigg, 40s.; and oats, 26s.; and all importation of corn from any of the British plantations in North America was forbidden, except when the average home prices were at or under — wheat, 67s. per quarter; rye, peas, and beans, 44s.; barley, bear, or bigg, 33s.; and oats, 22s.

The agriculturists confidently expected that this act would immediately raise prices, and render them steady at about 80s. But, for reasons which will be afterwards stated, these expectations were entirely disappointed; and a more ruinous fluctuation of prices took place during the period it was in existence, than in any previous period of our recent history. In 1821, when prices had sunk very low, a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the causes of the depressed state of agriculture, and to report their observations thereon. This committee, after ex-

aming a number of witnesses, drew up a report, which, though not free from error, is a valuable document. It contains a forcible exposition of the pernicious influence of the law of 1815, of which it suggested several important modifications. These, however, were not adopted; and as the low prices, and consequent distress of the agriculturists, continued, the subject was brought under the consideration of parliament in the following year. After a good deal of discussion, a new act was then passed (3 Geo. 4. c. 60.), which enacted, that after prices had risen to the limit of free importation fixed by the act of 1815, that act was to cease and the new statute to come into operation. This statute lowered the prices fixed by the act of 1815, at which importation could take place for home consumption, to the following sums, viz. —

	For corn not of the British Possessions in North America.	For Corn of the British Possessions in North America.
Wheat - - -	- 70s. per quarter.	58s. per quarter.
Rye, peas, and beans - -	- 45s. —	39s. —
Barley, bear, or bigg - -	- 35s. —	30s. —
Oats - - -	- 25s. —	20s. —

But, in order to prevent any violent oscillation of prices from a large supply of grain being suddenly thrown into the market, it was enacted, that a duty of 17s. a quarter should be laid on all wheat imported from foreign countries, during the first 3 months after the opening of the ports, if the price was between 70s. and 80s. a quarter, and of 12s. afterwards; that if the price was between 80s. and 85s., the duty should be 10s. for the first 3 months, and 5s. afterwards; and that if the price should exceed 85s., the duty should be constant at 1s.; and proportionally for other sorts of grain.

This act, by preventing importation until the home price rose to 70s., and then loading the quantities imported between that limit and the limit of 85s. with heavy duties, was certainly more favourable to the views of the agriculturists than the act of 1815. But, unluckily for them, the prices of no species of corn, except barley, were sufficiently high, while this act existed, to bring it into operation.

In 1825, the first approach was made to a better system, by permitting the importation of wheat from British North America, without reference to the price at home, on payment of a duty of 5s. a quarter. But this act was passed with difficulty, and was limited to one year's duration.

Owing to the drought that prevailed during the summer of 1826, there was every prospect that there would be a great deficiency in the crops of that year; and, in order to prevent the disastrous consequences that might have taken place, had importation been prevented until the season was too far advanced for bringing supplies from the great corn markets in the north of Europe, his Majesty was authorised to admit 500,000 quarters of foreign wheat on payment of such duties as the order in council for its importation should declare. And when it was ascertained that the crops of oats, peas, &c. were greatly below an average, ministers issued an order in council, on their own responsibility, on the 1st of September, authorising the immediate importation of oats on payment of a duty of 2s. 2d. a boll; and of rye, peas, and beans, on payment of a duty of 3s. 6d. a quarter. A considerable quantity of oats was imported under this order, the timely appearance of which had undoubtedly a very considerable effect in mitigating the pernicious consequences arising from the deficiency of that species of grain. Ministers obtained an indemnity for this order on the subsequent meeting of parliament.

Nothing could more strikingly evince the impolicy of the acts of 1815 and 1822, than the necessity, under which the legislature and government had been placed, of passing the temporary acts and issuing the orders alluded to. The more intelligent portion of the agriculturists began, at length, to perceive that the corn laws were not really calculated to produce the advantages that they had anticipated; and a conviction that increased facilities should be given to importation became general throughout the country. The same conviction made considerable progress in the House of Commons; so much so, that several members who supported the measures adopted in 1815 and 1822, expressed themselves satisfied that the principle of exclusion had been carried too far, and that a more liberal system should be adopted. Ministers having participated in these sentiments, Mr. Canning moved a series of resolutions, as the foundation of a new corn law, on the 1st of March, 1827, to the effect that foreign corn might always be imported, free of duty, in order to be warehoused; and that it should always be admissible for home consumption upon payment of certain duties. Thus, in the instance of wheat, it was resolved that, when the home price was at or above 70s. a quarter, the duty should be a fixed one of 1s.; and that for every shilling that the price fell below 70s. a duty of 2s. should be imposed; so that when the price was at 69s. the duty on importation was to be 2s., when at 68s. the duty was to be 4s., and so on. The limit at which the constant duty of 1s. a quarter was to take place in the case of barley was originally fixed at 37s.; but it was subsequently raised to 40s., the duty increasing by 1s. 6d. for every 1s. when the price fell below that limit. The

limit at which the constant duty of 1s. a quarter was to take place in the case of oats was originally fixed at 28s. ; but it was subsequently raised to 39s., the duty increasing at the rate of 1s. a quarter for every shilling that the price fell below that limit. The duty on colonial wheat was fixed at 6d. the quarter when the home price was above 65s. ; and when the price was under that sum the duty was constant at 5s. ; the duties on other descriptions of colonial grain were similar. These resolutions were agreed to by a large majority ; and a bill founded on them was subsequently carried through the House of Commons. Owing, however, to the change of ministers, which took place in the interim, several peers, originally favourable to the bill, and some, even, who assisted in its preparation, saw reason to become amongst its most violent opponents ; and a clause moved by the Duke of Wellington, interdicting all importation of foreign corn until the home price exceeded 66s. having been carried in the Lords, ministers gave up the bill, justly considering that such a clause was entirely subversive of its principle.

A new set of resolutions with respect to the corn trade were brought forward in 1828 by Mr. Charles Grant (now Lord Glenelg). They were founded on the same principles as those which had been rejected during the previous session. But the duty was not made to vary equally, as in Mr. Canning's resolutions, with every equal variation of price ; it being 23s. 8d. when the home price was 64s. the Imperial quarter ; 16s. 8d. when it was 69s. ; and 1s. only when it was at or above 73s. After a good deal of debate, Mr. Grant's resolutions were carried, and embodied in the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 60.

The crops having been deficient in 1829 and 1830, there was a large importation of corn in these years, its average price being at the same time about 65s. a quarter. But the crops from 1831 to 1836 having been more than usually abundant, importation almost wholly ceased, and the price of wheat sunk in 1835 to 39s. 4d. a quarter, being less than it had been in any previous year since 1776. In consequence of this succession of good harvests and low prices, the corn laws ceased for a while to attract any considerable portion of the public attention, and an impression began to gain ground that the improvement of agriculture was so very rapid, that, despite the increase of population and the existence of the corn laws, our prices would fall to about the level of those of the Continent. But the cycle of favourable seasons having terminated in 1837, the crops of that and the succeeding 5 years were considerably deficient : so much so that prices rose in 1839 to 70s. 8d. a quarter, the importations in that and the three following years being almost entirely stopped. This increase in the price of corn, combined with the depressed state of the commerce of the country, originating in the pecuniary revulsion in the U. States and other parts, again attracted a great deal of attention to the corn laws ; and the oppressive magnitude and injurious operation of the duties were very strongly animadverted upon at public meetings in the manufacturing towns and elsewhere. An association, denominated the Anti-Corn Law League, originally founded in Lancashire, but which subsequently extended its ramifications to most parts of the country, was set on foot for the express purpose of keeping up an incessant agitation against the corn laws, which, in consequence of these concurring circumstances, were assailed with greater bitterness than ever. The importance of the subject at length forced it on the attention of government, and in 1841 ministers, actuated partly by a sense of the mischievous influence of the sliding scale, and partly, also, by a wish to strengthen their declining popularity, brought forward a plan for remodelling the corn laws, by repealing the sliding scale and imposing in its stead a constant duty of 8s. a quarter on wheat, and in proportion on other grain. But, having no majority in parliament, ministers were obliged to resort to a dissolution ; and their proposal having, notwithstanding its moderation, excited the greatest apprehensions among the agriculturists, without being very warmly supported by the other classes, a new parliament was returned, which gave a decided majority to the opposition. It was, however, felt on all hands to be necessary to make some considerable change in the existing law, and in 1842 a measure was introduced in that view by Sir Robert Peel, which was subsequently passed into a law, 5 Victoria, 2d Sess. c. 14.

Unfortunately, however, this measure, like that by which it was preceded, was bot-tomed on the principle of making the duties vary with the variations in the price of corn ; and though the duties were decidedly less oppressive than those imposed by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 60., still they were in no ordinary degree objectionable, as well from their too great magnitude as from their adding to the natural insecurity of the corn trade, and increasing the chances and severity of fluctuations. It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that the new measure gave but little satisfaction. Instead of being abated, the agitation and clamour against the corn laws continued progressively to gain strength ; and the conviction began at the same time gradually to extend itself among many of those by whom these laws had hitherto been supported, that farther modifications would have to be made in them ; and that they might be made without inflicting any very serious injury upon agriculture.

This conviction was greatly strengthened by the result of the important changes made by Sir Robert Peel in the tariff in 1842, and more especially by those which had reference to the importation of live cattle and fresh provisions. These had previously been prohibited; but the minister proposed that this prohibition should be repealed, and that their importation should be permitted under reasonable duties. This proposal, when first brought forward, excited the greatest apprehensions among the farmers and graziers, and was followed by an immediate fall in the price of cattle. Happily, however, the measure was carried, and it was speedily discovered that there was no such difference between the prices of cattle of the same quality here and in the adjacent parts of the continent, as had been supposed; and that the fears entertained by the agriculturists of the approaching ruin of the businesses of breeding and grazing were altogether visionary and unfounded. The experience afforded by the reduction and subsequent abolition of the duty on wool was exactly similar. Instead of being injured, the interests of the British sheep farmers have been most materially promoted by these measures; the demand for home-grown wool having been rendered comparatively steady, and its price considerably increased by the powerful stimulus which the change in the duty on foreign wool gave to the woollen manufacture.

In the following year, that is, in 1843, a measure was adopted which made a wide breach in the corn laws. In 1842 the legislature of Canada passed a law imposing a duty of 3s. a quarter on all wheat imported into the province, unless from the U. Kingdom, stating in the preamble to this act, that it was passed in the expectation and belief that a corresponding reduction would be made in the duties on wheat and wheat-flour imported into the U. Kingdom from Canada. And conformably to this anticipation, the act 6 & 7 Vict. c. 29., passed in the course of 1843, reduced the duty on wheat imported from Canada to 1s. a quarter, and proportionally on wheat-flour. This act met with much opposition from a part of the agricultural interest in this country, who contended that it would lead to the introduction of unlimited supplies of corn from the U. States at a duty of only 4s. a quarter, or, allowing for smuggling, at perhaps only half that amount. But experience showed that these anticipations were not likely to be realised; for, though the imports from Canada were materially increased, the obstacles in the way of the importation of corn from the U. States into Canada, and the danger and expense of the voyage from Montreal or Quebec to England, must necessarily have prevented the importation through this channel from ever becoming of much importance. Still, however, the measure was in so far an abandonment of the corn laws; and if we were justified in admitting the produce of the U. States to our markets in this indirect way, it was not easy to discover satisfactory grounds on which to exclude the produce of other states.

The success of the measures adopted in 1842 encouraged Sir Robert Peel to attempt still more considerable changes in 1845, when he totally abolished the customs duties on no fewer than 420 different articles, some of which were of very considerable importance. The measures then adopted were equivalent, in fact, to the virtual abandonment of the protective system; and under such circumstances it could not be expected that the corn laws, on which so serious an inroad had been made by the Canada act, would be able to maintain their place on the statute book for any very lengthened period.

They might, however, have been continued for some time longer, had not the unsatisfactory corn harvest, and the failure of the potato crop of 1845, made it necessary to adopt measures for averting the anticipated deficiency in the supplies of food. Under the critical circumstances in which the population was then believed to be placed, the temporary suspension of the corn laws could hardly have been avoided; but if once suspended, their re-enactment would have been all but impossible, and it was better by at once providing for their repeal to make an end of the system, and of the dissatisfaction and agitation to which it had given birth, than to endeavour to continue it in any modified shape. Such was the view of the matter taken by Sir Robert Peel, and he fortunately succeeded, despite difficulties that none else could have overcome, in carrying the act 9 & 10 Vict. c. 22., for the immediate modification of the corn laws, and for their total repeal at the end of three years, or on the 1st February, 1849. (See *post*.)

II. PRINCIPLES OF THE CORN LAWS.

1. *Internal Corn Trade.* — It is needless to take up the reader's time by endeavouring to prove by argument the advantage of allowing the free conveyance of corn from one province to another. Every one sees that this is indispensable, not only to the equal distribution of the supplies of food over the country, but to enable the inhabitants of those districts that are best fitted for the raising and fattening of cattle, sheep, &c. to addict themselves to these or other necessary occupations not directly connected with the production of corn. We shall, therefore, confine the few remarks we have to make

on this subject, to the consideration of the influence of the speculations of the corn merchants in buying up corn in anticipation of an advance. Their proceedings in this respect, though of the greatest public utility, have been the principal causes of that odium to which they have been long exposed.

Were the harvests always equally productive, nothing would be gained by storing up supplies of corn; and all that would be necessary would be to distribute the crop equally throughout the country and throughout the year. But such is not the order of nature. The variations in the aggregate produce of a country in different seasons, though not perhaps so great as are commonly supposed, are still very considerable; and experience has shown that two or three unusually luxuriant harvests seldom take place in succession; or that when they do, they are invariably followed by those that are deficient. The speculators in corn anticipate this result. Whenever prices begin to give way in consequence of an unusually luxuriant harvest, speculation is at work. The more opulent farmers withhold either the whole or a part of their produce from market; and the more opulent dealers purchase largely of the corn brought to market, and store it up in expectation of a future advance. And thus, without intending to promote any one's interest but their own, speculators in corn become the benefactors of the public. They provide a reserve stock against those years of scarcity which are sure at no distant period to recur; while, by withdrawing a portion of the redundant supply from immediate consumption, prices are prevented from falling so low as to be injurious to the farmers, or at least are maintained at a higher level than they would otherwise have reached; provident habits are maintained amongst the people; and that waste and extravagance are checked, which always take place in plentiful years, but which would be carried to a much greater extent if the whole produce of an abundant crop were to be consumed within the season.

It is, however, in scarce years that the speculations of the corn merchants are principally advantageous. Even in the richest countries, a very large proportion of the individuals engaged in the business of agriculture are comparatively poor, and are totally without the means of withholding their produce from market, in order to speculate upon any future advance. In consequence the markets are always most abundantly supplied with produce immediately after harvest; and in countries where the merchants engaged in the corn trade are not possessed of large capitals, or where their proceedings are fettered and restricted, there is then, almost invariably, a heavy fall of prices. But as the vast majority of the people buy their food in small quantities, or from day to day, as they want it, their consumption is necessarily extended or contracted according to its price at the time. Their views do not extend to the future; they have no means of judging whether the crop is or is not deficient. They live, as the phrase is, from hand to mouth; and are satisfied if, in the mean time, they obtain abundant supplies at a cheap rate. But it is obvious, that were there nothing to control or counteract this improvidence, the consequence would very often be fatal in the extreme. The crop of one harvest must support the population till the crop of the other harvest has been gathered in; and if that crop should be deficient—if, for instance, it should only be adequate to afford, at the usual rate of consumption, a supply of 9 or 10 months' provisions instead of 12—it is plain that, unless the price were so raised immediately after harvest as to enforce economy, and put, as it were, the whole nation on short allowance, the most dreadful famine would be experienced previously to the ensuing harvest. Those who examine the accounts of the prices of wheat and other grain in England, collected by Bishop Fleetwood and Sir F. M. Eden, will meet with abundant proofs of the accuracy of what has now been stated. In those remote periods when the farmers were generally without the means of withholding their crops from market, and when the trade of a corn dealer was proscribed, the utmost improvidence was exhibited in the consumption of grain. There were then, indeed, very few years in which a considerable scarcity was not experienced immediately before harvest, and many in which there was an absolute famine. The fluctuations of price exceeded every thing of which we can now form an idea; the price of wheat and other grain being 4 or 5 times as high in June and July as in September and October. Thanks, however, to the increase of capital in the hands of the large farmers and dealers, and to the freedom given to the operations of the corn merchants, we are no longer exposed to such ruinous vicissitudes. Whenever the dealers, who, in consequence of their superior means of information, are better acquainted with the real state of the crops than any other class of persons, find the harvest likely to be deficient, they raise the price of the corn they have warehoused, and bid against each other for the corn which the farmers are bringing to market. In consequence of this rise of prices, all ranks and orders, but especially the lower, who are the great consumers of corn, find it indispensable to use greater economy, and to check all improvident and wasteful consumption. Every class being thus immediately put upon short allowance, the pressure of the scarcity is distributed equally throughout the year; and instead of indulging, as was formerly the case, in the same scale of consumption as in seasons of

plenty, until the supply became altogether deficient, and then being exposed without resource to the attacks of famine and pestilence, the speculations of the corn merchants warn us of our danger, and compel us to provide against it.

It is not easy to suppose that these proceedings of the corn merchants should ever be injurious to the public. It has been said that in scarce years they are not disposed to bring the corn they have purchased to market until it has attained an exorbitant price, and that the pressure of the scarcity is thus often very much aggravated; but there is no real ground for any such statement. The immense amount of capital required to store up any considerable quantity of corn, and the waste to which it is liable, render most holders disposed to sell as soon as they can realise a fair profit. In every extensive country in which the corn trade is free, there are infinitely too many persons engaged in it to enable any sort of combination or concert to be formed amongst them; and though it were formed, it could not be maintained for an instant. A large proportion of the farmers and other small holders of corn are always in straitened circumstances, more particularly if a scarce year has not occurred so soon as they expected; and they are consequently anxious to relieve themselves, as soon as prices rise, of a portion of the stock on their hands. Occasionally, indeed, individuals are found, who retain their stocks for too long a period, or until a reaction takes place, and prices begin to decline. But instead of joining in the popular cry against such persons, every one who takes a dispassionate view of the matter will perceive that, inasmuch as their miscalculation must, under the circumstances supposed, be exceedingly injurious to themselves, we have the best security against its being carried to such an extent as to be productive of any material injury or even inconvenience to the public. It should also be borne in mind, that it is rarely, if ever, possible to determine beforehand, when a scarcity is to abate in consequence of new supplies being brought to market; and had it continued a little longer, there would have been no miscalculation on the part of the holders. At all events, it is plain that by declining to bring their corn to market, they preserved an unfavourable contingency taking place, the public could have fallen back; so that, instead of deserving abuse, these speculators are most justly entitled to every fair encouragement and protection. A country in which there is no considerable stock of grain in the barnyards of the farmers, or in the warehouses of the merchants, is in the most perilous situation that can easily be imagined, and may be exposed to the severest privations, or even famine. But so long as the sagacity, the miscalculation, or the avarice of merchants and dealers retain a stock of grain in the warehouses, this last extremity cannot take place. By refusing to sell it till it has reached a very high price, they put an effectual stop to all sorts of waste, and husband for the public those supplies which they could not have so frugally husbanded for themselves.

We have already remarked that the last remnant of the shackles imposed by statute on the freedom of the internal corn dealer was abolished in 1773. It is true that engrossing, forestalling, and regrating—(see *ENGROSSING*, &c.)—are still held to be offences at common law; but there is very little probability of any one being in future made to answer for such ideal offences.

2. *Exportation to foreign Countries.*—The fallacy of the notion so long entertained, that the prevention of exportation was the surest method of increasing plenty at home, is obvious to every one who has reflected upon such subjects. The markets of no country can ever be steadily and plentifully supplied with corn, unless her merchants have power to export the surplus supplies with which they may be occasionally furnished. When a country without the means of exporting grows nearly her own average supplies of corn, an abundant crop, by causing a great overloading of the market, and a heavy fall of price, is as injurious to the farmer as a scarcity. It may be thought, perhaps, that the greater quantity of produce in abundant seasons will compensate for its lower price; but this is not the case. It is uniformly found that variations in the quantity of corn exert a much greater influence over prices, than equal variations in the quantity of almost any thing else offered for sale. Being the principal necessary of life, when the supply of corn happens to be less than ordinary, the mass of the people make very great, though unavailing, exertions, by diminishing their consumption of other and less indispensable articles, to obtain their accustomed supplies of this prime necessary; so that its price rises much more than in proportion to its deficiency. On the other hand, when the supply is unusually large, the consumption is not proportionally extended. In ordinary years, the bulk of the population is about adequately fed; and though the consumption of all classes be somewhat greater in unusually plentiful years, the extension is considerable only among the lowest classes, and in the feeding of horses. Hence it is that the increased supply at market, in such years, goes principally to cause a glut, and consequently a ruinous decline of prices. These statements are corroborated by the widest experience. Whenever there is an inability to export, from whatever cause it may arise, an unusually luxuriant crop is uniformly accompanied by a very heavy fall of

price, and severe agricultural distress; and when two or three such crops happen to follow in succession, the ruin of a large proportion of the farmers is completed.

If the mischiefs resulting from the want of power to export stopped here, they might, though very great, be borne; but they do not stop here. It is idle to suppose that a system ruinous to the producers can be otherwise to the consumers. A glut of the market, occasioned by luxuriant harvests, and the want of power to export, cannot be of long continuance; for, while it continues, it can hardly fail, by distressing all classes of farmers, and causing the ruin of many, to give a check to every species of agricultural improvement, and to lessen the extent of land in tillage. When, therefore, an unfavourable season recurs, the reaction is, for the most part, appalling. The supply, being lessened, not only by the badness of the season, but also by a diminution of the quantity of land in crop, falls very far below an average; and a severe scarcity, if not an absolute famine, is most commonly experienced. It is therefore clear, that if a country would render herself secure against famine and injurious fluctuations of price, she must give every possible facility to exportation in years of unusual plenty. If she act upon a different system,—if her policy make exportation in such years impracticable, or very difficult,—she will infallibly render the bounty of Providence an injury to her agriculturists; and two or three abundant harvests in succession will be the forerunners of scarcity and famine.

3. *Bounty on the Exportation of Corn.*—A great gain, as already observed, has not only been allowed to export for a long series of years, but from the Revolution down to 1815 a bounty was given on exportation, whenever the home prices were depressed below certain limits. This policy, however, erred as much on the one hand as a restriction on exportation errs on the other. It causes, it is true, an extension of the demand for corn; but this greater demand is not caused by natural, but by artificial means; it is not a consequence of any really increased demand on the part of the foreigner, but of our furnishing the exporters of corn with a *bonus*, in order that they may sell it abroad below its natural price! To suppose that a proceeding of this sort can be a public advantage, is equivalent to supposing that a shopkeeper may get rich by selling his goods below what they cost. (See *BOUNTY*.)

4. *Importation from Foreign Countries.*—If a country were, like Poland or Russia, uniformly in the habit of exporting corn to other countries, a restriction on importation would be of no material consequence; because, though such restriction did not exist, no foreign corn would be imported, unless its ports were so situated as to serve for an *entrepôt*. A restriction on importation is sensibly felt only when it is enforced in a country which, owing to the greater density of its population, the limited extent of its fertile land, or any other cause, would either occasionally or uniformly import. It is familiar to the observation of every one, that a total failure of the crops is a calamity that but rarely occurs in an extensive kingdom; that the weather which is unfavourable to one description of soil, is generally favourable to some other description; and that, except in anomalous cases, the total produce is not very different. But what is thus generally true of single countries, is always true of the world at large. History furnishes no single instance of a universal scarcity; but it is uniformly found, that when the crops in a particular country are unusually deficient, they are proportionally abundant in some other quarter. It is clear, however, that a prohibition of importation excludes the country which enacts it from profiting by this beneficent arrangement. She is thrown entirely on her own resources. Under the circumstances supposed, she has nothing to trust to for relief but the reserves in her warehouses; and should these be inadequate to meet the exigency of the crisis, there are apparently no means by which she can escape experiencing all the evils of scarcity, or, it may be, of famine. A country deprived of the power to import is unable to supply the deficiencies of her harvests by the surplus produce of other countries; so that her inhabitants may starve amidst surrounding plenty, and suffer the extreme of scarcity, when, but for the restrictions on importation, they might enjoy the greatest abundance. If the prohibition be not absolute, but conditional; if, instead of absolutely excluding foreign corn from the home markets, it be merely loaded with a duty, the degree in which such duty will operate to increase the scarcity and dearth will depend on its magnitude. If the duty be constant and moderate, it may not have any very considerable effect in discouraging importation; but if it be fluctuating and heavy, it will, by falsifying the speculations of the merchants, and making a corresponding addition to the price of the corn imported, be proportionally injurious. In whatever degree foreign corn may be excluded in years of deficient crops, to the same extent must prices be artificially raised, and the pressure of the scarcity rendered so much the more severe.

Such would be the disastrous influence of a restriction on importation in a country which, were there no such obstruction in the way, would sometimes import and sometimes export. But its operation would be infinitely more injurious in a country which, under a free system, would uniformly import a portion of her supplies. The restriction

in this case has a twofold operation. By preventing importation from abroad, and forcing the population to depend for subsistence on corn raised at home, it compels recourse to comparatively inferior soils; and thus, by increasing the cost of producing corn above its cost in other countries, adds proportionally to its average price. The causes of fluctuation are, in this way, increased in a geometrical proportion; for, while the prevention of importation exposes the population to the pressure of want whenever the harvest happens to be less productive than usual, it is sure, at the same time, by raising average prices, to hinder exportation in a year of unusual plenty, until the home prices fall ruinously low. It is obvious, therefore, that a restriction of this sort must be alternately destructive of the interests of the consumers and producers. It injures the former by making them pay, at an average, an artificially increased price for their food, and by exposing them to scarcity and famine whenever the home crop proves deficient; and it injures the latter, by depriving them of the power to export in years of unusual plenty, and by overloading the market with produce, which, under a free system, would have met with an advantageous sale abroad.

The principle thus briefly explained, shows the impossibility of permanently keeping up the home prices by means of restrictions on importation, at the same time that it affords a clue by which we may trace the causes of most part of the agricultural distress experienced in this country since the peace. The real object of the Corn Law of 1815 was to keep up the price of corn at about 80s. a quarter; but to succeed in this, it was indispensable not only that foreign corn should be excluded when prices were under this limit, but that the markets should never be overloaded with corn produced at home: for it is clear, according to the principle already explained, that if the supply should in ordinary years be sufficient to feed the population, it must, in an unusually abundant year, be more than sufficient for that purpose; and when, in such a case, the surplus is thrown upon the market, it cannot fail, in the event of our average prices being considerably above the level of those of the surrounding countries, to cause a ruinous depression. Now, this was the precise situation of this country at the end of the war. Owing partly to the act of 1804, but far more to the difficulties in the way of importation, and the depreciation of the currency, prices attained to an extraordinary elevation from 1809 to 1814, and gave such a stimulus to agriculture, that we grew, in 1812 and 1813, sufficient corn for our own supply. And, such being the case, it is clear, though our ports had been hermetically sealed against importation from abroad, that the first luxuriant crop must have occasioned a ruinous decline of prices. It is the exclusion, not the introduction, of foreign corn that has caused the occasional distress of the agriculturists since 1815; for it is this exclusion that has forced up the price of corn in this country, in scarce and average years, to an unnatural level, and that, consequently, renders exportation in favourable seasons impossible, without such a fall of prices as is most disastrous to the farmer. It may be mentioned, in proof of what is now stated, that the average price of wheat in England and Wales in 1814 was 74s. 4d. a quarter, and in 1815 it had fallen to 65s. 7d. But as these prices would not indemnify the occupiers of the poorest lands brought under tillage during the previous high prices, they were gradually relinquishing their cultivation. A considerable portion of them had been converted into pasture; rents had been generally reduced, and wages had begun to decline; but the legislature having laid additional restrictions on the importation of foreign corn, the operation of this natural principle of adjustment was unfortunately counteracted, and the price of 1816 rose to 78s. 6d. This rise was, however, insufficient to occasion any new improvement; and as foreign corn was now excluded, and large tracts of bad land had been thrown out of cultivation, the supply was so much diminished that, notwithstanding the increase in the value of money, prices rose in 1817, partly, no doubt, in consequence of the bad harvest of the previous year, to 96s. 11d.; and in 1818 to 86s. 3d. These high prices had their natural effect. They revived the drooping spirits of the farmers, who imagined that the Corn Law was, at length, beginning to produce the effects anticipated from it, and that the golden days of 1812, when wheat sold for 126s. 6d. a quarter, were about to return! But this prosperity carried in its bosom the seeds of future mischief. The increased prices necessarily occasioned a fresh extension of tillage; capital was again applied to the improvement of the soil; and this increase of tillage, conspiring with favourable seasons, and the impossibility of exportation, sunk prices to such a degree, that they fell, in October, 1822, so low as 38s. 1d., the average price of that year being only 44s. 7d.

It is thus demonstrably certain, that the recurrence of periods of distress, similar to those which have been experienced by the agriculturists of this country since the peace, cannot be warded off by restricting or prohibiting importation. A free corn trade is the only system that can give them that security against fluctuations that is indispensable. The increased importation that necessarily takes place, under a free trade, as soon as any considerable deficiency in the crops is apprehended, prevents prices from rising to an oppressive height; while, on the other hand, when the crops are unusually luxuriant,

a ready outlet is found for the surplus in foreign countries, without its occasioning any very heavy fall. To expect to combine steadiness of prices with restrictions on importation, is to expect to reconcile what is contradictory and absurd. The higher the limit at which the importation of foreign corn into a country like England is fixed, the greater is the oscillation of prices. If we would secure for ourselves abundance, and avoid fluctuation, we must renounce all attempts at exclusion, and be ready to deal in corn, as we ought to be in every thing else, on fair and liberal principles.

That the restrictions imposed on the foreign corn trade during the last 20 years should not have been productive of more disastrous consequences than those that have actually resulted from them, is partly and principally to be ascribed to the unparalleled improvement of tillage in Great Britain during that period, and partly, also, to the great increase that has taken place in the imports from Ireland. Previously to 1806, when a perfectly free corn trade between Great Britain and Ireland was for the first time established, the yearly imports did not amount to 400,000 quarters, whereas they now amount to above 3,000,000; and any one who has ever been in Ireland, or is aware of the wretched state of its agriculture, and of the fertility of the soil, must be satisfied that a slight improvement would occasion a great increase in the imports from that country; and it is not improbable that the check that has latterly been given to the pernicious practice of splitting farms, to the potato culture, and consequently to the increase of a pauper population, may eventually lead to material improvements. Hence it is by no means improbable, seeing the fall that has already taken place, that the rapid spread of improvement at home, and the growing imports from Ireland, may, at no distant period, reduce our prices to the level of those of the Continent, and even render us an occasionally exporting country. These, however, are contingent and uncertain results; and supposing them to be ultimately realised, the corn laws, had they been maintained on their old footing, would, in the mean time, have been productive of great inconvenience, and would have materially aggravated the misery inseparable from bad harvests.

Nothing but the great importance of the subject could excuse us for dwelling so long on what is so very plain. To facilitate production, and to make commodities cheaper and more easily obtained, are the grand motives which stimulate the inventive powers, and which lead to the discovery and improvement of machines and processes for saving labour and diminishing cost; and it is plain that no system of commercial legislation deserves to be supported, which does not conspire to promote the same objects: but a restriction on the importation of corn into a country like England, which has made a great comparative advance in population and manufacturing industry, is diametrically opposed to these principles. The density of our population is such, that the exclusion of foreign corn has obliged us to resort to soils of less fertility than those that are under cultivation in the surrounding countries; and, in consequence, our average prices are comparatively high. The impolicy of this conduct is obvious. If we could, by laying out 1000*l.* on the manufacture of cottons or hardware, produce a quantity of these articles that would exchange for 500 quarters of American or Polish wheat; and if the same sum, were it expended in cultivation in this country, would not produce more than 400 quarters; the prevention of importation occasions an obvious sacrifice of 100 out of every 500 quarters consumed in the empire; or, which is the same thing, it occasions an artificial advance of 20 per cent. in the price of corn. We do not mean to say that this statement exactly represents the amount of injury that has been inflicted by the corn laws; but, at all events, it clearly illustrates the principle which they embody. But though plainly injurious to the public, it may seem, at first sight, as if this system were advantageous to the landlords. The advantage is, however, merely apparent: at bottom there is no real difference between the interests of the landlords and those of the rest of the community. It would be ridiculous, indeed, to imagine for a moment that the landlords could be benefited by a system in which those fluctuations of prices, so subversive of all agricultural prosperity, were inherent; but though these could have been got rid of, the result would have been the same. The prosperity of agriculture must always depend upon, and be determined by, the prosperity of other branches of industry; and any system which, like the corn laws, is injurious to the latter, cannot but be injurious to the former. Instead of being publicly advantageous, high prices are in every case distinctly and completely the reverse. The smaller the sacrifice for which any commodity can be obtained, so much the better. When the labour required to produce, or the money required to purchase, a sufficient supply of corn, is diminished, it is as clear as the sun at noon-day that more labour or money must remain to produce or purchase the other necessaries, conveniences, and amusements of human life, and that the sum of national wealth and comforts must be proportionally augmented. Those who suppose that a rise of prices can ever be a means of improving the condition of a country might, with equal reason, suppose that it would be improved by throwing its best soils out of cultivation, and destroying its most

powerful machines. The opinions of such persons are not only opposed to the plainest and best established principles, but they are opposed to the obvious conclusions of common sense, and the universal experience of mankind.

It would, however, be unjust not to mention that there has always been a large and respectable party amongst the landlords, opposed to all restrictions on the trade in corn, and who have uniformly thought that their interests, being identified with those of the public, would be best promoted by the abolition of restrictions on importation. A protest expressive of this opinion, subscribed by 10 peers, was entered on the Journals of the House of Lords, against the corn law of 1815. It is said to have been written by the late Lord Grenville, distinguished as an enlightened advocate of sound commercial principles. Its reasoning is so clear and satisfactory, that we are sure we shall gratify our readers, as well as strengthen the statements previously made, by laying it before them.

"*Dissentient.*— I. Because we are adverse in principle to all new restraints on commerce. We think it certain that public prosperity is best promoted by leaving uncontrolled the free current of national industry; and we wish rather, by well considered steps, to bring back our commercial legislation to the straight and simple line of wisdom, than to increase the deviation by subjecting additional and extensive branches of the public interest to fresh systems of artificial and injurious restrictions.

"II. Because we think that the great practical rule, of leaving all commerce uninterfered, applies *more peculiarly*, and on still stronger grounds of justice as well as policy, to the corn trade than in any other. Irresistible, indeed, must be that necessity which could, in our judgment, authorize the legislators to tamper with the sustenance of the people, and to impede the free purchase of that article on which depends the existence of so large a portion of the community.

"III. Because we think that the expectations of ultimate benefit from this measure are founded on a delusive theory. We cannot persuade ourselves that this law will ever contribute to produce plenty, cheapness, or steadiness of price. So long as it operates at all, its effects must be the opposite of these. *Monopoly is the parent of scarcity, of dearth, and of uncertainty.* To cut off any of the sources of supply, can only tend to lessen its abundance; to close against ourselves the cheapest market for any commodity, must enhance the price at which we purchase it; and to confine the consumer of corn to the produce of his own country, is to refuse to ourselves the benefit of that provision which Providence itself has made for equalizing to man the variations of climate and of seasons.

"IV. But whatever may be the future consequences of this law at some distant and uncertain period, we see with pain that these hopes must be purchased at the expense of a great and present evil. To compel the consumer to purchase corn dearer at home than it might be imported from abroad, is the immediate practical effect of this law. In this way alone can it operate. Its present protection, its promised extension of agriculture, must result (if at all) from the profits which it creates by keeping up the price of corn to an artificial level. These future benefits are the consequences expected, but, as we confidently believe, erroneously expected, from giving a bounty to the grower of corn, by a tax levied on its consumer.

"V. Because we think the adoption of any permanent law for such a purpose required the fullest and most laborious investigation. Nor would it have been sufficient for our satisfaction, could we have been convinced of the general propriety of a hazardous experiment. A still farther inquiry would have been necessary to persuade us that the present moment is fit for its adoption. In such an inquiry we must have had the means of satisfying ourselves what its immediate operation will be, as connected with the various and pressing circumstances of public difficulty and distress with which the country is surrounded; with the state of our circulation and currency, of our agriculture and manufactures, of our internal and external commerce, and above all, with the condition and reward of the industrious and labouring classes of our community.

"On all these particulars, as they respect this question, we think that parliament is almost wholly uninformed; so all we see reason for the utmost anxiety and alarm from the operation of this law.

"Lastly, Because, if we could approve of the principle and purpose of this law, we think that no sufficient foundation has been laid for its details. The evidence before us, unsatisfactory and imperfect as it is, seems to us rather to disprove than to support the propriety of the high price adopted as the standard of importation, and the fallacious mode by which that price is to be ascertained. And in all these grounds we are anxious to record our dissent from a measure so precipitate in its course, and, as we fear, so injurious in its consequences."

Attempts have sometimes been made to estimate the pecuniary burden which the restrictions on importation entailed in ordinary years upon the country. This, however, is a subject with respect to which it is not possible to obtain any accurate data. But supposing the total quantity of corn annually produced in Great Britain and Ireland to amount to 60,000,000 quarters, every shilling added to its price by the corn laws was equivalent to a tax on corn of 3,000,000*l.*; and estimating the average rise on all sorts of grain in late years at 3*s.* a quarter, the total rise will be 9,000,000*l.* So great a quantity of corn is, however, consumed by the agriculturists themselves, as food, in seed, the keep of horses, &c., that not more than a half, perhaps, of the whole quantity produced is brought to market. If we are nearly right in this hypothesis, and in the previous estimates, it will follow that the restrictions have cost the classes not engaged in agriculture no less than 4,500,000*l.* a year, exclusive of their other pernicious consequences. Of this sum a *third*, probably, or 900,000*l.*, may have gone to the landlords as rent; and this is *all* that the agriculturists can be said to have gained by the system, for the additional price received by the farmer on that portion of the produce which is exclusive of rent is no more than the ordinary return for his capital and labour. His profits, indeed, like those of all other capitalists, instead of being increased by this system, have been diminished by it; and though, nominally at least, it has somewhat increased the rents of the landlords, it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain that it has been any thing but advantageous to them. It would require a far larger sum to balance the injury which fluctuations of price occasion to their tenants, and the damage

done to their estates by over-cropping when prices are high, than all that they have derived from the restrictions.

3. *Duties on Importation.*—A duty may be equitably imposed on imported corn, for two objects; that is, either for the sake of revenue, or to balance any excess of taxes laid on the agriculturists over those laid on the other classes.—(See the *Treatise on Taxation* by the Author of this work, 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 187—193.) With respect, however, to a duty imposed for the sake of revenue, it may be doubted whether corn be a proper subject for taxation. At all events, a duty for such an object should be exceedingly moderate. It would be most inexpedient to attempt to add largely to the revenue by laying heavy duties on the prime necessary of life.

If it be really true that agriculture is more heavily taxed than any other branch of industry, the agriculturists are entitled to demand that a duty be laid on foreign corn when imported corresponding to the excess of burdens affecting them. It has been doubted, however, whether they are in this predicament. But though the question be not quite free from difficulty, it would, we think, be easy to show, were this a proper place for such inquiries, that, owing to the various local and other direct and indirect burdens laid on the land, those occupying it are really subjected to heavier taxes than any other class. It is difficult, or rather, perhaps, impossible to estimate with any degree of precision what the excess of taxes laid on the agriculturists beyond those laid on manufacturers and merchants may amount to; but we have elsewhere shown, that if we estimate it as making an addition of 5s. or 6s. to the quarter of wheat, we shall certainly be beyond the mark.—(*Treatise on Taxation, ubi suprâ.*)

When a duty is laid on the importation of foreign corn, for the equitable purpose of countervailing the peculiar duties laid on the corn raised at home, an *equivalent drawback* should be allowed on its exportation. "In allowing this drawback, we are merely returning to the farmer a tax which he has already paid, and which he must have, to place him in a fair state of competition in the foreign market, not only with the foreign producer, but with his own countrymen who are producing other commodities. It is essentially different from a bounty on exportation, in the sense in which the word bounty is usually understood; for by a bounty, is generally meant a tax levied on the people for the purpose of rendering corn unnaturally cheap to the foreign consumer; whereas what I propose is, to sell our corn at the price at which we can really afford to produce it, and not to add to its price a tax which shall induce the foreigner rather to purchase it from some other country, and deprive us of a trade which, under a system of free competition, we might have selected."—(*Ricardo on Protection to Agriculture, p. 53.*)

A duty accompanied with a drawback, as now stated, would not only, under the circumstances supposed, have been an equitable arrangement, but it would have been highly for the advantage of the farmers, without being injurious to any one else. The radical defect, as already shown, of the system followed from 1815 down to the present year, in so far, at least, as respects agriculture, was, that it forced up prices in years when the harvest was deficient, while it left the market to be glutted when it was abundant. But while a constant duty of 5s. would have secured to the home growers all the increase of price which the regard due to the interests of others should allow them to realise in a bad year, the drawback of 5s., by enabling them to export in an unusually plentiful year, would have prevented the markets from being overloaded, and prices from falling to the ruinous extent that they have occasionally done. Such a plan would have rendered the businesses of the dealers in and growers of corn comparatively secure; and would, therefore, have provided for the continued prosperity of both. It is surprising the agriculturists did not take this view of the matter. If they were really entitled to a duty on foreign corn, on account of their being more heavily taxed than the other classes of their fellow citizens (and they had no title to it on any other ground), they were also entitled to a corresponding drawback. And it admits of demonstration, that *their* interests, as well as those of the community, would have been better promoted by such a duty and drawback, than they ever could have been by any system of mere duties how high soever they might be carried.

III. BRITISH CORN TRADE.

1. *Quantity of Corn consumed in Great Britain.*—Attempts have sometimes been made to estimate the quantity of corn raised in a country, from calculations founded on the number of acres in tillage, and on the average produce per acre; but it is plain that no accurate account can ever be framed of the extent of land under cultivation. It is perpetually changing from year to year; and the amount of produce varies not only with the differences of seasons, but also with every improvement of agriculture. This method, therefore, is now rarely resorted to, and the growth of corn is generally estimated from the consumption. The conclusions deduced from this criterion must indeed

be subject to error, as well from variations in the consumption, occasioned by variations in the price of corn, as from the varying extent to which other food is used. But supposing the prices of corn to be reduced to an average, if the consumption of a considerable number of persons, of all ranks and orders, and of all ages and sexes, were accurately determined, we should be able, supposing the census of the population to be nearly correct, to make a pretty close approximation to the total consumption of the country. Mr. Charles Smith, the well-informed and intelligent author of the *Tracts on the Corn Trade*, made many curious investigations, with a view to discover the mean annual consumption of corn; and reducing it to the standard of wheat, he found it to be at the rate of about a quarter for each individual, young and old. This estimate has been confirmed by a variety of subsequent researches; and among others, by inquiries made during the scarcity of 1795 and 1796, by the magistrates of Suffolk, in 42 different parishes, in the view of ascertaining the average consumption of each family, which they found to correspond very closely with Mr. Smith's estimate. It is also worthy of remark, that M. Paucton, the intelligent author of the *Metrologis*, estimates the mean annual average consumption in France, when reduced to the standard of wheat, at about 10 bushels for each individual; and as the French consume more bread and less animal food than the English, this estimate affords a strong proof of the correctness of that of Mr. Smith.

Having taken the population of England and Wales in 1765 at 6,000,000, Mr. Smith reckoned the consumers of each kind of grain, the quantity consumed by each individual, and hence, the whole consumed by man, to be as follows:—

Estimated Population of England and Wales.	Average Consumption of each Person.	Consumed by Man.
3,750,000 consumers of wheat, at 1 quarter each	-	3,750,000
730,000 do. of barley, at 1½ do.	-	1,095,000
888,000 do. of rye, at 1½ do.	-	1,332,000
628,000 do. of oats, at 2½ do.	-	1,570,000
Consumed by man		7,555,800
In addition to this, Mr. Smith estimated the wheat distilled, made into starch, &c.		30,000
Barley used in malting, &c.		3,417,000
Rye for hogs, &c.		31,000
Oats for horses, &c.		2,461,600
Total of home consumption		13,555,650
Add excess of exports over imports		398,624
Add seed (one tenth)		13,954,474
		1,395,447
Total growth of all kinds of grain in England and Wales in 1765		15,349,921

This estimate, it will be observed, does not include either Scotland or Ireland; and later inquiries have rendered it probable that Mr. Smith underrated the population of England and Wales by nearly 1,000,000. The most eminent agriculturists seem also to be of opinion, that the allowance for seed ought to be stated as high as a sixth or a seventh.

Mr. Chalmers, availing himself of the information respecting the numbers of the people furnished under the Population Act of 1800, estimated the total consumption of the different kinds of grain in Great Britain at that epoch at 27,185,300 quarters, whereof wheat constituted 7,676,100 quarters. The crops of 1800 and 1801 being unusually deficient, the importation in these years was proportionally great; but excluding these scarcities, the total average excess of all sorts of grain imported from Ireland and foreign countries into Great Britain over the exports had previously amounted to about 1,000,000, quarters, which, deducted from 27,185,300, leaves 26,185,300, to which if we add one sixth as seed, we shall have 30,549,516 quarters as the average growth of Great Britain in 1800.

According to Dr. Colquhoun, the consumption of corn in Great Britain and Ireland, in 1814, amounted to about 35,000,000 quarters. We subjoin his estimate.

Species of Grain.	Estimated Average of the Population of Great Britain and Ireland.	Each Person averaged.	Consumed by Man.	Consumed by Animals.	Used in Beer and Spirits.	Used in various Manufactures.	Total Quarters.
Wheat	9,000,000	1	9,000,000				9,170,000
Barley	1,600,000	1½	1,875,000	210,000	4,250,000	170,000	6,335,000
Oats	4,600,000	1½	6,750,000	10,300,000			16,950,000
Rye	600,000	1½	625,000	59,000		1,000	685,000
Beans and peas	800,000	1	800,000	1,850,000			1,850,000
Totals	16,000,000		10,750,000	11,829,000	4,250,000	171,000	25,000,000

But though this estimate be compiled with greater care, and is entitled to more con-

vidence than most of those put forth by its author, it is in some respects grossly inaccurate. There can, for example, be no manner of doubt that the consumption of oats is underrated by at least 2,250,000 quarters, or by $\frac{1}{4}$ quarter in the quantity assigned to each of the 4,500,000 individuals Dr. Colquhoun supposed were fed on them. And besides underrating the consumption of oats, the learned Dr. has made no allowance for seed, though it be unnecessary to say that the expenditure of corn as seed is as indispensable, and its consumption as effectual, as if it were employed in the feeding of men or of horses. Adding, therefore, to the 37,250,000 quarters which Colquhoun's estimate should have amounted to, $\frac{1}{4}$ for seed, we have, on his data, 43,458,000 quarters for the total consumption of corn in the U. Kingdom in 1814.

But instead of a population of 16 millions, which is assumed as the basis of the above estimate, the U. Kingdom had, in 1846, a population of above 28,000,000. If, therefore, the estimate of Dr. Colquhoun were accurate, and the consumption, as compared with the population, were about the same as in 1814, it should now amount to about 75,000,000 quarters. But, during the last 30 years, the proportion of wheat used as food has been materially increased; and at present the consumers of barley certainly amount to nothing like 1,500,000 individuals; probably to not more than 500,000. The consumption of oats has, also, increased very materially, partly and principally from the great increase in the number of horses and their better keep, and partly, also, from the increase of population in Ireland; but it is abundantly certain that the expenditure of corn on the lower animals, and in breweries, distilleries, &c. does not now amount to any thing like twice the quantity at which it was estimated by Colquhoun.

On the whole, we are inclined to think that the consumption of the various kinds of corn in the U. Kingdom, exclusive of seed, might, in 1846, have been estimated as follows:—

	Qrs.	Total (Qrs.)
I. Consumed by man:—		
Wheat	15,000,000	
Oats, rye, and maalin, (a mixture of rye and wheat)	13,700,000	
Barley for malting, food, &c.	5,000,000	
Beans and peas as meal	700,000	
		35,400,000
II. Consumed by the lower animals:—		
Corn (principally oats) used in the feeding of horses and other animals, in distillation, manufactories, &c.	15,000,000	
		50,400,000

But it appears from No. VIII. of the subjoined tables, that at an average of the 18 years ending with 1847, the annual entries of foreign corn for home consumption were, wheat and wheat flour 1,474,003 quarters, barley 287,440 do., oats and oatmeal 394,423 do., rye 31,545 do., peas 86,201 do., and beans 118,604 do.; making an aggregate importation of 2,392,220 quarters a year. And, therefore, if from the annual consumption by man and the lower animals, amounting to 53,400,000 quarters, we deduct the above average annual importation, we have 51,308,000 quarters for the portion of such consumption supplied by the native corn of the U. Kingdom; and adding to the latter a reasonable allowance for seed, we have 60,000,000, or 61,000,000 quarters for the total average annual growth of all sorts of corn in the U. Kingdom.

The total entries of foreign corn in 1847 amounted to 8,105,694 quarters, being by far the largest quantity ever entered in any single year. But as this quantity amounts to little more than $\frac{1}{10}$ part of the entire corn raised at home, it would seem as if the greatest importation could have but a very slight influence over prices; but it has been already shown that a very large proportion of the corn produced in the empire is never brought to market, but is partly consumed by the agriculturists, and partly used and in the feeding of farm horses, &c. And allowing for this, an importation of 8,105,694 quarters may be supposed to be equal to from $\frac{1}{10}$ th to $\frac{1}{4}$ th part of the corn brought to market in ordinary years, and could not therefore fail to have a very powerful influence in alleviating the pressure of scarcity, and in reducing prices. It is also to be observed, that these importations are exclusive of a very large and almost wholly unprecedented importation of Indian corn and meal. In consequence, however, of the all but total failure of the potato crop in Ireland, and its partial failure in Great Britain in 1846, and of the extraordinary efforts of government to supply the deficit, these imports afford no fair criterion, or rather no criterion at all, of their probable amount in years of ordinary scarcity. It is of importance farther to observe that they were completely overdone; the prices realized for large quantities of the corn brought to England not being equal to its cost abroad, and great numbers of the importers being entirely ruined. Without some such catastrophe as that which befell the potato crop in 1846 there is but little probability of the imports ever exceeding four or five millions of quarters.

We give on page 429, an estimate, on which we have bestowed a good deal of pains, of the extent of land under the different descriptions of crops in the different divisions of the U. Kingdom; of the average produce per acre of such crops; with their total value, &c.

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with a fixed duty, merchants distribute the supply of corn according to the best estimate they can form of the real wants and necessities of the people. But the operation of a sliding-scale goes far to exclude such considerations. Besides doubling the hazards of the trade, it tempts merchants, when prices are rising, to hold back, in the expectation of being able to enter their corn at a reduced duty; and when, on the other hand, a fall of prices is anticipated, the market, as already seen, is overloaded, and prices ruinously depressed by the supplies forced upon it to escape the increase of duty! It is thus alternately injurious to the manufacturing and the agricultural classes; entailing the severest privations on the former, by making the importers withhold their corn from market till the price attains to a ruinously high level; and, on the latter, by making the same parties throw it on a market which is already depressed. The extreme low prices of 1821 and 1822, and of 1833, 1834, and 1835, were, no doubt, in part occasioned by the excess of the foreign entries for consumption arising out of the circumstances now mentioned.

When our ports are opened under the system to take effect in 1849, supplies, whether of native or of foreign growth, will only be furnished when necessary, and will be limited by the necessity; and when prices are low, or falling, a large proportion of the imports will no doubt be warehoused in anticipation of a future rise. But hitherto there has been no room for consideration or combination; every thing has been done on the moment, and by fits and starts. We may not have brought a bushel of wheat from the Baltic for a year or two; but our prices having risen, and, the duty having fallen still more rapidly, we have had an instantaneous demand for all the corn that could be had! Not being expected, no provision could be made for meeting such sudden and capricious demands; and prices rose to such a degree as to make our presence in the foreign markets hateful to every one, except the few who might happen to have on hand stocks of corn. It is plain, too, that a commerce, if so we may call it, conducted in this way could not be carried on by an interchange of goods for corn, as it would have been had the ports been constantly open. We might have had a demand one year for ten times the quantity of Polish corn that we required another year, but the Poles could not reciprocate by taking off corresponding quantities of our cottons, woollens, and hardware. Under ordinary circumstances, an increase of imports is always accompanied by a corresponding increase of exports; but, to bring this about, the increase must neither be sudden nor excessive; for, if so, the chances are a thousand to one that the foreign demand for our products will not increase to an equal extent. Corn is the principal means which the Poles have of paying for English goods; and, as we have frequently shut it wholly out, their imports from England have been unavoidably below even the average amount of their exports; so that when we have had an extraordinary demand for corn, the greater part of the excess has been paid for in bullion; and, instead of being benefited by its occurrence, our commercial and manufacturing interests were deeply injured.

But it is unnecessary to dwell on what is so well known. Most fortunately, we did not require to import any foreign corn in 1835 and 1836; for no one, either in the Bank of England or out of it, acquainted with the circumstances, can have the smallest doubt that, had it been then necessary to make the same payments for foreign corn we had to make in 1830 and 1831, and in 1838 and 1839, the Bank must have stopped payment; and a shock would have been given to the credit and financial interests of the country, from which they would not easily have recovered. The severe pressure on the money market in 1839 mainly originated in the same circumstances; and who can doubt that that pressure was productive of incomparably greater loss and inconvenience to the agriculturists than any advantage they gained by the rise of prices in that year?

It must not, however, be supposed, from any thing now said, that we mean to state or insinuate that it is possible, by any contrivance, or by the utmost possible degree of freedom, to avert all fluctuations in the supply and price of corn. Any such idea would be alike chimerical and absurd. Variations of the harvests, in so rich and populous a country as Great Britain, must always, and under any circumstances, have a powerful influence over prices, not only here, but also in those foreign markets whence we are in the habit of drawing a portion of our supplies. But it admits of demonstration, that importation without any, or with constant duties, is the best means by which to mitigate the influence of variations of harvests, and to secure the greatest steadiness of price. Under the new system, the merchants of this and other countries will be able to form their plans without the fear of their being overturned by accidental or contingent circumstances; and the fact that we every now and then require a large supply of foreign corn will make capitalists, here and elsewhere, warehouse, in abundant years, large supplies, in anticipation of the demand when a deficiency occurs. The merchant will then have to deal only with real wants and necessities; and these it is comparatively easy to provide against.

Besides its mischievous operation in other respects, the late corn law was highly inimical to the public interests from the convenient handle which it afforded for all sorts of agitation, misrepresentation, and abuse. Its deleterious influence was grossly exaggerated. The public were led to believe that its repeal would lead to an indefinite extension of our manufactures, and of our trade with other countries; that it would be followed by an instantaneous and very heavy fall in the price of corn; and that it would, in fact, prove to be a sovereign panacea for all sorts of grievances! But though it may, for the reasons previously stated, be fairly anticipated that the new system will give us greater steadiness of prices, and that it will, in consequence, be of the greatest advantage to all classes, its influence in reducing prices will, we apprehend, disappoint alike the expectations and the fears of the greater number of its supporters and opponents. There must, no doubt, be in all cases much uncertainty in prospective estimates of prices. It will, however, be seen in a subsequent part of this article, that in so far as a conclusion may be formed beforehand, there do not appear to be any good grounds for thinking that the repeal of the corn laws will reduce our average prices more than from 7s. to 8s. a quarter, if so much; and it will then also be seen that it is idle to imagine that a fall of this extent should inflict any material, or, indeed, sensible injury upon agriculture.

If, however, it should turn out differently, and there should be at any time so very abundant a season in this country and in the north of Europe, as to threaten such a fall of prices as might give a serious shock to the industry of the husbandman, the crisis may be averted or mitigated by some temporary expedient. But it is not very probable that it will be at any time necessary to interpose in the way now alluded to. The notions current amongst us respecting the extreme cheapness of corn in foreign ports have no very solid foundation. Instead of being unfavourable, the chances are that the agriculturists will gain largely by the change: they have greater capital, skill, and industry than those of any other country; and being aware that they must in time to come rely wholly on them to preserve their place in society, and not on the miserable resource of custom-house regulations and parliamentary majorities, the rapid improvement of agriculture may be confidently expected: and, apart from this powerful stimulus, the new measure has the further advantage that it gives the agriculturists increased security, and identifies their interests in opinion, as well as in fact, with those of the public.

At the same time we are ready to admit, that, had it been practicable, we should have preferred seeing this great question settled by the adoption of a measure for opening the ports, under a fixed duty of 5s. or 6s. a quarter on wheat, accompanied with a corresponding drawback. We make this statement on general grounds, and without any reference to the peculiar burdens that affect the agriculturists, though these should neither be forgotten nor overlooked. It would be easy to show that in scarce years a duty of this amount would fall wholly on the foreigner, without affecting prices, or narrowing importation; while, in years of unusual plenty, the drawback would facilitate exportation, and would, consequently, tend to hinder prices from falling so low as to injure the farmer and obstruct improvement. And in a matter of such immense importance it is the part of a wise government to be cautious how they take any step, of the consequences of which they are not fully assured, or which may expose any great interest to serious vicissitudes. But, even if our limits permitted, it would be to little purpose to insist on these or any similar considerations. The pertinacity with which the agriculturists opposed every approach to a more liberal system roused a spirit which would not be satisfied with any thing short of a complete abandonment of restrictions. The time for compromise and arrangement was, unhappily, allowed to go by, and government had to deal with an unreasoning necessity: *Cum ventre humano tibi negotium est, nec rationem patitur, nec aequitate mitigatur, nec ulla prece flecitur populus.* — (Seneca, de Brev. Vitae, c. 18.) What was practicable became of more consequence than what was either just or proper; and even had it been possible to effect an arrangement of the question in the way now stated, the pernicious trade of agitation would most likely have continued to flourish; the object and influence of the duty would have been misrepresented; and neither landlords nor farmers would have felt any confidence in the permanence of the new arrangements. Under these circumstances, their unconditional repeal was, if not really, at all events practically, the best, or rather the only safe course that could be adopted in dealing with the corn laws.

Regulations under which the Corn Trade of the U. Kingdom is now conducted. — These are embodied in the act 9 & 10 Vict. c. 22., of which we subjoin an abstract: —

Duties payable under this Act. — From and after the passing of this act, there shall be levied and paid on all corn, grain, meal, and flour already or hereafter to be imported into the U. Kingdom or the Isle of Man from parts beyond the seas, and entered for home consumption, the duties set forth in the schedule to this act annexed; viz. —

If imported from any Foreign Country.

	s.	d.
<i>Wheat.</i> —Whenever the average price of wheat, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be under 45s. the duty shall be -	10	0 per qr.
45s. and under 45s. -	9	0
45s. -	5	0
50s. -	3	0
51s. -	6	0
52s. -	4	0
53s. and upwards -	4	0
<i>Barley, Bear or Bigg.</i> —Whenever the average price of barley, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be under 36s. the duty shall be -	5	0
36s. and under 37s. -	4	0
37s. -	3	6
38s. -	3	0
39s. -	3	0
40s. -	2	6
41s. and upwards -	2	0
<i>Oats.</i> —Whenever the average price of oats, made up and published in the manner required by law, shall be under 18s. the duty shall be -	4	0
18s. and under 19s. -	3	6
19s. -	3	0
20s. -	2	6
21s. -	2	0
22s. and upwards -	1	6
<i>Rye, Pease, and Beans.</i> —For every quarter		

a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of barley.	s.	d.
<i>Wheat, Meal, and Flour.</i> —For every barrel being 190lbs. a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on 38½ gallons of wheat.	6	0
<i>Barley Meal.</i> —For every quantity of 217½ lbs. a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of wheat.	7	0
<i>Oatmeal and Groats.</i> —For every quantity of 184½ lbs. a duty equal in amount to the duty payable upon a quarter of oats.	4	0
<i>Rye Meal and Flour.</i> —For every barrel being 190 lbs. a duty equal in amount to the duty payable upon 40 gallons of rye.	4	0
<i>Pea Meal and Bean Meal.</i> —For every quantity of 475½ lbs. a duty equal in amount to the duty payable on a quarter of peas or beans.	3	0

If the produce of and imported from any British Possession out of Europe.

Wheat, barley, bear or bigg, oats, rye, pease, and beans, the duty shall be -	1	0 per qr.
Wheat meal, barley meal, oatmeal, rye meal, pea meal, and bean meal, the duty shall be -	0	4½ per cwt.

But the above duties are to cease on the 1st of February, 1849; and on, from, and after the said 1st of February, 1849, the following duties are to be charged on corn entered for consumption, viz.—

	s.	d.
Upon all wheat, barley, bear or bigg, oats, rye, peas, and beans -	1	0 per qr.
And so in proportion for a less quantity.		
Upon all wheat meal and flour, barley meal,		

	s.	d.
oatmeal, rye meal and flour, pea meal, and bean meal -	0	4½ per cwt.
And so in proportion for a less quantity.		

Clause 2. enacts that the duties shall be levied pursuant to 8 & 9 Vict. c. 90.

Clause 3. enacts that average prices are to continue to be made up according to 5 & 6 Vict. 2 sess. c. 14. (see below) and the duties under this act to be regulated thereby.

Clause 5. repeals that part of the 5 & 6 Vict. c. 14. which prohibits the importation into the U. Kingdom for consumption there of any corn ground.

We subjoin an abstract of those parts of the 5 & 6 Vict. 2 sess. c. 14. which are referred to in the above act, and which are yet in force.

Regulations to be observed on shipping Corn from any British Possession out of Europe.—No corn, grain, meal, or flour shall be shipped from any British possession out of Europe as the produce of any such possession until the owner or proprietor or shipper thereof have made and subscribed, before the collector or other chief officer of customs at the port of shipment, a declaration in writing, specifying the quantity of each sort of such corn, grain, meal, or flour, and that the same was the produce of some British possession out of Europe to be named in such declaration, nor until such owner or proprietor or shipper shall have obtained from the collector or other chief officer of the customs of the said port a certificate, under his signature, of the quantity of corn, grain, meal, or flour so declared to be shipped; and before any corn, grain, meal, or flour shall be entered at any port or place in the U. Kingdom as being the produce of any British possession out of Europe, the master of the ship importing the same shall produce and deliver to the collector or other chief officer of customs of the port or place of importation a copy of such declaration, certified to be a true and accurate copy thereof, under the hand of the collector and other chief officer of customs at the port of shipment before whom the same was made, together with the certificate, signed by the said collector or other chief officer of customs, of the quantity of corn so declared to be shipped; and such master shall also make and subscribe, before the collector or other chief officer of customs at the place of importation, a declaration in writing that the several quantities of corn, grain, meal, or flour on board such ship, and proposed to be entered under the authority of such declaration, are the same that are mentioned and referred to in the declaration and certificate produced by him, without any addition or deduction; and if any person shall in any such declaration wilfully and corruptly make any false statement respecting the place of which any such corn, grain, meal, or flour was the produce, or respecting the identity of any such corn, grain, meal, or flour, such person shall forfeit and become liable to pay to her Majesty the sum of 100*l.*, and the corn, grain, meal, or flour to such person belonging on board any such ship shall also be forfeited; and such forfeiture may be sued for, recovered, and applied in the same manner in all respects as any forfeiture incurred under and by virtue of the said act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 68.—§ 5.

Accounts of Corn Imported, &c. to be published monthly.—The commissioners of customs shall once in each month publish in the London Gazette an account of the total quantity of each sort of corn, grain, meal, and flour respectively imported into the U. Kingdom, and also an account of the total quantity of each sort of corn, grain, meal, and flour upon which duties of importation have been paid in the U. Kingdom during the month next preceding, and of the several rates of duty which shall from time to time during such month have been payable upon each sort of corn, grain, meal, and flour respectively, with an account of the total quantity of each sort of corn, grain, meal, and flour remaining in warehouse at the end of such next preceding month.—§ 7.

Section 8. enacts that if any foreign state subject British vessels, goods, &c. to any higher duties or charges than are levied on the vessels of other countries, &c. her Majesty may prohibit the importation of corn from such state.

Section 9. enacts, that weekly returns of purchases and sales of corn shall be made in the places named in the schedule annexed to the act.

Section 10. gives her Majesty power of appointing a comptroller of corn returns.

Section 11. enacts that the comptroller shall execute his office in person, but that a deputy may be appointed to act in certain cases.

Sections 12. and 13. authorize the Lord Mayor and aldermen to appoint an inspector of corn returns for the city of London, under the same conditions as the general comptroller.

Section 14. authorizes the chancellors of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge to appoint and remove inspectors of corn returns for the said city and town.

Section 15. enacts that no person dealing in corn, flour, or malt be appointed inspector or deputy-inspector of corn returns for the cities of London or Oxford, or town of Cambridge.

Section 16. enacts that the appointments of inspectors for London, Oxford, and Cambridge be enrolled.

Dealers in Corn in and near London to deliver in a Declaration to the Lord Mayor, &c.—Every person carrying on trade or business in the city of London, or within 5 miles from the Royal Exchange in the said city, as a corn factor, or as an agent employed in the sale of British corn, and every person who shall sell any British corn within the Corn Exchange in Mark Lane in the said city, or within any other building or place which he may hereafter be used within the city of London, or within 5 miles from the Royal Exchange in the said city, for such and the like purposes for which the said Corn Exchange in Mark Lane hath been and is used, shall, before he or they shall carry on such trade or business, or sell any corn in manner aforesaid, make and deliver to the Lord Mayor, or one of the aldermen of the city of London, a declaration in the following words; (that is to say.)

"I, A. B. do declare, that the returns to be by me made, conformably to an act passed in the fifth year of the reign of her Majesty Queen Victoria, intituled *(here set forth the title of this act)*, of the quantities and prices of British corn which henceforth shall be by or for me sold or delivered shall, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contain the whole quantity, and no more, of the corn *bonâ fide* sold and delivered by or for me within the periods to which such returns respectively shall refer, with the prices of such corn, and the names of the buyers respectively, and of the persons for whom such corn shall have been and by me respectively, and to the best of my judgment the said returns shall in all respects be conformable to the provisions of the said act."

Which declaration shall be in writing, and shall be subscribed by the person so making the same; and the Lord Mayor or alderman aforesaid of the city of London for the time being shall, and is hereby required to deliver a certificate thereof, under his hand, to the Inspector of corn returns for the city of London, to be by him registered in a book to be provided and kept for that purpose.—§ 17.

Dealers in Corn to make Returns to Corn Inspector.—Every corn factor and other person as aforesaid who is heretofore required to make, and who shall have made such declaration as aforesaid, shall, and he or she is hereby required to return or cause to be returned, on Wednesday in each and every week, to the Inspector of corn returns for the city of London, an account in writing, signed with his or her own name, or the name of his or her agent duly authorized in that behalf, of the quantities of each sort of British corn by him or her sold during the week ending on and including the next preceding Tuesday, with the prices thereof, and the amount of every parcel, with the total quantity and value of each sort of corn, and by what measure or weight the same was sold, and the names of the buyers thereof, and of the persons for and on behalf of whom such corn was sold; and it shall be lawful for any such Inspector of corn returns to deliver any notice in writing, requiring him or her to declare and set forth therein where and by whom and in what manner any such British corn was delivered to the purchaser or purchasers thereof; and every person to whom any such notice shall be so delivered shall, and he or she is hereby required to comply therewith, and to declare and set forth in such his or her return, or in a separate statement in writing, the several particulars aforesaid.—§ 18.

Section 19. enacts that the present comptroller, deputy-comptroller, and Inspectors of corn returns for London, Oxford and Cambridge continue in office, and that the appointments of the other inspectors of returns shall cease on the 24th day of June next after the passing of this act.

Section 20. enacts that in cities and towns, other than London, Oxford, and Cambridge, officers of excise are to act as inspectors of corn, and attend at places appointed.

Section 21. enacts that the commissioners of excise shall make known the place to be appointed for delivering returns of corn purchased.

Section 22. authorizes the commissioners of treasury to continue, if they think fit, the present inspectors of corn returns in their offices.

Dealers in Corn in Cities and Towns to make Declaration.—Every person who shall deal in British corn at or within any city or town named in a schedule annexed to this act, excepting the city of London, or who shall at or within any such city or town engage in or carry on the trade or business of a corn factor, miller, maltster, brewer, or distiller, or who shall be the owner or proprietor, or part owner or proprietor of any stage coaches, waggons, carts, or other carriages carrying goods or passengers for hire to and from any such city or town, and each and every person who, as a merchant, clerk, agent or otherwise, shall purchase at any such city or town any British corn for sale, or for the sale of meal, flour, malt, or bread made or to be made thereof, shall, before he or she shall so deal in British corn at any such city or town, or shall engage in or carry on any such trade or business as aforesaid, or shall purchase any British corn for any such purpose as aforesaid, at or within any such city or town, make and deliver a declaration in the following words; (that is to say.)

"I, A. B. do declare, that the returns to be by me made, conformably to the act passed in the fifth year of the reign of her Majesty Queen Victoria, intituled *(here set forth the title of this act)*, of the quantities and prices of British corn which henceforward shall be by or for me bought, shall, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contain the whole quantity, and no more, of the British corn *bonâ fide* bought for or by me within the periods to which such returns respectively shall refer, with the prices of such corn and the names of the sellers respectively, and to the best of my judgment the said returns shall in all respects be conformable to the provisions of the said act."

Which declaration shall be in writing, and shall be subscribed with the hand of the person so making the same, and shall by him or her, or by his or her agent, be delivered to the mayor or chief magistrate, or to some justice of the peace for such city or town, or for the county, riding, or division in which the same is situate, who are hereby required to deliver a certificate thereof to the officer of excise acting as inspector of corn returns for such city or town as aforesaid, or to such continuing inspector of corn returns as aforesaid for such city or town (as the case may be), to be by such officer or inspector registered in a book to be provided and kept for that purpose.—§ 23.

Section 24. authorizes the inspectors of corn returns to require the above declaration from corn dealers.

Corn Dealers to make Returns in Writing to Inspectors of the Corn bought by them.—All persons who are heretofore required to make and who shall have made such declaration as aforesaid shall, and they are hereby required, on the first market day which shall be holden in each and every week within each and every city or town named in the said schedule hereunto annexed, except the city of London, at or within which they shall respectively deal in corn, or engage in or carry on any such trade or business as aforesaid, or purchase any corn for any such purpose as aforesaid, to return or cause to be returned to the officer of excise acting as inspector of corn returns for such city or town, at the place appointed for receiving such returns, or to the continuing inspector of corn returns for such city or town, or to the inspector of corn returns for the city of Oxford, or the town of Cambridge (as the case may be), an account in writing, signed with their names respectively, of the amount of each and every parcel of each respective sort of British corn so by them respectively bought during the week ending on and including the day next preceding such first market day as aforesaid, with the price thereof, and by what weight or measure the same was so bought by them, with the names of the sellers of each of the said parcels respectively, with the names of the person or persons, if any, other than the person making such return, for or on account of whom the same was so bought and sold; and it shall be lawful for any officer of excise acting as inspector of corn returns, or any continuing inspector of corn returns as aforesaid, to deliver to any person making or tendering any such return a notice in writing requiring him or her to declare and set forth where and by whom and in what manner any such British corn was delivered to him or her; and every person to whom any such notice shall be so delivered shall, and he or she is hereby required to comply therewith, and to declare and set forth in such his or her return, or in a separate statement in writing, the several particulars aforesaid.—§ 25.

Inspectors to enter Returns made to them in a Book, &c.—The Inspector of corn returns for the city of London, the city of Oxford, and the town of Cambridge, and every officer of excise acting as Inspector of corn returns for the several other cities and towns aforesaid, and every continuing Inspector of corn returns for any of such cities or towns as aforesaid, shall duly and regularly enter in a book, to be by him provided and kept for that purpose, the several accounts of the quantities and prices of corn returned to him by such persons respectively as aforesaid; and every Inspector of corn returns for any of the cities and towns enumerated in the said schedule shall in each and every week return to the comptroller of corn returns an account of the weekly quantities and prices of the several sorts of British corn sold in the city of London, or in the city or town for which he shall be or act as Inspector, according to the returns so made to him as aforesaid, and in such form as shall be from time to time prescribed and directed by the said comptroller of corn returns; and the said returns shall be so made to the said comptroller by the Inspector of corn returns for the city of London on Friday in each week, and by the respective Inspectors of corn returns for the city of Oxford and the town of Cambridge, and by the respective officers of excise acting as Inspectors of corn returns, and by the respective continuing Inspectors of corn returns for the several other cities and towns aforesaid, within three days next after the first market day holden in each and every week in any such city or town.—§ 26.

Section 27. enacts that Inspectors shall not include returns until they have ascertained that the persons making them have taken the declaration required.

Average Prices to be made up and published every Week.—The average prices of all British corn, by which the rate and amount of the said duties shall be regulated, shall be made up and computed on Thursday in each week, in manner following; (that is to say,) the said comptroller of corn returns shall on such Thursday in each week, from such returns as shall be received by him during the week next preceding, ending on and including the Saturday in such preceding week, add together the total quantities of each sort of British corn respectively appearing by such returns to have been sold, and the total prices for which the same appear to have been sold, and shall divide the amount of such total prices respectively by the amount of such total quantities of each sort of British corn respectively sold, and the sum produced thereby shall be added to the sums in like manner produced in the 5 weeks immediately preceding the same, and the amount of such sums so added shall be divided by 6, and the sum thereby given shall be deemed and taken to be the aggregate average price of each such sort of British corn respectively, for the purpose of regulating and ascertaining the rate and amount of the said duties; and the said comptroller of corn returns shall cause such aggregate weekly averages to be published in the next succeeding Gazette, and shall on Thursday in each week transmit a certificate of such aggregate average prices of each sort of British corn to the collector or other chief officer of the customs at each of the several ports of the U. Kingdom, and to the said functionary at the port of Douglas in the Isle of Man; and the rate and amount of the duties to be paid under the provisions of this act shall from time to time be regulated and governed at each of the ports of the U. Kingdom by the aggregate average prices of British corn at the time of the entry for home consumption of any corn, grain, meal or flour chargeable with any such duty, as such aggregate average prices shall appear and be stated in the last of such certificates received by the collector or other chief officer of customs at such port.—§ 28.

How Quantities of Corn are to be computed.—In the returns to be made as aforesaid to the comptroller of corn returns, and in the publications to be made from time to time in the London Gazette, and in the certificates to be transmitted to the said comptroller of corn returns to collectors or other chief officers of customs, the quantities of each sort of British corn respectively shall be computed and set forth by, according, and with reference to the Imperial standard gallon, as the same is declared and established by the act 5 Geo. 4. cap. 74. amended or altered by the act 6 Geo. 4. cap. 12., and by the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. cap. 63.—§ 29.

Until sufficient Number of Returns are made, Comptroller may use the present Averages.—Until a sufficient number of weekly returns have been received by the said comptroller of corn returns under this act to afford such aggregate average prices of British corn as aforesaid, the weekly average prices of British corn published by him immediately before the passing of this act shall be used and referred to in making such calculations as aforesaid, in such manner as if the same had been made up and taken under this act.—§ 30.

What shall be deemed British Corn.—All corn or grain the produce of the U. Kingdom shall be deemed and taken to be British corn for the purposes of this act.—§ 31.

Any Corn Returns believed fraudulent may be omitted in the Computation.—If the said comptroller of corn returns shall at any time see cause to believe that any return made to any Inspector of corn returns is fraudulent or untrue, the said comptroller is hereby required, with all convenient expedition, to lay before the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council (for Trade) a statement of the grounds of such his belief; and if upon consideration of any such statement the said Lords of said Committee shall direct the comptroller to omit any such return in the computation of such aggregate weekly average price, then and in that case, but not otherwise, the said comptroller of corn returns shall be authorised to omit such return in the computation of such aggregate weekly average price.—§ 32.

Section 33. enacts that corn dealers having made the declaration previous to this act shall transmit returns, and comply with the rules hereby required.

Comptroller to issue Directions respecting the Inspection of Books of Inspectors.—The comptroller of corn returns is hereby authorised from time to time, in pursuance of any Instructions which he shall receive in that behalf from the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council (for Trade), to issue to the Inspectors of corn returns for the city of London, the city of Oxford, and the town of Cambridge respectively, any general or special directions respecting the inspection by any person or persons of the books so directed as aforesaid to be kept by such Inspector of corn returns; and no such Inspectors for the city of London, the city of Oxford, or the town of Cambridge, shall permit or suffer any person to inspect any such book, or to peruse or transcribe any entry therein, except in compliance with some such general or special directions from the said comptroller of corn returns.—§ 34.

Copy of last Returns to be affixed on Market Place on each Market Day.—The Inspector of corn returns for every city or town other than the city of London shall and is hereby required, on each and every market day, to put up or cause to be put up in the market place of the city or town for which he shall act as Inspector, or if there shall be no market place, then in some other conspicuous place therein near to where the corn market is usually held, a copy of the last return made by him to the comptroller of corn returns, omitting the names of the parties who may have sold and bought the said corn; and every such officer or Inspector shall also again put up such account on the market day immediately following that on which it last has been put up in case the same shall from accident or any other cause have been removed, and shall take due care that the same shall remain up for public inspection until a new account for the ensuing week shall have been prepared and set up.—§ 35.

Sections 36, 37, 38. relate to the payment of comptrollers and Inspectors.

Section 39. imposes a penalty on corn dealers who do not make declarations or returns.

Section 40. relates to the recovery and application of penalties.

Sections 41, 42. relate to the penalties to be imposed on witnesses for non-attendance, and the punishment to be inflicted on those who make false returns.

Section 43. declares that the act shall not affect the practice of measuring or privileges of the city of London.

Substitution of Wheat Flour or Biscuit for bonded Wheat.—Our readers are, no doubt, generally aware, that of late years efforts were occasionally made in the House of

Commons to get a law enacted authorising the delivery of bonded wheat from the warehouse, on the substitution in its stead of a proportional quantity of wheat flour or biscuit. But this proposal encountered the hostility of the more zealous partisans of the corn laws, principally on the alleged ground that it would open a door to fraud, and lead to the clandestine introduction of large quantities of foreign wheat. In the course, however, of 1842, the project was again introduced by Mr. Gladstone, and, having been supported by government, was passed into a law, 5 & 6 Victoria, cap. 92. It enabled millers, bakers, and others in this country to take advantage of such openings in the home and foreign markets as may offer for the manufacture and sale of flour and biscuit; and to make such changes in the nature of their stocks as may be thought most advantageous. There do not seem to be any very good grounds for thinking that it has afforded any considerable facilities for the commission of fraud by the introduction of wheat without a countervailing deposit of flour; but supposing it has, no one has been injured by such introduction. We subjoin an abstract of the act now referred to.

Warehoused Wheat to be delivered Duty free upon substituting an equivalent Quantity of Wheat Flour or Biscuit.—Whereas it will be of advantage to the trade and commerce of the country that wheat may be delivered duty-free from the warehouse or from the vessel, upon the deposit in the warehouse, or due exportation therefrom, of an equivalent quantity of wheat flour and biscuit; be it therefore enacted, that it shall be lawful for the principal officer of customs having charge of any warehouse, in which wheat may be warehoused without payment of duty upon the first entry thereof, to deliver any quantity thereof duty-free upon there being deposited in warehouse in lieu thereof fine wheat flour or biscuit, as under.

For every 96 lbs. of kiln-dried wheat, or for every 100 lbs. of wheat not being kiln-dried, not less than 78 lbs. of fine wheat flour, or 68 lbs. of captain's biscuit, or 80 lbs. of biscuit of the standard of the biscuit supplied to her Majesty's navy, or 118 lbs. of common ship's biscuit; and so in proportion for any less quantity than 96 lbs. of kiln-dried wheat, or 100 lbs. of wheat not kiln-dried; such flour or biscuit having been manufactured in the U. Kingdom, or such flour having been duly imported and the duty thereon having been paid.—§ 1.

Section 2. enacts that fine wheat flour and biscuit may be deposited in warehouse, and certificate of such deposit granted, to entitle the holder to an equivalent quantity of warehoused wheat duty-free any time within six weeks of the date thereof.

Section 3. enacts that persons making deposits of flour and biscuit be entitled to have equivalent quantities of wheat entered duty-free from the vessel.

Section 4. orders that three days' notice in writing be given to the collector of the quantity of wheat required to be delivered from the warehouse and of the day of delivery.

Section 5. orders that no wheat shall be delivered duty-free until the substituted article has been deposited and the certificate duly examined.

Section 6. enacts that substituted flour and biscuit shall be subject to the warehousing laws, but shall not be taken out for home consumption.

3. TABLES SHOWING THE PRICES OF THE DIFFERENT SORTS OF GRAIN IN GREAT BRITAIN, THE QUANTITIES IMPORTED AND EXPORTED, &c.

1. — Current Prices of Grain, Seeds, &c. per Imperial Quarter. London, 18th September, 1848.

British Grain and Seeds.		Per Quarter.	Foreign Grain and Seeds		Per Or. Duty paid.
		s. d.			s. d.
Wheat, Essex, Kent, and Suffolk, red		50 - 59	Wheat, Danzig and Königsberg, high mixed		68 - 69
	white	48 - 54		low mixed	65 - 68
Norfolk, Lincolnshire, and Yorkshire		52 - 56	Mecklenburg, Rostock, &c.		67 - 69
	white	54 - 60	Pomeranian, Russian Maria, &c.		36 - 40
Rye, English		38 - 39	Danish, Holstein, and Friesland		47 - 52
Scotch		38 - 39	Petersburgh, hard		47 - 52
Barley, grinding		29 - 34		soft	44 - 52
	distilling	32 - 33	Ditto		44 - 52
	malting	35 - 38	Odesa and Taganrog, hard		53 - 57
Scotch, grading		32 - 33		soft	53 - 57
Ditto distilling		32 - 33	Spanish, hard		50 - 57
Ditto malting		35 - 37		soft	50 - 57
Malt, brown		48 - 53	Ditto white		56 - 60
	pale	54 - 60	Italian, Tuscan, &c., red		44 - 59
Oats, Banff and Aberdeenshire, feed		23 - 23		white	56 - 60
	potato	35 - 36	Egyptian		36 - 40
Lincolnshire and Yorkshire (Poland)		23 - 23	Canadian and United States		63 - 69
	potato	22 - 25	Van Diemen's Land		50 - 66
	feed	21 - 23	Rye, Russian		28 - 30
	black	20 - 23	Barley, grinding		24 - 26
Newry, Dundalk, and Derry, feed		21 - 25		distilling	28 - 33
	Archangel and Riga	22 - 26		malting	23 - 27
Limerick, Miligo, and Ballina, white		21 - 24	Oats, Dutch and Friesland brew		22 - 25
Galway, feed		19 - 23		Archangel and Riga	18 - 21
Beans, mangel		30 - 34	Danish, Mecklenburg, and Friesland, feed		18 - 14
stok		34 - 36	Beans, small		34 - 38
harrow		36 - 38		tick	30 - 36
small		40 - 44	Mediterranean and Egyptian		25 - 29
Fens, English, cuspie		33 - 38	Pesa, white		34 - 36
gray		33 - 38		bellers	36 - 43
white		38 - 42	Indian corn		24 - 28
bolter		39 - 43		gray	23 - 26
Flour, town made (per sack of 80 lbs.)		43 - 53	Indian corn		23 - 26
Essex and Kent		38 - 44		black	20 - 24
Norfolk and Lincolnshire		39 - 45	Flour, United States, sour		37 - 30
Clover-seed, red	per cwt.	25 - 40		sweet	30 - 53
	pot	26 - 50		in hood	27 - 32
	white	26 - 50		Canadian	28 - 32
Rapeseed, per last, 40t. to 50t.		36 - 50	Indian corn meal		17 - 18
Linseed, crushing, per quarter, 46s. to 52s.			Cloverseed, red, 30s. to 38s. per cwt.		
	white			white, 30s. to 44s. per cwt.	
Ditto sowing, per quarter, 50s. to 60s.			Linseed, Canada, 35s. to 41s. per quarter.		
Mustard, white, per bushel, 6s. to 12s.			Petersburgh and Riga, 35s. to 38s. per quarter		
Ditto brown, per bushel, 10s. to 15s.			Hempseed, small, 45s. to 48s. per quarter.		
Tares, old, per bushel, 4s. to 5s.				Dutch, 47s. to 48s. per quarter.	
Caraway, per cwt. 30s. to 34s.			Tares, 30s. to 35s. per quarter.		
Coriander, per cwt. 18s. to 25s.			Linseed cakes, American, 7s. to 10s. per ton.		
Trafal, per cwt. 18s. to 21s.				French, 7s. to 8s. 10s. per ton.	
Rye grass, per quarter, 17s. to 35s.				Dutch, 7s. to 8s. per ton.	
Linseed cakes, per 1000, 11s. to 12s.				Rape cake, 5s. to 5s. 6s. per ton.	
Rape, per ton, 8s. to 11s.					

11. Account of the Prices of Middling or Mealing Wheat per Quarter at Windsor Market, as ascertained by the Audit-books of Eton College.

Years.	Prices of Wheat at Windsor, 3 Gallons to the Bushel.			Prices of Wheat reduced to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.			Average of Ten Years according to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.	Years.	Prices of Wheat at Windsor, 3 Gallons to the Bushel.			Prices of Wheat reduced to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.			Average of Ten Years according to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.	Years.	Prices of Wheat at Windsor, 3 Gallons to the Bushel.			Prices of Wheat reduced to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.			Average of Ten Years according to the Winchester Bushel of 3 Gallons.
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.			£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.			£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
1646	3	6	0	3	2	8		1707	1	8	6	1	5	4		1767	3	4	6	3	17	4	
1647	3	13	6	3	5	5		1708	3	1	6	1	16	10		1768	3	0	6	2	18	3	
1648	4	5	0	3	15	6		1709	3	18	6	3	9	9		1769	2	5	8	2	0	7	
1649	4	0	0	3	11	1		1710	3	18	0	3	9	4		1770	3	9	0	3	3	3	
1650	3	16	8	3	8	10		1711	2	14	0	2	8	0		1771	2	17	0	3	10	6	
1651	3	13	4	3	5	2		1712	3	6	4	2	1	2		1772	3	6	0	2	18	8	
1652	2	9	6	2	4	0		1713	2	11	0	2	5	4		1773	3	6	6	2	19	1	
1653	1	18	6	1	11	6		1714	2	10	4	2	4	9		1774	3	2	0	2	15	1	
1654	1	6	0	1	3	1		1715	2	3	6	1	8	2		1775	2	17	8	3	11	3	
1655	1	13	4	1	9	7	2 11 7	1716	2	8	0	2	3	3		1776	2	10	0	2	2	6	
1656	3	3	0	3	18	2		1717	3	5	8	2	0	7		1777	2	15	0	2	6	10	
1657	2	6	8	2	1	5		1718	1	16	10	1	14	6		1778	2	9	6	2	4	0	
1658	3	5	0	3	17	9		1719	1	15	0	1	11	1		1779	2	0	8	1	16	1	
1659	3	6	0	3	10	2		1720	1	17	0	1	12	10		1780	2	6	8	2	3	1	
1660	3	16	6	3	10	2		1721	1	17	6	1	13	4		1781	2	19	0	2	12	5	
1661	3	10	0	3	2	2		1722	1	16	0	1	12	0		1782	3	0	6	3	13	2	
1662	3	14	0	3	5	9		1723	1	14	6	1	10	10		1783	3	1	0	3	14	2	
1663	3	17	0	3	16	6		1724	1	17	0	1	12	10		1784	3	0	6	2	12	2	
1664	3	0	0	3	16	0		1725	2	8	6	2	3	1		1785	2	14	0	2	6	0	
1665	3	9	4	3	10	2	2 10 5	1726	3	6	0	3	0	10		1786	2	7	6	3	3	2	
1666	1	15	0	1	19	0		1727	2	2	0	1	17	4		1787	2	11	6	3	3	2	
1667	1	16	0	1	12	0		1728	2	14	6	2	8	5		1788	2	15	6	2	9	4	
1668	2	0	0	1	15	6		1729	2	5	10	2	1	7		1789	3	3	2	2	16	1	
1669	2	4	4	1	19	5		1730	1	16	6	1	12	5		1790	3	3	2	2	16	1	
1670	3	1	0	3	17	0		1731	1	12	10	1	9	2		1791	3	15	6	2	9	2	
1671	3	3	0	3	17	4		1732	6	8	4	3	8	4		1792	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1672	3	1	0	1	16	5		1733	1	6	4	1	5	2		1793	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1673	2	6	8	2	1	5		1734	1	18	10	1	14	6		1794	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1674	3	8	8	3	1	0		1735	2	3	0	1	18	2		1795	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1675	3	4	8	3	17	8		1736	2	0	4	1	15	10		1796	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1676	1	18	0	1	13	9	2 0 11	1737	1	18	9	1	13	9		1797	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1677	3	3	0	1	17	4		1738	1	15	6	1	11	6		1798	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1678	3	19	0	3	12	5		1739	1	18	6	1	14	2		1799	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1679	3	0	0	2	18	4		1740	2	10	8	2	5	1		1800	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1680	2	5	0	3	0	0		1741	2	6	8	2	1	5		1801	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1681	2	6	8	2	1	5		1742	1	14	0	1	10	2		1802	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1682	3	4	0	1	19	1		1743	1	4	10	1	2	1		1803	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1683	2	0	0	1	15	6		1744	1	4	10	1	2	1		1804	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1684	2	4	9	1	19	1		1745	1	7	6	1	4	3		1805	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1685	2	6	8	2	1	5	2 1 4	1746	1	19	0	1	14	8		1806	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1686	1	14	0	1	10	2		1747	1	14	10	1	10	11		1807	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1687	1	5	3	1	9	4		1748	1	17	0	1	12	10		1808	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1688	3	6	0	3	0	10		1749	1	17	0	1	12	10		1809	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1689	1	10	0	1	6	6		1750	1	12	6	1	8	10		1810	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1690	1	14	8	1	10	2		1751	1	18	6	1	14	2		1811	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1691	1	14	0	1	10	2		1752	2	1	10	1	17	2		1812	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1692	2	8	8	2	1	5		1753	2	4	8	1	19	8		1813	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1693	3	7	8	3	0	1		1754	1	14	8	1	10	9		1814	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1694	3	4	0	2	16	10		1755	1	13	10	1	10	1		1815	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1695	3	13	0	3	7	1	1 19 6	1756	3	5	2	3	0	1		1816	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1696	3	11	0	3	3	1		1757	3	9	0	2	13	4		1817	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1697	3	0	0	2	13	4		1758	3	10	0	2	13	4		1818	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1698	3	8	4	3	0	9		1759	1	19	6	1	15	3		1819	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1699	3	4	0	2	16	10		1760	1	16	6	1	12	5		1820	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1700	2	0	0	1	15	6		1761	1	10	2	1	6	9		1821	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1701	1	17	8	1	13	5		1762	1	19	0	1	14	9		1822	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1702	1	9	6	1	6	2		1763	2	0	8	1	16	1		1823	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1703	1	16	0	1	12	0		1764	2	6	8	2	1	6		1824	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1704	3	6	6	2	1	4		1765	2	14	0	2	8	0		1825	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1705	1	10	0	1	6	8	2 2 11	1766	2	6	6	2	8	1		1826	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1706	1	6	0	1	3	1																	

The Eton Account of Prices commenced in 1555; the accuracy of the returns in the first years cannot however be so implicitly relied on, as those quoted above.—Bishop Fleetwood and Sir F. M. Eden have collected, with great industry, almost all the existing information respecting the state of prices in England during the last six hundred years.

* From this year, inclusive, the account at Eton College has been kept according to the bushel of 3 gallons, under the provision of the act 31 Geo. 3. c. 30. § 82.

CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

III. Account of the Average Prices of British Corn per Imperial Quarter, in England and Wales, since 1771, as ascertained by the Receiver of Corn Returns.

Years.	Wheat.			Barley.			Oats.			Rye.			Beans.			Peas.			
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
1771	1	15	4	1	6	8	0	17	2	1	15	4	1	9	8	1	18	2	
1772	1	14	0	1	6	1	0	18	8	1	17	11	1	10	11	0	1	10	
1773	1	14	3	1	5	2	0	17	9	1	14	9	1	13	1	0	1	8	
1774	1	14	3	1	5	4	0	17	4	1	15	4	1	13	1	0	1	8	
1775	1	9	10	1	6	9	0	17	0	1	13	10	1	9	8	1	10	0	
1776	1	19	4	1	0	9	0	18	5	1	17	8	1	7	3	1	11	11	
1777	1	9	8	1	1	1	0	16	1	1	8	10	1	9	4	1	10	0	
1778	1	9	14	1	1	0	0	15	7	1	8	9	1	8	4	1	10	0	
1779	1	14	8	1	1	0	0	14	5	1	4	0	1	8	11	1	10	0	
1780	1	18	6	0	17	6	0	13	3	1	2	10	1	3	10	1	10	0	
1781	1	9	8	0	17	8	0	14	1	1	7	8	1	3	6	1	10	0	
1782	1	9	8	0	15	7	0	15	7	1	8	9	1	5	9	1	10	0	
1783	1	14	3	1	11	3	0	15	7	1	15	9	1	15	11	1	10	0	
1784	1	10	4	1	11	3	0	15	10	1	13	9	1	13	5	1	10	0	
1785	1	9	8	1	4	9	0	17	8	1	8	10	1	11	7	1	10	0	
1786	1	9	0	1	5	1	0	18	6	1	8	10	1	14	2	1	10	0	
1787	1	9	9	1	3	4	0	17	2	1	8	6	1	12	9	1	10	0	
1788	1	9	8	1	3	4	0	16	1	1	8	6	1	12	9	1	10	0	
1789	1	9	18	1	3	8	0	16	1	1	10	9	1	11	0	1	10	0	
1790	1	14	9	1	6	3	0	19	5	1	15	0	1	11	11	1	10	0	
1791	1	9	8	1	6	10	0	18	1	1	12	7	1	11	5	1	10	0	
1792	1	9	8	1	6	10	0	16	9	1	9	10	1	11	7	1	10	0	
1793	1	9	8	1	11	9	0	16	9	1	16	2	1	17	6	1	10	0	
1794	1	11	11	1	11	9	0	16	9	1	16	2	1	17	6	1	10	0	
1795	1	10	3	1	17	3	0	14	5	1	17	5	1	10	3	1	10	0	
1796	1	15	4	1	15	4	0	14	5	1	17	5	1	10	3	1	10	0	
1797	1	15	9	1	7	3	0	16	3	1	17	5	1	10	3	1	10	0	
1798	1	11	9	1	16	2	0	19	5	1	7	6	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1799	1	9	0	1	16	2	0	17	5	1	7	6	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1800	1	5	18	1	2	19	10	1	19	4	1	19	4	1	11	9	1	10	0
1801	1	5	19	1	3	8	6	1	17	0	1	17	0	1	11	9	1	10	0
1802	1	9	10	1	13	4	0	19	4	1	17	0	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1803	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1804	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1805	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1806	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1807	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1808	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1809	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1810	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1811	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1812	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1813	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1814	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1815	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1816	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1817	1	4	16	1	12	11	0	13	5	1	12	11	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1818	1	4	16	1	12	11	0	13	5	1	12	11	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1819	1	4	16	1	12	11	0	13	5	1	12	11	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1820	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1821	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1822	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1823	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1824	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1825	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1826	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1827	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1828	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1829	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1830	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1831	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1832	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1833	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1834	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1835	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1836	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1837	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1838	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1839	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1840	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1841	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1842	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1843	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1844	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1845	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1846	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	
1847	1	9	18	1	5	4	0	14	6	1	14	3	1	11	9	1	10	0	

N.B.— The Imperial bushel contains 218-192 cubic inches, the Winchester bushel 216-042 do., the former being about one-thirty-second part larger than the latter. — (See Bushel, and WEIGHTS and MEASURES.)

IV. Account of the Quantity of Wheat and Wheat Flour exported, and of Foreign Wheat and Wheat Flour imported, in the following Years.—N.B. This account includes the trade with Ireland.

Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.	Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.	Years.	Wheat and Flour exported.	Foreign Wheat and Flour imported.
England.	Qrs.	Qrs.	England.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Gt. Britain.	Qrs.	Qrs.
1807	14,699	400	1747	264,907		1797	18,000	815,108
1808	868	846	1748	543,387		1798	24,070	878,303
1809	557	486	1749	820,049		1799	84,000	461,787
1700	49,066	5	1750	947,602		1790	80,700	800,712
1701	98,234	1	1751	661,416		1791	86,800	666,186
1702	90,230		1752	420,279		1800	86,000	364,000
1703	166,616	60	1753	299,609		1801	88,000	494,700
1704	90,313	2	1754	356,270		1802	140,000	647,900
1705	98,193					1803	76,000	878,700
1706	188,232		Gt. Britain.	1755	207,466	1804	68,070	461,140
1707	74,155	77	1756	102,752	5	1805	77,000	990,284
1708	83,406	86	1757	11,545	141,503	1806	80,000	810,548
1709	169,680	1,552	1758	9,234	30,258	1807	80,110	404,940
1710	13,424	400	1759	227,641	168	1808	80,000	84,800
1711	76,549		1760	398,014	5	1809	81,270	465,907
1712	145,191		1761	441,956		1810	76,785	1,807,198
1713	178,227		1762	295,385	06	1811	67,700	801,001
1714	174,821	16	1763	420,538	73	1812	40,000	800,710
1715	166,490		1764	390,857	1	1813	(Records destroyed)	600,000
1716	74,596		1765	187,136	104,547	1814		858,807
1717	92,584		1766	164,080	11,000	1815	807,047	864,475
1718	71,800		1767	8,071	497,905	1816	111,611	882,491
1719	127,763	20	1768	7,433	240,268	1817	817,000	1,000,855
1720	83,064		1769	49,892	4,278	1818	80,000	1,094,301
1721	81,633		1770	75,449	84	1819	80,000	900,000
1722	176,880		1771	10,000	9,810	1820	84,000	900,470
1723	157,720		1772	6,950	25,474	1821	100,000	707,384
1724	245,868	148	1773	7,637	56,857	1822	100,000	101,000
1725	204,413	12	1774	15,928	200,140	1823	100,000	494,019
1726	142,183		1775	91,037	560,190	1824	100,000	441,001
1727	33,315		1776	210,654	23,878	1825	61,000	787,000
1728	3,817	74,574	1777	67,686	233,323	1826	80,700	800,470
1729	18,993	40,316	1778	141,070	106,204	1827	80,000	807,127
1730	93,971	76	1779	222,261	5,030	1828	87,200	711,808
1731	130,025	4	1780	224,059	8,915	1829	76,400	1,110,800
1732	302,058	7	1781	103,021	150,800	1830	70,000	2,100,000
1733	427,180	7	1782	145,103	80,000	1831	87,140	2,300,751
1734	498,196	6	1783	51,913	584,183	1832	80,000	3,807,000
1735	153,243	9	1784	89,288	916,947	1833	80,000	1,304,201
1736	118,170	16	1785	132,685	110,000	1834	80,000	1,100,457
1737	461,602	32	1786	208,466	51,463	1835	180,400	981,400
1738	580,906	2	1787	120,536	25,222	1836	184,070	793,908
1739	279,542	5,423	1788	82,971	144,710	1837	80,000	601,186
1740	54,200	7,668	1789	140,014	112,686	1838	80,000	1,100,490
1741	45,417	40	1790	30,692	222,507	1839	100,000	1,000,400
1742	295,260	1	1791	79,526	469,060	1840	49,810	8,110,720
1743	371,431	2	1792	200,278	523,417	1841	87,849	3,800,540
1744	231,984	2	1793	76,890	400,800	1842	80,000	3,010,800
1745	324,839	6	1794	158,048	327,902	1843	66,047	3,111,390
1746	130,646							

V. Account of the Quantities of the different Varieties of Flour and Meal imported into the U. Kingdom in 1847, specifying the Countries whence the same were brought, and the Quantities brought from each, in Cwts.

Countries from which imported.	Wheat Meal and Flour.	Barley Meal.	Oatmeal.	Rye Meal.	Pop and Bean Meal.	Indign Corn Meal.	Wheat Meal.	Total.
Russia	Cwts. 25,681			Cwts. 780,807			Cwts. 745,913	
Norway	588			835		8,990	1,423	
Denmark	4,716	3,558	1,240	8,989			11,182	
Prussia	8,706			8,111			16,817	
Hanover	693			150			843	
Hanseatic Towns	30,611	3,616	4,018	69,179		169	67,977	
Holland	963	500	198	4,866			5,467	
Belgium	55,848			706			56,554	
France	130,212			2,483	17	7,111	137,823	
Portugal and Madeira	1,451						1,451	
Spain and the Balearic Islands	31,706						31,706	
Italy and the Italian Islands	35,208			1,750			36,958	
Mexico and Greece	1,187	5,770				68,700	75,757	
Egypt	10,749						10,749	
British Settlements in Australia	1,101						1,101	
British North American Colonies	1,061,609		48,890	288	808	4,893	1,068,088	
United States of America	4,836,131	7	1,693	18,375	850	1,403,808	6,260,085	
Other Countries	16,719		3			698	18,519	
Total	6,329,058	11,790	57,883	780,416	895	1,416,837	6,685,991	

Coun.
 Russia
 Sweden
 Norway
 Denmark
 Prussia
 Hannover
 Holland
 Belgium
 France
 Portugal
 Spain, an
 Gibraltar
 Italy, an
 Hanseatic
 Mexico
 Ionian Is
 Norway
 Turkey
 Egypt
 Barbary
 and V.
 Africa
 Cape of G
 East Ind
 and C.
 British Se
 in Austr
 British No
 rican Co
 United St
 America
 Chili
 Peru
 Wallachia
 davia
 Chumel et
 Man (Co
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 T
 Total of
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 in cwts.

CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

VI. Account of the Quantities of the different Varieties of Corn and Grain Imported into the U. Kingdom in 1847, specifying the Countries whence the same were brought, and the Quantities brought from each, in Imp. Quarters.

Countries from which Imported.	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Rye.	Peas and Beans.	Indian Corn.	Buck Wheat.	Bear or Bigg.	Total.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Russia, Northern ports -	380,316	75,731	930,378	38,741	7,011	39	1	-	1,421,579
Ports within the Black Sea.	464,897	17,879	14,468	3,711	77	48,160	-	-	531,639
Sweden - - - - -	7,817	21,494	60,489	953	18,289	-	-	-	117,548
Norway - - - - -	652	412	3,651	-	-	1,014	-	-	4,639
Denmark - - - - -	73,321	507,314	328,314	3,387	83,995	-	12,132	491	684,034
Prussia - - - - -	490,335	46,956	81,642	58	23,641	-	-	-	610,584
Netherlands-Schwerin -	60,540	31,088	1,518	-	4,343	-	-	-	85,499
Hanover - - - - -	9,927	939	75,674	-	12,213	3,809	2	-	101,917
Saxony and Kappenstein -	2,112	-	37,464	-	4,028	-	-	-	43,604
Hanseaatic Towns - - -	76,491	99,873	25,130	877	36,639	-	33	-	169,064
Holland - - - - -	11,819	26,382	114,300	2,635	22,707	28	1,320	-	178,995
Belgium - - - - -	17,016	2,837	18,673	6,722	1,369	1,456	701	-	43,388
France - - - - -	144,913	5,331	3,409	3,963	3,880	84,537	8,777	-	227,830
Portugal Proper, Azores, and Madeira.	3,124	6	84	762	3,639	76,121	-	-	85,796
Spain and the Balearic Islands.	15,841	2,48	-	198	4,826	176,833	4	-	199,703
Italy and the Italian Islands.	58,189	11,503	18,795	-	10,857	416,440	-	-	511,814
Malta and Gozo - - - -	45,919	60,416	-	-	28,806	88,665	-	-	221,801
Ionian Islands - - - - -	3,143	-	-	-	90	11,418	-	-	14,650
Greece - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	5,476	-	-	5,476
Wallachia and Moldavia -	35,798	46,783	-	1,039	-	281,920	-	-	469,212
Egypt - - - - -	190,511	39,302	-	-	392,493	67,077	-	-	639,885
Syria and Palestine - - -	1,976	-	-	-	-	1,387	-	-	3,363
Turkish Dominions, not particularly enumerated.	109,101	64,752	5,334	301	156	274,064	-	-	469,960
British Settlements in Australia.	13,876	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,876
British North American Colonies.	88,903	3,386	30,614	-	16,661	8,737	-	-	143,206
United States of America -	423,819	25,732	40,829	7,330	13,899	1,943,901	122	-	2,465,673
Other Countries - - - - -	5,938	1,460	522	-	100	23,938	10	-	31,998
Total - - - - -	2,656,483	772,683	1,705,702	88,217	601,394	3,608,312	22,917	491	9,436,677

VII. Account of the Quantities of Wheat Imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 13 Years ending with 1846, exhibiting the Quantities brought from each Country; and exhibiting, also, the Total Imports of Wheat Flour during each of the above Years.

Countries.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.
Russia - - - - -	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Sweden - - - - -	1	1,036	11,241	41,339	271,693	968,363	99,599	289,087	33,666	104,458	23,768	205,211	67
Norway - - - - -	-	-	351	-	360	807	12	605	10,661	313	87	-	-
Denmark - - - - -	11,732	9,758	10,238	18,210	111,499	196,730	150,231	236,250	89,883	69,767	94,889	73,076	60,999
Prussia - - - - -	29,228	3,236	100,199	315,121	550,826	740,203	800,708	881,982	739,617	638,711	351,748	484,336	362,442
Hanover - - - - -	42,770	11,571	51,268	67,653	312,442	469,739	365,233	656,036	801,589	126,103	107,200	151,949	185,311
Holland - - - - -	-	35,984	10,741	82,019	116,440	50,612	101,983	9,067	858	11,774	1,614	676	-
Belgium - - - - -	111	429	17,396	32,141	7,627	23,670	6,986	329	1,101	983	3,653	-	-
France - - - - -	2,158	746	35,190	47,482	48,320	147,968	466,116	3,638	43,644	23,182	71,613	1,304	16,483
Portugal, Proper, Azores, and Madeira.	-	-	-	12	46,322	1,396	1,049	644	-	-	-	810	1,186
Spain, and the Balearic Islands.	-	-	-	1	17,711	46,939	35,822	68,431	1	11	4,000	66,181	-
Gibraltar - - - - -	1	6	-	4	4,273	570	714	-	-	-	-	-	-
Italy, and the Italian Islands.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Malta - - - - -	1	1	4	4,483	29,284	338,614	146,398	119,700	698,324	5,224	60,300	37,333	105,613
Ionian Islands - - - - -	-	-	6,390	11,647	16,370	1,544	9,853	114,730	5,193	6,163	4,130	11,044	-
Greece - - - - -	-	-	5,270	13,928	1,960	2,923	7,400	456	-	-	5,810	3,904	-
Malta - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,017	-	-	5,810	11,568	-
Turkey - - - - -	-	-	327	5,150	43,740	4,802	1,337	15,060	976	19,321	5,842	31,951	-
Egypt - - - - -	-	-	-	800	1,729	2,874	6,749	87,658	11,540	26,564	1,187	7,832	-
Barbary States, and W. C. of Africa.	-	-	-	-	-	3,360	-	-	-	999	-	1,894	66
Coast of Good Hope	1,610	1,107	-	-	-	5	-	-	176	-	79	1	-
East India Company's Territories and Ceylon.	471	336	-	310	-	-	-	1	5,431	661	4	42	338
British Settlements in Australia.	1,766	1	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	1,293	4,150	13,099	19,964
British North American Colonies -	44,907	14,226	-	-	27	6,193	70,499	33,656	20,367	36,174	38,646	69,388	-
United States of America - - - -	-	-	555	3,766	73,735	16,111	2,343	16,111	2,343	8,421	23,578	175,405	-
Chili - - - - -	-	1	6	-	-	91	-	2,840	1,203	-	-	-	11,774
Peru - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wallachia & Moldavia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Channel Islands & Man (foreign goods) -	-	-	-	-	40,531	28,256	-	10,147	9,180	552	-	-	1,654
Total	135,091	148,228	168,247	455,871	1,241,466	4,634,536	1,993,283	3,409,754	2,792,349	941,902	1,100,361	871,226	1,436,686
Total of flour and wheatmeal in cwt.	131,306	34,969	325,831	364,248	456,739	843,046	1,337,819	1,263,126	1,130,733	439,671	983,717	950,196	3,198,872

heat

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port.

79,000
2,900
2,767
6,712
18,186
4,820
4,768
7,918
728
11,140
10,284
14,848
84,889
90,987
47,126
34,131
290,710
606,000
803,007
894,470
839,491
993,886
984,261
936,626
950,479
707,284
510,026
484,019
441,091
787,608
697,127
711,808
984,861
2,190,096
2,308,751
2,807,800
1,864,381
1,198,499
1,081,466
780,608
801,186
1,109,499
1,398,400
8,110,729
1,896,646
8,010,963
8,111,290

into the U.
Kingdom

Total.

249,019
1,443
11,182
16,897
935
01,877
6,233
860,833
120,833
461
2,982
25,832
85,141
11,705
1,101
1,384,444
620,063
18,070
8,685,991

CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

VIII. Account showing the Quantities of the different Varieties of Foreign and Colonial Grain entered for Consumption in the U. Kingdom in each of the 18 Years ending with 1847, with the Total Quantities so entered, and the Annual Entries at an Average of the above Period, with a similar Account for Indian Corn and Meal for the 5 Years ending with 1847.—(Compiled from various *Port. Papers.*)

Years.	Wheat and Flour.		Barley.	Oats and Oatmeal.		Rye.	Peas.	Beans.	Total entered.	Indian Corn and Meal.
	Qrs.	Qrs.		Qrs.	Qrs.					
1830	1,737,447	48,465	904,472	18,189	44,507	19,397	3,765,517			
1831	1,596,740	51,510	335,493	26,903	67,977	24,969	2,969,700			
1832	576,785	77,968	3,093	60	15,556	7,419	491,119			
1833	84,026	1,890	970	1	18,099	5,999	110,538			
1834	64,074	11,071	55,989	81	37,708	44,466	235,958			
1835	98,554	156,433	175,143	8	25,184	49,424	436,280			
1836	20,107	110,921	97,107	16	86,998	17,790	406,067			
1837	844,379	47,473	234,274	10,476	47,513	109,076	845,058			
1838	1,848,475	8,193	11,072	5,317	11,518	24,440	1,856,114			
1839	3,711,725	894,201	969,789	139,189	170,470	183,597	4,815,389			
1840	3,401,436	18,901	617,093	1,537	159,437	199,317	3,809,180			
1841	3,847,808	594,437	47,918	518	139,537	301,897	3,399,435			
1842	3,968,243	39,969	399,437	29,218	80,450	43,370	3,487,798			
1843	960,223	253,245	5,794	438	45,793	1,358,199	1,358,199			
1844	694,515	1,040,768	328,233	28,779	106,375	225,680	2,099,250	36,711		
1845	315,610	899,430	317,454	23	81,333	197,918	1,614,156	49,399	10,233	
1846	3,369,598	404,644	779,448	1,710	181,401	269,374	4,540,209	737,609		
1847	4,618,110	784,696	1,789,037	933,210	193,078	476,253	8,103,994	4,023,918		
Totals	26,339,063	3,173,918	7,099,694	567,808	1,551,684	2,154,968	43,659,969	6,872,726		
Average annual entries for consumption	1,474,003	187,439	399,427	31,541	86,901	119,603	3,399,230	974,551		

IX. Account of the Quantities of Grain, Flour, Meal, and Malt of Irish Growth, annually imported into Great Britain from Ireland, from 1802 to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	Wheat and Flour.		Barley, including Bear or Bigg.	Oats and Oatmeal.		Rye.	Peas.	Beans.	Malt.	Total.
	Qrs.	Qrs.		Qrs.	Qrs.					
1802	108,731	7,116	241,151	282	113	1,655	3,208	481,371		
1805	64,087	15,656	203,302	235	1,634	2,010	-	306,934		
1806	102,376	3,227	357,077	330	3,399	2,261	-	468,760		
1807	44,300	33,048	369,040	431	1,300	3,777	-	483,198		
1808	43,497	30,586	579,974	573	75	2,065	-	656,770		
1809	66,944	16,619	845,783	425	84	2,609	-	932,478		
1810	126,383	8,321	492,741	30	216	3,541	-	631,297		
1811	147,248	8,713	275,797	21	60	4,061	-	439,867		
1812	158,332	43,138	300,639	179	81	8,008	-	527,356		
1813	217,154	63,660	691,496	420	77	4,455	-	977,164		
1814	226,478	16,779	564,010	4	480	5,731	-	813,462		
1815	189,644	37,108	567,337	307	425	6,371	-	621,192		
1816	121,631	22,254	683,714	43	239	5,284	-	673,865		
1817	85,481	26,795	611,117	-	12	2,276	-	605,551		
1818	108,179	25,387	1,069,386	-	10	4,788	-	1,204,732		
1819	133,850	20,311	789,913	2	-	3,904	-	967,680		
1820	403,407	67,695	916,261	134	439	8,396	-	1,418,722		
1821	669,700	82,884	1,162,249	550	2,474	4,959	-	1,822,816		
1822	493,004	22,532	569,237	323	728	7,236	-	1,083,069		
1823	400,068	15,274	1,102,487	198	586	5,540	-	1,528,133		
1824	356,394	44,069	1,223,065	112	756	6,791	1,173	1,634,000		
1825	396,016	154,256	1,629,856	220	1,431	11,355	10,826	2,203,962		
1826	814,851	64,885	1,303,734	77	7,482	7,190	1,203	1,693,992		
1827	408,253	67,791	1,343,267	236	1,282	10,537	872	1,828,460		
1828	652,994	84,204	2,076,531	424	4,826	7,069	853	2,826,590		
1829	619,017	97,140	1,673,628	568	4,435	10,445	2,011	2,307,344		
1830	629,717	189,745	1,471,252	414	2,520	19,053	2,820	2,216,521		
1831	637,498	183,400	1,625,701	515	4,142	16,029	10,888	2,439,182		
1832	790,299	123,639	2,051,367	224	1,918	14,530	8,229	2,990,767		
1833	844,311	101,757	1,763,920	166	3,646	13,114	7,017	3,737,441		
1834	773,505	217,855	1,762,503	983	2,176	18,771	3,865	2,732,658		
1835	661,776	156,242	1,822,767	614	3,447	24,235	10,337	2,679,438		
1836	599,757	184,156	2,132,138	483	2,920	17,604	22,214	2,958,272		
1837	634,466	187,473	2,274,678	1,016	60	25,630	4,174	3,080,298		
1838	842,583	156,457	2,742,907	628	6,823	8,901	4,743	3,643,309		
1839	959,331	61,676	1,904,933	2,231	1,484	11,535	2,861	2,943,151		
1840	174,439	65,954	2,037,836	123	1,403	14,873	2,456	2,237,792		
1841	218,708	75,568	2,639,380	172	855	16,907	4,935	2,855,535		
1842	301,598	60,297	2,261,436	76	1,551	19,831	3,049	2,538,234		
1843	415,466	110,449	2,648,333	371	1,129	24,323	8,643	3,036,483		
1844	440,132	90,656	2,242,308	264	1,021	18,980	8,153	2,801,904		
1845	779,113	93,095	2,333,985	165	1,644	12,745	11,144	3,251,901		
1846	393,462	92,854	1,311,592	-	9,237	14,698	11,329	1,426,132		
1847	184,024	47,927	763,465	1,496	4,659	32,361	8,586	969,450		

IV. FOREIGN CORN TRADE.

Polish Corn Trade.—Dantzic is the port whence we have hitherto always derived the largest portion of our supplies in deficient seasons; and as it is most probable that our

principal importations will continue to be drawn from the same source, it becomes peculiarly important to ascertain the cost of wheat in Dantsic, and the expense of its importation into this country.

According to the data collected by Mr. Jacob in his reports on the agriculture and corn trade of the north of Europe, the ordinary price of wheat at Dantsic free on board would amount to about 40s. a quarter, made up as follows:—

Cost of Wheat at Warsaw	..	36s.	0d.	per quarter.
Conveyance to the boats, and charges for loading and stowing, and securing it with mats	..	0	0	
Freight to Dantsic	..	0	0	
Loss on the passage by pilfering, rain, &c.	..	0	0	
Expenses at Dantsic in turning dry, screening, and sacking, and loss of measure	..	0	0	
Profit or commission, as the case may be, to the merchant in Dantsic	..	1	0	
Cost at Dantsic, exclusive of shipping charges, which amount to about 10d. a quarter	..	40	0	

Now, if to this we add 10s. or 12s. a quarter for the expense of importing the wheat into England, including the profit of the importer, it is plain that it could not, supposing Mr. Jacob's estimate of the cost to be nearly accurate, be sold in London, free of duty, for less than 50s. or 52s. a quarter.

It has, no doubt, been alleged that the cost of wheat in Dantsic is overrated in the above estimate; and in seasons when there is little or no demand for corn from abroad, this allegation is certainly well founded. But this estimate is not meant to apply to such years, but to those when there is some considerable foreign demand; and whenever this is the case, it will be found, that though some of the items which go to make up the cost may vary, the result is nearly correct; and that there are really no good grounds for supposing that corn could, in the seasons in question, be shipped from Dantsic for less than about 40s. a quarter.

In further corroboration of this statement we may mention that owing to the deficient harvest of 1845, the average price of wheat in Warsaw, exceeded 40s. a quarter, and it is stated in a despatch from the consul in that city, that at an average of the twenty years ending with 1845, prices had been at follows, viz.: wheat from 30s. 6d. to 30s. per imp. quarter; barley 17s. 10d. to 20s. 6d. per do.; and oats 8s. 6d. to 10s. per do. It is plain, therefore, that Mr. Jacob's estimate of the cost of wheat at Warsaw is not in any degree overrated; and we are well assured that this also is the case with his estimate of the expense of conveying it down the Vistula to Dantsic.

Mr. Grade, of Dantsic, furnished the Agricultural Committee of 1831 with the following Table of the average prices of corn in that city, free on board, in decennial periods from 1770 to 1830.

Average Price from Ten to Ten Years, of the different Species of Corn, free on board, per Quarter, in Sterling Money, at Dantsic.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
From 1770 to 1779	33	9	21	5	16	11	11	1
1780 — 1789	33	10	22	1	17	11	12	4
1790 — 1799	43	8	26	3	19	3	12	6
1800 — 1809	60	0	34	10	25	1	13	1
1810 — 1819	55	4	31	1	26	0	30	4
Aggregate average price of 49 years	45	4	27	2	30	10	13	10

It appears from this table, that, at an average of the 30 years ending with 1819, the price of corn in Dantsic was no less than 37s. 6d. a quarter! But it is to be observed that these prices were powerfully influenced by the scarcity and high price in this country in 1800 and 1801, and by the obstructions which the war threw in the way of agriculture, and of the conveyance of corn to Dantsic. But the prices of wheat at this great emporium have not latterly been subject to any such disturbing influences. The countries whence Dantsic draws her supplies of corn have enjoyed uninterrupted tranquillity during the last 12 years; and though during some of these years we have made large importations, we have hardly, in a still greater number, brought away a single bushel of corn; so that the average prices of this period may be taken as pretty correctly representing the prices of corn in Dantsic in seasons when the export is rather under a medium.

Account exhibiting the Lowest, the Highest, and the Average Prices of Wheat in Dantsic, in Sterling Money, per Imperial Quarter, in each of the 11 Years, from 1831 to 1841, both inclusive, with the Averages for the whole Period.

Years.	Lowest Price		Highest Price		Average Price		Years.	Lowest Price		Highest Price		Average Price					
	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.		per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.	per Quarter.				
1831	31	9	31	6	31	6	1839	31	9	31	1	31	5				
1832	28	5	35	7	28	0	1840	28	0	35	8	30	10				
1833	28	5	35	9	30	7	1841	45	5	57	0	51	4				
1834	30	5	35	11	27	6	Average of 11 Years from 1831 to 1841.										
1835	31	0	36	5	23	8											
1836	28	3	35	7	28	11											
1837	34	5	34	5	30	6											
1838	28	0	31	5	24	11											
												30	9	45	2	37	11

It appears from this table that the average price of wheat in Dantsic during the 11 years ending with 1841 was 37s. 11d. a quarter; making, with the addition of 10d. a quarter for shipping charges, its average price free on board, 38s. 9d. a quarter. Now if to this last sum we add 12s. or 13s. for the expense of its importation and delivery to the millers in London, it is plain, judging from the experience of these 11 years, that the average cost of Dantsic wheat in England, independent of duty, may be estimated, in round numbers, at from 51s. to 52s. a quarter.

It is material, however, to bear in mind that no very large quantity could be shipped at the above prices. They represent only average years; and whenever there is any unusual demand for corn, or when from 200,000 to 300,000 quarters are wanted for this country, the price immediately rises, as seen above, to from 45s. to 50s. a quarter

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Corn
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9,985
5,711
2,295
7,679
2,518
7,758
4,641

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Total.

Qrs.
461,371
208,534
466,760
463,198
686,770
932,478
681,327
499,867
597,366
977,164
913,469
921,192
873,665
695,651
1,204,733
967,580
1,416,722
1,822,816
1,063,099
1,524,153
1,634,000
2,203,962
1,693,392
1,826,460
2,826,590
2,307,344
2,215,321
2,438,182
2,990,767
2,737,441
2,792,638
2,670,428
2,958,372
3,080,263
3,474,302
3,243,151
2,327,782
3,638,526
2,538,224
3,206,492
2,801,204
3,261,901
2,936,132
969,490

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table that our

and upwards. During the course of the present year (1846) the average prices of the wheat shipped at Dantzic have exceeded 50s. a quarter.

That the charges on importation into England, warehousing here, and then delivering to the millers, exclusive of duty and profit, would amount to about 10s. a quarter appears from the following statements* :—

Account of the Ordinary Charges on 100 Quarters of Wheat, shipped from Dantzic on Consignment, and landed under Bond in London. — (*Parl. Paper No. 333. Sess. 1827, p. 28.*)

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
One hundred quarters, supposed cost at Dantzic, free on board, 30s.	-	150 0 0
Freight at 3s. per quarter, and 10 per cent.	27 10 0	
Metage ex ship, &c., 6s. 6d. per last	3 5 0	
Lighterage and landing, 9d. per quarter	3 15 0	
Insurance on 180s., including 10 per cent. imaginary profit, at 80s. } per cent.; policy 5s. per cent.	7 14 0	
Granary rent and insurance for one week	0 5 0	
Turning and trimming, about	0 2 0	
Delivering from granary, 3d. per quarter	1 5 0	
Metage, &c. ex granary, 2s. per last	1 0 0	
Commission on sale, 1s. per quarter	5 0 0	
Del credere, 1 per cent. on, suppose, 40s.	2 0 0	
		51 16 0
Total cost to importer if sold in bond		201 16 0
Imaginary profit, 10 per cent.		20 3 6
		221 19 6
Would produce, at 44s. 4d. per quarter,	£221	13 4

N. B. — Loss on remeasuring not considered. Freight and insurance are taken in this statement at an average, being sometimes higher and sometimes lower.

Account of the Ordinary Charges on 100 Quarters of Wheat imported from Dantzic, for Sale on Consignment in London, in May, 1841.

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
One hundred quarters fine high mixed wheat, weighing about 61 lbs. per bushel, would cost 40s. per quarter	-	200 0 0
Sound dues, 6d. per quarter	3 10 0	
Freight, at present, 3s. 3d., but, on an average, supposed 4s. 6d.	22 10 0	
Insurance 1½s. 6d. per cent., but on an average, 20s.	£2 5 0	
Policy, 2s. 6d.	0 7 6	
		2 12 6
Metage and dues ex ship, 6s. 6d. per ten quarters	2 6 8	
Lighterage and landing, 9d.	3 15 0	
Granary rent and fire insurance for three weeks, at 5s. per one hundred quarters per week	0 15 0	
Turning and trimming, same period	0 4 6	
Seller's metage ex granary, 2s. per ten quarters	1 0 0	
Delivering from granary, 3d.	1 5 0	
Commission or factorage on sale, 1s. per quarter	5 0 0	
Del credere, 1 per cent. (on 55s.), 37½s.	2 15 0	
		45 13 8
		245 13 8

According to this statement, the cost of importation would be 9s. 1½d. a quarter; but to this has to be added an allowance for waste, and 2s. 6d. or 3s. a quarter for profit, which would raise the cost to about 12s. 6d. or 13s. a quarter.

We are well convinced that it is not possible successfully to controvert any portion of these statements; and such being the case, we are entitled to say that nothing can be more perfectly unfounded than the notions so prevalent in this country as to the extreme cheapness of corn in Dantzic. The truth is, that no considerable quantity of corn can be derived from her without resorting to Galicia and other provinces from 500 to 700 miles inland. The corn is thence conveyed to the city in boats suited to the navigation of the rivers; but, owing to the uncertain supply of water in the latter, the communication is sometimes entirely broken off, and it is always very tedious and expensive. In proof of this, we may mention that, in November, 1838, when wheat sold in Dantzic for 41s. 6d. a quarter, it was selling in Lemberg, the principal corn market of Galicia, for 15s.; the difference amounting to 26s. 6d., being the measure of the cost and risk of conveyance from Lemberg to Dantzic! It is, in fact, quite nugatory to suppose that any large supplies should be furnished by Dantzic, were the shipping price under 40s. or 45s. But, supposing that we could in ordinary years ship considerable supplies even for 38s., still it is plain it could not be sold in London, supposing the duty to be abolished, for less than 50s. or 52s. a quarter.

It is difficult to draw any conclusions on which it would be safe to place much reliance

* The first was furnished by Messrs. Richard Birkett and Sons to the Lords' Committee of 1827, on the price of foreign corn; the other was obligingly furnished by Mr. Irvine, corn factor, in 1841.

as to the supplies of corn that might be obtained from Dantzic, were our ports constantly open under a reasonable duty. Mr. Jacob gives the following

Account of the Total annual Average Quantity of Wheat and Rye exported from Dantzic, in Periods of 25 Years each, for the 166 Years ending with 1825.

Years.	Wheat, Qrs.	Rye, Qrs.	Total, Qrs.	Years.	Wheat, Qrs.	Rye, Qrs.	Total, Qrs.
1651 to 1675	81,775	225,212	307,087	1781 — 1775	141,080	208,140	349,220
1676 — 1700	124,857	227,483	352,370	1776 — 1800	150,299	103,045	253,344
1701 — 1725	58,795	170,100	228,895	1801 — 1825	200,330	67,511	267,841
1726 — 1750	80,624	119,771	200,395				

"The average of the whole period," Mr. Jacob observes, "gives an annual quantity of wheat and rye of 279,794 quarters; and this surplus may be fairly considered as the nearest approach that can be made, with existing materials, to what is the usual excess of the produce of bread corn above the consumption of the inhabitants, when no extraordinary circumstances occur to excite or check cultivation."—(*Report*, p. 49.)

We incline, however, to think that Mr. Jacob has underrated the capabilities of improvement of the countries traversed by the Vistula, the Bug, &c.; and that when our ports are opened without any duty, we may, supposing our average prices not to fall below 50s. a quarter, reckon upon getting from Dantzic an annual supply of from 300,000 to 400,000 quarters. It should, however, be observed, that Mr. Meek, who visited the N. of Europe in the latter part of 1841 and early in 1842, concurs with Mr. Jacob in thinking it improbable that any considerable increase of exportation would take place from Dantzic under any modification of our corn laws.—(*Parl. Paper No. 7*, Sess. 1842, p. 31.) But it is difficult to believe that such should be the case. Hitherto, owing to the fluctuating and capricious nature of our demand, it has proved of little advantage to the Polish cultivators; and but little corn has been raised in the expectation of its finding its way to England. But it will, there can be little doubt, be materially different when our ports are always open. The supply of our markets may become, under such circumstances, an object of importance to the Polish agriculturists; and if so, the fair presumption is that they will endeavour to extend and improve their tillage, and the means of bringing corn to market. At the same time, nothing positive can be stated on the subject, inasmuch as the stimulus given to Polish agriculture by the change in our corn laws will wholly depend on the extent of our demand; and if, as we apprehend will be the case, in ordinary seasons, be much more limited than is commonly supposed, it will have comparatively little influence. We subjoin an

Account exhibiting the Quantities of the different Varieties of Corn and the Quantities of Flour shipped from Dantzic during each of the Seven Years ending with 1840, with the Prices of Wheat in Dantzic during the same Period.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Flour.	Average Price of Wheat.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Barrels.	£ s. d.
1834	71,043	24,811	326	1,522	33,863	1 7 6
1835	45,129	13,860	95	2,898	28,392	1 3 8
1836	129,035	70,812	7,317	7,224	68,891	1 8 11
1837	314,601	109,989	2,357	8,085	67,612	1 9 8½
1838	458,410	31,220	2,502	1,206	73,274	2 4 1½
1839	419,055	134,253	65,919	8,279	45,251	2 6 5
1840	496,776	131,880	37,054	2,735	21,809	2 10 10½
Totals	1,934,079	518,195	117,697	31,749	334,092	1 17 10½

There were shipped from Dantzic, in 1845, 34,106 lasts, or 358,113 quarters of wheat, of which 250,299 were for the U. Kingdom.

Quality of Dantzic Wheat.—The price of wheat in Dantzic is usually about 7s. a quarter above its average price in Hamburg, and about 2s. above the average of Amsterdam. This difference is entirely owing to the superior quality of the Dantzic wheat. Though small grained, and not so heavy as several other sorts, it is remarkably thin-skinned, and yields the finest flour. Some of the best white, or, as it is technically termed, "high mixed" Dantzic wheat, is superior to the very best English; but the quantity of this sort is but limited, and the average quality of all that is exported from Dantzic is believed to approach very nearly to the average quality of English wheat. Allowing for its superior quality, it will be found that wheat is, speaking generally, always cheaper in Dantzic than in any of the Continental ports nearer to London. There are but few seasons, indeed, in which Dantzic wheat is not largely imported into Amsterdam; and it frequently, also, finds its way into Hamburg. But it is quite impossible that such should be the case, unless, taking quality and other modifying circumstances into account, it were really cheaper than the native and other wheats met with in these markets. When there is any considerable importation into

England, it is of every day occurrence for merchants to order Dantzic wheat in preference to that of Holstein, or of the Lower Elbe, though the latter might frequently be put into warehouse here for 20s. a quarter less than the former! It is, therefore, quite indispensable, in attempting to draw any inferences in regard to the comparative prices of corn in different countries, to make the requisite allowances for differences of quality. Unless this be done, whatever conclusions may be come to can hardly fail of being false and misleading; and when they happen to be right, they can only be so through the merest accident.

Dantzic being by far the greatest port for the exportation of corn in the north of Europe, its price may be assumed as the general measure of the price in other shipping ports. At all events, it is certain that when Dantzic is exporting, wheat cannot be shipped, taking quality into account, at a cheaper rate from any other place. The importer invariably resorts to what he believes to be, all things considered, the cheapest market; and it is a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose that he should burden himself with a comparatively high freight, and other charges for wheat in Dantzic, provided he could buy an equally good article in so convenient a port as Hamburg at the same or a lower price.

If, therefore, we are right in estimating the lowest price at which wheat could be imported from Dantzic free of duty, in ordinary years, at about 50s., we may be assured that this is the lowest importation price. The greater cheapness of the imports from other places is apparent only; and is uniformly counterbalanced by a corresponding inferiority of quality. — (For further details as to the Dantzic and Polish corn trade, see the articles DANTZIC, КЪНТОСКО, &c.)

Russian Corn Trade.—Russia exports large quantities of wheat, rye, oats, and meal. The wheat is of various qualities; but the greater portion of it is small-grained, coarse, brown, and very badly dressed. The hard, or Kubanka, is the best; it keeps well, and is in considerable demand for mixing with other wheats that are old or stale. Russian oats are very thin; but, being dried in the straw, they weigh better than could be expected from their appearance, and are reckoned wholesome food. Our imports from Russia in 1839 were unusually large, she having supplied us with no fewer than 371,693 quarters wheat, 316,823 do. oats, and 14,000 do. rye. Generally, however, our imports do not exceed a fifth part of this quantity. In 1844 the imports of wheat amounted to 104,523 quarters, almost wholly from the Black Sea. — (The reader will find notices of the Russian corn trade under the articles АСХАНОВЪ, ПЕТУСАУРОВЪ, and РИОА. For an account of the corn trade by the Black Sea, see *post*, and the articles ODESSA and ТАГАНРОГ.)

Danish Corn Trade.—The export of wheat from Denmark Proper, that is, from Jutland and the islands, is but inconsiderable. There is, however, a pretty large exportation of wheat and other grain, as well as of butter, cheese, beef, &c., from Sleswick and Holstein. As already stated, the quality of the wheat is inferior: for, though it looks plump, it is coarse and damp. The chief shipping port for Danish corn is Kiel; but, owing to the facilities enjoyed by Hamburg, considerable quantities of it are consigned to that city. The imports of corn from Denmark during the three years ending with 1845 have been as follows, viz. —

	1843.	1844.	1845.	Totals.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
Wheat - - - -	69,610	94,260	73,327	237,197
Barley - - - -	130,036	474,717	165,120	769,873
Oats - - - -	15,918	84,867	85,667	186,652
Peas and Beans - - - -	16,354	28,668	29,142	74,164
Totals - - - -	231,917	649,512	382,656	1,263,685

For an account of the exports of raw produce from Denmark, see COPENHAGEN.

Corn Trade of the Elbe, &c.—Next to Dantzic, Hamburg is, perhaps, the greatest corn market in the north of Europe, being a depôt for large quantities of Baltic corn, and for the produce of the extensive countries traversed by the Elbe. The exports of wheat from Hamburg amounted, as seen below, at an average of the 11 years ending with 1841, to 210,871 quarters a year. The price of wheat, as already stated, is frequently less in Hamburg than in Dantzic; but this lowness of price is altogether ascribable to the inferiority of the Holstein and Hanover wheats, which are generally net with in great abundance in Hamburg. Wheat from the Upper Elbe, is of a better quality. Bohemian wheat is occasionally forwarded by the river to Hamburg; but the charges attending its conveyance from Prague amount to full 15s. a quarter, and prevent its being sent down, except when the price is comparatively high. In 1841, the shipments of wheat from Hamburg amounted to 507,400 quarters, of which 460,900 were for England. Perhaps we might be able, did our prices average about

50s., to import in ordinary years from 300,000 to 400,000 quarters of wheat from Denmark and the countries intersected by the Weser and the Elbe.

Account of the Exports of the various Descriptions of Corn from Hamburg during each of the Eleven Years ending with 1841.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Peas.	Beans.	Malt.	Buck Wheat.	Rape Seed.	Tares.
1831	Qrs. 229,697	Qrs. 73,283	Qrs. 80,660	Qrs. 6,188	Qrs. 759	Qrs. 154	Qrs. 302	Qrs. 25	Qrs. 871	Qrs. 155
1832	139,082	39,418	9,213	14,605	75	33	136	37	1,294	78
1833	96,447	29,218	9,100	3,668	871	228	109	884	1,092	85
1834	68,113	24,576	7,500	5,568	994	633	124	21	1,068	176
1835	40,831	19,508	8,304	5,912	198	315	91	23	1,242	304
1836	101,180	26,537	34,392	8,078	1,097	175	121	179	2,592	142
1837	110,178	37,700	21,510	6,085	818	686	69	26	1,218	130
1838	275,901	54,433	8,679	4,697	622	91	101	17	2,165	91
1839	378,401	43,296	35,818	8,110	968	445	118	133	518	157
1840	380,550	24,815	33,148	12,457	1,396	357	189	127	441	475
1841	507,400	61,600	43,400	5,500	12,700	1,900			15,400	13,000

Average exports of wheat for the above 11 years, 210,870 1/4 quarters.

N.B. — The Hamburg last is equal to about 11 Imperial quarters.

Amsterdam is an important depôt for foreign corn, every variety of which may be found there. Only a small part of its consumption is supplied by corn of native growth; so that the prices in it are for the most part dependent on those at which corn can be brought from Dantzic, Kiel, Hamburg, and other shipping ports. During 1840, they fluctuated from 35s. to 58s. a quarter. The corn trade of Holland was formerly conducted under a fixed duty; but in 1836 a law was enacted which imposes duties on exportation and importation which vary with the price. We subjoin

A Statement of the existing Duties on the Importation, Exportation, and Transit of Wheat in Holland.

When the Average Price is	The Import Duty is		The Export is		The Transit Duty is	
	10 Last.	10 Quarter.	10 Last.	10 Qr.	10 Last.	10 Qr.
Above 270 fl. and above 240 fl. — 270 fl. or 42s. 10d.	15 fl.	or 2s. 2 1/2 d.	15 fl.	or 2s. 2 1/2 d.	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.
240 fl. — 210 fl. — 238. 1d. — 23s. 4d.	20 fl.	or 4s. 8d.	—	—	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.
210 fl. — 180 fl. — 33s. 4d. — 29s. 7d.	45 fl.	or 7s. 1 1/2 d.	—	—	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.
180 fl. — 165 fl. — 38s. 7d. — 36s. 9d.	60 fl.	or 9s. 6d.	—	—	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.
165 fl. — 150 fl. — 36s. 9d. — 23s. 9d.	75 fl.	or 11s. 10 1/2 d.	—	—	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.
150 fl. lower	25s. 9d.	—	90 fl.	or 14s. 9d.	3 fl.	or 4s. 6 d.

Rotterdam is a very advantageous port for warehousing foreign corn, being conveniently situated, and the warehouse rent low, not exceeding 2d. or 2 1/2d. per quarter per month.

French Corn Trade. — It appears, from the accounts given by the Marquis Garnier in the last edition of his translation of the *Wealth of Nations*, that the price of the *hectolitre* of wheat in the market of Paris amounted, at an average of the 19 years ending with 1819, to 20 fr. 53 cents; equal to 30 fr. 80 cents the septier; or, taking the exchange at 25 fr. to 45s. 6d. the quarter. Chaptal, in his valuable work, *Sur l'Industrie Française* (tom. i. p. 226.), published in 1819, estimates the ordinary average price of wheat throughout France at 18 fr. the hectolitre, or 42s. 10d. the quarter. In 1840, however, the price of wheat in Paris in June varied from 63s. to 64s. 6d., falling to about 45s. after harvest. Owing to the deficient harvest of this year (1846) the prices are at present (December, 1846) higher in France than in England; and considerable quantities of wheat have been taken out of bond in London and other British ports for shipment to France. The various expenses attending the importation of a quarter of French wheat into London and its delivery to the millers may be taken, at a medium, at about 8s. a quarter. France, however, has but rarely any surplus produce to dispose of; so that it would be impossible for us to import any considerable quantity of French corn without occasioning a great advance of price; and, in point of fact, our imports from France have been generally inconsiderable, except in years when our prices were much above an average.

The mean of the different estimates framed by Vauban, Queanay, Expilly, Lavoisier, and Arthur Young, gives 61,519,672 septiers, or 32,810,000 quarters, as the total average growth of the different kinds of grain in France. — (*Peuchet, Statistique Élémentaire*, p. 290.) We, however, took occasion formerly to observe (*Supp. to Encyc. Brit. art. Corn Laws*) that there could not be a doubt that this estimate was a great deal too low; and the more careful investigations of late French statisticians fully confirm this remark. The annual produce of the harvest of France was lately (1843) estimated, from returns obtained under official authority, at 69,558,000 hectolitres of wheat, and 112,958,000 do. of other sorts of grain; making in all 182,517,000 hectolitres, or 62,740,000 Imp. quarters. Of this quantity it is supposed that about 16 per cent. is consumed as seed, 19 per cent. in the feeding of different species of animals, and 2 per cent. in distilleries and breweries.

The reader will not fail to observe that, according to this statement, the consumption

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of corn in France, which has a population of about 35,000,000, is not more than equal to that of the U. Kingdom, the population of which may be taken at 28,000,000. And we have no doubt that such is the fact; for, though the consumption of corn in France materially exceeds its proportional consumption in Ireland, it is far below the proportional consumption of Great Britain. The corn expended in this country in the keep of horses and in distilleries would, of itself, suffice to feed a third part of the people of France.

The foreign corn trade of France was regulated till within these few years by a law which forbade exportation, except when the home prices were below certain limits; and which restrained and absolutely forbade importation except when they were above certain other limits. The prices regulating importation and exportation differed in the different districts into which the kingdom was divided. Latterly, however, importation has been at all times allowed under graduated duties, which, like those recently existing in this country, become prohibitory when the prices sink to a certain level. The frontier departments are divided into 4 separate districts, the prices in each district governing the duties on importation into it, so that it sometimes happens that corn warehoused in a particular port, where it is not admissible except under a high duty, has been carried to another port in another district, and admitted at a low duty. An official announcement is issued on the last day of each month, of what the duties are to be in each district during the succeeding month.

Spanish Corn Trade.—The exportation of corn from Spain was formerly prohibited under the severest penalties. But in 1820, grain and flour were both allowed to be freely exported; and in 1823, this privilege was extended to all productions (*frutos*), the growth of the soil. There is now in fact, no obstacle whatever, except the expense of carriage, to the conveyance of corn to the sea-ports, and thence to the foreigner. Owing, however, to the corn-growing provinces being principally situated in the interior, and to the extreme badness of the roads, which renders carriage to the coast both expensive and difficult, the exports are reduced within comparatively narrow limits: the same difficulty of carriage frequently gives rise to very great differences in the prices in markets, in all parts of the country, only a few leagues distant. Were the means of communication improved, and any thing like security given to the husbandman, Spain would, in no long time, become one of the principal exporting countries of Europe. Old Castile, Leon, Estremadura, and that part of Andalusia to the south and east of Seville, are amongst the finest corn countries of Europe, and might be made to yield immense supplies. But owing to the disturbed state of the country, and the want of a market for their produce, they can hardly be said to be at all cultivated. And yet such is their natural fertility, that in good seasons the peasants only reap those fields nearest to the villages!

In 1831 we imported 146,134 quarters of wheat from Spain, but from that period down to 1840, importation from Spain had almost entirely ceased. The imports of wheat from her in 1842 amounted to 68,451 quarters; but they again fell off to next to nothing. In 1847, however, she sent us 176,853 quarters of Indian corn.

Corn Trade of Odessa.—Odessa, on the Black Sea, is now the principal corn shipping port of S. Europe. Inasmuch, however, as but little of the corn sent from Odessa is raised in the province of Kherson in her neighbourhood, the exports depend in a great degree on the price; a comparatively high price being necessary to pay the cost of conveying corn from Podolia and Kief, whence only large supplies can be derived, to the port. The navigation of the Dnieper, which intersects these provinces, and would otherwise be a most important channel of communication, is unluckily interrupted in the lower part of its course by cataracts, so that a very large portion of the corn brought at present to Odessa is conveyed to it in carts drawn by oxen; and the supply depends almost as much on the number of cattle that may be employed for this purpose as on the productiveness of the harvests. A portion, also, though but a small one, of the supplies for Odessa is brought by coasters from the Sea of Azof, and from some of the smaller ports on the Black Sea. It appears from an official statement published in Odessa, that the total quantity of wheat brought to the town in the undermentioned years was—

1834	-	-	691,000 chetwerts.*	1838	-	-	1,241,000 chetwerts.
1835	-	-	378,700	1839	-	-	1,150,000
1836	-	-	878,700	1840	-	-	680,000
1837	-	-	950,458				

The supplies in 1844 and 1845 were, however, much greater; the exports in the former amounting to 909,385 quarters, and in the latter to 1,279,502 do., being, we believe, the largest supply of wheat ever shipped from a single port in a single season previously to 1847.

During the three years ending with 1840, the average price of the best Odessa wheat,

* A chetwert is about 5·8 bushels.

which, however, is inferior to English by 5s. or 6s. a quarter, was 34s. 6d. on the spot; and it is the better samples only that are fitted for distant voyages, and for our markets. Owing to the length and tediousness of the voyage from Odessa, and the risk of the grain heating on the passage, the charges attending its importation, including insurance, &c., amount to from 15s. to 16s. a quarter. It is plain, therefore, that the Odessa wheat brought to England during the above three years must, speaking generally, have cost the importer about 50s. a quarter exclusive of profit; and, supposing the price of the best wheat in Odessa to be reduced under a system of free intercourse to 30s. a quarter, still it is plain it could not be sold in London for less than 45s. to 46s. a quarter; equivalent to about 51s. or 52s. for average English wheat. And hence it is that but a small portion of the immense exports from Odessa in 1844 and 1845 came to England, our imports from Southern Russia in the course of these years having been respectively 101,003 and 22,547 quarters. (*Parl. Paper* No. 511. *Sess.* 1846.) Constantinople, Genoa, Marseilles, and other Mediterranean ports, are the great markets for the wheat of the Black Sea.

The shipments of grain, other than wheat from Odessa, are generally but inconsiderable. In 1845 no oats were exported, and only 4,104 quarters of barley. Indian corn is raised in Bessarabia, but not in quantities to admit of any great exportation.

For further and later details as to the corn trade of Southern Russia, and of the countries on the Lower Danube, see the articles *ODESSA*, *TAGANROG*, and *GALAZ*.

Both soft and hard wheat are exported from Odessa; but the former, which is by far the most abundant, is only brought to England. Despite the preference given to English wheat in this country, in the Mediterranean Odessa wheat is more esteemed, and fetches a higher price.

The hard wheat brought from the Black Sea comes principally from Taganrog. It is a very fine species of grain, being full 10 per cent. heavier than British wheat, with not more than half the bran: latterly, however, soft wheat is beginning to be exported. The hard wheat is used in Italy for making macaroni and vermicelli, and things of that sort; very little of it has found its way to England.

The voyage from Odessa to Britain is of uncertain duration, but generally very long. It is essential to the importation of the wheat in a good condition, that it should be made during the winter months. When the voyage is made in summer, unless the wheat be very superior, and be shipped in exceedingly good order, it is almost sure to heat; and has sometimes, indeed, been injured to such a degree as to require to be dug from the hold with pickaxes. Unless, therefore, means be devised for lessening the risk of damage during the voyage, there is little reason to think that Odessa wheat will ever be largely imported in ordinary seasons into Britain.—(See the evidence of J. H. Lander, Esq. and J. Schneider, Esq. before the Lords' Committee of 1827, on the price of foreign corn.) We subjoin a

Statement of the probable Cost of importing 2,000 Chetwerts or 1453 Quarters of Wheat from Odessa to London.

Charges in London.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Policy duty on 1,200l. at 4 per cent.	- - - 3 0 0		
Insurance on 1,500l. at 2½. 2s. per cent.	- - - 24 3 0		
Commission do. 4 per cent.	- - - - -	27 3 0	
Freight on 1,453 quarters wheat at 12s. per quarter	- - - 871 10 0	5 15 0	
Primage, 10 per cent.	- - - 87 3 7		
Gratification	- - - 10 10 0		
		969 9 7	
Charterparty, 14; custom-house entries, 10s.	- - - - -	1 10 0	
Metage on ship, at 4s. 3d. per last	- - - - -	31 3 7	
Lastage	- - - - -	1 4 2	
Lighterage of 1,453 quarters at 4d.	- - - - -	24 4 4	
Landing, wharfage, housing, and delivering, at 9d.	- - - - -	54 9 8	
Rent 4 weeks, at 6s. per 100 quarters per week	- - - - -	14 10 7	
Metage, &c. ex granary	- - - - -	7 5 0	
		£1,136 15 0	
		Or per quarter	0 15 8
And in addition to the above, the charge for probable damage on the voyage may be estimated at 2s. a quarter.			
And the factorage in London at 1s. per quarter.			

American Corn Trade.—The prices of wheat at New York and Philadelphia may be taken, at an average, at about 40s. a quarter; and as the cost of importing a quarter of wheat from the United States into England amounts to from 12s. to 14s., it is seen that no considerable supply could be obtained from that quarter, were our prices under 50s. or 52s. It should also be remarked, that prices in America are usually higher than in the Baltic; so that but little can be brought from the former, except when the demand is sufficient previously to take off the cheaper wheats of the northern ports.

The exports of wheat from the U. States are, however, comparatively trifling; it being in the shape of flour that most part of their exports of that grain are made. The shipments of this important article from Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, New Orleans, and other ports, have occasionally been very large, though down to 1839 they had been for some years rather decreasing. Occasionally, indeed, considerable quantities of corn and flour have been sent from Europe to the U. States. In 1837, for example, no fewer than 3,921,289 bushels of foreign wheat were imported into the U. States, of which

709,676 bushels were from England. This, however, was a rare instance; and in years like 1846 and 1847, when there was at once an extraordinarily abundant crop in the States, and an unusually large demand and high prices in Europe, the exports are very large. But apart from the peculiar circumstances now referred to, the subjoined account of the exports of flour, Indian corn, and meal, during the year ended the 30th of June, 1846, may be taken as a fair specimen of the shipments from the Union in ordinary years.

Account showing the Quantities of Flour, Indian Corn, and Meal, exported from the U. States during the Year ended the 30th of June 1846, specifying the Countries to which they were sent, and the Quantities and Values of those sent to each.

Countries.	Flour.		Indian Corn.		Meal.				Total.	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Indian.		Rye.		Quantities.	Values.
					Barrels.	Dollars.	Barrels.	Dollars.		
Sweden and Norway	537	3,578	-	-	-	-	90	369	547	3,947
Swedish West Indies	53,903	236,677	15,443	1,840	9,996	7,974	303	561	18,709	25,596
Danish ditto	15,324	83,867	5,640	3,182	46,020	110,934	469	1,228	115,525	83,106
Dutch ditto	35,329	182,494	134,896	67,468	4,963	16,611	1,848	6,330	36,973	104,056
England	90	90	-	-	-	-	-	-	170,364	219,782
Scotland	10,747	48,490	1,758	769	-	-	-	-	30	90
Gibraltar	8,430	15,331	-	-	-	-	-	-	18,353	47,310
British East Indies	1,454	7,127	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,454	7,127
Cape of Good Hope	1,030	4,830	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,030	4,830
Mauritius	800	3,850	-	-	-	-	-	-	800	3,850
Anatolia	3,348	40,666	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,348	40,666
Honduras	20,977	91,191	17,418	8,468	4,026	9,876	100	994	48,481	109,974
British Guiana	381,228	1,231,277	336,871	169,634	132,178	360,174	2,374	7,183	775,643	1,746,268
West Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
American Colonies	287,997	1,125,608	153,817	68,430	48,068	105,995	30,847	96,491	618,143	1,464,374
French West Indies	9,979	26,600	17,634	9,291	923	2,540	-	12	37,569	47,443
Cuba	47,726	215,706	67,998	84,976	6,848	16,792	-	-	121,539	267,474
Other Spanish West Indies	17,465	79,901	610	578	4,995	12,614	-	-	32,070	99,503
Haiti	53,106	248,902	1,425	732	428	1,026	80	80	63,015	250,777
Mexico	19,794	83,367	1,260	538	40	91	-	-	21,094	81,016
Venezuela	37,937	171,923	23,847	13,849	344	1,359	-	14	61,658	184,840
Peru	309,843	1,083,318	870	835	107	226	-	-	310,623	1,084,149
Chiliane Republic	14,568	39,831	490	267	-	-	-	-	15,058	36,098
Argentine ditto	11,184	29,830	-	-	-	-	-	-	11,184	29,830
Chile	1,470	7,231	-	-	-	50	-	-	1,520	7,281
All other countries	42,139	207,137	62,917	36,013	433	1,177	-	-	95,809	234,547
Total	1,193,230	5,396,995	840,184	411,741	389,030	641,552	35,371	112,908	2,239,615	6,264,734

N. B.—The total exports of wheat during the same year amounted to only 389,716 bushels, or 48,714 quarters.

Owing to the failure of the potato crops in Ireland, Belgium, and other parts of Europe, the exports of flour and of Indian corn and meal from America in 1846 and 1847 were extremely large. Those sent to this country were, however, completely overdone, and entailed a very heavy loss on the exporters.—We subjoin

An Account of the Exports of Flour and Wheat, Indian Corn and Indian Corn Meal, Rye, Ship-bread, &c., from the U. States, during the Year ended the 30th June, 1847, specifying the Countries to which the same were sent, and the Quantities sent to each.

Articles.	To AMERICA.				
	British N. American colonies.	The West Indies generally.	South America generally.	North America generally.	
Flour	373,899	485,571	328,937	66,993	
Wheat	919,058	15,103	-	900	
Indian corn	119,515	593,229	8,664	32,985	
Corn meal	39,936	178,418	2,750	10,334	
Rye meal	37,401	3,480	101	180	
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	\$24,312	\$113,356	\$2,291	\$18,999	
Ship bread	20,306	54,788	1,711	21,818	
	220	15,907	7,497	673	
Articles.	To EUROPE.				
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	France.	Spain and Portugal.	Other parts of Europe.
Flour	3,144,561	343,495	619,741	1,312	113,499
Wheat	2,076,652	468,911	749,848	-	170,421
Indian corn	7,347,566	7,998,939	7,244	4,892	22,903
Corn meal	436,070	287,015	4,401	-	805
Rye meal	4,030	2,362	2,006	-	3,593
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	\$565,799	\$86,580	\$50,697	-	\$752,081
Ship bread	34,736	11,903	3,771	-	1,728
	6,137	569	16	-	518
Articles.	To OTHER COUNTRIES.				
	Asia generally.	Africa generally.	South sea and Pacific Ocean.	Total quantity to all parts.	Total value of exports.
Flour	8,674	36,800	764	4,308,441	\$26,135,211
Wheat	1,263	-	-	4,399,461	6,049,260
Indian corn	123	24,374	-	16,396,050	14,395,212
Corn meal	77	436	-	948,760	4,311,333
Rye meal	-	4,030	-	46,092	95,478
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	\$1,596	\$3,368	131	-	1,600,962
Ship bread	3,168	5,819	1,753	100,980	556,266
	136	1,452	100	31,082	-
Total value	-	-	-	-	\$83,262,437

CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

All sorts of flour, whether made of wheat, rye, Indian corn, &c., exported from the U. States, must previously be submitted to the inspection of officers appointed for that purpose. The law further directs, that the barrels, in which it is shipped, shall be of certain dimensions, and that each barrel shall contain 106 lbs. of flour, and each half barrel 53 lbs. The inspector, having ascertained that the barrels correspond with the regulations as to size, weight, &c., decides as to the quality of the flour: the first or best sort being branded *Superfine*; the second, *Fine*; the third, *Fine Middlings*; and the fourth, or lowest quality, *Middlings*. Such barrels as are not merchantable are marked *Bad*; and their exportation, as well as the exportation of those deficient in weight, is prohibited. Rye flour is divided into 3 sorts, being either branded *Superfine Rye Flour*, or *Fine Rye Flour*. Maltso flour is branded *Indian Meal*; flour made from buck-wheat is branded *B. Meal*. Indian meal may be exported in hhd., of 800 lbs. Flour for home consumption is not subjected to inspection. The inspection must take place at the time and place of exportation, under a penalty of 5 dollars per barrel. Persons altering or counterfeiting marks or brands forfeit 100 dollars; and persons putting fresh flour into barrels already marked or branded, or offering adulterated wheaten flour for sale, forfeit in either case 5 dollars for each barrel. The fees of branding were reduced in 1833. They amount, in New York, to 3 cents for each hog-head, and 1 cent for each barrel and half barrel of full weight. A fine of 30 cents is levied on every barrel or half barrel below the standard weight, exclusive of 20 cents for every pound that is deficient. Every barrel of wheaten flour imported is deemed equivalent to 3½ gallons of wheat, and, under the old law, was charged with a corresponding duty.

An Account of the Exports of Wheat and Wheat-flour from the United States in each Year, from 1810 to 1845, both inclusive, with the Prices of Wheat-flour per Barrel in January, in New York, and the Annual Shipments of Flour for England.

Years.	Wheat.		Flour.		Price of Flour in N. York.		Flour to England.		Years.	Wheat.		Flour.		Price of Flour in N. York.		Flour to England.	
	Bush.	Barrels.	Bush.	Barrels.	Dols. per Brl.	Barrels.	Dols. per Brl.	Barrels.		Bush.	Barrels.	Dols. per Brl.	Barrels.	Dols. per Brl.	Barrels.		
1810	325,934	798,431	-	-	54,136	1828	8,906	860,819	0-25	25,458	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1811	316,333	1,445,019	-	-	38,183	1829	4,007	837,385	0-37	281,176	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1812	33,839	443,492	-	-	4,269	1830	4,269	1,227,614	0-19	381,182	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1813	288,535	1,260,910	-	-	-	1831	408,910	1,006,529	0-75	679,430	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1814	-	195,374	-	-	-	1832	88,304	861,919	0-27	95,528	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1815	17,854	868,739	-	-	104,885	1833	29,421	953,768	0-36	219,307	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1816	22,341	729,033	-	-	5,572	1834	36,918	835,352	0-50	19,687	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1817	95,407	1,470,198	-	-	705,003	1835	47,764	775,306	5-12	6,276	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1818	198,806	1,157,697	-	-	389,500	1836	3,062	205,400	7-53	181	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1819	82,063	750,860	-	-	51,847	1837	17,303	318,719	10-12	6,925	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1820	28,137	1,177,036	-	-	171,772	1838	5,821	445,181	0-75	600,128	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1821	35,281	1,056,119	-	-	94,541	1839	96,325	823,131	0-87	167,583	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1822	4,418	627,865	-	-	12,096	1840	1,730,860	1,825,182	0-87	620,128	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1823	3,272	745,702	6-92	-	4,952	1841	668,363	1,510,613	4-33	928,585	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1824	20,373	986,792	6-25	-	70,873	1842	-	1,283,602	0-87	208,272	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1825	17,998	819,906	5-25	-	37,372	1843	-	841,674	0-86	19,436	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1826	43,162	827,890	5-25	-	16,343	1844	-	1,438,574	0-82	187,493	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1827	22,182	868,496	6-12	-	53,129	1845	289,710	1,193,230	4-88	25,335	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Mr. Reuss (p. 120.) gives the following *pro forma* account of the expenses attending the importation of a cargo of 5,000 bushels of wheat from New York, supposing it to cost 1 dol. 12 cents a bushel.

Dollars.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
5,000 bushels, at 1 dol. 12 cents per bushel -	5,600 00	1,850 1 3
Winnowing, measuring, and deliv. very on board -	150 00	
Brokerage, ½ per cent. -	28 00	
Insurance, 6,000 dols. at ½ per cent. -	90 00	
	268 00	
Commission, 5 per cent. -	5,368 00	
	293 40	
	6,161 40	
Exchange, 110 per cent. -	£1,260 1 8	
Freight, 125 tons at 15s. per ton -	£ 3 19 0	
Primeage, 3 per cent. -	£ 4 13 0	
Entry, officer's fees, and city dues -	68 8 9	
Message from the ship at 2s. 6d. per last of 10 qrs. -	6 16 4	
	117 7 1	
Brought forward -	117 7 1	
Petty charges, at 1s. per last of 10 qrs. -	2 12 0	
Lighterage and portorage to granary 5s. per quarter. -	19 10 0	
Granary rent and fire insurance, say 4 weeks at 2s. per 100 qrs. per week -	2 2 0	
Turning, at 2s. per 100 quarters -	0 10 6	
Metage and portorage to the granary, at 4s. per 100 quarters -	11 6 0	
Do. do. from do., at 5s. per qr. -	11 16 0	
Postage and stamps -	0 6 0	
Factorage, 1s. per quarter -	6 0 0	
Commission, 2½ per cent. -	65 0 11	
Guarantee, 1 -	44 p. cent. 65 0 11	
Interest, -	34 4 2	
	1,504 5 10	
In London. 103 06 quarters, Winchester measure, equal to 100 quarters Imperial. 5,000 bushels Winchester measure, equal to 604 quarters Imperial measure, costing 49s. 3½d. per quarter in bond -	1,503 14 2	

The usual price of wheat in Canada, when there is a demand for the English market, is about 40s. a quarter; but taking it at 35s., if we add to this 15s. a quarter for the expenses of carriage and warehousing, it will make its price in Liverpool, when delivered to the consumer, 48s.; and being spring wheat, it is not so valuable, by about 6s. a quarter, as English wheat. We have already noticed the act of 1843 relative to the admission of Canadian wheat and flour. — (See *antè*, p. 418.)

We subjoin a statement, compiled by authority, from returns made by the British consuls in 1841, exhibiting the probable amount of corn which they supposed might be furnished by the principal continental ports, in the event of importation being always free in England under a moderate duty, and the probable average price of such corn free on board. There may be, and probably are, errors in this statement; but, on the whole, its general correctness may be depended on; and it corroborates the statements already laid before the reader.

	Quantity of Grain of each Kind that could be exported to England, from the Consular Districts, if the Trade in Corn in England were constantly open, at a moderate duty.				Average Prices, free on board, per Imperial Quarter.											
	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.		Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	
Petersburg	191,500	134,500	47,000	215,000	39 1				17 11							
Riga	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	49 7				25 4							
Liebau	120,000	300,000		60,000	43 7				21 10							
Odessa	150,000			Uncert.	36 5				25 9							
Stockholm	1,000	1,000	10,000	15,000	30 0 to 55 0				22 0 to 24 0							
Danzig	815,000	105,000	49,000	10,500	40 0 to 45 0				18 0 to 20 0							
Koenigsberg	65,000	100,000	30,000	40,000	40 0				24 0							
Siebin	850,000	40,000	30,000	20,000	40 0				24 0							
Mercu	5,964	45,750	13,465	30,024	33 0				27 0							
Elmhore	175,000		275,000	225,000	50 0 to 58 0				18 0 to 25 0							
Hamburg	538,000	97,000	125,700	125,700	85 0 to 48 0				23 0 to 30 0							
Rotterdam	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	55 0											
Antwerp	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	Uncert.	56 5				22 1							
Palermo	300,000				58 0				26 9							
Total	3,225,464	912,239	855,666	808,714												
General average					40s. 6d.				24s. 0d.					19s. 5d.		14s. 1d.

Inferences from the above Review of Prices.—We may, we think, satisfactorily conclude, from this pretty lengthened review of the state of the foreign corn trade, that in 1849, when the new system is carried into full effect by the abolition of all restrictions on importation, the price of foreign wheat of about the same quality as average English wheat, will in ordinary years be about 50s. a quarter. But supposing it were to fall as low as 48s. or 45s., it is easy to see that even the latter is a price at which agricultural improvements may be successfully carried on. The price of wheat in England, at an average of the ten years ending with 1820, was no less than 87s. 6d. a quarter; while its average price during the ten years, and the five years ending with 1845, has been respectively 57s. 11d. and 54s. 9d. a quarter; and yet, notwithstanding this tremendous fall of 32s. 9d. a quarter, a most extraordinary improvement has taken place in agriculture since 1820: this is evinced by the fact of rents having risen greatly in the interval, and by our now providing for an additional population of above seven millions with but a small increase of importation in unfavourable years, and in favourable years with little or no importation: And such having been the case, can any thing be more childish than to suppose that a fall of 4s. 9d. or even of 9s. 9d. (54s. 9d.—50s. and 54s. 9d.—45s.) a quarter in the average price of corn should have any disastrous, or indeed sensible, influence over agriculture? Improvements of all sorts have seldom been more vigorously prosecuted than in 1834, 1835, and 1836, and yet the average price of corn in those years did not exceed 44s. 8d.; that is, it did not amount to its probable future price with open ports, and no duty.

We feel pretty confident that these statements cannot be successfully controverted. A great deal of uncertainty must, no doubt, always attach to prospective estimates of prices; but in as far as a conclusion may be drawn beforehand on such a subject, the landlords and farmers may dismiss their fears and apprehensions of ruin from the repeal of the corn laws. They have triumphantly weathered far greater difficulties than there is any probability of its entailing upon them. Their prosperity does not depend on restrictive regulations, but is the effect of the fertility of the soil which belongs to them, of the absence of all oppressive feudal privileges, and of the number and wealth of the consumers of their produce. §

We admit, however, as already stated, that we should have been better pleased, supposing it had been practicable, that the question of the corn laws had been settled by opening the ports under a moderate fixed duty accompanied by an equal drawback: an arrangement of this sort, while it would have done no injury to any other class, would have effectually secured the agriculturists against the possibility of any injurious vicissitude. But as it is, there are plainly no good grounds for supposing that the ensuing abolition of the corn laws will seriously compromise their interests; or that agriculture will be sensibly affected by the change.

COTTON (Ger. *Baumwolle*; Du. *Katoen*. *Boomwool*; Da. *Bomuld*; Sw. *Bomull*; Fr. *Coton*; It. *Cotone*, *Bambaglia*; Sp. *Algodon*; Port. *Algodao*; Rus. *Chlchtschataya bumaja*; Pol. *Bawelna*; Lat. *Gossypium*, *Bombax*; Arab. *Kutun*; Sans. *Kapasa*; Hind. *Ruhi*; Malay, *Kapas*), a species of vegetable wool, the produce of the *Gossypium herbaceum*, or cotton shrub, of which there are many varieties. It is found growing naturally in all the tropical regions of Asia, Africa, and America, whence it has been transplanted,

• In the answers from Petersburg, Liebau, and Hamburg, the gross amount that could be exported to Foreign Countries seems to have been given, not the quantity which might be shipped to England.

† The return from Hamburg includes those from Lubeck, Bremen, Rostock, &c.

‡ This quantity could be exported in years of abundant harvest only.

§ For farther and full details with respect to the progress of agriculture since the peace, the rise of rent, and the influence of the depreciation of the currency on prices, see *Descriptive and Statistical Account of the British Empire*, 3rd ed. vol. i. pp. 550—557. and pp. 532—584.

and has become a most important object of civilisation, in the southern parts of the U. States, and to some extent also in Europe.

Cotton is distinguished in commerce by its colour, but more especially by the length, strength, and fineness of its fibre. White is usually considered as characteristic of secondary quality. Yellow, or a yellowish tinge, when not the effect of accidental wetting or inclement seasons, is considered as indicating greater fineness.

There are many varieties of raw cotton in the market, their names being principally derived from the places whence they are brought. They are usually classed under the denominations of *long and short stapled*. The best of the first is the *sea-island cotton*, or that brought from the shores of Georgia; but its qualities differ so much that the price of the finest specimens is often three times as great as that of the inferior. The superior samples of Brazil cotton are reckoned among the long-stapled. The cottons of the U. States, with the exception of sea-island, belong to the short-stapled variety, as do those of India.

The estimation in which the principal kinds of cotton wool are held may be learned from the following statement of their prices in Liverpool in 1845 and 1844. The inferiority of Surat cotton is sometimes ascribed to the defective mode in which it is prepared; but Mr. Horace H. Wilson doubts whether it can be grown in India of a better kind. The raw cotton of the Indian islands has hitherto been almost entirely consumed on the spot.

Average prices of Cotton at Liverpool, per lb., in 1845 and 1844.

	1845.			1844.				1845.			1844.		
	s	d.	@	s	d.	@		s	d.	@	s	d.	@
Orisons and Mobile ord.	3	4	2	3	4	2	See Tel. — H. and S. good	5	10	10	5	10	10
Middling	4	4	4	4	4	4	Ordinary	10	11	10	10	11	10
Fair	4	4	4	4	4	4	Middling	12	12	11	11	12	11
Good fair	5	5	5	5	5	5	Fair	15	14	14	14	15	14
Good	6	6	6	6	6	6	Good fair	14	15	15	15	14	15
Choice atm marks	9	7	7	6	7	7	Good and fine	15	24	11	11	24	11
Upland — ordinary	3	3	3	3	3	3	Surat — ordinary	2	2	2	2	2	2
Middling	3	4	4	3	4	4	Middling	3	3	3	3	3	3
Fair	4	4	4	4	4	4	Fair	3	3	3	3	3	3
Good fair	4	4	4	4	4	4	Good fair	3	3	3	3	3	3
Good	4	4	4	4	4	4	Good	3	3	3	3	3	3

The manufacture of cotton has been carried on in Hindostan from the remotest antiquity. Herodotus mentions (lib. iii. c. 106.) that in India there are wild trees that produce a sort of wool superior to that of sheep, and that the natives dress themselves in cloth made of it. — (See, to the same effect, *Arrian Indic.* c. 16. 582.) The manufacture obtained no footing worth mentioning in Europe till last century.

1. *Rise and Progress of the British Cotton Manufacture.* — The rapid growth and prodigious magnitude of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain are, beyond all question, the most extraordinary phenomena in the history of industry. Our command of the finest wool naturally attracted our attention to the woollen manufacture, and paved the way for that superiority in it which we long since attained: but when we undertook the cotton manufacture, we had comparatively few facilities for its prosecution, and had to struggle with the greatest difficulties. The raw material, was produced at an immense distance from our shores; and in Hindostan and China the inhabitants had arrived at such perfection in the arts of spinning and weaving, that the lightness and delicacy of their finest cloths emulated the web of the gossamer, and seemed to set competition at defiance. Such, however, has been the influence of the stupendous discoveries and inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, and others, that we have overcome all these difficulties — that neither the extreme cheapness of labour in Hindostan, nor the excellence to which the natives had attained, has enabled them to withstand the competition of those who buy their cotton; and who, after carrying it 5,000 miles to be manufactured, carry back the goods to them. This is the greatest triumph of mechanical genius: and what perhaps is most extraordinary, our superiority is not the late result of a long series of successive discoveries and inventions: on the contrary, it has been accomplished in a very few years. Little more than half a century has elapsed since the British cotton manufacture was in its infancy; and it now forms the principal business carried on in the country, — affording an advantageous field for the accumulation and employment of millions upon millions of capital, and of thousands upon thousands of workmen! The skill and genius by which these astonishing results have been achieved, have been one of the main sources of our power: they have contributed in no common degree to raise the British nation to the high and conspicuous place she now occupies. Nor is it too much to say that it was the wealth and energy derived from the cotton manufacture that bore us triumphantly through the late dreadful contest, at the same time that it gives us strength to sustain burdens that would have crushed our fathers, and could not be supported by any other people.

The precise period when the manufacture was introduced into England is not known; but it is most probable that it was some time in the early part of the 17th century. The

first authentic mention of it is made by Lewis Roberts, in his *Treasure of Traffie*, published in 1641, where it is stated, "The town of Manchester, in Lancashire, must be also herein remembered, and worthily for their encouragement commended, who buy the yarne of the Irish in great quantity, and weaving it, returne the same again into Ireland to sell. Neither doth their industry rest here; for they buy cotton wool in London that comes first from Cyprus and Smyrna, and at home worke the same, and perfect it into fustians, vermillions, dimities, and other such stufes, and then return it to London, where the same is vented and sold, and not seldom sent into foreign parts, who have means, at far easier termes, to provide themselves of the said first materials."—(Orig. ed. p. 32.) It is true, indeed, that mention is frequently made by previous writers, and in acts of the legislature passed at a much earlier period, of "Manchester cottons," "cotton velvets," "fustians," &c.; but it is certain that these articles were *wholly composed of wool*, and had most probably been denominated cottons from their having been prepared in imitation of some of the cotton fabrics imported from India and Italy.

From the first introduction of the cotton manufacture into Great Britain down to the comparatively late period of 1773, the warp or transverse threads of the web, only, were of cotton; the warp, or longitudinal threads, consisting wholly of linen yarn, principally imported from Germany and Ireland. In the first stage of the manufacture the weavers, dispersed in cottages throughout the country, furnished themselves as well as they could with the warp and weft for their webs, and carried them to market when they were finished: but about 1760 a new system was introduced. The Manchester merchants began about that time to send agents into the country, who employed weavers, whom they supplied with foreign or Irish linen yarn for warp, and with raw cotton, which being carded and spun, by means of a common spindle or distaff, in the weaver's own family, was then used for weft. A system of domestic manufacture was thus established; the junior branches of the family being employed in the carding and spinning of the cotton, while its head was employed in weaving the linen and cotton yarn into cloth. This system, by relieving the weaver from the necessity of providing himself with linen yarn for warp and raw cotton for weft, and of seeking customers for his cloth when finished, and enabling him to prosecute his employment with greater regularity, was an obvious improvement on the system that had been previously followed; but it is at the same time clear that the impossibility of making any considerable division among the different branches of a manufacture so conducted, or of prosecuting them on a large scale, added to the interruption given to the proper business of the weavers, by the necessity of attending to the cultivation of the patches of ground which they generally occupied, opposed invincible obstacles to its progress, so long as it was conducted in this mode.

It appears from the Custom-house returns, that the total quantity of cotton wool annually imported into Great Britain, at an average of the *five* years ending with 1705 amounted to only 1,170,881 lbs. The accounts of the imports of cotton from 1703 to 1770 have been but imperfectly preserved; but until the last half dozen years of that period the manufacture increased very slowly, and was of very trifling amount. Dr. Percival, of Manchester, who had the best means of being accurately informed on the subject, states that the entire value of the cotton goods manufactured in Great Britain, at the accession of George III. in 1760, was estimated to amount to only 200,000*l.* a year, and the number of persons employed was quite inconsiderable; but in 1767, a most ingenious person, James Hargreaves, a carpenter of Blackburn in Lancashire, invented the *spinning jenny*. At first this admirable machine enabled *eight* threads to be spun with the same facility as one; and it was subsequently brought to such perfection, that a little girl was able to work no fewer than from *eighty to one hundred and twenty* spindles.

The jenny was applicable only to the spinning of cotton for weft, being unable to give to the yarn that degree of firmness and hardness which is required to the longitudinal threads or warp: but this deficiency was soon after supplied by the introduction of the *spinning-frame*,—that wonderful piece of machinery which spins a vast number of threads of any degree of fineness and hardness, leaving to man merely to feed the machine with cotton, and to join the threads when they happen to break. It is not difficult to understand the principle on which this machine is constructed, and the mode of its operation. It consists of two pairs of rollers, turned by means of machinery. The lower roller of each pair is furrowed or fluted longitudinally, and the upper one is covered with leather, to make them take a hold of the cotton. If there were only one pair of rollers, it is clear that a carding of cotton passed between them would be drawn forward by the revolution of the rollers, but it would merely undergo a certain degree of compression from their action. No sooner, however, has the carding, or *roving* as it

* In an act of 5 & 6 Edw. 6. (1552), entitled, for the true making of woollen cloth, it is ordered, "That all cottons called Manchester, Lancashire, and Cheshire cottons, full wrought for sale, shall be in length," &c. This proves incontestably, that what were then called cottons were made wholly of wool.

is technically termed, begun to pass through the first pair of rollers, than it is received by the second pair which are made to revolve with (as the case may be) 3, 4, or 5 times the velocity of the first pair. By this admirable contrivance, the roving is drawn out into a thread of the desired degree of tenuity; a twist being given to it by the adaptation of the spindle and fly of the common flax-wheel to the machinery.

Such is the principle on which Sir Richard Arkwright constructed his famous spinning frame. It is obvious that it is radically and completely different from the previous methods of spinning, either by the common hand-wheel or distaff, or by the jenny, which is only a modification of the common wheel. Spinning by rollers was an entirely original idea; and it is difficult which to admire most—the profound and fortunate sagacity which led to so great a discovery, or the consummate skill and address by which it was so speedily perfected, and reduced to practice.*

Since the dissolution of Sir Richard Arkwright's patent, in 1785, the progress of discovery and improvement in every department of the manufacture has been most rapid. The *mule-jenny*—so called from its being a compound of the jenny and the spinning frame—invented by Mr. Crompton, and the *power-loom*, invented by the Rev. Mr. Cartwright, are machines that have had the most powerful influence over the manufacture; and in consequence of their introduction, and of innumerable other inventions and improvements, the prices of cotton cloth and yarn have gone on progressively diminishing. But as the demand for cottons has been, owing to their extraordinary cheapness, extended in a still greater degree, the value of the goods produced, and the number of persons employed in the manufacture, are now decidedly greater than at any previous period.

2. *Imports of Cotton Wool. Countries whence it is imported. Prices, Duties, &c.* The following Tables have been partly taken from official documents, and partly from the accounts of merchants of great experience. We believe they may be relied on as approaching as near to accuracy as it is possible to attain to in such matters.

Cotton Wool imported, exported, and entered for Consumption, from 1820 to 1841.

Years.	Quantity imported.	Quantity exported.	Quantity entered for Consumption.	Years.	Quantity imported.	Quantity exported.	Quantity entered for Consumption.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
1820	151,679,655	6,021,038	155,499,633	1831	286,674,853	22,308,558	273,249,655
1821	159,536,890	14,989,497	137,401,549	1832	296,839,292	18,027,940	339,421,483
1822	145,957,938	16,667,778	149,098,777	1833	305,665,837	17,953,887	329,292,477
1823	191,402,503	9,318,402	186,311,070	1834	306,875,425	34,461,963	309,355,657
1824	149,590,122	15,899,505	141,038,745	1835	353,704,963	32,770,754	326,407,699
1825	228,003,031	18,004,353	209,248,865	1836	406,893,057	31,750,763	365,094,339
1826	177,607,401	24,474,920	164,886,011	1837	407,386,783	59,722,031	366,445,035
1827	272,446,909	18,154,170	249,904,598	1838	507,850,577	30,844,469	455,056,755
1828	237,700,819	17,386,774	229,217,744	1839	599,306,539	28,738,838	599,000,277
1829	222,707,411	20,289,115	204,097,037	1840	599,488,010	38,673,229	598,142,745
1830	265,961,452	8,554,978	269,016,540	1841	487,999,559	-	477,995,631

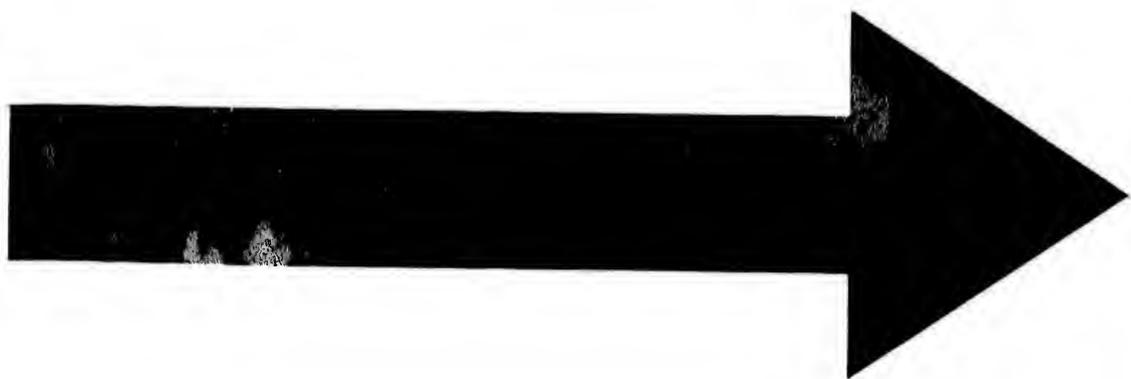
Account of the Imports and Exports of Cotton Wool into and from Great Britain, from 1697 to 1819.

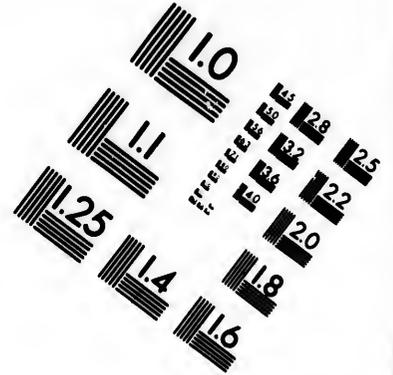
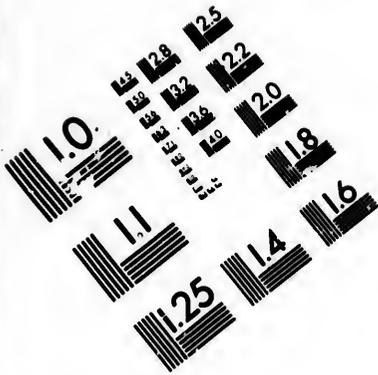
Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1697	1,976,359	—	1785	18,400,384	407,496	1803	53,819,284	1,561,053
1701	1,985,868	—	1786	19,475,020	325,153	1804	61,867,389	605,171
1700 to 1703 (Average).	1,170,881	—	1787	23,250,868	1,073,581	1805	29,698,406	801,243
1710	715,068	—	1788	20,467,436	853,146	1806	68,175,283	91,867
1720	1,972,005	—	1789	23,576,023	497,937	1807	74,093,306	2,176,285
1730	1,545,472	—	1790	31,447,808	846,154	1808	45,605,992	1,484,607
1741	1,645,031	—	1791	24,706,675	363,412	1809	92,811,282	4,151,105
1751	2,076,610	—	1792	24,307,197	1,485,465	1810	139,448,935	8,787,109
1764	3,876,392	—	1793	19,000,989	1,171,566	1811	91,578,535	1,466,967
1771 to 1775 (Average).	4,764,589	—	1794	24,238,367	1,349,910	1812	65,024,936	1,444,812
1776 to 1785 (Average).	6,746,613	—	1795	26,401,340	1,195,737	1813	60,866,000	6,895,437
1781	5,194,778	96,788	1796	28,196,557	691,802	1814	60,060,359	8,280,399
1782	11,826,039	421,999	1797	23,354,371	609,056	1815	99,306,543	7,104,034
1783	9,735,668	177,926	1798	31,890,641	601,139	1816	85,920,058	8,155,448
1784	11,402,083	201,885	1799	45,379,278	846,671	1817	124,918,968	15,159,433
1785	—	—	1800	36,010,732	4,116,610	1818	177,292,158	15,159,433
1786	—	—	1801	56,004,205	1,960,972	1819	149,759,820	16,922,969
1787	—	—	1802	60,235,020	3,751,901			

In 1786, the supplies of cotton wool were derived from the following sources:—

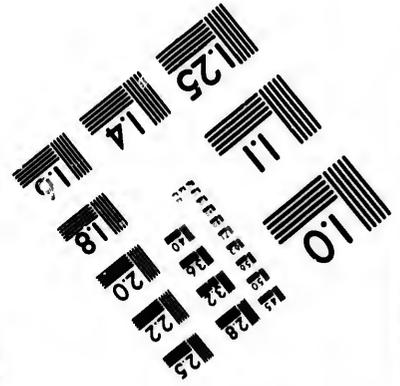
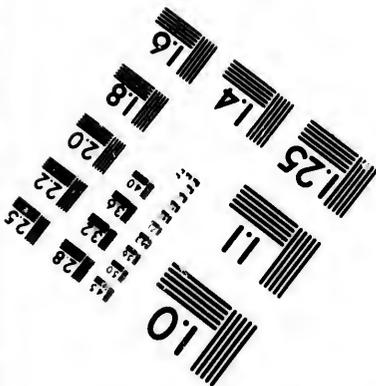
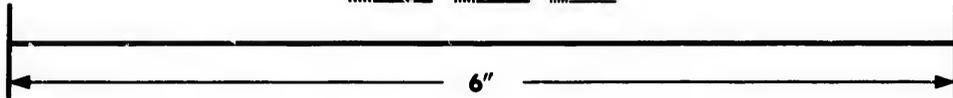
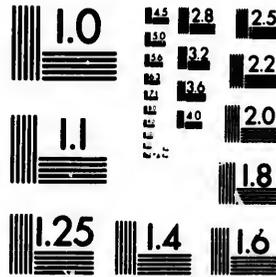
	Lbs.		Lbs.
From the British West Indies	5,800,000	From the Portuguese colonies	2,000,000
French and Spanish colonies	5,800,000	Smyrna and Turkey	6,000,000
Dutch colonies	1,600,000		Lbs. 19,500,000

* There is, in the new edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, a pretty full account of the life of Sir Richard Arkwright. The question as to his merit as an original discoverer is still undecided. Recently, however, it has been ascertained that a patent for spinning by rollers, revolving with different degrees of velocity, was taken out by Messrs Wyatt and Paul, so early as 1768. (See the *History of the Cotton Manufacture*, by Edward Baines, Jun., Esq.) But it does not appear that the Inventors had been able to give effect to their happy idea, and all traces of the invention seem to have been lost. The statements in the case printed by Sir Richard Arkwright and his partners in 1782 show that he was aware of the attempts made in the reign of George II. to spin by machinery; but there is no evidence to prove that he was acquainted with the principle on which these attempts had been made, or that he had seen the patent referred to. Undoubtedly, however, the probability seems to be that he had. But, admitting this to be the case, it detracts but little from the substantial merits of Sir Richard Arkwright. If the idea of spinning by rollers did not spring up spontaneously in his mind, he was, at all events, the first who made it available in practice, and showed how it might be rendered a most prolific source of wealth.



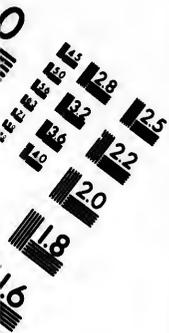


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Previously to 1790, North America did not supply us with a single pound weight of raw cotton. A little had, indeed, been raised in some of the Southern States, for domestic use, before the revolutionary war, but the quantity was quite inconsiderable. In 1791, it began, for the first time, to be exported; the trifling quantity of 189,316 lbs. having been shipped in the course of that year, and 138,328 lbs. in 1792. Such was the late and feeble beginning of the American cotton trade. There is nothing in the history of industry to compare with its subsequent increase, unless it be the growth of the manufacture in this country.

American cotton, which is of two kinds, is generally known by the names of *sea-island* and *upland*. The first, which is the finest cotton imported into Britain, grows on the small sandy islands and along the low sandy shores of Carolina and Virginia. It is long in the staple, of an even silky texture, and is easily separated from the seed. Unluckily, however, it can be raised only in certain situations; so that its quantity is limited, and has not, in fact, been increased since 1805. The upland, of which the supply may be considered as unlimited, though of varying qualities, is all short stapled; and its separation from the seed is so very difficult, that if it be done by the hand, the cotton is hardly worth the labour. This, however, was the only way in which it could be made available for home use, or exportation, previously to 1793; and had any one then ventured to predict that 10,000,000 lbs. of upland cotton would ever be exported, he would have been looked upon as a visionary dreamer. But the genius of Mr. Eli Whitney did for the planters of the Southern States what the genius of Arkwright and Watt did for the manufacturers of England. He invented a machine by which the wool of the upland cotton is separated from the seed with the greatest facility and expedition, and by so doing laid the foundations of a new and most important branch of industry, and doubled the wealth and means of employment of his countrymen! — (*Pitkin's Statistics of the United States*, p. 109. ed. 1835.) Whitney's invention came into operation in 1793, and in 1794, 1,601,760 lbs., and in 1795, 5,276,300 lbs. of cotton were exported. And so astonishing has been the growth of cotton in the interval, that the exports from the United States in 1844-5 amounted to the prodigious quantity of 872,905,996 lbs. of which 863,516,371 lbs. were upland!

Account of the Quantities of Cotton Wool imported into the United Kingdom during the following Years ending with 1846, specifying the Quantities brought from different Countries, the Total Quantities exported, and the Quantities entered for Consumption. — (Compiled from *Parli. Papers*.)

Countries.	1835.	1840.	1841.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.
	Lbs.						
Italy and the Italian Islands	8,704,968	8,009,978	8,811,649	1,066,484	6,823,040	5,992,136	14,496
Turkey	557,949	978	123,354	667,072	254,484	128,128	34,190
Spain	5,181,017	2,667,199	8,071,918	7,903,036	5,388,400	11,294,544	14,828,711
E. I. Co.'s territories and Ceylon	41,429,011	77,011,939	97,384,133	65,709,728	68,639,924	58,437,456	84,518,143
British West Indies	1,813,270	886,187	538,157	1,360,448	1,707,812	1,894,400	1,301,357
United States of America	294,435,819	487,836,504	538,240,964	873,986,438	290,472,888	696,650,418	401,043,303
Colombia	1,904,369	1,818,940	1,408,560	1,330,336	1,929,648	226,898	398,179
Brazil	83,988,409	14,779,171	16,671,248	18,673,104	21,084,784	20,137,628	14,746,321
All other countries	688,158	2,481,203	2,833,911	624,486	681,040	561,284	744,284
Total	363,708,963	992,488,010	487,929,355	873,193,136	846,111,318	781,980,000	467,856,274
Quantities re-exported	39,779,734	38,873,229		39,620,000	47,222,560	48,918,272	65,330,704
Quantities entered for home consumption	323,927,229	953,614,781	487,929,355	833,573,136	808,888,758	733,061,728	402,525,570

Account showing the Exports of Cotton Wool from the U. States during the Official Year ended 30th June, 1845, specifying the Countries to which it was exported, and the Quantity and Value of the Exports to each. (*Papers printed by Order of Congress*, 3 Dec. 1845, p. 20.)

Countries.	Quantities.			Value.	Countries.	Quantities.			
	Sea Isl.		Other Sorts.			Sea Isl.		Other Sorts.	Value.
	Lbs.	Lbs.				Lbs.	Lbs.		
Russia	-	7,489,348	504,476	504,476	Spain on the Medit.	-	-	236,222	24,017
Prussia	-	98,335	8,885	8,885	Cuba	-	-	30,072,274	1,969,888
Sweden and Norway	-	8,265,980	155,539	155,539	Other Spanish West In.	-	-	879,436	58,592
Denmark	-	113,608	2,324	2,324	Italy	-	-	3,969,438	319,600
Hanse Towns	-	17,804,091	1,015,603	1,015,603	Sardinia	-	-	8,897,027	141,614
Holland	-	32,649,716	736,118	736,118	Trieste and other Aus-	-	-	20,485,145	1,123,204
Belgium	-	13,297,246	800,921	800,921	trian Ports	-	-	1,661,744	118,418
England	-	6,658,191	507,880,323	33,223,277	Chili	-	-	606,720	43,840
Scotland	-	537,446	39,183,518	9,385,587	China	-	-	4,437,658	190,748
Ireland	-	-	1,087,814	63,255	All other countries	-	-	914,508	16,780
Gibraltar	-	-	1,116,760	86,313	Total	-	-	9,388,520	863,516,371
Australia	-	-	87,250	19,800					
France on the Atlantic	1,7	6,368	136,828,150	8,463,044					
France on the Mediter-	-	-	7,701,466	443,098					
anean	-	-							

Though not official, the following statements give, it is believed, a correct view of the produce of the cotton crops in America available for shipment to foreign countries, from 1824-5 to 1847-8.

Account of the Produce of the Cotton Crops of the United States from 1834-35 down to 1847-48, both inclusive.

Years.	Total Crop.	Years.	Total Crop.	Years.	Total Crop.
	bales 560,000		bales 1,070,438		bales 1,654,945
1834-35	710,000	1839-40	1,305,394	1844-45	1,689,374
1835-36	937,000	1840-41	1,254,398	1845-46	2,378,575
1836-37	1,000,000	1841-42	1,360,713	1846-47	2,030,409
1837-38	719,900	1842-43	1,819,930	1847-48	2,394,908
1838-39	857,744	1843-44	1,901,487		
1839-40	976,848	1844-45	1,560,239		
1840-41	1,058,848	1845-46	967,477		
1841-42	967,477	1846-47			
1842-43		1847-48			

It was for many years the practice to levy a duty on cotton wool, when imported. The policy of such a duty is, however, very questionable; and it is indispensable that, if imposed at all, it should be kept at a low rate. For a number of years previously to 1831, it amounted (on foreign cotton) to 6 cent. *ad valorem*; but, in order to make up, in part at least, for the loss of revenue caused by the repeal of the duty on printed cottons (see Calico), it was raised in that year to 5s. 10d. a cwt. Such a duty would, however, have materially affected the imports of the inferior species of cotton and the price of coarse goods; and being, in consequence, justly objected to, it was reduced in 1833 to 2s. 11d. a cwt. But the imposition of any duty on the raw material of so important a manufacture being deemed objectionable, it was finally abolished in 1845. It had previously produced between 600,000*l.* and 700,000*l.* a-year.

The subjoined table, taken from the carefully compiled and comprehensive annual statement of Messrs. George Holt and Co., eminent cotton brokers of Liverpool, dated 31st of December, 1848, shows in a very striking manner the progress of the manufacture in this country, and the fall in the price of cotton wool. The decline of the manufacture in 1847 was wholly owing to the decrease in the supplies of raw cotton from the U. States in 1846-47, and the consequent rise in its price.

Statement of the Imports into, the Exports from, and of the Consumption, Price, &c. of Cotton Wool in, Great Britain, in different Years, from 1816 to 1848, both inclusive.

Average Weekly Consumption.	1816.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.
Upland -	-	2,918	5,713	5,428	2,896	5,748	5,546	5,118	5,319	
Orleans and Alabama	990	1,192	5,445	4,756	7,223	18,54	17,169	18,714	11,282	15,929
Sea Island	-	409	560	460	334	592	392	265	283	427
Total United States	4,038	4,519	6,313	10,688	11,073	19,992	24,844	24,623	16,883	22,474
Brazil -	1,280	2,408	2,592	3,802	5,219	1,444	512	3,048	1,346	2,019
Egypt -	-	-	831	508	448	840	1,062	1,338	694	785
East India	307	1,518	1,098	910	1,069	927	1,988	3,189	3,194	2,972
Demerara, West India, &c.	656	534	227	284	421	960	331	300	136	150
Total	6,488	8,979	11,451	19,002	19,218	34,663	30,277	30,498	22,285	28,148
Packages annually consumed	337,400	466,900	599,600	851,100	954,100	1,251,300	1,574,400	1,565,900	1,157,800	1,462,600
Average weight of packages consumed, in lbs.	263	258	278	298	335	567	385	387	381	394
Weekly consumption in packages, average 701 lbs.	5,802	8,064	10,360	14,123	15,873	22,418	29,586	29,956	21,530	28,148
Average weight of packages imported, in lbs.	558	249	270	300	331	363	386	386	377	385
Packages exported -	29,500	23,400	79,800	33,400	109,800	119,700	122,800	194,200	221,800	189,800
Lbs. weight annually imported in millions and tenths	93.9	143.0	223.4	281.2	561.7	283.4	716.3	480.6	464.9	686.4
Lbs. weight consumed, ditto	89.7	120.5	169.6	247.6	318.1	458.9	606.6	614.3	441.4	576.6
Lbs. weight in ports, 31st Dec., ditto	19.9	110.5	107.0	91.4	73.3	162.9	400.6	801.3	161.4	182.6
Lbs. weight in Great Britain, ditto	-	127.0	115.3	118.8	89.6	307.0	453.5	245.4	184.7	220.1
Average price per lb. of uplands in Liverpool	12d.	11d.	11.6d.	8.9d.	10d.	6d.	4.75d.	4.75d.	6.375d.	4d.
Ditto ditto, Pernambuco	22d.	18d.	18.1d.	14d.	14.1d.	8d.	7.375d.	7.375d.	7.9375d.	6d.
Ditto ditto, Suratta	15d.	8d.	8.9d.	6d.	7d.	4.625d.	3d.	3.375d.	4.900d.	3d.

N. B.—Messrs. Holt and Co. estimate the average weight of the packages imported in 1846 at 370 lbs. per bag Upland; 443 lbs. Orleans and Alabama; 334 lbs. Sea-Island; 180 lbs. Brazil; 210 lbs. Egyptian; 266 lbs. East Indian; and 210 lbs. West Indian.

3. Increase in the Proportion of Coarse to Fine Goods.—During the last twenty years the cotton manufacture has undergone a singular and not easily explained change in respect of the average fineness of its products. As successive improvements have been made in the construction and management of machinery, and in the experience and manual skill of the work-people, the proportion of fine to coarse yarns and fabrics might have been expected to make a corresponding increase, whereas it has, on the contrary, been very greatly diminished. During the last twenty-five years the consumption of cotton has increased *four-fold*; but the quantity of fine yarn produced (i. e., of yarn above sixty hanks to the pound), instead of keeping pace with the increased consumption of cotton, has really undergone a positive and by no means inconsiderable reduction. For a number of years past no new establishments for the production of fine yarns have been formed; but in Manchester alone about twenty mills, formerly employed chiefly or entirely in fine spinning, have been given up, or devoted to the production of coarse yarns. To some extent, no doubt, the diminution of produce arising from this cause has been counterbalanced by an increase in the speed of the machinery still at work; but

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Lbs. 14,496
34,190
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1,801,857
401,949,393
395,179
14,745,311
744,534
467,856,274
55,830,704

Year ended
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Value.
24,017
1,969,986
58,992
22,118
317,600
141,614
1,155,304
118,418
48,840
130,736
16,780
51,739,648

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-8.

after making all reasonable allowances on that score, there can be no doubt that the total produce of fine yarn has materially decreased. This conclusion is strengthened by the falling off which has taken place in the imports of Sea Island cotton, which is used almost exclusively in the production of fine yarn.

This striking change in the average fineness of cotton fabrics cannot be ascribed to foreign competition, for fine spinning is precisely that branch of the trade in which English cotton-spinners most excel their rivals abroad; and the tariffs of most foreign countries are framed in the view of excluding coarse rather than fine fabrics. It has been sometimes attributed to one of those capricious changes of taste and fashion which frequently operate disadvantageously on particular manufacturing pursuits; but it has been too long in operation, and has proceeded too gradually and uniformly, to be so accounted for: and it is abundantly certain that powerful natural causes must be in operation, otherwise so extensive an alteration could not have been brought about in the average fineness of the yarn produced. These causes are by no means obvious; but we incline to think that the reduction which has taken place in the price of silk, and still more the prodigious improvements which have been made in various descriptions of worsted fabrics, have had no inconsiderable influence in lessening the demand for fine cottons. The main cause, however, will probably be found in the continued reduction which has taken place in the price of raw cotton, and the consequent greater relative cheapness of stout and serviceable fabrics. It is found that an advance of a penny per pound in the price of the material speedily and invariably causes an increase of two or three hanks in the average produce and fineness of the yarn per pound. And it is not, therefore, surprising that the great decline which has taken place in the price of the good and serviceable raw cottons of the United States and Brazil should have occasioned a corresponding increase of demand for heavier fabrics, and a corresponding diminution in the average fineness of the yarn.

4. *Value of the British Cotton Manufacture in 1846. Amount of Capital, and Number of Persons employed in it.* — It would be very desirable to be able to form a tolerably accurate estimate of the present value of the cotton manufacture, and of the number of persons employed in its different departments; but the data on which such estimates are founded being necessarily very loose, it is impossible to arrive at any thing like precision. Perhaps, however, the following calculations may not be very wide of the mark.

In 1817, Mr. Kennedy, a well-informed manufacturer, in a paper published in the *Manchester Transactions*, estimated the number of persons employed in the spinning of cotton in Great Britain at 110,763; the aid they derived from steam engines as equal to the power of 20,768 horses; and the number of spindles in motion at 6,645,833. Mr. Kennedy further estimated the number of hanks of yarn annually produced at 3,987,500,000; and the quantity of coal consumed in their production at 500,479 tons. We subjoin Mr. Kennedy's statement for the year 1817: —

Raw cotton converted into yarn in the U. Kingdom	110,000,000 lbs.	
Loss in spinning estimated at 1½ os. per lb.	10,313,500	
Quantity of yarn produced		99,687,500 lbs.
Number of hanks, taking the average at 40 per lb.		3,987,500,000
Number of spindles employed, each spindle being supposed to produce 2 hanks per day, at 300 working days in the year		6,645,833
Number of persons employed in spinning, supposing each to produce 180 hanks per day		110,763
Horse power employed, equal in number to		20,768
Four ounces and a half of coal estimated to produce one hank of No. 40; and 150 lbs. of coal per day equal to one horse power.		

But the cotton manufacture has increased immensely since 1817. Mr. Huskisson stated in his place in the House of Commons, in March, 1824, that the total value of the cotton goods and yarn then annually manufactured in Great Britain amounted to 33½ millions sterling! But there can be no manner of doubt that this estimate was excessively overrated; and we do not think we should be warranted in estimating the whole annual value of the products in question in 1845 and 1846 at more than 36 millions sterling. If, indeed, we took the increase in the imports of the raw material as any test of the increase in the value of the manufacture, we should estimate it a great deal higher. But it will be afterwards seen that the improvements that have been made in the different processes, and the fall in the price of raw cotton, have had so powerful an influence in reducing the price of the goods brought to market, that, notwithstanding the increase of their quantity, their total value must have remained, for some time past, nearly constant.

The average annual quantity of cotton wool imported, after deducting the exports, may be taken at about 550,000,000 lbs. weight. It is supposed, that of this quantity about 50,000,000 lbs. are used in a raw or half manufactured state, leaving a balance of 500,000,000 lbs. for the purposes of manufacturing, the cost of which may be taken, at an average, at 5d. per lb. Deducting, therefore, from the total value of the manufactured goods, or 36,000,000l., the value of the raw material, amounting to about 10,000,000l. (10,413,000l. at 5d. per lb.), there remains 26,000,000l.; which, of course, forms the fund whence the wages of the persons employed in the various departments of the

manufacture, the profits of the capitalists, the sums required to repair the wear and tear of buildings, machinery, &c., the expense of coals, flour for dressing, &c., must all be derived. If, then, we had any means of ascertaining how this fund is distributed, we should be able, by taking the average of wages and profits, to form a pretty accurate estimate of the number of labourers, and the quantity of capital employed. But here, unfortunately, we have only probabilities and analogies to guide us. It may, however, be confidently assumed, in the first place, that in consequence of the extensive employment of highly valuable machinery in all the departments of the cotton manufacture, the proportion which the profits of capital, and the sum to be set aside to replace its wear and tear, bears to the whole value of the manufacture, must be much larger than in almost any other department of industry. We have heard this proportion variously estimated, at from a third to two thirds of the total value of the manufactured goods, exclusive of the raw material; and as the weight of authority seems to be pretty much divided on the subject, we shall take an intermediate proportion. Assuming, therefore, that the profits of the capital employed in the cotton manufacture, the wages of superintendence, &c., the sum required to replace the wear and tear of machinery, buildings, &c., and to furnish flour, coals, &c., amount together to half the value of the manufactured goods, exclusive of the raw material, or to 13,000,000*l.*, a sum of 13,000,000*l.* will remain as the wages of the spinners, weavers, bleachers, &c. engaged in the manufacture; and taking, inasmuch as a large proportion of women, and children under 16 years of age, are employed, the average rate of wages at only 2*l.* a year, we shall have (dividing 13,000,000 by 24) nearly 542,000 as the total number of persons directly employed in the different departments of the manufacture.

We should mistake, however, if we supposed that this number, great as it certainly is, comprised the whole number of persons to whom the cotton manufacture furnishes subsistence, exclusive of the capitalists. Of the sum of 13,000,000*l.* set apart as the profit of the capitalists, and the sum required to furnish coal, and to defray the wear and tear of machinery, &c., a large proportion must annually be laid out in paying the wages of engineers, machine-makers, iron-founders, smiths, joiners, masons, bricklayers, &c. It is not easy to say what this proportion may amount to; but taking it at 4,000,000*l.*, and supposing the rate of wages of each individual to average 50*l.* a year, the total number employed in the various capacities alluded to will be (4,000,000 divided by 50) 80,000; and a sum of 9,000,000*l.* will remain to cover the profits of the capital employed in the various branches of the manufacture, to repair the different parts of the machinery and buildings as they wear out, and to buy coal, flour*, &c. The account will, therefore, stand as under:—

Total value of every description of cotton goods annually manufactured in Great Britain	-	-	36,000,000
Raw material, 500,000,000 lbs. at 5 <i>d.</i> per lb.	-	-	210,000,000
Wages of 645,000 weavers, spinners, bleachers, &c. at 2 <i>d.</i> a year each	-	-	13,000,000
Wages of 80,000 engineers, machine-makers, smiths, masons, joiners, &c. at 50 <i>l.</i> a year each	-	-	4,000,000
Profits of the manufacturers, wages of superintendence, sums to purchase the materials of machinery, coals, &c.	-	-	9,000,000
			<hr/>
			35,000,000
The capital employed may be estimated as follows:—			
Capital employed in the purchase of the raw material	-	-	4,000,000
Capital employed in payment of wages	-	-	8,000,000
Capital vested in spinning-mills, power and hand-looms, workshops, warehouses, stocks on hand, &c.	-	-	35,000,000
			<hr/>
			47,000,000

Now, this sum of 47,000,000*l.*, supposing the interest of capital, inclusive of the wages of superintendence &c., to amount to 10 per cent., will yield a sum of 4,700,000*l.*; which being deducted from the 9,000,000*l.* profits, &c., leaves 4,300,000*l.*, to defray the waste of capital, the flour required for dressing, the coals necessary in the employment of the steam engines, to effect insurances, and to meet all other outgoings.

The aggregate amount of wages, according to the above estimate, is 17,000,000*l.*; but there are not many departments of the business in which wages have to be advanced more than 6 months before the article is sold. We, therefore, incline to think that 8,000,000*l.* is a sufficient (perhaps too great) allowance for the capital employed in the payment of wages.

It may be said by some that this estimate is under, and by others that it is over-rated; but we believe it will be found to be nearly correct, though, if any thing, it may, perhaps, be a little in excess. Misled by Mr. Huskisson's authority, we estimated, in the former edition of this work, the value of the cotton stuffs and yarn produced in the United Kingdom in 1834, at 34,000,000*l.*; but further inquiry has convinced us that this estimate was far beyond the mark; and it is to be borne in mind, that though the consumption of raw cotton has vastly increased since 1834, there has been in the interval a very considerable fall in its price, and in the prices of the manu-

* This is a much more important item than might be at first supposed. Flour is indispensable in the dressing of webs; and we are well assured that its consumption in this way is not less than 300,000 barrels a year!

factured articles. The declared value of the exports of cotton goods and yarn, in 1845, amounted to 26,119,931; and estimating the value of those consumed at home at two fifths the value of those exported, we shall have 36,567,000, for the total value of the manufacture. Perhaps it may be thought that in this estimate we underrate the home consumption of cottons; but, if any thing, we have, perhaps, rather inclined to the other extreme. In Burns' *Glance*, a publication of authority, exhibiting the state of the cotton trade in 1845, the total weight of cotton spun in England (after deducting for loss of spinning) is estimated at 467,029,465 lbs., of which the exports in wove fabrics and yarn amounted to no less than 368,520,560 lbs., leaving (including the quantity sent to Scotland) only 98,508,905 lbs. for the home consumption.—(See *post*.) Hence, if we took this account for a standard, the value of the goods retained at home would be very decidedly under two-fifths of the value of those exported. But we doubt whether this would be a fair criterion, both because it is questionable whether the weight of the yarn left for home consumption be not underrated in the publication referred to, and because the great bulk of the cotton goods retained at home are of a superior fabric, and more costly than those sent abroad. On the whole, therefore, we are disposed to believe that in estimating the present value of the products of the British cotton manufacture at 36,000,000 a year, we shall not be very wide of the mark; and moderate as this estimate may appear, as compared with others put forth on the same subject*, it strikingly evinces the great value and importance of the manufacture.

Allowance being made for old and infirm persons, children, &c., dependent on those actually employed in the various departments of the cotton manufacture, and in the construction, repair, &c. of machinery and buildings required to carry it on, it must furnish, on the above hypothesis, subsistence for from 1,000,000 to 1,200,000 persons! And for this new and most prolific source of wealth we are indebted partly and principally, as already shown, to the extraordinary genius and talent of a few individuals; but, in a great degree, also, to that security of property and freedom of industry which give confidence and energy to all who embark in industrious undertakings, and to that universal diffusion of intelligence which enables those who carry on any work to press every power of nature into their service, and to avail themselves of productive capacities of which a less instructed people would be wholly ignorant.

The effect that the sudden opening of so vast and profitable a field for the employment of capital and labour has had on the population of the different towns of Lancashire and Lanarkshire, the districts where the cotton manufacture is principally carried on, has been most striking. In 1774, for example, the townships of Manchester and Salford were estimated to contain 27,246 inhabitants—a number which was swelled, in 1831 to 182,812; the entire population of the *boroughs* of Manchester and Salford having amounted in that year, to 227,808, and in 1841 to 296,183. The population of Preston, in 1780, is said not to have exceeded 6,000; whereas it amounted, in 1841, to 50,131. In like manner, the population of Blackburn has increased from 11,980, in 1801, to 36,629, in 1841; that of Bolton has increased, in the same period, from 17,416 to 49,763; that of Wigan, from 10,989 to 25,517, &c. But the progress of Liverpool is most extraordinary, and can be matched only by the progress of one or two cities in the United States. Liverpool is not properly one of the seats of the cotton manufacture; but she is, notwithstanding, mainly indebted to it for the unparalleled rapidity of her growth. She is the grand emporium of the cotton district—the port where almost all the raw cotton, and the various foreign articles required for the employment and subsistence of the persons engaged in the manufacture, are imported, and whence the finished goods are exported to other countries. She has, therefore, become a place of vast trade, and is now, in that respect, second only to London. In 1700, according to the best accounts that can be obtained, the population of Liverpool amounted to only 5,145; in 1750 it had increased to 18,450; in 1770 it amounted to 34,050. The cotton manufacture now began rapidly to extend, and, in consequence, the population of Liverpool increased, in 1801, to 77,633; in 1821, to 118,972; in 1831, to 165,175; and in 1841, it amounted to 222,954. The progress of population in Lanarkshire and Renfrewshire has been equally striking. In 1780, the city of Glasgow contained only 42,832 inhabitants; in 1801, that number had increased to 77,385; in 1831, to 202,426 and in 1841, to 274,533!

Since the repeal of the Irish protecting duties, in 1823, the cotton manufacture has made some progress in Ireland. It is principally centred in Belfast, and employs in all about 4,700 hands. But the unsettled state of the country and the want of coal are insuperable obstacles to the continued increase of the manufacture.

The following statements, on the accuracy of which every reliance may be placed, obligingly furnished to us by Dr. Watt of Glasgow, give by far the best account

* Messrs. Macqueen and Spackman, for example, who have respectively estimated the value of the cotton manufacture at 52 and 60 millions sterling!

hitherto published, of the recent progress and present extent of the cotton manufacture in Scotland.

Statement of the Quantity of Cotton Wool consumed in Scotland from 1820 to 1844 inclusive.

Year.	Bales.	Average Weight per Bale.	Total Weight.	Average Consumption, in periods of Five Years.	
				Bales.	lbs.
1820	52,103	258	13,442,574	54,010	14,385,172
1821	52,908	258	13,650,264		
1822	53,447	267	14,364,349		
1823	54,491	275	15,068,025		
1824	54,702	273	14,933,646		
1825	56,095	278	15,814,610	68,009	19,000,336
1826	56,117	294	16,498,396		
1827	72,655	297	21,578,538		
1828	74,037	297	21,988,989		
1829	80,242	294	23,691,148		
1830	79,801	298	23,780,698	87,202	27,478,522
1831	85,599	306	26,294,274		
1832	88,162	311	27,418,382		
1833	86,964	326	28,350,364		
1834	95,808	330	31,648,990		
1835	89,415	333	29,775,195	100,665	34,478,152
1836	100,504	343	34,610,072		
1837	101,857	346	35,248,522		
1838	112,726	346	39,003,196		
1839	96,425	343	33,269,775		
1840	122,946	367	45,121,182	110,117	41,169,437
1841	98,469	367	36,138,123		
1842	97,698	375	36,749,280		
1843	118,960	379	45,082,052		
1844	112,222	381	42,766,582		

Note. The number of spindles in Glasgow and Lanarkshire is 908,020; the proportional consumption of cotton should be 52.5 per cent. Renfrewshire - 445,840 = 25.8 per cent. Other parts of Scotland - 37,758 = 21.7 per cent. Total Spindles - 1,728,528 = 100.0 per cent.

Statement of the Cotton Spinning in Glasgow and Neighbourhood, June, 1845.

Statement of Power-Looms in Glasgow and Neighbourhood, June, 1845.

Number of Spindles.	Estimated Value of Production.	Estimated Number of Wretmen employed.	Estimated Average Weekly Wage per Worker.	Estimated Total Weekly Wages.
784,756	7,847,264	7,847	8s. to 9s.	2,138l. 16s. to 2,531l. 3s.

Number of Looms.	Estimated Value of Production.	Estimated Number of Wretmen employed.	Estimated Average Weekly Wage per Worker.	Estimated Total Weekly Wages.
17,680	264,300l.	11,900	8s. to 9s.	4480l. to 5040l.

Note a. The engines employed in working the above machinery are nominally of 3,705 horse power, but their real working power may be reckoned at from 30 to 50 per cent. additional.

Note b. The number of spindles in Glasgow and Lanarkshire is 52.5 per cent. Renfrewshire - 25.8 per cent. Other parts of Scotland - 21.7 per cent. 100.0 per cent.

The number of power-looms in Glasgow and Lanarkshire is 79.0 per cent. Renfrewshire - 5.0 per cent. Other parts of Scotland - 15.0 per cent. 100.0 per cent.

Account of the Official Value of the Cotton Manufactures exported, in different years, from Great Britain, from 1697 to 1797.

Years.	Official Value of Exports.	Years.	Official Value of Exports.	Years.	Official Value of Exports.
1697	5,915	1765	248,348	1790	1,662,369
1701	23,223	1766	220,759	1791	1,875,046
1710	5,698	1780	355,060	1792	2,024,368
1720	16,300	1785	864,710	1793	1,738,807
1730	13,524	1786	915,048	1794	2,376,077
1741	30,709	1787	1,101,457	1795	2,433,331
1751	45,986	1788	1,252,240	1796	2,214,020
1764	200,354	1789	1,231,637	1797	2,580,668

5. Exports of Cotton Goods and Yarn. Full of Prices, &c. — Down to 1750, the exports of cotton goods, or rather, of goods consisting partially of cotton, were so very inconsiderable that they hardly attracted the least attention from any of our commercial writers. But after the inventions of Arkwright began to come into general operation, the exports increased with unprecedented rapidity. At the commencement of the present century they were nearly as large as the export of woollens, the produce of the

old and staple manufacture of the country. But though the export of woollen goods has increased considerably since 1800, that of cotton goods and yarn has increased so much more that it is now about *thrice* times the amount of the other; and constitutes, indeed, about half the total exports of the U. Kingdom.

Account of the Total Quantities and Declared Values of British Cotton Manufactured Goods, Twist, and Yarn exported from the United Kingdom in each Year from 1814 to 1847, both inclusive.

Years.	Cotton Manufactures.			Cotton Twist and Yarn.		Total Declared Value of Cotton Manufactures, Twist, and Yarn exported.
	Entered by the Yard.		Honey, Lace, and Small Wares.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.				
	Yards.	£	Declared Value.	lbs.	£	£
1814	192,340,825	18,490,730	728,888	19,298,254	2,791,848	20,070,684
1815	228,294,029	18,138,178	880,034	2,541,548	2,574,791	20,714,977
1816	182,325,731	20,709,972	746,834	15,740,875	3,694,446	15,681,181
1817	236,987,695	15,475,234	371,510	16,717,592	2,914,181	16,691,250
1818	225,131,895	15,708,183	629,136	14,743,272	2,365,304	16,795,223
1819	219,514,682	17,714,207	474,268	13,065,410	2,519,783	14,710,258
1820	220,036,241	15,309,000	698,111	23,003,325	2,826,643	15,255,754
1821	265,435,901	15,194,901	623,403	21,226,369	2,303,430	16,120,237
1822	316,479,891	15,853,654	787,712	26,295,468	2,697,590	17,279,256
1823	321,816,326	15,980,644	718,194	27,371,966	2,295,947	16,794,716
1824	344,551,133	14,149,255	865,866	33,605,510	3,135,596	18,420,237
1825	356,466,698	14,235,010	920,260	36,411,614	2,406,749	18,359,999
1826	367,060,534	9,666,370	494,756	44,176,621	2,491,526	18,359,999
1827	365,493,404	15,919,035	1,146,996	44,878,774	2,445,278	17,640,201
1828	365,298,451	15,485,749	1,160,745	50,505,751	2,295,403	17,444,617
1829	409,217,196	13,216,747	1,041,665	61,441,251	2,376,674	18,635,006
1830	444,578,458	14,119,770	1,175,123	64,643,248	4,133,741	19,439,664
1831	441,795,303	16,165,315	1,168,572	65,941,460	4,371,615	17,437,904
1832	601,044,503	11,340,630	1,175,003	75,667,130	4,729,729	17,209,292
1833	496,329,096	19,451,060	1,231,217	70,826,161	4,704,098	16,695,401
1834	650,705,929	14,197,328	1,175,919	75,478,468	4,211,018	20,215,686
1835	557,515,701	18,181,431	1,240,254	83,814,194	4,706,289	21,199,504
1836	637,667,027	17,185,167	1,298,285	88,191,048	6,120,266	24,636,796
1837	571,533,683	18,791,989	919,129	103,636,138	6,283,548	26,245,183
1838	626,077,822	15,554,733	1,161,124	114,698,602	7,431,939	24,147,798
1839	731,450,125	16,378,445	1,315,737	105,696,442	6,638,193	24,550,576
1840	720,631,297	16,309,290	1,305,060	118,470,533	7,101,808	24,808,618
1841	751,123,834	14,925,810	1,446,700	125,938,519	7,868,968	23,699,478
1842	724,004,909	19,047,120	1,080,694	137,465,998	7,771,664	21,079,248
1843	818,610,823	15,158,464	1,085,326	140,931,078	7,183,977	25,441,477
1844	1,016,670,223	17,612,148	1,204,618	158,546,072	6,984,284	25,905,248
1845	1,091,086,068	18,029,908	1,138,268	138,144,965	6,263,235	26,115,231
1846	1,065,460,589	16,701,632	1,010,716	161,892,750	7,099,018	22,997,266
1847	942,510,160	16,307,103	1,123,141	120,370,741	6,937,980	25,333,224

Nothing can set in a clearer light than this table the astonishing fall that has taken place in the price of cotton goods since 1814. In that year our exports of wove cotton fabrics did not amount to 200,000,000 yards, their declared value being 16,480,750*l.*; whereas in 1845 the exports of wove fabrics had increased to 1,091,686,069 yards, and their declared value to 18,029,808*l.* It appears, therefore, that while the exports of wove cottons have increased more than *five-fold*, or 500 per cent., their value has only increased in the ratio of about 16*·*5 to 18, that is, about 9*l.* per cent. Hence, supposing 100 yards calico to have cost 16*·*6*d.* in 1814, 500 yards may now be had for 18*·*1*d.*

This extraordinary fall has been brought about partly by the heavy fall that has taken place in the price of cotton wool, partly by the public taste setting more in favour of coarser fabrics, and partly and principally by the wonderful improvements made in the manufacture. In consequence of these concurring circumstances, cotton goods are now so cheap, that there is hardly an individual so very poor as to be unable to supply himself abundantly with them. This has improved the dress and added to the comfort of the great bulk of the female part of the population, not merely of this, but also of other countries, in a degree and to an extent not easily to be imagined.

It should farther be borne in mind that it is to the fall in the price of its products that the unprecedented extension of the manufacture in this country is to be ascribed. And it is satisfactory to know that, notwithstanding the fall of prices, neither the wages nor profits of those engaged in the business have been diminished, while their numbers have been prodigiously augmented.

The Table on the opposite page is interesting, from its exhibiting the state of our trade in wrought cottons with the different countries of the world.

Such being the vast extent and importance of the cotton manufacture, the probability of our preserving our ascendancy in it becomes a very interesting topic of inquiry. But it is obvious that a great deal of conjecture must always insinuate itself into our reasonings with respect to the future state of any branch of manufacturing industry. They are all liable to be affected by so many contingent and unforeseen circumstances, that it is impossible to predicate, with anything like certainty, what may be their condition a few years hence. It is not to be denied that a business which depends in so great a degree on foreign demand, and which may, consequently, be materially influenced, not only by foreign legislation and foreign discoveries and inventions, but also by the mutations of fashion at home and abroad, is in rather a perilous situation; and

An Account of the Quantities and Declared Value of British Cotton manufactured Goods exported from the United Kingdom, distinguishing the Description of Goods, and the various Countries whereto the same were exported, in the Year 1855.

Countries to which exported.	White or Plain Cottons.		Printed or Dyed Cottons.		Hosiery, Lace, and Small Wares.	Twist and Yarn.		Total Declared Value.
	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.		Quantity.	Declared Value.	
	<i>Yards.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Yards.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£</i>	
Russia	884,773	24,330	335,000	8,824	9,977	18,245,494	1,035,488	1,075,599
Sweden	20,529	1,970	1,167	1,586	1,586	3,729,870	45,136	49,853
Norway	1,040,073	19,766	489,519	8,800	1,731	94,118	21,470	27,188
Denmark	478,895	5,921	398,392	6,937	98	707,909	26,857	36,110
Prussia	1,948	30	181	27	181	284,808	11,173	11,414
Hanover	57,104	526	85,144	2,259	180	8,139,298	185,094	148,089
Hanseatic Towns	13,804,405	277,838	27,700,483	291,048	170,284	40,211,183	1,726,856	8,100,434
Holland	12,737,791	217,783	12,443,723	826,456	73,994	81,819,987	1,994,194	1,848,868
Belgium	4,256,573	44,989	1,287,379	41,373	90,801	5,466,061	180,118	256,279
France	810,858	18,430	1,285,289	24,331	95,499	89,888	28,608	177,886
Portugal, Proper	23,277,139	298,815	10,629,747	373,414	18,409	755,167	17,626	4,489
Azores	1,199,667	15,467	771,294	15,170	208	40,280	1,474	28,649
Madeira	418,189	9,008	289,036	5,911	267	866	48	18,261
Spain and the Balearic Islands	442,017	7,368	157,743	3,563	734	744	112	11,717
Canaries	709,819	10,793	685,266	10,548	555	9,981	78	22,267
Gibraltar	16,519	377,169	1,131,618	191,377	38,211	70,287	5,808	60,212
Italy and the Italian Islands	32,747,947	411,434	24,675,618	433,417	36,307	19,969,651	454,573	1,435,426
Malta	2,308,931	35,074	197,409	16,328	4,188	290,486	11,664	65,949
Tunisian Islands	6,077,849	80,120	2,849,599	49,288	127	338,630	97,291	169,837
Norea and Greek Islands	74,964	1,271	47,500,137	985,396	8,163	2,830,248	399,317	1,291,288
Turkey	47,000,493	697,906	1,191,377	191,377	1,683	6,858,561	126,412	609,218
Syria and Palestine	5,687,390	87,169	1,738,418	33,523	7,417	327,496	8,881	137,028
Algeria and Morocco	277,840	5,013	95,500	1,702	55	2,004	413	5,330
Western Coast of Africa	1,178,489	19,904	10,472,375	202,441	1,180	17,889	1,780	283,923
Coast of Good Hope	4,230,977	26,234	5,144,441	104,141	19,289	17,280	869	174,423
Eastern Coast of Africa	1,620	33	18,051	308	82
Cape Verde Islands	41,671	617	82
St. Helena and Ascension Islands	98,629	1,533	40,680	789	578	53	7	2,237
Mauritius	4,000,840	61,461	3,926,743	66,479	6,029	870	30	133,046
British Territories in the East Indies	183,974,891	3,001,537	33,885,861	745,023	34,647	16,825,848	336,216	4,810,428
Bengala, Java, and other Islands of the Indian Sea	11,913,491	180,429	3,384,091	809,174	5,717	296,740	13,211	409,824
Philippine Islands	4,443,513	50,373	1,193,618	17,610	949	7,392	800	24,023
China	103,543,433	1,271,319	3,403,324	61,730	9,144	2,609,820	99,036	1,735,141
British Settlements in Australia	4,455,237	86,823	5,183,244	103,248	21,239	97,261	3,266	284,774
South Sea Islands	439,649	9,711	374,369	13,839	84	466	17	42,774
British North American Colonies	13,900,057	256,351	19,418,378	381,996	73,563	996,510	80,478	7,92,253
British West Indies	19,008,244	278,068	27,317,918	453,291	49,227	77,700	4,719	790,326
Haiti	2,485,722	37,313	5,998,423	74,236	3,809	460	37	118,190
Cuba and other Foreign West Indian Colonies	14,296,183	190,166	22,098,370	373,418	33,224	1,100	99	601,023
United States of America	14,696,408	314,704	16,840,788	223,379	209,915	91,860	4,043	1,036,840
Mexico	2,031,197	46,556	6,026,553	136,252	6,666	31,060	1,106	269,823
New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador	5,184,743	75,019	4,749,487	146,047	10,991	10,396	444	233,944
Brazil	47,902,338	616,433	99,134,360	77,318	36,266	14,903	148	1,498,282
States of the Rio de la Plata	1,127,739	119,027	7,960,075	137,224	17,611	5,469	34	287,396
Chili	16,320,989	305,168	19,351,183	371,871	85,333	414	9	609,283
Peru and Bolivia	8,658,817	123,600	12,539,742	273,329	91,218	412,236
The Channel Islands	731,169	23,933	618,474	98,511	6,317	7,833	998	24,873
Total	678,415,780	9,661,014	423,870,289	9,368,794	1,126,368	135,444,865	6,263,235	15,119,331

that those dependent on it must necessarily be exposed to the most trying vicissitudes. These, no doubt, are natural to all businesses of this description; and may not be of a kind to shake the stability of the manufacture, or to endanger our superiority in it, provided they do not disturb tranquillity at home. But when a vast number of persons depend on a manufacture, the privations to which many of them are not unfrequently exposed, and the efforts that are made to inflame their prejudices, by representing their sufferings (which in nine out of ten instances spring from accidental or uncontrollable causes) as the result of vicious legislation, the tyranny or selfishness of their masters, and bad institutions, may easily lead them to commit outrages. And if that feeling of security which has led to the investment of such immense sums in mills and machinery should once be seriously impaired, the fall of the manufacture might be even more rapid than its rise. Any thing that tends to keep alive and encourage disaffection and agitation is the bane of every country, but especially of one so deeply engaged in manufactures as this: and while, therefore, it is the bounden duty of government to endeavour, by modifying or suppressing prohibitions, and repealing all unjust or partial laws, to give freedom to industry, and to take away all good cause for agitation, every individual interested in the public welfare should endeavour, by every means in his power, to discourage the efforts of those who, to advance their own unworthy ends, endeavour to keep alive a spirit of discontent among the labouring classes, that cannot fail, in the long run, to be subversive alike of good order, industry, and prosperity.

But, abstracting from the influence of such considerations, and of national struggles and commotions, which can neither be foreseen nor estimated, we do not think that there is any thing in our state, or in that of the different commercial and manufacturing countries of the world, that should lead us to anticipate that the gloomy forebodings of those who contend that the cotton manufacture of England has reached its zenith,

and that it must now begin to decline, will be realized. The natural capabilities we possess for carrying on the business of manufacturing are, all things considered, decidedly superior to those of any other people. But the superiority to which we have already arrived is, perhaps, the greatest advantage in our favour. Our master manufacturers, engineers, and artisans are more intelligent, skilful, and enterprising, than those of any other country; and the extraordinary inventions they have already made, and their familiarity with all the principles and details of the business, will not only enable them to perfect the processes already in use, but can hardly fail to lead to the discovery of others. Our establishments for spinning, weaving, printing, bleaching, &c. are infinitely more complete and perfect than any that exist elsewhere; the division of labour in them is carried to an incomparably greater extent; the workmen are trained from infancy to industrious habits, and have attained that peculiar dexterity and sleight of hand in the performance of their separate tasks, that can only be acquired by long and unremitting application to the same employment. Why, then, having all these advantages on our side, should we not keep the start we have already gained? Every other people that attempt to set up manufactures must obviously labour under the greatest difficulties as compared with us. Their establishments cannot, at first, be sufficiently large to enable the division of employments to be carried to any considerable extent, at the same time that expertness in manipulation, and in the details of the various processes, can only be attained by slow degrees. It appears, therefore, reasonable to conclude that such new beginners, having to withstand the competition of those who have already arrived at a very high degree of perfection in the art, must be immediately driven out of every market equally accessible to both parties; and that nothing but the aid derived from restrictive regulations and prohibitions will be effectual to prevent the total destruction of their establishments in the countries where they are set up.

We subjoin the account, previously referred to, given in Burn's *Glance*, of the consumption of cotton in England in 1845. It will be observed that the statements in it differ in some respects, though to no great extent, from those of Messrs. Holt and Co., which we believe to be of the highest authority. Such disagreements must necessarily, however, occur in all accounts not drawn up from official sources, and founded in part upon estimate and conjecture.

Statement of the Cotton spun in England and Scotland in 1845, and of the Quantity of Yarn produced; showing, also, how the Quantity spun in England was disposed of.

Description of Cotton.	Number of Bags consumed.	Average Weight of Bags.	Total Weight in Pounds.	Weekly Consumption of Bags, describing each Sort.
American cotton	1,267,374	373	480,190,502	26,243+33
Brazil	124,019	171	21,307,349	2,431+38
Egyptian	44,227	284	15,400,468	1,063+14
East Indian	98,896	263	25,896,248	1,939+7
West Indian	13,101	216	2,829,816	356+45
Total number of bags consumed	1,677,617		555,527,263	30,933+34
Allowed for loss in spinning, 1½ os. per lb.			60,760,796	
Total quantity spun in England and Scotland in 1845				<i>Lbs.</i> 494,766,467
Deduct spun in Scotland in 1845				27,737,022
Total quantity spun in England in 1845				467,029,465
<i>Disposal of Cotton spun in England.</i>			<i>Lbs.</i>	
Exported in yarn during the year			131,037,035	
Ditto in thread			2,567,705	
Ditto in manufactured cotton goods			202,360,687	
Estimated quantity of yarn sent to Scotland and Ireland			10,734,859	
Exported in mixed manufactures, not stated in the above-named articles consumed in cotton banding, heads, candle and lamp wick, waddlogs, socks, calender bowls, paper, umbrellas, hats, and loss in manufacturing goods			31,655,230	
Balance left for home consumption and stock, 1st January 1846			87,773,049	467,029,465
Ditto		1845	57,678,040	
Ditto		1844	50,636,545	
Ditto		1843	48,749,505	
Ditto		1842	52,760,274	
Ditto		1841	114,818,919	
Ditto		1840	60,813,674	
Ditto		1839	64,133,283	
Ditto		1838	63,647,902	
Ditto		1837	43,486,586	
Ditto		1836	49,932,800	

6. *Progress of the Manufacture in other Countries.*—But notwithstanding what has now been stated, a notion seems to be spreading abroad, that we shall have no little difficulty in maintaining our ground against the competition of the Americans, Swiss, Austrians,

French, &c., and a good deal of evidence upon this subject was taken before the committee of the House of Commons appointed in 1833 to inquire into the state of manufactures, commerce, and shipping. Such apprehensions appear to us to be quite destitute of any real foundation. Provided we have no agitation, that public tranquillity and security in fact and opinion be maintained unimpaired, we need be under no sort of uneasiness as to any competition to which we may be exposed. The tariff has forced cotton, woollen, iron, and other manufactures into a premature existence in the United States; but excepting the coarser fabrics, and those in which the value of the raw material bears a large proportion to the value of the manufactured article, we have nothing to fear from the Americans. Neither has their progress in the manufacture of the description of goods been at all remarkable; for the official accounts published by order of congress (8th December 1845) show that the value of all descriptions of cotton goods exported from the United States, during the year ended the 30th of June 1845 (p. 34.), amounted to only 4,047,764 doll., or about 869,000*l.*, of which the raw material certainly amounted to more than a half.

Among the singular statements that have been put forth as to the cotton manufactures of America, one is, that the wages of labour are lower there than here! To dwell on the absurdity of such a statement would be an insult to the reader. But though it were true that wages were as low in Massachusetts as in England, that would afford no real ground for anticipating any formidable competition from America in this department. The price of cottons depends more on the profits of stock than on the wages of labour; and, so far as we know, it has not yet been alleged that the former are lower in America than here. Suppose an English and an American manufacturer have each 100,000*l.* vested in cotton mills, and in the floating stock required to carry on the business; if profits in England be 1 per cent. less than in America, the English manufacturer can afford, *ceteris paribus*, to sell his goods for 1,000*l.* less than the American. We are very far from insinuating or believing that this lowness of profit is an advantage; but whatever may be its influence in other respects, so long as it continues, it gives our manufacturers a decided superiority over those of every other country where profits are higher, in the manufacture and sale of all articles, such as cotton yarn and stuffs, principally produced by machinery. It is ludicrous, indeed, to suppose that a half-peopled country like America, possessed of boundless tracts of unoccupied land of the highest degree of fertility, should be able successfully to contend in manufacturing industry, with an old settled, fully peopled, and very rich country like Great Britain. The government which encourages such a misdirection of the public capital and industry, and those who suppose it can end in any thing else than ruin to the parties, are ignorant of the merest elements of the science of wealth.

The following results as to the state of the American cotton manufacture in 1840 are given in the census of that year.

Number of factories	1,340	Number of persons employed	72,110
Spindles	2,284,531	Value of manufactured articles	\$ 45,250,465
Dyeing and printing works	139	Amount of capital invested	\$ 51,102,559

The following statement, though not official, is said to represent with considerable accuracy the consumption of cotton in the American manufactures in the 16 years ending with 1841-42.

Years.	Cotton consumed.	Years.	Cotton consumed.	Years.	Cotton consumed.
1841-42	bales 267,850	1836-37	bales 272,540	1830-31	bales 182,142
1840-41	— 297,268	1835-36	— 228,733	1829-30	— 186,512
1839-40	— 295,193	1834-35	— 216,898	1828-29	— 118,653
1838-39	— 276,018	1833-34	— 196,413	1827-28	— 120,593
1837-38	— 246,063	1832-33	— 194,412	1826-27	— 103,465
		1831-32	— 175,300		

Little as we have to fear from American, we have still less to fear from Swiss or Saxon competition. America has some advantage over England in the greater cheapness of the raw material; but Switzerland and Saxony, situated almost in the centre of Europe, can only draw their supplies of raw cotton by a distant land carriage by way of Hamburg, Marseilles, and Genoa; and we have the best authority for affirming, that a bale of cotton may be conveyed at a less expense from Charleston to Manchester, than from Genoa, Amsterdam, or Hamburg, to Switzerland or Saxony. Switzerland is altogether destitute of coal; all that she does is done by water power, and that is said to be nearly exhausted. It is not, however, to be wondered at that the Swiss and Saxons should have succeeded in supplying their own markets, and some of those immediately contiguous, with certain species of yarn; or that they should export hosiery and such other articles as they can manufacture on a small scale, in their cottages; but it is idle to suppose that they should ever be able to do much more than this.

It was stated before a committee of the House of Commons, in 1833, that the French cotton manufacture had increased, between 1812 and 1826, in the ratio of 310 per cent., while in England its increase was only 270 per cent. This statement was, we believe, accurate as far as it went; and yet it was eminently calculated, though, no doubt, without being so intended, to mislead. In 1812, and for some years previously, it was

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hardly possible to import cotton wool into France, and its price was quite excessive. When, therefore, the manufacturers got wool after the return of peace at an ordinary price, it was impossible, seeing that foreign cottons are excluded from France, but that the manufacture should increase with extraordinary rapidity, until the home demand was pretty well supplied. An advance of this sort is assuredly no proof of the capacity of France to prosecute the manufacture with advantage, or to export cottons without the aid of a bounty. Had the manufacture gone on increasing in the above ratio, down to the present time, the circumstances might have justly excited attention; but such has not been the case. No doubt it has made a considerable progress in the interval; but not so much as might have been expected seeing the increase of wealth and population in France, and seeing also the peculiar facilities which the French enjoy for smuggling cotton stuffs and other prohibited products across the Pyrenees into Spain, where they are taken off in large quantities. The truth is, that until the French government reduces or repeals the duties on raw cotton, and on foreign iron and other articles indispensable to the cheap construction of cotton factories, it were idle to suppose that the French should be formidable competitors in the production of cottons.

It is supposed by some, that the competition we have to fear from the Continent does not consist so much in the spinning as in the weaving of cottons: and that the probability is, that our exports of yarn will increase, and our exports of manufactured goods diminish. We do not, however, imagine there is much in this. Our power looms are superior to those of any other country; and it is unhappily true, that the wages of hand loom weavers here are sunk below the general level of Europe. There is not, in fact, with the exception of the dyes, a single particular connected with the cotton manufacture in which we have not a manifest superiority over the Swiss, Saxons, French, Prussians, and every Continental nation. Certainly, however, we are inferior to some of them in the brilliancy and durability of their dyes; and this circumstance occasioned a considerable demand for German and Swiss printed cottons in many parts of the East, where vivid colours are held in the highest estimation. But even there, the greater cheapness of our goods is proving an overmatch for the greater brilliancy of those of our rivals.

On the whole, therefore, we see no reason to think that the British cotton manufacture has reached, much less passed, its zenith. At the same time, however, it can hardly be necessary to observe, considering the vast importance of the trade, that while, on the one hand, nothing should be left undone that may serve to widen its foundations, and to promote its prosperity, on the other, nothing should be attempted that may, by possibility, have an opposite effect. The subsistence of 1,200,000 people is not to be endangered on slight grounds. The abuses even of such a business must be cautiously dealt with, lest, in eradicating them, we shake or disorder the whole fabric. No doubt, however, the case of children employed in the cotton factories is one that called fairly for legislative regulation; and we believe that the regulations that have been enacted, carried out as they have been under the superintendence of the inspectors, have been productive of much good.

We beg in corroboration of the views now taken to lay before the reader the elaborate and valuable statements of Messrs. Dufay and Co., of Manchester, respecting the cotton trade of this country, as compared with that of others:—

Comparative Estimate of the Quantity of Raw Cotton consumed in the Chief Manufacturing Countries for the last Ten Years, that is, from 1836 to 1845, both inclusive, in Millions of Pounds.

Countries.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.
Great Britain	350	369	435	361	475	422	463	531	543	597
France, including adjacent countries	118	121	123	110	157	154	163	152	146	156
Holland, Belgium, Germany, and North of Europe	57	56	61	48	77	65	78	81	86	96
Countries bordering on the Adriatic	18	21	26	26	29	29	34	44	36	38
United States of North America	79	75	83	94	105	108	99	152	150	147
Total	632	635	738	640	835	778	840	951	921	1,036

Comparative Estimate of the Quantity of Raw Cotton, &c.—continued.

Countries.	Total last Five Years, 1841-5.	Total previous Five Years, 1836-40.	Increase per Cent.
Great Britain	2,556	1,989	} 28 6
France, including adjacent countries	773	639	
Holland, Belgium, Germany, and North of Europe	407	296	
Countries bordering on the Adriatic	175	140	
United States of North America	608	485	
Total	4,506 or Great Britain 56 6 per cent. of the whole.	3,500 or Great Britain 56 8 per cent. of the whole.	

COTTON.

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" Our statement embraces a period of 10 years, and shows the total consumption of this important staple in the chief manufacturing countries to have amounted for the five years from 1836 to 1840, to 3,200 millions of lbs. weight, and in the five years from 1841 to 1845, 4,500 millions of lbs.— Total consumption from 1836 to 1845, 7,700 millions of lbs. weight. Of this quantity, Great Britain has consumed in the five years from 1836 to 1840, 1,300 millions of lbs. weight, and in the five years from 1841 to 1845, 2,455 millions of lbs. weight, showing that England has steadily maintained her proportion of about 36 per cent. of the total consumption of cotton from 1836 to 1845; and in going back for a further period of 10 years, we find very nearly the same result, as will be seen from the following statement. The total average consumption of cotton per annum has been, (in round numbers,) in the chief manufacturing countries—

	Millions of pounds a-year.
5 years from 1836 to 1840 an average of about	1300
5 years from 1841 to 1845 " " "	1900
5 years from 1836 to 1840 " " "	1300
5 years from 1841 to 1845 " " "	1900

" Of which the proportion consumed in Great Britain, (in round numbers,) averages as follows:—

	Millions of pounds a-year.	Per Cent of the whole.
5 years from 1836 to 1840 an average of about	470	or 36
5 years from 1841 to 1845 " " "	885	or 36
5 years from 1836 to 1840 " " "	470	or 36
5 years from 1841 to 1845 " " "	885	or 36

which shows that there has been for some time an increase in the total consumption of raw cotton, equal to about 300 millions of pounds weight per annum in the average annual consumption of every succeeding five years, or of about 1,000 millions of pounds weight of total increase in five years; and that, notwithstanding this immense increase, Great Britain has continued to consume the same proportion of about 36 to 37 per cent. of the total quantity.

" Of all the cotton-consuming countries, France has made the least progress in this branch of industry, considering the advantages which an advanced state of science and mechanics afford. Not only in her cotton trade, but also in the increase of her population, France keeps behind other nations; it is well known, also, that the population of that country has been stationary, compared with that of other European states.

" For some time past, we have taken pains to ascertain the number of spindles at work here and elsewhere, and have great pleasure in submitting the result to our friends. The returns were procured from the trade, as regards Great Britain, and have been carefully collected and revised. The information of the productive power of foreign states, has been derived from the best authorities, and well informed quarters. The estimate of the number of spindles at work in the principal foreign cotton manufacturing countries is, according to the latest accounts received from abroad, as follows, viz:—

In the States comprised in the German Customs League, viz. —		
Saxony	500,000	
Prussia	130,000	
Baden	95,000	together -
Württemberg	30,000	815,000 spindles.
Other States	60,000	
In Austria and Italy		1,500,000 "
France		3,500,000 "
Belgium		420,000 "
Switzerland		650,000 "
Russia		700,000 "
United States of America		2,500,000 "
Together		10,085,000

" The number of yarns, spun in Austria and the Customs Union, rule between Nos. 30 and 60, while France produces finer numbers. Austria imports only about 12 per cent. of the yarns consumed in that country. The States comprised in the Customs Union, on the other hand, import 67 per cent.

" The average number of mule yarns produced in Great Britain, is generally assumed to be No. 38, and of throstles or water twist No. 18.

" Mr. John Kennedy estimated the number of mule spindles at work in 1819 at 7 millions; the estimate for 1825, was 9 millions; and the quantity of cotton consumed in the latter year amounted to about 275,000,000 lbs.

" The quantity of cotton consumed in 1845, is estimated in round numbers, at 600 millions of lbs.; and it appears that this quantity (after deducting the usual per centage for loss, and cotton used in the raw state, for waddings and other purposes) has been reduced into yarns by 13 millions of mule spindles, and 4½ millions of throstles spindles, in all 17½ millions. Of these—

	Mule Spindles.	Throstles.
Ireland possesses	159,333	86,170
Scotland	1,470,088	253,795
England and Wales	11,264,584	4,190,035
Spindles	13,000,000	4,500,000

" The spinning process is carried to a high degree of perfection in this country. There is very little loss of material in reducing cotton into yarns; the waste of the finer numbers is re-spun into a second quality, and this process is going on, down to the lowest material. The speed in spinning has been much increased of late years, which accounts for the comparatively small number of spindles required to reduce the large quantity of cotton into yarn. In 1824 about 10,904,000 spindles were requisite to reduce 300 million lbs. of cotton into yarn, at present we require only 17½ millions of spindles to work up double the quantity of cotton. The coarser numbers which are produced now, account partly for this, but only in a very small degree."

7. STATUTORY REGULATIONS IN REGARD TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IN FACTORIES.

No statutory restrictions respecting the employment of children in the mills and factories of the U. Kingdom existed until 1802, when the 42 Geo. 3. was passed for the preservation of the health and morals of apprentices and others employed in cotton and other factories, and directing the local magistrates to report whether the factories

the *Vaccinium oxycoccus* of Linnæus. The berries are globular, about the size of currants; are found in mossy bogs in different parts of Scotland, but not in great numbers; they were once common in Lincolnshire, and the northern parts of Norfolk; but since the bogs have been drained and cultivated, they are rarely met with. Cranberries have a peculiar flavour, and a sharp, acid, agreeable taste; they are easily preserved, and are extensively used in making tarts. They are very abundant in North America, and in the northern parts of Russia; the latter being of a superior quality. We import from 30,000 to 35,000 gallons annually. It is said that some very fine ones have recently been brought from New South Wales.

CRAPE (Fr. *Crêpe*; Ger. *Flohr, Krausflohr*; It. *Espanilla, Soppillo*; Rus. *Flor*; Sp. *Crespon*), a light transparent stuff, in manner of gauze, made of raw silk, gummed and twisted on the mill and woven without crossing. It is principally used in mourning. Crape was originally manufactured in Bologna; but that made in this country is now deemed superior to any made in Italy.

CREAM OF TARTAR. See **ARGAL**.

CREDIT, the term used to express the trust or confidence placed by one individual in another, when he assigns him money, or other property in loan, or without stipulating for its immediate payment. The party who lends is said to give credit, and the party who borrows to obtain credit.

Origin and Nature of Credit.—In the earlier stages of society, credit is in a great measure unknown. This arises partly from the circumstance of very little capital being then accumulated, and partly from government not having the means, or not being sufficiently careful, to enforce that punctual attention to engagements so indispensable to the existence of confidence and credit. But as society advances, capital is gradually accumulated, and the observance of contracts is enforced by public authority. Credit then begins to grow up. On the one hand, those individuals who have more capital than they can conveniently employ, or who are desirous of withdrawing from business, are disposed to lend, or to transfer, a part or the whole of their capital to others, on condition of their obtaining a certain stipulated premium or interest for its use, and what they consider sufficient security for its repayment; and, on the other hand, there are always individuals to be met with, disposed to borrow, partly (and among merchants principally) in order to extend their business beyond the limits to which they can carry it by means of their own capital, or to purchase commodities on speculation, and partly to defray debts already contracted. These different classes of individuals mutually accommodate each other. Those desirous of being relieved from the fatigues of business find it very convenient to lend their capital to others; while such as are anxious to enlarge their businesses obtain the means of prosecuting them to a greater extent.

It is plain, that to whatever extent the power of the borrower of a quantity of produce or a sum of money, to extend his business, may be increased, that of the lender must be equally diminished. The same portion of capital cannot be employed by two individuals at the same time. If A. transfer his capital to B., he necessarily, by so doing, deprives himself of a power or capacity of production which B. acquires. It is most probable, indeed, that this capital will be more productively employed in the hands of B. than of A.; for the fact of A. having lent it shows that he either had no means of employing it advantageously, or was disinclined to take the trouble; while the fact of B. having borrowed it shows that he conceives he can advantageously employ it, or that he can invest it so as to make it yield an interest to the lender, and a profit to himself. It is obvious, however, that except in so far as credit contributes, in the way now mentioned, to bring capital into the possession of those who, it may be fairly presumed, will employ it most beneficially, it conduces nothing to the increase of wealth.

The most common method of making a loan is by selling commodities on credit; or on condition that they shall be paid for at some future period. The price is increased proportionally to the length of credit given; and if any doubt be entertained with respect to the punctuality or solvency of the buyer, a further sum is added to the price, in order to cover the risk that the seller or lender runs of not receiving payment, or of not receiving it at the stipulated period. This is the usual method of transacting where capital is abundant, and confidence general; and there can be no manner of doubt that the amount of property lent in Great Britain, the Netherlands, and most other commercial countries, in this way, is infinitely greater than all that is lent in every other way.

When produce is sold in the way now described, it is usual for the buyers to give their bills to the sellers for the price, payable at the period when the credit is to expire; and it is in the effects consequent to the negotiation of such bills that much of that magical influence that has sometimes been ascribed to credit is believed to consist. Suppose, to illustrate this, that a paper-maker, A., sells to a printer, B., a quantity of paper, and that he gets his bill for the sum, payable at 12 months after date: B. could not have entered

into the transaction had he been obliged to pay ready money; but A., notwithstanding he has occasion for the money, is enabled, by the facility of negotiating or discounting bills, to give the requisite credit, without disabling himself from prosecuting his business. In a case like this, both parties are said to be supported by credit; and as cases of this sort are exceedingly common, it is contended that half the business of the country is carried on by its means. All, however, that such statements really amount to is, that a large proportion of those engaged in industrious undertakings do not employ their own capital, but that of others. In the case in question, the printer employs the capital of the paper-maker, and the latter employs that of the banker or broker who discounted the bill. This person had most likely the amount in spare cash lying beside him, which he might not well know what to make of; but the individual into whose hands it has now come, will immediately apply it to useful purposes, or to the purchase of the materials, or the payment of the wages of the workmen employed in his establishment. It is next to certain, therefore, that the transaction will have been advantageous. But still it is essential to bear in mind that it will have been so, not because credit is of itself a means of production, or because it can give birth to capital not already in existence; but because, through its agency, capital finds its way into those channels in which it has the best chance of being profitably employed.

The real advantage derived from the use of bills and bank notes as money consists, as has been already shown, in their substituting so cheap a medium of exchange as paper, in the place of one so expensive as gold, and in the facilities which they give to the transacting of commercial affairs. If a banker lend A. a note for 100*l* or 1,000*l*., the latter will be able to obtain an equivalent portion of the land or produce of the country in exchange for it; but that land or produce was already in existence. The issue of the note did not give it birth. It was previously in some one's possession; and it will depend wholly on the circumstance of A.'s employing it more or less advantageously than it was previously employed, whether the transaction will, in a public point of view, be profitable or not. On analysing any case of this kind, we shall invariably find that all that the highest degree of credit or confidence can do, is merely to change the distribution of capital — to transfer it from one class to another. These transfers are occasionally, too, productive of injurious results, by bringing capital into the hands of spendthrifts: this, however, is not, except in the case of the credit given by shopkeepers, a very common effect; and there can be no doubt that the vast majority of regular loans are decidedly beneficial.

Abuses of the present Credit System in Great Britain. Means of obviating them. — The previous observations refer rather to the credit given to individuals engaged in business, who mean to employ the capital which they borrow in industrious undertakings, than to that which is given to individuals not so engaged, and who employ the advances made to them in supporting themselves and their families. In neither case is credit of advantage, unless it be granted with due discrimination, and with reference to the character, condition, and prospects of those receiving it. In this country, however, these considerations have been in a great measure lost sight of, in the granting of credit by shopkeepers and tradesmen of all descriptions. Owing to the competition of such persons, their extreme eagerness to secure customers, and the general indolence of opulent persons, which disinclines them to satisfy every small debt when it is contracted, the system of selling upon credit has become almost universal. Few among us think of paying ready money for any thing; seven tenths of the community are in the constant practice of anticipating their incomes; and there is hardly one so bankrupt in character and fortune as to be unable to find grocers, bakers, butchers, tailors, &c. ready to furnish him upon credit with supplies of the articles in which they respectively deal. We look upon this facility of obtaining accommodations as a very great evil. They are not, in one case out of five, of any real advantage to the parties receiving them, while they are productive of very pernicious results. The system tempts very many, and sometimes even the most considerate individuals, to indulge in expenses beyond their means; and thus becomes the most fruitful source of bankruptcy, insolvency, and bad faith. To guarantee themselves from the extraordinary risk to which such proceedings expose them, tradesmen are obliged to advance the price of their goods to a most exorbitant height; so that those who are able, and who really mean to pay the debts they contract, are, in fact, obliged to pay those of the hosts of insolvents and swindlers maintained by the present system. Many tradesmen consider themselves as fortunate, if they recover from two thirds to three fourths of the sums standing in their books, at the distance of several years.

The extraordinary extent to which the credit practice is carried may be learned from the inquiries of the Parliamentary Committee on Small Debts. It appears from them, that hatters, shoemakers, &c. in the metropolis, have often 4,000*l*. and upwards on their books in debts below 10*l*., and that *five sixths of their book debts are below that sum!* A large proportion of these debts are irrecoverable; but owing to the artificial enhance-

ment of prices, those that are good are sufficient to indemnify the traders for the loss of the bad.

It is not easy, we think, to imagine any system better fitted to generate improvidence and fraud. The vast majority of those who become insolvent, or are imprisoned for debt, consist of labourers, artisans, half-pay officers, clerks in public and other offices, annuitants, &c. — persons whom no prudent shopkeeper would ever allow to get permanently into his debt. The following Table exhibits some of the effects resulting from this system : —

Number of Persons committed for Debt to the several Prisons of the Metropolis in the Year 1842, and the Sums for which they were committed.

	For Sums above 100l.	For Sums between 50l. and 100l.	For Sums between 50l. and 20l.	For Sums under 20l.	Total.	In Custody January 1, 1843.
Queen's Bench prison	132	72	96	160	460	288
Fleet prison	59	23	36	12	110	—
Mazehisa prison	—	5	29	70	106	—
Middlesex Street prison	183	255	570	1969	2977	529
Horsemonger Lane prison	48	65	127	110	350	74
Total	401	410	948	2317	3979	761

It is time, certainly, that something effectual were done to put an end to such flagrant abuses — to a system that sends 1,929 persons to a single prison for debts under 20l. We do not mean to say or insinuate that credit may not frequently be given to the labouring classes with the best effects: but it is of its abuse that we complain, — of its being indiscriminately granted to every one; to those whom it encourages to continue in a course of idleness and profligacy, as well as to those industrious and deserving persons to whom it may occasionally be of the greatest service. To secure the advantages of credit to the public, free from the enormous evils that result from its abuse, is an object of the highest importance; and few things, we believe, would do so much to secure it, as the taking from creditors the power to arrest and imprison for debt. — (See BANKRUPTCY.)

It was stated in the House of Commons, (19th of February, 1827,) that in the space of 2½ years, 70,000 persons were arrested in and about London, at an expense to the parties, it may be estimated, of between 150,000l. and 200,000l. In 1827, in the metropolis and two adjoining counties, 23,515 warrants to arrest were granted, and 11,317 bailable processes were executed. Hence it may be concluded, that in this single year, within the above limits, no fewer than 12,000 persons were deprived of their liberty, on the mere allegation of others, without any proof that they owed them a farthing! Well might Lord Eldon say that “the law of arrest is a permission to commit acts of greater oppression and inhumanity than are to be met with in slavery itself; and that the redress of such a grievance would not be attended with any fatal consequences to the country.”

The following Table, which shows that 1,078 persons were committed to Horsemonger Lane prison, in 1842, for debts amounting, in all, to only 2,321l. 16s. 9½d., being, at an average, no more than 2l. 3s. 8½d. each, proves that the discussions which have taken place with respect to the law of arrest and imprisonment, have not, in any material degree, lessened its mischievous operation. Whatever else may be dear in England, the fact that thousands of people are annually imprisoned for such miserable trifles shows that personal liberty is, at all events, abundantly cheap.

A Return from Horsemonger Lane Gaol of the Number of Debtors committed to the said Gaol, on Process out of Courts of Request, during the Year ending 1st of January, 1843; stating separately the aggregate Amount of Debts and Costs; showing, in Classes, the Number confined from One to less than Ten Days, for Ten Days and less than Thirty, Fifty, Seventy, and One Hundred Days; and stating, also, the Amount paid out of the County or other Rates, for the Maintenance and Support of such Prisoners, as accurately as possible.

Number committed in the year	1,078		
Aggregate amount of debts	£	s.	d.
costs	2,321	16	9½
Number confined from 1 to less than 10 days	423		
for 10 and	402		
30	160		
50	41		
70	15		
100 days and more	34		
Amount paid out of the county rate for the maintenance and support of such prisoners, viz.:	£	s.	d.
For dietary	256	17	0
Proportionate share of expenses of the gaol, for salaries of officers, bedding, fuel, water, rent, &c.	546	3	1

We defy any one to show that the law of arrest and imprisonment has a single good consequence to be placed as a set-off against the evils of which it is productive. Tradesmen depend, as is clearly evinced by the above statements, upon the despotic

power which it puts in their hands, to get them out of scrapes; and believe that the fear of being subjected to arrest will stimulate even the most suspicious portion of their debtors to make payment of their accounts. The records of our prisons, and of our insolvent and other courts, show how miserably these expectations are disappointed. We believe, indeed, that we are warranted in affirming that the more respectable classes of shopkeepers and tradesmen are now generally satisfied that the present system requires some very material modifications. The law of arrest and imprisonment is, in fact, advantageous to none but knaves and swindlers, and the lowest class of attorneys, who frequently buy up small accounts and bills, that they may bring actions upon them, and enrich themselves at the expense of the poor, by the magnitude of their charges. Such oppressive proceedings are a disgrace to a civilised country. Were the law in question repealed, credit would be granted to those only who deserved it; for, generally speaking, tradesmen, supposing they had nothing to trust to but their own discretion, would not deal, except for ready money, with those of whose character and situation they were not perfectly informed; and the difficulty under which all idle and improvident persons would thus be placed of obtaining loans, would do much to wean them from their vicious courses, and to render them industrious and honest. "Those," says Dr. Johnson, "who have made the laws, have apparently considered that every deficiency of payment is the crime of the debtor. But the truth is, that the creditor always shares the act, and often more than shares the guilt, of improper trust. It seldom happens that any man imprisons another but for debts which he suffered to be contracted in hope of advantage to himself, and for bargains in which he proportioned his profit to his own opinion of the hazard; and there is no reason why one should punish another for a contract in which both concurred."

The power of taking goods in execution for debts is also one that requires to be materially modified. At present, the household furniture of every man, and even the implements used in his trade, should there be nothing else to lay hold of, may be seized and sold in satisfaction of any petty claim. It seems to us quite clear that some limits should be set to this power; and that such articles as are indispensable either to the subsistence or the business of any poor man ought to be exempted from execution, and, perhaps, distress. The present practice, by stripping its victims of the means of support and employment, drives them to despair, and is productive only of crimes and disorders.

We are glad to observe that there seems to be a growing conviction among mercantile men, of the inconveniences arising from the present practice. A petition against imprisonment for small debts, subscribed by many of the most eminent merchants, manufacturers, bankers, &c. of the city of Glasgow, was presented to the House of Commons in 1833. It contains so brief, and at the same time so forcible, an exposition of the evils resulting from the present system, that we shall take the liberty of laying it before our readers.

"Your petitioners have been long and seriously impressed with the belief that very great evils have arisen and do arise from the imprisonment of debtors in Scotland, especially for small sums.

"The petitioners will not here question the policy of the existing laws which authorise the imprisonment of debtors for considerable sums, nor do they intend to object to the creditor retaining the fullest power over the property and effects of his debtor; but they are humbly of opinion that, in so far as these laws give creditors the power to imprison debtors for small sums, such as for *£*4. and under, they are not only injurious to the public, and ruinous to the debtor, but even hurtful to the creditor himself.

"It would be a waste of time to dwell upon the hardship of subjecting debtors to imprisonment for small debts, contracted sometimes certainly under circumstances of real distress, but more frequently from the improper use of credit, with which they are too readily supplied. The creditor takes care that his profit shall be commensurate with his risk; and the debtor is induced to purchase freely, and at any price, that which he is not immediately called upon to pay; the creditor coolly and cruelly calculates upon the power which the law has granted him over the person of his debtor if he fail to discharge his debt to him, while the debtor forgets that, by the credit so imprudently afforded him, he is preparing the way for his own ruin, and that of all who have any dependence upon him.

"The total number of debtors imprisoned in the gaol of Glasgow alone, for debts of *£*4. and under, was, in the year 1830, 353; in 1831, 419; and in 1832, 437; while the whole number of incarcerations in that gaol for sums of every description were, in the year 1830, 557; in 1831, 630; and in 1832, 696; the proportion of sums of *£*4. and under being nearly two thirds of the whole on the average of these 3 years.

"To remedy these evils, your petitioners humbly submit that means should be adopted for the repeal of the laws as present in force, in so far as they sanction the recovery of small debts by imprisonment, reserving their effect in every other respect; the result of which would be, that credit for small sums would be greatly limited, if not entirely extinguished, and the poorer classes rendered more provident; and by purchasing with money at a cheaper rate what they now buy at an extravagant price, they would be enabled to procure for themselves additional comforts, from the more economical employment of their small incomes.

"May it therefore please your Honourable House to take this matter into your consideration, and to adopt such means as you in your wisdom shall see proper, to prevent the incarceration of debtors for sums under *£*4., and thereby remove or greatly mitigate the evils of improvidence on the part of the debtor, and of oppression on the part of the creditor, which necessarily arise under the present system."

So reasonable a proposal, supported by such conclusive statements, could not fail to make a deep impression; and a bill was soon after introduced, and passed into a law, (stat. 6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 70.) taking away the power of imprisonment in Scotland for debts under *£*4. *Gs.* *8d.* over and above interest and expenses, except in cases of fraud. This bill is admitted to have been eminently beneficial; and it is to be hoped that the

advantages of which it has been productive may lead to the extension and general application of its principle.

Propriety of placing all small Debts beyond the Pale of the Law. — The taking away the power of arrest and imprisonment, except in the case of fraudulent bankruptcy, would certainly be a material improvement upon the existing system. But we are satisfied that it does not go far enough; and that by far the most desirable and beneficial reform that could be effected in this department would be to take away all action for debts under a given sum, as 50*l.* or 100*l.* The only exception to this rule should be in the case of claims for wages, or labour done under executory contracts. To prevent the measure from being defeated, no action should be granted on bills under 50*l.* or 100*l.*, except upon those drawn by or upon regular bankers. This would be a radical change certainly; but we are fully satisfied that it would be highly advantageous to every class of the community, and most of all to labourers, retail dealers, and small tradesmen. It would protect the former from oppression, at the same time that it would tend powerfully to render them more provident and considerate; it would teach the latter to exercise that discretion in the granting of credit which is so very indispensable; and it would be publicly beneficial, by strengthening the moral principle, and making the contraction of debts for small sums, without the means of paying them, at once difficult and disgraceful.

We agree entirely in opinion with those who think that it is to no purpose to attempt to remedy the defects now pointed out, by multiplying courts and other devices for facilitating the speedy recovery of small debts. This is beginning at the wrong end; or rather it is attempting to obviate the influence of one abuse by instituting another. No wise statesman will ever be easily persuaded to fill the country with petty local courts; for these, when not absolutely necessary, are the merest nuisances imaginable; and he would, at all events, exert himself in the first instance, to do away, in so far as possible, with the circumstances that make individuals resort to them. But it is certain that nine tenths of the cases in county courts originate in questions as to simple contract debts under 50*l.*; and were such debts placed, as they ought to be, beyond the pale of the law, the courts would be wholly unnecessary. Our object ought not to be to provide means for enforcing the payment of trifling debts, but to prevent their contraction. We believe, indeed, that, instead of lessening, the multiplication of district courts will materially aggravate, all the evils of the present credit system. The belief that they may readily enforce their claims by resorting to them will make shopkeepers and tradesmen still more disposed than at present to give credit, while the unprincipled, the inconsiderate, and the necessitous will eagerly grasp at this increased facility. What there is of caution amongst our retail dealers is in no inconsiderable degree owing to the want of those petty tribunals so many are anxious to have universally established. The more they are increased, the less will caution prevail. But instead of diminishing this virtue, — for such it really is, — it cannot be too much increased. Nothing will ever deter those who ought not to obtain credit from taking it while in their power; but those who give it may be made to exercise greater discretion; they may be made to know that it is a private transaction between themselves and those to whom they grant it; and that in the case of petty debts they have only their own sagacity to look to, such transactions not being cognizable by law. A measure of the sort here proposed would not, as some appear to imagine, annihilate credit. It would, no doubt, annihilate that spurious indiscriminating species of credit, that is as readily granted to the spendthrift and prodigal, as to the frugal and industrious individual; but to the same extent that it deprived the former of the means of obtaining accommodation, it would extend those of the latter. Nothing short of this — nothing but the placing all small debts beyond the pale of the law — will ever fully impress tradesmen with a conviction of the vast advantages that would result to themselves from their withdrawing their confidence from courts and prisons, and preventing every one from getting upon their books, of whose situation and circumstances they are not fully aware; nor will anything else be able completely to eradicate the flagrant abuses inherent in the present credit system, and which have gone far to render it a public nuisance.

One of the worst consequences of the present system is the sort of thralldom in which it keeps thousands of labourers and other individuals, whom the improper facilities for obtaining credit originally led into debt. Such persons dare not leave the shops to which they owe accounts; and they dare neither object to the quality of the goods offered to them, nor to the prices charged. Dr. Johnson has truly observed, that "he that once owes more than he can pay, is often obliged to bribe his creditor to patience by increasing his debt. Worse and worse commodities at a higher and higher price are forced upon him; he is impoverished by compulsive traffic; and at last overwhelmed in the common receptacles of misery by debts which, without his own consent, were accumulated on his head." By taking away all right of action upon small debts, this system of invisible but substantial coercion would be put an end to. The tradesman would

take care who got, in the first instance, upon his books; and instead of forcing articles upon him, would cease to furnish him with any unless he found he was regular in making his payments; while the customer to whom credit was of importance would know that his only chance of obtaining it would depend upon his character and reputation for punctuality. The abuses of the sort now alluded to, that grew out of what has been denominated the truck system, justly occasioned its abolition; but these were trifling compared with those that originate in the bringing of petty debts within the pale of the law.

When the former edition of this work was published, we were not aware that it had been previously proposed to take away all action for debts under 50*l.* or 100*l.*; but we have since met with a pamphlet, entitled *Credit Pernicious*, published in 1823, in which this plan is proposed and ably supported. There are also some valuable remarks and observations on the topics now treated of, in the *Treatise on the Police*, &c. of the *Metropolis*, by the author of the "Cabinet Lawyer," pp. 114—134.

CREW, the company of sailors belonging to any ship or vessel. No ship is admitted to be a British ship, unless duly registered and navigated as such by a crew, three fourths of which are British subjects, besides the master. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54. § 12.) The master or owners of any British ship having a foreign seaman on board not allowed by law, shall for every such seaman forfeit 10*l.*; unless they can show, by the certificate of the British consul, or of two British merchants, or shall satisfactorily prove, that the requisite number of British seamen could not be obtained at the place where the foreign seaman was taken on board. It is also ordered that the master of every British vessel arriving from the West Indies shall deliver, within 10 days after arrival, to the Customhouse, a list of the crew on board at the time of clearing out from the United Kingdom, and of arrival in the West Indies, and of every seaman who has deserted or died during the voyage, and the amount of wages due to each so dying, under a penalty of 50*l.* — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54. § 19.; 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 16.)

CUBEBS (Ger. *Kubeben*; Fr. *Cubebes*; It. *Cubebi*; Sp. *Cubebas*; Rus. *Kubebii*; Lat. *Piper Cubeba*; Arab. *Kebābeh*; Javan. *Kumunkus*; Hind. *Cubab-chinte*), the produce of a vine or climber, the growth of which is confined exclusively to Java. It is a small dried fruit, like a pepper corn, but somewhat longer. Cubebs have a hot, pungent, aromatic, slightly bitter taste; and a fragrant, agreeable odour. They should be chosen large, fresh, sound, and the heaviest that can be procured. The duty on cubebs was reduced in 1542 from 6*d.* to 1*d.* per lb., and in that year the quantity entered for home consumption amounted to 67,093 lbs., producing a nett revenue of 500*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* Their price in the London market, in bond, varied, in June 1843, from 1*l.* 12*s.* to 2*l.* per cwt.

CUCUMBER, a tropical plant, of which there are many varieties, largely cultivated in hothouses in England.

CUCUMBER, a purple or violet coloured powder used in dyeing violet, purple, and crimson, prepared from a species of lichen (*Lichen tartareus* Lin.), or crustaceous moss, growing commonly on limestone rocks in Sweden, Scotland, the north of England, &c. About 130 tons of this lichen are annually exported from Sweden. It commonly sells in the port of London for about 20*l.* per ton; but to prepare it for use it must be washed and dried; and by these operations the weight is commonly diminished a half, and the price, in effect, doubled. Though possessing great beauty and lustre at first, the colours obtained from cudbear are so very fugacious, that they ought never to be employed but in aid of some other more permanent dye, to which they may give body and vivacity. In this country it is chiefly used to give strength and brilliancy to the blues dyed with indigo, and to produce a saving of that article; it is also used as a ground for madder reds, which commonly incline too much to yellow, and are made rosy by this addition. The name cudbear was given to this powder by Dr. Cuthbert Gordon, who, having obtained a patent for the preparation, chose in this way to connect it with his own name. — (*Bancroft, Philosophy of Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 300—304.)

CUMMIN SEED (Ger. *Kummin*; Fr. *Cumin*; It. *Comino*, *Cumino*; Sp. *Comino*; Arab. *Kemun*), the seeds of an annual plant (*Cuminum Cyminum* Lin.), a native of Egypt, but extensively cultivated in Sicily and Malta. They have a strong, peculiar, heavy odour, and a warm, bitterish, disagreeable taste. They are long and slender.

CURRANTS (Fr. *Raisins de Corinthe*; Ger. *Korinthen*; It. *Uve passe di Corinto*; Lat. *Pasulæ Corinthiæ*; Rus. *Korinka*, *Oppek*; Sp. *Pasa de Corinto*), a small species of grape, largely cultivated in Zante, Cephalonia, and Ithaca, of which islands they form the staple produce; and in the Morea, in the vicinity of Patras. The plant is delicate; and as 6 or 7 years must elapse, after a plantation has been formed, before it begins to produce, its cultivation requires a considerable outlay of capital. The crop is particularly liable to injury from rains in harvest, and is altogether of a very precarious description. After being dried in the sun, the currants are exported packed in large butts. They are in extensive demand in this country; and, when mixed with flour and suet, make a dish that is peculiarly acceptable to the lower classes. But, as if it had been intended

to put them beyond the reach of all but the richest individuals, they were burdened, down to 1834, with the exorbitant duty of 44s. 4d. a cwt. In that year, however, the duty was reduced a half, or to 22s. 2d. a cwt., and their importation has been in consequence very materially increased. Inasmuch, however, as the price of currants in bond varies from about 30s. to 35s. a cwt., it is plain that the duty is still too high; and it is no doubt mainly owing to this that the consumption has not increased to a decidedly greater extent than it has done. The duty should not in fact exceed 10s. or 12s. a cwt.; and we are well convinced, that were it reduced to this amount, its produce would in no very lengthened period, be about as great as ever; while, at the same time, a very considerable benefit would be conferred on the consumers in this country, and a powerful stimulus given to the trade with Greece and the Ionian islands, currants being the principal product which they have to export.

Account of the Quantities of Currants entered for Consumption in the United Kingdom in 1840, 1841, and 1842, and of the Amount of Duty received thereon, with the Averages for the above Three Years.

	Quantities.			Duty.		
	Cwts.	qrs.	lbs.	£	s.	d.
1840	184,921	0	32	185,780	1	7
1841	190,071	1	21	221,497	8	1
1842	196,315	1	4	226,701	15	0
Average of 3 years	185,255	3	25	212,994	1	21

No abatement of duties is made on account of any damage received by currants.

Currants, the produce of Europe, are not to be imported for home use except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which they are the produce, or of the country whence they are imported.—(5 & 4 Will. 4. c. 24. § 5. 21.)

A Treasury letter of the 26th of March, 1816, directs the

following rates to be allowed, with liberty to the merchant and officers to take the actual rate when either party is dissatisfied.

Currants in casks from Zante	-	-	15 per cent.
Lephoron	-	-	10
Trieze	-	-	10

CUSTOM-HOUSE, the house or office where commodities are entered for importation or exportation; where the duties, bounties, or drawbacks payable or receivable upon such importation or exportation are paid or received; and where ships are cleared out, &c.

For information as to the proceedings necessary at the Custom-house on importing or exporting commodities, see the article **IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION**.

The principal British Custom-house is in London; but there are Custom-houses subordinate to the latter in all considerable sea-port towns.

CUSTOMS, are duties charged upon commodities on their being imported into or exported from a country.

Customs duties seem to have existed in every commercial country. The Athenians laid a tax of a fifth on the corn and other merchandise imported from foreign countries, and also on several of the commodities exported from Attica. The *portoria*, or customs payable on the commodities imported into, and exported from, the different ports in the Roman empire, formed a very ancient and important part of the public revenue. The rates at which they were charged were fluctuating and various, and little is now known respecting them. Cicero informs us, that the duties on corn exported from the ports of Sicily were, in his time, 5 per cent. Under the Imperial government, the amount of the *portoria* depended as much on the caprice of the prince as on the real exigencies of the state. Though sometimes diminished, they were never entirely remitted, and were much more frequently increased. Under the Byzantine emperors, they were as high as 12½ per cent.—(*Encyc. Brit. art. Taxation*.)

Customs duties seem to have existed in England before the Conquest; but the king's claim to them was first established by stat. 3 Edw. 1. These duties were, at first, principally laid on wool, woollens (sheep-skins), and leather when exported. There were also extraordinary duties paid by aliens, which were denominated *parva costuma*, to distinguish them from the former, or *magna costuma*. The duties of tonnage and poundage, of which mention is so frequently made in English history, were custom duties; the first being paid on wine by the tun, and the latter being an *ad valorem* duty of so much a pound on all other merchandise. When these duties were granted to the Crown, they were denominated *subsidies*; and as the duty of poundage had continued for a lengthened period at the rate of 1s. a pound, or 5 per cent., a subsidy came, in the language of the customs, to denote an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. The *new subsidy* granted in the reign of William III. was an addition of 5 per cent. to the duties on most imported commodities.

The various custom duties were collected, for the first time, in a book of rates published in the reign of Charles II.; a new book of rates being again published in the reign of George I. But, exclusive of the duties entered in these two books, many more had been imposed at different times; so that the accumulation of the duties, and the complicated regulations to which they gave rise, were productive of the greatest embarrassment. The evil was increased by the careless manner in which new duties were added to the old; a percentage being sometimes added to the original tax; while at

other times the commodity was estimated by a new standard of bulk, weight, number, or value, and charged with an additional impost, without any reference to the duties formerly imposed. The confusion arising from these sources was still further augmented by the special appropriation of each of the duties, and the consequent necessity of a separate calculation for each. The intricacy and confusion inseparable from such a state of things proved a serious injury to commerce, and led to many frauds and abuses.

The Customs Consolidation Act, introduced by Mr. Pitt in 1787, did much to remedy these inconveniences. The method adopted was, to abolish the existing duties on all articles, and to substitute in their stead one single duty on each article, equivalent to the aggregate of the various duties by which it had previously been loaded. The resolutions on which the act was founded amounted to about 3,000. A more simple and uniform system was, at the same time introduced into the business of the Custom-house. These alterations were productive of the very best effects; and several similar consolidations have since been effected; particularly in 1825, when the various statutes then existing relative to the customs, amounting, including parts of statutes, to about 450, were consolidated and compressed into only 11 statutes of a reasonable bulk, and drawn up with great perspicuity. They were again amended in 1833, by the acts 3 & 4 Will. 4. cap. 51. 52. 56. and 58.; since which they have not been very materially varied.

The Board of Customs consists at present (1849) of 9 commissioners. The Treasury may, if they see cause, appoint 1 commissioner and 2 assistant commissioners, to act for Scotland and Ireland.

Officers of customs taking any fee or reward, whether pecuniary or of any other sort, on account of any thing done, or to be done, by them in the exercise of their duty, from any one, except by the order or permission of the commissioners of the customs, shall be dismissed their office; and the person giving, offering, or promising such gratuity, fee, &c. shall forfeit 100*l*.

Any officer of customs who shall accept of any bribe, recompence, or reward, to induce him to neglect his duty, or to do, conceal, or connive at any act whereby any of the provisions of the customs laws shall be evaded, shall be dismissed the service, and be rendered incapable of serving his Majesty in future in any capacity whatever; and the person offering such bribe, recompence, &c. shall, whether the offer be accepted or not, forfeit 500*l*.

Customs duties, like all duties on particular commodities, though advanced in the first instance by the merchant, are ultimately paid by those by whom they are consumed. When a government lays a duty on the foreign commodities which enter its ports, the duty falls entirely on such of its own subjects as purchase these commodities; for the foreigners would cease supplying its markets with them, if they did not get the full price of the commodities, exclusive of the tax; and, for the same reason, when a government lays a duty on the commodities which its subjects are about to export, the duty does not fall on them, but on the foreigners by whom they are bought. If, therefore, it were possible for a country to raise a sufficient revenue by laying duties on exported commodities, such revenue would be wholly derived from others, and it would be totally relieved from the burden of taxation, except in so far as duties might be imposed by foreigners on the goods it imports from them. Care, however, must be taken, in imposing duties on exportation, not to lay them on commodities that may be produced at the same, or nearly the same, cost by foreigners; for the effect of the duty would then be to make the market be supplied by others, and to put an entire stop to their exportation. But in the event of a country possessing any decided natural or acquired advantage in the production of any sort of commodities, a duty on their exportation would seem to be the most unexceptionable of all taxes. If the Chinese chose to act on this principle, and had the power, they might derive a considerable revenue from a duty on exported teas, which would fall entirely on the English and other foreigners who buy them. The coal and tin, and perhaps, also, some of the manufactured goods produced in this country, seem to be in this predicament.

The revenue derived from the custom duties in 1590, in the reign of Elizabeth, amounted to no more than 50,000*l*. In 1613, it had increased to 148,075*l*.; of which no less than 109,572*l*. were collected in London. In 1660, at the Restoration, the customs produced 421,582*l*.; and at the Revolution, in 1688, they produced 781,987*l*. During the reigns of William III. and Anne, the customs revenue was considerably augmented, the nett payments into the exchequer in 1712 being 1,315,423*l*. During the war terminated by the peace of Paris in 1763, the nett produce of the customs revenue of Great Britain amounted to nearly 2,000,000*l*. In 1792, it amounted to 4,407,000*l*. In 1815, at the close of the war, it amounted to 11,360,000*l*.; and last year (1842) it amounted to 20,312,897*l*. 15*s*. 9*d*., and including Ireland, to 22,523,513*l*. 5*s*.

Astonishing, however, as the increase of the customs revenue has certainly been, it is

not quite so great as it appears. Formerly the duties on some considerable articles, such as sugar, brandy, wine, &c. imported from abroad, were divided partly into customs duties charged on their importation, and partly into excise duties on their being taken into consumption. But these duties have since been wholly transferred to the customs; the facilities afforded, by means of the warehousing system, for paying the duties in the way most convenient for the merchant, having obviated the necessity of dividing them into different portions.

It will be seen from various articles in this work—(See BRANDY, GENEVA, SMUGGLING, TEA, TOBACCO, &c.)—that the exorbitant amount of the duties laid on many articles imported from abroad leads to much smuggling and fraud; and requires, besides, an extraordinary expense in many departments of the customs service, which might be totally avoided were these duties reduced within reasonable limits. This, however, is the business of government, and not of those intrusted with the management of the customs; and it would be unjust to the latter not to mention that this department has been essentially improved, during the last few years, in respect of economy, whatever may be thought of its efficiency. The following extracts from a letter to the Right Hon. H. Goulburn, ascribed to the present chairman of the Board of Customs (R. B. Dean, Esq.), give a brief but satisfactory view of the improvements that have been effected:—

“As regards the department of customs in 1792, the principal officers engaged in the receipt of the duties in the port of London were patent officers.

“The first Earl of Liverpool was collector inwards.

“The late Duke of Manchester, collector outwards.

“The Duke of Newcastle, and afterwards the Earl of Guilford, comptroller inwards and outwards.

“Lord Stowell, surveyor of subsidies and petty customs.

“These noblemen took no part in the official duties, but merely exercised the right of appointing deputies and clerks.

“Both principals and deputies were remunerated by fees. The patentees received the fees denominated patent, and the deputies retained the fees called the fees of usage for their own use. In addition to these fees, both deputies and clerks received fees for despatch.

“The same system prevailed throughout the whole department. The salaries of the officers were nominal; and the principal proportion of all official income was derived from fees. These fees were constantly varying both in rate and amount, and formed a continual source of dispute and complaint between the merchant and the officer.

“This system (after having been repeatedly objected to by various commissions of inquiry, and finally by the committee of finance in 1797,) was put an end to in the year 1812, by the act 51 Geo. 3. c. 71., by which all patent offices and fees were abolished, and compensation allowances granted to the patent officers, and fixed salaries established.

“The additional salaries granted under this arrangement amounted to about 200,000*l.*, and the temporary compensation allowances to about 40,000*l.* per annum.

“The fees abolished, and from which the public were relieved, amounted to about 160,000*l.* per annum.

“In addition to the amount of fees from which the public were relieved, various allowances made by the Crown to officers for quarantine, coal poundage, poundage on seizures, and many other incidental allowances, which did not appear on the establishment, were also abolished, and the salaries of every officer placed at one view upon the establishment.

“The effect of these salutary measures has been to give a great apparent increase to officers' salaries since 1791; and, upon a mere comparison of the establishment of 1792 with 1830, without the above explanation, it would appear that the pay of the officers had been most materially augmented, whereas, in point of fact, the difference is in the mode of payment: and the incomes of the officers at the present period (as compared with 1792) are in general less; and, consequently, the public are less taxed for the performance of the same duty *now* than in 1792.

“In the year 1792, the warehousing system had not been established. Officers were admitted at all ages, and there was no system of classification or promotion. The officers at the out-ports and in London were generally appointed through local influence; and were too often persons who had failed in trade, or had been in menial service, and who regarded their situations rather as a comfortable provision for their families than as offices for which efficient services were required. The superintendence and powers of the Board were cramped and interfered with by circumstances and considerations which prevented the enforcement of wholesome regulation. The whole system was so imperfect, so far back only as 1818, that a special commission was appointed to inquire into the department; and, upon the recommendation of that commission, various regulations have been adopted.

"The age of admission has been limited; a system of classification and promotion of officers, and a graduated scale of salaries, established throughout the whole department; and, by this means, local interference in the promotion of officers has been abolished; the attendance of officers increased, regulated, and strictly enforced; holidays reduced from 46 in the year to 3; viz. Good Friday, the King's birthday, and Christmas-day; useless oaths, and bonds, and forms of documents of various kinds, discontinued; increased facility and despatch afforded to the merchants' business; the accounts kept in the different offices, and returns of all kinds, revised, simplified, and reduced; and various minor regulations of detail established; the whole machinery of the department remodelled, and adapted to the trade and commerce of the country.

"In Ireland, the number of officers employed at all the ports, in the year ended the 5th of January, 1830, and the salaries and charges, did not much exceed the number and expense at the port of Dublin alone in 1818; and within the space of 11 years, nearly two thirds of the officers employed at the ports in Ireland have been discontinued; the number having been, in 1818, 1755; in 1829, 544; and an annual reduction in salaries and charges has been effected to the extent of 173,724*l.*; the amount having been, in 1818, 285,115*l.*; in 1829, 111,591*l.* (103,813*l.* of that amount having been reduced between the years 1823 and 1828), upon an expenditure of 285,115*l.*; and the receipts were nearly equal, in 1827, to those of 1818 and 1823, notwithstanding the total repeal of the cross Channel duties, amounting to about 340,000*l.* per annum, subsequent to the latter period.

"Already has government relinquished, it may be said, any interference with promotion in the department of the customs, and the road is open to advancement to the meritorious officer.

"Influence is no longer allowed to prevail; and in many cases which have recently occurred, and in which the patronage of government might have been fairly exercised, it has been at once abandoned, in order to give way to arrangements by which the services of some very intelligent and highly respectable officers, whose offices had been abolished, could be again rendered available with a material saving to the public.

"By a recent order from the Lords of the Treasury, of the 20th of February, 1830, the salaries of the commissioners, and of other officers, have been prospectively reduced, and directions given to revise the whole establishment in the spirit of that order, with a view to every possible reduction."

Defective Organisation of the Customs Establishment.—The above are great improvements, certainly, and reflect credit alike on the government and the board of customs. But it must, notwithstanding, be admitted that the existing constitution of the customs department is exceedingly defective. This is proved by the recent discovery of the extensive frauds that have been carried on in the port of London for a lengthened period, in the entry of silks, gloves, and other highly taxed articles, with the connivance of the customs officers. The origin, no doubt, of these, as of most similar frauds, may be traced to the exorbitancy of the duties, and to the consequent temptation which they hold out to smuggling on the part of the importers and the corruption of the officers. But, admitting this, it is, at the same time, abundantly clear that had anything like an efficient supervision and check been exercised by the commissioners and their superior officers, these frauds could not possibly have been carried on so long, or to such an extent. It would, however, appear that the former do little more than decide on the claims of private parties for a remission of duties, or on references made to them by the Treasury; and that they are in the habit of committing the enforcement of all the regulations necessary to be observed in the entry of goods to the care of the surveyors-general. But this, as it appears to us, is to abdicate or neglect what is by far the most important part of their peculiar duty. They are appointed to carry the Customs Acts into effect, so that every possible facility and accommodation may be given to the trader consistent with the security of the revenue; and it is impossible they can do this without being thoroughly acquainted with the details of every department, and with the abuses to which it is peculiarly liable. The commissioners could not but suspect that frauds of no common magnitude were taking place in the entry of goods in the Thames. Private parties had assured them that such was the case; and, independently of this, the fact must have been established to the conviction of every reasonable person by comparing the accounts given by the French custom-house of the exportation of silks, gloves, &c. from France for England, with the entries of the same in our customs returns; and it was the bounden duty of the commissioners, on seeing this extraordinary discrepancy, to have themselves immediately entered on a searching inquiry into its origin, and not have devolved that duty on others, or waited till the frauds were discovered by the confessions of some of those engaged in carrying them on.

We confess, too, that we are not of the number of those who think that the adoption of the suggestions in the Report of the commissioners appointed to inquire into the frauds in question will be of any material advantage. The Board of Commissioners should, in fact, be either wholly abolished, or reconstructed on a new principle. We

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Animals, live	
bulls, cows,	
Apples, raw	
Bacon and ham	
Baskets	
Beer, spruce	
Books	
Books, shoes	
Boot fronts	
Buttins and g.	
Butter	
Capers	
Casins Lignum	
Cheese	
Chicory, or ar	
mater appli	
of Chicory or	
China, porcel	
ware	
Clocks	
Cloves	
Cocoa, cocoa	
and chochoa	
Coffee	
Copper ore	
Corks ready m	
corn, meal, a	
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currants	
Eggs	
Embroidery	
Figs	
Fish of all s	
cheries	
Anchovy	
Flowers, stit	
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Incline to think that, if they are to be continued, the better plan would be to reduce their numbers to three, and to make their duties entirely executive. The preferable plan, we believe, would be to refer all questions as to mitigation of duties and refer- ences from the Treasury on such matters, to a lawyer well versed in mercantile law, connected with the customs department, and acting on his undivided responsibility; so that the duties of the Board might be entirely confined to the enforcement of the laws and regulations for the collection of the revenue and the facilitating of trade.

We hope it will not be supposed, from anything now stated, that we have any wish to extenuate the guilt of the officers who have participated in the plunder of the revenue; but, how much and how deservedly soever we may blame them, we need not be surprised, considering their situation in life, the smallness of their salaries, and the carelessness of their superiors, that they should have yielded to the powerful tempta- tions to which they have been exposed.

The smuggling that is still carried on, despite the officers, is principally occasioned by the oppressive duties on tea, tobacco, and a few other articles. It is difficult, indeed, seeing that the probability is that these duties would be more productive were they reduced to half their present amount, to discover for what purpose they are kept up, unless it be to encourage smuggling. The land guard, and the preventive water guard, costing together about 360,000*l.* a year, might be dispensed with, were the duties now referred to adequately reduced.

In Scotland, separate Custom-houses seem to be multiplied to a useless extent. Within these few years, indeed, a very considerable change for the better was effected in the Scotch Customs' department; but it is still susceptible of, and should be subjected to, great curtailment. Why should a collector, comptroller, clerks, &c. be hired to trans- act business that in many instances would not afford half employment for a single officer?

The reader will find, in the accounts of most imported articles of any consequence given in this work, statements of the customs duty paid on their importation. It may be gratifying, however, to have them all brought together in one point of view, as in the following Table:—

An Account of the Gross and Nett Produce of the Customs Revenue of Great Britain, in the Year ended 5th January, 1847; distinguishing the Amount collected on each Article usually contributing 1,000*l.* or more to the Revenue of the U. Kingdom.

List of Articles.	Gross Produce.						Nett Produce.					
	England.		Scotland.		Great Britain.		England.		Scotland.		Great Britain.	
Duties <i>favoured.</i>	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Almonds	6,385	17 8	641	17 3	6,967	14 9	6,872	1 2	640	17 0	6,512	18 2
Animals, living, viz. oxen, bulls, cows, and calves	2,775	13 6	-	-	2,775	13 6	2,745	5 6	-	-	2,745	5 6
Apples, raw	6,557	18 1	1,100	0 0	7,657	18 1	6,520	1 4	1,062	15 6	7,582	15 10
Bacon and hams	4,854	15 6	318	3 5	5,172	18 11	4,537	18 0	310	12 4	4,847	6 4
Bananas	5,299	9 11	13	10 10	5,312	0 9	5,290	16 7	15	10 10	5,305	7 7
Beer, spruce	3,487	3 7	908	3 6	4,395	9 1	3,985	18 10	905	13 2	4,791	11 2
Books	9,096	7 4	59	4 7	9,085	11 11	8,999	10 11	53	5 2	9,016	3 4
Roots, shoes, and calashes	5,437	9 11	109	7 9	5,539	17 8	5,453	12 1	102	6 2	5,537	19 3
Shoe trims	3,435	7 5	5	9 3	3,440	15 8	3,431	5 7	5	9 3	3,436	11 10
Hugles and glass beads	1,270	15 10	0	0 0	1,270	17 0	1,267	14 2	0	0 0	1,267	14 2
Butter	129,364	0 6	7,610	4 3	136,964	4 9	129,047	14 0	7,495	11 2	136,542	6 2
Capers	1,389	15 8	3	14 7	1,392	15 8	1,384	10 4	880	1 9	1,399	10 3
Cassia Ligna	1,552	15 10	520	1 9	1,804	17 7	1,549	10 4	250	1 9	1,799	12 1
Cheese	76,789	9 8	12,312	2 1	89,301	4 9	75,954	10 4	12,289	9 9	84,514	7 6
Chicory, or any other vegetable matter applicable to the uses of chicory or coffee	15,147	11 3	2,884	6 5	18,031	19 10	15,137	15 11	2,881	8 5	18,022	4 4
China, porcelain, and earthen-ware	8,841	17 8	64	0 5	8,905	17 11	8,811	0 0	64	0 3	8,875	0 3
Cloths	9,543	11 1	493	7 9	10,036	18 10	9,506	6 2	492	2 7	9,798	8 9
Cloves	5,356	13 0	135	12 2	5,491	6 10	5,357	4 3	135	12 2	5,492	16 6
Cocoas, cocoas huaks and shells, and choollata	14,518	13 7	53	19 6	14,572	13 1	14,515	17 11	53	19 6	14,568	17 5
Coffee	696,152	13 6	30,393	4 6	726,545	18 0	695,506	10 1	50,778	9 9	746,284	10 10
Copper ore	54,282	13 6	-	-	54,282	19 6	54,035	1 0	-	-	54,035	1 0
Corks ready made	4,933	3 8	51	1 6	4,984	4 2	4,931	7 2	54	1 6	4,985	9 3
Corn, meal, and flour	621,449	10 11	124,786	1 10	746,235	12 9	555,678	8 4	191,560	16 7	675,217	4 11
Cotton manufactures	1,695	8 7	9	13 0	1,704	1 7	1,692	9 8	9	13 0	1,698	8 8
Curranes	375,158	10 11	5,482	0 11	380,640	11 10	374,800	4 4	5,482	0 11	380,332	3 3
Wax	36,326	4 8	14	10 8	36,337	15 4	36,338	18 9	1	7 2	36,339	19 11
Embroidery and needlework	4,126	8 2	11	4 3	4,137	16 6	4,064	13 7	14	1 0	4,123	2 8
Figs	28,688	15 9	917	10 10	29,606	8 7	28,637	4 3	917	2 3	29,554	6 8
Fish of all sorts (except anchovies)	2,159	10 0	959	1 3	3,138	11 3	2,138	18 0	269	12 6	2,404	10 6
Anchovies	1,092	11 1	8	10 9	1,095	1 10	1,089	19 3	2	10 9	1,092	10 0
Flowers, artificial (not of silk)	9,500	18 6	2	8 9	9,505	7 3	9,500	18 6	2	8 9	9,503	7 3
Ginger, dry	4,126	8 2	57	11 9	4,183	19 10	4,064	13 7	57	11 8	4,123	5 3
preserved	4,129	13 11	54	14 11	4,184	10 10	4,124	9 3	34	14 11	4,159	4 8
Glass bottles, covered with wicker, or of green or colour- ed glass	4,249	3 5	34	10 4	4,293	13 9	4,235	18 4	34	17 5	4,279	15 9
of all other sorts	15,681	9 9	453	10 9	16,114	18 6	15,599	5 8	428	18 3	16,027	17 11
Gloves, of leather	34,884	13 8	0	5 6	34,884	18 9	34,860	3 9	0	5 6	34,860	9 3
Grapes	1,265	14 9	116	6 7	1,381	1 4	1,265	14 9	116	6 7	1,381	1 4
Hair, or goat's wool, manufac- ture of	1,053	18 0	0	3 9	1,054	1 8	1,039	16 3	0	3 2	1,039	19 5
Hats or bonnets of straw, chip, hat, cane, or horse- hair	1,077	19 8	0	8 11	1,078	8 7	1,076	14 5	0	8 11	1,077	3 7
Honey	1,374	18 7	197	11 1	1,570	9 8	1,375	10 9	191	17 8	1,566	18 6
Hops	4,379	17 8	22	19 8	4,403	16 11	4,379	17 8	22	19 8	4,403	16 11
Lace (thread)	2,196	4 7	-	-	2,196	4 7	2,195	0 7	-	-	2,195	0 7
made by the hand, com- monly called cushion or willow lace, whether of cotton, silk, or linen thread	11,581	5 9	-	-	11,581	5 9	11,576	19 9	-	-	11,576	19 9

List of Articles.	Gross Produce.						Net Produce.					
	England.		Wentland.		Great Britain.		England.		Wentland.		Great Britain.	
	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.	£	d.
<i>Duties Inwards - continued.</i>												
Liquorice juice and paste	10,607	3 7	2,168	4 7	12,699	7 8	10,891	4 4	2,169	14 6	12,699	13 10
Mace	1,998	16 0	80	0 0	2,078	16 0	1,998	16 0	80	0 0	2,078	16 0
Nuts and nutmegs	4,371	10 8	28	3 0	4,399	13 8	4,371	10 8	28	3 0	4,399	13 8
Medical instruments	18,191	0 0	947	9 9	19,138	9 9	18,191	0 0	947	9 9	19,138	9 9
Mineral waters	18,600	6 4	66	5 10	18,666	11 4	18,600	6 4	66	5 10	18,666	11 4
Oil, tallow, blubber, and spermaceti	69,287	8 4	487	1 5	70,014	4 9	69,287	8 4	487	1 5	70,014	4 9
Chemical, mineral, and perfumes of all sorts	10,829	19 1	166	4 5	10,419	3 6	10,829	19 1	166	4 5	10,419	3 6
Opium	1,928	19 0	3,880	10 7	1,928	19 0	1,928	19 0	3,880	10 7	1,928	19 0
Travellers' and baggage	6,817	10 8			6,817	10 8	6,817	10 8			6,817	10 8
Printed, paper hangings or stained, paper hangings or floor paper	4,137	13 11	149	17 8	4,286	11 7	4,137	13 11	149	17 8	4,286	11 7
of other sorts	929	8 10	2	8 7	927	10 4	929	8 10	2	8 7	927	10 4
of the manufacture of the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	1,597	11 7			1,597	11 7	1,597	11 7			1,597	11 7
Pepper	2,175	15 9	8,537	1 1	8,105	6 10	2,175	15 9	8,537	1 1	8,105	6 10
Picture	2,158	16 8	155	10 0	2,313	8 4	2,158	16 8	155	10 0	2,313	8 4
Prints	871	4 1	44	11 9	915	15 1	871	4 1	44	11 9	915	15 1
Plains, gold, and silver	1,608	14 1	115	3 4	1,723	17 5	1,608	14 1	115	3 4	1,723	17 5
Plating or other manufactures for making hats or bonnets	2,429	6 11	0	1 7	2,429	6 6	2,429	6 11	0	1 7	2,429	6 6
Flannels, drapery or preserved												
French plumes and prunel	4,887	3 5	662	17 4	4,950	2 10	4,887	3 5	662	17 4	4,950	2 10
Iron	1,875	0 10	132	11 11	1,907	15 0	1,875	0 10	132	11 11	1,907	15 0
Iron and drawings	6,160	13 1	978	4 8	7,138	17 9	6,160	13 1	978	4 8	7,138	17 9
Ironware	978	4 8	28	19 7	1,006	13 5	978	4 8	28	19 7	1,006	13 5
Quinine, sulphate of	175,826	16 8	219	3 8	176,045	16 3	175,826	16 8	219	3 8	176,045	16 3
Rice	19,291	16 3			19,291	16 3	19,291	16 3			19,291	16 3
Spices	3,107	0 8			3,107	0 8	3,107	0 8			3,107	0 8
Sugar	1,895	16 4	0	1 11	1,895	16 4	1,895	16 4	0	1 11	1,895	16 4
Wool, clover	75,048	0 3	11,287	8 4	86,335	8 4	75,048	0 3	11,287	8 4	86,335	8 4
Wool, cotton	355,849	6 11	115	4 1	356,004	11 0	355,849	6 11	115	4 1	356,004	11 0
Silk manufactures	799	5 3	846	19 10	1,645	18 3	799	5 3	846	19 10	1,645	18 3
Wool, foreign	801	11 0			801	11 0	801	11 0			801	11 0
Spirits, foreign and colonial:												
Rum	1,150,781	3 9	22,287	18 3	1,173,068	3 11	1,150,781	3 9	22,287	18 3	1,173,068	3 11
Brandy	1,100,816	7 8	44,366	3 6	1,145,182	11 3	1,100,816	7 8	44,366	3 6	1,145,182	11 3
Gin	33,693	1 7	4,783	0 8	38,476	1 9	33,693	1 7	4,783	0 8	38,476	1 9
Liqueur	7,511	0 8	630	9 8	8,141	9 4	7,511	0 8	630	9 8	8,141	9 4
Spirits of the manufacture of the Channel Islands	3,569	6 8	10	12 8	3,580	1 4	3,569	6 8	10	12 8	3,580	1 4
Succedanea and condimentary including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar	3,660	14 3	109	10 8	3,769	4 4	3,660	14 3	109	10 8	3,769	4 4
Sugar, unrefined	3,009,929	19 5	466,548	19 4	3,476,477	19 9	3,009,929	19 5	466,548	19 4	3,476,477	19 9
refined, and sugar candy	25,256	17 11	54	7 9	25,310	5 8	25,256	17 11	54	7 9	25,310	5 8
molasses	27,476	17 4	85,638	9 11	113,114	11 3	27,476	17 4	85,638	9 11	113,114	11 3
Tallow	4,994	0 9			4,994	0 9	4,994	0 9			4,994	0 9
Tea	5,716,728	3 11	472,821	10 4	6,189,549	14 3	5,716,728	3 11	472,821	10 4	6,189,549	14 3
Tobacco and snuff	3,063,901	4 0	229,275	8 8	3,293,176	8 8	3,063,901	4 0	229,275	8 8	3,293,176	8 8
Tops	5,911	3 6	80	3 0	6,021	8 7	5,911	3 6	80	3 0	6,021	8 7
Vin	1,273	18 4			1,273	18 4	1,273	18 4			1,273	18 4
Vermiculite and macaroni	625	19 4	87	16 4	712	15 8	625	19 4	87	16 4	712	15 8
Vinegar	1,273	18 4			1,273	18 4	1,273	18 4			1,273	18 4
Watches	6,980	10 0			6,980	10 0	6,980	10 0			6,980	10 0
Waters, Cologne, in flasks	1,223	1 6			1,223	1 6	1,223	1 6			1,223	1 6
Whale-oil	1,650,462	7 0	137,972	13 11	1,788,435	0 11	1,650,462	7 0	137,972	13 11	1,788,435	0 11
Wine or sweets of the manufacture of the Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	19	19 7			19	19 7	19	19 7			19	19 7
Wood and timber viz:												
Firwood	6,475	1 4	25	16 6	6,499	17 10	6,475	1 4	25	16 6	6,499	17 10
Lashwood	19,174	16 6	1,239	14 8	20,413	11 1	19,174	16 6	1,239	14 8	20,413	11 1
Oars	2,973	4 10	69	9 9	3,042	9 9	2,973	4 10	69	9 9	3,042	9 9
Spar or poles	484,288	17 6	25,414	16 1	509,702	13 9	484,288	17 6	25,414	16 1	509,702	13 9
Deals, battens, &c., sawn or split	475,089	11 8	74,796	9 0	549,885	9 0	475,089	11 8	74,796	9 0	549,885	9 0
Timber, not sawn or split, or otherwise dressed	5,784	13 9	1 1	1 2	5,785	14 4	5,784	13 9	1 1	1 2	5,785	14 4
Woolen manufactures	5,369	12 6	161	9 4	5,530	2 0	5,369	12 6	161	9 4	5,530	2 0
Yarn, worsted	73,105	7 1	2,998	10 10	76,103	17 11	73,105	7 1	2,998	10 10	76,103	17 11
All other articles imported	18,900,251	16 11	1,923,333	8 9	20,013,485	8 8	18,900,251	16 11	1,923,333	8 9	20,013,485	8 8
<i>Duties Outwards.</i>												
Coal, culm, and cinders exported	1,744	37 0	50	4 8	1,795	1 6	1,744	37 0	50	4 8	1,795	1 6
Total duties inwards and outwards	18,091,976	15 11	1,923,303	15 3	20,015,280	8 11	18,091,976	15 11	1,923,303	15 3	20,015,280	8 11
Duties collected at the Isle of Man	659	18 5			659	18 5	659	18 5			659	18 5
Remittances from the plantations	7,000	0 0			7,000	0 0	7,000	0 0			7,000	0 0
Surplus receipts on account of fines and arrears, exclusive of legal expenses	10,405	8 6	270	12 11	10,675	1 5	10,405	8 6	270	12 11	10,675	1 5
Rest of legal quays, warehouse rent, &c.	8,060	13 4			8,060	13 4	8,060	13 4			8,060	13 4
Proceeds of goods sold for the duties, &c.	29,608	10 9	885	16 7	30,493	7 6	29,608	10 9	885	16 7	30,493	7 6
Proceeds of surcharges, sale of old stores, &c.	9,474	9 10	9,092	18 3	11,997	9 1	9,474	9 10	9,092	18 3	11,997	9 1
Total	18,187,712	10 6	1,926,483	1 8	20,114,195	11 8	18,187,712	10 6	1,926,483	1 8	20,114,195	11 8

Ireland.—During the same year, the gross amount of the customs revenue received in Ireland amounted to 2,497,312*l.* 1*s.* 10*d.*, and the net amount to 2,463,150*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*, making the gross customs revenue of the U. Kingdom 22,611,707*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*, and the net revenue 22,276,312*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.*. The charges of collection on the customs revenue of the U. Kingdom during the same year were—

	Gross Britain.	Ireland.
Civil department	714,955 8 0	95,393 12 3
Harbour costs	2,892 18 9	16,375 0 6
Criminals	72,337 4 4	1,000 0 0
Preventive water guard	236,215 4 4	105,431 1 1
Land guard	16,968 8 7	
	1,048,968 7 4	915,200 9 6

To show the distribution of the foreign trade of the country, we subjoin

An Account of the Gross and Net Amount of Customs' Duty received at each Port of the U. Kingdom, during the Years ending the 31st January, 1846 and 1847; distinguishing between England, Scotland, and Ireland, and giving the Total for each.

Ports.	Receipts.	Gross Receipts.						Net Receipts.					
		1845.		1846.		1845.		1846.					
		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
London	11,033,905	16	3	10,855,156	5	8	10,333,702	13	7	10,090,483	1	9	
Aberystwith	283	0	0	156	9	4							
Aldborough	4,789	12	1	3,433	7	4	3,494	3	9	3,900	10	8	
Arundel	2,657	0	0	6,393	11	11	9	3	8	3,993	19	8	
Barnstaple	2,277	0	7	6,993	10	10							
Bosham	12,716	13	10	15,739	14	0	5,046	9	7	7,533	17	10	
Berwick	4,434	18	11	5,944	18	11	2,083	16	4	2,667	19	6	
Bideford	1,810	5	11	1,300	10	0							
Blackney	40,114	11	9	40,064	0	9	36,608	7	4	36,983	11	4	
Boston	6,978	4	5	5,187	15	6	2,533	12	6	2,183	11	4	
Bridgewater	146	4	3	298	11	8							
Bridlington	9,945	18	9	9,471	18	9							
Cardiff	819,149	13	2	811,153	13	2	800,290	0	4	808,317	17	0	
Cardport	8,034	9	11	8,958	5	1	5,636	11	3	6,014	8	0	
Cardiv	486	0	0	1,111	17	6							
Carlisle	46,215	18	3	48,122	5	8	47,016	10	7	46,909	18	0	
Carlisle	5,244	8	5	7,716	10	5	3,404	19	2	3,400	15	6	
Carnarvon	12,991	10	0	11,991	0	0	11,403	11	9	11,331	18	9	
Chester	88,439	0	8	94,764	9	9	66,781	10	8	92,124	13	6	
Cheshire	316	11	11	930	9	11							
Chichester	14,907	1	1	14,900	0	0	9,652	18	11	8,906	14	9	
Colchester	1,961	15	10	3,247	13	0							
Cornwall	4,131	19	9	4,072	3	8							
Dartmouth	1,423	10	10	1,477	5	0							
Deal	106,703	9	9	97,713	7	7	86,366	13	11	85,326	11	1	
Derby	89,179	1	3	25,390	14	1	491	19	9	55,033	5	8	
Dover	106,703	9	9	97,713	7	7	86,366	13	11	85,326	11	1	
Dunfermline	15,836	0	10	14,119	5	7	2,279	10	9	2,484	12	0	
Faversham	5,292	19	1	4,851	0	2							
Ferry	8,975	0	0	4,994	9	0							
Gainsborough	63,939	6	3	61,903	0	0	64,841	6	8	61,128	15	10	
Gloucester	105,436	0	6	115,989	10	0	94,397	14	3	108,077	10	4	
Grimsby	11,048	13	9	11,048	13	9	86,786	16	6	43,326	1	6	
Hull	11,909	15	9	28,758	9	0	9,174	5	8	35,601	19	1	
Hurthorpe	3	0	0										
Harwich	1,407	0	0	1,318	0	3							
Harwich	9,201	6	0	1,966	6	4							
Hastings	5,616	3	3	4,374	6	7	1,793	18	10	1,999	5	8	
Hastings	487,135	10	10	460,809	13	6	448,808	13	4	396,443	13	11	
Haverly	39,890	15	6	37,019	15	0	20,890	6	7	24,882	3	9	
Heath	49	0	0										
Ht. Lee	1,811	11	6	1,493	5	8							
Isle of Man	33,086	1	3	36,869	0	8	13,636	4	4	18,516	12	2	
Leicester	38,980	13	9	30,774	10	11	38,806	7	5	39,039	18	11	
Lancaster	983	1	4	953	6								
Liverpool	3,434,391	11	0	3,089,456	19	0	3,091,432	18	8	3,430,925	1	0	
Lymington	3,118	13	3	3,141	15	0							
Lynn	68,333	3	11	49,613	5	0	38,390	10	3	43,039	9	8	
Manchester	70,381	3	3	187,922	3	8	67,845	11	10	185,490	8	3	
Maiden	4,317	0	9	1,660	8	0							
Maryport	2,333	8	6	7,716	2	4	8,233	14	1	7,192	15	4	
Milford	2,392	17	2	2,916	17	5							
Newcastle	421,034	2	7	483,760	19	1	399,841	14	8	460,450	15	0	
Newhaven	16,248	7	2	15,480	19	1	7,066	8	8	8,267	19	7	
Newport	9,735	10	3	11,191	18	6	7,661	6	6	9,388	13	6	
Padstow	534	2	6	1,064	17	2							
Pembroke	15,458	6	9	18,475	0	6	6,990	18	3	9,359	11	3	
Plymouth	117,183	1	11	108,035	4	5	91,979	7	10	85,377	1	9	
Poole	8,137	8	8	8,856	11	1							
Portsmouth	64,890	3	6	80,278	19	10	34,348	15	2	39,668	18	1	
Princes	66,919	18	7	83,865	8	8	66,360	14	6	81,185	9	11	
Ramsgate	7,935	9	6	10,043	11	9							
Rochester	16,650	5	6	16,921	9	0							
Rye	7,734	2	2	7,053	5	1	3,745	8	5				
Scarborough	4,955	0	0	4,045	0	0							
Seely	89	9	10	81	10	10							
Shoreham	23,644	12	1	25,182	6	1	18,150	16	6	13,337	5	0	
Southampton	6,486	5	9	39,741	13	5	39,096	2	3	36,807	9	11	
Southwold	139	15	8										
Stiction	73,086	13	10	81,654	15	10	66,238	6	1	73,179	15	5	
Sturminster	80,353	11	4	88,906	9	2	71,172	4	10	69,154	9	8	
Swansea	49,011	8	0	45,872	8	7	45,872	7	5	41,537	0	7	
Truro	25,283	10	4	19,834	15	7	21,678	18	3	18,250	9	11	
Walls	167	15	11	35	17	10							
Weymouth	9,024	5	1	8,170	3	0							
Whitby	7,943	10	8	11,060	18	9	3,949	2	8	7,310	14	7	
Whitchurch	67,047	5	0	67,047	5	0	67,047	13	10	64,779	18	11	
Whitechapel	7,911	5	11	14,751	13	0	6,206	13	0	13,550	8	10	
Whitechapel	5,281	7	3	3,233	13	8	500	19	0				
Woodbridge	35,437	0	6	39,781	6	0	39,831	10	0	42,017	11	10	
Yarmouth													
Total England		17,633,569	5	8	18,196,730	9	7	16,525,750	9	8	16,686,669	47	7
SCOTLAND.													
Aberdeen		75,978	9	8	81,433	4	5	67,981	1	17	78,684	5	11
Aberdeen		1,470	15	1,250	0	0	802	19	11	1,167	18	10	
Ayr		702	14	9	814	6	9						
Aberdeen		2,861	10	7	8,072	2							
Barr		1,208	9	1	1,204	17	3,169	18	6	4,616	6	8	
Borrowstouness		1,333	1	5	1,336	4							

Great Britain.	£	s.	d.
4,998	4	4	
18,668	18	10	
3,494	10	6	
9,803	10	6	
4,005	4	3	
29,383	15	5	
18,717	6	0	
6,287	1	0	
40,968	8	2	
10,368	10	10	
1,930	13	3	
87,048	11	0	
4,379	8	0	
920	5	1	
1,597	11	7	
81,870	9	11	
3,371	14	10	
912	15	11	
1,515	5	5	
3,135	17	7	
4,024	10	11	
1,274	4	11	
1,930	13	3	
898	0	4	
185,052	8	8	
19,208	11	11	
1,585	6	8	
86,293	8	2	
379	9	9	
25,517	5	8	
1,044	0	3	
795	13	7	
1,918,985	7	1	
1,165,203	13	2	
28,063	1	0	
8,108	0	4	
3,470	5	8	
3,387	11	7	
5,669,510	7	2	
27,048	18	9	
161,012	10	8	
28,720	10	8	
4,248,995</			

Ports.	Gross Receipt.				Nett Receipt.			
	1845.		1846.		1845.		1846.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
SCOTLAND—continued.								
Cambeltown	91	6 4	9	10 1	-	-	8	31 7
Dumfries	10,616	5 1	11,074	14 1	7,881	15 5	8,003	17 7
Dundee	48,291	2 1	57,028	15 1	40,041	19 10	60,298	12 1
Glasgow	589,567	15 0	651,265	14 8	570,185	15 8	618,078	17 2
Glasgowmouth	15,059	17 0	15,105	18 0	14,407	18 0	15,028	17 1
Girrecock	288,415	5 10	341,477	7 9	260,607	19 5	308,789	15 4
Inverness	5,389	17 11	6,154	10 7	4,472	6 7	5,335	19 1
Inverne	1,185	9 9	1,119	1 9	-	-	1,470	0 5
Kirkcaldy	4,733	19 8	9,097	10 7	-	-	5,569	6 0
Kirkwall	1,041	15 8	1,061	17 10	-	-	-	-
Leith	590,183	15 3	578,594	5 8	591,351	10 0	453,170	1 8
Lawick	406	15 11	549	15 3	-	-	-	-
Montrose	25,653	4 9	26,153	5 8	22,124	6 10	24,690	6 10
Port Glasgow	106,327	10 3	135,418	6 8	100,181	15 4	135,172	9 10
Perth	12,550	19 10	19,854	6 8	11,627	13 0	19,209	1 5
Stornoway	415	0 8	4,890	7 2	-	-	-	-
Stranraer	134	3 3	112	0 6	-	-	-	-
Wick	1,510	19 5	1,232	11 5	-	-	-	-
Total Scotland	1,711,794	16 0	1,924,996	3 4	1,474,673	8 2	1,711,831	3 10
IRELAND.								
Baltimore	211	19 6	781	10 6	-	-	-	-
Belfast	373,284	8 5	365,577	6 8	345,672	7 6	356,661	0 4
Coleraine	4,087	12 2	4,256	16 11	-	-	-	-
Cork	284,121	3 7	319,647	11 5	235,491	2 3	288,045	17 10
Drogheda	11,173	6 10	16,729	15 11	7,852	16 7	13,286	19 9
Dublin	1,017,658	11 2	1,069,436	19 6	960,238	11 7	1,005,935	5 0
Dundalk	55,787	3 1	40,668	15 11	39,110	12 8	36,171	15 11
Galway	31,877	18 2	41,041	13 7	21,096	10 0	31,807	1 2
Limerick	192,849	4 1	238,807	0 6	179,835	10 9	207,157	5 2
Londonderry	109,539	12 0	185,784	10 10	87,242	17 1	115,536	13 8
Newry	20,598	10 2	41,815	11 2	20,691	7 9	20,691	7 9
Ros	12,577	5 3	11,329	11 2	9,301	8 4	14,123	12 1
Sligo	30,617	4 0	35,170	14 2	16,500	18 7	11,228	10 6
Trillick	726	5 8	800	14 11	-	-	-	-
Waterford	162,794	14 5	178,807	3 0	152,321	15 2	167,832	19 6
Wexford	14,129	4 8	18,876	6 0	7,709	6 8	10,301	1 5
Wexford	11,710	12 3	13,551	2 9	5,577	2 8	5,542	12 10
Total Ireland	2,333,125	18 5	2,497,220	8 1	2,091,740	10 3	2,260,951	1 11

ABSTRACT OF THE ABOVE ACCOUNT.

	Gross Receipt.				Nett Receipt.			
	1845.		1846.		1845.		1846.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
England	17,255,569	5 3	18,199,750	9 7	16,227,750	9 6	16,696,689	2 7
Scotland	1,711,794	16 0	1,924,996	3 4	1,474,673	8 2	1,711,831	3 10
Ireland	2,333,125	18 5	2,497,220	8 1	2,091,740	10 3	2,260,951	1 11
Total United Kingdom	21,298,489	19 8	22,621,966	11 0	20,800,163	7 11	20,669,571	8 4

Office of Inspector General of Imports and Exports.—The office of inspector general of imports and exports was established in 1696. The accounts of the trade and navigation of the country, annually laid before parliament, are furnished by this office; and, owing to the ability of the officers, and the improved manner in which these accounts are now made out, they have become of great public importance. Their accuracy must, of course, depend on the accuracy of the entries; but, as respects articles on which the duties are reasonable, or low, and in which, consequently, there is no great temptation to clandestine importation, they may be regarded as nearly accurate. It is now usual to give statements of the quantities of the principal articles exported and imported, as well as of their declared or real values; which is a great improvement. But, on all occasions in which it is practicable, the rates of duty as well as the quantities should be given; for it is needless to say, that without being aware of the former, no sound conclusion can be drawn as to the consumption of any article.

CUTLERY, a term used to designate all manner of sharp and cutting instruments made of iron or steel, as knives, forks, scissors, razors, shears, scythes, &c. Sheffield is the principal seat of the cutlery manufacture; but the few knives and other articles made in London are said to be of superior quality.

The act 59 Geo. 3. c. 7. gives the manufacturers of cutlery made of wrought steel, the privilege of marking or stamping them with the figure of a hammer; and prohibits the manufacturers of any articles of cutlery, edge tools, or hardware, cast or formed in a mould, or manufactured otherwise than by means of a hammer, from marking or impressing upon them the figure of a hammer, or any symbol or device resembling it, on pain of forfeiting all such articles, and 5*l.* for every dozen. A penalty of 10*l.* per dozen, exclusive of forfeiture, is also imposed upon every person having articles of cutlery in his possession for the purpose of sale, marked with the words *London or London made*, unless the article so marked have been really manufactured within the city of London, or a distance of 20 miles from it.

CYPRESS, a forest tree of which there are many varieties, the species denominated the evergreen cypress (*Cupressus sempervirens*) and the white cedar (*Cupressus Thyoides*) being the most celebrated.

The cypress is indigenous to the southern parts of Europe, to several parts of Asia, and to America. It grows to a great size, and is a most valuable species of timber. It is never attacked by worms; and exceeds all other trees, even the cedar, in durability. Hence the Athenians, when desirous to preserve the remains of their heroes and other great men, had them enclosed in cypress coffins; and hence, also, the external covering of the Egyptian mummies is made of the same enduring material. The cypress is said to live to a great age; and this circumstance, combined with its thick dark green foliage, has made it be regarded as the emblem of death and the grave.

In his *Geography and History of the Western States of America*, Mr. Timothy Flint has given the following account of the cypress trees found in the southern parts of the valley of the Mississippi: — "These noble trees rear their straight columns from a large cone-shaped buttress, whose circumference at the ground is, perhaps, 3 times that of the regular shaft of the tree. This cone rises from 6 to 10 feet, with a regular and sharp taper, and from the apex of the cone towers the perpendicular column, with little taper after it has left the cone, from 60 to 80 feet clear shaft. Very near the top it begins to throw out multitudes of horizontal branches, which interlace with those of the adjoining trees, and, when bare of leaves, have an air of desolation and death, more easily felt than described. In the season of vegetation the leaves are short, fine, and of a verdure so deep as almost to seem brown, giving an indescribable air of funeral solemnity to this singular tree. A cypress forest, when viewed from the adjacent hills, with its numberless interlaced arms covered with this dark brown foliage, has the aspect of a scaffolding of verdure in the air. It grows, too, in deep and sickly swamps, the haunts of fever, mosquitoes, moccasin snakes, alligators, and all loathsome and ferocious animals, that congregate far from the abodes of man, and seem to make common cause with nature against him. The cypress loves the deepest, most gloomy, inaccessible awamps; and, south of 33°, is generally found covered with sable festoons of long moss, hanging, like shrouds of mourning wreaths, almost to the ground. It seems to flourish best when water covers its roots for half the year. Unpromising as are the places and circumstances of its growth, no tree of the country where it is found is so extensively useful. It is free from knots, is easily wrought, and makes excellent planks, shingles, and timber of all sorts. It is very durable, and incomparably the most valuable tree in the southern country of this valley." — (Vol. i. p. 62.)

D.

DAMAGED GOODS, in the language of the customs, are goods, subject to duties, that have received some injury either in the voyage home or in the bonded warehouses.

It is enacted by the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52., that if any goods rated to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof (except those after mentioned), shall receive damage during the voyage, an abatement of such duties shall be allowed proportionally to the damage so received; provided proof be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs, or of officers acting under their direction, that such damage was received after the goods were shipped abroad in the ship importing the same, and before they were landed in the U. Kingdom; and provided claim to such abatement of duties be made at the time of the first examination of such goods. — § 30.

It is further enacted, that the officers of customs shall examine such goods, and may state the damage which, in their opinion, they have so received, and may make a proportionate abatement of duties; but if the officers of customs be incompetent to estimate such damage, or if the importer be not satisfied with the abatement made by them, the collector and comptroller shall choose 2 indifferent merchants experienced in the nature and value of such goods, who shall examine the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration, stating in what proportion, according to their judgment, the goods are lessened in value by such damage, and the officers of customs may make an abatement of the duties according to the proportion of damage declared by such merchants. — § 31.

Provided always, that no abatement of duties shall be made on account of any damage received by any of the sorts of goods herein enumerated; viz. cocoa, coffee, oranges, pepper, currants, raisins, figs, tobacco, lemons, and wine. — § 32.

DAMAR, a kind of indurated pitch or turpentine exuding spontaneously from various trees indigenous to most of the Indian islands. Different trees produce different species of resin, which are designated according to their colour and consistence. "One is called *Damar-batu* in Malay, or *Damar-selo* in Javanese, which means hard or stony resin; and another in common use, *Damar-Puteh*, or white resin, which is softer. The trees which produce the damar yield it in amazing quantity, and generally without the necessity of making incisions. It exudes through the bark; and is either found adhering to the trunk or branches in large lumps, or in masses on the ground under the trees. As these often grow near the sea-side, or on the banks of rivers, the damar is frequently floated away, and collected in distant places as drift. It is exported in large quantities to Bengal and China; and is used for all the purposes to which we apply pitch, but principally in paying the bottoms of ships. By a previous arrangement, almost any quantity may be procured at Borneo, at the low rate of $\frac{1}{4}$ dollar per picul." — (*Crawford, East. Archip.* vol. i. p. 455, vol. iii. p. 420.)

DAMASK (*Ger. Damaskwerk*; *Fr. Venise, Damas*; *It. Tela damaschina*; *Sp. Tela adamasca*; *Rus. Kantschatniü salf'thi*), a species of table linen. — (See **LINEN**.)

DANTZIC, one of the principal emporiums of the north of Europe, in West Prussia, lat. 54° 20' 48" N., lon. 18° 38' E. Population, in 1838, 56,257. It is situated on the left or western bank of the Vistula, about 4 miles from its embouchure. The harbour, Neufährwasser, at the mouth of the river, is defended on each side by pretty strong forts. The town is traversed by the small river Motlau, which has been rendered navigable for vessels drawing 8 or 9 feet water.

Roads, Port, &c. — The road or bay of Dantzic is covered on the west side by a long, narrow, low, sandy tongue of land, extending from Reserhoff Point (on which is a light-house), in lat. 54° 50', lon. 20° 23' 18", upwards of 20 miles, in an E. by S. direction, having the small town of Heela, or Heel, near its termination. A light-house, elevated 123 feet (Eng.) above the level of the sea, has been erected within about ¼ mile of the extremity of this point. The flashes of the light, which is a revolving one, succeed each other every ¼ minute. Dantzic lies about S. ¼ W. from the Heel; its port being distant about 4 leagues. There is good anchorage in the roads for ships of any burden; but they are exposed, except immediately under the Heel, to the north and north-easterly winds. There are harbour lights at the entrance to the port. All ships entering the Vistula must heave to about a mile off the port, and take a pilot on board; and pilots must always be employed in moving ships in the harbour, or in going up and down the river. The usual depth of water at the mouth of the river is from 12 to 13 feet (Eng.); in the harbour, from 13 to 14 feet; at the confluence of the Motlau with the Vistula, from 9 to 9½ feet; and in town, from 8 to 9 feet. Moles have been erected on both sides the entrance to the harbour; that on the eastern side, which is most exposed, is constructed of granite, but is not yet completed; the other is partly of stone and partly of timber.

Trade of Dantzic. — Next to Petersburg, Dantzic is the most important commercial city in the north of Europe. It owes its distinction in this respect to its situation; the Vistula, with its important tributaries the Bug, Narw, &c. giving it the command of a great internal navigation, and rendering it the *entrepôt* where the surplus products of West Prussia, Poland as far as Hungary, and part of Lithuania, are exchanged for those imported from the foreigner. The exports of wheat from Dantzic are greater than from any other port in the world, Odessa, perhaps, excepted. There are four sorts of wheat distinguished here; viz. *white, high-mixed, mixed, and red*, according as the white or red predominates. The quality of Dantzic wheat is for the most part excellent; for, though small in the berry, and not so heavy as many other sorts, it is remarkably thin skinned, and yields the finest flour. The white Polish wheat exported here is the best in the Baltic. Rye is also very superior, being both clean and heavy; the exports are very large. The exports of barley and oats are comparatively inconsiderable, and the qualities but indifferent. Very fine white peas are exported. Next to grain, timber is the most important article of export from Dantzic; but latterly the supply has been diminishing, and the quality is said not to be so good as formerly.—(*Meek.*) The principal supply of fir timber, masts, &c. is brought by the River Narw, which, with its branches, rises in Old Prussia and Lithuania, and falls into the Bug near the confluence of the latter with the Vistula. Oak plank, staves, &c. are brought down from the higher parts of the Vistula, and the tributary streams of Dunajetz, Wieprez, &c. Weed ashes, pearlshes, bones, zinc, wool, spruce beams, feathers, &c. are also exported.

Imports. — These consist principally of herrings, sugar, coffee, wine, cotton and cotton yarns; iron and steel, spices, furs, woollens, hardware, silks, indigo, dyewoods, &c., but their value is inconsiderable, as compared with that of the exports.

Account of the Articles exported from Dantzic by Sea in 1847 and 1846, specifying the Quantities sent to each Country in 1847, with the total Quantity and Value of each Article.

Articles.	Exports in 1847 to					Total Quantities exported in 1847.	Value of Exports in 1847.	Total Quantities exported in 1846.
	United Kingdom, Jersey, and Guernsey.	Belgium.	Holland.	France.	All other Countries.			
Wheat - - imp. qrs.	255,224	14,752	48,804	33,432	777	392,989	1,085,412	260,064
Rye - - - - -	6,552	-	2,100	-	5,099	5,999	19,105	9,072
Barley - - - - -	6,552	-	94	-	-	315	6,961	943
Oats - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1572
Peas - - - - -	8,022	-	1,564	-	-	84	9,670	11,182
Linseed - - - - -	501	-	1,979	-	-	-	4,236	4,260
Rapeseed - - - - -	8,882	2,866	1,365	-	-	-	12,473	20,888
Flour barrels of 195 lbs.	1,498	-	4,519	7,748	24	1,518	4,650	14
Battle fir - - - - -	121,592	147	6	1,518	81	123,699	200,042	127,111
Staves and spars - - - - -	16	-	6	1,518	81	1,663	19,478	316
Deals - - - - -	16,000	24,597	21,548	21,466	101,108	278,718	28,066	314,967
Sleepers - - - - -	514,189	8,163	2,355	-	-	-	344,618	40,423
Freemils - - - - -	4,996	-	-	96	1,156	-	6,254	1,251
Lathwood - - - - -	2,859	-	-	-	7	2,874	14,365	2,709
Oak timber - - - - -	1,462	-	-	1,072	977	3,504	7,008	2,176
Planks - - - - -	36,065	-	-	7,369	7,981	61,415	20,819	31,481
Wheel spokes & fellos shooks	-	-	-	-	883	-	327	458
Staves - - - - -	212	-	24	258	112	592	25,885	636
Sundry petty sorts of wood	-	-	-	-	-	-	165	57
Linen - - - - -	60	-	113	-	100	275	1,362	1,800
Asiatic wood - - - - -	-	538	413	-	47	778	1,362	713
Hones - - - - -	9,178	-	-	-	-	9,178	2,491	15,702
Spelter - - - - -	12,515	-	-	-	16,891	29,106	48,139	27,754
Black beer - - - - -	7,070	-	-	6	30	7,506	3,888	6,255
Spirits, raw & distilled	3	-	-	-	-	3	7	612
Mats - - - - -	99,820	5,420	15,435	10,815	175	131,665	5,292	84,074
Other articles - - - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,172	-
Total value of exports in 1847						21,658,257		

It will be seen from this statement that the average price of the wheat exported from Dantzic in 1847 amounted to very near 55s. a quarter. The total value of the exports in 1846 amounted to 1,208,022*l.*

unnavigable, especially in dry seasons, except in spring, and after the midsummer rains, when the snow melts on the Carpathian mountains. The navigation of the Polish rivers in some seasons is more than usually bad. The corn from the upper provinces does not reach Dantzie till from 2 to 4 months later than usual, and is burdened with a very heavy additional expense. In fact, the supplies of grain at Dantzie depend quite as much on the abundance of water in the rivers, or on their easy navigation in summer, as on the goodness of the harvest.

"There are," says Mr. Jacob, "two modes of conveying wheat to Dantzie by the Vistula. That which grows near the lower parts of the river, comprehending Polish Russia, and part of the province of Plock, and of Masovia, in the kingdom of Poland, which is generally of an inferior quality, is conveyed in covered boats, with shifting boards that protect the cargo from the rain, but not from pilfering. These vessels are long, and draw about 15 inches water, and bring about 160 quarters of wheat. They are not, however, so well suited for the upper part of the river. From Cracow, wherever the Vistula first becomes navigable, to below the junction of the Bug with that stream, the wheat is mostly conveyed to Dantzie in open flats. These are constructed on the banks, in seasons of leisure, on spots far from the ordinary reach of the water, but which, when the rains of autumn, or the melted snow of the Carpathian mountains in the spring, fill and overflow the river, are easily floated.

"Barges of this description are about 75 feet long, and 20 broad, with a depth of 2½ feet. They are made of fir, rudely put together, fastened with wooden treenails, the corners dovetailed and secured with slight iron clamps,—the only iron employed in their construction.

"A large tree, the length of the vessel, runs along the bottom, to which the timbers are secured. This roughly cut keelson rises 9 or 10 inches from the floor, and hurdles are laid on it, which extend to the sides. They are covered with mats made of rye-straw, and serve the purpose of dunnage, leaving below a space in which the water that leaks through the sides and bottom is received. The bulk is kept from the sides and ends of the barge by a similar plan. The water which these ill-constructed and imperfectly caulked vessels receive, is dipped out at the end and sides of the bulk of wheat.

"Vessels of this description draw from 10 to 12 inches water, and yet they frequently get aground in descending the river. The cargoes usually consist of from 180 to 200 quarters of wheat.

"The wheat is piled at night at the gangways, and left uncovered, exposed to all the inclemencies of the weather, and to the pilfering of the crew. During the passage, the barge is carried along by the force of the stream, oars being merely used at the head and stern, to steer clear of the sand banks, which are numerous and shifting, and to direct the vessel in passing under the several bridges. These vessels are conducted by 6 or 7 men. A small boat precedes, with a man in it, who is employed sounding, in order to avoid the shifting shoals. This mode of navigating is necessarily very slow; and during the progress of it, which lasts several weeks, and even months, the rain, if any fall, soon causes the wheat to grow, and the vessel assumes the appearance of a floating meadow. The shooting of the fibres soon forms a thick mat, and prevents the rain from penetrating more than an inch or two. The main bulk is protected by this kind of covering, and, when that is thrown aside, is found in tolerable condition.

"The vessels are broken up at Dantzie, and usually sell for about ½ of their original cost. The men who conduct them return on foot.

"When the cargo arrives at Dantzie or Elbing, all but the grown surface is thrown on the land, spread abroad, exposed to the sun, and frequently turned over, till any slight moisture it may have imbibed is dried. If a shower of rain falls, as well as during the night, the heaps of wheat on the shore are thrown together in the form of a steep roof of a house, that the rain may run off, and are covered with a linen cloth. It is thus frequently a long time after the wheat has reached Dantzie, before it is fit to be placed in the warehouses.

"The warehouses (*speichers*) are very well adapted for storing corn. They consist generally of 7 stories, 3 of which are in the roof. The floors are about 9 feet asunder. Each of them is divided by perpendicular partitions, the width length, about 4 feet high, by which different parcels are kept distinct from each other. Thus, each of the divisions, each of them capable of storing from 160 to 200 quarters of wheat, and leaving sufficient space for turning and sowing it. There are abundance of windows on each floor, which are always thrown open, in dry weather to ventilate the corn. It is usually turned over 3 times a week. The men who perform the operation throw it with their shovels as high as they can, and thus the grain are separated from each other, and exposed to the drying influence of the air.

"The whole of the corn warehouses now left (for many were burnt during the siege of 1814) are capable of storing 300,000 quarters of wheat, supping the quarters to be large enough to fill each of the 2 divisions of the floors with a separate heap; but as of late years it has come down from Poland in smaller parcels than formerly, and of more various qualities, which must of necessity be kept distinct, the present stock of about 200,000 quarters is found to occupy nearly the whole of these warehouses which are in repair, or are advantageously situated for loading the ships. Ships are loaded by gangs of porters, with great despatch, who will complete a cargo of 600 quarters in about 3 or 4 hours."—(*First Report*.)

Mr. Meek gives, in his excellent Report on the Prices of Corn and other Articles in the N. of Europe, the following details with respect to Dantzie:—

"Wheat of moderate quality in ordinary seasons cannot be brought from Poland and delivered at Dantzie at less than 35s. per quarter, and that only when no excitement exists in the foreign markets. Some time since a very large accumulation of grain had in the course of several years taken place in the granaries at Dantzie, but the great export which has occurred during the last 3 or 4 years has so reduced the magazines, that the stock at the close of the present season (1841) was not expected to exceed from 80,000 to 100,000 quarters. The demand has been so great during the last 2 or 3 years, that every effort has been made to collect in Poland all the supplies that were available, and to bring them to Dantzie for exportation. If the corn trade in England was so modified as to be constantly open at a moderate duty, it is not likely, under such circumstances, that shipments of wheat from Dantzie would materially exceed that of the last 2 or 3 years. Not more than 5,000 quarters are consumed annually in Dantzie, by a population of 60,000 persons, the people generally preferring and living upon rye bread. Of the corn exported from Dantzie, one-third comes from that part of Poland which belongs to Prussia, and the remaining two-thirds from the Russian territory. Apprehensions were expressed here, as in other places, of the competition of Odessa and America, in the event of any material reduction of the duty on corn in England. The party making the observation, who is a leading corn merchant in Dantzie, said he had at that moment a cargo of Odessa corn in London which stood him in 45s. per quarter, and that he could purchase there Odessa wheat of similar quality at 48s. per quarter. The same apprehensions were expressed by others as to Odessa, exports from which place having already been largely made to Italy and other parts of the Mediterranean; and recently, it was added, several cargoes had been shipped to England. On pressing one of the most intelligent merchants in Dantzie to state what price was paid to the landed proprietor or farmer in Poland for a quarter of wheat on the estate where it was grown, or at the nearest market to that estate, he replied, that it was generally bought by the Jews upon the estates from the landowners or their agents, and afterwards sold by the former to the merchants at Dantzie, deliverable at Dantzie; that in some instances the princes and great landowners sent their own commissioners to Dantzie to effect sales to the merchants; that a Russian prince, who had 10,000 serfs, had acted upon the principle very recently, that under such circumstances it would not be right to take less than 35s. per quarter, as the price at which wheat, when there was a fair average crop, could be delivered at Dantzie, from which, deducting 12s. per quarter for the expense of bringing it from the place of growth to Dantzie, including waste, which is generally very considerable, cost of the boats, which are broken up and sold for a trifle compared with their original cost (amounting, perhaps, to 400 or 500 roubles, whereas they are only sold for about 40), the expense of the peasants and other persons nav-

by far the most essential article of food for the lower classes of Medina; their harvest is expected with as much anxiety, and attended with as much general rejoicing, as the vintage in the south of Europe; and if the crop fails, which often happens, as those trees are seldom known to produce abundantly for 3 or 4 successive years, or is eaten up by the locusts, universal gloom overspreads the population, as if a famine were apprehended." — (*Travels in Arabia*, vol. ii. p. 214.)

There is an endless variety of dates. Generally, however, they may be described as being somewhat in the shape of an acorn, but usually larger, consisting of a thick fleshy substance, including and freely separating from an oblong stone or kernel, having a furrow on the one side. Their taste is agreeably sweet, accompanied with a slight astringency. The new fruit is called by the Arabs *rusteh*. When the dates are allowed to remain on the tree till they are quite ripe, and have become soft and of a high red colour, they are formed into a hard solid paste or cake called *adjose*. This is formed by pressing the ripe dates forcibly into large baskets, each containing about 2 cwt. "In this state," says Burckhardt, "the Bedouins export the adjose; in the market it is cut out of the basket, and sold by the pound." It forms part of the daily food of all classes of people; in travelling it is dissolved in water, and thus affords a sweet and refreshing drink. During the monsoon, the ships from the Persian Gulf bring adjose from Busorah to Djidda for sale in small baskets weighing about 10 lbs. each: this kind is preferred to every other. Ships bound from Arabia for India take with them a considerable quantity of adjose, which is readily disposed of amongst the Mohammedans of Hindostan." — (*Travels in Arabia*, vol. i. p. 87.)

The Arabians and Egyptians use the leaves of the tree in the preparation of bags and baskets; the boughs, the outer and inner bark of the trunk, and the fleshy substance at the root of the leaves, where they spring from the trunk, have all their respective uses; and besides this, the kernels of the fruit, notwithstanding their hardness, are used as food for cattle; they are soaked for two days in water, when they become softened, and are given to camels, cows, and sheep, instead of barley; they are said to be much more nutritive than that grain. There are shops at Medina in which nothing else is sold but date kernels; and the beggars are continually employed in all the main streets in picking up those that are thrown away. — (*Burckhardt*, vol. ii. p. 212.)

All the refinements of Arabian cookery are exhausted in the preparation of dates; and the Arabs say that a good housewife will daily supply her lord, for a month, with a dish of dates differently dressed.

Palm trees are raised by shoots; and Dr. Shaw mentions that they arrive at their vigour in about 30 years, and continue so 70 years afterwards, being yearly 15 or 20 clusters of dates, each of them weighing 15 or 20 lbs.: after this period, they begin to decline. — (*Travels in the Levant*, p. 142. 4to ed.)

The best dates imported into Great Britain are said to come from Tunis, but they are most commonly brought from Smyrna and Alexandria. They should be chosen large, softish, not much wrinkled, of a reddish yellow colour on the outside, with a whitish membrane betwixt the flesh and the stone. Those that are dry and hard are of little value.

DEALS, or DEAL BOARDS (Ger. *Dielen*; Du. *Deelen*; Da. *Daler*; Sw. *Tyl-jor*; Fr. *Planches minces*; It. *Tavole, Piane*; Rus. *Doski*; Pol. *Tarcice*), a thin kind of fir planks, much used in carpentry: they are formed by sawing the trunk of a tree into longitudinal divisions, of greater or less thickness, according to the purposes they are intended to serve. They are imported from Dantzic, Petersburg, Narva, and many other ports in the Baltic, and from North America; but those from Christiania, the capital of Norway, are the best, and bring the highest price. They are distinguishable from those produced in the contiguous provinces of Norway; their superiority has been said to depend principally on their being more perfectly sawed; but it really depends on the greater care with which the sap-wood and other defective portions of the timber are cut away, and on the quality of the timber.

A Russian standard deal is 12 feet long, 11 inches wide, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick; 400 feet of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch plank make a load.

A Christiania standard deal is 11 feet long, 9 inches wide, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. There is another standard of Norway deals at Dram, 10 feet long, 9 inches wide, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. — (See CHRISTIANIA.)

DEBENTURE, a term used at the Custom-house to signify the certificate subscribed by the customs officers, and given to the exporter of goods on which a bounty or drawback is allowed, bearing that the exporter has complied with the required regulations, and that he is entitled to such bounty or drawback.

It is enacted by 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 86, that no drawback or bounty shall be allowed upon the exportation of any goods, unless entered in the name of the real owner thereof, or of the person who had actually purchased and shipped the same, in his own name and at his own risk, on commission.

Such owner or commission merchant shall make and subscribe a declaration on the debenture that the goods have been actually exported, and are not to be re-landed in any part of the U. Kingdom, &c.; and if such owner or commission merchant shall not have purchased the right to such drawback or bounty, he shall declare under his hand in the entry, and in his oath upon the debenture, the person who is entitled thereto; and the name of such person shall be inserted in the socket, and in the debenture, and his receipt on the latter shall be the discharge of such drawback or bounty. — § 87.

For these and the other clauses in the act relating to debentures, see IMPORTATION and EXPORTATION.

All debentures must be on 5s. stamps.

Debentures or certificates for bounty on the exportation of limes or salletto exempted from duty.

DELFT, or DELF (Ger. *Fayence, Unachtes Porzel'an*; Du. *Delfs porcelyn*; Fr. *Faience*), a coarse species of porcelain originally manufactured at Delft, whence its name. It is now rarely used in this country.

DEMURRAGE, in commercial navigation, is an allowance made to the master or owners of a ship by the freighter, for detaining her in port longer than the period agreed upon for her sailing. It is usually stipulated in charterparties and bills of lading, that a certain number of days, called running or working days, shall be allowed for receiving or discharging the cargo, and that the freighter may detain the vessel for a further specified time, or as long as he pleases, on payment of so much *per diem* for such over-time. When the contract of affreightment expressly stipulates that so many

days shall be allowed for discharging or receiving the cargo, and so many more for overtime, such limitation is interpreted as an express stipulation on the part of the freighter, that the vessel shall in no event be detained longer, and that if detained he will be liable for demurrage. This holds even in cases where the delay is not occasioned by any fault on the freighter's part, but is inevitable. If, for example, a ship be detained, owing to the crowded state of the port, for a longer time than is allowed by the contract, demurrage is due; and it is no defence to an action for demurrage, that it arose from port regulations, or even from the unlawful acts of the Custom-house officers. Demurrage is not, however, claimable for a delay occasioned by the hostile detention of the ship, or the hostile occupation of the intended port; nor is it claimable for any delay wilfully occasioned by the master, or owners, or crew of the vessel. The claim for demurrage ceases as soon as the ship is cleared out and ready for sailing, though she should be detained by adverse winds, or tempestuous weather. — (*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. pp. 426—431.)

DENARIUS, a Roman coin, estimated by Dr. Arbuthnot to have been worth $7\frac{1}{2}$ d.; but its value differed at different periods.

DENIER, a small French coin, of which there were 12 to a sol.

DIAMOND (Ger. Du. Da. and Fr. *Diamant*; Sw. *Demant*, *Diamant*; It. Sp. and Port. *Diamante*; Rus. *Almas*; Pol. *Dyament*; Lat. *Adamus*; Hind. *Hira*), a precious stone which has been known from the remotest ages. Pliny has described it (*Hist. Nat.* lib. 37. § 4.); but his account is, in many respects, inaccurate. It is found in different parts of India, and in Borneo; it is also found in Brazil, on which, indeed, Europe may be said to be at present entirely dependent for supplies of diamonds. Hitherto, however, it has not been met with any where except within the tropics. It is the most beautiful and most valuable of precious stones. Its most common colours are white and grey of various shades. It occurs also red, blue, brown, yellow, and green. The colours are commonly pale. It is always crystallised, but sometimes so imperfectly that it might pass for amorphous. It is the hardest body in nature. External lustre from splendid to glimmering; internal always splendid. It is brittle; its specific gravity is 3.5. When rubbed, it becomes positively electric, even before it has been cut by the lapidary, which is not the case with any other gem. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

According to Mr. Milburn (*Orient. Com.*), the colour should be perfectly crystalline, resembling a drop of clear spring water, in the middle of which you will perceive a strong light playing with a great deal of spirit. If the coat be smooth and bright, with a little tincture of green in it, it is not the worse, and seldom proves bad; but if there be a mixture of yellow with the green, then beware of it — it is a soft, greasy stone, and will prove bad.

Tests of Diamonds. Cutting, &c. — To ascertain whether any specimen is a true diamond or not, a fine file may be used; and if the surface of the stone be the least abraded or scratched by its action, it is not a diamond. The difference will also appear upon close examination without this instrument; the rays of light easily pass through other gems, but in the diamond they are refracted to the surface, which occasions its superior brilliancy. If the specimen under examination be very minute, it may be placed between 2 half-crowns, or other flat metallic surfaces, and pressed with the thumb and finger: if a diamond, it will not be injured; but if otherwise, it will break and fall to powder. On account of the extreme hardness of the diamond, the art of cutting and polishing it was for a long time unknown in Europe. But, in 1456, a young man of the name of Louis Berghen, a native of Bruges, is said to have constructed a polishing wheel for the purpose, which was fed with diamond powder instead of corundum, which the Chinese and Hindoos had been long accustomed to employ. Berghen was led to this discovery by observing the action produced by rubbing 2 rough diamonds together. Diamonds are cut into brilliants and rose diamonds: the former being, for the most part, made out of the octahedral crystals, and the latter from the spheroidal varieties. — (*Joyce's Practical Mineralogy*; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*, &c.)

Commercial Value of Diamonds. — In the great or wholesale trade there is but little fluctuation in the price of those diamonds which may be termed stones in general demand. I will begin with brilliants from 1 grain to 24 grains each. — Such brilliants, double cut, and what may be termed fine, are worth from 7*l.* to 8*l.* per carat. Needy sellers may take 10 per cent. less for cash; but this is the general average price for a lot of 10, 20, or 50 carats of well-made stones, if the quality be good.

Brilliant, from 2 grains to 3, may be bought in lots, at from 7*l.* 7*s.* to 8*l.* per carat. It is to be understood, that diamonds in a lot are never all quite free from faults; hence there may arise a difference of 10 per cent. in the price. Stones of 3 grains, if fine and perfect, are always in demand, at 8*l.* or 9*l.* per carat.

Brilliant, from 3 grains to 4, if very fine and well proportioned, are worth from 8*l.* to 9*l.* per carat. Those of a carat each, if very fine and well selected, are worth 9*l.* or 10*l.* Three years ago I offered 12*l.* each for 8, and could not obtain them.

Brilliant, from 5 grains to 6, if pure, are worth from 13*l.* to 14*l.*; if perfectly fine, and of the full weight of 6 grains, they are worth from 17*l.* to 18*l.* each: I have, for such, paid 20*l.*

Brilliant, of 2 carats each, are worth from 27*l.* to 30*l.* Stones of this weight, if well proportioned, are considered of a fine size, and well calculated for pins, or the centre of clusters; indeed, well proportioned diamonds, from 5 grains to 8 carats each, are always in demand, and are retailed at from 20*l.* to 35*l.* each, according to their degree of perfection, or as the retailer may think fit to charge them.

For Brilliants of 3 carats, if fine and well formed, from 70*l.* to 80*l.* may be obtained. Stones of this size, and larger, are more liable to capricious fluctuations of price than the smaller ones before named, being chiefly required for the centre stones of saleable necklaces.

Brilliant of 4 carats, if fine, are worth from 100*l.* to 150*l.* I have sold stones, single cut, a little of colour, of this weight, at 80 guineas. I possessed one of 17 grains, perfectly white, having a surface as large as that of a 7 carat stone ought to be; it was, consequently, very thin, but being much in request, on account of its great spread, or surface, it was sold for 160*l.*

Brilliant of 5 carats are not frequently met with in general trade, and are valuable in price; as the dealers exact more if they know that such stones are wanted, than they would in the regular course of business. The prices may be said to vary from 180*l.* to 200*l.*

"Brilliants of 6 carats, as before stated, are not common; they are suitable for centre stones of expensive necklaces, and single stone rings; if perfect and well shaped, they sell for 200*l.* or more.

"For estimating the value of peculiarly fine diamonds, there is no fixed standard. Rough diamonds, selected as fine, and well formed for cutting, may be estimated as follows:—Square the weight of the stone, multiply the product by 2, and the result will be the value in pounds sterling. Brilliants, if fine, may be estimated by squaring the weight in carats, and multiplying the product by 6, which will give the amount in pounds sterling.

"As a very large property, both in this kingdom and in other countries of Europe, is vested in diamonds, it may be interesting to be informed, that not only the price of these gems has for several years been, upon the whole, gradually rising, but that it is likely to continue on the advance. At the present time, indeed, and for the last few years, there has been a dull sale of diamonds in England, nor did the coronation occasion a demand worth notice; but on the Continent the trade has been steady, and rough diamonds have been constantly rising in price. That this advance will be progressive, may be assumed from the fact, that the best diamond ground now known, the *Serro do Frio* in Brazil, has assuredly passed the zenith of its prosperity. I went over the greater part of what is yet reserved, and still remains to be worked, and I conceive that there would be no difficulty in calculating the length of time in which the present number of workmen may reduce it to a state of exhaustion, like that of the far-famed Golconda. The average annual produce of future years may be estimated by the amount obtained from that portion which has been already worked. Brazil may be said to furnish Europe with 25,000 or 30,000 carats *per annum* of rough diamonds; which, if reduced to brilliants, may make an influx into the market of 8,000 or 9,000 carats annually."—*Mawe's Treatise on Diamonds*, 2d ed. pp. 9–14, and p. 66.)

The rule stated by Mr. Mawe, and adopted by the jewellers, for estimating the value of diamonds, (multiplying the square of the weight in carats by 2, and the product is the value in pounds sterling,) can only hold in the case of those that are of a small size, or do not weigh more than 20 carats. The value of the largest diamonds, which are exceedingly rare, (*non nisi regibus et iis admodum paucis cognitis*, Pliny,) can, it is clear, depend upon nothing but the competition of the purchasers. The diamond belonging to the Emperor of Brazil is the largest in the world. It is still uncut, and weighs 1,680 carats; so that, according to the jewellers' rule, it must be worth the enormous sum of 5,664,000*l.* It may, however, be doubted, whether his Imperial Majesty would have any disinclination to part with it for the odd sum of 644,800*l.* The famous diamond belonging to the Emperor of Russia, which the jewellers tell us is worth 4,804,000*l.*, did not cost 150,000*l.*

Diamonds are not used exclusively as articles of ornament or luxury. They are frequently employed with great advantage in the arts. "Bad discoloured diamonds," says Mr. Mawe, "are sold to break into powder, and may be said to have a more extensive sale than brilliants, with all their captivating beauty. In many operations of art they are indispensable; the fine cameo and intaglio owe their perfection to the diamond, with which alone they can be engraved. The beauty of the onyx would yet remain dormant, had not the unrivalled power of the diamond been called forth to the artist's assistance. The carnelian, the agate, or cat's-paw, cannot be engraved by any other substance; every crest or letter cut upon hard stone is indebted to the diamond. This is not all; for without it, blocks of crystal could not be cut into slices for spectacles, agate for snuff-boxes, &c."

Diamonds may be landed without report, entry, or warrant.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 2.)
The carat grain used in weighing diamonds is different from the Troy grain, 5 diamond grains being only equal to 4 Troy grains.

DIAPER (Ger. *Drell*; Du. *Drel*; Fr. *Linge ouré*; It. *Tela tessuta a opere*; Sp. *Monteles alemanicas*; Rus. *Salfetatschnoe*), a sort of fine flowered linen, commonly used for table-cloths, napkins, &c., brought to the highest perfection in the manufactories in the north of Ireland, in Germany, and Scotland.

DICE (Ger. *Würfel*; Du. *Taarlingen*; Fr. *Dés (à jouer)*; It. *Dadi*; Sp. *Dados*; Rus. *Kosti*), cubical pieces of bone or ivory, marked with dots on each of their sides from 1 to 6, according to the number of the face. The regulations as to the manufacture and sale of dice are the same as those with respect to CARDS (which see). Every pair of dice is to pay a duty of 20*s.* All pieces of ivory, bone, or other matter used in any game, having letters, figures, spots, or other marks denoting any chance, marked thereon, to be adjudged dice; and if more than 6 chances are signified on any one piece, then such piece to be charged with the full duty of a pair of dice.—(9 Geo. 4. c. 18.)

DIMITY (Fr. *Basin*; It. *Dobletto*; Sp. *Dimite*), a species of cross-barr'd stuff entirely composed of cotton, similar in fabric to fustian.

DISCOUNT, an allowance paid on account of the immediate advance of a sum of money not due till some future period. It is usually said to be of two kinds; viz. discount of bills, and discount of goods; but they are essentially the same.

When a bill of exchange is presented at a banker's for discount, it is the practice to calculate the simple interest for the time the bill has to run, including the days of grace, which interest is called the *discount*; and this being deducted from the amount of the bill, the balance is paid over to the presenter of the bill. This is the method followed by the Bank of England, the London and provincial bankers, and by commercial men in general. But it is, notwithstanding, inaccurate. The true discount of any sum for any given time is such a sum as will in that time amount to the interest of the sum to be discounted. Thus, if interest be five per cent., the proper discount to be received for the immediate advance of 100*l.* due 12 months hence is not 5*l.*, but 4*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.*; for this sum will, at the end of the year, amount to 5*l.*, which is what the 100*l.* would have produced. Those, therefore, who employ their money in discounting, make somewhat more than the ordinary rate of interest upon it; for a person discounting 100*l.* due at the end of a year, advances, supposing interest to be 5 per cent., only 95*l.*; so that, as this 95*l.* produces 100*l.* at the period in question, the interest received has really been 5*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.* per cent.

The rule for calculating discount on correct principles is as follows:—

As the amount of 100*l.* for the given rate and time
is to the given sum or debt |
So is 100*l.* to the present worth, or
So is the interest of 100*l.* for the given time
To the discount of the given sum.

Mr. Smart has calculated, on this principle, a Table of the discount of 1*l.* for any number of days, at 2, 2½, 3, 3½, &c. to 10 per cent., to 8 decimal places. But the simple interest of the sum being the only thing looked to in practice, such Tables are hardly ever referred to.

Bills on the highest credit are discounted on the lowest terms; the discount increasing according to the suspicions entertained of the punctuality or solvency of the parties subscribing the bills. During the war, the rate of interest, or, which is the same thing, of discount, was comparatively high; but since 1818, the rate of discount upon good bills has seldom been above 4, and has often been as low as 3 and even 2½ per cent.

Discount on merchandise takes place when, after making a purchase of goods at a fixed term of credit, the buyer finds means to make his payment before the expiration of that term, receiving from the seller a discount or allowance, which is commonly a good deal above the current rate of interest. The discount on goods varies, of course, according to the interest of money. During the late war, the loans to government were so large, and the facility of investing money was such, that the discount on goods was often as high as 5 per cent. for 6, and 10 per cent. for 12 months. Now, however, the discount on goods has fallen, with the fall in the rate of interest, to 7 or 7½ per cent. for 12 months; being about double the current interest arising from funded property, or the discount of good mercantile bills.

Long credits and discounts upon goods have, for a lengthened period, been usual in England. This arose from a variety of causes, but principally, perhaps, from the magnitude of our exports to the United States, Russia, and other countries where there is a great demand for capital; but in whatever causes it originated, it has latterly been carried to what seems to be an injurious extent.—(See *Cædit.*) In France and Germany, the manufacturers, in general bare of capital, are obliged to stipulate with the merchants for short credits. In Holland the *usage* of the exporting merchants has been to pay either in ready money, or at so short a date as to put discounting out of the question, the manufacturer setting at once the lowest price on his goods.

DIVIDEND, the name given to the payment made to creditors out of the estate of a bankrupt, and to the annual interest payable upon the national debt, and other public funds.

DJIDDA, a town of Arabia, on the Red Sea, about 21 miles from Mecca, of which it is the sea-port, in lat. 21° 29' N., lon. 39° 14' E. It is well built; the streets are unpaved, but spacious and airy; the houses high, and constructed, for the most part, of madrepores and other marine fossils. The supply of water is scanty, and its quality indifferant. Small vessels approach close to the quays; but large vessels are obliged to anchor in the roads, about 2 miles off, loading and unloading by means of lighters. The entrance to the roads is difficult, and should not be attempted without a pilot. Djidda is a place of considerable commercial importance. It is the *entrepôt* in which is centred the greater part of the commerce between India, Egypt, and Arabia. Many of its merchants possess large capitals; some of them as much as from 150,000*l.* to 200,000*l.* The trade in coffee brought from Mocha, and other ports in Yemen, is the most considerable, but it is said also to be the most hazardous. The returns are principally made in cash. The trade with India and the Gulph of Persia is safer than the coffee trade, and is very considerable. Djidda has also a good deal of intercourse with the ports of Cosseir, Souakin, and Massouah, on the opposite coast of the Red Sea. The imports from the last two principally consist of slaves, gold, tobacco, dhourra or barley, hides, butter (of which immense quantities are made use of in Arabia), mats, &c.; in return for which the Africans receive Indian goods suitable for their markets, dresses and ornaments for their women, dates (which are not produced in any part of Nubia), iron, &c. The principal article of import from Cosseir is wheat; and not only Djidda, but the whole Hedjaz, or Holy Land of Arabia, is almost entirely dependent upon Egypt for corn. Coffee is the principal article sent in return. Business is transacted at Djidda with ease and expedition. The number of ships belonging to the port is estimated at 250. Owing to the scarcity of timber, none of them are built at Djidda; those belonging to it being either purchased at Bombay or Muscat, or at Mocha, Hodeida, or Suca. For a considerable period each year, before and after the feast of Ramadhan, when pilgrims come from all quarters to visit Mecca, the town is thronged with strangers, and a great deal of mercantile business is transacted. Djidda is at present, and has been for a number of years, under the government of Mohammed Ali, pacha of Egypt. The *moneys, weights, and measures* of the latter country (for which see *ALEXANDRIA*), are now generally used in Djidda, the commerce of which has been much improved and extended in consequence

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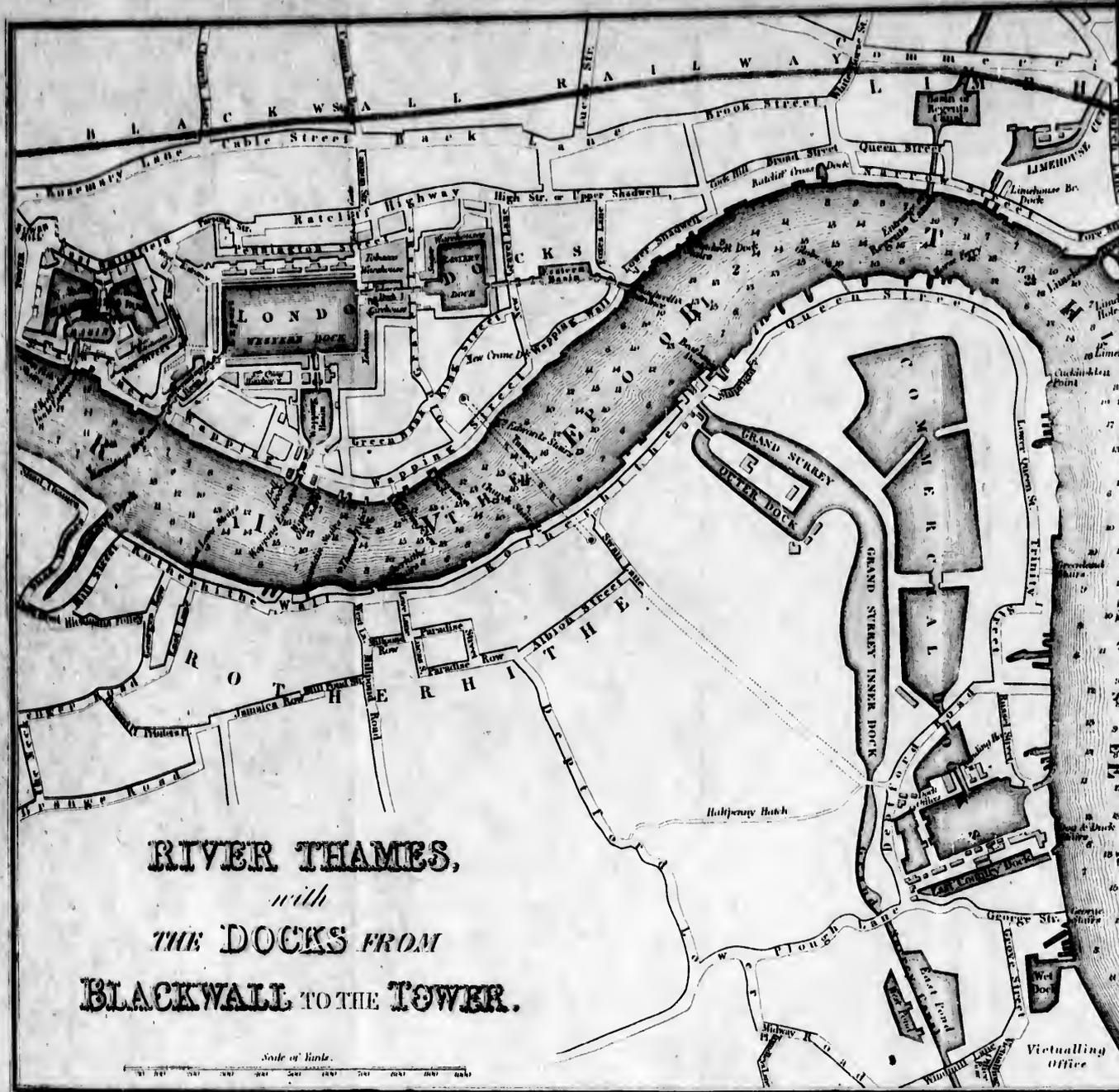
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with
THE DOCKS FROM
BLACKWALL TO THE TOWER.

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Published by Longman & Co. Paternoster Row.



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of the comparative security and good order enforced by the pacha. — (We have gleaned these details from the different works of Burckhardt, particularly from his *Travels in Arabia*, vol. i. pp. 1—100.)

DOCKS are artificial basins for the reception of ships. The term has been supposed by some to be derived from the Greek *δεξαμα*, to receive; but it is obviously no other than the Teutonic *doek*, originally perhaps derived from *dekken*, to cover, enclose, or protect.

Docks are of two sorts — *wet* and *dry*. Wet docks are generally constructed with gates to retain the water. Ships are admitted at high water; and the gates being shut, they are kept constantly afloat. A dry dock is intended for the building, repairing, or examination of ships. The ships to be repaired or examined are admitted into it at high water; and the water either ebbs out with the receding sea, or is pumped out after the gates are shut.

Utility of Docks. — The construction of wet docks has done much to facilitate and promote navigation. A large vessel, particularly if loaded, could not be allowed to come to the ground, or to lie on the beach, without sustaining considerable injury, and perhaps being destroyed; and even the smaller class of vessels are apt to be strained, and otherwise hurt, if they are left dry, unless the ground be very soft. Hence, when large vessels have to be loaded or unloaded where there are no docks, and where the water close to the shore or quay is not sufficiently deep, the work can only be carried on during a particular period of each tide; it being necessary, in order to keep the vessel afloat, that she should leave the shore with the ebbing tide. Attempts have sometimes been made to obviate this inconvenience, by running jetties or piers to such a distance into the sea, that there might always be a sufficient depth of water at their heads: but this can only be done in peculiar situations; and it requires that the ship's position should be frequently changed. It is in most cases, too, impossible properly to protect the cargoes of ships loading or unloading at quays, or on the beach, from depredation. Previously to the construction of the wet docks on the Thames, the property annually pillaged from ships was estimated to amount to 500,000*l.* a year, though this is probably much exaggerated.

I. DOCKS ON THE THAMES.

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>East and West India Docks.</i> 2. <i>London Docks.</i> 3. <i>St. Katherine's Docks.</i> 4. <i>Commercial Docks.</i> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. <i>London Port Dues. — Charges, on Account of Lights, Pilotage, &c. in the Thames. — Shipping, &c. of London.</i> |
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- II. SOUTHAMPTON DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- III. LIVERPOOL AND BIRKENHEAD DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- IV. BRISTOL DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- V. HULL DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- VI. DUNDEE DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- VII. GOOLE DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.
- VIII. LEITH DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.

I. DOCKS ON THE THAMES.

It is singular that, notwithstanding the obvious utility of wet docks, and the vast trade of the metropolis, there was no establishment of this sort on the Thames till nearly a century after a wet dock had been constructed at Liverpool. The inconvenience arising from the crowded state of the river, at the periods when fleets of merchantmen were accustomed to arrive, the insufficient accommodation afforded by the legal quays and sufferance wharfs, the necessity under which many ships were placed of unloading in the river into lighters, and the insecurity and loss of property thence arising, had been long felt as almost intolerable grievances; but so powerful was the opposition to any change, made by the private wharfingers and others interested in the support of the existing order of things, that it was not till 1793 that a plan was projected for making wet docks for the port of London; and 6 years more elapsed before the act for the construction of the West India Docks was passed.

1. *West India Docks, now conjoined with the East India Docks.* — The West India Docks were the first, and continue to be the most extensive, of the great warehousing establishments formed in the port of London. Their construction commenced in February, 1800, and they were partially opened in August, 1802. They stretch across the isthmus joining the Isle of Dogs to the Middlesex side of the Thames. They originally consisted of an Import and Export Dock, each communicating, by means of locks, with a basin of 5 or 6 acres in extent at the end next Blackwall, and with another of more than 2 acres at the end next Limehouse; both of these basins communicate with the Thames. To these works were added in 1829, the South Dock, formerly the City Canal, which runs parallel to the Export Dock. This canal was intended to facilitate navigation, by enabling ships to avoid the circuitous course round the

Isle of Dogs. It was, however, but little used for that purpose, and is now appropriated to the wood trade, for the greater accommodation of which, a pond of 19 acres has been formed on the south side for the reception of bonded timber. The Export Dock, or that appropriated for ships loading outwards, is about 870 yards in length, by 135 in width; so that its area is near 25 acres; the North or Import Dock, or that appropriated for ships entering to discharge, is of the same length as the Export Dock, and 166 yards wide; so that it contains nearly 30 acres. The South Dock, which is appropriated both to import and export vessels, is 1,183 yards long, with an entrance to the river at each end; both the locks, as well as that into the Blackwall Basin, being 45 feet wide, are large enough to admit ships of 1,200 tons burden. At the highest tides, the depth of water in the docks is 24 feet; and the whole will contain, with ease, 600 vessels of from 250 to 500 tons. The separation of the homeward bound ships, which is of the utmost importance for preventing plunder, and giving additional security to the revenue and the merchant, was, for the first time, adopted in this establishment. The Import and Export Docks are parallel to each other, being divided by a range of warehouses, principally appropriated to the reception of rum, brandy, and other spirituous liquors. There are smaller warehouses and sheds on the quays of the Export and South Docks, for the reception of goods sent down for exportation. The warehouses for imported goods are on the four quays of the Import Dock. They are well contrived, and of great extent, being calculated to contain 160,000 hhd. of sugar, exclusive of coffee and other produce. There have been deposited, at the same time, upon the quays, under the sheds and in the warehouses belonging to these docks, 148,563 hhd. of sugar, 70,875 casks and 433,648 bags of coffee, 35,158 puncheons of rum and pipes of Madeira wine, 14,021 logs of mahogany, 21,350 tons of logwood, &c. The whole area occupied by the docks, warehouses, &c. includes about 295 acres; and the most effectual precautions are adopted for the prevention of fire and pilfering.

This spacious and magnificent establishment was formed by subscription, the property being vested in the West India Dock Company, the affairs of which were managed by 21 directors as a body corporate.

The West India Docks proved a very successful undertaking, and have been highly beneficial to the original shareholders as well as to the trade of the port. All West India ships frequenting the Thames were obliged to use them for a period of 20 years from their completion. The dividend on the Company's stock was limited to 10 per cent.; and after making dividends to the full amount, with the exception of the first half year, they had in 1819 an accumulated fund of near 400,000*l*. But they then diminished their charges, at the suggestion of a committee of the House of Commons; and having been since still more considerably reduced, the surplus has been absorbed. The nearest dock-gate is at Linthouse, and the other about $\frac{1}{2}$ mile farther from town.

The *East India Docks*, united with those now described in 1838, are situated at Blackwall, about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the Exchange, and were originally intended for the accommodation of ships employed by the East India Company, or in the East Indian trade; but they are now open to vessels from all parts. There are 2 docks; 1 for ships unloading inwards, and 1 for those loading outwards. The Import Dock contains about 18 acres, and the Export Dock about 9 acres. The entrance basin, which connects the docks with the river, contains about 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ acres: the length of the entrance lock is 210 feet, the width of the gates 43 feet clear. The depth of water in the East India Docks is never less than 23 feet; so that they can accommodate ships of greater burden than any other establishment on the river. There is attached to them a splendid quay fronting the river, nearly 700 feet in length, with water sufficient at all times of the tide to float the largest steam ships; and the Export Dock is furnished with a machine for masting and dismasting the largest ships.

Exclusive of the magnificent warehouses attached to the West India Docks, the East and West India Dock Company possess the East India warehouses in Billiter Street, Fenchurch Street, Jewry Street, and Crutched Friars; in which they warehouse and show tea, indigo, silk, drugs, spices, &c.

The capital of both establishments, or of the United Company, amounts to 2,065,668*l*., the dividend on which is at present 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The management is vested in a board of 32 directors. The consolidation of the establishment was advantageous to the shareholders by reducing the expense of management, and to the public by giving a greater choice of accommodation to vessels frequenting the docks.

The inconvenience of the distance at which these docks are situated from the Exchange has been in a great degree obviated by the opening of the railway to Blackwall, and by the exhibition of samples in the Company's upper warehouses. Still, however, the charge on account of cartage is a little heavier on goods warehoused at the docks of this company than on those warehoused farther up the river. But, on the other hand, ships entering the East India or West India Docks avoid a considerable extent of troublesome, if not dangerous navigation, that must be undertaken by those bound for the London and St. Katherine's Docks.

REGULATIONS TO BE OBSERVED, AND RATES TO BE PAID, BY SHIPPING IN THE EAST AND WEST INDIA DOCK.

Regulations to be observed by Masters, Pilots, and other Persons having the charge of Ships, Vessels, Lighters, or Craft, coming into, lying in, and going out of, the East and West India Docks, pursuant to an Act of Parliament, &c. The Company's Mooring. — 1. The moorings in the river, within 200 yards of each of the entrances at Black wall, and that into Limehouse Basin, and within 100 yards of the Limehouse entrance of the South Dock, are reserved for the exclusive use of vessels entering into, or which have recently come out of the docks.

2. Every master or person in charge of any ship, lighter, barge, boat, or other vessel, of any description whatsoever, lying within the above distances, must immediately remove the stone, when required by the dock masters or their assistants a penalty of five shillings for every hour which such vessel may remain.

3. Pilots must not attempt to place ships inside the basins, or other ships have previously brought up, but bring them to their berths in due succession on the outside, unless they shall be expressly ordered by the dock master to take a berth inside the pier for the convenience of docking.

4. All parties creating obstructions will be prosecuted, and the penalties will be rigidly enforced.

5. Signals. — 5. The red flag on the flag-staff at the entrance, is the signal for ships to prepare. A blue flag will be kept flying the whole time proper for docking; when the tug has run high water mark, the red flag will be struck, after which no pilot must shear his vessel in, unless directed so to do by the dock master.

6. Declaration Book. — When ships have brought up properly at the moorings, an officer will deliver the Company's regulations, and the commander or mate of every vessel of 100 tons must certify in the Declaration Book her draught of water; that she is provided with all necessary and sufficient warps, ropes, and tackle, and that her anchors are (or shall be) before leaving the moorings so secured and stowed as not to endanger the works, the ships therein, or the vessel herself.

7. Preparing Ships for Admission. — 7. No time should be lost in getting the anchors properly secured and stowed, sails furled, quarter boats lowered down, guns unloaded, gunpowder put out, and such other precautions taken as the dock master may direct, when these preparations are completed, a flag must be hoisted at the fore, as a signal that the ship is ready.

8. All ships are required to send down top-gallant yards and stails, top-gallant masts, and to have their top and main-booms rigged close in, bomkins, marlines, and all outriggers unhipped, if time will permit, and at all events immediately after entering. Vessels will, however, be exempted from striking lower yards and top-masts, upon the master certifying that the same may be safely dispensed with, and engaging to be answerable for all consequences; but the yards must be topped well up, and the yard-arms lashed close in to the rigging.

9. In fixing the order of admission, and issuing the docking tickets, regard will be had to the state of the tides, and the size and draught of water of each vessel, as well as the time of arrival: the largest ships must necessarily be taken in when the tides are highest, although they may have arrived subsequent to smaller vessels. Loaded vessels must always have the preference over light ships.

10. No ship can be admitted, if neither the master nor pilot is on board.

11. The docking ticket will only remain in force for the tide for which it is granted.

12. At the proper time for the admission of each ship, notice will be given to the owners, and the pilot, and the pier-head, provided she has made the signal for being properly prepared.

13. Any vessel shall attempt to gain admittance before her number is hoisted, the owners, and the master, pilot, or other person in charge, must be responsible for all consequences.

14. Berthing. — 14. When a ship's number is hoisted, the master must drag up to the entrance, and have good and sufficient warps ready to send to each pier, when directed by the dock masters. If the ship shall not come to the entrance, she shall forfeit her turn.

15. When within the piers, proper ropes will be sent on board to guide and check the vessel through the lock: the master and pilot will be held responsible for making these, as well as the ship's warps, properly fast on board: the vessel must be lashed e-head by her own warps, and they are on account to be cast off, unless ordered by the dock master, until the ship is in the basin.

16. Every pilot must bring his boat into the basin, or South Dock, as it is a most essential part of his duty to moor the ship.

17. The owners are responsible for all ship boats and rowers can be admitted into the Import Docks except such as are conventionally stowed on deck.

18. The boats of ships in the South Dock which cannot be securely stowed on deck, must be hauled up on the north bank, or secured in the basin, if the vessel is to be moored; they may direct, after the ship is moored. Ships, however, which are not lying at a jetty, will be allowed to employ one boat during the legal hours of business, which boat must be chained by the Company's officers to the north bank as soon as that time has expired.

19. Any boats found afloat in any of the docks or basins contrary to these regulations, will be removed by the dock master, and will be detained until the charges occasioned by such removal shall be paid.

20. The hatches of all loaded ships are to be locked down, and the keys delivered to the officer appointed to receive the same.

21. Return Import Dock. — 21. No person whatever can be allowed to remain in this dock after the usual hours of business, except as hereafter mentioned; nor can any person be permitted to have access to vessels therein, excepting the owner, master, or chief officer, without a permit.

22. Passes will be given by the principal of the police, on the application of the captain or chief mate, to admit the ship's apprentices, or other persons, to prepare the ship for discharging, or to do any other work which may be unavoidably necessary. Ships which retain their crews on board, must be returned to the basin after the hour of business, to remain

during the night. The Directors have fitted up the ship Waterloo, in the South Dock, for the accommodation of junior officers and apprentices, while their ships are discharging their cargoes in the Import Dock.

23. Ships discharging in either Dock. — 23. Preparatory to ships being discharged by the Company the decks must be cleared of articles which would impede the working out of the cargo. Two true copies of the manifest of the cargo must be delivered into the general office at the Dock House, in Billingsgate, within 24 hours after every vessel enters either dock, or after the cargo shall have been reported at the Custom-house, which shall first happen. Penalty for refusal or neglect, any sum not exceeding 5*l.* — 2 Will. 4. c. 69. s. 84.

24. No manifests will be required for ships discharging by their own crew.

25. No ships can receive their rotation, or be allowed to break bulk, until their cargoes are duly entered; and such cargoes will be landed in due succession, according to the strict order in which the manifests are delivered and entries completed.

26. If such manifest, or bill of lading, or copy, shall be false, or if any bill of lading be uttered by any master, and the goods expressed therein shall not have been *bona fide* shipped on board such ship; or if any bill of lading uttered or produced by any master, shall not have been signed by him; or if any such copy shall not have been received or made up by him previously to his leaving the place the goods expressed in such bill of lading, or copy, were shipped, penalty 100*l.* — 4 Will. 4. c. 62. s. 4.

27. It is desirable that all baggage or presents should be as promptly as possible to the luggage warehouse, where an authority from the master for the delivery thereof must be lodged. Masters are particularly cautioned against signing such authorities in blank, or allowing themselves to be influenced by importunity of brokers; and it is most desirable that one agent only should be appointed for each ship.

28. Packages of bullion or specie, whether cargo or private property, must be delivered by the captain, under his own responsibility, unless from their being liable to examination or other circumstances, he may be desirous of placing the same in the Company's charge; in which case, such packages, or any other contents thereof, should be carefully examined, and, if bills of lading have been granted for them, inserted in the regular manifest of the ship. The delivery of goods overseas will also rest with the master, and he must take such steps as he may think necessary, to protect his owners in respect to their freight.

29. An officer of the revenue is authorized to forward all despatches for the departments of government; packets so addressed will therefore be delivered into his charge, unless the Company receive express directions to the contrary.

30. Conditions to be observed by Ships taking in Cargo from the Import Warehouse. — 31. The taking the ship in and out of dock, or to and from the quay, to be performed by the master and crew, as directed by the dock masters.

32. The goods to be taken from the slings, and to be stowed away by the crew, under the orders of the master.

33. If a sufficient crew be not on board, to receive and stow away the goods, as delivered, or to transport to a further number of men shall be provided by the Company, at the charge of 3*s.* 6*d.* per man per day, to work under the direction and responsibility of the master and his officers.

34. The vessel to be hauled into the basin or Export Dock after the usual hours of business, by her own officers and crew, and it is granted in their charge.

35. Goods sent by land carriage will be shipped in either of the docks, on payment of the usual charges.

36. To prevent delay in loading export vessels, the shippers should pay up the rent and charges upon the goods; or where the amount cannot be ascertained without weighing, &c., to make a deposit to cover the same.

37. Masters and Western Import and Export Docks, the Basins, and South Dock. — 37. All vessels entering or lying in these docks and basins, are in charge of the masters and owners; and it is the duty of the pilots, or officers and crews, to transport and receive the vessels, except as provided for by the table of rates, under their own responsibility, to or from the river, and to or from any part of the docks or basins, as directed by the dock master.

38. Light ships on entering from the river must be provided with sufficient hands to dock and transport them, and should move in due time into the dock; otherwise they will be removed by the dock master, and the owners charged with the expense.

39. Ships taking in cargoes will be moored at the Quay in rotation. Light ships not taking in goods shall be moored in either of the docks or basins, as the dock masters may direct.

40. While ships are lying at, or moving to or from the quay, all out-riggers should be got in and made snug; and sails are by no means to be loose while so moving, or after daylight.

41. No ship must be removed from her berth until she has been given notice by the dock master, and his assent as to the time of removal being obtained.

42. Craft must be fastened to the ships from which they are receiving, or to which they may be delivering goods; the charge upon craft which shall not be *bona fide* so engaged, will be the same as the rent upon slings and craft consigned, and, as usual, not less than one week's rent will be charged. To obviate any doubt as to the time for which they may be fairly entitled to remuneration, every four hours will be reckoned from the time of entering the dock, for receiving goods; and twenty-four hours after being loaded or discharged, for going out of the docks.

43. Convenient receptacles on the quays and craft are provided, wherein all that, cargo, &c. is to be deposited, and which shall be cleared by the persons appointed by the Company, and by no one else.

44. No vessel can be permitted to take in ballast after daylight, or before day-break.

45. Ships' provisions or stores cannot be permitted to pass the gate without an order signed by the captain or owner.

46. No caulking or plumbers' work can be allowed without special permission, to be obtained from the principal of police, South Dock Jetty. — 17. Ships landing cargoes in the South

Dock, or taking in goods by land, shall have the preferable use of the latter.

46. Ships which are fitting out, but have not commenced loading, shall be accommodated as far as possible; but such ships must be removed to make room for vessels about to discharge or take in cargo by the dock.

47. In other respects, preference will be given to ships intended for sale, over those which are merely laying up; and as between ships which are similarly circumstanced, the priority of their entering the dock shall determine the preference.

48. The captain or commanding officers of ships are cautioned to be attentive and careful to be ready when the ship is fast loading down in the water, or on the approach of heavy tides.

Fire and Candle.—51. To vessels lying in the Eastern Import Dock, the Eastern and Western Export Docks, the South Dock, or either of the basins, special licences will be granted, on application to the principal of the police.

52. Every such licence will express the place in which fire may be kept, and the circumstances under which it may be used; upon the slightest infringement of the conditions, the penalty prescribed by law will be rigidly enforced.

53. Every application for a licence must be made by the master or owner, specifying the names and capacity of the persons in charge of the ship, and engaging to be responsible for their attention to the regulations.

Opening and shutting the Gates.—54. The gates of the Export and South Docks will be opened at six o'clock in the morning and shut at eight o'clock in the evening, from the 1st of March to the 10th of November; and from the 11th of November to the last day of February, opened at eight in the morning and shut at seven in the evening.

55. Captains or masters may be furnished with tickets, upon applying at the police office, at the Eastern or Western Import Dock, which will entitle them to admission till nine o'clock, p.m., but no person whatever can be allowed to go out after the hour for closing the gates.

Vessels about to leave the Docks.—56. Export vessels should be hauled out in sufficient time to be at the river locks, at Blackwall, at low water; to prevent the inconvenience of hauling down during the time that other vessels are requiring admission, which must have the preference.

57. Vessels can only be let out after high water, upon the special request of the officers in charge of them.

58. Ships going into the river must use their own ropes, as they are out of the dock master's charge when clear of the outer gates.

59. The hours of attendance are—from 10th May to 9th November inclusive, eight in the morning to four in the afternoon; from 10th November to 9th May, inclusive, nine in the morning to four in the afternoon; and there is to be no interruption of business during these hours.

60. No holidays are to be kept, except Sundays, Christmas Day, Good Friday, fast days appointed by royal proclamation, and the King or Queen's birth days.

The foregoing regulations approved and confirmed by the Court of Directors of the East and West India Dock Company.

GEORGE COLLIN, SURVEYOR.

TINNAGE RATES.

Sailing Vessels Inward Discharged by the Company.

For docking, mooring, and removing within the docks and basins, unloading the cargo, and the use of the docks, for four weeks from the final discharge, viz.—

Laden with sugar, otherwise than after-mentioned, or other goods packed in bales, bags, baskets, serons, casks, cases, chests, or similar packages, (except oil direct from the fisheries, tallow, or ashes), manila, in pigs, bales, rods, plates, or similar pieces, wood in planks or billets, such as dyewood, and staves	1 6
And in addition, for every load or ton of blue gum wood or oil in iron tanks	0 6
Laden with chests of sugar, 5 cwt. and upwards, including ship's coöperage	2 6
Laden entirely, or in part, with hogheads and tierces of sugar or molasses from the West Indies, including ship's coöperage	2 6
Laden with mahogany, cedar, or other large furniture wood in logs	2 6
Laden entirely with hemp or goods in bulk, or oil direct from the fisheries	1 9
Laden entirely with tallow	1 3
Laden with mixed cargoes, tallow, ashes, or goods in bulk—	
For every ton of hemp	2 0
For every ton of tallow or ashes	1 3
For every ton in bulk	1 9

The total number of tons charged not to exceed the register tonnage.

Laden with wood, the growth of the North of Europe, or the North American colonies, viz.—

Entirely with deals, staves, lath or fire wood	1 9
Entirely, or in part, with timber	1 9
And, in addition, for every load of head wood or masts	0 6
For every load of pine or fir timber	0 3
Laden with timber from Africa, or the cargoes	1 0
And, in addition, for every load discharged over side	1 0

Sailing Vessels Inward, discharged by their own Crews.

For the use of the docks, for any period from the date of entrance, not exceeding the under-mentioned—

If from Hambro', Bremen, Embden, and the Mediterranean	6 weeks
If from any other port or place	4 weeks

The use of the docks is allowed for six weeks from the date of entrance, for vessels from Hambro', Bremen, London, or the Mediterranean; and when the discharge by the Company of any vessel is postponed by desire of the owners, six weeks only are allowed free of rent.

The expense of mooring, unmooring, and removing, is not included.

Arriving from any port or place not otherwise specified	1 0
Arriving from any port in the United Kingdom, or European port outside the Baltic, between the North Cape and Ushant	0 6
Delivering part of a cargo, and not remaining beyond one week	0 6
per ton delivered	0 0

Exceptions.

Sloops and craft coastwise, with bricks, and vessels with broken masts, or paying stores, or remaining beyond one week
 0 3 || Collars entering to await the sale of their cargoes, not remaining beyond two weeks | 0 3 |

Other vessels than colliers, coastwise, on landing goods in the docks equal to one third of their register tonnage to be exempted from payment of the tonnage rate, but not to commence after one clear day from the final landing of the goods.

Vessels entirely crew laden, discharged in the docks, in lieu of tonnage rate, not remaining beyond two weeks,—

100 tons register and upwards	each 21 0
Under 100 tons register	each 10 6

If corn vessels quit without unloading, rent to commence after one clear day from the date of entrance.

Vessels two-thirds laden with corn will be charged the usual tonnage rates on the other part of their cargoes, in proportion to their register tonnage.

If vessels to which the above exceptions apply load outwards, they will be charged the usual rate of 6d. per ton register.

Sailing Vessels outward, or Light Vessels, other than Steam Vessels.

Entering to load or lay up, not having discharged their Import cargoes in the docks,—

The use of the docks for any period not exceeding four weeks from the date of entering
 0 6 |

Vessels entering to load from the Import Warehouses only.

For the use of the dock for one week (see conditions, p. 470.)
 0 6 |

The number of tons charged not to exceed the register tonnage.

Exceptions.

Vessels under 100 tons register loading corn or deals, fir timber, and like wood goods, and ships, from the Export or South Docks, which will be allowed to load without any addition to the rate to which they may be liable for the use of the docks.

Steam Vessels.

Entering to lay up, or to repair or fit their machinery—

For the use of the docks for any period not exceeding four weeks from the date of entering	0 9
Charge for getting out, landing, lifting, or shipping boilers and heavy machinery	5 0
Under two tons	7 6
Two tons and not exceeding ten tons	10 0
Exceeding ten tons	12 6
Rent, per week, for boilers, funnels, cylinders, and the like	0 3
Do. for plates, shafts, and other gearing	0 1

Dock Rent.

For remaining over the period specified,—

Sailing vessels	per week 0 1
Steam vessels laying up, repairing, or fitting machinery	0 1 1/2

All vessels which re-enter after having been out for repair, will be allowed their privilege without reckoning the time they remained out.

For the more expeditious discharge of vessels, every assistance may be obtained in clearing the decks, or stowage thereof; coöpering water casks and shipping them, when filled. Should the Company's movable machinery be desired, it will be lent upon application to the superintendent. The following charges will be made for such services.

For labourers hired to work under the directions of the commanding officer of the ship, each man per day, of the regulated hours of attendance
 3 6 |

And not less than 1 day to be charged. Overtime will be charged in proportion.

Articles loaded, shipped, or struck down by the dock cranes or jiggers, under 2 tons
 per ton 1 0 || Two tons, and under 5 tons | per ton 1 8 |

And not less than one ton to be charged.

The use of the floating engine for washing ships, including the attendance of the men in charge, per day
 30 0 |

And not less than one day to be charged.

Whenever assistance is required for removing within the docks, it will be furnished by the dock master on the following terms, viz.—

A boat with warp and two hands	10 0
A boat with warp and four hands	15 0

And for every additional hand employed, either on board or in the boats, 6d. per hour.

The warps are only lent in aid of the ship's warps.

Water, from the East London Water Works.

Supplied from the tank	per ton 1 0
If filtered	per ton 2 0

The expense of mooring, unmooring, and removing, is not included.

1,000	10 0
500	5 0
250	2 6
100	1 0

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Goods impo...

Agates	10 0
Alkalis	2 0
Alkanet root	10 0
Almonds, in bags	10 0
serons	10 0
in boxes or barrels	10 0

shell

Alum, in gourd...
in chests or casks
Alum
Alva marins,
in bales press-p...
in bags not p...
Antimony
Amber and beads
rough
Ambergis, in b...
Amethysts, case
Anchovies

Anglicis root

Aniseed
star
Anisato, in cask...
masts, small
baskets
Antimony
ore
When loose,
weighing, or
or dillitary,
Apples
box, basket
Aranges
Argal

Arrowroot, in c...
in boxes or c...
Asacida
Asacida

Goods Imported.	Prime Rate Net.	Loading Rate Com.	Rent.		Goods Imported.	Prime Rate Net.	Loading Rate Com.	Rent.	
			Per Week.	Quantities, &c.				Per Week.	Quantities, &c.
Baril, Jauits' or Peruvian owt.	1 0	0 7	ton		Cane, common rattan, 1,000 split rattans - cwt.	2 0	0 1	ton	
Elettaria or Cassia owt.	5 0	1 3	ton		ground - 1,000 bamboo, Jumbo, warrig, bamboo, walking sticks.	1 0	0 2	ton	
oak, or tanners', in bags or loose	0 9	0 4			Malacca - 1,000 reed, in bundles, 25 each	7 6	3 0	100	
Filling end weighing on rehousing or delivery, 50 per ton.					reed, in bundles, 60 each		6 3	1 0	
in cases about 1 1/2 cwt. cwt. in casks - ton	0 6	0 1	case		Cantharides - cwt.		12 6	3 0	case or cask, 2 cwt. and upwards
Baskets - bale	3 0	0 3	ton				1 0	0 6	case or cask, 4 cwt. and upwards
do - 1/2 bale	1 6	0 1 1/2			Cautchouc. See <i>Ca. Rubber</i> .				case or cask, under 4 cwt.
do - bundle	1 0	0 1			Capers - cwt.	0 3	0 0	6	butt
do - small bundles	0 6	0 1 1/2							pancheon
Beads, jet, or other kinds, except amber, coral, and corallian - package	1 6	0 1			Cardamoms - cwt.	0 6	0 1	1	barrel
Beams in bags - tierce	0 6	0 0 1/2	100		Cards, playing - case	1 6	0 2	3	chest
Beef and pork - barrel	0 3	0 0 1/2	100		small ditto	1 0	0 1	1	chest
do - tub, kit, or half barrel	0 2	0 0 1/2	100		Carpets, 70 square yards and upwards - bale	2 0	0 4	6	box
Beer, spruce - 6/11n bag	0 3	0 5	100		under 70 sq. yds. ballot	1 4	0 2	3	
	0 1 1/2	0 5	100		Carraway seed - ton	5 0	0 0	0	
Bees' wax. See <i>Wax</i> .					Casew nuts - cwt.	0 6	0 0	0	
Benjamin. See <i>Gum</i> .					Casks landed empty, or cask cases, if not delivered within 5 days including delivery, butts, pipe, or punch.	0 8	0 1	0	
Berria, juniper - ton	6 6	3 0	100	hags, 2 to 4 cwt. each	If taken away within 5 days, half the above charges and no rent.	0 4	0 0	0	
do - yellow or bay - ton	5 0	2 6			Wine or spirits, small alliage, including turning over contents, storing and delivery - each	1 0	0 1	1	
do - Betel nuts - ton	5 0	0 4			Casah lignea - cwt.	0 6	0 0	0	
do - Biscuits - cwt.	0 3	0 0 1/2	100	pancheon bag or barrel	buds - cwt.	0 6	0 0	0	
					Castor seed - cwt.	0 3	0 0	0	
Bismuths - bale	1 0	0 1			Castor, leg or small box	1 0	0 1	1	
Black lead - ton	5 9	0 3			Cattings - case or chest	1 0	0 2	1	
Black tin. See <i>Zin</i> .					Chairs - each	0 3	0 0	0	
do - in bags - 1,000	3 0	0 0 1/2			case containing 1/2 case containing 1/2	1 6	0 2	3	
do - in casks - ton	3 0	0 3			Chaises or carriages, with 4 wheels - each	10 6	1 6	6	
do - Books - cwt.	1 0	0 1			do - 2 wheels - each	7 6	1 0	6	
					Chalk, French - ton	0 6	0 0	3	
Boots and shoes - hogheads or cases or tierces	1 6	0 3			Charcoal, animal - bale	1 6	0 1	0	
Boric acid - ton	5 0	0 4			Cherise - ton	4 0	1 0	0	
Borra, rough or refined - ton	5 0	0 10			Chia or cases - cwt.	0 6	0 1	0	
Bottles, glass, empty - ton	3 0	0 1			Chickens - cwt.	1 0	0 0	1	
Brandy fruit, case - 3/16s ditto - 7/16s	0 9	0 1 1/2			China nuts - bushel	0 2 1/2	0 0	0	
do - ditto - 7/16s	0 6	0 1			Chicoree, under 1 1/2 cwt. case or cask	0 6	0 0 1/2	0	
do - ditto - 3/16s	0 6	0 1			1 1/2 and under 3 cwt. case or cask	0 2	0 0 1/2	0	
do - ditto - 1/16s	0 6	0 1			3 cwt. and under 5 cwt. case or cask	1 0	0 1	0	
Brimstone, loose - ton	5 6	0 2			5 cwt. & above, case or cask	1 0	0 2	0	
Filling and weighing on rehousing or delivery, 50 per ton.					Chillies - cwt.	0 6	0 7	ton	
Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping, 2s. 6d. per ton.					China root - cwt.	0 6	0 0	0	
in casks, cases, or baskets	5 5	0 3	ton, in casks		China ware - case	1 0	0 2	1	
			case, about 2 cwt.		do - small case	1 0	0 2	1	
			box or basket, 1 cwt.		Chiranga root - cwt.	1 0	0 0	1	
			box or basket, 56 lb.		Chirasia - cwt.	0 8 1/2	0 3	0	case or case
					China - cwt.	0 6	0 1	0	
Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping, 2s. 6d. per ton.					Cinnamon. See <i>Management Rates</i> .				
in packages - ton	7 0	0 2			Citron, in salt - pipe	1 6	0 4	4	
Bronze - case	1 6	0 2			Cooper's attendance in addition.	1 0	0 3	3	
Boxes - ton	1 0	0 1			Canvass. See <i>Successors</i> .				
Buzias - ton	1 0	0 9			Clay figures - case	1 6	0 2	2	
Bullion - cask or case	1 6	0 1			do - small case	0 0	0 0	0	
parcel not exceeding 50 lb. in value - each	0 6	0 1			Clocks, wooden - case	2 6	0 2	2	
Butter, foreign.	0 1 1/2	0 9	100		French, containing 2, case	1 6	0 1	1	
Friesland or Holstein, - landing, wharfage, housing or loading, and furnishing landing weights, to the importer - cask	0 3	4 0	100		Cloth, woollen, case or 1/2 case	1 6	0 1	1	
do - ditto - cask	0 3	4 0	100		do - do. from 8 to 15 pds. small do. under 8 pieces	2 0	0 2	3	
Loading from the warehouse, 1d. per cask					Cloves - cwt.	0 8 1/2	0 0	1	
Weighing on delivery, if required, and furnishing delivery weights to the buyer, 1d. per cask.					Clover and lucerne seed, in bags - ton	3 9	0 2 1/2	3	
Enden or Holland, - landing, wharfage, housing or loading, and furnishing landing weights firm	0 5	2 0	100		Coccolites. See <i>Chinas, &c.</i>				
Loading from the warehouse, 1d. per firkin.					Cobalt - ton	5 0	0 5	5	
Weighing on delivery, when required, 1d. per firkin.					Cochineal - cwt.	3 0	0 2	0	
Irish - score firkins	3 0	2 0	100		Cocos nuts - cwt.	3 4	0 3	3	
do - do. ditto, 1d. cask or firkin, 1d. shipping, wharfage, and shipping, cask or firkin,					Cocos, in casks - cwt.	1 6	0 6	6	ton
do - ditto - ton	5 0	0 5			in bags - cwt.	1 2	0 6	6	ton
Cable chain - ton	10 0	0 4							
Cair - ton	12 6	0 3							
Calicos - bale	1 3	0 1 1/2							
Cambric - package	4 6	0 4							
Canole hair - cwt.	0 10	0 2	bale or case						
Campour - cwt.	0 6	0 0 1/2	cwt.						
Cane Juice. See <i>M. Juice</i> .									
Canella n'ba - cwt.	1 8	0 6							

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bo
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Wes India,
Cotton yarn or
not press-pac
Cotton yarn or
Fringe - case
Cowhage - c
Cowries - ton
Cows, landing
Cranberries
Cream of tartar
Crystal beads
rough -
Cubites -
Cubic nitre. S
Curmain seed
Currants, 23 c
wards - 1
12 and under
9 do.
3 do.
5 do.
under 1/4 cwt.
Dates, 5 cwt. a
2 and under 3
1 do. 2
under 1 cwt. 2
Deer, landing an
Dive dive
Dragon's blood

DOCKS ON THE THAMES (E. & W. INDIA).

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RATES ON DYERS' AND FURNITURE WOOD.

Articles.	Prime Rate.	Landing Rate, viz. Landing, Wharfage, Weighing, and Delivering.*	Rent per Week after the first Twelve Weeks.	Rent per Week after the first Year, reckoning from the breaking bulk.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Dyers' wood, &c.				
Bar wood				
Bra wood				
Brazil wood, large				
Cam wood				
Coccol wood				
Ebony				
Fustic				
Lignum viti				
Logwood				
Nicaragua, large				
Quassia				
Sanders wood				
Hraletto				
Brazil wood, small				
Fustic, young				
Nicaragua wood, small				
Bapan				
Sassafras				
Sandal				
Other wood, charged with duty, at -				
Mahogany, cedar, jacaranda, rosewood, satin wood, tally, ebony, &c.	7 0	6 0	0 1½	0 1

* The rates on other descriptions of wood are published in a separate table.

THE RATES.

<p>For re-weighing one-fourth of the landing-rate.</p> <p>Re-housing do.</p> <p>Unpiling do.</p> <p>Repiling do.</p> <p>Unhousing and loading do.</p> <p>Unpiling and loading do.</p> <p>Wharfage and shipping one-half of the landing rate.</p> <p>Unloading and lashing, or piling do.</p>	<p>Unhousing or unpiling, } three-fourths of the landing rate</p> <p>wharfage and shipping }</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Special Charges.</i></p> <p>Rummaging mahogany timber, and other measured wood, as usual per ton or load 0 6</p> <p>Delivering into docked vessels 0 6</p>
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MANAGEMENT RATES.

These rates are charged upon the gross weight, and when the goods are to be placed upon the landing rate, notice must be given previous to the landing.

Rates.	Bale, averaging 100 lb. gross.	Bales.		
	s. d.	150 lb. gross and upwards.	104 lb. gross and under 150 lb.	Under 104 lb. gross.
<i>Cinnamon.</i>				
Landing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing landing weights, and delivery from the quay at the dock.				
From Ceylon	1 6			
From Malabar	1 0			
Landing and Housing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing land- ing weights, housing, and delivery.				
From Ceylon	2 0			
From Malabar	1 4			
Management; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, housing, unpacking, taring, sorting, lashing, repacking, attending show and sale, re-weighing, piling away, furnishing warrants, and del- ivery	9 0			
Note.—An additional charge will be made for chests applied to contain the small refuse also, if imported in cases, a charge for gandy and rope applied.				
Rent, per week	0 1			
<i>Indigo.</i>				
Landing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing landing weights, and delivery from the quay at the dock	3 0			
Landing and Housing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing land- ing weights, housing, and delivery	4 0			
Management; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, housing, and every opera- tion incidental to preparing for sale, picking on show, showing, extra ware- house room, and attendance while on show, nailing down, lotting, re-weigh- ing, and piling away, and also duty on the deficiencies, between the land- ing weight and that re-weighed and delivered	17 6			
Ditto; Manila, or other sorts, no portion of the parcel or mark of which requires taring	14 8			
Rent, per week	0 1½			
<i>E. India and China Silk.</i>				
Landing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing landing weights, and del- ivery from the quay at the dock		1 6	1 0	0 9
Note.—If the silk is not clear- ed from the quay the same day it is landed, it will be bonded for security, and the landing and housing rate will attach.				
Landing and Housing; compris- ing landing, wharfage, weigh- ing, furnishing landing weights, housing and delivery		2 8	2 0	1 6
Note.—Sampling or inspec- tion, or taring for customs, may take place on silk, subject to this rate, on payment of the respective charges; but should any further quotations be required, the man- agement rate will attach.				
<i>Bengal.</i>				
Management; comprising land- ing, wharfage, weighing and furnishing landing weights, housing, stripping, taring, new bags and repacking, in- cluding unpiling and repiling, first inspection, or first sam- pling by importer or his agent, making, re-weighing, and delivery		8 6	7 6	6 6
Rent, per week		0 1½	0 1½	0 1½
<i>China.</i>				
Management; comprising land- ing, wharfage, weighing and furnishing landing weights, housing, stripping, taring, new bags and repacking, including unpiling and repiling, first in- spection or first sampling, by importer or his agent, mark- ing, re-weighing, and delivery		10 1½	10 4	10 4
Rent, per week		7 6	6 6	6 6

TABLE OF RATES CHARGED ON TEA.

Rates, per Package.	200 lbs. and upwards.		150 lbs. and under 200 lbs. gross.		80 lbs. and under 150 lbs. gross.		60 lbs. and under 80 lbs. gross.		40 lbs. and under 60 lbs. gross.		30 lbs. and under 40 lbs. gross.		20 lbs. and under 30 lbs. gross.		Exceeding 10 lbs. and under 30 lbs. gross.		10 lbs. gross and under		
	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	
Landing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing landing weights, and delivery from the quay at the docks -	1	6	1	3	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	7	0	6	0	2	0	2	1
Landing and housing; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, furnishing landing weights, housing, and delivery -	2	0	1	8	1	2	1	0	1	0	0	10	0	8	0	4	0	2	2
Management; comprising landing, wharfage, weighing, and furnishing landing weights, housing, ordinary mending, lashing, placing on show, extra warehouse room, and attendance while on show, lotting, tallying down, re-weighing and piling away, and delivery -	7	6	5	6	3	8	5	0	2	4	2	0	1	3	1	0	0	6	6
Rent, per week -	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

SCHEDULE OF RATES AND CHARGES ON WINES AND SPIRITS.

Schedule of Rates and Charges on Wines and Spirits other than Rum.
Landing and Delivery Rate includes landing, wharfage, lay-up to gauge, cooper's attendance at landing and until delivered, original warrants, accounts of landing gauges, and strengths, and first samples; also the privilege of remaining on the quay fourteen days, from commencing the discharge of the ship or craft. If the goods continue on the quay after the fourteen days, quay-rent will be charged until the expiration of one month, from commencement of discharge from ship or craft, when the landing and housing rate will attach.
Landing and Housing Rate includes landing, wharfage, lay-up to gauge, cooper's attendance at landing until housed, accounts of gauges and strengths, first samples, and sampling at delivery, coopering, housing, and cooper's superintendence for eighteen months.
Rent—When these wines and spirits are housed, the rent commences, in all cases, from the date of the ship commencing discharge, or first landing from craft.
Coopering, when requisite, at landing, examination, or delivery, for the protection of the property, will be executed without awaiting the proprietor's order, unless he shall give

direction to the contrary, and at the rates specified in this table. When racking is necessary, forty-eight hours' notice will be given to the proprietor, with the option of sending his own casks. When the casks are racked for preservation in the vault, within six months from the landing and housing rate attaching, no charge will be made.
Tasting can be permitted only under the proprietor's written order. Tasting by the proprietor, or his clerk, is exempt from charge; the latter, however, must be authorized to sign orders, and be unaccompanied by any other person.
Deficiencies.—When wines and spirits are imported in casks made of proper oak, the Company engages to be responsible for deficiencies in measure, which shall exceed one gallon per cask for each year, or fraction of a year, the goods remain in charge; but the Company will not be answerable for deficiencies arising from the casks being made of other and inefficient materials.
Payment of Charges.—The landing and housing rate on the whole mark or parcel housed, must be paid previous to the issue of warrants, or the transfer, or delivery of any portion. Payment of rent, and other charges, will be required only on the quantity to be delivered or transferred.

RATES ON WINES AND SPIRITS OTHER THAN RUM.

Wines and Spirits in casks.	Unusable Casks 30 Ton of 210 Gall.	Pipes, Butts or Funch.	Hhds.	Thirds.	Gr. Casks.	Half Gr. Casks.	Aums.											
							Double.	Single.	Half.									
							s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.						
Landing and delivery rate, on wines and spirits, except rum, by land carriage -	7	0	5	8	2	1	1	2	1	0	2	6	1	6	1	2	1	2
Shipping from the quay, additional Quay rent after 14 days, per week, until the landing and housing rate attaches -	1	0	0	6	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	4	0	2	0	2	0	2
Landing and housing rate, on Port, Lisbon, Sherry, Malaga, Marsala, Spanish red, Sicilian and other wines, in wood-bound casks; and sherry in iron-bound casks -	20	0	10	0	6	0	4	5	3	8	2	10	6	6	4	0	2	10
Ditto on Malaga, Cape, Tenerife, Canary, Marsala, Sicilian, and other wines in iron-bound casks -	16	0	8	0	4	10	3	8	2	10	2	8	5	6	8	0	2	0
Ditto on claret -	18	0	9	0	5	3	10	3	5	8	2	6	8	8	0	2	0	2
Ditto on spirits (except rum) -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
* Casks landed with less than the standard number of iron hoops, pay in addition for each hoop deficient -	-	-	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
Delivery from the vault, and cooper's attendance -	3	0	2	6	1	5	1	1	0	9	1	9	1	2	0	10	0	10
If shipped, additional -	1	4	0	8	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5
Rent, from the vessel breaking bulk, or first landing from craft, during the first 18 months, including cooper's superintendence per week, on Cape and Marsala -	0	9	0	4	0	3	0	2	0	1	0	3	0	2	0	1	0	3
On other wines and spirits (rum excepted) -	0	10	0	5	0	3	0	2	0	1	0	3	0	2	0	1	0	3
Cooper's superintendence after this period, per week, additional -	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

* The standard number of iron hoops is as follows, viz. — Port and Lisbon pipes 10; sherry butts 8; Spanish red, brandy, and Geneva, punchcans 6; aums, hogheads, and smaller casks, 6.

Wines and Spirits in Cases.	Containing 6 Dozen.		Containing 3 Dozen.					
	Quarts.	Pints.	Quarts.	Pints.				
	s. d.	e. d.	s. d.	e. d.				
Landing and delivery rate; including landing, wharfage, and loading -	1	6	0	9	0	9	0	6
Landing and housing rate; including landing, wharfage, housing, examining, coopering, and first tasting -	2	6	1	0	1	9	1	0
Examining and coopering -	1	6	0	9	0	9	0	6
Rent, from the date of the vessel breaking bulk, or first landing from craft, per week -	0	5	0	1	0	1	0	1
Wharfage and shipping, in addition to landing and delivery rate -	0	6	0	3	0	3	0	2
Breaking out and opening for samples, or second tasting, tallying down, and restoring -	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	4
Lotting for public sale -	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2
Unhousing and loading -	1	0	0	6	0	6	0	4
Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping -	1	6	0	9	0	9	0	6

Dividing 6-dozen cases into two 3-dozen cases, including new ends, unpadding, and repadding, each new case, 3s. 3d.
 Cases containing quantities not specified above, are chargeable in the like proportion.

Bottling.				Magnums.	Quarts.	Pints.
Consolidated rate for bottling	-	-	-	1 8	1 0	0 10
Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping	-	-	-	0 4	0 3	0 2
Rent to commence the day after bottling	-	-	-	0 1	0 0 1/2	0 0
				per dozen	per dozen	per dozen
				per dozen, per week	per dozen, per week	per dozen, per week
				per case of 6 dozen, per week		

COOPERAGE AND EXTRA CHARGES ON WINES AND SPIRITS OTHER THAN RUM.

	Pipes, Butts, or Funch.*	Hhds.	Thirds.	Quarter-Casks.	Half-Gr. Casks.	Aums.			
						Double.	Single.	Half.	Half.
Trimming, including wood hoops, or boughing off	2 0	1 2	1 0	0 9	0 7	1 8	1 4	0 8	0 5
Drying	2 10	0 8	0 5	0 4	0 3 1/2	0 6	0 4	0 4	0 4
Pitching and turning	0 3	0 2	0 1 1/2	0 1	0 1	0 2 1/2	0 1 1/2	0 1 1/2	0 1 1/2
Breaking out for coopering	0 6	0 2 1/2	0 2	0 2	0 2	0 6	0 3	0 3	0 2
Ditto for delivery, inspection, re-dipping, or racking, and laying up again	1 0	0 7	0 8	0 4	0 5	0 9	0 6	0 6	0 4
Filling up	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3	0 3
Casing or uncasing	1 6	0 11	0 9	0 6	0 5	0 9	0 6	0 6	0 6
Ditto in casks	7 0	6 0	6 0	4 0	3 0	5 6	4 6	3 6	2 6
Ditto in cases	19 6	12 0	11 0	7 6	6 6	14 0	9 6	8 6	5 6
Racking	3 6	1 6	1 5	1 0	0 9	1 6	1 0	1 0	1 0
Racking from the lees	3 6	1 6	1 5	1 0	0 9	1 6	1 0	1 0	1 0
Ditto and repairing casks	18 0	12 6	10 6	9 0	7 0	12 6	9 0	6 6	6 0
Ditto and new casks, in bond	27 0	18 0	16 6	13 6	10 6	22 0	14 0	9 6	9 6
Ditto and new casks, on the quay	24 0	17 0	15 6	12 6	10 0	20 0	13 6	9 0	9 0
Trimming oak cases	1 0	0 8	0 6	0 4	0 3				
Sampling in the vaults, or second sampling on the quay	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 5	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 6
Testing in store, each time	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1
Ditto at public sale	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1	0 1
Painting casks	4 0	2 6	2 6	1 9	1 0	2 0	2 0	1 6	1 6
Painting the heads, each	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Bark hoops	1 9	1 4	1 4	1 0	0 9	1 6	1 4	1 0	0 6
Iron hoops	0 8	0 8	0 8	0 6	0 5	0 8	0 6	0 6	0 6
New heads	3 6	3 0	2 6	2 6	2 5	3 6	3 0	2 6	2 6
Overdrawing and brandying, or 6ning	1 0	0 9	0 6	0 6	0 4	0 9	0 6	0 6	0 6
Chimes	each 6d.								
Pieces of lead	each 6d.								
Rivets	each 1d.								
Flials	do. 6d.								
Tins	do. 1d.								
Ditto marked	do. 1d.								

* Unserviceable casks, otherwise rated at 210 gallons to the tun, to be charged in the proportion of 2 pipes or 4 hhds. to the tun.

Vetting Charges.

	£. d.
For unhousing, racking, the use of the vat (remaining one night), refilling and bunging up, — per 100 gallons drawn from the vat	2 2
For remaining in the vat a second night	0 8
For each additional night	0 9
Water for reducing the strength	1 0
Wrights brought in for racking, by water, for receiving and delivering	2 4
Ditto ditto by land, for receiving and delivering	1 2

Note.—When casks are returned to the vault after refilling from the vat, the Company does not engage to be responsible for any deficiency in measure that does not exceed two gallons per cask for the first year, and one gallon per cask for each succeeding year, or fraction of a year.

RATES AND CHARGES ON RUM.

Landing Rate includes landing, wharfage, gauging, housing, loading from the quay, original warrants and accounts of gauges and strengths, surveying and furnishing certificate of damage. Rum not intended to be warehoused, will be allowed four clear days from the final gauging of the parcel for removal. If intended for immediate transhipment, it may remain on the quay seven clear days from that period, and when the export vessel loads in the docks, until the date of her departure, paying rent as if housed at landing.

The **prime or consolidated Rate** includes all expenses for landing, wharfage, gauging, coopering for housing, marking, sampling, housing and delivery, furnishing gauges and strengths, surveying and furnishing certificate of damage, and rent for

twelve weeks from the ship's commencement of discharge. It is charged in all cases, unless notice be given by the importers to place the goods under the landing rate.

Unhousing and loading — one-third of landing-rate.
Wharfage and shipping — two-thirds of landing-rate.
Unloading and housing — do.

Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping — same as the landing-rate.

Rent is chargeable from the date of the ship breaking bulk, or from the first landing from craft. Before transfer by the Company, or delivery, the charges on the quantity to be transferred or delivered must be paid.

	Prime Rate.	Landing Rate.	Rent.	
			Per Week.	
Rum	£. d. 10 0	£. d. *3 6	£. d. 0 8 0 6 0 4 0 4 0 2 0 1 1/2	leager butt half-butt pipe pancheon hoghead half-harrel or quarter-cask
* Includes delivery from the quay, either by land or water.				
* * * When rum is imported in casks made of proper oak, the Company engages to be responsible for deficiencies in measure, which shall exceed 1 gallon per cask for each year, or fraction of a year, the goods remain in charge; but the Company will not be answerable for deficiencies arising from the casks being made of other and inefficient materials.				
For cooper's care and attendance, after the first 12 weeks, for each leager, butt, half-butt, pipe, or pancheon, 1d. per week. Ditto for each hoghead, harrel, or quarter-cask, 6d. per week.				

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warrants, gauges, strengths of spirits, and first samples. This rate attaches after the expiration of one calendar month from the ship breaking bulk, or the first landing from craft.

Note. — Merchants requiring wines or spirits to be housed within the time allowed (one calendar month), are particularly requested to leave a written order to that effect, when this rate will become immediately chargeable.

The Consolidated Rate on Rum includes landing, wharfage, housing, cooper's attendance, coopering, furnishing original warrants, gauges, strengths, first samples, and 12 weeks' rent from the ship breaking bulk, or the first landing from the craft.

Rent attaches to Wines and Spirits, charged with the landing and delivery rate, after 14 days; charged with the landing and housing rate, from the ship breaking bulk, or the first landing from craft; or on rum charged with the consolidated rate, after 12 weeks from the ship breaking bulk.

Note. — Rent is in all cases calculated from the date of the ship breaking bulk, or the first landing from craft, such day being included in the term.

Hacking. — Forty-eight hours' notice will be given when racking is necessary, to enable the proprietor to send his own casks, or they will be supplied by the Company, at the prices stated herein. The proceeds of the racked casks, when sold, will be paid to the proprietors, upon application, after deducting the expenses of sale, &c.

No charge is made on wines and spirits racked in the vaults within 6 months from the period of the landing and housing rate attaching, those for exportation or to be sent coastwise excepted.

Tasting is not permitted without a written order, the usual charge for which is not made when the tasting is by the proprietor or his clerk, (authorised to sign delivery and all other orders,) provided he is not accompanied by any other person.

Coopering and Repairs, &c., when required for the preservation of the property on landing, examination, or delivery, will be performed, unless directions are received from the proprietor to the contrary, and charged at the rates specified herein; and any work required to be performed, not particularly described, will be charged at a proportionate rate.

Unusable casks, at the rate of 2 1/2 gallons per tun, for 3 pipes or 4 hogheads.

Deficiencies. — The company make good the following deficiencies from whatever cause arising, if the casks are of oak timber, but not otherwise; also, provided the claim be made with 6 months from delivery, viz. —

Exceeding one gallon each cask, for any period not exceeding one year.

Two gallons, if more than one and not exceeding two years, and in like proportion for each succeeding year.

Payment of Charges. — Previous to warrants being issued, or the transfer or delivery of any wines or spirits taking place, the landing and housing rate on the whole of the mark or parcel housed, must be paid; the rent and other charges on the quantity delivered or transferred.

RATES AND CHARGES ON WINES AND SPIRITS IN CASES.

	Containing 6 Dozms.		Containing 3 Dozms.	
	Quarts.	Pints.	Quarts.	Pints.
Landing and delivery rate; including landing, wharfage, and loading -	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Landing and housing rate; including landing, wharfage, housing, examining, coopering, and first tasting -	1 5	0 9	0 9	0 5
Examining and coopering -	5 5	1 9	1 9	1 0
Rent, from the date of ship breaking bulk, per week -	1 6	0 9	0 9	0 5
Wharfage and shipping, in addition to landing and delivery rate -	0 3	0 1 1/2	0 1 1/2	0 1 1/2
Breaking out and opening for samples, or second tasting, breaking down, and reworking -	0 6	0 3	0 3	0 2
Letting for public sale -	0 6	0 6	0 6	0 4
Unhousing and loading -	0 8	0 3	0 3	0 2
Unhousing, wharfage, and shipping -	1 0	0 6	0 6	0 4
Dividing 3-dozen cases into two 3-dozen cases, including new ends, unpacking, and repacking, each new case, 5s. 3d.	1 6	0 9	0 9	0 6

Cases containing quantities not specified above, are chargeable in the like proportion.

3. St. Katharine's Docks. — The Company for the construction of these docks was incorporated by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 105. (local), and they were partially opened on the 25th of October, 1828. They are situated immediately below the Tower, and are consequently the most contiguous of any to the city, the Custom-house, and other places where business is transacted. The capital raised by shares amounts to 1,352,752*l.*; but an additional sum of 700,000*l.* has been borrowed, on the security of the rates, for the completion of the works, and the purchase of a freehold property possessing river frontage from the Tower to the corner of Lower East Smithfield, of the value of upwards of 100,000*l.* but not required for the immediate purpose of the act. A portion of this property has been appropriated as a steam packet wharf, where passengers embark and land without the aid or risk of boat conveyance. The purchase of the numerous houses that stood upon the ground occupied by the docks proved, as in the case of the London Docks, a heavy item of expense. The space included within the outer wall is about 24 acres, nearly 11 of which are water. There are 2 docks communicating by a basin. The lock leading from the river, is 180 feet long, and 45 broad; it is so constructed, that ships of upwards of 600 tons burden may pass in and out 3 hours before high water, so that outward-bound ships have the opportunity of reaching Blackwall before the tide begins to recede. Ships of upwards of 800 tons register are docked and undocked without difficulty, and the depth of water at the entrance exceeds that of any other wet dock in the port of London. Vessels are also docked and undocked by night as well as by day, — an advantage peculiar to this establishment. A clear channel of not less than 300 feet in width is at all times to be kept in the pool; and vessels drawing 18 feet water may lie afloat at low water at the principal buoy off the dock entrance. The warehouses and vaults are upon a very large scale; far more so than one might be disposed to infer from the extent of water. The warehouses are exceedingly well contrived and commodious;

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and, owing to their being built partly on pillars (within which what is called the quay work of the other docks is transacted), close to the water's edge, goods are hoisted direct from the hold of the vessel, without its being necessary, as in the West India and London Docks, to land them on quays; so that there is in this way a great saving both of room, time, and labour. The whole establishment is exceedingly complete, and reflects the greatest credit on the public spirit, enterprise, and skill, of those by whom it was projected and executed. The dividend on the company's stock is at present (1843) 5 per cent.

The regulations to be observed by vessels using the St. Katharine's Docks are similar to those enforced in the East and West India Docks; to which, as in the case of the London Docks, we beg to refer.

Table of Tonnage Rates chargeable on Vessels entering the St. Katharine Docks, and also of the Rates for discharging Cargoes landed by the Company, subject to such Revision, from Time to Time, as shall be found expedient.

Vessels Inwards.		
On Vessel laden, arriving from	Per Ton Register.	Privilege.
<i>s. d.</i>		
First Class. —Any port of the United Kingdom, Isles of Man, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, or other European port outside the Baltic, between the North Cape and Ushant -	0 6	Vessels whose cargoes are discharged by the Dock Company. Use of the Docks to vessels arriving from Hambro', or from any port in the Mediterranean, for 3 weeks from the date of entrance; if arriving from any other port, 4 weeks from the date of final discharge, with liberty to load outwards for any port or place, and to quit the docks for repairs, and re-enter; the period of absence from dock for such purposes not to affect the privilege.
Second Class. —Any other port -	0 9	Vessels whose cargoes are discharged by their crews. The like privilege, but to commence from the date of entrance.
		Per Ton Register.
	<i>s. d.</i>	
Rent, in each case, after the expiration of the privilege, per week -	0 1	
For partial remissions and exemptions on vessels partly laden, or arriving from Spain or Portugal, wool or cork laden, or vessels with corn, see annexed Table.		
Rates for discharging Cargoes by the Company.		
Cargoes, consisting in the whole or in part, of sugar in hogsheads or tierces, including ship cooperage -	1 9	
Cargoes, consisting of sugar in chests of 5 cwt. and upwards, including ship cooperage -	1 5	
Cargoes, consisting of sugar in bags, mats, or chests under 5 cwt., or other goods (not being hemp, tallow, ashes, wood goods, corn, pitch, tar, hay, or straw), contained in casks, bales, serons, chests, cases, bags, baskets, or similar packages; also spelter, or metal in pigs, bars, rods, plates, &c. -	0 9	
Cargoes, consisting of hemp only, or merchandise in bulk, wholly or in part -	1 0 0 6	
Hemp -	<i>s. d.</i> 1 3	Per ton of goods, charge in no case to exceed the register tonnage of the vessel.
Tallow -	0 6	
ashes -	0 6	
Blue gum wood, or large timber, additional for every load delivered 0 6		
No charge upon screws landed beyond a ship's register tonnage.		
Oil, additional for every tun delivered into craft -	0 6	
Vessels Outwards.		
entering the Docks without Cargoes.		
	Per Ton Register.	Privilege.
<i>s. d.</i>		
Loading for any port enumerated in the Import Table in first class -	0 6	Use of dock to load 4 weeks from date of entrance -
Do. do. 2d class -	0 9	Use of dock to load 1 week from entrance -
Vessels loading in part, on quantity taken on board according to their port of destination, as above classified -	as above	Rent after expiration of the privilege, <i>i. e.</i> per ton register per week.

TABLE of special Regulations, Remissions, and Exemptions, and Miscellaneous Charges applicable to Vessels inwards, not being fully laden, or laden with the Articles enumerated, or entering the Docks light, &c.

No tonnage rate will be charged on vessels wholly corn laden, whose cargoes shall be landed in the docks; but a charge will in such case be made for docking and undocking, as under:

Vessels of 100 tons and upwards -	4 s.
Vessels under 100 tons -	1 0
	10 6

with liberty to remain in dock without further charge for 24 hours after final landing. Rent, after expiration of that period, *i. e.* per ton register per week. Should the vessel load outwards, the usual tonnage rates, according to the port of destination, will be charged, instead of the rate for docking and undocking. The Dock Company reserves the power of refusing the admission of ships laden entirely with corn.

Other vessels, not being fully laden at the time of entering the docks, will be charged tonnage rate only on the proportion of cargo brought in; the amount of rate to be determined by the port from whence the vessel has arrived; and if discharged by the Company, rates for unloading in addition, according to the description of the cargo and quantity so discharged. Rent, after 1 week, *i. e.* per ton register per week.

Vessels laden with cork or wool from Spain or Portugal will be charged only *6d.* per ton register. Rent, after 3 weeks from date of entrance, *i. e.* per ton register per week.

Light vessels entering the dock to lie up, will be charged, for any period not exceeding 4 weeks per ton register - 0 0 6

Rent per week, after the expiration of the 4 weeks, on the register tonnage, per ton - 0 0 1

Vessels two thirds laden with corn will be charged tonnage rate only on the proportion which the other part of the cargo bears to the register tonnage.

Vessels chiefly laden with wood goods, pitch, tar, hay, straw, or intending to discharge the whole of their cargoes into lighters, will only be permitted to enter or depart the docks, subject to such terms as shall be first mutually agreed upon between the owners and the Dock Company.

Miscellaneous Charges.

For labourers hired of the Company, to work on board, and who shall be under the directions and responsibility of captains or owners of vessels, both or either (which rule applies to all over-board deliveries), a charge will be made for each man per day, of -	5 6
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Thames water supplied to vessels by the Company per tun - 1 0

For an abstract of a ship's cargo inwards, and weights thereof, for the purpose of making up freight accounts, the following charge will be made:—

<i>s. d.</i>	
If the goods have 10 marks, or under -	2 0
11 marks to 20 marks -	3 6
21 marks and upwards 0 2 each mark or parcel.	

N. B.—The dock dues, rent, &c. of most articles landed, warehoused, or shipped at the different docks, being, in general, nearly identical, the reader is referred for an account of the same to the Table under the head *E. and W. India Docks.*

4. *Commercial Docks.*—Exclusive of the previously mentioned docks, which are all on the north side of the river, there are on the south side the *Commercial Docks*, opposite to the west end of the West India Docks. These docks are of large extent; the space included within the outer wall being about 49 acres, of which nearly 38 acres are water. They are principally intended for the reception of vessels with timber, corn, and other

bulky commodities. They have but little accommodation for warehousing; and their establishments are not constructed so as to entitle them to bond all goods. The Surrey Canal Company also admits vessels to be docked in the basin of their canal.

5. London Port Dues; Charges on account of Lights, Pilotage, &c. in the Thames; Shipping, &c. of London.

It is highly desirable that expert pilots, brilliant lights, and every other means that it is possible to devise, should be afforded to render navigation safe and expeditious. But to secure these advantages, it is indispensable that the charges on their account should be moderate. If they be otherwise, navigators are not unfrequently tempted to resort to what are less expensive, though less secure, channels. This principle has not, however obvious, been always kept sufficiently in view either in this or in other countries. During the latter years of the war, and down to 1825, the charges on account of docks, lights, pilotage, &c. on ships in the Thames, and most other British ports, were exceedingly heavy; and would, no doubt, had they been maintained, have materially injured our commerce. Instead, also, of encouraging the resort of foreign ships to our ports, a contrary policy was adopted; the charges laid on them being usually about double those laid on British ships. This regulation was intended to promote the employment of the latter; but, as it led to reprisals in other countries, its real influence is believed to have been quite different; while, by driving away foreigners, it injured the trade of the country, and prevented our ports from becoming what they are so well fitted to be, the great mart and depots of the world. We are glad, however, to have to state, that the circumstances now alluded to have been materially, or rather wholly, changed within the last 20 years. In 1825, the various dock monopolies expired; and a very great reduction has since been made in the charges on account of the docks, which, as already seen, are now very moderate indeed.

Exclusive of the dock duties, certain port or tonnage duties were imposed on ships frequenting the ports of London, by the act 39 Geo. 3. c. 93., 43 Geo. 3. c. 121., &c., partly to pay the harbour moneys, provide mooring chains, &c., and partly to create a fund for the improvement of the port, and in particular for defraying the cost of making a navigable canal across the Isle of Dogs. But this fund having been sold (see p. 405.) for 20,000*l.*, to the West India Dock Company, under the 10 Geo. 4. c. 120., and the sums advanced by the public for the improvement of the port having been repaid, it was judiciously resolved to reduce the port duties to the lowest rates capable of defraying the necessary expenses. This was effected by the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 35., which imposed the following tonnage duties on vessels in the port:—

Per Ton.	
1st Class. —For every ship or other vessel trading coastwise between the port of London and any port or place in Great Britain, Ireland, the Orkney, Shetland, or the Western Islands of Scotland, there shall be paid for every voyage in and out of the said port	10 s.
2d Class. —For every ship, &c., entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to Denmark, Norway, or Lapland (on this side of the North Cape), or from Holstein, Hanburgh, Bremen, or any other part of Germany bordering on or near the Germanic Ocean, or from or to Holland, or any other of the United Provinces, or Brabant, Antwerp, Flanders, or any other part of the Netherlands, or from or to France, (within Ushant) (Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or the Isle of Man, there shall be paid for every, &c., as above	5 s.
3d Class. —For every ship, &c., entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to Lapland (beyond the North Cape), Finland, Russia (without or within the Baltic Sea), Livonia, Courland, Poland, Prussia, Sweden, or any other country or place within the Baltic Sea, there shall be paid for every, &c., as above	5 s.
4th Class. —For every ship, &c., entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to France (between Ushant and Spain), Portugal, Spain (without the Mediterranean), or any of the Azores, Madeira, or Canary Islands, or any of the U. States of America, or of the British colonies or provinces in N. America or Florida, there shall be paid for every, &c., as above	5 s.
5th Class. —For every ship, &c., entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to Greenland, Oubirats, France, or Spain (within the Mediterranean), or any country, island, port, or place within or bordering on, or near the Mediterranean or Adriatic Seas, or from the West Indies, Louisiana, Mexico, S. America, Africa, East India, China, or any other country, island, port, or place within or bordering on or near the Pacific Ocean, or from any other country, island, port, or place whatsoever to the southward of 25° of north latitude, there shall be paid, &c., as above	5 s.

Owing to the distance of London from the sea, and the rather intricate navigation at the mouth of the river, the charges on account of lights and pilotage must necessarily be pretty heavy. They have, however, been very materially reduced of late years. The charges on account of the lights under the management of the Trinity House have been diminished, in almost every instance, at least one third; and in many instances as much as a half, and sometimes even more, since 1823. (See LIGHT-HOUSES.) The practice of imposing discriminating light and pilotage dues on foreign vessels is still kept up; but owing to the general establishment of reciprocity treaties with foreign powers, the grievance thence arising has become rather nominal than real, and at present affects very few of the foreign vessels coming to our ports.

The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 125. made a reduction of 8 per cent. in the charges authorised to be demanded by the pilots licensed by the Trinity House for the port of London; and foreign vessels, privileged as British vessels, have been relieved from the additional or surplus rate of 2*½* per cent. payable to the Trinity pilots, as well as to those licensed by the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. (See PILOTAGE.)

The oppressive and troublesome charges in the port of London, imposed on alien goods under the names of package, scavage, &c.—(see PACKAGE)—were put an end to in 1833. At present, therefore, we believe we are warranted in affirming that, considering its distance from the sea, the public charges on shipping in the port of London are quite as reasonable as in any other port of the empire, or of the world. But we are inclined to think that further reductions may still be effected, particularly in the article pilotage.

The following accounts show the nature and amount of the various charges that are at present incurred by vessels in the port of London:—

Account of Charges on a Ship of about 480 Tons entering and departing the Port of London laden both ways, supposing every thing to be conducted with strict Economy, and excluding any Charge on account of extraordinary Despatch or superior Accommodation.	From and to Calcutta or New York.		£ s. d.
	£	s. d.	
Reporting ship and appointment	15	11 4	5 2 4
Pilotage from the Downs	17	12 11 4	18 4 0
Berthing the pilot at sea	5	10 6	4 0 0
Watermen, boat, and kedge from Gravesend			2 0 0
London port dues inwards, 3 <i>d.</i> per ton, and entry, 2 <i>d.</i>			1 16 0
Do. outwards, 6 <i>d.</i> per ton, and entry, 2 <i>d.</i>			2 11 0
Trinity dues and lights inwards, 6 <i>d.</i> per ton	13	10 0	13 10 0
Dock dues in and out, 1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per ton, including discharging cargo			56 0 0
Trinity dues and lights outwards, 5 <i>d.</i> per ton			11 0 0
Dunegess light in and out, 1 <i>d.</i> per ton			2 0 0
Clearing outwards and victualling bill			5 3 0
Steam boat to Gravesend (optional)			10 0 0
Pilotage to the Downs			12 8 6
Putting the pilot on shore, unless landed in the ship's boat by agreement, sometimes 1 <i>l.</i> , often 3 <i>l.</i> or 4 <i>l.</i> , according to weather and distance.			14 14 8

DOCKS (LONDON PORT DUES).

Account of Charges on a Ship of about 400 Tons entering and departing the Port of London laden both ways, according every thing to be conducted with strict Economy, and including any Charge on account of extraordinary Damages and superior Accommodation.

		From and to Jamaica.		N.B. - W. I. Dock dues, if laden with sugar, &c. per ton.	
		d s d		Ditto, if not unloaded, but enters the Harport & Dock for loading outward, 6d. per ton.	
		s d d		Trinity dues and lights inward, 4s. per ton.	
Reporting ship and appointment				Clearing outward and victualling bill	4 10 0
Storage from the Downs, according to draught of water				Steem-boat to Blackwall (optional).	
Boarding the pilot at sea, according to distance from Down				Piloting to the Downs, according to draught of water.	
Waterman, boat, and lodge from Greenway, 21s. to 30s.				Putting the pilot on shore, unless landed in the ship's boat, from 11. to 5s., according to weather, &c.	
London port dues inward, 1s. per ton.					
Ditto outward, 1s. per ton.					
Dock dues in and out -					

The following tabular statement will serve to illustrate the progress of the foreign trade and navigation of London:—

Number and Tonnage of Vessels entering the Port of London from Foreign Parts, with Cargoes and in Ballast, distinguishing between British and Foreign Ships.

Years.	British.		Foreign.		Years.	British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1700	839	20,040	498	71,093	1898	3,483	673,393	1,536	313,224
1750	1,498	394,023	184	30,246	1897	4,018	789,189	1,254	221,004
1790	2,234	431,890	118	146,500	1896	4,064	787,418	1,208	218,991
1791	2,184	416,374	1,256	146,053	1895	4,136	794,070	1,303	215,805
1792	2,498	431,168	1,184	132,343	1894	3,910	766,329	1,188	207,500
1793	2,548	478,105	1,188	177,019	1893	3,140	580,288	1,037	204,139
1814				269,234	1892	3,474	640,057	825	124,214
1815				373,373	1891	3,211	678,299	1,061	175,823
1816				115,463	1890	3,186	735,633	1,080	213,033
1817				151,647	1889	3,780	740,333	1,057	186,883
1818				213,843	1888	3,843	778,048	1,445	235,875
1819				58,883	1887	4,079	811,768	1,547	240,133
1820				128,513	1886	4,368	883,923	1,727	277,908
1821				608,167	1885	4,840	969,459	1,375	257,183
1822				571	1884	4,847	959,459	1,999	317,608
1823				843	1883	5,008	1,008,433	1,840	324,456
1824				1,643	1882	4,549	1,074,530	1,633	395,181
1825				1,743	1881	4,789	1,008,463	2,144	333,246

Amount of Shipping, &c. belonging to the Port of London.—According to the official accounts, there belonged to this port, on the 31st of December, 1842, 2,383 sailing vessels: of these 2,264, of the aggregate burden of 577,433 tons, were respectively above 50 tons register, while 629, of the aggregate burden of 20,607 tons, were respectively under 50 tons register. There then also belonged to the port 229 steam vessels of the burden of 47,365 tons. The crews of these ships, including steamers, amounted to above 25,000 men and boys! In 1819, the gross customs duty collected in the port of London amounted to 7,749,463*l.*; in 1832, it amounted to 9,434,854*l.*; and in 1844, it had increased to 11,778,512*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*! So vast an amount of shipping and commerce was never previously concentrated in any single port. London may be truly said to be *universis orbis terrarum emporium*. May her prosperity be as lasting as it is great!

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Coasting Vessels that have entered the Port of London, in each Year from 1833 to 1844, both inclusive.

Years.	General Coasters, including Colliers.		Irish Traders.		Total.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1833	16,212	2,368,533	1,094	144,568	18,296	2,517,921
1834	15,098	2,645,898	1,043	147,962	20,069	2,995,837
1835	19,306	2,604,906	1,153	160,076	20,471	2,764,988
1836	18,717	2,636,849	1,048	154,009	20,763	2,843,456
1837	20,301	2,743,834	1,181	167,499	21,382	2,911,736
1838	20,333	2,787,747	1,209	160,435	21,592	2,948,196
1839	20,303	2,686,681	807	141,080	21,111	2,829,701
1840	20,213	2,701,058	1,006	149,753	21,619	2,850,813
1841	18,281	2,844,366	1,345	187,243	19,786	3,030,713
1842	20,498	2,769,384	1,069	150,583	21,967	2,929,547
1843	20,356	2,711,803	1,348	183,468	21,500	2,901,371
1844	11,091	2,106,743	1,244	183,653	20,738	2,490,596

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Ships that entered the Port of London with Cargoes from Foreign Parts, distinguishing the Countries whence they arrived, in 1844.

Countries.	British.		Foreign.		Countries.	British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.		Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
Russia	429	97,816	42	15,182	Turkey and continental Greece	59	9,256	2	240
Sweden	36	4,607	143	56,469	Mores and Great Islands	49	5,483	2	2,361
Norway	1	100	56	8,894	East India	60	4,890	1	1,000
Denmark	20	9,019	441	34,438	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	17	3,703		
Prussia	801	41,033	247	70,585	Foreign possessions in Africa	4	12,600	2	637
German States	183	6,617	926	12,751	India	24	12,600		
Holland	314	47,537	223	17,418	China	26	27,111		
Belgium	138	36,990	124	30,576	United States of America	14	8,953	78	41,131
France	473	69,394	349	31,427	Foreign West India	39	8,712	39	4,301
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	334	36,033	9	381	Foreign continental colonies	148	26,894	15	2,667
Spain and Canaries	194	21,229	88	3,881	America				
Italian States	137	19,148	8	2,158					
Asian States	18	1,879							
					Total	2,051	637,373	2,126	451,047

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Ships that entered the Port of London with Cargoes from the Colonies and Dependencies of England during 1844.

	Ships.		Ships.	Tons.	
	Ships.	Tons.			
Heligoland	1	202	British West India	397	83,696
Gibraltar	6	1,212	Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	458	44,643
Malta	14	4,098	The White Fisheries	12	6,944
British possessions in Africa	151	28,456			
Ditto Asia	350	137,821	Total	1,678	468,111
British North American colonies	541	125,563			

For an account of the rates of pilotage in the Thames, see PILOTAGE.

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A.	Tons.
3	349
3	637
76	41,131
23	8,901
15	2,867
120	151,047

with Cargoes

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a.	Tons.
7	93,690
6	44,643
6	4,944
8	466,111

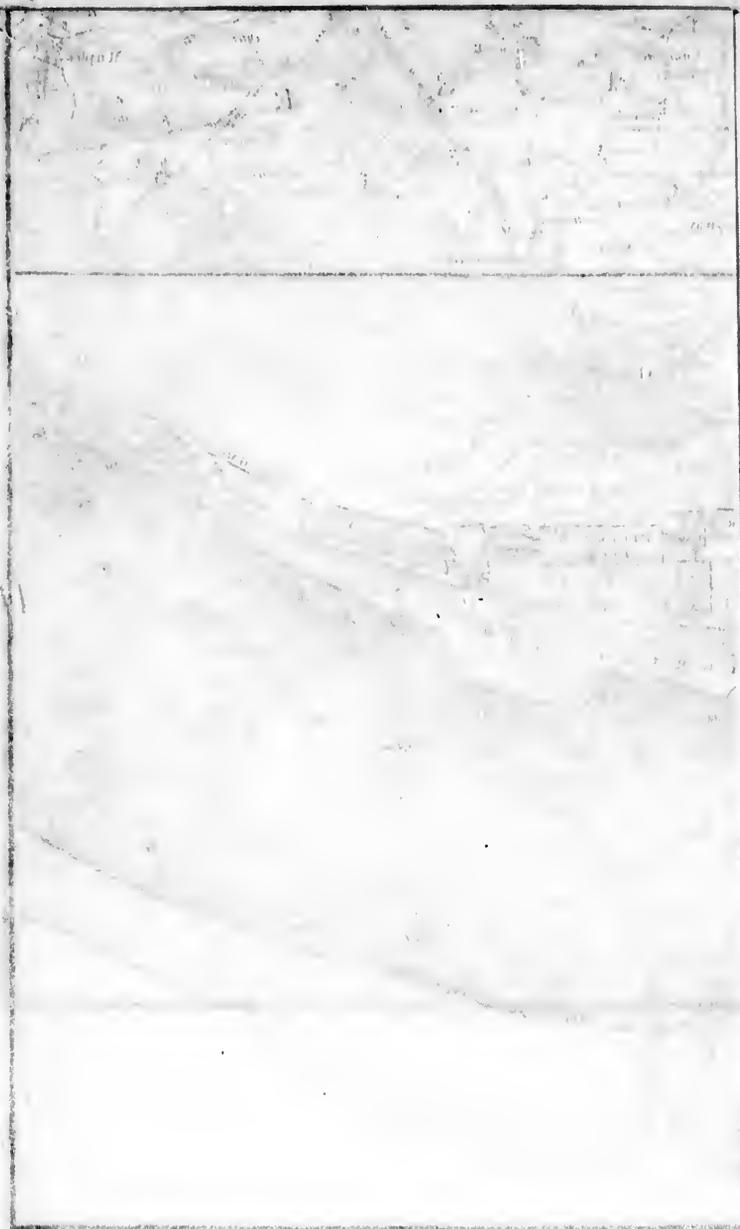


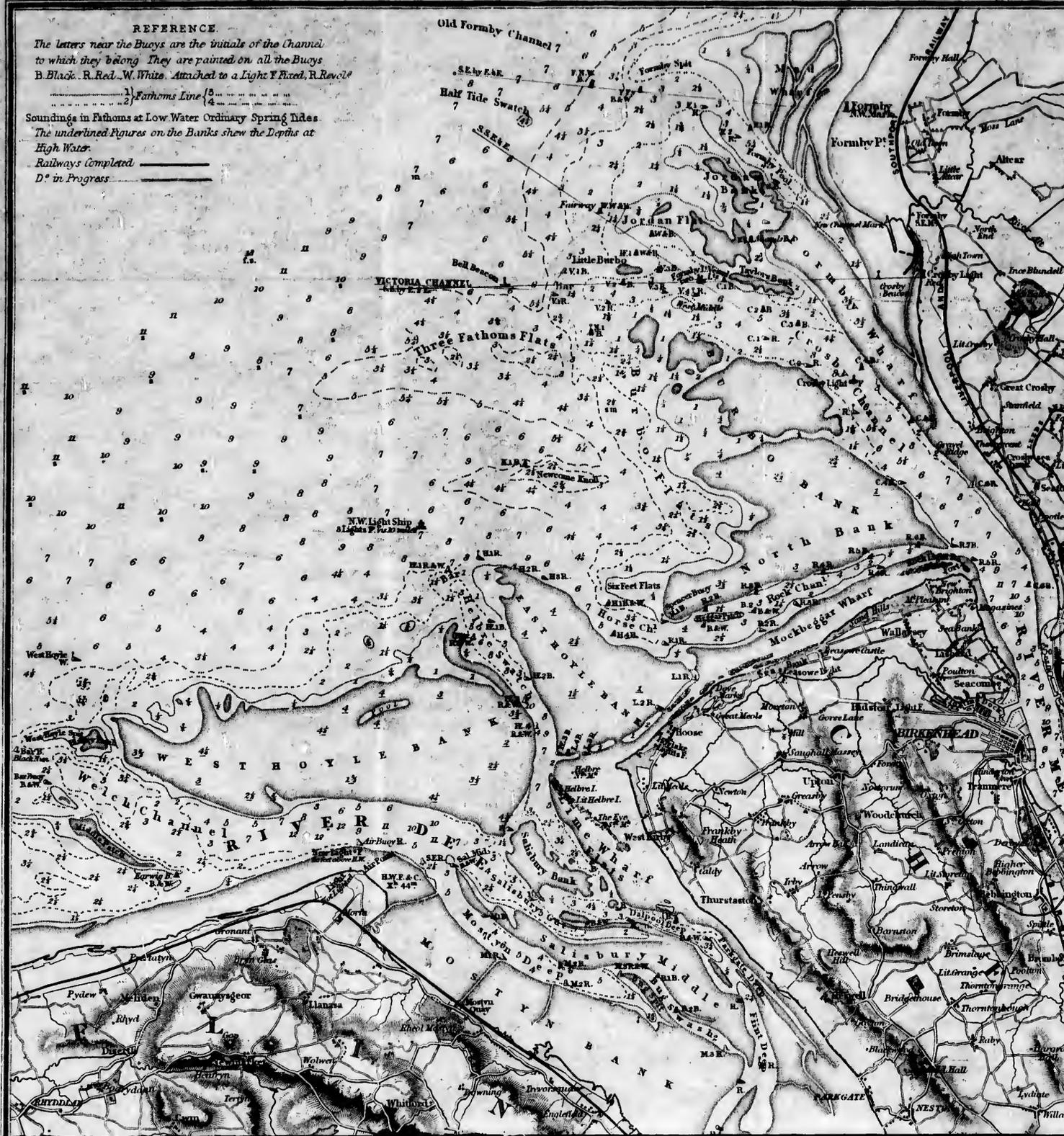
CHART OF THE ... WITH A

REFERENCE

The letters near the Buoys are the initials of the Channel to which they belong. They are painted on all the Buoys
B. Black. R. Red. W. White. Attached to a Light: F. Fixed, R. Revolving.

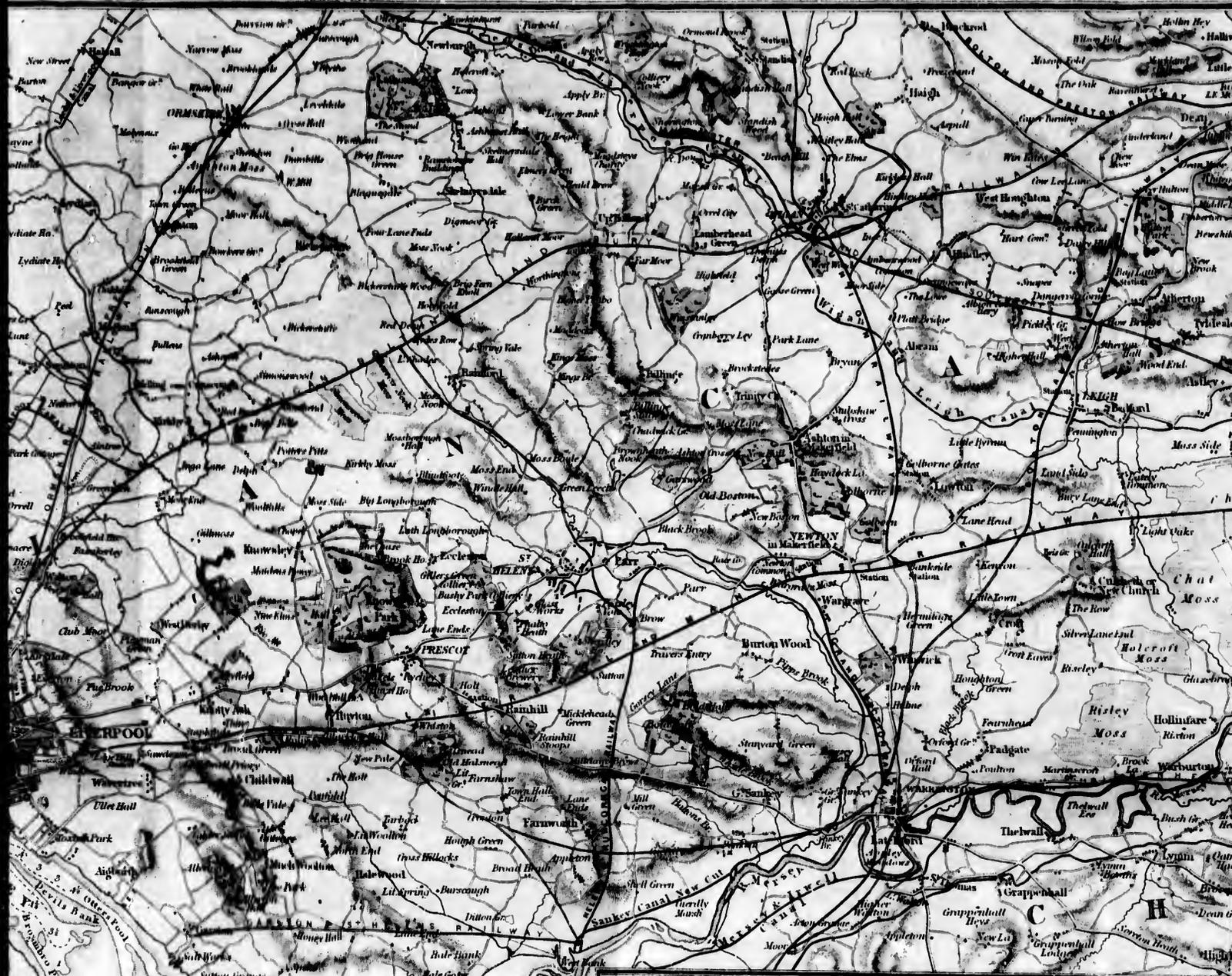
..... 1/2 Fathoms Line
..... 2 Fathoms Line
Soundings in Fathoms at Low Water Ordinary Spring Tides.
The underlined figures on the Banks show the Depths at High Water.

Railways Completed —————
D* in Progress —————



MOUTHS OF THE RIVERS MERSE

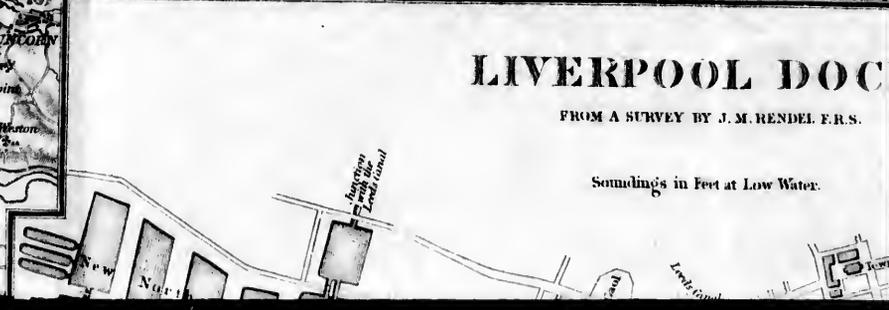
MAP OF THE ADJACENT COUNTRY, &



LIVERPOOL DOCK

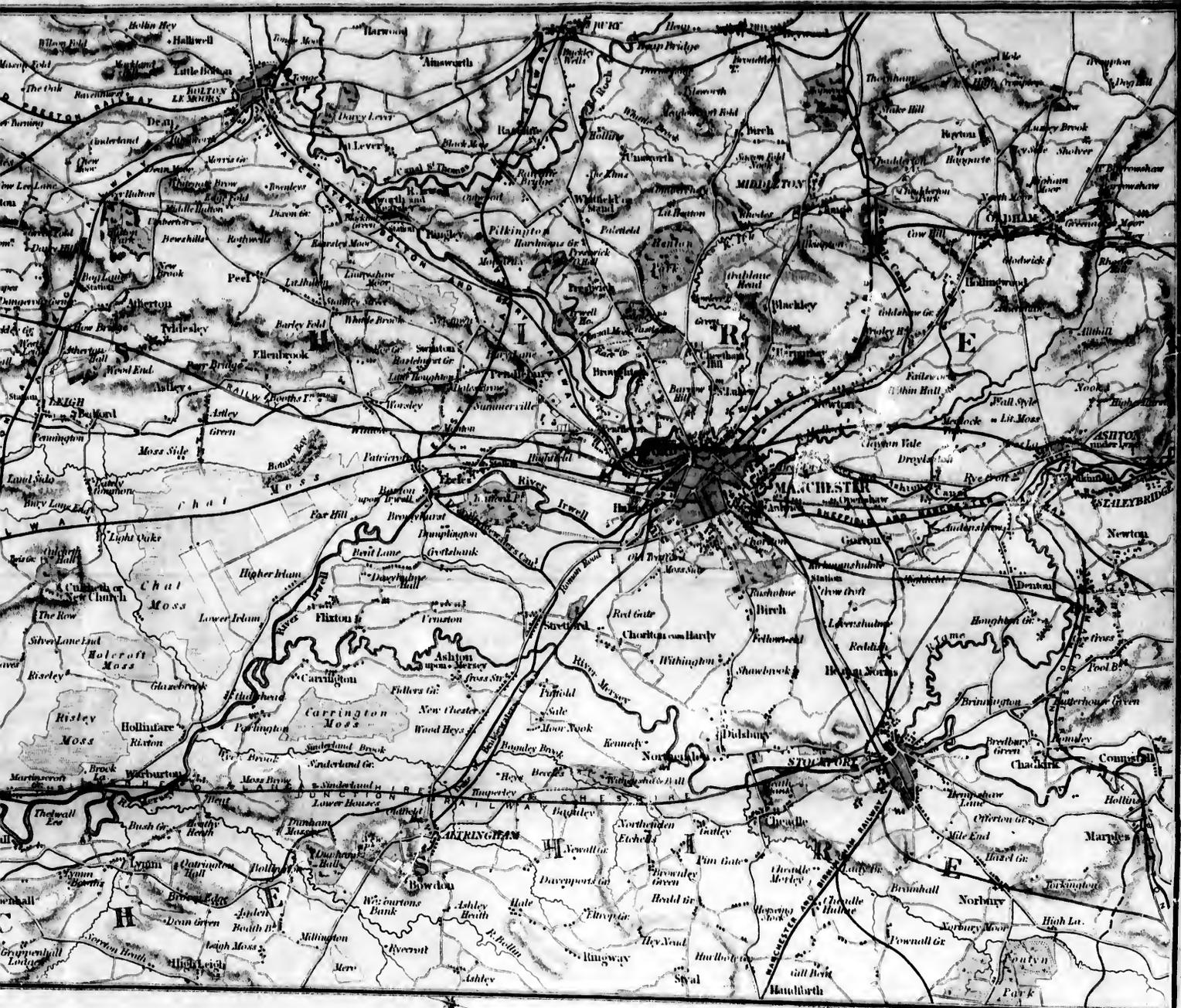
FROM A SURVEY BY J. M. RENDEL F.R.S.

SOUNDINGS IN FEET AT LOW WATER.



CHESHIRE AND DEE

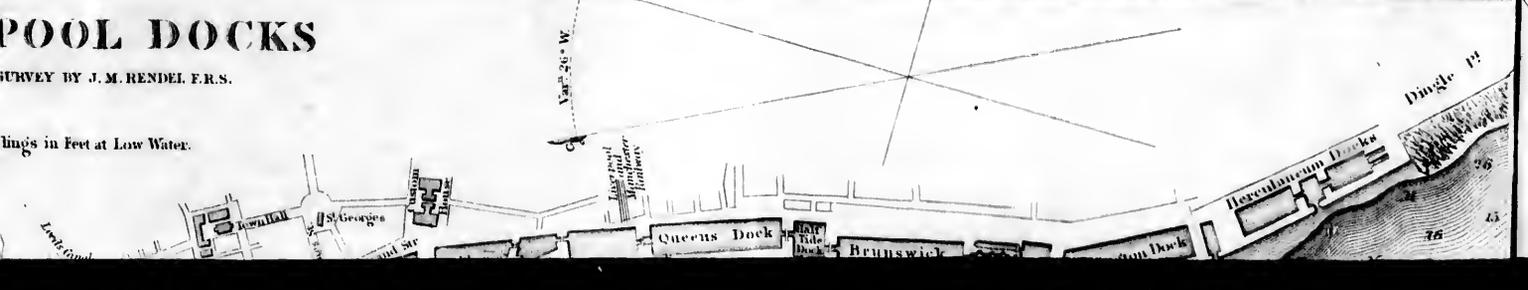
TRAY, &c.



POOL DOCKS

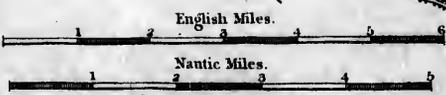
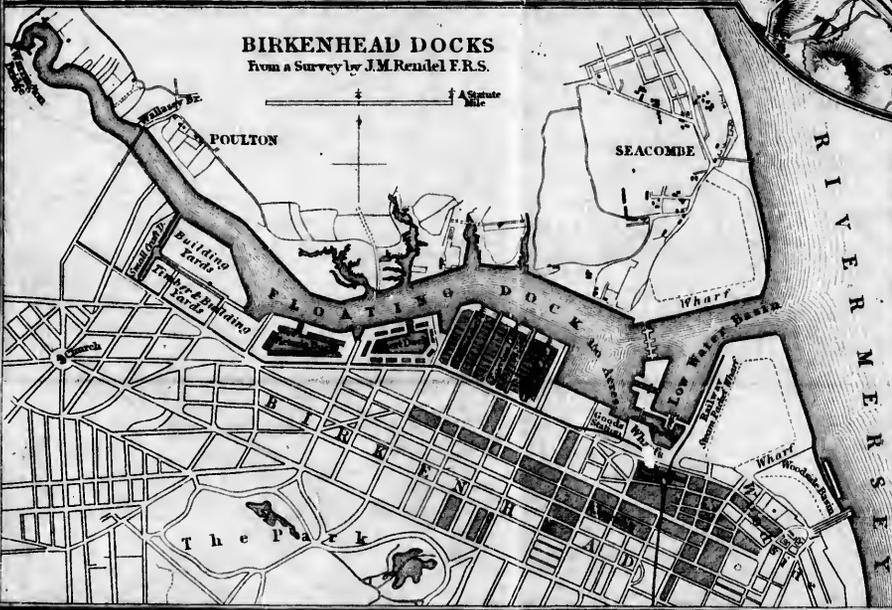
SURVEY BY J. M. RENDEL F.R.S.

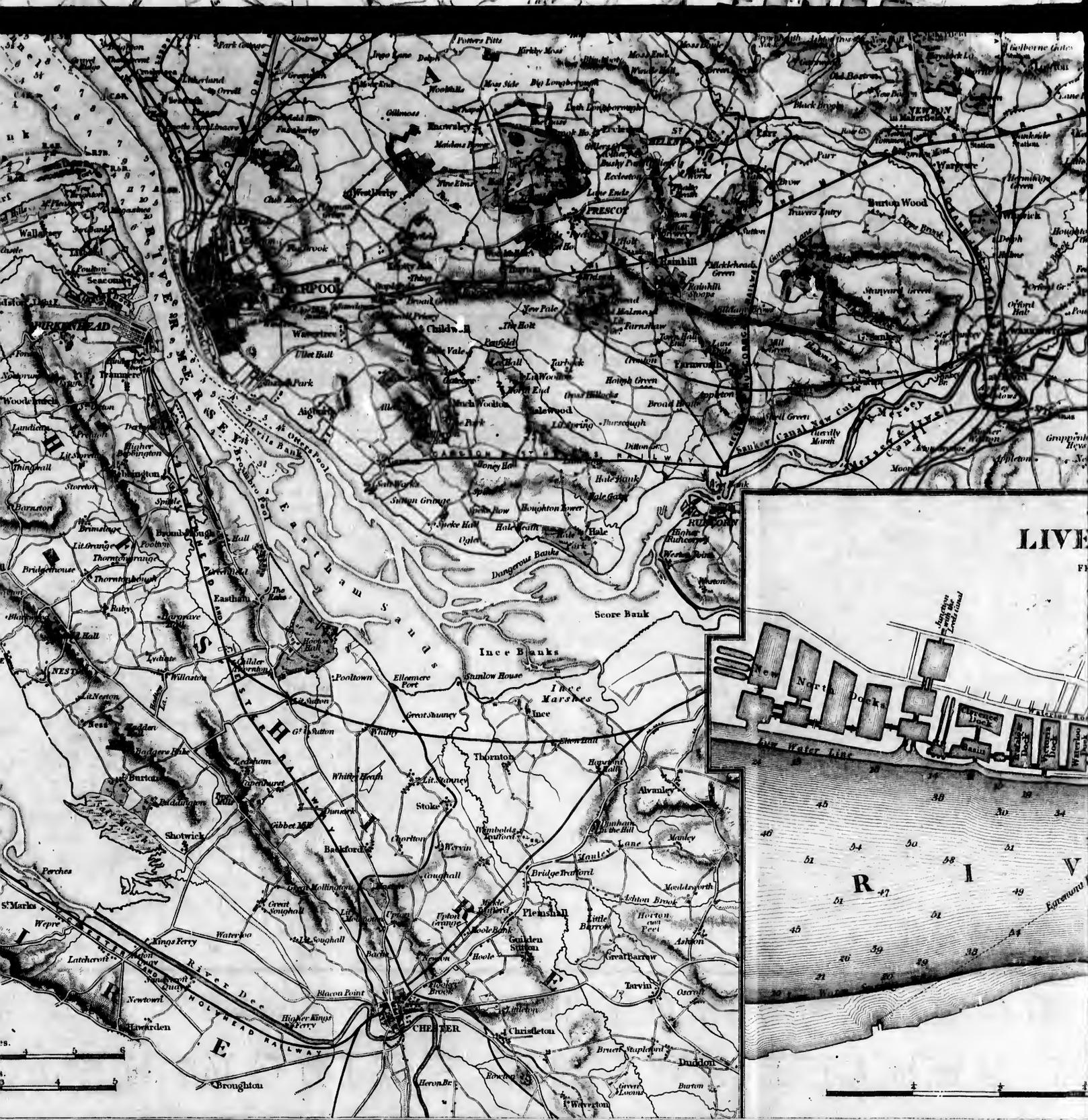
Levels in Feet at Low Water.

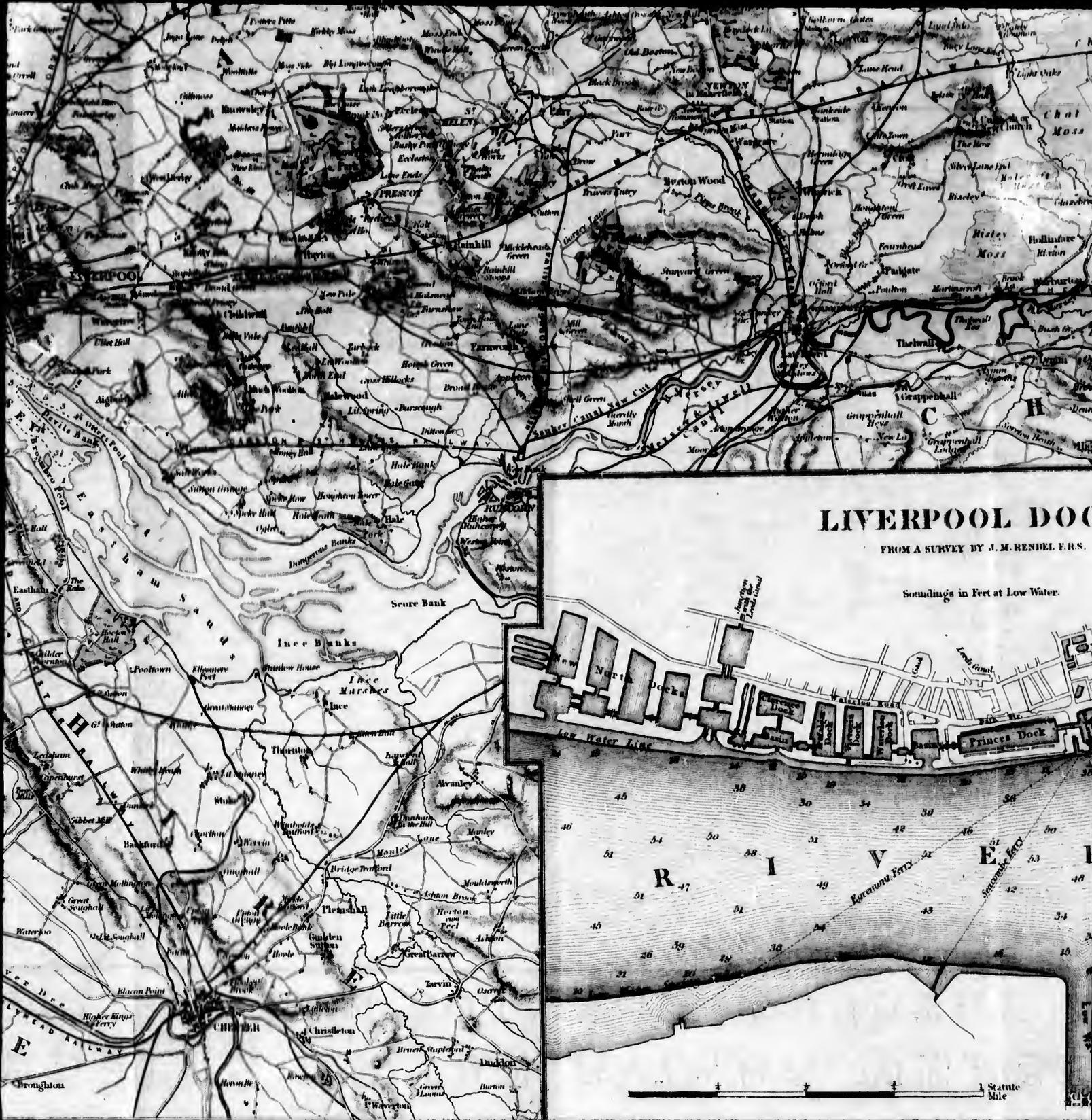




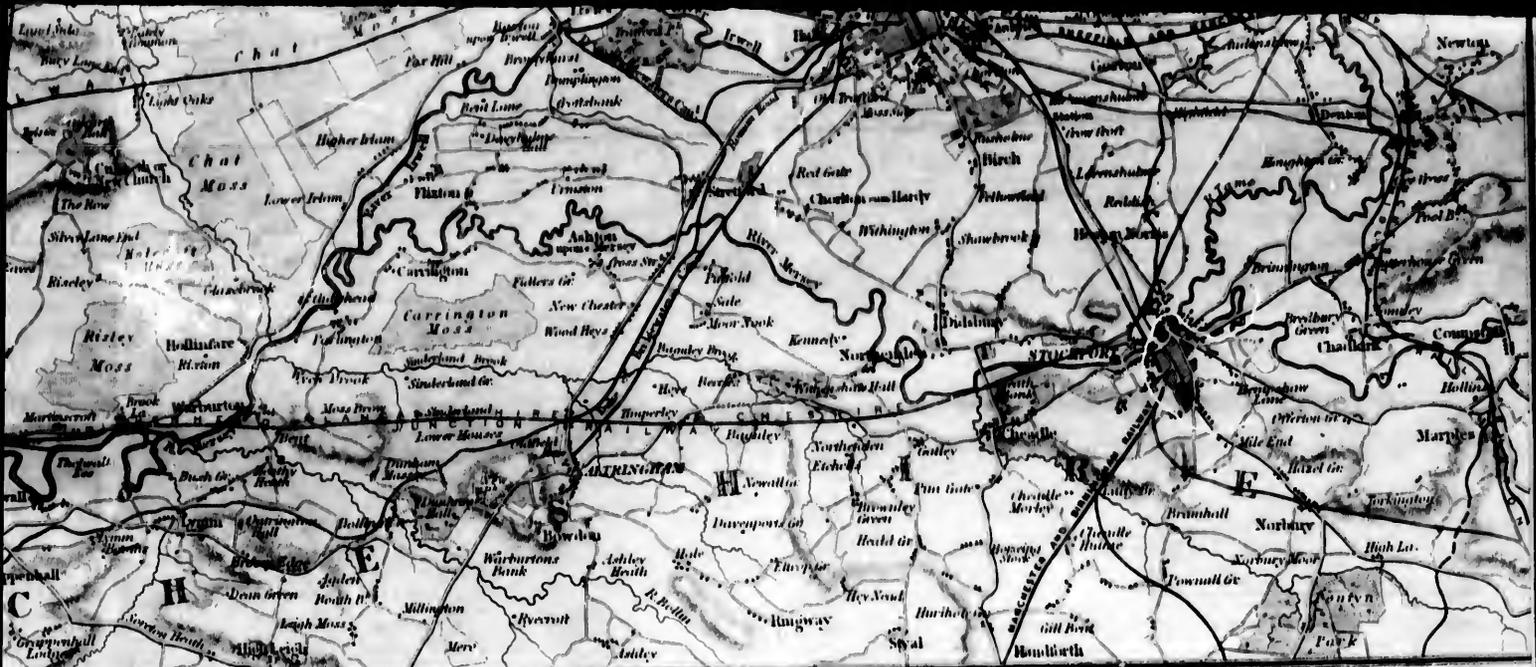
BIRKENHEAD DOCKS
From a Survey by J.M. Rendel F.R.S.







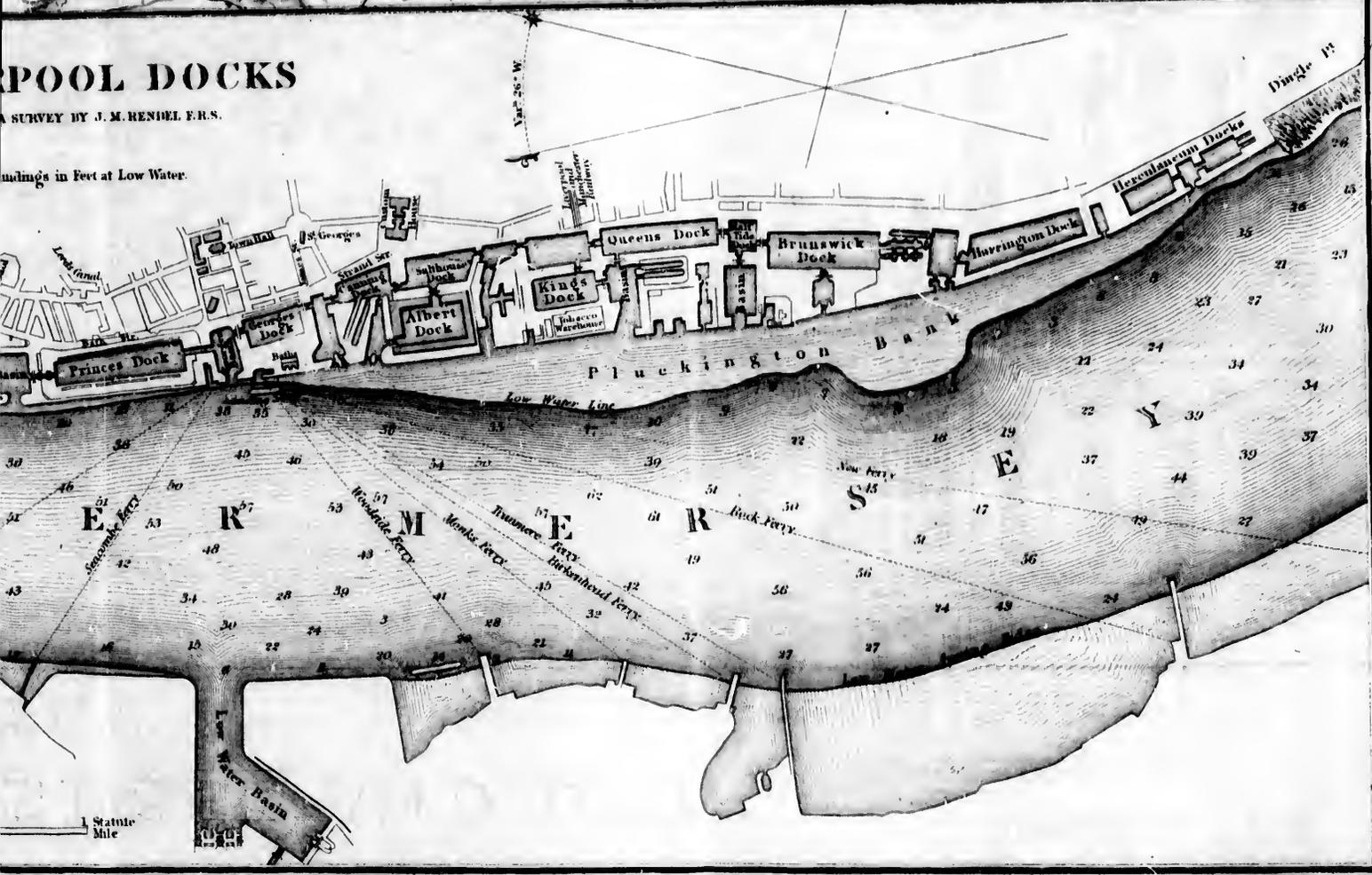
London, Longman & Co.



POOL DOCKS

A SURVEY BY J. M. RENDEL F.R.S.

Soundings in Feet at Low Water.



SHall, del et Sculp. Barry Str' Bloomsbury

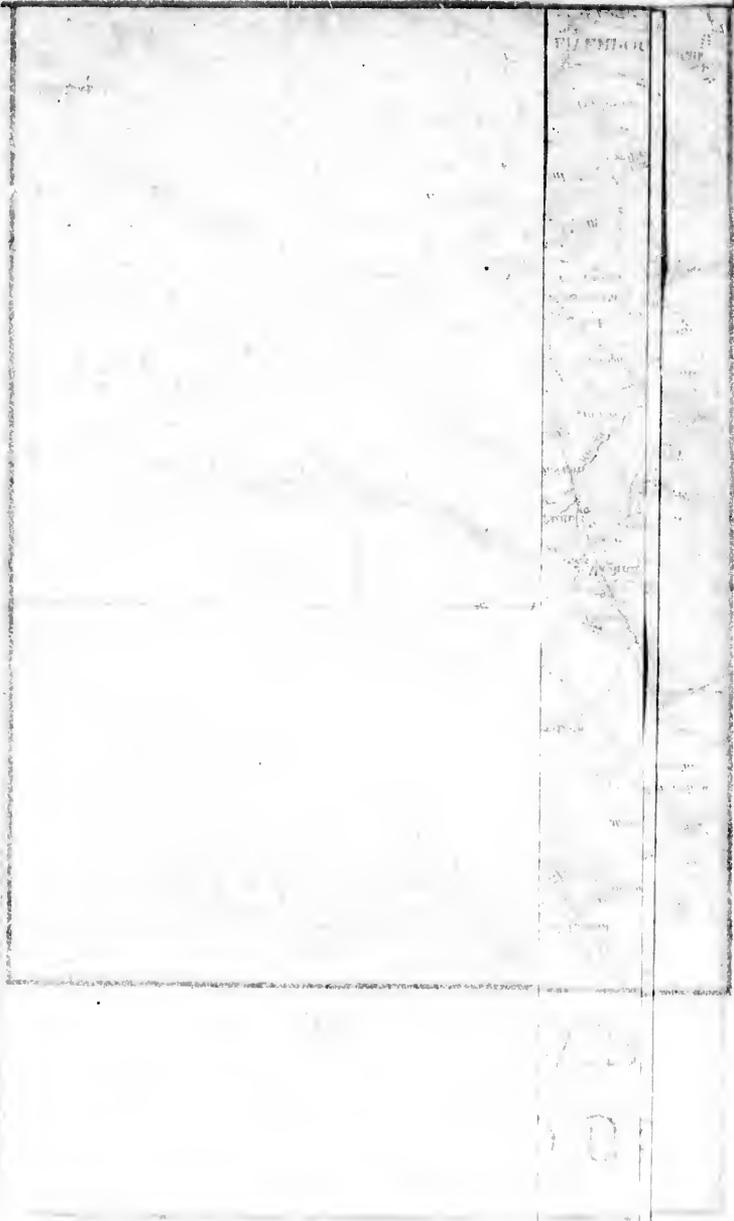


PLATE I
[Faint text and markings, possibly a title or description of the diagram above]

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II. SOUTHAMPTON DOCKS, SHIPPING, &c.

Southampton, at the embouchure of the Itchen, on the inlet of the sea called Southampton Water, opposite to the Isle of Wight, lat. 50° 53' 59" N., long. 1° 24' W., may be regarded as one of the outports of the metropolis.

It is situated about 70 miles (direct distance) W. S. W. from London, the journey between them being performed, by means of the South-Western railway, in from 2 to 3 hours. Southampton Water affords good anchorage; and ships resorting to this port, or anchoring in Spithead roads, or in the channel between the Isle of Wight and the mainland, may get to sea, in almost every wind, with comparative facility. Hence it is usual for ships from London bound for the Mediterranean, India, the West Indies, or America, to touch at Cowes, opposite to Southampton Water, to take on board passengers, who thus avoid the lengthened and difficult navigation round by the Forelands and Beachy Head, at the same time that they are all but certain of being immediately able to proceed on their voyage; and hence, also, Southampton has now become the central station of the West India Mail Packet Company, of the steamers for Lisbon and Alexandria, and of those for Dieppe, and other French ports, &c. Lastly, &c., the great natural advantages of its situation have been, and are in the course of being most materially improved. The channel of the Itchen has been deepened, and a tidal basin communicating with it, has been already formed. This basin covers an area of 16 acres, and is accessible to vessels drawing 23 feet water at all times of the tide. The construction of a wet dock of 14 acres has also been commenced; and a graving dock, with convenient vaults, warehouses, steam tugs, and ponds for timber have been provided for the use of the ships and the accommodation of the goods landed and shipped at the port.

The rates and charges which the Dock Company are empowered by their act to levy, are the same as those of the principal docks of the port of London; but the directors have reduced them as follows:

Tonnage Rates on Ships.

	£	s.	d.
1. Coasters, landing or shipping passengers or cargo	Free.		
2. All other shipping, British or foreign, per ton register	0	0	1
3. Vessels laden with mixed cargoes of timber and deals, the produce of Europe, or N. America, if discharged by the dock company, per ton ship's register	0	1	0
and additional for every load of timber	0	1	0
4. Or, at the option of the ship-owner, the dock company will undertake to discharge entire cargoes, consisting of timber and deals, at per ton ship's register	0	1	5
5. Or the ship-owner may employ his crew, or hire and pay lumpers to discharge his cargo; in such cases the dock company's charge will be, for the privilege of using the docks, per ton register	0	0	2
6. Vessels laden entirely with deals, staves, lath, or frowood, if discharged by the dock company, per ton ship's register	0	1	0
7. Do. with timber from Africa or India, per ton ship's register	0	3	0
8. Do. with West India cargoes (sugar, rum, &c.), per ton ship's register	0	1	9
9. Do. with sugar in cases or chests, if above 5 cwt. each, per ton ship's register	0	1	3
10. Do. do. in bags or ditto, under 5 cwt. each, per ton ship's register	0	0	0
11. Do. entirely with coffee, in casks or bags, per ton ship's register	0	0	9

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels which entered and cleared with Cargoes at Southampton, in the year 1844, distinguishing between the Foreign and the Coasting Trade.

Foreign Trade.				Coasting Trade.			
Entered.		Cleared.		Entered.		Cleared.	
Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
531	115,715	324	82,353	1,632	140,129	1,554	58,161

The gross receipt of the customs' duties at Southampton in 1814 amounted to 60,344*l.* The rates charged on shipping frequenting the tidal basin amounted in the same year to 3,429*l.*, whereas in 1845 they only amounted to 1,827*l.*

III. LIVERPOOL AND BIRKENHEAD DOCKS, SHIPPING, &c.

The rapid rise of the port of Liverpool to its present consequence, though no doubt principally owing, like that of the town itself, to the astonishing increase of manufactures and population, in the extensive district of which it is the grand emporium, is also, in part, owing to the facilities that have been given to navigation and commerce by the construction of wet and dry docks. The entrance to the estuary of the Mersey is a good deep encumbered with sand banks, and is crossed by a bar, which, however, has at low water spring tides, where deepest, 11 feet water; and as the tide rises 21 feet at neap, and 31 feet at spring tides, there is water for the largest ships; the channels too being indicated by light-vessels, and well marked with buoys, there is no difficulty in making the port. In fact, since the opening of the Victoria Channel (by dredging) in October, 1839, vessels of the largest size cross the bar at first quarter flood; 14,000 vessels passed through this channel in 12 months from its opening.

But the land around being low, ships in the river are exposed to risk from gales of wind; and to obviate this inconvenience, and to facilitate their loading and unloading, the docks have been constructed, which constitute the great glory of the town. The first wet dock in the British empire (now filled up) was opened here in 1708, a second about half a century after, and since that period many more have been constructed on a very magnificent scale, and furnished with all sorts of conveniences, so that the aggregate area of the wet docks now (1818) in use amounts to about

174 acres, and the quay-space is 14 miles in length. The dry docks include an area of about 20 acres.

The docks are defended on the side next the river by a strong sea-wall nearly 4 miles in length. Every precaution is taken to prevent the accumulation of mud in the docks by the use of steam dredging-machines; and strict rules, enforced by a vigilant police force, are established to maintain good order, and prevent both fire and depredations.

The docks are all constructed on the estate of the corporation, and are managed by commissioners appointed by act of parliament. The bonding and other warehouses do not, however, generally belong to the dock estate, but are, for the most part, private property. Most of them are in the immediate vicinity of the docks, but some are at a considerable distance; and there is not, in this respect, the same accommodation, or the same security against fire and depredations, in the Liverpool as in the London docks, where, the warehouses being built along the dock-quays, goods are loaded and unloaded with the greatest possible facility, and are subsequently under efficient protection. But the numerous and destructive fires that have taken place amongst warehouses in Liverpool, and the consequent rise in the premium of insurance, have led to some material changes in their disposition. Indeed, the warehouses attached to the Albert dock, one of those most recently constructed, are built round the quays, and encircled by an outer wall, and are conducted by the dock trust, on the same plan as the London docks.

The difference in the situation of the warehouses here and in the metropolis leads to a difference in the mode of loading and unloading ships in each: in London this is done by the servants of the different dock companies; whereas in Liverpool it is effected by undertakers, called *lumpers*. Individuals who follow this business engage to discharge a ship for a specific or *lump* sum, from 2 guineas, perhaps up to 20, according to the size and description of cargo, having the requisite number of common labourers (chiefly Irishmen) to do the work; the *lumper* being master and superintendent: these labourers are generally paid day wages, but sometimes the job is a joint concern among the whole.

A West India ship of 500 tons would be discharged by lumpers for from 10*l.* to 15*l.*: a cotton ship of the same burden for 4*l.* to 6*l.* By discharging is merely meant putting out the cargo on the quay; the proprietors of the goods employ their own porters to weigh, load, and warehouse the property; they likewise employ their own coopers, where cooperage is required.

The expense of loading a West India ship of 500 tons *outwards* would not be half so much as that of discharging inwards, because they very seldom take a full cargo *outwards*. The average does not, perhaps, exceed a *third*. Hence the total expense of a West India ship of 500 tons, coming into and going out of the port of Liverpool, may be estimated as follows:—

Pilotage inwards, 17 feet @ 9 <i>s.</i>	£	s.	d.	Pilotage outwards, 15 feet @ 4 <i>s.</i>	£	s.	d.
Boat hire, warping, &c.	-	7	13	Boat hire assisting out	-	3	0
Lumpers' discharging	-	0	10		-	0	0
		-	15	0			

Besides these, there is the charge for the various light-houses in St. George's Channel, which, however, cannot be called an expense peculiar to Liverpool.

Goods cost generally 6*d.* a ton every time they are moved. The hire of labourers for loading does not properly belong to the ship, being paid by the owner of the goods. Landing and putting into warehouse costs about 6*d.* a ton, exclusive of cartage. The owner of the vessel merely puts the goods on the quay.

Birkenhead.— But vast as is the accommodation afforded by these docks it would have been more than doubled had the immense works that have been begun at Birkenhead been completed. The latter is situated in the co. Chester, on the West side of the Mersey, directly opposite to and about 1,200 yards distant from Liverpool, of which it should be regarded as a suburb, or as forming an integral and important portion. Its population amounted in 1841 to 8,233, and it is now (1848) estimated at about 25,000. This increase appears to have taken place partly in consequence of the docks and other works commenced there, and partly in anticipation of their progress. And it is not to be denied that from the contiguity of Birkenhead to Liverpool, and from the nature of the soil, it offered several advantages for the construction of docks. Wallacey Pool, a creek or inlet of the sea, extending over above 180 acres, was to be formed into a gigantic wet dock; and it was also proposed to construct various subsidiary docks, with warehouses and so forth, planned on the most approved principles, and calculated to afford every facility for the loading and unloading of ships, the safe stowage of their cargoes, &c. The accompanying plan gives a good idea of the extent and character of the proposed works. They appear, however, to have been set about without due consideration; and it is very doubtful whether they will ever be completed, at least on their original plan. The accommodation on the Liverpool side of the river either is or may easily be made adequate for the shipping frequenting the port, which is naturally drawn to it from its being the great seat of business. In fact only one dock of about 3½ acres has hitherto (November, 1848) been completed at

DOCKS (LIVERPOOL AND BIRKENHEAD).

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Birkenhead, and it is but little used. It is almost needless to add that the parties by whom these works have been undertaken have been heavy losers by the speculation. At present the probability is said to be that the works will be purchased, at much less than they have cost, by the corporation of Liverpool.

Commerce.—Though now of such paramount importance, little more than two centuries have elapsed since this great emporium was correctly described as "the little creek of Liverpool," being then merely a dependency of Chester! And so late as 1709, it had only about 8,000 inhab., and 84 ships, of the burden of 5,789 tons! The progress of the town in the interval, in commerce, and in the accumulation of wealth and population, has been quite unprecedented in the history of industry. It is not, however, difficult to discover the causes of the all but apparently miraculous progress of Liverpool. A good deal must be ascribed to the enterprise, sagacity, and persevering industry of her merchants; but she is, no doubt, mainly indebted for her rise and the vast magnitude of her commerce, to her fortunate position, and, above all, to the increase of manufactures in Manchester and the surrounding district.

The situation of Liverpool necessarily renders her a principal seat of the trade between Ireland and Great Britain; and as the population and trade of the former increased, it could not fail proportionally to increase the trade of this port. The gradual filling up of the Dee, and the consequent decline of Chester as a harbour, has also proved of no little advantage to Liverpool, by rendering her the great mart for the salt at Nantwich, and other places in Cheshire, the exportation of which to foreign parts employs a great amount of shipping. Unquestionably, however, Liverpool would never have attained to half her present size or importance, but for the cotton manufacture. But being the port through which Manchester, Oldham, Bury, Bolton, Ashton, and other great seats of manufacture, could most conveniently obtain supplies of the raw material, and export their manufactured products, she has increased with every increase in this great department of industry; and it is no exaggeration to affirm, that the creative influence of the wonderful inventions and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Cartwright, and the other founders and improvers of the cotton manufacture, has been, though not so direct, quite as powerful, in the docks and warehouses of Liverpool as in the mills of Manchester.

The congenious businesses of the slave trade and privateering appear to be the only departments of an exotic character, and not bottomed on any natural facility, that have been vigorously carried on to any great extent from Liverpool. The slave trade began in 1723; and was prosecuted vigorously and successfully down to the abolition of the trade in 1807, when it employed 111 ships, of the burden of 28,949 tons. It was apprehended by many that the abolition of this nefarious, though lucrative, traffic, would be a severe blow to the prosperity of the port. But so rapid was the increase of the legitimate and more natural branches of her trade, that it was but little felt at the time, and was very soon forgotten.

It is probable that the acquaintance with the slave trade may have given a stimulus to privateering; at all events, it was carried on to a great extent from Liverpool, both in the American and in the French wars, especially in the former. In 1779, no fewer than 120 privateers belonged to the port, carrying each from 10 to 20 guns.

Account of the Entries of Vessels, and of the Amount of Dock Dues, in each Year, from 1757, with the Tonnage of the Ships in the Liverpool Docks, since 1800.

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Dock Dues.			Year.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Dock Dues.		
		£	s.	d.				£	s.	d.
1757	1,271	356	15	3	1800	4,748	450,060	23,270	13	6
1758	1,435	448	10	3	1801	5,060	459,713	26,765	8	3
1759	1,461	5,372	12	2	1802	4,781	510,691	28,199	9	10
1760	1,845	2,530	0	7	1803	4,791	494,581	28,023	13	7
1761	1,819	2,530	0	2	1804	4,991	448,761	36,127	0	0
1762	1,507	2,536	19	6	1805	4,618	463,428	25,366	13	1
1763	1,758	2,541	1	5	1806	4,576	507,825	24,560	7	2
1764	1,625	2,780	3	4	1807	5,791	665,509	69,251	3	10
1765	1,930	3,465	8	2	1808	5,325	516,836	40,836	10	4
1766	1,808	2,653	19	2	1809	5,023	594,601	47,880	13	0
1767	1,704	3,615	9	2	1810	6,729	734,291	65,793	1	0
1768	1,808	3,568	14	9	1811	5,616	611,190	24,758	13	5
1769	2,054	4,021	5	0	1812	4,669	445,788	44,403	7	11
1770	2,075	1,142	17	9	1813	5,341	547,426	50,177	13	2
1771	3,067	4,203	19	10	1814	5,708	548,397	39,741	2	4
1772	2,228	4,552	3	4	1815	6,440	705,649	70,315	8	6
1773	2,214	4,725	1	11	1816	6,888	754,245	62,646	10	9
1774	2,236	4,380	5	5	1817	6,075	653,485	75,889	16	3
1775	2,291	5,394	4	9	1818	6,779	758,690	84,538	8	8
1776	2,216	5,064	10	10	1819	7,249	867,218	110,127	1	4
1777	2,261	4,610	4	7	1820	7,876	805,633	94,415	13	10
1778	2,222	4,619	1	9	1821	7,210	839,418	61,526	9	0
1779	3,374	4,947	17	10	1822	8,156	898,908	102,403	17	4
1780	2,651	3,568	7	9	1823	8,916	1,010,619	115,783	19	0
1781	2,512	4,915	4	1	1824	10,001	1,180,914	150,911	11	6
1782	2,496	4,249	8	3	1825	10,837	1,221,820	128,691	19	6
1783	2,616	4,840	8	3	1826	9,601	1,226,518	111,900	19	0
1784	2,098	6,597	11	1	1827	8,592	1,225,513	124,479	14	7
1785	2,429	8,411	5	8	1828	10,705	1,511,111	141,369	15	7
1786	2,567	8,508	10	10	1829	11,383	1,587,927	158,927	15	0
1787	2,567	9,199	18	8	1830	11,214	1,411,964	151,329	17	10
1788	3,677	9,206	13	10	1831	12,537	1,596,436	185,165	4	3
1789	3,519	8,901	10	10	1832	12,403	1,540,037	170,047	10	0
1790	4,223	10,037	8	2	1833	15,964	1,690,461	192,890	16	4
1791	4,043	11,645	6	8	1834	15,444	1,699,870	191,729	17	2
1792	4,483	12,243	17	8	1835	15,241	1,738,436	198,537	16	0
1793	4,189	12,490	5	6	1836	14,959	1,647,618	191,284	10	0
1794	4,268	10,678	0	0	1837	15,038	1,808,984	178,653	10	1
1795	5,214	9,268	16	4	1838	14,630	1,626,816	146,820	8	11
1796	4,738	12,377	7	7	1839	15,445	1,636,691	166,255	1	6
1797	4,688	12,610	16	8	1840	15,891	1,445,736	176,190	14	0
1798	4,473	12,047	18	8	1841	16,108	1,435,461	152,516	8	8
1799	4,519	14,049	15	1	1842	16,458	1,448,219	177,231	15	5
					1843	16,606	1,448,219	186,286	1	1
					1844	18,411	1,639,712	208,190	3	4
					1845	20,521	5,016,531	350,541	0	5
					1846	19,031	5,096,414	341,063	15	0
					1847	20,889	5,351,539	375,711	10	6
					1848*	20,511	5,281,963	326,815	1	3

* Dues reduced on cotton and various other articles to the extent of 40,000*l.* per annum.

In September, 1836, a great reduction was made in the dock dues; and they were then entirely taken off all goods arriving coastwise, or from Ireland.

It is extremely difficult, or rather, we should say, quite impossible, to form any correct estimate of the total amount of the trade of Liverpool. Probably, however, the aggregate annual value of the imports and exports does not fall much short of the amazing sum of 45,000,000*l.* If it do not exceed that amount! In 1834, it was estimated as follows by Mr. Myers, an extensive and intelligent merchant of the town.

Exports.		Imports.	
Woolens	4,000,000	Irish trade	8,000,000
Cotton stuffs and yarn	12,000,000	Raw cotton	5,000,000
Linen	1,000,000	Other articles	5,000,000
Hardware	1,000,000		
Earthenware	350,000		
Silk	150,000		
Salt and other articles	1,000,000		
	£19,700,000		

We subjoin a statement, compiled with the greatest care by the best authorities, exhibiting a view of the quantities and values of the leading articles of Irish produce imported into Liverpool.

Account of the Quantities, Prices, and Values of the following Articles of Irish produce imported into Liverpool, during each of the Seven Years ending with December, 1844.

Years.	Beef.			Pork.			Butter.			Bacon and Hams.		
	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
1838	11,242	12 <i>9s.</i>	79,052	24,298	8 <i>0s.</i>	91,199	245,010	8 <i>0s.</i>	79 <i>1</i> / ₂			
1839	10,109	13 <i>0s.</i>	65,714	25,805	6 <i>8s.</i>	122,043	247,499	9 <i>0s.</i>	1,115,743			
1840	12,721	12 <i>0s.</i>	77,511	25,851	6 <i>0s.</i>	101,358	220,213	9 <i>0s.</i>	1,017,938			
1811	9,475	13 <i>0s.</i>	56,850	19,273	7 <i>0s.</i>	75,616	198,408	8 <i>0s.</i>	723,960	79,751	42 <i>5</i> / ₄	169,515
1812	6,922	9 <i>0s.</i>	32,879	17,911	5 <i>0s.</i>	49,455	155,289	8 <i>0s.</i>	781,156	78,515	42 <i>5</i> / ₄	169,518
1813	6,277	8 <i>0s.</i>	22,311	15,878	4 <i>0s.</i>	19,016	60,196	8 <i>0s.</i>	1,061,096	80,006	42 <i>5</i> / ₄	169,518
1844	4,027	8 <i>4s.</i>	16,913	14,901	6 <i>4s.</i>	14,403	249,259	8 <i>4s.</i>	1,046,898	90,006		
Average	8,692	10 <i>7s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	48,727	22,926	6 <i>4s.</i> 10 <i>d.</i>	73,096	230,041	8 <i>3s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	925,409	85,516	41 <i>5</i> / ₄	174,067
Years.	Lard.			Flax.			Wool.			Cattle.		
	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.
	<i>cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
1838	-	-	-	501	46 <i>1</i> / ₂	27,186	4,062,210	16 <i>d.</i>	270,816	102,357	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,250,381
1839	-	-	-	1,167	50 <i>0</i>	58,350	2,701,810	16 <i>d.</i>	180,096	101,807	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,261,661
1840	-	-	-	918	43 <i>1</i> / ₂	41,210	3,951,080	13 <i>d.</i>	182,001	87,217	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,135,821
1841	20,497	43 <i>5</i> / ₄	45,496	701	46 <i>d.</i>	32,884	3,490,560	11 <i>d.</i>	159,984	91,992	12 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,103,501
1842	18,516	46 <i>5</i> / ₄	43,251	748	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	33,680	3,501,280	10 <i>1</i> / ₂	106,431	81,411	11 <i>1</i> / ₂	998,851
1843	19,002	5 <i>0s.</i>	48,655	476	43 <i>1</i> / ₂	41,236	3,908,000	13 <i>d.</i>	152,132	75,553	12 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,040,831
1844	21,673	5 <i>2s.</i>	56,350	348	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	15,650	3,747,800	13 <i>d.</i>	133,582	85,765	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,088,915
Average	19,057	45 <i>5</i> / ₄	48,453	707	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	32,921	3,012,913	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	169,733	90,450	12 <i>5</i> / ₄	1,127,215
Years.	Sheep and Lambs.			Flax.			Horses.			Wheat.		
	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.
	<i>No.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
1838	801,371	5 <i>0s.</i>	3,024,056	216,443	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	187,027	5,517	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	83,055	151,749	5 <i>0s.</i>	433,431
1839	211,998	5 <i>0s.</i>	3,225,635	284,833	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	610,879	9,654	13 <i>1</i> / ₂	84,810	64,533	6 <i>0s.</i>	192,999
1840	221,796	4 <i>9s.</i>	3,105,514	162,016	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	402,536	1,074	12 <i>1</i> / ₂	61,110	69,731	5 <i>1</i> / ₂	165,763
1841	170,386	5 <i>0s.</i>	2,211,631	147,511	45 <i>1</i> / ₂	331,922	1,872	15 <i>1</i> / ₂	37,480	110,125	5 <i>0s.</i>	322,520
1842	147,075	5 <i>0s.</i>	1,698,809	182,253	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	578,466	6,570	12 <i>1</i> / ₂	16,250	85,417	4 <i>0s.</i>	197,801
1843	131,414	4 <i>7s.</i>	1,814,398	254,710	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	509,240	989	18 <i>1</i> / ₂	17,802	152,446	4 <i>7s.</i>	336,248
1844	137,570	4 <i>9s.</i>	1,991,186	213,650	43 <i>1</i> / ₂	525,859	1,688	18 <i>1</i> / ₂	32,072	144,714	4 <i>8s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	309,131
Average	175,436	4 <i>7s.</i> 7 <i>d.</i>	2,138,667	216,915	45 <i>5</i> / ₄	498,730	2,919	16 <i>1</i> / ₂	46,054	102,773	5 <i>1</i> / ₂	281,566
Years.	Barley.			Oats.			Rye.			Beans.		
	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.
	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
1838	22,424	2 <i>0s.</i>	32,558	315,185	21 <i>1</i> / ₂	362,444	779	3 <i>9s.</i>	1,129	10,870	3 <i>6s.</i>	19,366
1839	17,717	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,624,098	215	61 <i>1</i> / ₂	31,127,070	613	17 <i>6</i> / ₄	1,153	4,401	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	8,902
1840	16,937	35 <i>1</i> / ₂	3,139	241,628	25 <i>1</i> / ₂	3,024,410	237	31 <i>5</i> / ₄	411	6,130	42 <i>1</i> / ₂	18,273
1841	15,884	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	25,286	291,452	22 <i>9</i> / ₄	334,959	180	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	274	1,019	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	2,098
1842	6,557	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	5,856	182,566	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	21,075	71	29 <i>1</i> / ₂	10	1,036	35 <i>1</i> / ₂	7,168
1843	11,417	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	16,222	200,659	17 <i>4</i> / ₄	174,232	510	32 <i>1</i> / ₂	816	3,874	33 <i>1</i> / ₄	6,570
1844	6,683	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	10,503	182,872	19 <i>4</i> / ₄	176,776	336	33 <i>1</i> / ₂	644	3,111	32 <i>1</i> / ₂	5,104
Average	12,750	31 <i>1</i> / ₂	20,074	217,793	21 <i>1</i> / ₂	267,918	390	33 <i>1</i> / ₂	647	4,786	37 <i>1</i> / ₂	8,883
Years.	Peas.			Malt.			Oatmeal.			Flour.		
	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.	Quantities.	Average Prices.	Values.
	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Qrs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Sacks of 210 lbs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Sacks of 280 lbs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
1838	979	35 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,613	1,792	5 <i>0s.</i>	4,860	395,318	23 <i>6</i> / ₄	408,443	282,322	47 <i>1</i> / ₂	663,456
1839	962	34 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,837	451	58 <i>5</i> / ₄	1,516	216,375	31 <i>1</i> / ₂	367,837	104,635	53 <i>1</i> / ₂	277,335
1840	448	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	896	2,249	67 <i>1</i> / ₂	7,506	231,903	31 <i>1</i> / ₂	399,165	32,177	50 <i>1</i> / ₂	80,444
1841	131	40 <i>1</i> / ₂	302	2,426	36 <i>1</i> / ₂	6,672	319,868	27 <i>6</i> / ₄	327,068	70,013	48 <i>1</i> / ₂	168,103
1842	50	31 <i>5</i> / ₄	86	407	50 <i>1</i> / ₂	1,017	276,430	31 <i>1</i> / ₂	331,716	77,217	46 <i>1</i> / ₂	177,599
1843	380	32 <i>1</i> / ₂	608	8,817	32 <i>1</i> / ₂	25,292	417,618	33 <i>1</i> / ₂	413,928	212,146	39 <i>1</i> / ₂	422,528
1844	161	32 <i>1</i> / ₂	244	3,821	34 <i>1</i> / ₂	14,131	444,016	29 <i>1</i> / ₂	308,350	137,882	39 <i>1</i> / ₂	435,698
Average	450	36 <i>1</i> / ₂	808	7,059	55 <i>5</i> / ₄	6,536	298,682	30 <i>1</i> / ₂	387,944	116,633	46 <i>5</i> / ₄	326,166

DOCKS (LIVERPOOL AND BIRKENHEAD).

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Annual Values of the Total Irish Produce Imported into Liverpool during Seven Years, as follows:—

1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
£ 5,559,017	£ 5,073,880	£ 4,231,664	£ 4,499,188	£ 5,649,428	£ 4,534,378	£ 4,818,957

About 500,000*l.* a year may be added to the total sums in the above table for the years 1838, 1839, 1840, 1841, and 1842, and 700,000*l.* for the years 1843 and 1844, for cottons and linens, sugars, salmon, &c., of which no accurate account can be had. In 1844 these values are believed to have been raised as follows, viz.—cottons and linens 400,000*l.*; eggs and poultry 100,000*l.*; salmon 40,000*l.*; other fish, including crabs, 30,000*l.*; hides, hair, feathers, minerals, porter, &c. 110,000*l.*, making in all 700,000*l.*

In addition to the above, Irish grain of the value of 168,600*l.* was last year imported into Liverpool, from the mouth of the Duke of Edinburgh's Canal, direct from Ireland. A good deal of the wheat that was formerly imported from Ireland to Liverpool and thence to the Continent, is now shipped direct from the latter.

Four-fifths of the trade between the U. K. and the U. S. now centres in Liverpool; and she has a large share of the trade with South America and the West Indies. She also carries on a considerable trade with the East Indies and China, though in this department she is far surpassed by London. Indeed, the ships and products of Liverpool are to be found in every port, in every part of the world accessible to merchantmen.

Account of the Principal Articles of East and West Indian and other Produce imported into Liverpool during each of the 5 years ending the 31st December, 1847, with the Stocks on Hand on the 31st December each Year.—(From the Tables published by the Brokers' Association.)

Articles.	Packages and Quantities.	Imports.					Stocks.				
		1845.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1845.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Asher American	barrels	18,800	18,200	21,600	19,040	7,100	Port 4,000	5,600	4,900	3,700	1,800
Bacon	tons	16,350	4,625	8,950	19,145	8,500	Port 2,500	5,000	4,600	5,950	800
Cheese	cases	880	900	3,695	470	1,050	5,000	5,000	1,100	1,200	1,000
Cocoa	barrels and bags	1,250	2,945	4,120	5,200	9,270	410	1,600	1,445	5,200	6,100
Coffees, West India, Br. Pl. Do. and Ceylon	barrels and bags	8,070	8,865	12,935	8,410	10,955	1,240	2,250	1,850	1,500	1,250
East India	cases and bags	9,210	5,815	4,950	3,155	1,000	5,000	1,500	2,000	740	2,000
Foreign	tons	32,425	37,930	94,700	92,265	62,365	13,000	46,500	43,000	62,000	50,000
Dyewoods, logwood	tons	12,000	11,800	11,180	17,575	9,200	9,800	1,200	1,500	3,120	1,500
Fur	tons	2,800	4,610	3,700	6,650	4,000	1,500	1,500	850	220	750
Nicaragua wood	ditto	1,085	2,155	2,150	2,510	2,240	1,500	1,050	1,100	1,000	600
Ginger, West India	barrels and bags	370	490	835	500	440	1,370	800	1,500	540	500
East India	bags and packages	1,010	585	1,650	1,755	3,800	tons 150	60	80	1,085	3,100
African	bags, &c.	810	150	1,700	900	1,600	300	100	—	30	30
Gum, Arabic	cases	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100
Hides, ox and cow	number	357,395	473,000	517,000	367,100	367,100	50,000	69,500	106,200	44,650	125,800
East India	ditto	675,000	302,600	302,000	203,000	445,400	230,000	150,000	85,000	40,000	250,000
Horse, South American	ditto	55,350	31,200	19,250	15,675	47,365	8,000	none	850	1,000	17,000
Indigo, East India	bags	1,325	2,570	2,150	1,325	1,000	500	1,100	1,000	900	900
Spanish	serons	1,075	760	1,300	750	1,300	140	45	30	50	400
Lac dye	chests	1,825	1,825	1,310	475	300	1,750	1,500	670	500	280
Shell	ditto	1,690	2,825	4,050	980	1,400	2,000	2,500	2,500	1,000	1,450
Madder, Dutch	cases	780	310	85	175	15	120	40	170	20	20
French	bags	2,075	9,175	8,000	8,670	9,550	140	170	20	20	1,100
Madder roots	bales, &c.	10,700	11,685	18,000	13,210	12,500	220	1,150	3,600	2,000	1,500
Molasses, West India	cases	11,270	12,845	10,245	10,560	11,820	4,200	3,000	2,500	2,800	3,450
East India and Foreign	ditto	5,700	6,100	4,000	3,030	4,200	5,400	5,000	3,000	1,500	2,500
Olive oil	casks	16,235	16,925	21,040	19,800	19,550	3,800	2,500	5,500	5,300	5,900
Palm oil	bags and packages	8,425	28,700	26,650	13,500	19,500	8,000	9,500	17,000	7,500	8,600
Pepper, East India	barrels and bags	1,400	375	6,430	1,515	720	1,100	850	600	100	400
Pimento	bags	107,350	147,470	218,200	201,825	278,500	8,000	35,000	25,000	7,500	120,000
Rice, West India	cases	5,270	4,910	7,985	4,810	9,905	3,450	2,150	3,185	700	3,700
American	ditto	2,995	960	3,010	1,710	915	300	250	1,230	1,000	800
East India	ditto	620	1,290	965	750	1,250	500	500	825	1,010	800
Foreign	bags	65,250	49,875	48,180	69,710	34,600	21,000	12,000	9,000	18,700	5,500
Saltpeetre, East India	ditto	96,800	124,170	55,500	69,170	90,400	25,000	16,400	41,000	38,210	56,500
Nitrate of soda	ditto	2,660	26,715	29,150	21,970	36,310	9,150	8,000	5,500	5,700	11,000
Sugar, British Plantation	hhd. and tierces	214,335	235,300	260,500	209,640	279,600	58,000	60,000	15,900	96,000	145,000
Bengal, &c.	ditto	43,715	57,515	81,100	90,950	29,000	31,000	15,000	25,000	25,000	27,000
Muscovado	cases, &c.	10,920	10,150	26,470	10,535	20,035	19,000	22,000	7,800	5,050	7,000
Heaven	boxes	4,830	3,460	15	15,315	39,100	1,500	1,450	820	7,800	11,000
Brazil	chests	6,225	5,225	4,640	4,875	8,710	1,250	1,250	1,800	2,450	3,000
Ditto	barrels, &c.	11,995	3,500	10,750	19,540	81,800	2,500	1,500	3,000	5,500	25,500
Other Foreign	cases, barrels, &c.	3,985	2,150	7,450	11,740	17,055	3,000	2,000	1,500	1,400	3,900
Sumac	bags	98,700	51,900	63,000	47,275	67,600	11,500	5,500	6,000	5,000	8,500
Tar	barrels	48,100	13,600	32,300	14,140	26,000	15,000	9,000	5,000	500	12,800
Tallow, European	cases	40,160	20,700	82,700	19,870	17,100	3,300	4,000	1,750	6,300	600
American	cases, &c.	8,200	10,570	15,100	9,610	9,300	1,900	250	1,000	1,000	550
Tional	cases, boxes, &c.	none	360	none	570	515	250	170	100	85	400
Tobacco	hogsheads	13,475	11,340	13,750	13,000	16,855	15,410	16,270	17,500	19,000	18,500
Turpentine	barrels	101,100	92,700	129,400	60,000	41,500	37,000	10,000	32,000	13,150	12,600

The vast preponderance of Liverpool in the cotton trade is obvious from the following statement taken from the comprehensive and valuable table published by Messrs. Holt and Co., cotton-brokers.

Account of the Quantities (in Packages) of the different Species of Cotton Imported into Great Britain from 1837 to 1847, (both Inclusive; specifying the whole Quantity imported into Liverpool:—

Description of Cotton.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.		1843.		1844.		1845.		1846.		1847.	
	Packages.																					
American	844,812	1,224,500	811,200	1,437,500	992,500	1,015,200	1,398,800	1,246,500	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000	1,449,000
Brazil	117,000	137,500	69,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500	107,500
Egyptian	41,100	29,700	33,500	38,000	40,700	19,500	48,800	66,200	82,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000	60,000
East India	145,700	107,000	132,000	216,500	275,000	275,000	182,000	257,000	158,100	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000	157,000
W. India, &c.	27,750	29,100	36,900	22,500	35,200	35,200	47,000	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500	17,500
Total Imports into G. Britain	1,175,975	1,428,600	1,116,200	1,999,500	1,514,000	1,392,900	1,744,100	1,631,000	1,855,700	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500	1,425,500
Total Imports into Liverpool	1,036,005	1,328,115	1,019,229	1,115,541	1,161,269	1,249,811	1,527,597	1,390,281	1,652,731	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194	1,151,194

The mercantile marine of Liverpool is inferior only to that of London; there having belonged to the port on the 31st of December, 1847, 1,453 sailing vessels of the aggregate burden of 407,207 tons; manned by about 16,000 seamen; of these 129 vessels of the burden of 4,689 tons were under 50 tons each. There then also belonged to Liverpool, 71 steamers of the aggregate burden of 8,713 tons.

The gross customs revenue of Liverpool, in 1846, amounted to 8,434,921.11s., and in 1846 to 8,622,066. 12s., while that of London, in the latter year, amounted to 10,385,166. 8s. 6d. But it would be an error to suppose that the trade of the metropolis exceeded that of Liverpool in this proportion. Cotton wool, and other raw materials for manufactures, on which no duty is paid, form the principal part of the foreign imports of Liverpool; whereas London imports comparatively few of these articles, her trade being principally in articles of direct consumption, as sugar, tea, coffee, wines, &c., on which high duties are paid. This circumstance accounts, in part at least, for the comparatively large amount of the customs revenue received in the latter; and, allowing for it, we doubt whether the foreign trade of London very materially exceeds that of Liverpool.

The following table gives a view of the distribution of the foreign and domestic trade of Liverpool in 1846.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels which entered Inwards and cleared outwards at the Port of Liverpool, in 1846; specifying the Countries from which they came and for which they sailed.

Countries.	Inwards.				Outwards.			
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
EUROPE, generally	758	106,490	570	104,967	1,011	147,614	644	120,645
AFRICA	197	50,659	-	-	131	34,245	7	7
ASIA	185	78,483	-	-	354	101,750	5	1,311
AMERICA, viz.—								
British Northern Colonies	679	288,476	-	-	694	297,314	2	591
British West Indies	142	37,608	-	-	165	43,158	87	13,948
Foreign West Indies	68	14,754	15	3,929	15	3,929	2	13,948
United States	264	175,959	497	318,906	230	155,578	505	34,123
South American States	300	79,925	2	493	315	86,866	80	6,586
Total	2,483	828,518	1,084	427,295	2,766	861,125	1,238	480,845
Isles of Guernsey and Jersey	22	1,556	5	567	31	2,494	-	-
Irish trade	5,317	651,151	-	-	5,634	608,531	-	-
Other coasts, including Isle of Man trade	5,982	610,580	-	-	6,714	631,209	-	-
Total	11,804	2,091,605	1,087	427,862	18,115	2,105,359	1,248	480,845

Lines of Packets.—Few things have conduced more to the progress of the trade of Liverpool, and we may add, of the Empire, than the establishment of a regular communication, by means of packet ships, between this great emporium and other British and foreign ports. The intercourse with the former is principally carried on by means of steamers, which are daily leaving for and returning from Dublin, Glasgow, Belfast, Bristol, and other ports. But the regular intercourse between Liverpool and foreign ports is principally carried on by sailing vessels, which in point of security, expedition, and accommodation for passengers, are not to be surpassed by any ships to be elsewhere met with. New York being more intimately and extensively connected with Liverpool than any other foreign port, no fewer than 24 packet ships, distributed into 3 lines, are engaged in the trade with that city; and there are also packet ships which sail regularly for other ports in the U. S., and for Rio, the Havannah, &c.

The packet ships for New York sail from Liverpool on the 1st, 6th, 11th, 16th, 21st, and 26th of each month throughout the year. And they sail on the same days in each month from New York for Liverpool.

Cabin passage to New York, 20s.; from New York, 75 dollars, which includes provisions, beds, &c., but neither wines nor liquors.

The ships, which vary in size from 700 to 1,000 tons burden each, are all American property, and built chiefly in New York, of beautiful workmanship, and fitted up with every convenience for passengers, and in a most expensive and splendid style. Each ship has a separate cabin for ladies; each state-room, in the respective cabins, will accommodate two passengers; but a whole state-room may be secured for one individual by paying at the rate of 1½ passage, that is, 30s.

Packets for Philadelphia sail from Liverpool on the 12th and 26th of every month; and from Philadelphia for Liverpool on the 12th and 26th of each month. Cabin passage to Philadelphia, 20s.; to Liverpool, 80 dollars.

Sailing packets for Boston leave Liverpool on the 20th of each month; and they leave Boston for Liverpool on the 4th.

The American MAIL STEAMERS sail, for eight months in the year, from Liverpool every Saturday, alternately for Halifax and Boston, and for New York, leaving America on the return voyage every Wednesday. But in December, January, February, and March, the mail steamers only sail once a fortnight. Cabin passage to Boston or New York, 35s.; to Liverpool, 120 dollars.

The rate of *steerage* passage varies considerably in the course of the year; depending on the number of ships and the number of passengers going at the time. By the packet ships, it is at present (1848) 2l. 10s.; by casual ships it varies from 3l. to 3l. 10s., current rate, 3l.; it rarely now exceeds 4l. For these rates the ship provides nothing but berths, fire, and water; the passengers provide their own provisions, bedding, &c. The expense of provisions for a poor person, who might wish to be as economical as possible, for the voyage out to the U. States, would not be more than from 40s. to 50s.

The *cabin* passage by the common traders (many of which are less inferior to the packets in equipment and safety) varies from 12l. to 20l.; no wines being provided at these rates, but provisions, bedding, malt liquor, and spirits.

The rates of *freight* to New York, are—

	By Packets.			By other Ships.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Fine goods, per ton measurement of 40 cubic feet	-	-	1 10 0	15 0	to	1 0 0
Hardware	-	-	1 5 0	12 0	to	0 18 0
Coarse low-priced goods	-	-	1 0 0	12 0	to	0 16 0
Iron, per ton of 20 cwt.	-	-	0 7 6	7 0	to	0 10 0
Coals, do. do. (not taken by packets)	-	-	0 5 0	7 0	to	0 6 0
Crates of earthenware, per ton of 40 cubic feet	-	-	0 5 0	8 0	to	0 9 0
Salt, per ton of 40 bushels (not taken by packets)	-	-	-	10 0	to	0 11 0

Dock Dues. — All vessels entering inwards, or clearing outwards, at the port of Liverpool, for dock rates and harbour lights.

From between the Mull of Galloway and St. David's Head, Isles of Man and Galloway, the ton - 0 2

From between the Mull of Galloway and Duncauld Head, Orkney Isles, and islands on the western coast of Scotland; between St. David's Head and the Land's End, the Bell's Islands, and the east coast of Ireland, from Cape Clear to Mulling Head, the ton - 0 2 1/2

From the east and southern coast of Great Britain, between Duncan's Bay Head and the Land's End, the islands of Shetland, the west coast of Ireland, from Cape Clear to Mulling Head, including the islands on that coast, the ton - 0 4 1/2

From Europe, north of Cape Finisterre, and westward of the North Cape, and without the Cattegat and Baltic Sea, the islands of (Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, the Faro Isles, and Gotland), the ton - 0 9

From within the Cattegat and Baltic, the whole of Sweden, the White Sea, eastward of the North Cape, Europe, south of Cape Finisterre, without the Mediterranean, Newfoundland, Greenland, Davis's Straits, Canaries, Western Islands, Madeira, and Azores, the ton - 1 0

From the east coast of North America, the West Indies, east coast of South America, north of Rio Plata, the west coast of Africa, and islands north of the Cape of Good Hope, all parts within the Mediterranean, including the Adriatic Archipelago, the islands of St. Helena, Ascension, and Cape de Verde Island, the ton - 1 8

From South America, south of Rio Plata, the Pacific Ocean, Africa, and Asia, eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, the ton - 2 3

Notes. — Vessels remaining longer than six months in dock, to pay an addition to the above rates, per month - 0 2

All vessels arriving at or clearing from the said port are to pay the said rates from or for the most distant port or place from or for which they are traded; but vessels arriving from any parts in ballast do not pay dockage on entering inwards; and should such vessels proceed to sea again in ballast, then only one half the dock rates are due, with the whole of the lights; but taking a cargo outwards subjects such vessels full dock rates.

N. B. — New vessels built in Liverpool are subject only to half the above rates on the first outward clearance.

Floating Light, at the Entrance of the River Mersey. — Towards this light, the following rates are payable: —

All vessels sailing to or from Liverpool, to any port or place between Duncan's Bay Head and the Land's End, on the west side of Great Britain, and between Mulling Head and Cape Clear on the east side of Ireland, 1/2 per ton.

All vessels sailing to or from Liverpool, to any port or place between Duncan's Bay Head and the Land's End, on the east and southern coast of Great Britain, and between Mulling Head and Cape Clear on the west coast of Ireland, 1/2 per ton.

All vessels sailing to or from Liverpool, to any port or place not being within the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or the adjacent islands to the northward of the Cape of Good Hope, and the northward of Cape Horn, 1/2 per ton.

All vessels sailing to and from Liverpool, to any port or place to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, and the westward of Cape Horn, 1/2 per ton.

In the day time, from sunrise to sunset, a blue flag, with the letters N. W. in white will be hoisted at the mainmast head, and in thick and foggy weather, either by night or day, a bell will be kept constantly ringing, to prevent vessels from running foul of the light-vessel.

Dock Regulations. — Extracts from Acts of Parliament. — Any owner or master, or any person having the command, agency, or consignment of any vessel chargeable with dock duties, refusing to pay the same, is liable to have such vessel or goods seized.

Any person throwing any ballast or rubbish from out of any vessel upon, or any of the quay, &c., shall immediately carry or carry away the same: penalty 5s.

Every ship shall, before she comes within any of the piers, take down all her sails: penalty 5s.

Any person having the charge of any vessel in any of the docks, refusing to remove the same, after 24 hours' notice in writing, shall forfeit 20s., and pay the expenses of removal by the water bailiff: 20s.

Any person having the command of any vessel moored in the pier, refusing to remove the same, when ordered by the water bailiff, shall forfeit 20s.

The master or other person having the command of any vessel from which any cannon or gun shall be fired whilst in the pier, shall forfeit 10s.

Any person making payment of dock duties, who refuses to answer such queries as shall be put to him by the collector, or give a false or untrue answer, shall forfeit 10s.

Any master, &c., evading payment of the duties, shall forfeit and pay double the duties evaded; and by 53 Geo. 3. a sum of 20s. in addition thereto.

Whenever it shall be necessary, for the purpose of cleaning or repairing the docks, to remove the vessels lying therein, the collector, water, or other person taking the command of such vessels shall, within 5 days, by notice in writing, remove such ship from such dock, on pain of forfeiting 10s.

Any master, &c., refusing to enter and remove the same in docks, according to the order of the master, with forfeit 5s., together with the costs of removal by the dock master.

Any master, &c., acting contrary to the direction of the dock master, will forfeit 20s.

Any master, &c., entering and giving false information of the amount of water of any ship to any of the dock masters, shall forfeit 20s.

Any master, &c., bringing the same into the entrance basin, when a signal is hoisted on the pier, at the entrance of such basin, signifying that such dock is full of vessels will forfeit 20s.

Any master, &c., bringing his vessel into any of the docks, contrary to the directions of the dock master, will forfeit 10s. Every master, or other person, damaging any of the docks, gates, bridges, piers, quays, &c., is liable to have the ship seized, and sold to compensate for damage done.

Any person opening or shutting any of the dock gates, sluices, or clefts, is liable to forfeit 100s.; or opening or shutting any drawbridge, 20s.

Any person, &c., leaving gunpowder, pitch, tar, &c., or combustible matter of any kind, on the quays of the docks, &c., or upon the deck of any vessel lying in any of the docks, for above 24 hours after passing the Custom-house officers, is liable to a penalty of 5s. an hour; on neglecting to watch such goods in the night time, to a penalty of 10s. an hour.

Any master, or other person, having the command of any ship, suffering any fire, candles, or lamp to be lighted and burning on board, shall forfeit 10s.

Any owner, &c., landing, or causing to be landed and laid, any pumps, boats, anchors, cables, flintstones, &c., or other things whatsoever, upon any of the dock quays, shall within 48 hours wholly remove the same from off such quay, or shall forfeit 5s. per hour above the 48.

Any person wilfully cutting, damaging, or destroying any cables, &c., by which any vessel in the river or in any of the docks shall be fastened: penalty, 50s.

Any person damaging or breaking any lamp, &c., set up near the docks: penalty for each lamp, 5s.

Any master, or other person, having the command of any vessel about which any offence shall have been committed, in relation to any of the docks, &c., is liable to the penalty imposed for such offence.

Any owner or master of any ship or vessel giving or offering a bribe to any officer employed in pursuance of the dock act is liable to 20s.

Any owner, consignee, or master of any vessel arriving and departing in ballast without payment of dock duties, is liable to a sum equal to double the amount of such duty which should have been paid, and the master liable to the penalty of 20s. in addition.

Every master, &c., wilfully throwing, casting, or putting any earth, stones, rubbish, &c., out of any ship, &c., into any part of the pier: penalty 50s.

Any owner, &c., of any vessel laid up for sale, or which part is not actually employed for two months, not removing the same from the dock within 21 hours' notice in writing from the collector, master, or left on board: penalty 5s., and costs of removal.

Any person discharging timber in any dock without having obtained the consent in writing of the chairman or some chairman of the dock committee, or of some Justice of the peace: penalty 10s.

Any person having consent, not removing the same therefrom within 24 hours, liable to a fine of 5s. an hour.

Any person damaging any ship, &c., in any of the docks, &c., or in the river, and refusing to make compensation, liable to have his goods, or the tackle of the ship, &c., doing the damage, seized.

Any Justice of the peace for the county of Chester or borough of Liverpool, upon complaint made to them, may summon persons to appear before him, and may fix the amount to be paid to boatmen, and persons finding and taking possession of anchors, &c., in any part of the port of Liverpool.

Any person throwing, casting, or emptying any ballast, ashes, &c., out of any ship, &c., into the river Mersey, the Hoek or Horse Channel, or Formly Channel, to the eastward of the Floating Light, or from any of the piers into the docks or basins, or into the river Mersey: penalty 10s.

That every vessel laden with a cargo consisting solely of flintstones, paving stones, flintstones, gravel, and chalk, shall be charged tonnage rates as if coming in ballast.

Every owner or master, &c., of any vessel arriving at or departing from the said port, shall produce to the collector, upon demand, at the time of making entry, all books, accounts, &c., in relation to such vessel, or which show the weights and quantities of the goods, &c., in case of dispute, such owner, &c., shall produce a statement in writing, to be verified by oath, and showing the actual weights and quantities of such goods, &c., or the accuracy of the said books, &c.

In case the master, &c., of any vessel from which rubbish, ballast, dirt, or other refuse of any kind shall be landed, shall permit or suffer the same to be landed, or laid within 3 yards from the margin of any such dock or basin, or of the river Mersey, &c., shall not cause such rubbish, &c., to be wholly removed from off such quay, &c., within 24 hours after the same shall be so landed or laid: penalty 5s.

Any owner, &c., of any boat or vessel, permitting gunpowder, exceeding 10 pounds in weight, to be brought into any of the docks or basins, or any vessel or boat lying therein, without the previous consent in writing of a Justice of the peace of the borough of Liverpool: penalty 100s.

That upon due proof, on oath, to the satisfaction of any Justice of the peace of the borough of Liverpool, or county of Lancaster, that any dealer in marine stores, or any person, or of 200ft. Park, shall have been guilty of receiving stolen goods, or purchasing or receiving, &c., every such person shall forfeit 20s. for the first offence, 50s. for the second offence, and for conviction for such second offence, shall not carry on business as such dealer in marine stores within 200 yards from the margin or side of any dock or basin (exclusive of 40 yards prohibited by a former act) on pain of forfeiting the sum of 10l. for every day he, she, or they shall carry on such trade or business.

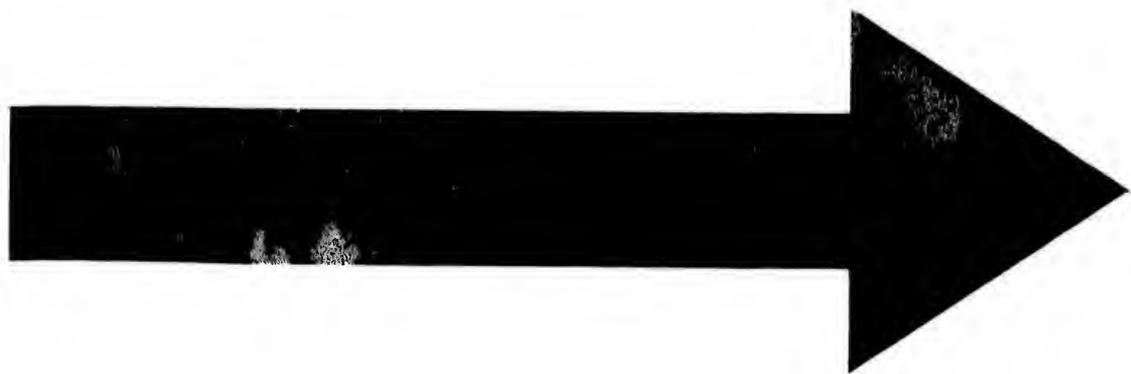
In case any person or persons living or accepting any bribe to do any of the water bailiff, harbour master, &c., or other officers thereof, or they shall be excused from the penalty of 20s. imposed by the 51 Geo. 3. for such offence, provided such information be given before any proceeding for punishing the said offence shall have commenced, any information laid in respect of any Justice of the peace against such person in relation to the same.

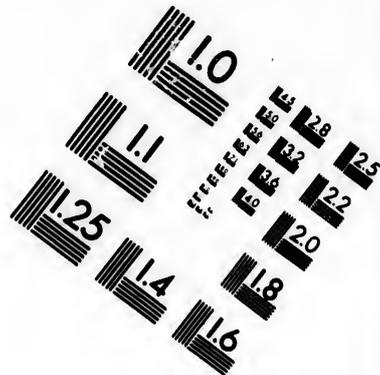
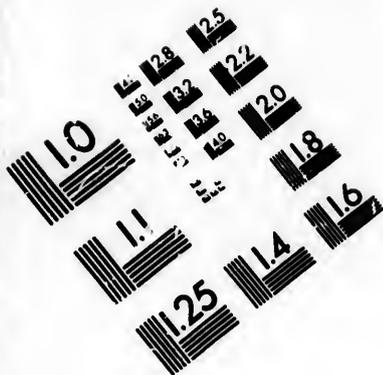
Justices of the peace may, upon complaint made, summon parties and ascertain and award the amount of recompense, for any services rendered, maintenance, &c., to vessels in the docks or basins; and in case of non-payment, may levy the sum so awarded by distress.

By-Laws. — 1. That the master, &c., who shall permit or suffer any pitch or tar, or any other combustible matter, to be boiled

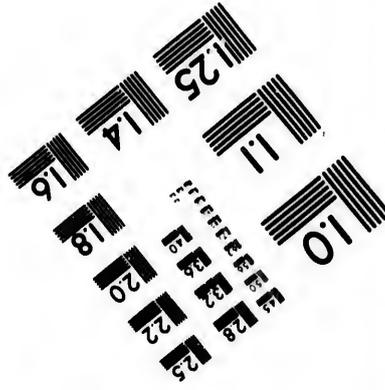
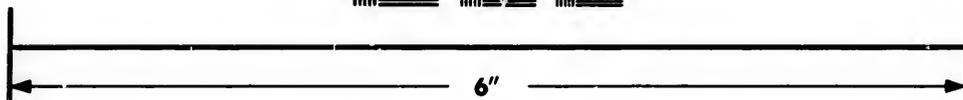
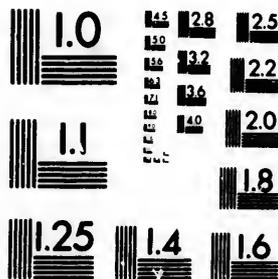
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Articles.	Inwards.		Outwards.		Articles.	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Foreign.	Continental.	Foreign.	British & Irish Goods.		Foreign.	Continental.	Foreign.	British & Irish Goods.
Empty bags and sacks - score	4	4	4	4	Gum, Senegal - ton	2	4	2	4
do - half barrels and smaller packages - ton	0	0	0	0	Gurghamdi - do - 100 lbs.	0	0	0	0
do - bags - do	0	0	0	0	Gun stocks - do - 180	0	0	0	0
do - bales and bannets - do	0	0	0	0	do - do - 100	0	0	0	0
do - boxes - each	0	0	0	0	Hakardasbery - do - package	0	0	0	0
do - casks not otherwise described - each	0	0	0	0	Hair, bull, cow, and goat - cwt.	0	0	0	0
do - cases, chests, and trunks - ton	0	0	0	0	do - horse - do	0	0	0	0
do - crates - do	0	0	0	0	do - powder - package	0	0	0	0
do - demijohns - do	0	0	0	0	do - down - ton	0	0	0	0
do - half and quarter crates - do	0	0	0	0	do - Hama - ton	0	0	0	0
do - trowsers - do	0	0	0	0	do - outwards, in packages. See <i>Sea and Ports.</i>				
Engines, locomotive - each	0	0	0	0	Hand-scops - do - 100	0	0	0	0
Spouts, cast-iron - do	0	0	0	0	do - package - do	0	0	0	0
Presence of lemons and limes, packed and others not enumerated - ton	0	0	0	0	Hardware - (loose) piece	0	0	0	0
Rhubarbium - cwt.	0	0	0	0	do - bundle - do	0	0	0	0
Extract of rhazany root - do	0	0	0	0	do - bag - do	0	0	0	0
Peruvian bark - do	0	0	0	0	do - all other packages - do	0	0	0	0
do - logwood - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Feathers - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - ostrich - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - 100 lbs. - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Feld spar - ton	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Felt - package	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Fine - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Filtering stones - each	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
Fish, dry salted - ton	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - 1800 - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - herrings, fresh - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pickled and salted of all descriptions - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - casks - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - 6 lbs. - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
British cured - hoghead	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
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do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
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do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - & barrels - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - box, kit, or half-tin - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - hoghead - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - pipe or punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - British cured - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - punchoon - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - tierce - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do	0	0	0	0
do - barrel - do	0	0	0	0	do - each - do				





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

1.8
2.0
2.2
2.5
2.8
3.2
3.6
4.0
4.5
5.0

10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20

Articles.	Inwards.		Outwards.		Articles.	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Foreign.	Coastwise.		Foreign.	Coastwise.	Foreign.	Coastwise.
Wine, bottled	2	4	4	4	Wood—crossed.	2	4	4	4
Wood, vis. anchor stocks	0	3	0	11	wheel spokes and felles	126	0	0	0
doe handies	0	3	0	14	berwood	120	0	0	0
doe, vis. 6 ft. to 20 ft.	1	0	0	0	beech and birch planks	120	0	0	0
doe above 21 ft. long	1	0	0	0	benwood	120	0	0	0
batten ends	1	0	0	0	Brazil and Brualletto	120	0	0	0
beech poles	1	0	0	0	canwood	120	0	0	0
boards, vis. beech, birch, pine, and poplar	1	0	0	0	cedar wood	120	0	0	0
clap	2	0	1	0	ebony	120	0	0	0
oak, above 12 ft.	2	0	1	0	flusht	120	0	0	0
under 15 ft.	2	0	1	0	Guinea wood	120	0	0	0
pine. See steers.	2	0	1	0	gunwood planks	load	220	0	0
wainscot, above 15 ft.	2	0	1	0	gunstocks	120	0	0	0
under 15 ft.	2	0	1	0	handspins	120	0	0	0
coal pit props	load	0	0	0	hulls of vessels, 1/2 per cent. on value.	120	0	0	0
crate and cypresswood	load	0	0	0	Lignum vitae	ton	1	0	0
doels, vis. under 21 ft.	120	0	1	0	lowwood and mahogany	120	0	0	0
exceeding 21 ft.	2	0	1	0	Nicaragua wood	120	0	0	0
deal ends	1	0	0	0	rose wood	120	0	0	0
8, quarter, or balks, vis. —	2	0	1	0	red and red sanders	120	0	0	0
under 8 in. square	2	0	1	0	aspen	120	0	0	0
3 in. sq. and above	2	0	1	0	Wool	120	0	0	0
fire wood	load	0	0	0	Woolens	package	0	0	0
lathwood	0	0	0	0	Wrappers	package	0	0	0
masts, vis. 6 in. and under 6 in.	0	0	0	0	Yaco, bay	cwt.	0	0	0
8 in. and under 12 in.	0	0	0	0	cotton or twist	0	0	0	0
12 in. and upwards. See Fir Timber.	0	0	0	0	linen	0	0	0	0
oak knees, vis. under 8 inches square	2	6	1	5	molale	0	0	0	0
8 inches square and upwards	2	6	1	5	worsted	0	0	0	0
oak r. furs and oars	load	1	0	0	Yaco, bay	package	0	0	0
old wood	load	0	0	0	Zafra, a species of coat of in-fur value	cwt.	0	4	0
planks, vis. beech, birch, oak, and poplar	2	6	1	5					
square, vis. under 22 ft. long	2	0	1	0					
22 ft. long and upwards	2	0	1	0					
spruce knees, vis. under 6 in. square	2	0	1	0					
6 inches and upwards	load	0	0	0					
staves, above 1 1/2 in. thick, not exceeding 36 in. long	0	0	0	0					
36 in., and under	0	0	0	0					
60 in.	0	0	0	0					
exceeding 60 in. long	0	0	0	0					
not above 1 1/2 in. thick, not exceeding 36 in. long	0	1	0	0					
exceeding 36 in., and under	0	2	0	1					
60 in.	0	2	0	1					
exceeding 60 in. long	0	2	0	1					
timber, vis. 6r	0	2	0	1					
tank or oak	0	2	0	1					
pine	0	2	0	1					
all other timber	0	2	0	1					
staves, vis. under 34 ft. long	120	2	0	1					
34 ft. long and upwards	2	0	1	0					
wainscot logs	load	1	6	0					
wedges	1200	1	6	0					

Articles (exported in packages) which are not before par-ticularised and not otherwise rated, vis. —

Articles.	Foreign.	British.
Hoghead	0	5
Fanchon	0	4
Cask not otherwise described	0	4
Tier	0	3
Trunk, chest, or bale	0	3
Bos	0	3
Crate	0	2
Barrel and half barrel	0	1
Pieck and keg	0	1
Hamper and half hamper	0	1
Stack, bay, or bundle	0	1

Eightpence per ton on hams refers only to British or Swedisch, shipped in bulk; when packed, to pay on the packages only, or pilorage and other port charges in Liverpool, see art. trans-ct., p. 1015.

The pilots' committee beg leave to recommend to the merchants of Liverpool, &c. that when a pilot conducts a ship or vessel into port to their satisfaction, to employ the same pilot to take the vessel out again; and if he should be absent on duty, that one belonging to the same boat be employed.

PILOTS' RULES AND REGULATIONS.

Any person acting as a pilot in the port of Liverpool, without a licence, to forfeit 5*l*.
 Pilots refusing to conduct ships, or assist ships in distress, to forfeit 10*l*. and lose their licence.
 Masters on coasting trade, in ballast, or under the burden of 100 tons, may pilot their own vessels.
 Masters of vessels faculty taking pilots beyond the limits of the port, shall forfeit not exceeding 2*l*., nor less than 5*l*.
 Pilots misbehaving to have their licences recalled; and if they act afterwards, to be liable to the same penalties as if they were not pilots.
 Vessels liable to pay pilotage coming into port, to display a signal for a pilot, under a penalty of 5*l*.
 Reward for pilots assisting ships in distress, to be settled by the committee.
 Compensation to be made to pilots for taking vessels out of

the port, which have been forced back, to be fixed by the committee.
 Ships forced back after parting with the pilot, and piloted out again from Hoylake, to pay one-half the price.
 Every master to give the pilot a true account of the draught of water of his ship, and pilot authorised to address.
 Pilots to obey the orders of the harbour and dock masters.
 No vessel to be brought round the Rock, or into the docks, in the night-time.
 The first pilot boat on turn at the westward, to carry a green and white light horizontally, and the second, third, fourth, and fifth, a green light only.
 At a meeting of the pilot committee held on the 2d of September, 1835, it was ordered—
 That henceforth no pilot be allowed to lay a vessel aground without a written order from either the master or owner: penalty 5*l*.
 At a meeting of the pilot committee held 2d November, 1835, it was ordered—
 That in future every master of the pilot boats sending a pilot branched only for 12 or 14 feet to take charge of vessels drawing more than 12 or 14 feet, to be fined in a sum not exceeding 5*l*.

IV. BRISTOL DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.

The great rise of tides in the Bristol Channel, and in the river Avon, on which Bristol is situated, in lat. 51° 27' 6" N. long. 2° 35' 28" W., enables the largest ships to come up to the town. To obviate the risks and damage to which they were formerly exposed by grounding at ebb tide, a floating harbour equivalent to a dock, was commenced in 1804 and finished in 1809, by changing the channel of the river. It extends about 3 miles, from the entrance at Rowham, to the dam at Templemeads, occupying the old bed of the Avon, and the bed of that branch of the Frome that lies between St. Augustine and St. Stephen's quays, and cost, in all, a very large sum. The present extent of quay frontage is 6000 feet, but the limits admit of any further extension that an increased trade may require. There are two basins for the

temporary accommodation of vessels entering or leaving; one at Rowham for large ships, the other below the iron bridge at Bedminster, for vessels under 500 tons. There are several capacious graving-docks, and ship-building is carried on to some extent: the Great Western and Great Britain steam-ships, with the Severn, the Avon, and others of inferior dimensions having been built in the port. The tide in the Avon sets with great rapidity, especially between the high precipitous rocks of Clifton and Leigh, which seem rent asunder to admit its passage. In Kingroad its rise at springs is between 48 and 49 feet, at neaps above 23 feet: at the gates of the floating harbour it rises from 50 to 53 feet. Previously to the completion, in 1849, of the new lock or entrance to the floating harbour at Cumberland basin, Rowham, vessels occasionally loaded and unloaded in Kingroad, at the mouth of the river, by means of lighters. But the entrance to the basin is now of dimensions sufficient to admit steamers and other ships of the largest class. The port and other dues, which it was formerly imperative to levy on all vessels frequenting the port, whether they entered the new harbour or not, may now be remitted at the discretion of the town council, to those that do not avail themselves of the latter.

Bristol early possessed, and continues to enjoy, a large share of the trade with the West Indies. Among her foreign imports the most important are colonial products, tea, tobacco, timber, grain of all sorts, flour, wine, brandy, tallow, fruits, wool, hemp, dye stuffs, oil, saltpetre, hides, &c. The exports consist principally of the produce of the various manufactures of the city, comprising refined sugar, brass and copper articles, spirits, glass, earthenware, &c., with salt, coals, and culm, the produce of the neighbourhood; and cotton, linen, and woollen goods. Bristol carries on an extensive and growing trade with Ireland, from which she imports, corn, butter, bacon, potatoes, cattle, horses, sheep, pigs, salmon, &c. She sends in return, tea, raw and refined sugar, cheese, wrought iron, tin plates, copper, glass, woollens, leather, &c. The imports, coastwise, consist mostly of iron, tin, coal, salt, agricultural produce, and foreign produce, brought from other ports under bond. The exports are chiefly foreign and colonial produce (especially groceries, spirits, and wines), and the various manufactures of the city. A steam communication for the conveyance of goods and passengers to Ireland was established in 1836, and has led to a great increase of the trade with that part of the empire. Bristol had the honour of being the first port in the empire to establish a regular communication by steam with the U. States. The first voyage by the Great Western steam-ship was performed in 1838.

The decline in the comparative importance of Bristol, as a trading emporium, has been chiefly manifested by contrasting her progress with that of Liverpool. The average customs duties of Bristol for the seven years ending with 1757, amounted to 155,186*l.*; those of Liverpool for the same period, to 51,156*l.* In 1784, the customs of Bristol had risen to 334,906*l.*, a great increase; but those of Liverpool had advanced, in the same year, to 646,694*l.*; and in 1846, while the customs duties of the former amounted to 919,148*l.*, those of the latter amounted to 3,622,057*l.* One of the chief causes that have been commonly assigned for this comparative slowness of progress is the excess of local taxation; the town and harbour dues having been much heavier than those of any other of the larger ports.

There can, however, be no doubt, that too much stress has been laid upon this circumstance in accounting for the slower progress of the trade of this port. The real cause of the rapid rise of Liverpool, Glasgow, and some other sea-port towns is to be found, not in the looseness of their port charges, or in any peculiar advantages they individually enjoy, but in their having become the ports of the great manufacturing districts. The extraordinary growth of Liverpool is a consequence of the still more extraordinary growth of the cotton manufacture. Her rise has been dependent upon, and consequent to, the rise of Manchester, Bolton, Blackburn, &c. Still, however, it is not to be denied that the trade of Bristol was seriously injured by the high charges that were formerly imposed on the shipping frequenting her port. But that grievance, after having been mitigated by various reductions effected since 1835, has at length been wholly obviated; and the charges on shipping in the Avon are now remarkable for their moderation. This important reform took place in 1848, under the local act 11 & 12 Vict. c. 43 (29 June, 1848), which transferred the property of the docks from the former dock company to the citizens, and vested their management in the common council of the city. In consequence of this change, and of the reduction of the rates by which it has been followed, ships that formerly paid 2*s.* and 2*s.* per ton of dock dues now pay 1*s.* per do.; while those that paid 1*s.* now pay 6*d.*; and those that paid 6*d.* and 6*d.* now pay 4*d.* (See former rates in last edit. of this work.) All articles not enumerated in the annexed tables are exempted from dock and town duties. And it is of importance to observe that all former charges on ships and goods outwards have been wholly abolished; so that, as regards exports, Bristol is now an absolutely free port.

DOCK RATES AND DUES ON SHIPPING ENTERING THE PORT OF BRISTOL, FROM LEAVING THE SAME BEING FREE OF ALL PORT CHARGES.

Dock Dues.		A	s.	d.
For every vessel trading from Africa, Honduras, Surinam, and other ports in South America, the U. States of America, the East and West Indies, all the ports within the Straits of Gibraltar, the Southern Whale Fishery, the British Colonies, Portugal, France, Russia, Spain, without the Straits, and Sweden, per ton		0	1	0
For every vessel trading from Flanders, France, without the Straits, Germany, Guernsey, Holland, Jersey, Norway, Poland, and Zealand, per ton		0	0	6
For every vessel trading from Ireland, the Isle of Man, Scotland, or as a coaster, not including vessels from Cardiff, Newport, and other ports to the westward of the Helms, per ton		0	0	4
For every vessel from Cardiff, Newport, or any other port to the westward of the Helms (not being under one third part of the lading of which shall consist of coal, scroff, iron, tin, tin plates, grain, copper, licks, stone, coal, tar, slate, bark, timber, or wood), as follows:—				
If such vessel shall be under 40 tons burthen, for each voyage		0	7	6
If such vessel shall be 40 tons burthen, and under 75 tons, for each voyage		0	12	6
If such vessel be 75 tons burthen, and under 100 tons, for each voyage		0	16	0
If such vessel shall be 100 tons burthen or upwards, for each voyage		1	0	0

For every vessel from Cardiff, Newport, or any other port to the westward of the Helms, one third part of the lading of which shall consist of coal, scroff, iron, tin, tin plates, grain, copper, bricks, stone, coal, tar, slate, bark, timber, or wood, as follows:—

If such vessel shall not exceed 75 tons burthen, for each voyage	0	5	0
If such vessel shall exceed 75 tons burthen, for each voyage	0	7	6

N. B.—There are no dock rates or other port charges payable on vessels leaving the port of Bristol. And a vessel having once paid the dock dues on entering the port may remain for an indefinite period in the floating harbour without any further charge.

Anchorage and Moorage chargeable only on Vessels coming from the westward of the Helms.

	Anchorage	Moorage
	s.	d.
All sailing vessels, from ports to the westward of the Helms, not exceeding 40 tons burthen, each voyage	0	8
Disso, at and above 40 tons, ditto	0	18
	Anchorage	Moorage
	each.	per ton.
	s.	d.
All other vessels, not being coasters,		
— under 30 tons	0	8
— above 30 and under 100 tons	5	0
— above 100 tons	0	8

Liverpool; for, although the customs duty collected in Hull be inferior to that of Bristol, it having amounted, in 1841, to only 667,341l. nett, she has a larger amount of shipping. In 1842, there belonged to the port 305 ships of 50 tons and upwards, having an aggregate burden of 65,637 tons, with 155 vessels of less than 50 tons; making a total of 460 ships and 71,637 tons, exclusive of 23 steamers, of the burden of 2,914 tons.

The commerce of Hull depends principally on her advantageous situation. She is the principal emporium of the extensive and fertile counties on the estuary of the Humber, and of those traversed by the numerous and important rivers, including the Trent, Don, Ouse, &c., that have their embouchure in it. The natural facilities for internal communication thus enjoyed by Hull, have been greatly extended by artificial means. She is now united, partly by rivers and partly by canals, with Sheffield, Leeds, Manchester, Liverpool, &c.; so that she has become not merely the principal port for the W. Riding of Yorkshire, but also for a considerable portion of the trade carried on between Lancashire and the northern parts of the Continent. The great articles of export are cotton stuffs and twist, woollen goods, hardware, and earthenware, &c. The principal articles of import are wool, bones, timber, hemp and flax, corn, and seeds, madder, bark, turpentine, skins, &c. The rise of Goolie has not been nearly so injurious to the trade of Hull as might have been supposed; and though she may, perhaps, sustain some injury from the privilege of bonding having been conferred on Gainborough, her superior facilities for trade and navigation will always ensure for her a decided superiority over the other ports on the Humber and its affluents. Hull used to be very largely engaged in the N. whale fishery; but here, as every where else, that branch of industry has dwindled to almost nothing, only 3 vessels having left the port for the fishery in 1842. It is said, however, by those best acquainted with the town, that it has gained rather than lost by this decline. The risk and uncertainty of the whale-fishery made it little better than a gambling speculation, and tended to diffuse habits among the ship-owners and others connected with the port, which were not very consistent with their other very steady avocations. A regular intercourse is kept up, by steam packets, between Hull and London, and Hull and several of the Continental ports.

HARBOUR AND DOCK DUES.

- Vessels coming to or going between the port of Kingston upon Hull and any port in the N. of Yorkshire, in Norfolk, or any port to the southward of Holy Island, per ton 0 2
- Vessels coming to or going between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any port between the N. Foreland and Shetland, on the east side of England, except as above 0 3
- Vessels trading between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any other port in Great Britain before mentioned 0 6
- Vessels trading between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any port in the Baltic Seas, and all other ports above the Sound 1 3
- Vessels trading between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any port in Denmark, Sweden, or Norway before mentioned, or any port in Germany, Holland, Flanders, France to the eastward of Ushant, Ireland, the Islands of Guernsey and Jersey 0 10
- Vessels trading between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any island or port of Europe to the westward of Ushant, and the Straits of Gibraltar 1 3
- Vessels trading between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull and every port in the W. Indies, N. or S. America, Africa, Greenland, or any place to the E. of the North Cape of Norway, all places within the Straits of Gibraltar and all islands to the westward of the N. of Cape St. Vincent, not herein before mentioned 1 0
- Vessels coming to or going (with merchandise) from any of the above-named ports, pay double the rates, tonnage, or duties, above mentioned, unless the said vessels belong to British owners.
- Vessels sailing coastwise or otherwise, and coming into the said haven in ballast to be laid up (consisting duty included) 0 6

The same rate of charges is made on vessels using the old harbour or roads.

The above rates are vested in the Dock Company, and are paid at the time of each vessel's entry inwards; clearance or discharge outwards; or, in case any vessel shall not enter as aforesaid, then at any time before such vessel shall proceed from the port, at the Custom-house; so as no vessel shall be subject or liable to the payment of the rates or duties more than once for the same voyage, both out and home, notwithstanding such vessel may go out and return with a cargo.

Vessels forced into the port by the enemy, or by receiving damage at sea, or otherwise, and shall discharge in order to repair such damage, and reload the goods so discharged, are exempted from the above rates and duties, unless they make use of the dock or basin.

Vessels which come and go coastwise from any port in Great Britain, or from any place up the rivers Trent or Ouse, within the limits of the port of Hull, to or from any other place up the said rivers, or Ouse, or from any other river which falls into the said rivers, or which shall trade between any such port in Great Britain and any such place as aforesaid within or up the said rivers, or also exempted from the above rates and duties, unless they come to or go to the said basin or dock, or any part of the harbour called Hull haven; or shall use the basin or dock, or quay within the harbour; or shall unload or put on shore, or otherwise take on board, any goods, wares, or merchandise, or any part of the cargo of any vessel, within or up the river of Hull.

N. 6.—All ships coming to the port have to pay dock dues whether they make use of the docks or not. Goods inwards pay no dock dues unless landed upon quays or wharfs belonging to the Company. Goods outwards pay no dock dues.

DUES PAYABLE TO THE CORPORATION OF HULL.
On Vessels entering inwards and outwards.

Anchorage.—Alien vessels under 100 tons burden, 1s. 6d.; 100 and under 200 tons, 2s.; 200 and upwards, 3s.
Jettyage.—Under 100 tons, 1s. 6d.; if landed outwards, 3s. 6d.; 100 and under 200 tons, 17s.; if landed out more, 3s.; 200 tons and upwards, 11s.; if landed out more, 7s.
Keelage.—For each pound tierling of the freight inwards, 3d.; and among the officers, per ship, 2s.
Ballast.—For each ton taken outwards, 2s.

	Jettyage.			
	British vessels under 45 tons burden	45 and not 40	40 and not 35	35 and not 30
—	45	50	55	60
—	100	150	200	250
—	300	400	500	600
—	800 and upwards	2 6	6 0	6 0

Freemen are exempted from anchorage, jettyage, as well as non-freemen, pay jettyage. The charge for jettyage is not made unless with goods landed at or taken in at Hull, or within the harbour.

British ships pay no postage, and nothing for ballast.

Boatage.—British vessels under 20 tons, 2s.; 20 tons and under 50, 2s. 6d.; and 6d. additional for every 10 tons. Foreign vessels under 60 tons, 11s.; 60 tons and under 135, 14s.; 135 tons and under 170, 17s.; 170 tons and under 185, 11s.; and 1s. additional for every 10 tons.

Ballast.—Bands, 1s. 6d. per ton; but vessels, by giving a mile or two to the river, may get shalloes for rather less, which is more valuable when discharged.

Depth of Water.—The access to the docks are either from the river Humber, or from the river Hull. The lock from the Humber into the Humber dock is capable of admitting, at spring tides, vessels drawing 28½ feet; and at neap tides, from 15 to 20 feet. The lock from the old harbour into the old dock is always 6 feet short of the water as the other lock; these depths depend much on the state of the winds and other natural causes.

RATES OF PILOTAGE AT HULL.

From or to	To or from	Per Foot.
The distance at sea where the North Norn of Dillingham bears west-south-west to the northward of Klissan North Cliff	Hawke Roads or Grimsby Roads - Whitehoob Roads - The port of Kingston-upon-Hull -	1 6 2 6 5 0
The distance at sea where Klissan North Cliff bears west-north-west to the northward of the New Sand, Buoy on the Floating Light at the entrance of the River Humber	Hawke Roads or Grimsby Roads - Whitehoob Roads - The port of Kingston-upon-Hull -	1 6 2 6 4 0
The old New Sand Buoy or the Floating Light West at the entrance of the River Humber, to the eastward of the pole where the Spurn High Lighthouse bears north-east	Hawke Roads or Grimsby Roads - Whitehoob Roads - The port of Kingston-upon-Hull -	1 0 2 0 3 6
The Spurn High Lighthouse bearing north-east	Hawke Roads or Grimsby Roads - Whitehoob Roads - The port of Kingston-upon-Hull -	1 0 2 0 5 6
The Hawke Roads, the buoy of the Spurn or Grimsby Roads	Whitehoob Roads - The port of Kingston-upon-Hull -	1 6 2 6

RATES AND PORT CHARGES.

Tonnage.—The steam-boats are the property of private parties. Tonnage as may be agreed on.

Boatage. s. d.
 Vessels drawing 13 feet water and upwards - - - 9 0
 Vessels drawing 10 feet water and upwards, and not exceeding 13 feet - - - 7 0
 Vessels drawing under 10 feet water - - - 4 0

For detention on board Vessels performing Quarantine.
 Vessels having British registers, or the owners s. d.
 Subjects of the Queen of Great Britain - - - 5 0 per diem.
 Vessels belonging to aliens - - - 7 0

Exclusive of the day on which the vessel shall enter into Quarantine, and of the day of her release therefrom.

For Attendance on board Vessels of anchor in any of the Roads.
Attendants on board Vessels of anchor in any of the Roads.
 For every day of 24 hours' attendance - - - 5s. per diem.
 Part of a day's attendance, same as for a whole day.

Vessels from foreign ports must employ the regular pilots. Vessels coastwise are under no restriction, and usually employ one of those class of persons named dusters, whose charge varies from 10s. to 12s. or may be agreed on.

WATER BARRAGE TRUST, SAVINGS AND CORPORATION OF HULL, OR CERTAIN OF THE SAID BARRAGE AND TRUST.

Hemp, flax, tow, and cordage, each - - - per ton 0 8
 Iron in bars - - - per 50 bars 0 8
 Timber - fir, plank, and oak, each - - - per load 0 4
 Deals - - - per 100 1 0

Deal ends - - - per 100 0 4
 Balke, middl - - - 3 0
 small - - - 2 0
 Viers, double - - - 2 0
 single - - - 1 0
 Carpentry - - - 0 4
 Handspike - - - 0 4
 Staves, 50 to 72 inches - - - 0 4
 50 to 60 inches - - - 0 4
 36 to 50 - - - 0 1
 Carr - - - 0 1
 Buttens - - - 0 1
 Batten ends - - - 0 2
 Long, wainscot - - - 0 2
 Boards, do. - - - 0 1
 palling, or outside slab - - - 0 1
 clay - - - 0 1
 Piers, cant - - - 5 0
 piped - - - 2 0
 do. 4 to 6 inches - - - 2 0
 Mast, great - - - per load 0 4
 4 to 1 1/2 inches - - - each 0 1
 6 to 8 do. - - - 0 1
 Pitch and tar, each (ld. per barrel, or) - - - per last 0 6
 Turpentine (ld. per barrel, or) - - - per bid. 0 2
 Tobacco - - - per bid. 0 2
 Corn - - - per qt. 0 6

Example, if the sole property of freemen in British ships.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign Produce imported into Hull in 1840, 1841, and 1842.

Goods.	1840.	1841.	1842.	Goods.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Bacon - - -	29,181 tons	24,563 tons	27,866 tons	Seed, rape - - -	8,802 lasta	7,221 lasta	6,527 lasta
Hark, oak - - -	3,145	5,935	7,508	clover - - -	2,172 tons	1,600 tons	1,768 tons
Corn, wheat - - -	260,267 qrs.	262,641 qrs.	247,740 qrs.	Spruce beer - - -	465 barrels	1,172 barrels	203 barrels
Barley - - -	27,714	26,744	7,744	do. 1/2 lasta - - -	764 lasta	248 lasta	262 lasta
Oats - - -	69,500	11,024	44,685	Turpentine - - -	16,474 barrels	20,402 barrels	16,589 barrels
Beans - - -	38,603	87,969	6,285	do. 1/2 - - -	1,915 tons	730 tons	1,250 tons
Peas - - -	37,624	25,680	11,861	Wool - - -	14,261,64 lbs.	3,697 bales,	2,949 bales
Tares - - -	4,800	7,235	5,028	do. 1/2 - - -	15,724,54 lbs.	11,249 bales,	11,720 tons
Cake, of - - -	1,636 tons	2,010 tons	7,850 tons	Russia - - -	73 bales	and 120 bales	and 61 bales
Linned - - -	4,001	7,003	2,093	do. 1/2 - - -	15 tons	half's ton	80 tons
Flax - - -	5,648	4,413	2,907	Yarn, raw linen - - -	885 lbs.	2,500 lbs.	5,108 lbs. 8 oz.
Ruch and - - -	858	430	883	Worsted - - -	277 tons	200 tons	161 tons
Finnish - - -	4,433	4,995	9,747	Zaffers - - -	2,006	1,116	6,707
Baltic - - -	5,478	2,566	4,293	Wood, timber, fir - - -	18,808 pieces	10,457 pieces	6,980 pieces
Hides - - -	-	-	3,069 cwts.	Colonial - - -	2,011	1,138	755
Wet - - -	-	-	4,484	Foreign - - -	2,011	1,138	755
Dry - - -	-	-	6,349	Colonial - - -	7,504	5,403 cts.	8,876
Oz and cow, - - -	-	-	324	Oak - - -	492.5	451.9	338.4
wet - - -	378 cwts.	3,807 cwts.	8,387	Hardwood - - -	615	657	657
dry - - -	5,788	5,600	1,518	Dials, foreign - - -	2,037 cts.	2,037 cts.	2,037 cts.
Horse, wet - - -	1,171	1,650	785	Colonial - - -	492.5	451.9	338.4
dry - - -	5,788	39 tons	36 tons	Den ends, foreign - - -	615	657	657
Hemp - - -	1,348	728	716	Colonial - - -	491	87.5	86.5
Petersburg - - -	1,348	728	716	Batts, foreign - - -	227.0	189.1	91.0
Riga - - -	1,171	1,068	785	Colonial - - -	65.8	91.0	50.5
Iron bars - - -	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	Lathwood, foreign - - -	668 fath.	667 fath.	661 fath.
Colonial - - -	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	Colonial - - -	861	368	314
Russia - - -	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	3,649 tons and 7,235 tons and 4,733 tons and	Masts, foreign - - -	177 No.	209 No.	241 No.
Madders - - -	361,407 bars	354,249 bars	330,449 bars	Colonial - - -	781	86	1
Oil, train - - -	1,585 tons	1,274 tons	747 tons	Spain, foreign - - -	16,2 cts.	13.0 cts.	99 cts.
Olive - - -	32 tons	33 tons	31 tons	Colonial - - -	1	14	69.0
Rice - - -	1,553	1,241	716	Staves, foreign - - -	139.4	114.8	17.3
Kid and Calf, - - -	877	559	559	Colonial - - -	109.4	61.2	41
wet - - -	4,483 cwts.	4,091 cwts.	1,512	St. John's - - -	29.2	27.43	27.43
dry - - -	11,849	12,559	8,323	Wainscot logs - - -	1,502 logs	1,100 logs	1,546 logs
Seed, lins - - -	201,000 qrs.	126,480 qrs.	193,352 qrs.				

Account of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, that entered inwards at the Port of Hull in 1846, specifying the Ports from which they cleared, and the Nations to which they belonged.

Ports from which the Vessels cleared.	British.		Foreign.		Nations to which the Vessels belonged.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Russia, viz. - - -	270	63,132	79	17,350	United Kingdom - - -	1,098 248,749
Northern ports - - -	22	3,975	5	2,056	Russia - - -	70 19,755
Ports in Black Sea - - -	24	4,508	205	94,692	Sweden - - -	164 19,948
Sweden - - -	-	-	27	2,385	Norway - - -	73 9,590
Norway - - -	3	460	510	19,794	Denmark - - -	312 10,601
Prussia - - -	47	6,668	200	35,866	Prussia - - -	143 50,885
Germany, viz. - - -	-	-	18	1,252	Germany - - -	997 37,849
Mecklenburg - - -	-	-	66	3,060	Holland - - -	189 14,886
Hanover - - -	-	1	16	1,162	Belgium - - -	39 2,481
Oldenburg - - -	138	43,810	130	26,956	France - - -	17 1,354
Holland - - -	169	24,724	190	14,350	Spain - - -	1 184
Belgium - - -	66	13,317	42	3,028	Italy - - -	13 5,355
France - - -	39	2,585	180	1,808	Greece - - -	1 303
Portugal, Proper - - -	-	1,600	4	416	Turkey - - -	1 200
Azores - - -	35	1,725	5	903	United States - - -	13 4,477
Spain - - -	20	2,424	4	803	Chilil - - -	1 805
Gibraltar - - -	2	137	-	-	Total - - -	3,416 413,071
Italy, viz. - - -	1	238	-	-		
Pugany - - -	-	-	4	794		
Naples and Sicily - - -	30	8,486	4	893		
Austrian territories - - -	2	456	1	267		
Malta - - -	2	761	4	1,850		
Turkish dominions - - -	2	667	-	-		
Western Coast - - -	2	258	-	-		
St. Helena - - -	2	2,280	-	-		
East India Company's territories - - -	36	14,905	-	-		
Cannan - - -	74	25,563	-	-		
New Brunswick - - -	8	574	-	-		
Prince Edward's Island - - -	6	1,216	-	-		
Nova Scotia - - -	6	1,216	-	-		
Houlston - - -	9	4,711	13	4,477		
United States - - -	13	4,118	-	-		
Patagonia - - -	15	5,798	-	-		
Greenland whale fisheries - - -	8	1,515	4	1,057		
Sandwich - - -	-	-	-	-		
Total - - -	1,069	218,812	1,347	165,152		

An Account of the Greenland and Davis's Straits Whale Fishery, carried on from Hull, from 1773 to 1842, both inclusive; specifying the Number of Ships sent out, the Number lost, the Number that returned clean or without any Cargo, and the Imports of Oil and Bone.

Year.	Ships sent out.	Lost.	Clean.	Tons of Oil, Old Measure.	Tons of Bone.	Year.	Ships sent out.	Lost.	Clean.	Tons of Oil, Old Measure.	Tons of Bone.
1773	9	.	.	391	19	1806	20	3	.	4,458	220
1774	9	.	3	365	14	1807	24	1	1	4,321	210
1775	9	.	3	406	35	1810	34	.	.	5,040	260
1776	10	1	3	68	8	1811	45	.	.	5,308	250
1777	9	.	.	330	13	1812	45	1	.	5,588	290
1777	9	.	.	349	15	1813	55	.	10	5,457	186
1778	8	.	.	171	9	1814	58	.	1	7,328	330
1778	4	.	3	388	7	1815	68	1	1	8,746	188
1780	4	.	1	311	15	1818	68	.	1	5,131	264
1781	3	.	.	361	19	1817	66	1	3	4,711	243
1782	4	.	.	270	11	1818	64	.	.	6,190	304
1783	4	.	.	368	16	1819	65	4	1	5,185	264
1784	9	.	.	379	22	1820	68	.	0	8,066	408
1786	14	.	.	694	36	1821	61	0	.	5,368	277
1786	21	1	.	945	43	1822	40	.	1	5,112	154
1787	20	.	2	1,085	46	1823	41	.	.	5,490	292
1786	25	.	3	1,043	47	1824	38	.	0	2,459	100
1789	21	.	2	525	43	1825	26	.	4	3,238	190
1790	26	.	1	838	48	1826	22	.	1	3,378	126
1791	21	.	0	848	17	1827	30	.	.	4,561	200
1792	20	.	2	900	45	1828	30	1	.	5,297	210
1793	13	.	1	645	41	1829	33	.	.	3,378	126
1794	18	.	1	710	35	1830	33	.	5	1,871	68
1795	14	.	1	1,148	47	1831	32	.	.	1,923	93
1796	18	1 taken	.	1,578	77	1832	30	.	3	4,203	201
1797	21	.	.	1,741	87	1833	27	.	.	5,024	294
1798	25	.	.	2,139	100	1834	27	1	.	3,526	146
1799	27	.	.	3,082	110	1835	23	.	.	456	36
1800	34	.	.	1,718	90						
1801	33	.	.	1,140	100	1836	15	1	1	145	No return.
1802	36	.	.	3,378	140	1837	18	.	2	330	do.
1803	40	.	.	2,183	110	1838	8	.	1	59	27
1804	43	3 taken	.	4,517	200	1839	8	.	.	871	41
1805	40	1 taken	.	3,174	250	1840	4	.	2	43	3
1806	40	1 lost	.	3,580	170	1841	3	.	.	12	2
1807	37	2 lost	.	4,548	300	1842	3	.	.	46	No return.

* Including the ship lost in the ice the previous year.

VI. DUNDEE DOCKS, SHIPPING, &c.

Dundee, on the N side of the Frith of Tay, lat. $56^{\circ} 28' N.$, long. $2^{\circ} 57' 30'' W.$, 9 miles W. from Bute Ness Point (on which there are two first-class light-houses, with fixed lights), has increased with extraordinary rapidity since the termination of the late war, and is now become the principal seat of the British linen manufacture, and has a very extensive trade. Down to 1815, the harbour was on a humble scale, and adapted only to a very limited commerce. Only one small pier existed. But in the year referred to, an act was obtained for separating the harbour from the other branches of the burgh revenue, for constructing an entirely new harbour, on a scale commensurate with the growing importance of the place, and for investing the management in a board of commissioners. Additional acts were obtained in 1830 and 1836; and the result of the measures thus set on foot has been, that Dundee can already boast of the completion of two wet docks, King William's, of 6½, Earl Grey's, of 5½, and of a tide harbour, of 4½ acres, connected with them. The breadth of the lock of the former, to which is attached a splendid graving dock, is 40 feet; and that of the latter, which is fitted to admit steamers, 55 feet. A crane, reaching 28 feet from the face of the quay wall on which it is placed, and capable of raising 30 tons, is erected at this dock, so that every facility is afforded for taking out and putting in the boilers, &c. of the largest steam vessels. There is also a Morton slip attached to the tide harbour, on which three vessels may be placed at once. The vessels are hauled up by a steam-engine of 16 horse power: a ship of 800 tons may be placed on the slip; one of the Dundee steamers, the Perth, weighing, without her boilers, 596 tons, was lately repaired on it.

A wet dock of 14½ acres is now being constructed, the lock of which will be 60 feet. The harbour plan also embraces another wet dock of 9½ acres, and the tide harbour between these docks will be of the extent of 11 acres. The quays are wide and spacious, affording berthage for above 65 vessels; and there are extensive and convenient carpenters' and other yards for ship building. The accommodation for the building and repairing of vessels is not surpassed in any port of the kingdom.

These splendid works had cost, in May, 1839, no less than 447,248*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*, of which 365,150*l.* 1*s.* 0*d.* had been expended on the works, and 82,097*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.* paid as interest of money borrowed. The amount of shore dues and rents collected up to May, 1839, was 233,675*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*, and the sum borrowed 213,572*l.* 8*s.* The sum allowed to be borrowed on the credit of the harbour is 230,000*l.* The revenue of the harbour from Martinmas, 1764, to 15th of July, 1815, when it was put under a parliamentary commission, was only 38,696*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, and during this period the sum expended in maintaining it was 9,468*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* The shore dues in 1765 yielded 12*s.*;

The export of yarn continues to increase, the quantity shipped during the year ending May, 1843, being 7,817 tons.

The number of vessels which entered the port of Dundee in 1836 was 4,206; registered tonnage, 281,592.

Statement of Tonnage Due on Vessels entering the Harbour of Dundee.

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
1. For all vessels arriving to the southward of the Tropic of Capricorn, per register ton	1	8
2. Between the Equator and the Tropic of Capricorn	1	3
3. Between the Tropic of Cancer and the Equator	1	0
4. To or from any port in North America, Greenland, Davis's Straits fisheries, and all within the Straits of Gibraltar	0	8
5. To or from any port to the north of Dronheim, in Norway, or from Acores, Madeira, or the Azores Islands	0	7
6. To or from any port between Gibraltar and Donkirk, including Donkirk, and from any port in the Baltic	0	3
7. To or from any port in Great Britain or Ireland, including the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, the Shetland Islands, and Orkney	0	3
8. All vessels loaded with coals or lime only, from any port in Great Britain, &c., excepting Scotland	0	8
9. All vessels loaded with coals or lime only, from any port in Scotland	0	11
10. All vessels employed in the River Tay, carrying goods and entering the precincts of the port or harbour of Dundee, per register ton	0	11
11. All steam vessels from any port in Great Britain, or places enumerated in No. 7, carrying passengers and their luggage exclusively	0	8
12. All steam vessels employed in the River Tay, carrying passengers and their luggage exclusively, and vessels trading from the harbour, or carrying passengers to any part within the precincts	0	1
13. All steam vessels carrying goods and passengers, to pay the same rates as sailing vessels.		

VII. GOOLE DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.

The port of Goole, on the Ouse, a little above its junction with the Humber, about 22 miles more inland than Hull, has a considerable trade. Previously to 1820, Goole was but an insignificant hamlet. It communicates by means of canals with Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Wakefield, &c. Though so remote from the sea, vessels drawing 15 or 16 feet water, may, by taking advantage of the flood, reach Goole in safety. It has 2 wet docks and a basin. The first, or *ship dock*, is 800 feet long by 200 in breadth. The second, or *barge dock*, is 900 feet long by 150 in width, and is intended for the accommodation of the small craft which ply upon the canals and rivers. The warehouses at Goole are extensive and convenient; and it has been admitted to the privileges of a bonding port. There belonged to it, in 1842, 381 registered ships, of the burden of 24,281 tons, the majority of them being under 50 tons. The net customs revenue received at Goole in 1841 amounted to 59,81*l.*

VIII. LEITH DOCKS, SHIPPING, ETC.

Leith, which may be called the port of Edinburgh, has 2 wet docks, containing more than 10 acres of water room, and capable of accommodating 150 such ships as frequent the port. There are also 3 dry docks contiguous to the wet docks.

These docks appear to have cost in all about 285,000*l.*, of which 265,000*l.* was borrowed from government. Very large sums have also been expended in the extension of the pier, now 3,000 feet in length, and in other works for the improvement of the port. The grand object of these works has been the deepening of the water in the harbour or channel leading to the docks; but after all that has been effected, the harbour is all but dry at low water, and there are only 19 feet water at the extremity of the pier at high-water spring tides, and 12 feet at neap tides. In fact, no vessel of above 700 tons burden can approach the harbour at the highest tides; and as the docks do not admit vessels of more than 400 tons, if vessels of larger burden enter the port they must ground at ebb tide. A late act provides that 125,000*l.* may be conditionally expended in further improving the harbour; but it is all but certain that the physical disadvantages under which it labours can never be successfully overcome; that Leith can never be anything better than a very indifferent tide harbour; and that the expenditure of further sums upon it would be a very questionable proceeding.

The harbour of Edinburgh should, in fact, have been constructed more to the W. at Trinity or Granton. Indeed, after much opposition on the part of Leith and Edinburgh, a bill was carried through parliament in 1837, for the construction of a low water pier at Trinity, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. W. of the harbour of Leith; but various circumstances, which it is unnecessary to notice, make it pretty certain that no effort will be made to carry that measure into effect. Luckily, however, the Duke of Buccleuch has been for some years engaged in the construction of a low water pier on his estate of Granton, $\frac{1}{4}$ m. W. of Leith; an undertaking of great national importance, and worthy of an individual of great wealth and public spirit. This splendid work, by far the greatest of its kind that has been attempted in Scotland, will, when completed, secure for Edinburgh all the advantages of a deep water harbour, accessible at all times. The pier, which is constructed in the most approved manner, is to project into the sea about 1700 feet, shaped like a T, with its head to the N., having harbours and landing-places on both sides. It has been partially open for about 5 years, but its business has hitherto been principally confined to the accommodation of steamers. The duke has erected, contiguous to the pier, a large edifice for a hotel, with warehouses and other buildings; and there can be little doubt that, in no very lengthened period, the principal part of the shipping business carried on at Leith will be transferred to Granton. The latter communicates, by an excellent road, with the New Town of Edinburgh.

But notwithstanding these unfavourable circumstances, the commerce of Leith, from its being the port of Edinburgh, is very considerable, and has been slowly but steadily improving. It carries on a limited trade with Australia, the E. and W. Indies, China, the Mediterranean, Canada, and the United States; but its chief foreign trade is with Holland and the N. of Europe. With regard to its domestic trade, there are three companies, who have altogether 18 vessels trading with London; and there are other companies which have vessels trading with Hull, Newcastle, Liverpool, Greenock, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Montrose, Wick, Helmsdale, Orkney, Shetland, Dundee, Stirling, &c. The communication by steam with London is twice a week during the entire year, but more vessels sail in summer than in winter. There is also a communication by steam with Newcastle and Hull twice a week; with Stirling twice a day; the opposite coast of Fife 3 times a day; and a regular communication with every important place on the E. of Scotland, from Lerwick in Shetland, and Kirkwall in Orkney, to Berwick-upon-Tweed. The steamers sail from Leith, Newhaven, the chain pier at Trinity, or Granton, but now mostly from the latter. Leith formerly sent 8 or 10 vessels to the Greenland whale fishery, but such has been the decline of the business that she no longer sends a single ship.

Account of the Vessels, with their Tonnage, that entered the Port of Leith from Foreign and Colonial Ports in the undermentioned Years.

Years.	British Vessels.	Tons.	Foreign Vessels.	Tons.	Years.	British Vessels.	Tons.	Foreign Vessels.	Tons.
1811	125	17,645	311	65,753	1839	221	39,533	253	21,486
1817	209	29,646	47	5,712	1840	224	41,818	261	28,730
1832	223	43,216	170	17,156	1841	337	31,546	598	69,822
1833	214	25,365	164	17,637	1842	269	44,541	291	23,634
1838	403	42,009	204	17,781					

Gross Amount of Customs' Dues collected at Leith during the following Years.

Years.	£	s.	d.	Years.	£	s.	d.
1836	814,074	3	3	1843	804,099	0	1
1837	815,424	10	2	1844	814,098	14	2
1838	811,971	8	3	1845	800,666	1	4
1839	873,663	13	7				

There belonged to Leith, in 1842, 140 vessels of 50 tons and upwards, and 105 of less than 50 tons, the aggregate burden of the former being 21,830, and of the latter 8,123 tons, exclusive of 6 large and 7 small steamers. The entries coastwise (exclusive of steamers) in the same year were 2,747 ships of the burden of 147,516 tons.

The Dock Rates at Leith are as follow:—

For every ship or vessel, from any port between the Atlantic and Biscaya, including the great canal and the river Clyde, as far down as Lirkewick, coming by the canal.		10 tons.	For all foreign vessels from any of the before-mentioned ports or places, the aforesaid respective rates and one half more.		10 tons.
— from any other port in Great Britain and Ireland	0	4	For all loaded vessels not breaking bulk, and for all vessels in ballast which do not take in goods, coming into the present harbour, provided they do not make use of any of the docks, nor remain in the harbour above 4 weeks, one half of the aforesaid rates or duties.	0	2
— from Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen, Holland, and Flanders, that is, without the Baltic, and no further south than Dunkirk	0	10	For every ship or vessel going from the port of Leith to any other port in the Firth of Forth, to take in a part of a cargo, and return to Leith, upon her return	0	2
— from the Baltic, all above the Sound, Onega, Archangel, Jersey or Guernsey, Portugal, France, and Spain, without the Straits of Gibraltar, Newfoundland, Malacca, or Western Islands	1	12	No ship or vessel shall be subjected in payment of the aforesaid rates and duties for more than 6 voyages in any 1 year.		
— from within the Straits of Gibraltar, or from America	1	4	<i>Rate of Light Dues.</i> — Every vessel, of whatever burden, from foreign ports	0	3
— from the West Indies, Asia, Africa, or the Cape de Verd Islands	1	3	Every vessel of 40 tons burden and upwards, to pay for each loading voyage	0	3
— from Greenland, or Davis's Straits	3	0	Bacon and anchorage, per ton	0	11
For all ships and vessels (excepting those from Greenland or Davis's Straits) remaining in the dock above 3 calendar months, for each after-month, or any part thereof	0	2	This duty is only charged upon four fifths of the register tonnage.		

DOG (*Fr. Chien*; *Ger. Hund*; *It. Canè*; *Lat. Canis familiaris*). Of this quadruped, emphatically styled "the friend and companion of man," there is a vast variety of species. But to attempt to give any description of an animal so well known, would be quite out of place in a work of this kind; and we mention it for the purpose principally of laying the following account before our readers, with a remark or two with respect to Asiatic dogs.

An Account of the Number of Dogs entered, and for which duty was paid in Great Britain, in the Year 1841; distinguishing the Number of Packs of Hounds, and the Number of each Description of Dog, the Rate of Duty on each, and the aggregate Amount paid.

Description of Dogs.	Rates of Duty.			Total Number.	Amount of Duty.		
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Greyhounds	1	0	0	13,303	13,303	0	0
Pointers, hounds, setting dogs, spaniels, terriers, lurchers, or any other dogs, whose persons keep two or more dogs	0	14	0	108,470	75,999	0	0
Other dogs: per 3000 keeping one only	0	8	0	183,180	74,073	0	0
Total, exclusive of packs of hounds				306,953	163,304	0	0
Packs of hounds	36	0	0	49	5,904	0	0

Cuvier, the great French naturalist, says, "The dog is the most complete, the most remarkable, and the most useful conquest ever made by man: every species has become our property; each individual is altogether devoted to his master, assumes his manners, knows and defends his goods, and remains attached to him until death; and all this proceeds neither from want nor constraint, but solely from true gratitude and real friendship. The swiftness, the strength, and the scent of the dog have created for man a powerful ally against other animals, and were, perhaps, necessary to the establishment of society. He is the only animal which has followed man through every region of the earth."

It is singular, however, that neither Cuvier, nor any one of those by whom his statements have been copied, should have mentioned that this account is applicable only to Europe. All Mohammedan nations regard the dog as impure, and will not touch it without an ablution. The same is also the case with the Hindoos. From the Hellespont to the confines of Cochin-China, dogs are unappropriated, and have no master. They prowl about the towns and villages; and though they are naturally more familiar, they are in no respect more domesticated, than the carrion crows, kites, vultures, &c. which assist them in performing the functions of scavengers. In China and Cochin-China, the dog is eaten as food; its flesh being, with the exception of that of the hog, the most common in their markets.

The unnecessary multiplication of dogs, particularly in large cities, is a very great nuisance: coming, as they often do, into the possession of those who are without the means of providing for them, they are frequently left to wander about in the streets; and from ill usage, want of food and of proper attention, are apt, during hot weather, to become rabid. In several districts of the metropolis the nuisance has attained to a formidable height; and it is singular, considering the numerous fatal occurrences that

have taken place, that no efforts should have been made to have it abated. It has grown to its present excess, partly from too many exemptions being granted from the duty, and partly from a want of care in its collection; but besides lessening the number of the former, and more rigidly enforcing the latter, it would be proper to enact that all dogs found wandering in the streets without masters should be destroyed.

DOWN (Ger. *Dunen*, *Flaumfedern*; Du. *Dons*; Fr. *Duoet*; It. *Pinna matta*, *Pinnaini*; Sp. *Flojel*, *Flumazo*; Rus. *Push*; Lat. *Pinna*), the fine feathers from the breasts of several birds, particularly those of the duck kind. That of the elder duck is the most valuable. These birds pluck it from their breasts and line their nests with it. Mr. Pennant says that it is so very elastic, that a quantity of it weighing only $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ounce, more than fills the crown of the largest hat. That found in the nest is most valued, and termed *hee down*; it is much more elastic than that plucked from the dead bird, which is comparatively little esteemed. The elder duck is found on the western islands of Scotland, but the down is principally imported from Norway and Iceland.

DRAGON'S BLOOD. See **BALSAM.**

DRAWBACK, a term used in commerce to signify the remitting or paying back of the duties previously paid on a commodity on its being exported.

A drawback is a device resorted to for enabling a commodity affected by taxes to be exported and sold in the foreign market on the same terms as if it had not been taxed at all. It differs in this from a bounty, — that the latter enables a commodity to be sold abroad for less than its natural cost, whereas a drawback enables it to be sold exactly at its natural cost. Drawbacks, as Dr. Smith has observed, "do not occasion the exportation of a greater quantity of goods than would have been exported had no duty been imposed. They do not tend to turn towards any particular employment a greater share of the capital of the country than would go to that employment of its own accord, but only to hinder the duty from driving away any part of that share to other employments. They tend not to overturn that balance which naturally establishes itself among all the various employments of the society; but to hinder it from being overturned by the duty. They tend not to destroy, but to preserve, what it is in most cases advantageous to preserve — the natural division and distribution of labour in the society." — (p. 221.)

Were it not for the system of drawbacks, it would be impossible, unless when a country enjoyed some very peculiar facilities of production, to export any commodity that was more heavily taxed at home than abroad. But the drawback obviates this difficulty, and enables merchants to export commodities loaded at home with heavy duties, and to sell them in the foreign market on the same terms as those fetched from countries where they are not taxed.

Most foreign articles imported into this country may be warehoused for subsequent exportation. In this case they pay no duties on being imported; and, of course, get no drawback on their subsequent exportation.

Sometimes a drawback exceeds the duty or duties laid on the article; and in such cases the excess forms a real bounty of that amount, and should be so considered.

It is enacted by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52, that no drawback or bounty shall be allowed upon the exportation from the U. Kingdom of any goods, unless such goods shall have been entered in the name of the person who was the real owner thereof at the time of entry and shipping, or of the person who had actually purchased and shipped the same, in his own name and at his own liability and risk, on commission, according to the practice of merchants, and who was and shall have continued to be entitled in his own right to such drawback or bounty, except in the cases herein-after provided for. — § 80.

No drawback shall be allowed upon the exportation of any goods, unless such goods be shipped within 3 years after the payment of the duties inwards thereon. And no drawback or bounty upon the exportation of any goods, shall be paid after the expiration of 3 years from the shipment of such goods; and no drawback shall be allowed upon any goods which, by reason of damage or decay, shall have become of less value for home use than the amount of such drawback; and all goods so damaged which shall be cleared for drawback shall be forfeited; and the person who caused such goods to be so cleared shall forfeit 200%, or treble the amount of the drawback, at the option of the commissioners of customs. — § 80.

No drawback or bounty shall be allowed upon goods exported and cleared as being press-packed, unless the quantities and qualities of the same be verified by oath of the master packer thereof, or, in case of his unavoidable absence, by oath of his foreman. — § 80.

No goods cleared for drawback or bounty, or from any warehouse, shall be carried to be put on board ship for exportation, except by a person authorized for that purpose by license of the commissioners of customs. — § 84. — (See **IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.**)

DUBBER, a leathern vessel, bottle, or jar, used in India to hold oil, ghee, &c. Barrels, as already observed — (see **BARRELS**), — are entirely a European invention. Liquids, in Eastern countries, are for the most part packed for exportation in leathern vessels. Dubbers are made of thin untanned goat skins; and are of all sizes, from a quart up to nearly a barrel.

DUNNAGE, in commercial navigation, loose wood, consisting of pieces of timber, boughs of trees, faggots, &c., laid in the bottom and against the sides of the ship's hold, either, 1st, by raising the cargo when she is loaded with heavy goods, to prevent her from becoming too stiff — (see **BALLAST**); or, 2d, to prevent the cargo, should it be

susceptible of damage by water, from being injured in the event of her becoming leaky. A ship is not reckoned seaworthy unless she be provided with proper and sufficient dunnage.—(*Falconer's Marine Dictionary; Abbott (Lord Tenterden) on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.)

E.

EARNEST, in commercial law, is the sum advanced by the buyer of goods in order to bind the seller to the terms of the agreement. It is enacted by the 17th section of the famous Statute of Frauds, 29 Cha. II. c. 3., that "no contract for the sale of any goods, wares, and merchandises, for the prices of 10*l.* sterling or upwards, shall be allowed to be good, except the buyer shall accept part of the goods so sold, and actually receive the same, or give something in earnest to bind the bargain, or in part payment, or that some note or memorandum in writing of the said bargain be made and signed by the parties to be charged by such contract, or their agents thereunto lawfully authorised."

As to what amounts to sufficient earnest, Blackstone lays it down, that "if any part of the price is paid down, if it is but a penny, or any portion of the goods is delivered by way of earnest, it is binding." To constitute earnest, the thing must be given as a token of ratification of the contract, and it should be expressly stated so by the giver.—(*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. p. 289.)

EARTHENWARE (Ger. *Irdene Waaren*; Du. *Aardgoed*; Fr. *Faïence de terre Poterie*; It. *Stoviglia, Terraglia*; Sp. *Loza de barro*; Rus. *Gorschetchnis possodli*, Pol. *Gliniana naczynta*), or crockery, as it is sometimes termed, comprises every sort of household utensil made of clay hardened in the fire. Its manufacture is, in England, of very considerable importance; and the improvements that have been made in it since the middle of last century have contributed powerfully to its extension, and have added greatly to the comfort and convenience of all classes.

"There is scarcely," it has been well observed, "any manufacture which is so interesting to contemplate in its gradual improvement and extension as that of earthenware, presenting, as it does, so beautiful a union of science and art, in furnishing us with the comforts and ornaments of civilised life. Chemistry administers her part, by investigating the several species of earths, and ascertaining as well their most appropriate combinations as the respective degrees of heat which the several compositions require. Art has studied the designs of antiquity, and produced from them vessels even more exquisite in form than the models by which they have been suggested. The ware has been provided in such gradations of quality as to suit every station from the highest to the lowest. It is to be seen in every country, and almost in every house, through the whole extent of America, in many parts of Asia, and in most of the countries of Europe. At home it has superseded the less cleanly vessels of pewter and of wood, and, by its cheapness, has been brought within the means of our poorest housekeepers. Formed from substances originally of no value, the fabrication has induced labour of such various classes, and created skill of such various degrees, that nearly the whole value of the annual produce may be considered as an addition made to the mass of national wealth. The abundance of the ware exhibited in every dwelling-house is sufficient evidence of the vast augmentation of the manufacture, which is also demonstrated by the rapid increase of the population in the districts where the potteries have been established."—(*Quarterly Review*.)

For the great and rapid extension of the manufacture we are chiefly indebted to the late Mr. Josiah Wedgwood, whose original and inventive genius enabled him to make many most important discoveries in the art; and who was equally successful in bringing his inventions into use. The principal seat of the manufacture is in Staffordshire, where there is a district denominated the Potteries, comprising a number of villages, and a population which is supposed to amount, at this moment, to above 80,000, by far the greater proportion of which is engaged in the manufacture. There are no authentic accounts of the population of this district in 1760, when Mr. Wedgwood began his discoveries; but the general opinion is, that it did not at that time exceed 20,000. The village of Etruria, in the Potteries, was built by Mr. Wedgwood. The manufacture has been carried on at Burslem, in the same district, for several centuries.

The canals by which Staffordshire is intersected have done much to accelerate the progress of the manufacture. Pipe-clay from Dorsetshire and Devonshire, and flints from Kent, are conveyed by water carriage to the places where the clay and coal abound; and the finished goods are conveyed by the same means to the great shipping ports, whence they are distributed over most parts of the globe.

It is estimated that the value of the various sorts of earthenware produced at the Potteries may amount to about 1,700,000*l.* a year; and that the earthenware produced at Worcester, Derby, and other parts of the country, may amount to about 750,000*l.*

EAST INDIA COMPANY.

more; making the whole value of the manufacture 2,450,000*l.* a year. The consumption of gold at the Potteries is about 700*l.* a week, and of coal about 9,000 tons a week.

The earthenware manufacture has increased considerably since 1814, but it is not possible to state the exact ratio. The prices of the different sorts of earthenware are said to have fallen 25 per cent. during the last 20 years. Wages have not fallen in the same proportion; but we are assured that a workman can, at the present day, produce about four times the quantity he did in 1790.

We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities and Declared Values of the Earthenware exported from the United Kingdom during each of the Five Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries to which it was shipped, and the Quantity and Value of that shipped for each.

Countries.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantities.	Decl. Value.								
Russia	Pieces. 524,722	£ 4,155	Pieces. 189,391	£ 3,745	Pieces. 210,091	£ 4,860	Pieces. 185,915	£ 4,052	Pieces. 213,754	£ 5,816
Denmark	532,744	15,941	837,174	11,165	1,796,218	14,421	1,446,271	14,125	1,367,274	15,807
Germany	2,008,094	91,314	1,914,991	19,127	2,498,438	22,553	1,705,531	25,677	2,104,471	25,668
Holland	4,921,292	27,013	2,536,950	27,271	3,129,028	25,230	2,501,535	28,905	3,101,144	24,610
Spain and Balearic Islands	439,054	3,643	596,199	4,269	3,523	2,381	1,927,597	8,962	774,980	5,192
Italy and Italian Islands	1,279,363	16,637	591,610	15,271	3,865	13,074	291,740	16,659	799,222	15,529
Turkey	503,926	3,409	384,119	6,264	4,922	6,112	622,310	6,180	227,472	4,041
Western coast of Africa	439,769	3,409	367,098	3,522	431,260	2,563	408,384	4,268	346,472	2,029
Cape of Good Hope	422,556	3,439	345,945	10,267	610,190	7,299	310,511	2,646	310,191	4,766
U. I. Company's territory and Ceylon	1,385,705	19,509	1,559,980	25,281	1,736,450	27,211	1,629,255	24,821	1,611,729	29,224
Sumatra, Java, and other Islands in the Indian Seas	454,290	3,412	735,533	9,402	463,537	4,938	1,115,757	8,255	898,220	8,259
British Settlements in Australia	614,050	6,689	1,256,169	13,621	1,885,625	21,190	1,114,280	27,283	1,146,231	19,175
British North American Colonies	2,463,988	37,063	2,446,631	23,773	2,637,506	34,225	3,278,469	44,275	4,076,014	41,629
British West Indies	3,246,823	40,193	2,847,248	27,727	3,631,734	41,799	2,229,641	33,134	2,456,269	29,522
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	2,505,790	26,183	2,431,556	24,243	1,996,226	20,172	2,599,722	27,656	2,228,623	20,225
United States of America	12,725,523	212,632	11,718,930	213,729	35,029,428	400,164	15,341,502	179,333	18,020,020	225,479
Brazil	4,965,046	43,217	4,573,137	35,473	4,028,288	35,010	5,199,760	40,025	5,268,224	38,163
Isles of Jersey, Alderney, and Man, — (Foreign goods)	544,028	4,028	439,027	4,226	384,273	4,023	509,020	3,662	348,620	4,122
All other countries	4,366,663	69,813	5,296,246	69,840	6,628,203	76,345	6,511,024	73,127	6,023,274	82,217
Total	43,366,457	563,238	51,405,064	631,314	67,126,814	771,173	50,353,949	573,184	55,150,903	607,759

The above account sets the preponderance of the U. States as a market for earthenware in a very striking point of view. We have been assured that it is necessary to add to the declared value of the exports, to get their true value.

EAST INDIA COMPANY, a famous association, originally established for prosecuting the trade between England and India, which they acquired a right to carry on exclusively. Since the middle of last century, however, the Company's political have become of more importance than their commercial concerns.

EAST INDIES, a popular geographical term not very well defined, but generally understood to signify the continents and islands to the east and south of the river Indus, as far as the borders of China, including Timor and the Moluccas, but excluding the Philippine Islands, New Guinea, and New Holland. China and the Philippine Islands were, however, included within the limits of the East India Company's peculiar privileges.

- I. EAST INDIA COMPANY (HISTORICAL SKETCH OF).
- II. EAST INDIA COMPANY (CONSTITUTION OF).
- III. EAST INDIES (STATE OF SOCIETY IN, GROWING DEMAND FOR ENGLISH GOODS, TRADE, COLONISATION, ETC.).
- IV. EAST INDIES (EXTENT, POPULATION, MILITARY FORCE, REVENUE, ETC. OF BRITISH).

I. EAST INDIA COMPANY (HISTORICAL SKETCH OF).

The persevering efforts of the Portuguese to discover a route to India, by sailing round Africa, were crowned with success in 1497. And it may appear singular, that notwithstanding the exaggerated accounts that had been prevalent in Europe, from the remotest antiquity, with respect to the wealth of India, and the importance to which the commerce with it had raised the Phœnicians and Egyptians in antiquity, the Venetians in the middle ages, and which it was then seen to confer on the Portuguese, the latter should have been allowed to monopolise it for nearly a century after it had been turned into a channel accessible to every nation. But the prejudices by which the people of most European states were actuated in the sixteenth century, and the peculiar circumstances under which they were placed, hindered them from embarking with that alacrity and ardour that might have been expected in this new commercial career.

Soon after the Portuguese began to prosecute their discoveries along the coast of Africa, they applied to the pope for a bull, securing to them the exclusive right to and possession of all countries occupied by infidels, they either had discovered, or might discover, to the south of Cape Non, on the west coast of Africa, in 27° 54' north latitude: and the pontiff, desirous to display, and at the same time to extend, his power, immediately issued a bull to this effect. Nor, preposterous as a proceeding of this sort would now appear, did any one then doubt that the pope had a right to issue such a bull, and that all states and empires were bound to obey it. In consequence, the Portuguese were, for a lengthened period, allowed to prosecute their conquests in India without the interference of any other European power. And it was not till a considerable period after the beginning of the war, which the blind and brutal bigotry of Philip II. kindled in the Low Countries, that the Dutch navigators began to display their flag on the Eastern Ocean, and laid the foundations of their Indian empire.

The desire to comply with the injunctions in the pope's bull, and to avoid coming into collision, first with the Portuguese, and subsequently with the Spaniards, who had conquered Portugal in 1580, seems to have been the principal cause that led the English to make repeated attempts, in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and the early part of the reign of Elizabeth, to discover a route to India by a north-west or north-east passage; channels from which the Portuguese would have had no pretence for excluding them. But these attempts having proved unsuccessful, and the pope's bull having ceased to be of any effect in this country, the English merchants and navigators resolved to be no longer deterred by the imaginary rights of the Portuguese from directly entering upon what was then reckoned by far the most lucrative and advantageous branch of commerce. Captain Stephens, who performed the voyage in 1582, was the first Englishman who sailed to India by the Cape of Good Hope. The voyage of the famous Sir Francis Drake contributed greatly to diffuse a spirit of naval enterprise, and to render the English better acquainted with the newly opened route to India. But the voyage of the celebrated Mr. Thomas Cavendish was, in the latter respect, the most important. Cavendish sailed from England in a little squadron, fitted out at his own expense, in July, 1586; and having explored the greater part of the Indian Ocean, as far as the Philippine Islands, and carefully observed the most important and characteristic features of the people and countries which he visited, returned to England, after a prosperous navigation, in September, 1588. Perhaps, however, nothing contributed so much to inspire the English with a desire to embark in the Indian trade, as the captures that were made, about this period, from the Spaniards. A Portuguese East India ship, or carrack, captured by Sir Francis Drake, during his expedition to the coast of Spain, inflamed the cupidity of the merchants by the richness of her cargo, at the same time that the papers found on board gave specific information respecting the traffic in which she had been engaged. A still more important capture, of the same sort, was made in 1593. An armament, fitted out for the East Indies by Sir Walter Raleigh, and commanded by Sir John Borroughs, fell in, near the Azores, with the largest of all the Portuguese carracks, a ship of 1,600 tons burden, carrying 700 men and 36 brass cannon; and, after an obstinate conflict, carried her into Dartmouth. She was the largest vessel that had been seen in England; and her cargo, consisting of gold, spices, calicoes, silks, pearls, drugs, porcelain, ivory, &c., excited the ardour of the English to engage in so opulent a commerce.

In consequence of these and other concurring causes, an association was formed in London, in 1599, for prosecuting the trade to India. The adventurers applied to the queen for a charter of incorporation, and also for power to exclude all other English subjects, who had not obtained a licence from them, from carrying on any species of traffic beyond the Cape of Good Hope or the Straits of Magellan. As such companies were then very generally looked upon as the best instruments for prosecuting most branches of commerce and industry, the adventurers seem to have had little difficulty in obtaining their charter, which was dated the 31st of December, 1600. The corporation was entitled "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies:" the first governor (Thomas Smythe, Esq.) and 24 directors were nominated in the charter; but power was given to the Company to elect a deputy governor, and, in future, to elect their governor and directors, and such other office-bearers as they might think fit to appoint. They were empowered to make by-laws; to inflict punishments, either corporal or pecuniary, provided such punishments were in accordance with the laws of England; to export all sorts of goods free of duty for 4 years; and to export foreign coin, or bullion, to the amount of 30,000*l.* a year, 6,000*l.* of the same being previously coined at the mint; but they were obliged to import, within 6 months after the completion of every voyage, except the first, the same quantity of silver, gold, and foreign coin that they had exported. The duration of the charter was limited to a period of 15 years; but with and under the condition that, if it were not found for the public advantage, it might be cancelled at any time upon 2

years' notice being given. Such was the origin of the British East India Company,—the most celebrated commercial association of ancient or modern times, and which has now extended its sway over the whole of the Mogul empire.

It might have been expected that, after the charter was obtained, considerable eagerness would have been manifested to engage in the trade. But such was not the case. Notwithstanding the earnest calls and threats of the directors, many of the adventurers could not be induced to come forward to pay their proportion of the charges incident to the fitting out of the first expedition. And as the directors seem either to have wanted power to enforce their resolutions, or thought it better not to exercise it, they formed a subordinate association, consisting of such members of the Company as were really willing to defray the cost of the voyage, and to bear all the risks and losses attending it, on condition of their having the exclusive right to whatever profits might arise from it. And it was by such subordinate associations that the trade was conducted during the first 13 years of the Company's existence.

The first expedition to India, the cost of which amounted, ships and cargoes included, to 69,091*l.*, consisted of 5 ships, the largest being 600 and the smaller 130 tons burden. The goods put on board were principally bullion, iron, tin, broad cloths, cutlery, glass, &c. The chief command was intrusted to Captain James Lancaster, who had already been in India. They set sail from Torbay on the 13th of February, 1601. Being very imperfectly acquainted with the seas and countries they were to visit, they did not arrive at their destination, Acheen in Sumatra, till the 5th of June, 1602. But though tedious, the voyage was, on the whole, uncommonly prosperous. Lancaster entered into commercial treaties with the kings of Acheen and Bantam; and having taken on board a valuable cargo of pepper and other produce, he was fortunate enough, in his way home, to fall in with and capture, in concert with a Dutch vessel, a Portuguese carrack of 900 tons burden, richly laden. Lancaster returned to the Downs on the 11th of September, 1603.—(*Modern Universal History*, vol. x. p. 16.; *Macpherson's Commerce of the European Powers with India*, p. 81.)

But notwithstanding the favourable result of this voyage, the expeditions fitted out in the years immediately following, though sometimes consisting of larger ships, were not, at an average, materially increased. In 1612, Captain Best obtained from the court at Delhi several considerable privileges; and, amongst others, that of establishing a factory at Surat; which city was, henceforth, looked upon as the principal British station in the west of India, till the acquisition of Bombay.

In establishing factories in India, the English only followed the example of the Portuguese and Dutch. It was contended, that they were necessary to serve as *depôts* for the goods collected in the country for exportation to Europe, as well as for those imported into India, in the event of their not meeting with a ready market on the arrival of the ships. Such establishments, it was admitted, are not required in civilised countries; but the peculiar and unsettled state of India was said to render them indispensable there. Whatever weight may be attached to this statement, it is obvious that factories formed for such purposes could hardly fail of speedily degenerating into a species of forts. The security of the valuable property deposited in them furnished a specious pretext for putting them in a condition to withstand an attack; while the agents, clerks, warehousemen, &c. formed a sort of garrison. Possessing such strong holds, the Europeans were early emboldened to act in a manner quite inconsistent with their character as merchants; and but a very short time elapsed before they began to form schemes for monopolising the commerce of particular districts, and acquiring territorial dominion.

Though the Company met with several heavy losses during the earlier part of their traffic with India, from shipwrecks and other unforeseen accidents, and still more from the hostility of the Dutch, yet, on the whole, the trade was decidedly profitable. There can, however, be little doubt, that their gains, at this early period, have been very much exaggerated. During the first 13 years, they are said to have amounted to 132 per cent. But then it should be borne in mind, as Mr. Grant has justly stated, that the voyages were seldom accomplished in less than 30 months, and sometimes extended to 3 or 4 years: and it should further be remarked, that, on the arrival of the ships at home, the cargoes were disposed of at long credits of 18 months or 2 years; and that it was frequently even 6 or 7 years before the concerns of a single voyage were finally adjusted.—(*Sketch of the History of the Company*, p. 13.) When these circumstances are taken into view, it will immediately be seen that the Company's profits were not, really, by any means so great as has been represented. It may not, however, be uninteresting to remark, that the principal complaint that was then made against the Company did not proceed so much on the circumstance of its charter excluding the public from any share in an advantageous traffic, as in its authorising the Company to export gold and silver of the value of 30,000*l.* a year. It is true that the charter stipulated that the Company should import an equal quantity of gold and silver within 6 months of the termination of every voyage: but the enemies of the Company contended that this condition was not complied

with; and that it was, besides, highly injurious to the public interest, and *contrary to all principle*, to allow gold and silver to be sent out of the kingdom. The merchants and others interested in the support of the Company could not controvert the reasoning of their opponents, without openly impugning the ancient policy of absolutely preventing the exportation of the precious metals. They did not, however, venture to contend, if the idea really occurred to them, that the exportation of bullion to the East was advantageous, on the broad ground of the commodities purchased by it being of greater value in England. But they contended that the exportation of bullion to India was advantageous, because the commodities thence imported were chiefly re-exported to other countries from which a much greater quantity of bullion was obtained than had been required to pay for them in India. Mr. Thomas Mun, a director of the East India Company, and the ablest of its early advocates, ingeniously compares the operations of the merchant in conducting a trade carried on by the exportation of gold and silver to the seed time and harvest of agriculture. "If we only behold," says he, "the actions of the husbandman in the seed time, when he casteth away much good corn into the ground, we shall account him rather a madman than a husbandman. But when we consider his labours in the harvest, which is the end of his endeavours, we find the worth and plentiful increase of his actions." — (*Treasure by Foreign Trade*, p. 50. ed. 1664.)

We may here remark, that what has been called the *mercantile system* of political economy, or that system which measures the progress of a country in the career of wealth by the supposed balance of payments in its favour, or by the estimated excess of the value of its exports over that of its imports, appears to have originated in the excuses now set up for the exportation of bullion. Previously to this epoch, the policy of prohibiting the exportation of bullion had been universally admitted; but it now began to be pretty generally allowed, that its exportation might be productive of advantage, provided it occasioned the subsequent exportation of a greater amount of raw or manufactured products to countries whence bullion was obtained for them. This, when compared with the previously existing prejudice — for it hardly deserves the name of system — which wholly interdicted the exportation of gold and silver, must be allowed to be a considerable step in the progress to sounder opinions. The maxim, *ce n'est que le premier pas qui coûte*, was strikingly verified on this occasion. The advocates of the East India Company began gradually to assume a higher tone, and, at length, boldly contended that bullion was nothing but a commodity, and that its exportation should be rendered as free as that of any thing else. Nor were these opinions confined to the partners of the East India Company. They were gradually communicated to others; and many eminent merchants were taught to look with suspicion on several of the previously received dogmas with respect to commerce, and were, in consequence, led to acquire more correct and comprehensive views. The new ideas ultimately made their way into the House of Commons; and, in 1663, the statutes prohibiting the exportation of foreign coin and bullion were repealed, and full liberty given to the East India Company and to private traders to export them in unlimited quantities.

But the objection to the East India Company, or rather the East India trade, on the ground of its causing the exportation of gold and silver, admitted of a more direct and conclusive, if not a more ingenious reply. How compendious soever the ancient intercourse with India by the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, it was unavoidably attended with a good deal of expense. The productions of the remote parts of Asia, brought to Ceylon, or the ports on the Malabar coast, by the natives, were there put on board the ships which arrived from the Arabic gulph. At Berenice they were landed, and carried by camels 250 miles to the banks of the Nile. They were there again embarked, and conveyed down the river to Alexandria, whence they were despatched to different markets. The addition to the price of goods by such a multiplicity of operations must have been considerable; more especially as the price charged on each operation was fixed by monopolists, subject to no competition or control. Pliny says, that the cost of the Arabian and Indian products brought to Rome when he flourished (A. D. 70), was increased a hundred fold by the expenses of transit — (*Hist. Nat. lib. vi. c. 23.*); but there can be little or no doubt that this is to be regarded as a rhetorical exaggeration. — (See *ontè*, p. 18.) There are good grounds for thinking that the less bulky sorts of Eastern products, such as silk, spices, balsams, precious stones, &c., which were those principally made use of at Rome, might, supposing there were no political obstacles in the way, be conveyed from most parts of India to the ports on the Mediterranean by way of Egypt, at a decidedly cheaper rate than they could be conveyed to them by the Cape of Good Hope.

But at the period when the latter route to India began to be frequented, Syria, Egypt, &c. were occupied by Turks and Mamelukes; barbarians who despised commerce and navigation, and were, at the same time, extremely jealous of strangers, especially of Christians or infidels. The price of the commodities obtained through the intervention of such persons was necessarily very much enhanced; and the discovery of

the route by the Cape of Good Hope was, consequently, of the utmost importance; for, by putting an end to the monopoly enjoyed by the Turks and Mamelukes, it introduced, for the first time, something like competition into the Indian trade, and enabled the western parts of Europe to obtain supplies of Indian products for about a third part of what they had previously cost. Mr. Mun, in a tract published in 1621, estimates the quantity of Indian commodities imported into Europe, and their cost when bought in Aleppo and in India, as follows:—

Cost of Indian commodities consumed in Europe when bought in Aleppo (or Alexandria).			
	£	s.	d.
6,000,000 lbs. pepper cost, with charges, &c. at Aleppo 2s. per lb.	-	-	- 600,000 0 0
450,000 lbs. cloves, at 4s. 9d.	-	-	- 16,875 10 0
180,000 lbs. mace, at 4s. 9d.	-	-	- 35,625 0 0
400,000 lbs. nutmegs, at 2s. 4d.	-	-	- 46,666 2 4
300,000 lbs. indigo, at 4s. 4d.	-	-	- 75,833 6 8
1,000,000 lbs. Persian raw silk, at 12s.	-	-	- 600,000 0 0
			£1,465,000 19 0

But the same quantities of the same commodities cost, when bought in the East Indies, according to Mr. Mun, as follows:—			
	£	s.	d.
6,000,000 lbs. pepper, at 2½d. per lb.	-	-	- 62,500 0 0
450,000 lbs. cloves, at 9d.	-	-	- 16,875 0 0
180,000 lbs. mace, at 8d.	-	-	- 5,000 0 0
400,000 lbs. nutmegs, at 4d.	-	-	- 6,666 13 4
350,000 lbs. indigo, at 1s. 2d.	-	-	- 20,416 12 4
1,000,000 lbs. raw silk, at 8s.	-	-	- 400,000 0 0
			£211,458 5 8

Which being deducted from the former, leaves a balance of 953,542l. 13s. 4d. And supposing that the statements made by Mr. Mun are correct, and that allowance is made for the difference between the freight from Aleppo and India, the result would indicate the saving which the discovery of the route by the Cape of Good Hope occasioned in the purchase of the above-mentioned articles. — (*A Discourse of Trade from England to the East Indies*, by T. M., original ed. p. 10. This tract, which is very scarce, is reprinted in Purchas's Pilgrims.)

In the same publication (p. 37.), Mr. Mun informs us that, from the beginning of the Company's trade to July, 1620, they had sent 79 ships to India; of which 34 had come home safely and richly laden, 4 had been worn out by long service in India, 2 had been lost in careening, 6 had been lost by the perils of the sea, and 12 had been captured by the Dutch. Mr. Mun further states, that the exports to India, since the formation of the Company, had amounted to 840,376l.; that the produce brought from India had cost 356,288l., and had produced here the enormous sum of 1,914,600l.; that the quarrels with the Dutch had occasioned a loss of 84,088l.; and that the stock of the Company, in ships, goods in India, &c., amounted to 400,000l.

The hostility of the Dutch, to which Mr. Mun has here alluded, was long a very formidable obstacle to the Company's success. The Dutch early endeavoured to obtain the exclusive possession of the spice trade, and were not at all scrupulous about the means by which they attempted to bring about this their favourite object. The English, on their part, naturally exerted themselves to obtain a share of so valuable a commerce; and as neither party was disposed to abandon its views and pretensions, the most violent animosities grew up between them. In this state of things, it would be ridiculous to suppose that unjustifiable acts were not committed by the one party as well as the other; though the worst act of the English appears venial, when compared with the conduct of the Dutch in the massacre at Amboyna, in 1622. While, however, the Dutch Company was vigorously supported by the government at home, the English Company met with no efficient assistance from the feeble and vacillating policy of James and Charles. The Dutch either despised their remonstrances, or defeated them by an apparent compliance; so that no real reparation was obtained for the outrages they had committed. During the civil war, Indian affairs were necessarily lost sight of: and the Dutch continued, until the ascendancy of the republican party had been established, to reign triumphant in the East, where the English commerce was nearly annihilated.

But notwithstanding their depressed condition, the Company's servants in India laid the foundation, during the period in question, of the settlements at Madras and in Bengal. Permission to build Fort St. George was obtained from the native authorities in 1640. In 1658, Madras was raised to the station of a presidency. In 1645, the Company began to establish factories in Bengal; the principal of which was at Hooghly. These were, for a lengthened period, subordinate to the presidency at Madras.

No sooner, however, had the civil wars terminated, than the arms and councils of Cromwell retrieved the situation of our affairs in India. The war which broke out between the long parliament and the Dutch, in 1652, was eminently injurious to the latter. In the treaty of peace, concluded in 1654, it was stipulated that indemnification

should be made by the Dutch for the losses and injuries sustained by the English merchants and factors in India. The 27th article bears, "that the Lords, the states-general of the United Provinces, shall take care that justice be done upon those who were partakers or accomplices in the massacre of the English at Amboyna, as the republic of England is pleased to term that fact, provided any of them be living." A commission was at the same time appointed, conformably to another article of the treaty, to inquire into the reciprocal claims which the subjects of the contracting parties had upon each other for losses sustained in India, Brazil, &c.; and, upon their decision, the Dutch paid the sum of 85,000*l.* to the East India Company, and 3,615*l.* to the heirs or executors of the sufferers at Amboyna. — (*Bruce's Annals*, vol. i. p. 489.)

The charter under which the East India Company prosecuted their exclusive trade to India, being merely a grant from the Crown, and not ratified by any act of parliament, was understood by the merchants to be at an end when Charles I. was deposed. They were confirmed in this view of the matter, from the circumstance of Charles having himself granted, in 1635, a charter to Sir William Courten and others, authorising them to trade with those parts of India with which the Company had not established any regular intercourse. The reasons alleged in justification of this measure, by the Crown, were, that "the East India Company had neglected to establish fortified factories, or seats of trade, to which the king's subjects could resort with safety; that they had consulted their own interests only, without any regard to the king's revenue; and in general, that they had broken the condition on which their charter and exclusive privileges had been granted to them." — (*Rym. Fœdera*, vol. xx. p. 146.)

Courten's association, for the foundation of which such satisfactory reasons had been assigned, continued to trade with India during the remainder of Charles's reign; and no sooner had the arms of the Commonwealth forced the Dutch to desist from their depredations, and to make reparation for the injuries they had inflicted on the English in India, than private adventurers engaged in great numbers in the Indian trade, and carried it on with a zeal, economy, and success, that monopoly can never expect to rival. It is stated in a little work, entitled *Britannia Languens*, published in 1680, the author of which has evidently been a well-informed and intelligent person, that during the years 1653, 1654, 1655, and 1656, when the trade to India was open, the private traders imported East India commodities in such large quantities, and sold them at such reduced prices, that they not only fully supplied the British markets, but had even come into successful competition with the Dutch in the market of Amsterdam, "and very much sunk the actions (shares) of the Dutch East India Company." — (p. 132.) This circumstance naturally excited the greatest apprehensions on the part of the Dutch Company; for, besides the danger that they now ran of being deprived, by the active competition of the English merchants, of a considerable part of the trade which they had previously enjoyed, they could hardly expect that, if the trade were thrown open in England, the monopoly would be allowed to continue in Holland. A striking proof of what is now stated is to be found in a letter in the third volume of *Thurlow's State Papers*, dated at the Hague, the 15th of January, 1654, where it is said, that "the merchants of Amsterdam have advice that the Lord Protector intends to dissolve the East India Company at London, and to declare the navigation and commerce of the East Indies free and open: which doth cause great jealousy at Amsterdam, as a thing that will very much prejudice the East India Company in Holland."

Feeling that it was impossible to contend with the private adventurers under a system of fair competition, the moment the treaty with the Dutch had been concluded, the Company began to solicit a renewal of their charter; but in this they were not only opposed by the free traders, but by a part of themselves. To understand how this happened, it may be proper to mention that Courten's association, the origin of which has been already noticed, had begun, in 1648, to found a colony in Assuda, an island near Madagascar. The Company, alarmed at this project, applied to the council of state to prevent its being carried into effect; and the council, without entering on the question of either party's rights, recommended them to form a union; which was accordingly effected in 1649. But the union was, for a considerable time, rather nominal than real; and when the Dutch war had been put an end to, most of those holders of the Company's stock who had belonged to Courten's association joined in petitioning the council of state that the trade might in future be carried on, not by a joint stock, but by a regulated company; so that each individual engaging in it might be allowed to employ his own stock, servants, and shipping, in whatever way he might conceive most for his own advantage. — (*Petition of Adventurers*, 17th of Nov. 1656; *Bruce's Annals*, vol. i. p. 518.)

This proposal was obviously most reasonable. The Company had always founded their claim to a monopoly of the trade on the alleged ground of its being necessary to maintain forts, factories, and ships of war in India; and that as this was not done by government, it could only be done by a Company. But, by forming the traders with India into a regulated company, they might have been subjected to whatever rules were

considered most advisable; and such special duties might have been laid on the commodities they exported and imported, as would have sufficed to defray the public expenses required for carrying on the trade, at the same time that the inestimable advantages of free competition would have been secured; each individual trader being left at liberty to conduct his enterprises, subject only to a few general regulations, in his own way and for his own advantage. — (See COMPANIES.)

But notwithstanding the efforts of the petitioners, and the success that was clearly proved to have attended the operations of the private traders, the Company succeeded in obtaining a renewal of their charter from Cromwell in 1657. Charles II. confirmed this charter in 1661; and at the same time conferred on them the power of making peace or war with any power or people *not of the Christian religion*; of establishing fortifications, garrisons, and colonies; of exporting ammunition and stores to their settlements duty free; of seizing and sending to England such British subjects as should be found trading to India without their leave; and of exercising civil and criminal jurisdiction in their settlements, according to the laws of England. Still, however, as this charter was not fully confirmed by any act of parliament, it did not prevent traders, or interlopers as they were termed, from appearing within the limits of the Company's territories. The energy of private commerce, which, to use the words of Mr. Orme, "sees its drift with eagles' eyes," formed associations at the risk of trying the consequence at law, being safe at the outset, and during the voyage, since the Company were not authorised to stop or seize the ships of those who thus attempted to come into competition with them. Hence their monopoly was by no means complete; and it was not till after the Revolution, and when a free system of government had been established at home, that, by a singular contradiction, the authority of parliament was interposed to enable the Company wholly to engross the trade with the East.

In addition to the losses arising from this source, the Company's trade suffered severely, during the reign of Charles II., from the hostilities that were then waged with the Dutch, and from the confusion and disorders caused by contests among the native princes; but in 1668 the Company obtained a very valuable acquisition in the island of Bombay. Charles II. acquired this island as a part of the marriage portion of his wife, Catharine of Portugal; and it was now made over to the Company, on condition of their not selling or alienating it to any persons whatever, except such as were subjects of the British crown. They were allowed to legislate for their new possession; but it was enjoined that their laws should be consonant to reason, and "as near as might be" agreeable to the practice of England. They were authorised to maintain their dominion by force of arms; and the natives of Bombay were declared to have the same liberties as natural-born subjects. The Company's western presidency was soon after transferred from Surat to Bombay.

In 1664, the French East India Company was formed; and 10 years afterwards they laid the foundation of their settlement at Pondicherry.

But the reign of Charles II. is chiefly memorable in the Company's annals, from its being the æra of the commencement of the tea trade. The first notice of tea in the Company's records is found in a despatch, addressed to their agent at Bantam, dated 24th of January, 1667-8, in which he is desired to send home 100 lbs. of tea, "the best he can get." — (*Bruce's Annals*, vol. ii. p. 210.) Such was the late and feeble beginning of the tea trade; a branch of commerce that has long been of vast importance to the British nation; and without which, it is more than probable that the East India Company would long since have ceased to exist, at least as a mercantile body.

In 1677, the Company obtained a fresh renewal of their charter; receiving at the same time an indemnity for all past misuse of their privileges, and authority to establish a mint at Bombay.

During the greater part of the reigns of Charles II. and James II. the Company's affairs at home were principally managed by the celebrated Sir Josiah Child, the ablest commercial writer of the time; and in India, by his brother, Sir John Child. In 1681, Sir Josiah published an apology for the Company, under the signature of ΦΙΛΩΓΑΡΙΣ — "A Treatise wherein is demonstrated that the East India Trade is the most National of all Foreign Trades:" in which, besides endeavouring to vindicate the Company from the objections that had been made against it, he gives an account of its state at the time. From this account it appears that the Company consisted of 556 partners; that they had from 35 to 36 ships, of from 775 to 100 tons, employed in the trade between England and India, and from port to port in India — (p. 23.); that the customs duties upon the trade amounted to about 60,000*l.* a year; and that the value of the exports, "in lead, tin, cloth, and stuffs, and other commodities of the production and manufacture of England," amounted to about 60,000*l.* or 70,000*l.* a year. Sir Josiah seems to have been struck, as he well might, by the inconsiderable amount of the trade; and he therefore dwells on the advantages of which it was indirectly productive, in enabling us to obtain supplies of raw silk, pepper, &c. at a much lower price than they would otherwise have fetched.

But this, though true, proved nothing in favour of the Company; it being an admitted fact, that those articles were furnished at a still lower price by the interlopers or private traders.

Sir Josiah Child was one of the first who projected the formation of a territorial empire in India. But the expedition fitted out in 1686, in the view of accomplishing this purpose, proved unsuccessful; and the Company were glad to accept peace on the terms offered by the Mogul. Sir John Child, having died during the course of these transactions, was succeeded in the principal management of the Company's affairs in India by Mr. Vaux. On the appointment of the latter, Sir Josiah Child, to whom he owed his advancement, exhorted him to act with vigour, and to carry whatever instructions he might receive from home into immediate effect. Mr. Vaux returned for answer, that he should endeavour to acquit himself with integrity and justice, and that he would make the laws of his country the rule of his conduct. Sir Josiah Child's answer to this letter is curious:—"He told Mr. Vaux roundly that he expected his orders were to be his rules, and not the laws of England, which were a heap of nonsense, compiled by a few ignorant country gentlemen, who hardly knew how to make laws for the good government of their own private families, much less for the regulating of companies and foreign commerce."—(*Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 232.)

During the latter part of the reign of Charles II. and that of his successor, the number of private adventurers, or interlopers, in the Indian trade, increased in an unusual degree. The Company vigorously exerted themselves in defence of what they conceived to be their rights; and the question with respect to the validity of the powers conferred on them by their charter was at length brought to issue, by a prosecution carried on at their instance against Mr. Thomas Sandys, for trading to the East Indies without their licence. Judgment was given in favour of the Company in 1685. But this decision was ascribed to corrupt influence; and instead of allaying, only served to increase the clamour against them. The meeting of the Convention Parliament gave the Company's opponents hopes of a successful issue to their efforts; and had they been united, they might probably have succeeded. Their opinions were, however, divided—part being for throwing the trade open, and part for the formation of a new company on a more liberal footing. The latter being formed into a body, and acting in unison, the struggle against the Company was chiefly carried on by them. The proceedings that took place on this occasion are amongst the most disgraceful in the history of the country. The most open and unblushing corruption was practised by all parties.—"*It was, in fact, a trial which side should bribe the highest; public authority inclining to one or other as the irresistible forces of gold directed.*"—(*Modern Universal History*, vol. x. p. 127.) Government appears, on the whole, to have been favourable to the Company; and they obtained a fresh charter from the Crown in 1693. But in the following year the trade was virtually laid open by a vote of the House of Commons, "that all the subjects of England had an equal right to trade to the East Indies, unless prohibited by act of parliament." Matters continued on this footing till 1698. The pecuniary difficulties in which government was then involved, induced them to apply to the Company for a loan of 2,000,000*l.*, for which they offered 8 per cent. interest. The Company offered to advance 700,000*l.* at 4 per cent.; but the credit of government was at the time so low, that they preferred accepting an offer from the associated merchants, who had previously opposed the Company, of the 2,000,000*l.* at 8 per cent., on condition of their being formed into a new and exclusive company. While this project was in agitation, the advocates of free trade were not idle, but exerted themselves to show that, instead of establishing a new Company, the old one ought to be abolished. But, however conclusive, their arguments, having no adventitious recommendations in their favour, failed of making any impression. The new Company was established by authority of the legislature; and as the charter of the old Company was not yet expired, the novel spectacle was exhibited of two legally constituted bodies, each claiming an exclusive right to the trade of the same possessions!

Notwithstanding all the pretensions set up by those who had obtained the new charter during their struggle with the old Company, it was immediately seen that they were as anxious as the latter to suppress every thing like free trade. They had not, it was obvious, been actuated by any enlarged views, but merely by a wish to grasp at the monopoly, which they believed would redound to their own individual interest. The public, in consequence, became equally disgusted with both parties; or, if there were any difference, it is probable that the new Company was looked upon with the greatest aversion, inasmuch as we are naturally more exasperated by what we conceive to be duplicity and bad faith, than by fair undisguised hostility.

At first the mutual hatred of the rival associations knew no bounds. But they were not long in perceiving that such conduct would infallibly end in their ruin; and that while one was labouring to destroy the other, the friends of free trade might step in and

procure the dissolution of both. In consequence, they became gradually reconciled; and in 1702, having adjusted their differences, they resolved to form themselves into one company, entitled *The United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies*.

The authority of parliament was soon after interposed to give effect to this agreement. The United Company engaged to advance 1,200,000*l.* to government without interest, which, as a previous advance had been made of 2,000,000*l.* at 8 per cent., made the total sum due to them by the public 3,200,000*l.*, bearing interest at 5 per cent.; and government agreed to ratify the terms of their agreement, and to extend the charter to the 25th of March, 1726, with 3 years' notice.

While these important matters were transacting at home, the Company had acquired some additional possessions in India. In 1692, the Bengal agency was transferred from Hooghly to Calcutta. In 1698, the Company acquired a grant from one of the grandsons of Aurengzebe, of Calcutta and 2 adjoining villages; with leave to exercise judiciary powers over the inhabitants, and to erect fortifications. These were soon after constructed, and received, in compliment to William III., then king of England, the name of Fort William. The agency at Bengal, which had hitherto been subsidiary only, was now raised to the rank of a presidency.

The vigorous competition that had been carried on for some years before the coalition of the old and new Companies, between them and the private traders, had occasioned a great additional importation of Indian silks, piece goods, and other products, and a great reduction of their price. These circumstances occasioned the most vehement complaints amongst the home manufacturers, who resorted to the arguments invariably made use of on such occasions by those who wish to exclude foreign competition; affirming that manufactured India goods had been largely substituted for those of England; that the English manufacturers had been reduced to the cruel necessity either of selling nothing, or of selling their commodities at such a price as left them no profit; that great numbers of their workmen had been thrown out of employment; and, last of all, that Indian goods were not bought by British goods, but by gold and silver, the exportation of which had caused the general impoverishment of the kingdom! The merchants and others interested in the India trade could not, as had previously happened to them in the controversy with respect to the exportation of bullion, meet these statements without attacking the principles on which they rested, and maintaining, in opposition to them, that it was for the advantage of every people to buy the products they wanted in the cheapest market. This just and sound principle was, in consequence, enforced in several petitions presented to parliament by the importers of Indian goods; and it was also enforced in several able publications that appeared at the time. But these arguments, how unanswerable soever they may now appear, had then but little influence; and in 1701, an act was passed, prohibiting the importation of Indian manufactured goods for home consumption.

For some years after the re-establishment of the Company, it continued to prosecute its efforts to consolidate and extend its commerce. But the unsettled state of the Mogul empire, coupled with the determination of the Company to establish factories in every convenient situation, exposed their affairs to perpetual vicissitudes. In 1715, it was resolved to send an embassy to Delhi, to solicit from Furucksur, an unworthy descendant of Aurengzebe, an extension and confirmation of the Company's territory and privileges. Address, accident, and the proper application of *presents*, conspired to ensure the success of the embassy. The grants or patents solicited by the Company were issued in 1717. They were in all 34. The substance of the privileges they conferred was, that English vessels wrecked on the coasts of the empire should be exempt from plunder; that the annual payment of a stipulated sum to the government of Surat should free the English trade at that port from all duties and exactions; that those villages contiguous to Madras formerly granted and afterwards refused by the government of Arcot, should be restored to the Company; that the island of Diu, near the port of Masulipatam, should belong to the Company, paying for it a fixed rent; that in Bengal, all persons, whether European or native, indebted or accountable to the Company, should be delivered up to the presidency on demand; that goods of export or import, belonging to the English, might, under a *dustuck* or passport from the president of Calcutta, be conveyed duty free through the Bengal provinces; and that the English should be at liberty to purchase the lordship of 37 towns contiguous to Calcutta, and in fact commanding both banks of the river for 10 miles south of that city. — (*Grant's Sketch of the History of the East India Company*, p. 128.)

The important privileges thus granted were long regarded as constituting the great charter of the English in India. Some of them, however, were not fully conceded; but were withheld or modified by the influence of the emperor's lieutenants, or soubahdars.

In 1717, the Company found themselves in danger from a new competitor. In the course of that year some ships appeared in India, fitted out by private adventurers from

Ostend. Their success encouraged others to engage in the same line; and in 1722, the adventurers were formed into a company under a charter from his Imperial Majesty. The Dutch and English Companies, who had so long been hostile to each other, at once laid aside their animosities, and joined heartily in an attempt to crush their new competitors. Remonstrances being found ineffectual, force was resorted to; and the vessels of the Ostend Company were captured, under the most frivolous pretences, in the open seas and on the coasts of Brazil. The British and Dutch governments abetted the selfish spirit of hostility displayed by their respective Companies. And the emperor was, in the end, glad to purchase the support of Great Britain and Holland to the pragmatic sanction, by the sacrifice of the Company at Ostend.

Though the Company's trade had increased, it was still inconsiderable, and it is very difficult, indeed, when one examines the accounts that have from time to time been published of the Company's mercantile affairs, to imagine how the idea ever came to be entertained that their commerce was of any considerable, much less paramount, importance. At an average of the 10 years ending with 1724, the total value of the British manufactures and other products annually exported to India amounted to only 92,410*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* The average value of the bullion annually exported, during the same period, amounted to 518,102*l.* 11*s.* 0*d.*; making the total annual average exports 617,519*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; — a truly pitiful sum, when we consider the wealth, population, and industry of the countries between which the Company's commerce was carried on; and affording, by its smallness, a strong presumptive proof of the effect of the monopoly in preventing the growth of the trade.

In 1790, though there were 3 years still unexpired of the Company's charter, a vigorous effort was made by the merchants of London, Bristol, and Liverpool, to prevent its renewal. It has been said that the gains of the Company, had they been exactly known, would not have excited any very envious feelings on the part of the merchants; but, being concealed, they were exaggerated; and the boasts of the Company as to the importance of their trade contributed to spread the belief that their profits were enormous, and consequently stimulated the exertions of their opponents. Supposing, however, that the real state of the case had been known, there was still enough to justify the utmost exertions on the part of the merchants; for the limited profits made by the Company, notwithstanding their monopoly, were entirely owing to the misconduct of their agents, which they had vainly endeavoured to restrain; and to the waste inseparable from such unwieldy establishments.

The merchants, on this occasion, followed the example that had been set by the petitioners for free trade in 1656. They offered, in the first place, to advance the 3,200,000*l.* lent by the Company to the public, on more favourable terms; and, in the second place, they proposed that the subscribers to this loan should be formed into a regulated company, for opening the trade, under the most favourable circumstances, to all classes of their countrymen.

It was not intended that the Company should trade upon a joint stock, and in their corporate capacity, but that every individual who pleased should trade in the way of private adventure. The Company were to have the charge of erecting and maintaining the forts and establishments abroad; and for this, and for other expenses attending what was called the enlargement and preservation of the trade, it was proposed that they should receive a duty of 1 per cent. upon all exports to India, and of 5 per cent. upon all imports from it. For ensuring obedience to this and other regulations, it was to be enacted, that no one should trade to India without licence from the Company; and it was proposed that 31 years, with 3 years' notice, should be granted as the duration of their peculiar privilege.

"It appears from this," says Mr. Mill, "that the end which was proposed to be answered, by incorporating such a company, was the preservation and erection of the forts, buildings, and other fixed establishments, required for the trade of India. This company promised to supply that demand which has always been held forth as peculiar to the India trade, as the grand exigency which, distinguishing the traffic with India from all other branches of trade, rendered monopoly advantageous in that peculiar case, how much soever it might be injurious in others. While it provided for this real or pretended want, it left the trade open to all the advantages of private enterprise, private vigilance, private skill, and private economy, — the virtues by which individuals thrive and nations prosper. And it gave the proposed company an interest in the careful discharge of its duty by making its profits increase in exact proportion with the increase of the trade, and, of course, with the facilities and accommodation by which the trade was promoted.

"Three petitions were presented to the House of Commons in behalf of the proposed company, by the merchants of London, Bristol, and Liverpool. It was urged that the proposed company would, through the competition of which it would be productive, cause a great extension of the trade; that it would produce a larger exportation

of our own produce and manufactures in India, and reduce the price of all Indian commodities to the people at home; that new channels of traffic would be opened in Asia and America, as well as in Europe; that the duties of customs and excise would be increased; and that the waste and extravagance caused by the monopoly would be entirely avoided."— (*Mill's India*, vol. iii. p. 37.)

But these arguments did not prevail. The Company magnified the importance of their trade; and contended that it would be unwise to risk advantages already realised, for the sake of those that were prospective and contingent. They alleged that, if the trade to India were thrown open, the price of goods in India would be so much enhanced by the competition of different traders, and their price in England so much diminished, that the freedom of the trade would certainly end in the ruin of all who had been foolish enough to adventure in it. To enlarge on the fallacy of these statements would be worse than superfluous. It is obvious that nothing whatever could have been risked, and that a great deal would have been gained, by opening the trade in the way that was proposed. And if it were really true that the trade to India ought to be subjected to a monopoly, lest the traders, by their competition should ruin each other, it would follow that the trade to America—and not that only, but every branch both of the foreign and home trade of the empire—should be surrendered to exclusive companies. But such as the Company's arguments were, they seemed satisfactory to parliament. They, however, consented to reduce the interest on the debt due to them by the public from 5 to 4 per cent., and contributed a sum of 200,000*l.* for the public service. On these conditions it was agreed to extend their exclusive privileges to Lady-day, 1766, with the customary addition of 3 years' notice.

For about 15 years from this period, the Company's affairs went on without any very prominent changes. But notwithstanding the increased importation of tea, the consumption of which now began rapidly to extend, their trade continued to be comparatively insignificant. At an average of the 8 years ending with 1741, the value of the British goods and products of all sorts, exported by the Company to India and China, amounted to only 157,944*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.* a year! And during the 7 years ending with 1748, they amounted to only 188,176*l.* 16*s.* 4*d.* And when it is borne in mind that these exports included the military stores of all sorts forwarded to the Company's settlements in India and at St. Helena, the amount of which was, at all times, very considerable, it does appear exceedingly doubtful whether the Company really exported, during the entire period from 1730 to 1748, 150,000*l.* worth of British produce as a legitimate mercantile adventure! Their trade, such as it was, was entirely carried on by shipments of bullion; and even its annual average export, during the 7 years ending with 1748, only amounted to 548,711*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.* It would seem, indeed, that the Company had derived no perceptible advantage from the important concessions obtained from the Mogul emperor in 1717. But the true conclusion is, not that these concessions were of little value, but that the deadening influence of monopoly had so paralysed the Company, that they were unable to turn them to account; and that, though without competitors, and with opulent kingdoms for their customers, their commerce was hardly greater than that carried on by some single merchants.

In 1732, the Company were obliged to reduce their dividend from 8 to 7 per cent., at which rate it continued till 1744.

The opposition the Company had experienced from the merchants, when the question as to the renewal of their charter was agitated, in 1730, made them very desirous to obtain the next renewal in as quiet a manner as possible. They therefore proposed, in 1743, when 23 years of their charter were yet unexpired, to lend 1,000,000*l.* to government, at 3 per cent., provided their exclusive privileges were extended to 1780, with the usual notice. And, as none were expecting such an application, or prepared to oppose it, the consent of government was obtained without difficulty.

But the period was now come, when the mercantile character of the East India Company—if, indeed, it could with propriety be, at any time, said to belong to them—was to be eclipsed by their achievements as a military power, and the magnitude of their conquests. For about two centuries after the European powers began their intercourse with India, the Mogul princes were regarded as amongst the most opulent and powerful of monarchs. Though of a foreign lineage—being descended from the famous Tamerlane, or Timur Bee, who overran India in 1400—and of a different religion from the great body of their subjects, their dominion was firmly established in every part of their extensive empire. The administration of the different provinces was committed to officers, denominated soubahdars, or nabobs, intrusted with powers, in their respective governments, similar to those enjoyed by the Roman prætors. So long as the emperors retained any considerable portion of the vigour and bravery of their hardy ancestors, the different parts of the government were held in due subordination, and the soubahdars yielded a ready obedience to the orders from Delhi. But the emperors were gradually debauched by the apparently prosperous condition of their affairs.

Instead of being educated in the council or the camp, the heirs of almost unbounded power were brought up in the slothful luxury of the seraglio; ignorant of public affairs; benumbed by indolence; depraved by the flattery of women, of eunuchs, and of slaves; their minds contracted with their enjoyments; their inclinations were vitiated by their habits; and their government grew as vicious, as corrupt, and as worthless as themselves. When the famous Kouli Khan, the usurper of the Persian throne, invaded India, the effeminate successor of Tamerlane and Aurengzebe was too unprepared to oppose, and too dastardly to think of avenging the attack. This was the signal for the dismemberment of the monarchy. No sooner had the invader withdrawn, than the soubahdars either openly threw off their allegiance to the emperor, or paid only a species of nominal or mock deference to his orders. The independence of the soubahdars was very soon followed by wars amongst themselves; and, being well aware of the superiority of European troops and tactics, they anxiously courted the alliance and support of the French and English East India Companies. These bodies, having espoused different sides, according as their interests or prejudices dictated, began very soon to turn the quarrels of the soubahdars to their own account. Instead of being contented, as hitherto, with the possession of factories and trading towns, they aspired to the dominion of provinces; and the struggle soon came to be, not which of the native princes should prevail, but whether the English or the French should become the empires of India.

But these transactions are altogether foreign to the subject of this work; nor could any intelligible account of them be given without entering into lengthened statements. We shall only, therefore, observe that the affairs of the French were ably conducted by La Bourdonnais, Dupleix, and Lally, officers of distinguished merit, and not less celebrated for their great actions than for the base ingratitude of which they were the victims. But though victory seemed at first to incline to the French and their allies, the English affairs were effectually retrieved by the extraordinary talents and address of a single individual. Colonel (afterwards Lord) Clive was equally brave, cautious, and enterprising; not scrupulous in the use of means; fertile in expedients; endowed with wonderful sagacity and resolution; and capable of turning even the most apparently adverse circumstances to advantage. Having succeeded in humbling the French power in the vicinity of Madras, Clive landed at Calcutta in 1757, in order to chastise the soubahdar, Surajah ul Dowlah, who had a short while before attacked the English factory at that place, and inhumanly shut up 146 Englishmen in a prison, where, owing to the excessive heat and want of water, 123 perished in a single night. Clive had only 700 European troops and 1,400 Sepoys with him when he landed; but with these, and 570 sailors furnished by the fleet, he did not hesitate to attack the immense army commanded by the soubahdar, and totally defeated him in the famous battle of Plassey. This victory threw the whole provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa into our hands; and they were finally confirmed to us by the treaty negotiated in 1765.

Opinion has been long divided as to the policy of our military operations in India; and it has been strenuously contended, that we should never have extended our conquests beyond the limits of Bengal. The legislature seems to have taken this view of the matter; the House of Commons having resolved, in 1782, "that to pursue schemes of conquest and extent of dominion in India are measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and the policy of this nation." But others have argued, and apparently on pretty good grounds, that, having gone thus far, we were compelled to advance. The native powers, trembling at the increase of British dominion, endeavoured, when too late, to make head against the growing evil. In this view they entered into combinations and wars against the English; and the latter having been uniformly victorious, their empire necessarily went on increasing, till all the native powers have been swallowed up in its vast extent.

The magnitude of the acquisitions made by Lord Clive powerfully excited the attention of the British public. Their value was prodigiously exaggerated; and it was generally admitted that the Company had no legal claim to enjoy, during the whole period of their charter, all the advantages resulting from conquests, to which the fleets and armies of the state had largely contributed. In 1767, the subject was taken up by the House of Commons; and a committee was appointed to investigate the whole circumstances of the case, and to calculate the entire expenditure incurred by the public on the Company's account. During the agitation of this matter, the right of the Company to the new conquests was totally denied by several members. In the end, however, the question was compromised by the Company agreeing to pay 400,000*l.* a year for 2 years; and in 1769, this agreement, including the yearly payment, was further extended for 5 years more. The Company, at the same time, increased their dividend, which had been fixed by the former agreement at 10, to 12½ per cent.

But the Company's anticipations of increased revenue proved entirely visionary. The rapidity of their conquests in India, the distance of the controlling authority at home,

and the abuses in the government of the native princes, to whom the Company had succeeded, conspired to foster a strong spirit of peevishness among their servants. Abuses of every sort were multiplied to a frightful extent. The English, having obtained, or rather enforced, an exemption from those heavy transit duties to which the native traders were subject, engrossed the whole internal trade of the country. They even went so far as to decide what quantity of goods each manufacturer should deliver, and what he should receive for them. It is due to the directors to say, that they exerted themselves to repress these abuses. But their resolutions were neither carried into effect by their servants in India, nor sanctioned by the proprietors at home; so that the abuses, instead of being repressed, went on acquiring fresh strength and virulence. The resources of the country were rapidly impaired; and while many of the Company's servants returned to Europe with immense fortunes, the Company itself was involved in debt and difficulties; and, so far from being able to pay the stipulated sum of 400,000*l.* a year to government, was compelled to apply, in 1779, to the Treasury for a loan!

In this crisis of their affairs, government interposed, and a considerable change was made in the constitution of the Company. The dividend was restricted to 6 per cent., till the sum of 1,400,000*l.* advanced to them by the public, should be paid. It was further enacted, that the court of directors should be elected for 4 years, 6 members annually, but none to hold their seats for more than 4 years at a time; that no person was to vote at the courts of proprietors who had not possessed his stock for 12 months; and that the amount of stock required to qualify for a vote should be increased from 500*l.* to 1,000*l.* The jurisdiction of the Mayor's Court at Calcutta was in future confined to small mercantile cases; and, in lieu of it, a new court was appointed, consisting of a chief justice and 3 principal judges appointed by the Crown. A superiority was also given to Bengal over the other presidencies, Mr. Warren Hastings being named in the act as governor-general of India. The governor-general, councilors, and judges were prohibited from having any concern whatever in trade; and no person residing in the Company's settlements was allowed to take more than 12 per cent. per annum for money. Though strenuously opposed, these measures were carried by a large majority.

At this period (1773) the total number of proprietors of East India stock, with their qualifications as they stood in the Company's book, were as follows:—

	Proprietors.	Stock.	£.	s.	d.
Englishmen, possessing 1,000 <i>l.</i> stock and upwards	487	1,018,398	19	11	
Foreigners, possessing 1,000 <i>l.</i> stock and upwards	395	861,940	17	0	
Englishmen, possessing 500 <i>l.</i> stock and upwards	1,411	631,464	1	8	
Foreigners, possessing 500 <i>l.</i> stock and upwards	95	40,290	0	0	
Total	1,388	2,551,092	18	7	

Notwithstanding the vast extension of the Company's territories, their trade continued to be apparently insignificant. During the 3 years ending with 1773, the value of the entire exports of British produce and manufactures, including military stores, exported by the Company to India and China, amounted to 1,469,411*l.*, being at the rate of 489,803*l.* a year; the annual exports of bullion during the same period being only 84,933*l.*! During the same 3 years, 23 ships sailed annually for India. The truth, indeed, seems to be, that, but for the increased consumption of tea in Great Britain, the Company would have entirely ceased to carry on any branch of trade with the East; and that the monopoly would have excluded us as effectually from the markets of India and China as if the trade had reverted to its ancient channels, and the route by the Cape of Good Hope been relinquished.

In 1781, the exclusive privileges of the Company were extended to 1791, with 3 years' notice; the dividend on the Company's stock was fixed at 8 per cent.; three fourths of their surplus revenues, after paying the dividend, and the sum of 400,000*l.* payable to government, was to be applied to the public service, and the remaining fourth to the Company's own use.

In 1780, the value of British produce and manufactures exported by the Company to India and China amounted to only 386,153*l.*; the bullion exported during the same year was 15,014*l.* The total value of the exports during the same year was 12,648,616*l.*; showing that the East India trade formed only *one thirty-second* part of the entire foreign trade of the empire!

The administration of Mr. Hastings was one continued scene of war, negotiation, and intrigue. The state of the country, instead of being improved, became worse; so much so, that in a council minute by Marquis Cornwallis, dated the 18th of September, 1783, it is distinctly stated, "*that one third part of the Company's territory is now a jungle for wild beasts.*" Some abuses in the conduct of their servants were, indeed, rectified; but, notwithstanding, the net revenue of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, which, in 1772, had amounted to 2,126,766*l.*, declined, in 1783, to 2,072,033*l.* This exhaustion of the country, and the expenses incurred in the war with Hyder Ally and France, involved

the Company in fresh difficulties; and being unable to meet them, they were obliged, in 1783, to present a petition to parliament, setting forth their inability to pay the stipulated sum of 400,000*l.* a year to the public, and praying to be excused from that payment and to be supported by a loan of 900,000*l.*

All parties seemed now to be convinced that some further changes in the constitution of the Company had become indispensable. In this crisis, Mr. Fox brought forward his famous India Bill; the grand object of which was to abolish the courts of directors and proprietors, and to vest the government of India in the hands of 7 commissioners appointed by parliament. The coalition between Lord North and Mr. Fox having rendered the ministry exceedingly unpopular, advantage was taken of the circumstance to raise an extraordinary clamour against the bill. The East India Company stigmatised it as an invasion of their chartered rights; though it is obvious that, from their inability to carry into effect the stipulations under which those rights were conceded to them, they necessarily reverted to the public; and it was as open to parliament to legislate upon them as upon any other question. The political opponents of the government represented the proposal for vesting the nomination of commissioners in the legislature, as a daring invasion of the prerogative of the Crown, and an insidious attempt of the minister to render himself all-powerful, by adding the patronage of India to that already in his possession. The bill was, however, carried through the House of Commons; but, in consequence of the ferment it had excited, and the avowed opposition of his Majesty, it was thrown out in the House of Lords. This event proved fatal to the coalition ministry. A new one was formed, with Mr. Pitt at its head; and parliament being soon after dissolved, the new minister acquired a decisive majority in both Houses. When thus secure of parliamentary support, Mr. Pitt brought forward his India Bill, which was successfully carried through all its stages. By this bill a Board of Control was erected, consisting of 6 members of the privy council, who were "to check, superintend, and control all acts, operations, and concerns, which in anywise relate to the civil or military government, or revenues, of the territories and possessions of the East India Company." All communications to or from India, touching any of the above matters, were to be submitted to this Board; the directors being ordered to yield obedience to its commands, and to alter or amend all instructions sent to India as directed by it. A secret committee of 3 directors was formed, with which the Board of Control might transact any business it did not choose to submit to the court of directors. Persons returning from India were to be obliged, under very severe penalties, to declare the amount of their fortunes; and a tribunal was appointed for the trial of all individuals accused of misconduct in India, consisting of a Judge from each of the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer; 5 members of the House of Lords, and 7 members of the House of Commons; the last being chosen by lot at the commencement of each session. The superintendence of all commercial matters continued, as formerly, in the hands of the directors.

During the administration of Marquis Cornwallis, who succeeded Mr. Hastings, Tippoo Saib, the son of Hyder Ally, was stripped of nearly half his dominions; the Company's territorial revenue was, in consequence, greatly increased; at the same time that the permanent settlement was carried into effect in Bengal, and other important changes accomplished. Opinion has been long divided as to the influence of these changes. On the whole, however, we are inclined to think that they have been decidedly advantageous. Lord Cornwallis was, beyond all question, a sincere friend to the people of India; and laboured earnestly, if not always successfully, to promote their interests, which he well knew were identified with those of the British nation.

During the 3 years ending with 1793, the value of the Company's exports of British produce and manufactures fluctuated from 928,783*l.* to 1,031,262*l.* But this increase is wholly to be ascribed to the reduction of the duty on tea in 1784, and the vast increase that, consequently, took place in its consumption. — (See article TEA.) Had the consumption of tea continued stationary, there appear no grounds for thinking that the Company's exports in 1793 would have been greater than in 1780, unless an increase had taken place in the quantity of military stores exported.

In 1793, the Company's charter was prolonged till the 1st of March, 1814. In the act for this purpose, a species of provision was made for opening the trade to India to private individuals. All his Majesty's subjects, residing in any part of his European dominions, were allowed to export to India any article of the produce or manufacture of the British dominions, except military stores, ammunition, masts, spars, cordage, pitch, tar, and copper; and the Company's civil servants in India, and the free merchants resident there, were allowed to ship, on their own account and risk, all kinds of Indian goods, except calicoes, dimities, muslins, and other piece goods. But neither the merchants in England, nor the Company's servants or merchants in India, were allowed to export or import except in Company's ships. And in order to insure such conveyance, it was enacted, that the Company should annually appropriate 3,000 tons of shipping for

the use of private traders; it being stipulated that they were to pay, in time of peace, 5*l.* outwards, and 15*l.* homewards, for every ton occupied by them in the Company's ships; and that this freight might be raised in time of war, with the approbation of the Board of Control.

It might have been, and, indeed, most probably was, foreseen that very few British merchants or manufacturers would be inclined to avail themselves of the privilege of sending out goods in Company's ships; or of engaging in a trade fettered on all sides by the jealousy of powerful monopolists, and where, consequently, their superior judgment and economy would have availed almost nothing. As far, therefore, as they were concerned, the relaxation was more apparent than real, and did not produce any useful results.* It was, however, made use of to a considerable extent by private merchants in India; and also by the Company's servants returning from India, many of whom invested a part, and some the whole, of their fortune, in produce fit for the European markets.

The financial difficulties of the East India Company led to the revolution which took place in its government in 1784. But, notwithstanding the superintendence of the Board of Control, its finances have continued nearly in the same unprosperous state as before. We have been favoured, from time to time, with the most dazzling accounts of revenue that was to be immediately derived from India; and numberless acts of parliament have been passed for the appropriation of surpluses that never had any existence except in the imagination of their framers. The proceedings that took place at the renewal of the charter, in 1793, afford a striking example of this. Lord Cornwallis had then concluded the war with Tippoo Saib, which had stripped him of half his dominions: the perpetual settlement, from which so many benefits were expected to be derived, had been adopted in Bengal; and the Company's receipts had been increased, in consequence of accessions to their territory, and subsidies from native princes, &c., to upwards of eight millions sterling a year, which, it was calculated, would afford a future annual surplus, after every description of charge had been deducted, of 1,240,000*l.* Mr. Dundas (afterwards Lord Melville), then president of the Board of Control, availed himself of these favourable appearances, to give the most flattering representation of the Company's affairs. There could, he said, be no question as to the permanent and regular increase of the Company's surplus revenue; he assured the House that the estimates had been framed with the greatest care; that the Company's possessions were in a state of prosperity till then unknown in India; that the abuses, which had formerly insinuated themselves into some departments of the government, had been rooted out; and that the period was at length arrived, when India was to pour her golden treasures into the lap of England! Parliament participated in these brilliant anticipations, and in the act prolonging the charter it was enacted, 1st, That 500,000*l.* a year of the surplus revenue should be set aside for reducing the Company's debt in India to 2,000,000*l.*; 2dly, That 500,000*l.* a year should be paid into the exchequer, to be appropriated for the public service as parliament should think fit to order; 3dly, When the India debt was reduced to 2,000,000*l.*, and the bond debt to 1,500,000*l.*, one sixth part of the surplus was to be applied to augment the dividends, and the other five sixths were to be paid into the Bank, in the name of the commissioners of the national debt, to be accumulated as a *guarantee fund*, until it amounted to 12,000,000*l.*; and when it reached that sum, the dividends upon it were to be applied to make up the dividends on the capital stock of the Company to 10 per cent., if at any time the funds appropriated to that purpose should prove deficient, &c.

Not one of these anticipations was realised! Instead of being diminished, the Company's debts began immediately to increase. In 1795, they were authorised to add to the amount of their floating debt. In 1796, a new device to obtain money was fallen upon. Mr. Dundas represented that as all competition had been destroyed in consequence of the war, the Company's commerce had been greatly increased, and that their mercantile capital had become insufficient for the extent of their transactions. In consequence of this representation, leave was given to the Company to add *two millions* to their capital stock by creating 20,000 new shares; but as these shares sold at the rate of 17*l.* each, they produced 3,400,000*l.* In 1797, the Company issued additional bonds to the extent of 1,417,000*l.*; and notwithstanding all this, Mr. Dundas stated in the House of Commons, on the 13th of March, 1799, that there had been a deficit in the previous year of 1,319,000*l.*

During the administration of the Marquis Wellesley, which began in 1797-8 and terminated in 1805-6, the British empire in India was augmented by the conquest of Seringapatam and the whole territories of Tippoo Saib, the cession of large tracts by

* In his letter to the East India Company, dated the 21st of March, 1812, Lord Melville says: "It will not be denied that the facilities granted by that act (the act of 1793) have not been satisfactory, at least to the merchants either of this country or of India. They have been the source of constant dispute, and they have even entailed a heavy expense upon the Company, without affording to the public any adequate benefit from such a sacrifice."— (*Papers published by E. I. Comp.* 1813, p. 84.)

the Mahratta chiefs, the capture of Delhi, the ancient seat of the Mogul empire, and various other important acquisitions; so that the revenue, which had amounted to 8,059,000*l.* in 1797, was increased to 15,403,000*l.* in 1805. But the expenses of government, and the interest of the debt, increased in a still greater proportion than the revenue, having amounted, in 1805, to 17,672,000*l.*, leaving a deficit of 2,269,000*l.* In the following year the revenue fell off nearly 1,000,000*l.*, while the expenses continued nearly the same. And there was, at an average, a continued excess of expenditure, including commercial charges, and a contraction of fresh debt, down to 1811-12.

Notwithstanding the vast additions made to their territories, the Company's commerce with them continued to be very inconsiderable. During the 5 years ending with 1811, the exports to India by the Company, exclusive of those made on account of individuals in their ships, were as under:—

1807	-	-	-	£952,416	1810	-	-	-	£1,010,816
1808	-	-	-	919,544	1811	-	-	-	1,033,816
1809	-	-	-	866,153					

The exports by the private trade, and the *privilege* trade, that is, the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, during the above-mentioned years, were about as large. During the 5 years ending with 1807-8, the annual average imports into India by British private traders, only, amounted to 305,496*l.* — (*Papers published by the East India Company in 1813*, 4to. p. 56.)

The Company's exports include the value of the military stores sent from Great Britain to India. The ships employed in the trade to *India and China*, during the same 5 years, varied from 44 to 53, and their burden from 36,671 to 45,342 tons.

For some years previous to the termination of the Company's charter in 1813, the conviction had been gaining ground among all classes, that the trade to the East was capable of being very greatly extended; and that it was solely owing to the want of enterprise and competition, occasioned by its being subjected to a monopoly, that it was confined within such narrow limits. Very great efforts were, consequently, made by the manufacturing and commercial interests to have the monopoly set aside, and the trade to the East thrown open. The Company vigorously resisted these pretensions; and had interest enough to procure a prolongation of the privilege of carrying on an exclusive trade to China to the 10th of April, 1831, with 3 years' notice; the government of India being continued in their hands for the same period. Fortunately, however, the trade to India was opened, under certain conditions, to the public. The principal of these conditions were, that private individuals should trade, directly only, with the presidencies of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and the port of Penang; that the vessels fitted out by them should not be under 350 tons burden; and that they should abstain, unless permitted by the Company, or the Board of Control, from engaging in the carrying trade of India, or in the trade between India and China. And yet, despite these disadvantages, such is the energy of individual enterprise as compared with monopoly, that the private traders gained an almost immediate ascendancy over the East India Company, and in a very short time more than *trebled* our trade with India!

In the Report of the committee of the House of Lords on the foreign trade of the country, printed in May, 1821, it is stated, that "the greatly increased consumption of British goods in the East, since the commencement of the free trade, cannot be accounted for by the demand of European residents, the number of whom does not materially vary; and it appears to have been much the greatest in articles calculated for the general use of the natives. That of the cotton manufactures of this country alone is stated, since the first opening of the trade, to have been augmented from *four to five fold* (it is now (1843) augmented many hundreds of times). The value of the merchandise exported from Great Britain to India, which amounted, in 1814, to 870,177*l.*, amounted*, in 1819, to 3,052,741*l.*; and although the market appears then to have been so far overstocked as to occasion a diminution of nearly one half in the exports of the following year, that diminution appears to have taken place more in the articles intended for the consumption of Europeans than of natives; and the trade is now stated to the committee, by the best informed persons, to be reviving. When the amount of population, and the extent of the country over which the consumption of these articles is spread, are considered, it is obvious that any facility which can, consistently with the political interests and security of the Company's dominions, be given to the private trader, for the distribution of his exports, by increasing the number of ports at which he may have the option of touching in pursuit of a market, cannot fail to promote a more ready and extensive demand."

Besides the restraints imposed by the act of 1813 on the proceedings of the free traders,

* This is the amount of the Company's exports only, and the sum is not quite accurate: see *post*.

† These restraints were a good deal modified by the 3 Geo. 4. c. 80., passed in pursuance of the recommendation of the committee quoted above.

they frequently experienced very great loss and inconvenience from the commercial speculations of the East India Company. The latter had commercial residents, with large establishments of servants, some of them intended for coercive purposes, stationed in all the considerable towns; and the Marquis Wellesley has stated, "that the intimation of a wish from the Company's resident is always received as a command by the native manufacturers and producers." It was obviously impossible for a private trader to come fairly into competition with persons possessing such authority, and who were often instructed to make their purchases on any terms. Mr. Tucker, since chairman of the Company, states, in his useful work on Indian finance (published in 1825), that the Company's investments (purchases) in India, during the previous 10 years, might in some instances be said to have been forced; meaning by this, that the goods exported by them from India were sometimes compulsorily obtained from the natives, and sometimes bought at a higher price than they would have brought in a market frequented only by regular merchants. But the truth is, that it was not in the nature of things that the Company's purchases could be fairly made; the natives could not deal with their servants as they would have dealt with private individuals; and it would be absurd to suppose that agents authorised to buy on account of government, and to draw on the public treasury for the means of payment, should generally evince the prudence and discretion of individuals directly responsible in their own private fortunes for their transactions. The interference of such persons would, under any circumstances, have rendered the East India trade peculiarly hazardous. But their influence in this respect was materially aggravated by the irregularity of their appearances. No individual, not belonging to the court of directors, could foresee whether the Company's agents would be in the market at all; or, if there, to what extent they would either purchase or sell. So capricious were their proceedings, that in some years they have laid out 700,000*l.* on indigo, while in others they have not laid out a single shilling; and so with other things. A fluctuating demand of this sort necessarily occasioned great and sudden variations of price, and was injurious alike to the producers and the private merchants. Mr. Mackenzie, late secretary to the government of Bengal, set the mischievous influence of the circumstances now alluded to in the clearest point of view, in his masterly evidence before the select committee of 1832 on the affairs of India; and he further showed, that it was not possible, by any sort of contrivance, to obviate the inconveniences complained of, and that they would unavoidably continue till the Company ceased to have any thing to do with commerce.

But besides being injurious to the private trader, and to the public generally, both in India and England, this trade was of no advantage to the East India Company. How, indeed, could it be otherwise? A company that maintained armies and retailed tea, that carried a sword in the one hand and a ledger in the other, was a contradiction; and, had she traded with success, would have been a prodigy. It was impossible for her to pay that attention to details that is indispensable to the carrying on of commerce with advantage. She may have gained something by the monopoly of the tea trade, though even that is questionable; but it is admitted on all hands, that she lost heavily by her trade to India.* When, therefore, the question as to the renewal of the charter came to be discussed in 1832 and 1833, the Company had no reasonable objection to urge against their being deprived of the privilege of trading. And the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 85., for continuing the charter till 1854, *terminated the Company's commercial character*; by enacting, that the Company's trade to China was to cease on the 22d of April, 1834 †, and that the Company was, as soon as possible after that date, to dispose of their stocks on hand, and close their commercial business. And the wonderful increase that has since taken place in the trade with the East is the best proof of the sagacity and soundness of the opinions of those by whose efforts the incubus of monopoly was removed.

II. EAST INDIA COMPANY (CONSTITUTION OF).

Under the present act, the functions of the East India Company are wholly political. She is to continue to govern India, with the concurrence and under the supervision of the Board of Control, nearly on the plan laid down in Mr. Pitt's act, till the 30th of April, 1854. All the real and personal property belonging to the Company on the 22d of April, 1834, was vested in the Crown, and is held or managed by the Company in trust for the same, subject of course to all claims, debts, contracts, &c. already in

* It is needless now to enter upon the controversy as to the origin of the Company's debt. — (See first edition of this work, p. 507.) It is probable that those who contend that this debt is *wholly attributable* to the Company's commercial operations, have exaggerated their injurious influence. But we do not think that there is any room for doubting, notwithstanding the enormous prices charged on tea, that, for many years previously to the abolition of the monopoly, the Company's trade was, on the whole, productive of nothing but loss.

† For the new regulations as to the China trade, see CANTON.

existence, or that may hereafter be brought into existence by competent authority. The Company's debts and liabilities are all charged on India. The dividend, which is 10 per cent., is paid in England out of the revenues of India; and provision is made for the establishment of a *security fund* for its discharge. The dividend may be redeemed by parliament, on payment of 200*l.* for 100*l.* stock, any time after April, 1874; but it is provided, in the event of the Company being deprived of the government of India in 1854, that they may claim redemption of the dividend any time thereafter upon 3 years' notice. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 85.)

Company's Stock.—forms a capital of 6,000,000*l.*, into which all persons, natives or foreigners, males or females, bodies politic or corporate (the Governor and Company of the Bank of England only excepted), are at liberty to purchase, without limitation of amount. Since 1793, the dividends have been 10 per cent., to which they are limited by the late act.

General Courts.—The proprietors in general court assembled are empowered to enact by-laws, and in other respects are competent to the complete investigation, regulation, and control of every branch of the Company's concerns; but, for the more prompt despatch of business, the executive detail is vested in a court of directors. A general court is required to be held once in the months of March, June, September, and December, in each year. No one can be present at a general court unless possessed of 500*l.* stock; nor can any person vote upon the determination of any question, who has not been in possession of 1,000*l.* stock for the preceding 12 months, unless such stock has been obtained by bequest or marriage. Persons possessed of 1,000*l.* stock are empowered to give a single vote; 3,000*l.* are a qualification for two votes; 6,000*l.* for three votes; and 10,000*l.* and upwards for four votes. There were 2,003 proprietors on the Company's books in 1825; of these, 1,494 were qualified to give single votes; 392, two votes; 69, three votes; and 48, four votes. Upon any special occasion, 9 proprietors, duly qualified by the possession of 1,000*l.* stock, may, by a resolution in writing to the court of directors, call a general court; which the directors are required to summon within 10 days, or, in default, the proprietors may call such court by notice affixed upon the Royal Exchange. In all such courts the questions are decided by a majority of voices; in case of an equality, the determination must be by the treasurer drawing a lot. Nine proprietors may, by a requisition in writing, demand a ballot upon any question, which shall not be taken within 24 hours after the breaking up of the general court.

Court of Directors.—The court of directors is composed of 24 members, chosen from among the proprietors, each of whom must be possessed of 2,000*l.* stock; nor can any director, after being chosen, act longer than while he continues to hold stock. Of these, 6 are chosen on the second Wednesday in April in each year, to serve for 4 years, in the room of 6 who have completed such service. After an interval of 12 months, those who had gone out by rotation are eligible to be re-elected for the ensuing 4 years. Formerly, no person who had been in the Company's civil or military service in India was eligible to be elected a director until he had been a resident in England 2 years after quitting the service; but this condition no longer exists; and all civil or military servants of the Company in India, supposing they are otherwise eligible, may be chosen directors immediately on their return to England, provided they have no unsettled accounts with the Company; if so, they are ineligible for 2 years after their return, unless their accounts be sooner settled. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 85. § 28.) The directors choose annually, from amongst themselves, a chairman and a deputy chairman. They are required by by-laws to meet once in every week at least; but they frequently meet oftener, as occasion requires. Not less than 13 can form a court. Their determinations are guided by a majority; in case of an equality, the question must be decided by the drawing of a lot by the treasurer; upon all questions of importance, the sense of the court is taken by ballot. The Company's officers, both at home and abroad, receive their appointments immediately from the court; to whom they are responsible for the due and faithful discharge of the trust reposed in them. The patronage is, nevertheless, so arranged, as that each member of the court separately participates therein.

Secret Committee.—The principal powers of the court of directors are vested in a secret committee, forming a sort of cabinet or privy council. All communications of a confidential or delicate nature between the Board of Control and the Company are submitted, in the first instance at least, to the consideration of this committee; and the directions of the Board, as to political affairs, may be transmitted direct to India, through the committee, without being seen by the other directors. The secret committee is appointed by the court of directors, and its members are sworn to secrecy.

III. EAST INDIES (STATE OF SOCIETY IN, GROWING DEMAND FOR ENGLISH GOODS, TRADE, COLONISATION, ETC.).

1. *Distinction of Castes in India. Inaccuracy of the Representations as to the Inhabitants being unalterably attached to ancient Customs and Practices.*—We have taken occasion, in the preceding sketch of the history of the East India Company, repeatedly to notice the small extent of the trade carried on by its agency. It was contended, however, that this was to be ascribed, not to the deadening influence of monopoly, but to the peculiar state of the people of India. A notion has long been prevalent in this quarter of the world, that the Hindoos are a race unsusceptible of change or improvement of any sort; that every man is brought up to the profession of his father, and can engage in none else; and that, owing to the simplicity and unalterableness of their habits, they never can be consumers, at least to any considerable extent, of foreign commodities. "What is now in India, has always been there, and is likely still to continue." — (*Robertson's Disquisition*, p. 202.) The Hindoos of this day are said to be the same as the Hindoos of the age of Alexander the Great. The description of them given by Arrian has been quoted as applying to their actual situation. It is affirmed that they have neither improved nor retrograded; and we are referred to India as to a country in which the institutions and manners that prevailed 3,000 years ago may still be found in their pristine purity! The President de Goguet lays it down distinctly, in his learned and invaluable work on the origin of laws, arts, and sciences, that in India "every trade is confined to a particular caste, and can be exercised only by those whose parents professed it." — (*Origin of Laws*, &c. Eng. trans. vol. iii. p. 24.) Dr. Robertson says, that the *station of every Hindoo is unalterably fixed; his destiny is irrevocable;*

and the walk of life is marked out, from which he must never deviate."—(*Disquisition on India*, p. 199.) The same opinions are maintained by later authorities. Dr. Tennant says, that "the whole Indian community is divided into 4 great classes; and each class is stationed between certain walls of separation, which are impassable by the purest virtue, and most conspicuous merit."—(Quoted by *Mr. Rickards*, p. 6.) This unalterable destiny of individuals has been repeatedly assumed in the despatches and official papers put forth by the East India Company; and has been referred to on all occasions by them and their servants, as a proof that the depressed and miserable condition of the natives is not owing to misgovernment, or to the weight of the burdens laid upon them; and that it is in vain to think of materially improving their condition, or of making them acquainted with new arts, or giving them new habits, so long as the institution of castes, and the prejudices to which it has given rise, preserve their ascendancy unimpaired.

But notwithstanding the universal currency which the opinions now referred to have obtained, and the high authority by which they are supported, they are, in all the most essential respects, entirely without foundation! The books and codes of the Hindoos themselves, and the minute and careful observations that have recently been made on Indian society, have shown that the influence ascribed to the institution of castes by the ancients, and by the more early modern travellers, has been prodigiously exaggerated. In the first part of his work on India, Mr. Rickards has established, partly by references to the authoritative books of the Hindoos, and partly by his own observations, and those of Mr. Colebrook, Dr. Heber, and other high authorities, that the vast majority of the Hindoo population may, and, in fact, does engage in all sorts of employments. It has been further shown, that there is nothing in the structure of Indian society to oppose any serious obstacle to the introduction of new arts, or the spread of improvement; and that the causes of the poverty and misery of the people must be sought for in other circumstances than the institution of castes, and the nature of Hindoo superstition.

The early division of the population into the 4 great classes of priests (Brahmins), soldiers (Cshatryas), husbandmen and artificers (Vaisyas), and slaves (Sudras), was maintained only for a very short period. The Hindoo traditions record that a partial intermixture of these classes took place at a very remote epoch; and the mixed brood thence arising were divided into a vast variety of new tribes, or castes, to whom, speaking generally, no employments are forbidden.

"The employments," says Mr. Rickards, "allowed to these mixed and impure castes, may be said to be every description of handicraft and occupation for which the wants of human society have created a demand. Though many seem to take their names from their ordinary trade or profession, and some have duties assigned them too low and disgusting for any others to perform, but from the direct necessity; yet no employment, generally speaking, is forbidden to the mixed and impure tribes, excepting three of the prescribed duties of the sacerdotal class; viz. teaching the *Vedas*, officiating at a sacrifice, and receiving presents from a pure-handed giver; which three are exclusively *Brahminical*."

Mr. Colebrook, who is acknowledged on all hands to be one of the very highest authorities as to all that respects Indian affairs, has a paper in the fifth volume of the *Asiatic Researches*, on the subject of castes. In this paper, Mr. Colebrook states that the *Jatimala*, a Hindoo work, enumerates forty-two mixed classes springing from the intercourse of a man of inferior class with a woman of a superior class, or in the inverse order of the classes. Now, if we add to these the number that must have sprung from intermixture in the direct order of the classes, and the hosts further arising from the continued intermixture of the mixed tribes amongst themselves, we shall not certainly be disposed to dissent from Mr. Colebrook's conclusion, "that the subdivisions of these classes have further multiplied distinctions to an endless variety."

Mr. Colebrook has given the following distinct and accurate account of the professions and employments of the several classes at the present day. It forms a curious commentary on the "irrevocable destiny" of Dr. Robertson, and the "impassable walls" of Dr. Tennant.

"A *Brahman*, unable to subsist by his duties, may live by the duty of a soldier; if he cannot get a subsistence by either of these employments, he may apply to tillage and attendance on cattle, or gain a competence by traffic, avoiding certain commodities. A *Cshatrya* in distress may subsist by all these means; but he must not have recourse to the highest functions. In seasons of distress, a further latitude is given. The practice of medicine, and other learned professions, painting, and other arts, work for wages, mental service, alms, and usury, are among the modes of subsistence allowed both to the *Brahman* and *Cshatrya*. A *Vaijya*, unable to subsist by his own duties, may descend to the servile acts of a *Sudra*; and a *Sudra*, not finding employment by waiting on men of the higher classes, may subsist by handicrafts; principally following those mechanical operations, as joinery and masonry, and practical arts, as painting and writing, by which he may serve men of superior classes; and although a man of a lower class is in general restricted from the acts of a higher class, the *Sudra* is expressly permitted to become a trader, or a husbandman.

Besides the particular occupation assigned to each of the mixed classes, they have the alternative of following that profession, which regularly belongs to the class from which they derive their origin on the mother's side; those at least have such an option who are born in the direct order of the classes. The mixed classes are also permitted to subsist by any of the duties of a *Sudra*, that is, by mental service, by handicrafts, by commerce, and agriculture. Hence it appears, THAT ALMOST EVERY OCCUPATION,

THOUGH REGULARLY IT BE THE PROFESSION OF A PARTICULAR CLASS, IS OPEN TO MOST OTHER CLASSES; and that the limitations, far from being rigorous, do in fact reserve only the peculiar profession of the *Brahmins*, which consists in teaching the *Vedas*, and officiating at religious ceremonies."

"We have thus," says Mr. Rickards, by whom this passage has been quoted, "the highest existing authority for rejecting the doctrine of the whole Hindoo community 'being divided into four castes,' and of their peculiar prerogatives being guarded inviolate by 'impassable walls of separation.' It is also clear that the intermixture of castes had taken place, to an indefinite extent, at the time when the *Dharma Sastra* was composed, which Sir William Jones computes to be about 380 years B. C.; for the mixed classes are specified in this work, and it also refers, in many places, to past times, and to events which a course of time only could have brought about. The origin of the intermixture is therefore lost in the remotest and obscurest antiquity; and having been carried on through a long course of ages, a heterogeneous mass is every where presented to us, in these latter times, without a single example, in any particular state, or kingdom, or separate portion of the Hindoo community, of that quadruple division of castes, which has been so confidently insisted upon."

"I have myself seen carpenters of five or six different castes, and as many different bricklayers, employed on the same building. The same diversity of castes may be observed among the craftsmen in dockyards, and all other great works; and those who have resided for any time in the principal commercial cities of India must be sensible that every increasing demand for labour, in all its different branches and varieties of old and new arts, has been speedily and effectually supplied, in spite of the tremendous institution of castes, which we are taught to believe forms so impassable an obstruction to the advancement of Indian industry."

2. *Growing Demand for English Goods.* -- It is difficult to suppose that the directors of the East India Company should not have been early aware of the fallacy of the opinions as to the fixedness of Indian habits. So far, however, as we know, they did not, in this instance, evince any acquaintance with the discoveries of their servants. On the contrary, in all the discussions that took place with respect to the opening of the trade in 1814, the Company invariably contended that no increase of trade to India could be expected. In a letter of the chairman and deputy chairman to the Right Honourable Robert Dundas, dated 13th of January, 1809, it is stated, that the small demand for foreign commodities in India "results from the nature of the Indian people, their climate and their usages. The articles of first necessity their own country furnishes more abundantly and more cheaply than it is possible for Europe to supply them. The labour of the great body of the common people only enables them to subsist on rice, and to wear a slight covering of cotton cloth; they, therefore, can purchase none of the superfluities we offer them. The comparatively few in better circumstances, restricted, like the rest, by numerous religious and civil customs, of which all are remarkably tenacious, find few of our commodities to their taste; and their climate, so dissimilar to ours, renders many of them unsuitable to their use; so that a commerce between them and us cannot proceed far upon the principle of supplying mutual wants. Hence, except woollens, in a very limited degree, fur mantles in the cold season, and metals, on a scale also very limited, to be worked up by their own artisans for the few utensils they need, hardly any of our staple commodities find a vent among the Indians; the other exports which Europe sends to India being chiefly consumed by the European population there, and some of the descendants of the early Portuguese settlers; all of whom, taken collectively, form but a small body, in view to any question of national commerce."— (*Papers published by authority of the East India Company, 1813, p. 21.*)

The volume from which we have made this extract contains a variety of passages to the same effect. So confident, indeed, were the Company that they had carried the trade to India to the utmost extent of which it was capable, that it was expressly stated, in resolutions passed in a general court held at the India House, on the 26th of January 1813, "that no large or sudden addition can be made to the amount of British exports to India or China;" that the Company had suffered a loss in attempting to extend this branch of their trade; that the warehouses at home were glutted with Indian commodities for which there was no demand; and that to open the outports to the trade would be no other than "a ruinous transfer of it into new channels, to the destruction of immense and costly establishments, and the beggary of many thousands of industrious individuals."

Luckily, however, these representations were unable to prevent the opening of the trade, and the result has sufficiently demonstrated their fallacy. The enterprise and exertion of individuals has vastly increased our exports to India — to that very country which the Company had so confidently pronounced was, and would necessarily continue to be, incapable of affording any additional outlet for our peculiar products!

The commercial accounts for 1812 and 1813 were unfortunately destroyed by the fire at the Custom-house. The trade to India was opened on the 10th of April, 1814; and in that year the declared or real value of the products exported from Great Britain to the countries eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, excepting China, by the East India Company, was 826,558*l.*, and by the private traders, 1,048,132*l.* In 1817, the Company's exports had declined to 698,382*l.*, while those of the private traders had increased to 2,750,333*l.*; and in 1828, the former had sunk to only 488,601*l.*, while the latter had increased to 3,979,072*l.*, being more than double the total exports to India, as well by the Company as by private traders in 1814! Since then the market has continued progressively to increase. In 1840 the declared value of the exports of British goods

amounted to no less than 6,023,192: and, notwithstanding the commercial embarrassments in 1841 and 1842, it amounted, in the latter, to 5,169,888!

The Company stated, and no doubt truly, that they lost a very large sum in attempting to extend the demand for British woollens in India and China, which, notwithstanding, continues very limited. But in their efforts to force the sale of woollens, they seem to have entirely forgotten that we had attained to great excellency in the manufacture of cotton stuffs, the article principally made use of as clothing in Hindostan; and that, notwithstanding the cheapness of labour in India, the advantage we derived from our superior machinery might enable us to offer cotton stuffs to the natives at a lower price than they could afford to manufacture them for. No sooner, however, had the trade been open to private adventurers, than this channel of enterprise was explored; and the result has been, that, instead of bringing cottons from India to England, the former has become *one of the best and most extensive markets for the cottons of the latter*. We question, indeed, whether, in the whole history of commerce, another equally striking example can be produced of the powerful influence of competition in opening new and almost boundless fields for the successful prosecution of commercial enterprise.

In 1814, the first year of the free trade to India, the exports of cotton amounted to 817,000 yards, of which only about 170,000 yards, valued at 17,778*l.*, were exported by the Company! The progress of the trade has since been such that we now export about 1,500,000 yards of cotton stuffs to India, and about 15,000,000 lbs. of twist and yarn!

The demand for several other articles of British manufacture has recently increased, though not in the same unprecedented manner as cotton, with considerable rapidity. Notwithstanding all that has been said as to the immutability of Hindoo habits, the fact is not to be denied, that a taste for European products and customs is rapidly spreading itself over India. And the fair presumption is, that it will continue to gain ground according as education is more diffused, and as the natives become better acquainted with our language, arts, and habits. The authenticity of Dr. Heber's statements cannot be called in question; and there are many passages in different parts of his Journal that might be quoted in corroboration of what has now been stated. Our limits, however, will only permit of our making a very few extracts.

"Nor have the religious prejudices, and the unchangeableness of the Hindoo habits, been less exaggerated. Some of the best informed of their nation, with whom I have conversed, assure me, that their most remarkable customs of evil and domestic life are borrowed from their Mohammedan conquerors; and at present there is an obvious and increasing disposition to imitate the English in every thing, which has already led to very remarkable changes, and will, probably, to still more important. The wealthy natives now all affect to have their houses decorated with Corinthian pillars, and filled with English furniture; they drive the best horses and the most dashing carriages in Calcutta; many of them speak English fluently, and are tolerably read in English literature; and the children of one of our friends I saw one day dressed in jackets and trousers, with round hats, shoes, and stockings. In the Bengalee newspapers, of which there are two or three, politics are canvassed with a bias, as I am told, inclined to Whiggism; and one of their leading men gave a great dinner, not long since, in honour of the Spanish revolution: among the lower orders the same feeling shows itself more beneficially in a growing neglect of caste."—(Vol. II. p. 306.)

"To say that the Hindoos or Mussulmans are deficient in any essential feature of a civilised people, is an assertion which I can scarcely suppose to be made by any who have lived with them: their manners are at least as pleasing and courteous as those in the corresponding stations of life among ourselves; their houses are larger, and, according to their wants and climate, to the full as convenient as ours; their architecture is at least as elegant; nor is it true that in the mechanic arts they are inferior to the general run of European nations. Where they fall short of us, (which is chiefly in agricultural implements, and the mechanics of common life,) they are not, so far as I have understood of Italy and the south of France, surpassed in any degree by the people of those countries. Their goldsmiths and weavers produce as beautiful fabrics as our own; and it is so far from true that they are obstinately wedded to their old patterns, that they show an anxiety to imitate our models, and do imitate them very successfully. The ships built by native artists at Bombay are notoriously as good as any which sail from London or Liverpool. The carriages and gigs which they supply at Calcutta are as handsome, though not as durable, as those of Long Acre. In the little town of Monghyr, 300 miles from Calcutta, I had pistols, double-barrelled guns, and different pieces of cabinet work, brought down to my boat for sale, which in our ward room (for I know no further) nobody but perhaps Mr. _____ could detect to be of Hindoo origin; and at Delhi, in the shop of a wealthy native Jeweller, I found brooches, ear-rings, snuff-boxes, &c. of the latest models (so far as I am a Judge), and ornamented with French devices and mottoes."—(Vol. II. p. 282.)

As Bishop Heber penetrated into the interior of India, he found the same taste as in Calcutta, for European articles and for luxuries, to prevail every where among the natives. Of Benares, he writes as follows:—

"But what surprised me still more, as I penetrated further into it, were the large, lofty, and handsome dwelling-houses, the beauty and apparent richness of the bazaars, and the evident hum of business. Benares is in fact a very industrious and wealthy, as well as a very holy city. It is the great mart where the shawls of the north, the diamonds of the south, and the muslins of Diaca and the eastern provinces centre; and it has very considerable silk, cotton, and fine woollen manufactures of its own; while English hardware, swords, shields, and spears, from Lucknow and Monghyr, and those European luxuries and elegancies which are daily becoming more popular in India, circulate from hence through Bundelcund, Gorruckpore, Nepal, and other tracts which are removed from the main artery of the Ganges."—(Vol. I. p. 289.)

Proceeding still further into the interior of the country, and when at Nusserabad,

distant above 1,000 miles from Calcutta, the bishop continues his Journal in the same strain; viz. :—

"European articles are, at Nusserabad*, as might be expected, very dear; the shops are kept by a Greek and two Parsees from Bombay; they had in their list all the usual items of a Calcutta warehouse. English cotton cloths, both white and printed, are to be met with commonly in wear among the people of the country, and my. I learned to my surprise, he bought best and cheapest, as well as all kinds of hardware, crockery, writing-desks, &c., at Falles, a large town and celebrated mart in Marwar, on the edge of the desert, several days' journey west of Joudpore, where, till very lately, no European was known to have penetrated."—(Vol. ii. p. 36.)

As to the character of the Hindoos, their capacity, and even anxious desire, for improvement, the bishop's testimony is equally clear and decided; and as this is a point of pre-eminent importance, the reader's attention is requested to the following statements.

"In the schools which have been lately established in this part of the empire, of which there are at present 9 established by the Church Missionary, and 11 by the Christian Knowledge Societies, some very unexpected facts have occurred. As all direct attempts to convert the children are disclaimed, the parents send them without scruple. But it is no less strange than true, that there is no objection made to the use of the Old and New Testament as a class-book; that so long as the teachers do not urge them to eat what will make them lose their caste, or to be baptised, or to curse their country's gods, they readily consent to every thing else; and not only Mussulmans, but Brahmins, stand by with perfect coolness, and listen sometimes with apparent interest and pleasure while the scholars, by the road side, are reading the stories of the great Chr. — (Vol. ii. p. 250.)

"Hearing all I had heard of the prejudices of the Hindoos and Mussulmans, I certainly did not at all expect to find that the common people would, not only without objection, but with the greatest thankfulness, send their children to schools on Bell's system; and they seem to be fully sensible of the advantages conferred by writing, arithmetic, and, above all, by a knowledge of English. There are now in Calcutta, and the surrounding villages, 20 boys' schools, containing 60 to 120 each; and 23 girls', each of 25 or 30."—(Vol. ii. p. 300.)

"In the same holy city (Benares) I visited another college, founded lately by a wealthy Hindoo banker, and intrusted by him to the management of the Church Missionary Society, in which, besides a grammatical knowledge of the Hindoostanee language, as well as Persian and Arabic, the senior boys could pass a good examination in English grammar, in Hume's History of England, Joyce's Scientific Dialogues, the use of the globe, and the principal facts and moral precepts of the Gospel; most of them writing beautifully in the Persian, and very tolerably in the English character, and excelling most boys I have met with in the accuracy and readiness of their arithmetic."—(Vol. ii. p. 388.)

"The different nations which I have seen in India (for it is a great mistake to suppose that all India is peopled by a single race, or that there is not as great a disparity between the inhabitants of Guzerat, Bengal, the Doab, and the Deccan, both in language, manners, and physiognomy, as between any four nations in Europe,) have, of course, in a greater or less degree, the vices which must be expected to attend on arbitrary government, a demoralising and absurd religion, and (in all the independent states, and in some of the districts which are partially subject to the British) a laxity of law, and an almost universal prevalence of intestine feuds and habits of plunder. The general character, however, has much which is extremely pleasing to me; they are brave, courteous, intelligent, and most eager after knowledge and improvement, with a remarkable talent for the sciences of geometry, astronomy, &c., as well as for the arts of painting and sculpture. In all these points they have had great difficulties to struggle with, both from the want of models, instruments, and elementary instruction; the indisposition, or rather the horror, entertained, till lately, by many among their European masters, for giving them instruction of any kind; and now from the real difficulty which exists of translating works of science into languages which have no corresponding terms."—(Vol. ii. p. 409.)

Even if our space permitted, it would be unnecessary to add to these extracts. The facts and circumstances now mentioned, must, we think, satisfy every one that there is nothing in the nature of Indian society, in the institution of castes as at present existing, or in the habits and customs of the natives, to hinder them from advancing in the career of civilisation, commerce, and wealth. "It may safely be asserted," says Mr. Hamilton, "that with so vast an extent of fertile soil, peopled by so many millions of tractable and industrious inhabitants, Hindostan is capable of supplying the whole world with any species of tropical merchandise; the production, in fact, being only limited by the demand."

3. *Trade with India.*—We had occasion to animadvert, in the former edition of this work, on the difficulties under which the trade with India then laboured, in consequence of the duties on sugar, rum, and other Indian products, being very much higher than those laid on the same articles when imported from the colonies in the West Indies. It is needless, however, to enlarge on the manifest inexpediency of such policy, or to enter into any lengthened arguments to prove that governments are bound to treat all who are subject to their authority with the same equal and impartial justice. The discriminating duties now referred to have been happily all, or nearly all, abolished, and the products of India and of our other dependencies come into the home market on the same equal terms. The beneficial influence of this wise and liberal policy has been strikingly evinced in the increased imports of sugar and coffee from India. Indeed the only obstacle to the all but indefinite increase in the demand for our manufactures in that extensive dependency consists in the difficulty of obtaining return cargoes suitable for our markets; and the truth is, that the late rapid extension of the demand for British cottons and other goods in India, is principally ascribable to the increased imports of sugar, coffee, and other Indian articles. Commerce, it must never be forgotten, is nothing but an exchange of equivalents; and it is idle to attempt increasing exportation without at the same time increasing importation.

* Nusserabad, near Ajmere, in the heart of the Rajepoot country.

I.— Account of the Quantities and declared Value of the British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom to the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon, from 1836 to 1840, both included.

Articles.	1835.		1836.		1837.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery	-	41,502	-	67,921	-	60,600
Arms and ammunition	-	65,769	-	46,985	-	84,259
Beer and ale	tons	61,351	4,610	48,655	4,732	28,124
Books, printed	cwt.	870	935	39,779	1,122	81,283
Brass and copper manufactures	-	116,130	67,923	350,698	69,805	288,247
Butter and cheese	-	1,805	1,905	6,788	8,007	8,007
Coals, culm, and cinders	tons	2,775	1,754	9,538	5,232	14,165
Cordage	cwt.	5,929	4,452	4,181	7,647	792
Cotton manufactures entered by the yd.	yd.	61,777,877	1,236,523	74,280,506	1,978,616	64,213,633
Do. hosiery, lace, and small wares	-	435,921	80,631	47,327	80,444	80,444
Do. twist and yarn	lbs.	3,999,762	435,921	6,502,310	661,878	5,478,021
Earthenware of all sorts	pcs.	1,142,817	14,141	1,215,909	16,173	1,383,703
Glass entered by weight	cwt.	87,159	103,505	47,544	125,229	46,439
Hardware and cutlery	-	107,746	126,838	124,078	66,671	79,141
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	tons	19,392	144,796	11,645	134,893	13,271
Lead and shot	-	1,612	26,261	1,526	16,325	857
Leather, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	54,468	6,083	75,729	10,540	60,295
Do. saddlery and harness	-	-	4,233	11,221	-	8,709
Linens manufactures entered by the yd.	yd.	452,294	81,710	726,167	29,658	31,242
Machinery and millwork	-	-	15,524	7,500	-	7,402
Painters' colours	-	-	16,408	16,079	-	7,151
Plate, plated work, jewellery, and watches	-	-	63,273	45,028	-	29,563
Silk manufactures	-	-	8,029	15,644	-	9,312
Stationery of all sorts	-	-	65,924	74,469	-	48,933
Woolen manufactures entered by the	pcs.	44,251	188,691	78,430	293,949	83,194
Do. ditto by the yard	yd.	805,946	29,527	364,244	86,217	133,210
All other articles	-	-	137,824	185,230	-	156,223
Total declared value	-	3,192,092	-	4,255,829	-	5,612,975

Articles.	1838.		1839.		1840.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.	Quantities.	Declared Value.
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery	-	61,945	-	77,784	-	90,744
Arms and ammunition	-	46,002	-	74,997	-	105,133
Beer and ale	tons	4,237	6,273	110,408	43,877	110,247
Books printed	cwt.	1,156	1,469	33,093	1,464	37,650
Brass and copper manufactures	-	65,780	303,132	67,406	329,267	78,250
Butter and cheese	-	1,128	1,415	1,064	7,639	1,728
Coals, culm, and cinders	tons	18,151	11,222	11,273	9,071	25,345
Cordage	cwt.	10,545	5,710	3,020	5,698	5,359
Cotton manufactures entered by the yd.	yd.	80,085,128	1,721,928	100,949,721	2,285,919	145,083,769
Do. hosiery, lace, and small wares	-	24,131	48,235	-	48,235	61,202
Do. twist and yarn	lbs.	10,710,156	640,225	10,613,912	600,216	16,013,708
Earthenware of all sorts	pcs.	1,358,062	15,981	1,758,456	17,318	1,026,353
Glass entered by weight	cwt.	57,107	81,160	27,771	70,282	69,301
Hardware and cutlery	-	10,545	60,363	13,234	10,677	18,543
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	tons	13,609	137,707	16,909	150,666	30,824
Lead and shot	-	793	16,227	4,054	40,050	2,494
Leather, wrought and unwrought	lbs.	61,841	7,769	98,787	14,866	70,542
Do. saddlery and harness	-	-	10,489	16,634	-	17,421
Linens manufactures entered by the yd.	yd.	866,823	36,220	1,514,044	96,667	1,443,629
Machinery and millwork	-	-	29,869	17,013	-	66,424
Painters' colours	-	-	6,596	17,013	-	23,256
Plate, plated work, jewellery, and watches	-	-	42,575	44,220	-	38,373
Silk manufactures	-	-	14,031	14,713	-	16,383
Stationery of all sorts	-	-	48,331	63,293	-	68,108
Woolen manufactures entered by the	pcs.	46,777	184,329	65,728	170,106	91,092
Do. ditto by the yard	yd.	222,022	16,175	166,531	11,721	146,491
All other articles	-	-	171,631	311,208	-	324,534
Total declared value	-	3,876,195	-	4,748,607	-	6,023,192

II.— Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce imported into the United Kingdom from the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon, during each of the Eight Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1831.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Casia lignea	lbs.	1,667,042	1,540,815	579,777	921,670	313,755	529,196	215,016
Cinnamon	-	216,679	444,038	583,236	1,023,431	397,500	529,736	623,467
Cloves	-	126,514	113,891	8,233	19,260	35,363	122,201	36,667
Coffee	-	8,673,861	5,189,846	9,511,411	9,806,123	7,783,963	9,820,551	16,826,074
Corn, wheat meal & flour cwt.	-	21,898	15,827	14,477	44,666	18,012	17,532	15,286
Cotton piece goods, India	pcs.	268,877	205,501	269,150	414,450	304,221	384,146	349,961
Rhinoceros teeth	-	4,924	2,363	1,834	2,868	6,150	2,606	3,056
Ginger	-	10,094	4,189	15,269	21,053	26,297	29,696	9,727
Gum, Arabic	-	68,427	1,107,175	8,222	94,959	11,016	13,431	16,829
Shell lac	lbs.	696,339	529,490	547,653	994,669	1,093,179	1,166,502	1,294,027
Hemp, undressed	cwt.	941,179	1,179,899	3,722,312	2,194,938	2,659,827	3,176,167	2,928,629
Hides, unstained	-	31,913	41,964	40,283	40,214	37,474	63,533	92,529
Indigo	lbs.	3,616,022	3,878,404	7,222,311	5,721,534	6,375,144	4,654,226	6,940,194
Jace	-	2,024	9,021	35,121	20,977	16,227	18,272	14,973
Madder root	cwt.	3,412	3,266	4,168	4,222	1,601	1,373	969
Nutmegs	lbs.	51,204	67,067	99,405	95,436	64,793	48,719	17,228
Oil, castor	-	68,427	1,107,175	8,222	94,959	11,016	13,431	16,829
Pepper	-	7,131,133	5,807,014	6,777,892	4,150,534	3,856,990	9,090,899	6,814,756
Rhubarb	-	16,426	33,074	39,389	55,999	56,127	5,437	7,290
Rice	cwt.	876,968	1,333,041	145,169	352,824	803,806	419,319	390,752
Do. in the husk	bush.	25,446	39,426	1,704	17,411	13,950	8,938	4,739
Safflower	cwt.	6,884	6,517	8,240	7,517	1,970	3,022	3,110
Sago	-	29,583	19,021	24,808	15,298	14,472	39,623	21,892
Sulphate, and cubic nitre	-	297,680	191,119	177,938	229,696	234,048	272,429	183,603
Nuts, hazel & linseed bush.	-	2,826	127,116	275,108	126,534	76,572	163,058	207,460
Rape	lbs.	166	846	10	10	6,280	18,396	46,191
Senna	lbs.	412,283	96,821	415,671	289,486	316,750	194,817	63,608
Silk, raw and waste	-	1,796,637	1,108,297	1,450,222	1,299,037	1,151,399	1,587,044	1,108,465

Table II.—continued.

Principal Articles.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Wool, manufactured, viz. —								
India, hankonas, variously and hankonas	374,744	381,229	331,858	409,949	485,008	473,481	546,898	565,894
Wool, raw, and hankonas								
Wool, raw, and hankonas	490	775	741	4,505	7,957	4,001	9,747	21,985
Wool, raw, and hankonas	2,360	840	16	97	29	5,049	6,854	7,279
Wool, raw, and hankonas	78,102	29,424	16,102	4,055	81,631	124,657	28,118	25,698
Wool, raw, and hankonas		2,711	5,827	11,533	15,603	22,256	59,890	25,610
Wool, raw, and hankonas	537	14,068	38,130	67,064	53,709	170,350	511,068	1,006,712
Wool, raw, and hankonas	101,087	137,976	171,758	306,913	474,100	587,149	408,730	1,271,568
Wool, raw, and hankonas	130,987	1,247,078	200,492	131,367	321,283	193,484	905,476	1,860,798
Wool, raw, and hankonas	35,611	10,101	17,729	18,244	36,616	12,627	7,247	21,440
Wool, raw, and hankonas	5,981	10,578	24,851	50,290	136,854	87,827	225,547	460,736
Wool, raw, and hankonas	5,369	1,169	6,614	15,119	73,649	41,789	55,193	56,483
Wool, raw, and hankonas	32,920,263	41,428,011	75,849,845	51,532,072	40,811,734	47,172,830	77,011,829	97,338,153
Wool, raw, and hankonas	67,765	295,849	1,066,293	1,890,741	1,887,956	2,103,540	3,411,370	5,028,664

III.—An Account specifying the Number of Ships and their Tonnage that entered the Ports of the United Kingdom from the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon, and that cleared outwards from the United Kingdom for the same, during each of the 12 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Entered.			Cleared.							
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Years.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Years.					
1831	100	65,506	1837	981	118,753	1831	137	59,741	1837	231	108,827
1832	108	72,895	1838	935	106,004	1832	135	85,269	1838	235	117,284
1833	111	76,809	1839	209	133,294	1833	204	85,769	1839	253	121,965
1834	119	79,761	1840	894	137,883	1834	197	90,833	1840	312	170,088
1835	116	80,149	1841	414	307,075	1835	219	96,137	1841	404	216,103
1836	117	97,034	1842	430	191,378	1836	267	117,784	1842	397	302,101

4. *Colonisation of India.*—Considerable obstacles were long thrown in the way of Europeans establishing themselves in India, and particularly of their acquiring or holding land. This policy was dictated by various considerations; partly by a wish to prevent the extrusion of the natives from the soil, which it was supposed would be eagerly sought up by Europeans, and partly by the fear lest the latter, when scattered over the country, and released from any effectual control, should offend the prejudices of the natives, and get embroiled with them. Now, however, it seems to be the general opinion of those best acquainted with India, that but little danger is to be apprehended from these circumstances; that the few Europeans established in it as Indigo planters, &c. have contributed very materially to its improvement; and that the increase and diffusion of the English population, and their permanent settlement in the country, are at once the most likely means of spreading a knowledge of our arts and sciences, and of whitening and strengthening the foundations of our ascendancy. It is obvious, indeed, that the duration of our power in India must depend on a very uncertain tenure, unless we take root, as it were, in the soil, and a considerable portion of the population be attached to us by the ties of kindred, and of common interests and sympathies. In this respect we should imitate the Roman in preference to the Lacedæmonian or Athenian policy. *Quid aliud exitio Lacedæmonis Atheniensibus fuit, quamquam armis pollerent, nisi quod vitis pro alienigenis arcebant?* When, however, the former edition of this work was published, we observed that, looking at the density of population in India, the low rate of wages, the nature of the climate, and other similar circumstances, it seemed very doubtful whether it would ever become the resort of any considerable number of English settlers, at least of such a number as would be sufficient, within any reasonable period, to form any thing like a powerful native English interest. And we have now to state, that these anticipations have been more than realised; and that though the restraints on the settlement of Englishmen in India have been practically at an end since 1834, very few have availed themselves of the privilege. Indeed, as already seen (*ante*, p. 201.), the total number of English-born subjects (exclusive of military) in Calcutta, where they are most numerous, in 1837, amounted to only 3,138! There may, no doubt, though we see little reason to anticipate such a result, be a greater emigration to India in time to come; and to whatever extent it may be carried, it promises to be highly advantageous. "We need not, I imagine," said Lord William Bentinck, "use any laboured argument to prove that it would be infinitely advantageous for India to borrow largely in arts and knowledge from England. The legislature has expressly declared the truth; its acknowledgment has been implied in the daily acts and professions of government, and in all the efforts of humane individuals and societies for the education of the people. Nor will it, I conceive, be doubted, that the diffusion of useful knowledge, and its application to the arts and business of life, must be comparatively tardy, unless we add to precept the example of Europeans, mingling familiarly with the natives in the course of their profession, and practically demonstrating, by daily recurring evidence, the nature and the value of the principles we desire to inculcate; and of the plans we seek to have adopted. It seems to be almost equally plain, that, independently of their influencing the native community in this way, various and important national advantages will result from there being a considerable body of

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our countrymen, and their descendants, settled in the country. To question it, is to deny the superiority which has gained us the dominion of India: it is to doubt whether national character has any effect on national wealth, strength, and good government: it is to shut our eyes to all the perils and difficulties of our situation: it is to hold as nothing community of language, sentiment and interest, between the government and the governed: it is to disregard the evidence afforded by every corner of the globe in which the British flag is hoisted: it is to tell our merchants and our manufacturers, that the habits of a people go for nothing in creating a market; and that enterprise, skill, and capital, and the credit which creates capital, are of no avail in the production of commodities."

The existing regulations as to the residence of Englishmen in India are embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 85., and are as follows:—

Authority for his Majesty's Subjects to reside in certain Parts of India.—It shall be lawful for any natural-born subjects of his Majesty to proceed by sea to any port or place having a Custom-house establishment within the same, and to reside thereat, or to proceed to, reside in, or pass through, any part of such of the said territories as were under the government of the said Company on the 1st day of January, 1800, and in any part of the countries ceded by the nabob of the Carnatic of the province of Cuttack, and of the settlements of Singapore and Malacca, without any licence whatever; provided that all subjects of his Majesty not natives of the said territories shall, on their arrival in any part of the same from any port or place not within the said territories, make known in writing their names, places of destination, and objects of pursuit in India, to the chief officer of the customs or other officer authorised for that purpose at such place as aforesaid.—§ 81.

Subjects of his Majesty not to reside in certain Parts of India without Licence.—It shall not be lawful for any subject of his Majesty, except the servants of the said Company and others now lawfully authorised to reside in the said territories, to enter the same by land, or to proceed to or reside in such parts of the said territories as are not herein-before in that behalf mentioned, without licence first obtained from the commissioners of the board of control, or the court of directors, or the governor-general, or a governor of any of the said presidencies; provided, that no licence given to any natural-born subject of his Majesty to reside in parts of the territories not open to all such subjects shall be determined or revoked unless in accordance with the terms of some express clause of revocation or determination in such licence contained.—§ 82.

The Governor-General, with previous Consent of Directors, may declare other Places open.—It shall be lawful for the governor-general in council, with the previous consent and approbation of the said court of directors, to declare any place or places whatever within the said territories open to all his Majesty's natural-born subjects, and it shall be thenceforth lawful for any of his Majesty's natural-born subjects to proceed to or reside in or pass through any place or places declared open, without any licence whatever.—§ 83.

Laws against illicit Residence to be made.—The governor-general shall and is required to make laws or regulations providing for the prevention or punishment of the illicit entrance into or residence in the said territories of persons not authorised to enter or reside therein.—§ 84.

Laws and Regulations to be made for Protection of Natives.—And whereas the removal of restrictions on the intercourse of Europeans with the said territories will render it necessary to provide against any mischief or dangers that may arise therefrom, it is enacted, that the governor-general shall and is required, by laws or regulations, to provide with all convenient speed for the protection of the natives of the said territories from insult and outrage in their persons, religions, or opinions.—§ 85.

Lands within the Indian Territories may be purchased.—It shall be lawful for any natural-born subject of his Majesty authorised to reside in the said territories to acquire and hold lands, or any right, interest, or profit in or out of lands, for any term of years, in such part or parts of the said territories as he shall be so authorised to reside in: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall be taken to prevent the governor-general in council from enabling, by any laws or regulations, or otherwise, any subjects of his Majesty to acquire or hold any lands, or rights, interests, or profits in or out of lands, in any part of the said territories, and for any estates or terms whatever.—§ 86.

No Disabilities in respect of Religion, Colour, or Place of Birth.—No native of the said territories, nor any natural-born subject of his Majesty resident therein, shall, by reason only of his religion, place of birth, descent, colour, or any of them, be disabled from holding any place, office, or employment under the said company.—§ 87.

IV. EAST INDIES, EXTENT, POPULATION, MILITARY FORCE, REVENUE, ETC. (OF BRITISH).

1. *Extent, Population, &c. of British Dominions in Hindostan, and of the Tributary and Independent States.*—The following Table has been framed, though with some very considerable modifications, on the basis of that given in the second edition of Mr. Hamilton's *Gazeteer*. It can, however, be regarded as an approximation only, inasmuch as no means exist of coming at correct conclusions; but we incline to think that it is nearly as accurate as it can be made with the present imperfect means of information.

Table of the Area and Population of the Modern States of Hindostan.

	British Square Miles.	Population.
Presidency of Bengal, including Agra - - - - -	306,000	69,710,000
Nadras Presidency - - - - -	131,000	15,000,000
Bombay Presidency, including territories in the Deccan, Sattarah, &c. acquired since 1815 - - - - -	76,000	8,800,000
Territory acquired from the Ameers of Scinde in 1842 - - - - -	50,000	1,000,000
Total under the British government - - - - -	563,000	94,210,000
<i>British Allies and Tributaries.</i>		
The Nizam - - - - -	96,000	10,000,000
The Nagpoor Raja - - - - -	64,000	3,000,000
The King of Oude - - - - -	20,000	2,000,000
The Gulcowar - - - - -	18,000	2,000,000
Kotah, 6,500; Boondee, 2,500; Bopaul, 6,000 - - - - -	14,000	1,500,000
The Mysore Raja - - - - -	27,000	3,000,000

EAST INDIES (EXTENT, POPULATION, ETC. OF BRITISH). 561

Table of the Area and Population, &c. — continued.

	British Square Miles.	Population.
Travancore, 5,000; Cochin, 2,000	7,000	1,400,000
Under the Rajas of Joudpore, Jeypore, Odeypore, Bikanere, Jesselmere, and other Rajpoot chiefs, Holcar, Ameer Khan, the Raw of Cutch, Bhurtpoor, Macherry, and numerous other petty chiefs, Selks, Gondas, Bheels, Coolies, and Cattles, all under British protection	280,000	16,000,000
Total under the British government and its allies	1,089,000	133,110,000
<i>Independant States.</i>		
The Nepaul Raja	53,000	2,000,000
The Lahore Raja	60,000	4,000,000
The dominions of Sindia	40,000	4,000,000
Grand total of Hindostan	1,342,000	143,110,000

India beyond the Ganges.— British Acquisitions in 1824 and 1825.

	British Square Miles.	Population.
Countries south of Rangoon, consisting of half the province of Martaban, and the provinces of Tavoy, Ye, Teassarim, and the Mergui Isles	12,000	51,000
The province of Arracan	16,250	250,000
Countries from which the Burmese have been expelled, consisting of Assam and the adjacent petty states, occupying a space of about	34,000	500,000
Total	62,250	801,000

In 1805, according to the official returns, the total number of British-born subjects in Hindostan was 31,000. Of these, 22,000 were in the army as officers and privates; the civil officers of government of all descriptions were about 2,000; the free merchants and mariners who resided in India under covenant, about 5,000; the officers and practitioners in the courts of justice, 300; the remaining 1,700 consisting of adventurers who had smuggled themselves out in various capacities. Since the date above mentioned, no detailed reports have been published; but there is reason to believe that even now the total number of British subjects in Hindostan does not exceed 45,000, if so many; the removal of the restrictions on their settlement having, as already seen, added very few to the previous number.

The army required for the protection of these extensive provinces, and for the retaining them under due subordination, is, with the exception of that of Russia, probably the largest standing army in the world. In 1796, it amounted to 55,000. In 1837, it consisted of the following effective force, in British, native, and contingent native troops:—

British.		Native.		Contingent Native.	
Staff	205	Staff (British)	312	Scindia	15,000
Horse artillery	1,297	Cox. officers of British birth	8,416	Oude	10,000
Foot do.	4,254	Officers of Hindoo birth	3,416	Nizam (cavalry, 10,000)	23,000
Engineers	77	Engineer corps	3,468	Bazoda (cavalry, 12,000)	7,000
Cavalry	2,285	Horse artillery	1,092	Bazoda (cavalry, 3,000)	1,000
Infantry	15,379	Foot do.	5,822	Nagpore (infantry, 4,000)	3,000
Officers	755	Artillery train	1,258	Holcar	1,000
		Cavalry	14,229	Travancore, 5 battalions	4,000
		Infantry	184,331	Cochin, 1 do.	6,000
	25,582		137,758	Mysore	4,000
				Cutch and Joudpore	6,000
Total	25,582	British	25,582	Rajpoot (cavalry, 7,500)	24,500
		Native	137,758	States (infantry, 27,000)	3,000
		Native subsidiary	111,500	Batavia	3,000
			225,810		111,500

The expense of the Anglo-Indian army, according to reports laid before parliament in 1830, was as follows:—

Engineer corps	£ 33,874	Medical staff	£ 132,490
Artillery	606,463	Pioneers	74,511
Cavalry	1,070,834	Commissariat	614,327
Infantry	4,124,079	Sundries	2,178,887
Staff	481,490		
		Total	9,373,955

It may be observed by the way, that this sum of 9,374,000*l.* is more than double the sum annually expended on the Prussian army! It is necessary, however, to observe, that very large additions have been made within the last half dozen years to the military force in India.

Each presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the supreme government has a general authority over the armies of all the presidencies. Among the native troops, called *Sepoys* (esquires), there is a complete intermixture of tribes, castes, and creeds; but the infantry consists chiefly of

Hindoos, and the cavalry of Mohammedans. The Hindoo soldiers of the Bengal army are mostly of high caste, more than 20,000 being Brahmins. The soldiers of the Madras army are principally Rajpoots, and are reckoned the most persevering hardy warriors; but they observe their religious customs so strictly, that the least deviation from them might have a dangerous effect on their discipline. The Bombay soldiers are the most easily disciplined, being generally of the lower castes. The troops are not raised by any forced levy or conscription; military service in India is quite voluntary, and is so popular that each regiment has a number of supernumeraries ready to take the place of such soldiers as die or leave. The men are well paid, clothed, and fed. The corporal punishment of Hindoos is not allowed; imprisonment being, in the Indian as in the French army, the principal engine by which discipline is kept up. In the former, however, the disgrace attending dismissal from the service, which is acutely felt by the native soldiers, tends powerfully to preserve discipline and obedience. Each company has an English captain, lieutenant, and ensign, as well as a native captain, lieutenant, and ensign. The latter, however, are under the command of the British officers; so that, with the title and uniform of officers, they are, properly speaking, only subalterns or non-commissioned officers. The Indian army, when not in the field, is in camp the whole year through, — a system which has contributed, in no small degree, to bring it to its present state of efficiency.

A good deal of conflicting evidence was given before the parliamentary committees, in 1852 and 1853, as to the real state of the Indian army, and the degree of dependence to be placed on it. On the whole, it would seem to be superior, in respect of discipline and organisation, to any native army ever previously embodied in India; and so long as its discipline and efficiency are maintained unimpaired, it is no doubt fully adequate to provide for the tranquillity of India, and its defence against Asiatic invaders. But the Sepoys are decidedly inferior both in physical strength and mental energy to Europeans; and such being the case, we cannot help, how reluctantly soever, agreeing in opinion with those who think that the Indian army could not make any effectual opposition to any thing like a corresponding force of French, Russian, or other European troops.

In direct and authoritative control, the dominion of the British government extends much further than that possessed by any prior dynasty, whether Pagan or Mogul; yet the latter, so long as they abstained from persecution, had nothing to apprehend from the religion of the Hindoos; and history proves that the commotions which agitated the Mohammedan monarchies chiefly arose from their internal dissensions and national disputes. Neither does it appear that any prior conquerors ever employed disciplined corps of their own countrymen in defence of their own sovereignty, although they had to contend with one very numerous tribe — the Hindoo; while the British, more advantageously situated, have two to put in motion against each other, and in process of time may raise up a third. Each foreign invader certainly favoured his own countrymen; but it was by bestowing on them places and high appointments, which excited envy, without essentially strengthening his domination. Besides, therefore, total abstinence from persecution, the British government, in a powerful corps entirely European, and totally distinguished from the natives by colour, language, and manners, possesses a solidity and consistence much beyond any of the prior Mohammedan dynasties. — (*Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, 2d ed. vol. I. pp. 656—659.)

We incline to think that the greatest danger to our Indian dominions is likely to arise from the disposition, which seems but too prevalent, to extend our conquests into Afghanistan and the central regions of Asia. Such conquests never can be productive of any advantage of any kind whatever; and it is to be hoped that the experience afforded by the disastrous termination of our late expedition to Cabul may suffice to hinder our re-engaging in such attempts. It is impossible, indeed, to vindicate either the justice or the policy of that expedition. The Afghans had done us no harm. Probably it is true that Russian agents were intriguing amongst them; but what had we to fear from them? Supposing these agents had succeeded in the all but impossible task of reconciling the conflicting views and objects of the proud and jealous chieftains of the country, what injury could this have done to us? No one is so absurd as to suppose that the Afghans would have attempted to attack our territories; and it would have been all but impossible for Russia, had she been so disposed, to have sent any considerable force to Cabul. The difficulty and expense of such a march would have been enormous; and even had these been surmounted, we might have occupied the passes leading from Afghanistan to India, and crushed, without difficulty, any army that might have attempted to force them. The truth is, that if Russia entertained the designs attributed to her, we did precisely what she would have most desired. We advanced 1,200 miles from our own frontier, and from our resources, on the road to Russia; and had we remained there, we should have saved the Russians, in the event of their attacking us, the trouble of a lengthened and difficult march; and met them in a lukewarm or unfriendly country, with a severe climate, under circumstances most

favourable to them, and most unfavourable to ourselves. It is not, in fact, easy to say whether our folly or contempt for the rights of others was most conspicuous on this occasion. And the destruction of our army, though principally owing to the gross incapacity of those by whom it was commanded, by making us abandon so perilous and untenable a position, was, on the whole, perhaps, advantageous rather than otherwise. We believe that true policy would have led to our never advancing beyond the desert to the south of the Indus. But it is, at all events, abundantly certain that it would be a good deal worse than foolish to attempt to push our conquests beyond the boundary formed by that river.

2. *Revenue and expenditure of the East India Company.*—The far greater part of the revenue of India is at present, and has always been, derived from the soil. The land has been held by its immediate cultivators generally in small portions, with a perpetual and transferable title; but they have been under the obligation of making an annual payment to government of a certain portion of the produce of their farms, which might be increased or diminished at the pleasure of the sovereign; and which has, in almost all cases, been so large, as seldom to leave the cultivators more than a bare subsistence. Under the Mohammedan government, the gross produce of the soil was divided into equal or nearly equal shares, between the ryots, or cultivators, and the government. We regret we are not able to say that the British government has made any material deductions from this enormous assessment. Its oppressiveness, more than any thing else, has prevented our ascendancy in India; and the comparative tranquillity and good order we have introduced, from having the beneficial effects that might have been anticipated. The cultivators throughout Hindostan are proverbially poor; and till the amount of the assessment they are at present subject to be effectually reduced, they cannot be otherwise than wretched. They are commonly obliged to borrow money, to buy their seed and carry on their operations, at a high interest, on a species of mortgage over the ensuing crop. Their only object is to get subsistence—to be able to exist in the same obscure poverty as their forefathers. If they succeed in this, they are satisfied. Mr. Colebrooke, whose authority on all that relates to India is so deservedly high, mentions that the quantity of land occupied by each ryot, or cultivator, in Bengal, is commonly about 6 acres, and rarely amounts to 24; and it is obvious that the abstraction of half the produce raised on such patches can leave their occupiers nothing more than the barest subsistence for themselves and their families. Indeed, Mr. Colebrooke tells us that the condition of ryots subject to this tax is generally inferior to that of a hired labourer, who receives the miserable pittance of 2 annas, or about 3 pence, a day of wages.

Besides the land revenue*, a considerable revenue is derived in India from the monopolies of salt and opium, the sale of spirituous liquors, land and sea customs, post-offices, &c. Of these monopolies, the first is, in all respects, decidedly the most objectionable. Few things, indeed, would do more to promote the improvement of India, than the total abolition of this monopoly. An open trade in salt, with moderate duties, would, there can be no doubt, be productive of the greatest advantage to the public, and of a large increase of revenue to government. The opium monopoly, though less objectionable than the last, is, notwithstanding, very oppressive. It interferes with the industry of the inhabitants; those who are engaged in the cultivation of opium being obliged to sell their produce at prices arbitrarily fixed by the Company's agents. It would be worse than useless to waste the reader's time, by pointing out in detail the mischievous effects of such a system; they are too obvious not to arrest the attention of every one.

Abstract View of the Revenues (exclusive of commercial Assets realised in England) and Charges of India, for the Years 1838-39, 1839-40, 1840-41, 1841-42, including the Charges disbursed in Great Britain.—(Part. Paper No. 367, Sess. 1843.)

Revenues.	1838-39.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42, partly estimated.
Bengal	Co.'s Rupees, 7,00,00,000	Co.'s Rupees, 6,39,60,118	Co.'s Rupees, 6,63,41,505	Co.'s Rupees, 7,05,35,000
Agri	4,06,61,737	3,87,48,622	3,75,64,979	4,17,38,074
Madras	3,78,93,899	3,77,16,000	3,80,08,989	3,83,07,938
Bombay	1,51,30,878	1,54,16,485	1,94,97,831	1,86,76,100
Total ordinary revenues	16,34,95,383	15,51,81,823	16,14,13,384	16,93,44,703
At 2s. per sicca rupee	15,327,694	14,519,615	15,139,505	16,476,068
Bengal—Extraordinary Receipts	1,73,378	68,750	16,168	59,918
Madras	483	2,159	1,117	640
	1,73,857	70,909	14,045	59,518
At 2s. per sicca rupee	18,299	5,647	1,517	5,896
Total ordinary and extraordinary revenues and receipts	16,343,991	14,549,268	15,153,922	16,979,723
Deficiency	-	9,107,680	1,753,347	8,191,875
	15,788,911	16,688,928	16,887,230	18,073,688

* For an account of the land revenue system of British India, see art. INDIA (BRITISH), in *Geog. Diet.* † 444,920, in 1838-39, and 25,980, in 1839-40.

564 EAST INDIES (EXTENT, POPULATION, ETC. OF BRITISH).

Abstract View of the Revenue and Charges of India, &c. — continued.

Charges.	1838-39.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42., partly estimated.
	<i>Co.'s Rupees.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rupees.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rupees.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rupees.</i>
Bengal	7,74,57,393	8,41,63,992	8,17,40,128	8,74,08,437
AGRA	86,29,471	78,38,592	79,29,904	89,59,900
Madras	8,28,81,619	8,84,91,650	8,51,56,468	8,66,19,125
Bombay	9,07,01,110	9,92,91,032	9,09,74,716	9,14,80,775
Total ordinary charges of India	13,96,69,489	15,04,85,199	15,41,23,494	16,25,48,257
At 2s. per sicca rupee	13,094,014	14,102,762	14,861,354	15,438,899
Bengal - Extraordinary Charges.	4,412	17,000	—	—
At 2s. per sicca rupee	4,412	17,000	—	—
Total ordinary and extraordin. charges	13,091,427	14,103,966	14,861,354	15,238,899
Charges disbursed in England	2,615,465	2,978,966	2,925,776	2,834,785
Total charges of India	15,709,892	16,687,932	16,887,130	16,073,685
	15,768,892	16,682,942	16,887,330	16,073,685

Note. — The results here exhibited of the revenues and charges, for the years 1838-39 and 1839-40, differ from those inserted in the accounts laid before parliament last year, in consequence of the expenses of the mission, and masses for the support of Schah Noojah being now included as charge.

We subjoin, in illustration of the sources whence the Indian revenue is derived, and the amount of each, with the expenses of collection, &c., the following

Account of the Gross and Nett Revenue of the Bengal Presidency, in the Years 1838-39, 1839-40, 1840-41, and 1841-42.

Revenues.	1838-39.	1839-40.	1840-41.	Estimate, 1841-42.
	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>
Mint duties	5,94,629	5,16,225	3,07,830	3,59,844
Post-office collections	6,99,679	6,48,736	5,53,154	6,28,781
Stamp duties	19,44,889	21,02,837	21,86,003	22,55,000
House tax in Calcutta	2,15,773	2,07,723	2,05,867	2,05,867
Racee duties in ditto	1,89,138	2,24,974	1,69,935	3,40,300
Judicial fees and fines	6,65,017	6,94,766	7,04,155	6,98,420
Miscellaneous civil receipts, including nett gain by exchange operations	29,25,128	30,30,000	18,39,239	12,25,461
Land revenue	3,46,291,170	3,57,064,020	3,46,646,634	3,73,253,411
Raya and Akbarry ditto	93,16,439	91,10,738	90,66,987	84,64,139
Miscellaneous receipts in the revenue department	7,78,398	2,42,979	1,15,218	91,800
Receipts from the territory ceded by the Burmese	15,13,850	15,59,574	16,98,598	15,87,964
Customs	29,44,604	29,91,530	48,21,619	50,11,232
Mals of salt	2,15,90,378	1,88,62,180	1,93,26,867	1,93,21,127
Sale of opium	1,56,60,178	78,43,861	1,19,78,089	1,37,71,483
Marine and pilotage receipts	7,01,642	5,97,450	6,81,213	7,71,244
<i>Revenues of Prince of Wales' Island, Singapore, and Malacca.</i>				
Prince of Wales' Island	1,23,807	1,49,271	1,71,058	2,01,175
Singapore	2,67,820	2,60,091	5,27,130	4,69,869
Malacca	51,470	57,919	59,151	59,931
Subsidy received from the Nagpore government	4,99,097	4,67,991	5,56,389	7,34,275
Tributes from the Nizam, Rajpoot, and other states	6,43,331	6,51,649	6,01,000	6,00,000
Interest on arrears of revenue, &c.	10,64,818	18,15,959	10,64,444	11,09,103
	6,90,441	3,10,448	4,23,813	4,52,890
Total gross revenues	3,75,51,593	7,83,82,945	8,43,44,586	8,88,28,494
Deduct allowances and assignments payable out of the revenues in accordance with treaties or other engagements	21,26,810	17,61,978	30,58,743	19,43,178
	8,51,27,783	7,66,17,967	8,12,85,843	8,68,85,316
<i>Charges of collecting the Revenues.</i>				
	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>	<i>Co.'s Rs.</i>
Charges of collecting the stamp duties	1,18,305	1,13,233	1,27,124	1,39,200
Ditto land, Raya and Akbarry revenues	42,86,965	41,06,813	44,17,661	43,40,448
Ditto customs	4,13,766	4,43,134	4,77,389	6,77,034
Costs and charges of salt, including payments made to the French and Danish governments under convention	39,43,070	40,09,484	41,39,792	32,96,869
Costs and charges of opium	66,92,188	43,85,995	54,89,972	58,96,972
Total net revenue of Bengal presidency, after payment of allowances and assignments, and charges of collection	7,00,09,469	6,32,60,118	6,63,41,585	7,05,23,895

It is seen from these statements that the territorial revenues at the disposal of the East India Company equal those of the most powerful monarchies. At present they are greater than those of either Russia or Austria, being inferior only to those of Great Britain and France. Still, however, the Company's financial situation is not very prosperous. Vast as their revenue has been, their expenditure appears, in most instances, to have been still larger; and at this moment their debts in India, exclusive of their bond debts at home, amount to about 32,000,000.

The following account shows the balance between the revenue and expenditure of our Indian dominions, from 1814-15 to 1839-40.

Account exhibiting the Total Revenues and Charges of the British Possessions in India, in each Year from 1814-15 to 1839-40, both included, exclusive of the Expense of the Expedition into Afghanistan. — (Compiled from the *Parl. Paper* No. 574. Sess. 1842.)

Years.	Total Gross Revenue of India.	Cost of Collection and Payments thereon.	Total Net Revenue of India.	Total Charges in India, Rs. & Annas, &c.	Payments on account of India.	Total Charges exclusive of Expense of Collection, &c.	Nett Surplus of Revenue over Expenditure.	Nett Surplus of Expenditure over Revenue.
1814-15	14,664,213	3,742,868	11,921,347	10,773,582	1,955,618	14,167,400	—	245,855
1815-16	14,617,709	3,725,717	11,891,992	11,637,965	1,448,196	15,079,791	—	1,187,929
1816-17	15,234,061	3,831,518	12,402,543	11,686,590	1,856,007	15,142,597	—	635,064
1817-18	15,577,537	3,748,568	12,828,969	12,410,359	1,281,775	15,791,612	—	965,637
1818-19	16,201,556	3,708,961	13,492,595	13,204,333	1,307,416	16,801,473	—	1,408,665
1819-20	16,203,763	3,064,233	13,141,530	13,275,710	1,369,422	14,668,002	—	1,426,472
1820-21	18,111,241	3,516,555	14,594,686	15,166,224	1,999,944	14,456,868	135,898	—
1821-22	18,169,741	4,070,106	14,111,635	14,851,702	1,849,217	15,997,869	419,876	—
1822-23	19,814,908	4,880,081	14,934,827	14,966,459	2,006,199	14,918,658	—	149,377
1823-24	18,254,597	3,889,640	14,364,957	14,775,957	1,895,616	15,670,916	—	883,959
1824-25	17,606,761	4,438,998	13,167,763	13,169,833	1,653,942	16,001,535	—	2,831,828
1825-26	17,809,789	4,120,198	13,689,591	16,364,721	1,983,995	18,188,009	—	4,398,418
1826-27	19,574,017	4,280,556	15,293,461	15,339,510	2,436,157	17,977,504	—	2,317,024
1827-28	19,413,544	4,740,789	14,672,755	15,639,974	2,031,210	17,691,191	—	3,018,925
1828-29	19,485,982	4,485,356	14,999,626	14,610,021	1,965,555	16,611,578	—	1,091,101
1829-30	16,517,192	3,899,249	12,617,943	13,339,262	1,715,094	15,254,688	110,199	—
1830-31	16,887,142	4,566,998	12,320,144	12,974,380	1,446,581	14,420,261	—	307,861
1831-32	16,817,937	4,280,440	12,537,497	12,974,783	1,476,635	14,233,578	—	2,694,823
1832-33	18,413,176	4,574,962	13,838,214	14,677,109	1,827,536	14,160,645	—	264,233
1833-34	18,016,017	4,411,233	13,604,784	14,492,549	1,498,637	15,356,180	49,396	—
1834-35	16,698,585	4,646,598	12,051,987	14,169,842	2,169,908	14,364,304	—	194,477
1835-36	19,445,071	4,116,464	15,328,607	11,875,890	2,409,814	15,985,991	1,441,513	—
1836-37	19,665,621	4,685,291	14,980,330	11,743,269	2,610,847	15,354,118	—	1,346,224
1837-38	19,520,670	4,683,378	14,837,292	11,891,538	2,301,448	14,895,893	790,218	—
1838-39	20,211,559	4,483,966	15,727,593	15,036,455	2,615,465	15,645,980	—	318,227
1839-40	18,238,719	4,316,104	14,312,615	13,969,718	2,378,968	16,368,684	—	1,848,069

N.B.—The charges defrayed in England on account of India, include dividends on Company's stock, about 630,000*l.* a year; interest on home bond debt; invoice value of stores consigned to India; half pay, and other retired allowances, &c.

However much this account of the financial concerns of our Eastern empire may be at variance with the exaggerated ideas entertained respecting it, as well by a large proportion of the people of England as by foreigners, it will excite no surprise in the mind of any one who has ever reflected on the subject. It is due, indeed, to the directors, to state, that though they have occasionally acted on erroneous principles, they have always exerted themselves to enforce economy in every branch of their expenditure, and to impose and collect their revenues in the best and cheapest manner. But though they have succeeded in repressing many abuses, it would be idle to suppose that they should ever entirely succeed in rooting them out. How can it be imagined, that strangers sent to India, conscious that they are armed with all the strength of government, placed under no real responsibility, exempted from the salutary influence of public opinion, fearing no effectual exposure through the medium of the press, and anxious only to accumulate a fortune, should not occasionally abuse their authority? or that they should manage the complicated and difficult affairs of a vast empire, inhabited by a race of people of whose language, manners, and habits they are almost wholly ignorant, with that prudence, economy, and vigilance, without which it were idle to expect that any great surplus revenue should ever be realised?

An Account of the Public Debts, bearing Interest, outstanding at the several Presidencies in the East Indies, on the 30th April, 1841; specifying the Rates and Annual Interest thereon.—(*Parl. Paper* No. 367. Sess. 1843.)

BENGAL.			MADRAS.			BOMBAY.		
Registered Debt.	Co.'s Rupees.	Rates of Interest.	Co.'s Rupees.	Rates of Interest.	Co.'s Rupees.	Rates of Interest.	Co.'s Rupees.	Rates of Interest.
Loans - - -	1,91,03,793	5 ½ cent.	6,84,227	6 ½ cent.	2,62,131	6 & 8 ½ cent.	18,408	6 ½ cent.
Ditto - - -	15,79,35,478	5 ½ cent.	7,99,964	5 ½ cent.	80,04,758	6 & 8 ½ cent.	4,42,765	5 ½ cent.
Ditto - - -	15,53,26,484	4 ½ cent.	50,13,659	4 ½ cent.	4,16,933	4, 5, & 6 ½ cent.	19,689	4 ½ cent.
Company's rupees	29,37,65,555	- -	1,35,37,050	- -	86,85,722	- -	4,81,964	- -
Loan transferred from Fort Marlboro' - - -	17,047	10 ½ cent.	7,705	10 ½ cent.	- -	- -	- -	- -
Treasury notes - - -	1,10,71,336	aver. 4 ½ cent.	5,17,778	aver. 4 ½ cent.	38,89,017	6 ½ cent.	2,33,341	6 ½ cent.
Civil and medical funds - - -	1,48,26,789	6 ½ cent.	6,89,698	6 ½ cent.	- -	- -	- -	- -
Miscellaneous deposits - - -	6,45,474	4 & 5 ½ cent.	27,655	4 & 5 ½ cent.	44,69,670	5 ½ cent.	2,23,483	5 ½ cent.
Company's rupees	52,02,98,901	- -	1,49,73,796	- -	6,22,828	4 ½ cent.	11,913	4 ½ cent.
N. WARRAN PROVINCES (late Agrs Presidency). Temporary Loans - - -	31,35,181	5 ½ cent.	1,66,756	5 ½ cent.	5,05,700	4 ½ cent.	22,763	4 ½ cent.
Ditto - - -	24,000	4 ½ cent.	1,560	4 ½ cent.	93,51,815	- -	5,04,523	- -
Miscellaneous deposits - - -	2,00,000	4 ½ cent.	8,000	4 ½ cent.	54,16,78,269	- -	1,81,24,899	- -
Company's rupees	55,40,131	- -	1,65,516	- -	438,051,068	- -	21,511,709	- -
At 2 <i>½</i> sicca rupee - - -			At 2 <i>½</i> sicca rupee - - -			At 2 <i>½</i> sicca rupee - - -		

EBONY (Ger. *Ebenholz*; Du. *Ebbenout*; Fr. *Ebène*; It. *Ebano*; Rus. *Ebeno-wooderwo*; Lat. *Ebenus*), a species of wood brought principally from the East. It is exceedingly hard and heavy, of great durability, susceptible of a very fine polish, and on that account used in mosaic and other inland work. There are many species of ebony. The best is that which is jet black, free from veins and rind, very compact, astrigent,

partly
mated.
Rupees.
1,09,487
1,39,900
1,19,145
1,80,775
5,48,257
238,899
—
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—
5,238,899
2,834,786
6,073,685
5,073,685

From those in-
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0-40, 1840-41,

Estimate,
1841-42.
Co's Rs.
5,09,844
6,28,781
22,53,000
3,40,300
6,39,498
12,23,461
27,73,211
42,68,439
91,806
15,27,564
60,11,338
1,96,051,127
1,37,11,381
7,71,744

3,429
1,000
4,448
5,313
4,286
8,743
5,843

7,34,475
8,10,000
11,09,100
6,82,890
8,68,28,494
19,45,178
6,68,83,516

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ndia, exclusive

expenditure of

and of an acrid pungent taste. This species (denominated by botanists *Diospyrus Ebenus*) is found principally in Madagascar, the Mauritius, and Ceylon. The centre only of the tree is said to be valuable. In 1837, 2,160 cwt. of ebony, of the estimated value of 1,275*l.* were exported from the Mauritius. Besides the black, there are red, green, and yellow ebony; but the latter are not so much esteemed as the former. Cabinet makers are in the habit of substituting pear-tree and other woods dyed black, in the place of genuine ebony; these, however, want its polish and lustre, though they hold glue better. The price of ebony varies, in the London market, from 5*l.* to 20*l.* a ton. The quantities imported are but inconsiderable.

EEL (*Anguilla muræna* of Linnæus), a fish, the appearance of which is too well known to require any description. It is a native of almost all the waters of Europe, frequenting not only rivers but stagnant pools. Eels are, in many places, extremely abundant, particularly in Holland and Jutland. Several ponds are appropriated in England to the raising of eels; and considerable numbers are taken in the Thames and other rivers. But a large portion of the eels used in England are furnished by Holland. Indeed, very few except Dutch eels are ever seen in London; and even Hampton and Richmond are principally supplied by them. The trade is carried on by two Dutch companies, who employ in it several small vessels, by means of which the market is regularly and amply provided for. A cargo of eels is supposed to average from 15,000 to 20,000 lbs. weight, and is charged with a duty on importation of 13*l.* In 1840, this duty produced 920*l.*, showing that 72 cargoes had been imported that year. — (*Report on Channel Fisheries*, p. 93, &c.)

EGGS (*Fr. Œufs*; Lat. *Ova*) are too well known to require to be described. They differ in size, colour, taste, &c. according to the different species of birds that lay them. The eggs of hens are those most commonly used as food; and form an article of very considerable importance in a commercial point of view. Vast quantities are brought from the country to London and other great towns. Since the peace they have also been very largely imported from the Continent. At this moment, indeed, the trade in eggs forms a considerable branch of our commerce with France, and affords constant employment for a number of small vessels. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantity of foreign Eggs entered for Consumption during each of the Three Years ending with 1842, and of the Produce of the Duties on the same.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Number.	Number.	Number.	£ s d.	£ s d.	£ s d.
96,110,108	91,944,327	89,347,823	34,450 8 0	33,524 8 9	32,577 8 7

The duty is at the rate of 1*d.* per dozen, or 10*d.* per 120.

France supplies, at an average, about 80,000,000 of this immense importation, the rest being principally brought from Belgium. Now, supposing the eggs supplied by the former to cost at an average 4*d.* per dozen, it follows that the people of the metropolis and Brighton (for it is into them that they are almost all imported) pay the French about 111,111*l.* a year for eggs: and supposing that the freight, importers' and retailers' profit, duty, &c. raise their price to the consumer to 10*d.* a dozen, their total cost will be 277,777*l.*

EJOO. See GOMURI.

ELEMI, a resin obtained from the *An.gris elemifera*, a tree growing in different parts of America, Turkey, &c. It is obtained by wounding the bark in dry weather, the juice being left to thicken in the sun. It is of a pale yellow colour, semi-transparent; at first softish, but it hardens by keeping. Its taste is slightly bitter and warm. Its smell, which is, at first, strong and fragrant, gradually diminishes. It used to be imported in long roundish cakes, wrapped in flag leaves, but it is now usually imported in mats and chests. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

ELEPHANTS' TEETH. See IVORY.

ELM (*Ulmus*), a forest tree common in Great Britain, of which there are several varieties. It attains to a great size, and lives to a great age: its trunk is often rugged and crooked, and it is of slow growth. The colour of the heart-wood of elm is generally darker than that of oak, and of a redder brown. The sap-wood is of a yellowish or brownish white, with pores inclined to red. It is in general porous, and cross-grained, sometimes coarse-grained, and has no larger septa. It has a peculiar odour. It twists and warps much in drying, and shrinks very much both in length and breadth. It is difficult to work, but is not liable to split, and bears the driving of bolts and nails better than any other timber. In Scotland, chairs and other articles of household furniture are frequently made of elm wood; but in England, where the wood is inferior, it is chiefly used in the manufacture of coffins, casks, pumps, pipes, &c. It is appropriated to these purposes because of its great durability in water, which also occasions its ex-

tensive use as piles and planking for wet foundations. The naves of wheels are frequently made of elm; those of the heavy wagons and drays of London are made of oak, which supports a heavier weight, but does not hold the apokes so firmly. Elm is said to bear transplanting better than any other large tree. — (*Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, pp. 201—203, &c.)

ELSINEUR, or HELSINGOR, a town of Zealand, on the Sound, about 22 miles north of Copenhagen, lat. 56° 2' 17" N., lon. 12° 38' 2" E. Population, in 1854, 7,122. Adjacent to Elsinour is the castle of Cronborg, which commands the entrance to the Baltic by the Sound. All merchant ships passing to and from the Baltic are obliged, under the reservations mentioned below, to salute Cronborg Castle by hoisting their colours when abreast of the same; and no merchant ship is allowed to pass the Sound without clearing out at Elsinour, and paying toll, according to the provisions in the treaties to that effect negotiated with Denmark by the different European powers. The first treaty with England having reference to this subject is dated in 1450. The Sound duties had their origin in an agreement between the King of Denmark on the one part, and the Hanse Towns on the other, by which the former undertook to construct light-houses, landmarks, &c. along the Cattegat, and the latter to pay duty for the same. The duties have since been varied at different periods. Ships of war are exempted from the payment of duties. Most maritime nations have consuls resident at Elsinour. The following plan of the Sound is taken from the Admiralty Chart, compiled from Danish authorities. — (See opposite page.)

Navigation of the Baltic. — This is exhibited in the following Account of the Number of Ships that have passed (going and returning) the Sound at different Periods, from the Year 1777 to the present Time, specifying the Countries to which they belonged.

Countries.	1777.	1780.	1785.	1790.	1814.	1816.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	Ships, 1842.	Tonnage in 1842.
British Islands	2,528	1,701	2,537	3,771	5,319	1,848	3,597	5,188	4,274	2,472	4,071	5,319	618,809
Holland	2,567	2,038	1,971	3,098	553	878	453	630	1,247	854	947	912	90,498
Sweden	1,773	1,880	2,136	4,301	2,755	3,042	1,513	1,219	1,085	991	1,264	1,280	147,230
Denmark	1,110	1,341	1,787	1,286	478	787	732	803	744	752	874	1,068	106,800
Prussia	472	671	1,358	299	1,053	1,014	1,554	2,321	2,353	1,388	2,996	2,311	462,220
Russia	47	43	114	6	435	369	242	285	405	625	914	761	190,220
United States	-	-	80	44	-	168	163	330	152	126	143	113	33,900
France	-	-	89	125	12	16	63	72	199	146	229	240	39,480
Spain	-	10	-	19	32	22	9	-	8	7	18	4	500
Hanover	-	-	20	66	6	55	463	458	415	645	388	768	78,898
Imperial (Austria)	-	231	174	161	248	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dantzio	-	-	-	-	-	396	517	602	664	563	962	821	105,082
Mecklenburg	-	-	-	81	18	9	47	34	56	48	85	140	12,693
Odenburg	-	-	-	79	89	28	45	64	121	89	71	96	9,480
Lubeck	-	78	92	79	89	28	45	64	121	89	71	96	9,480
Bremen	-	82	146	176	177	248	111	59	94	43	39	60	7,200
Hamburg	-	24	31	51	104	56	36	15	31	25	23	18	1,800
Rostock	-	79	104	101	335	39	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Payenburg	-	-	-	-	2	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal	-	12	23	28	28	42	48	2	9	-	0	2	300
Courland	-	2	7	25	22	9	-	-	-	6	-	-	-
Venice	-	-	-	4	(1,116)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	-	-	-	-	83	794	918	351	1,302	1,337	2,025	1,860	217,690
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	8	885
Italian states	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21	62	59	8,550
Totals	9,033	8,291	10,268	9,742	8,186	8,871	10,926	13,160	13,212	10,255	15,662	15,937	2,117,388

The statements in this Table for the years 1777 and 1780 are taken from the valuable work entitled *Journal de Deux Français au Nord de l'Europe* (1. 360.); the other years are taken from the returns sent by the British consul at Elsinour, printed in various parliamentary papers. We have seen no two returns of the shipping that pass the Sound that quite agree, though the differences are not very material. The British consul first began to send returns of the tonnage in 1831.

A General Summary of the British Shipping employed in the Baltic Trade through the Sound during the Year 1842, stating the Number of Vessels and the Amount of their Tonnage, and distinguishing British and Foreign Ports.

Trade to the Baltic.				Trade from the Baltic.			
From what Ports proceeding.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Crews.	To what Ports destined.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Crews.
From the ports of the U. Kingdom (In ballast, 204 ships; with coals and cinders, 752 ships; with salt, 117 ships; with iron, iron rails, and iron ore, 73 ships; with herring, 78 ships; with general cargoes, 137 ships; with rye, 19 ships; with cotton, 30 ships; with sugar, 7 ships; with logwood, 3 ships; with stores, ashes, herricks, tides, tar, clay, oil, tin plates, and horses, 16 ships.)	1,696	296,535	14,418	To ports of the U. Kingdom (In ballast, 30 ships; with wheat, 564 ships; with linseed and rapeseed, 174 ships; with barley, oats, peas, tares, beans, seeds, grain, pulse, flour and provisions, 82 ships; with flax, 369 ships; with hemp, 145 ships; with timber, balks, and staves, 158 ships; with deals, 140 ships; with rape, linseed, oil-cakes, and bones, 50 ships; with cordage and iron, 31 ships; with general cargoes, 51 ships.)	1,695	295,438	14,408
From foreign ports	103	17,637	870	To foreign ports	25	4,162	212
Totals	1,799	314,212	15,290	Totals	1,720	299,597	14,620



References to Plan. — A, Castle and light of Cronborg; B, Elsinæur; C, Helsingborg in Sweden; D, the bank called the Lappen; E, the bank called the Diæken. The soundings are in fathoms.

A general Statement of the Export Trade in British Ships, from Great Britain to the several Ports of the Baltic through the Sound in 1842, as compared with the Average Extent of the Ten Years from 1831 to 1840, and the Year 1841.

Years.	Cargoes of British and Colonial Products and Manufactures.		Cargoes of Coals.		Cargoes of Salt.		Cargoes of Herrings.		Total of Cargoes.		Ships in Ballast.		Total of Ships to the Baltic with Cargoes, and in Ballast.	
	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.	Ships.	Tonn.
10 years, from 1831 to 1840	201	43,197	382	75,429	78	19,517	35	3,789	696	133,172	1,002	161,808	1,698	318,280
1841	275	53,292	689	126,534	108	17,817	66	5,711	1,128	203,334	672	115,475	1,800	318,829
1842	275	57,494	722	130,527	117	21,080	78	7,250	1,192	216,533	604	80,204	1,696	296,533

Pilotage, &c. — When ships come into Elsinæur roads, or lie wind-bound near the Lappen, watermen come on board to inquire if the master will be carried ashore to clear; and in rough weather it is always best to make use of their services, their boats being generally very safe. The Danish authorities have published a Table of rates, being the highest charge that can be made by the boatmen upon such occasions;

but captains may bargain with them for as much less as they please. Most ships passing the Sound take on board pilots, the signal for one being a flag at the fore-topmast-head. Those bound for the Baltic take a pilot at Elsinour, who either carries the ship to Copenhagen, or Drago, a small town on the south-east extremity of the island of Amack, where she is clear of the grounds. Those leaving the Baltic take a pilot from Drago, who carries the ship to Elsinour. Sometimes, when the wind is fresh from the E. and S.E., it is impossible for a ship bound for Copenhagen or the Baltic to double the point of Cronborg; and in that case an Elsinour pilot is sometimes employed to moor the ship in the channel towards Kull Point on the Swedish shore, in lat. 56° 18' 3" N., lon. 12° 26' E. But this does not often happen, as the Danish government employ steam tugs for the special purpose of bringing ships, in adverse weather, round Cronborg Point. The pilots are regularly licensed, so that, by employing them, the captain's responsibility is at an end. Their charges are fixed by authority, and depend on the ship's draught of water. We subjoin a copy of the tariff applicable to pilots taken on board at Elsinour to carry ships to Drago, Copenhagen, or Kull Point, with the sums both in silver and in Rixbank paper dollars.

Pilotage from the 1st of April to the 30th of September.

Ships drawing Water.	Fwt.	Dragoo.				Copenhagen.				Kull Point.			
		Silver.		Paper.		Silver.		Paper.		Silver.		Paper.	
		R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.
Under -	8	14	24	15	40	11	35	11	70	7	53	7	76
Between -	8 and 10	14	30	14	30	12	61	13	15	8	73	9	53
	10-11	15	16	13	56	10	6	10	26	6	63	6	83
	11-12	14	34	14	34	9	11	35	7	76	7	76	
	12-13	15	84	16	36	11	94	12	34	6	44	6	69
	13-14	17	92	17	74	12	81	13	33	9	30	9	63
	14-15	18	64	19	66	14	67	14	69	10	10	10	60
	15-16	19	90	20	54	14	85	16	31	11	16	11	60
	16-17	20	91	20	92	15	76	16	30	12	7	12	65
	17-18	21	68	21	83	16	83	17	32	13	13	13	66
	18-19	22	68	22	45	16	56	19	16	15	84	14	80
	19-20	23	68	23	68	17	61	19	15	16	44	15	84
	20-21	24	71	24	61	17	24	19	44	17	8	17	54
	21-22	25	72	25	72	18	0	21	78	18	39	19	19
	22-23	26	80	26	80	19	0	22	77	19	80	19	80
	23-24	27	80	27	80	20	0	23	76	20	74	20	74
	24-25	28	85	28	85	21	0	24	36	21	54	21	54

Pilotage from the 1st of October to the 30th of March.

Ships drawing Water.	Fwt.	Dragoo.				Copenhagen.				Kull Point.			
		Silver.		Paper.		Silver.		Paper.		Silver.		Paper.	
		R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.	R. s. dr.	Sch.
Under -	8	14	24	15	40	11	35	11	70	7	53	7	76
Between -	8 and 10	14	30	14	30	12	61	13	15	8	73	9	53
	10-11	15	16	13	56	10	6	10	26	6	63	6	83
	11-12	14	34	14	34	9	11	35	7	76	7	76	
	12-13	15	84	16	36	11	94	12	34	6	44	6	69
	13-14	17	92	17	74	12	81	13	33	9	30	9	63
	14-15	18	64	19	66	14	67	14	69	10	10	10	60
	15-16	19	90	20	54	14	85	16	31	11	16	11	60
	16-17	20	91	20	92	15	76	16	30	12	7	12	65
	17-18	21	68	21	83	16	83	17	32	13	13	13	66
	18-19	22	68	22	45	16	56	19	16	15	84	14	80
	19-20	23	68	23	68	17	61	19	15	16	44	15	84
	20-21	24	71	24	61	17	24	19	44	17	8	17	54
	21-22	25	72	25	72	18	0	21	78	18	39	19	19
	22-23	26	80	26	80	19	0	22	77	19	80	19	80
	23-24	27	80	27	80	20	0	23	76	20	74	20	74
	24-25	28	85	28	85	21	0	24	36	21	54	21	54

N.B.—When a pilot is taken on board at Drago to carry a ship to Elsinour, the charge is the same as that given under the first head of the above column.—(*Archives de Commerce*, tome III, p. 145.)

The *Monde, Poids, et Mesures* of Elsinour are the same as those of Copenhagen (which see), except that the rixdollar is divided into 4 *orts* instead of 6 *marcs*; thus, 24 skillings make 1 *ort*; and 4 *orts* 1 rixdollar.

The Sound duties are, however, levied and paid in specie rixdollars of 48 stivers, 9/4 such specie rixdollars constituting 1 marc fine silver, Cologne weight. Taking silver at 6s. 3d. an ounce, the value of the specie rixdollar is 4s. 6d., and taking it at 6s. an ounce, it is worth 52 7/2d., or 4s. 4 1/2d. nearly. In either case the value of the silver may be taken at 1:1d.

The following tariff of the Sound duties, subscribed on the 28th December, 1841, was drawn up by Danish, British, and Swedish-Norwegian commissioners, in strict accordance with the tariff of Christianopolis of the 13th August, 1845, and with the conventions and schedules concluded and agreed upon in London, on the 15th of May, and at Elsinour on the 15th and 23d of August, 1841.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS TO THE TARIFF OF SOUND DUTIES.

I.—Of the Sound Toll in general.

The import levied at Elsinour, known for ages by the appellation of the Sound-toll, involves two distinct branches; namely, the duty payable upon the ship, and that upon the cargo.

The duty payable upon the ship is confined to the light and beacon money, stipulated by a separate act in 1647; but in order to defray the expense of several new lights, necessary for the better navigation of the Sound and the Cattagat, and which are in progress of erection, the above rate has been augmented 100 per cent, by § 1. of the Convention on the Sound-toll with Great Britain of the 13th August, 1841, to the effect that merchant vessels of 20 tons, or upwards, and vessels of 10 tons, or upwards, which, when in ballast, are henceforth to contribute two and a quarter specie dollars, and when with cargo four and a half specie dollars, each time they are passing, either through the Sound or the two Belts. Vessels of a smaller burden, however, pay on a reduced scale, viz.:

Tons.	Sp. d. st.	Sp. d. st.
from 10 to 100	— With cargo 0	In ballast 0 84
90 to 99	— 0	— 1 0
80 to 89	— 0	— 1 0

Vessels under 10 tons are entirely exempt from light dues.
Remark.—Vessels laden with bricks, tiles, or a quantity of goods under six tons, or twelve tons, are considered in ballast, and charged light money accordingly. As to liquids, one half is held good to eight hogsheads. Of dry goods by the weight, one last (of 12 tons) is reckoned at twelve ship-

pounds, and by barrel measure at so many barrels as constitute a last of each of the respective articles, according to the Tariff. A ship laden with 8 horses or black cattle, however, is considered as carrying half cargo.

Besides the light and beacon money, several other expenses fall to the charge of the ship, such as customs fees and poor-money, of which an account will be rendered hereafter.

The duty payable upon goods, or the Sound duty, properly speaking, is levied according to the Tariff of the Dredoud Custom-house of the 23d December, 1841, (an official translation of which will be found annexed,) and which has been made to include—

1. The articles enumerated and rated in the Tariff of Christianopolis of the 13th August, 1845.

2. Articles the rates of which were agreed upon in London, on the 15th May, 1841.

3. Articles the rates of which were sanctioned by § 3. and 4. of the Convention of the 15th August, 1841.

All goods and wares not specified in the above-mentioned Tariff pay duty ad valorem, in conformity with the stipulation in § 3. of the treaty between Denmark and the United Netherlands of the 10th June, 1701.—(Conf. § 23. and 24. of the present regulations.)
 A toll, upon the same principles as at the Sound, and denominated "stream toll," is levied upon all vessels and goods which pass through the large and little Belts, in the former case it is collected at Nyborg, in the island of Funen, and in the latter, at Frederice, in Jutland.

The following objects, viz. ballism and coin of gold and silver (chain and aglets in lumps); clay of various kinds, with the exception of pipe-clay; coals and cinders; coals and other ships' materials proceeding from a wreck; fresh fish, with the exception of oysters and salmon; garden-stones, used household furniture and wearing apparel; paring staves; quicklime and limestone; small staves for fishing-nets; and food for fuel, are exempt from duty at the Sound and Belts by ancient usage. The vessels laden with such objects, however, are liable to the light dues, stipulated for vessels with a cargo.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 11.)

The duty, light, and beacon money, fees, and other dues at the Sound and Belts are levied and paid in specie rixdollars of 48 stivers, of which 24 rixdollars constitute one mark, fine silver, Cologne weight. The notes issued by the Danish National Bank, however, are received in payment at the current exchange.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 12.)

N.B.—Taking silver at 5s. 2d. an oz., the value of the specie dollar is 6s. 5½d.; and taking it at 5s. an oz., it is worth 5s. 7½d., or 4s. 4½d. nearly: in either case the value of the silver may be taken at 1½d.

II. Of the Oresound Customs House, and its Rules and Regulations, chiefly founded upon Treaties with foreign Nations; and of the Privileges enjoyed by such Nations at the Sound and the two Belts.

The following are the rules and regulations, chiefly founded upon the existing treaties, and acted upon by the Customs, as respects the shipping and trade at the Sound and the two Belts.

In order to secure prompt despatch to the vessels clearing the dues, the officers are instructed to be in daily attendance at the Custom-house at the following periods, viz.:

<i>a. For the reception of papers,</i>	
from the 1st April to the 31st Oct.	from 4 o'clock, a.m. to 10 o'clock, p.m.
in the month of March	from 6 o'clock, a.m. to 3 o'clock, p.m.
and during the rest of the year	from 6 o'clock, a.m. to 6 o'clock, p.m.

<i>b. For the delivery of Sound-passes,</i>	
from the 1st April to the 31st Oct.	from 6 o'clock, a.m. to 6 o'clock, p.m.
in the month of March	from 7 o'clock, a.m. to 3 o'clock, p.m.
and during the rest of the year	from 8 o'clock, a.m. to 6 o'clock, p.m.

(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 13.)
The fees to be levied by the customs officers, conformably with the conventions of the 13-25th August, 1841, between Denmark on the one part, and Great Britain, Sweden, and Norway on the other, have been determined and fixed as follows:

<i>a. Fees payable upon each Clearance.</i>	
To the director, commissioner, and officers of the Customs, to be charged in one sum, under the head of "Customs Fees," 3 specie dollars (Rp. 3).	
Vessels proceeding to and from ports or 40 tons, are charged according to the following reduced scale, viz.:	
From 10 to 50 tons burden, Sp. d. 0 12 stivers.	
50 to 30	0 11
30 to 40	0 2 0

Those under 10 tons are exempt from customs fees.
Remark.—Where the credit alluded to in section 7 of § 19, is made use of, 12 stivers are charged in addition for the stamped paper on which the bond is written.

b. Fees payable in special Cases.

1. To the Inspector or searcher, where the vessel does not bring a Custom-house clearance or other official documents, proving her national character and stating the nature of her cargo, sp. d. 1 6 s.

Remarks.—Where the clearances from foreign ports, and namely, the English "Vocalluing bills" of privileged ships in ballast, are defective, owing to their not stating either the ship's national character or the circumstances of her sailing in ballast, such defect may be amended by the master's declaration before the consul of his nation, in which case no Inspector's fee is charged.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 21.)

At unprivileged vessels are liable to be searched, they are charged the Inspector's fee each time they clear.
2. To the interpreter, for reporting the cargoes for entry at the Custom-house, and for rendering a detailed statement of the duty, showing the proportion to be contributed and paid by each of the shippers or consignees in particular; namely, for any number of bills of lading, not exceeding four 32 stivers.

And in addition for each bill of lading above four 4 —
For reporting ship in ballast, or laden with coals 12 —
Remark.—Where no bills of lading are on board, the Interpreter is entitled for any number not exceeding six caskets 32 stivers.

And for each casket over and above that number 4 —
Vessels proceeding from the countries under-mentioned, are exempt from the Interpreter's charges, and pay only eight stivers for their pass, where the master requires to have the same returned; viz. from Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Finland (with the exception of Wiborgh and Fredrikshamn); from the Baltic provinces of Russia (with the exception of St. Petersburg and Narva); and from Mecklenburg (with the exception of Rostock).—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 22.)

Remark.—Vessels from these countries proving to measure under 50 tons are not even subject to the charge for the copy of their pass.

Besides the fees above enumerated, another expense is entailed upon the shipping, which is a poor-money, stipulated for the benefit of the poor by § 5. of the Convention of the 15th June, 1701, and amounting to one specie dollar, payable where the clearance of a vessel is demanded and granted on Sundays, and on the holidays lawfully appointed, as well as out of the office hours, mentioned in § 9.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 23.)

Remark.—Vessels proving to measure under 30 tons pay only 34 stivers poor-money.
Such vessels (if they are, moreover, charged the British poor-money of one specie dollar, or 5s. sterling, as a voluntary contribution on the part of the owners, in consideration of certain advantages and relief, granted by the clearing-houses at Elsinore, in the event of shipwreck, to the masters and crews of such vessels as have contributed to the same.

Regular acquittances for the duty, light, and beacon-money, as well as for the customs fees and other dues at the Sound and Belts, are given by the Customs on the respective passes.

Remark.—The above acquittances on the pass for the amount of duty should, strictly speaking, not be given in the gross, but in detail, and for each description of goods in particular; however, in order not to delay the despatch of vessels longer than is absolutely necessary, a detailed statement is only delivered to shipmasters upon their express demand, when previously made to that effect.—(Conv. 15th June, 1701, § 6; and 15th Aug. 1841, § 25.)

Each merchant vessel calling at Elsinore is to hold her colours; that is to say, when coming from the northward; previously to passing Cronborg Castle; and when coming from the southward, previously to passing the Danish guardship stationed in the roads.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 15.)
Every merchant vessel is liable to the payment of duty, when on her voyage she passes the Custom-house line; by which is understood, in the Sound, an imaginary line drawn across the Sound between the flag-battery of Cronborg Castle and the northern point of Helsingborg; in the large Belt, the line between Halskov and Knudshoved, in Funen; and in the little Belt, the line between Siris, in Funen, and the old Ferry-bridge at Frederik in Jutland.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 14.)

The general rules established by the preceding article is subject to the following modifications:
a. Vessels which, by stress of weather, seek the roads for shelter, or come in to wait for convoy, but return again, are entirely exempt from clearance and duties.

b. Vessels, which call for coals and return again, without either loading or unloading, are not subject to the payment of any duty, except light-money and customs fees inwards.

c. Vessels carrying a pendant, and reporting to have goods on board, although liable to duty upon the same, if articles of their cargo as heretofore, are exempt from light-money and all Customs fees.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 15.)

For the preservation of public order, the shipmasters or other persons who come on shore at Elsinore for the purpose of clearing the Sound dues, are to proceed immediately from the landing-places to the Custom-house, there to deposit their papers and to make the declarations required of them, in order that so delay may occur in the prompt despatch of their vessels.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 16.)

Goods and wares on which the Sound and stream duty has once been paid, and which are necessarily returned either through the Sound or the Belts in consequence of shipwreck or by some other reason, are not liable to duty a second time; the parties, however, will have to afford the necessary explanation on the subject, to the satisfaction of the Customs.

The same is observed with regard to vessels which, after having cleared the dues from tempestuous weather, or contrary winds, are obliged to return to the roads.—(Conv. 15th June, 1701, § 8.)

The duty on goods is invariably computed according to the weights and measures of the country or place where the cargo has been shipped; to the effect that, finassuch as a ton in England is 20 cwt, or 2240 lbs., the duty is likewise calculated upon 2240 lbs.; and a kilogramme in France, and a Netherlands pound in Holland, being equal to 2 French and 2 Dutch pounds respectively, they are likewise taken at 2 pounds at the Sound and Belts; and so in similar cases.—(Conv. 15th June, 1701, § 5; and 15th Aug. 1841, § 12.)

Where the ship's papers, therefore, state weights and measures other than those customary at the place where the goods have been laden, a reduction of the same to the weights and measures of the place of shipment is made previously to the duty being charged.

The nations trading through the Sound and Belts are considered by the Customs in the light either of privileged or of unprivileged nations. The former class includes all those whose governments are connected with Denmark by means of commercial treaties, containing stipulations about the Sound toll.
In consequence thereof, the ships (including the goods laden therein) of the following states are treated upon the footing of the most favoured nations, among which are Great Britain and most other powers.

Privileged nations pay duty according to the customs tariff of the 25th of December 1841; but on all articles not named therein, they are charged 1 per cent. ad valorem according to the value of such articles at their respective places of shipment.
Unprivileged nations, although equally privileged as regards duty according to the tariff, are charged 1½ per cent. upon all articles subject to the ad valorem duty.

Remark.—Unprivileged ships, when bound to the port of Rosock, laden with 6 tons of goods and upwards, are liable, besides, to the Rosock duty upon the cargo of 41 specie dollars, from which the most favoured nations have been exempted by § 10. of the Convention of 15th August, 1841.
With regard to the discriminating duties which are levied upon certain wares, as well as upon various descriptions of corn from certain ports of the Baltic, when laden in unprivileged ships, refer to § 20. sections 4, 5, 6, and to Table III. at the end of the tariff.

The duty ad valorem, above alluded to, is charged upon the value or according to the prices, stated in the ship's papers; but where they do not afford the information required, or where the statements made prove to be incorrect, the customs officers are instructed to make the actual prices at the place of shipment; where those, however, are not obtainable, it is left to the officers to act according to the best of their judgment and upon principles of equity. Where the value of the goods actually shipped is not stated in the endorsement of the paper called "casket," and no regular invoice accompanies the same, the value stated in front of such casket is adopted by the Customs in the first instance for calculating the duty payable.—(Conv. 15th Aug. 1841, § 17, 18.)

	Silver.		Silver.
Brunen are balks.		Deals, from 18 to under 21 feet, the shock of 60 -	34
Buckram of all sorts, the 4 pieces (50 sils being reckoned to the piece)	5	under 18 feet in length, the 1,000 towels, " " o doz. "	16
Buckskins. See Skins.		Doekers, the last (24 1/2 urrels to the last)	16
Buck wheat, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12	Down, the ship lb.	86
Buff leather. See Leather.		Downs, the 4 pieces -	9
Buldan canvas is charged as boldavet. See Linen.		25 sils being reckoned, to the piece	6
Bullion, gold and silver, duty free.		Drillings from Russia, the 100 arshins	9
Bulloaks, each	18	from other places, the 3 pieces -	9
Buntins, the 4 pieces (25 sils being reckoned to the piece)	60	25 sils being reckoned to the piece	8
Butter, the last (12 barrels to the last)	60	Drugges (a woolen stuff) pays as single says.	
The number of barrels being unknown, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.		By the different species under Wood.	
Caffs (figured plush), the 2 pieces (25 sils being reckoned to the piece)	9	Elephants' teeth, the 100 lbs.	9
Calamint, the ship lb.	6	Fethers, the ship lb.	9
Calamus, the 100 lb.	6	Felt, pays as single says.	
Calamint or drillings from Russia, the 100 arshins	6	hats, when in casks	12
Calf skins, raw, salted, and dried, the 10 dickers or 100 skins	12	in other packages, and per dozen, or by the piece, they pay ad valorem.	
of the weight of 3 lbs. nett and upwards, each, pay as skins. See Hides.		Figs, the 400 lbs.	9
Calico, printed or dyed, is charged ad valorem.		Fish, salted, viz.:-	
Cambrets, the 2 pieces (25 sils being reckoned to the piece)	5	oil, the last of 6 casks (12 barrels to the last)	60
Cambrets of cotton, are charged ad valorem.		mackerel, salmon, and sturgeon, the last of 6 casks (12 barrels to the last)	60
of them, the 4 pieces (25 sils being reckoned to the piece)	15	The number of barrels being unknown, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
Camel's hair, the 50 lb.	6	herring (the last (12 barrels to the last)	24
Cannery seed, the last of 6 casks (12 barrels to the last)	36	Aberdeen fish, cod or torak, and all other sorts of salted fish not particularly enumerated, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12
Candian of tallow and wax. See Tallow and Wax.		The number of barrels being unknown, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
Candian oils, the 100 lbs.	18	Do. dry or hard, viz.:-	
Capers in pipes and hopteads, the pipe or 2 hopteads - in smaller casks, or in boxes and cases or similar packages, are charged ad valorem.		Rounders and whittings, the last of 20,000	12
Cardamoms, the 100 lb.	18	cod, lab-bob, ling, skate, split stockfish, sponders or spuren, torak, and all other sorts of dried fish not particularly enumerated, the last	30
Cashia frutal, the 100 lb.	9	or by the piece, without weight or measure, the 1,000 pieces	12
Cashia lignea, the 100 lb.	9	12 ship lb. 120 wags 100 wahl are reckoned to the last.	
Cattle bones, the ship lb.	12	raw and reeking (cut out of the back of the holtib), the last of 8 hopteads or 12 barrels	36
Coal, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12	Do. smoked:-	
By weight the last is reckoned at 12 ship lb. nett.		bettings, red, the last of 12 barrels, or 20 strew	5
Chalk, white, raw, and in lumps, duty free.		salmon is charged ad valorem.	
(12 barrels to the last.)		pickled:-	
ground or crushed is charged ad valorem.		river lampreys, the barrel (12 barrels to the last)	5
red and black		fresh, duty free, with the exception of oysters and lobsters, which are charged ad valorem.	
Cheese, the ship lb.	4	Flagstaff under 7 palms, the 5	6
Chestnuts, the boltsau	1	of other dimensions, are charged as mats.	
The number of boltsaus not being mentioned, 100 lb. nett weight is reckoned to the boltsau.		Flannel, the 4 pieces (25 sils being reckoned to the piece)	5
Cider and similar fruit wines, including must, the hoptead of 20 rettes	12	Flax, rough, viz.:-	
Cinders, duty free.		Class 1, denominated - clean flax; Drunse; Eathollen; if not further described; fine; Flandera; Heiligh; Hollands; Knocken; Livonia, where the sort is not stated; Marienburg; meiste; Narva, where the sort is not stated; Notabene, with the exception of Prussian Notabene flax; Petermoster; Podolian; Polish; Maklitter; St. Petersburg, where the sort is not stated; 2 and 3; denominated - 1st and 2d sort; the ship lb.	12
Cinabar, the 100 lb.	24	Class 2, denominated - Badabuten; common; Coustland; cut of all sorts; Parken; Notabene flax from Prussia; Oberlands; ordinary; Ferman; Prussian, if not particularly described; Rapen; Ruten; Roostsch, although reported 2d sort in the pass; 4, 5, and 6 band; 6 band, and 3; sort; the ship lb.	8
Cinnamon, the 100 lb.	36	dressed, the ship lb.	
Claywood. See Wood.		Flour and meal of all sorts, viz.:- of wheat, rye, barley, oats, &c., the last (12 barrels to the last)	21
Clay of all sorts, duty free, except pipe-clay, which pays ad valorem.		Whenever the weight is reported, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
Cloth, woolen, English, Dutch, and fine, the 8 pieces - cases, Bocoib, Amsterdam, Flemish, and French, the 16 pieces	36	Frankincense, the 100 lb.	9
Cloth, woolen, stout or coarse Dutch, if not particularly described, and the 100 lb.	36	Freestone (used for building, is charged, ad valorem.	5
25 sils of all sorts of woolen cloth are reckoned to the piece.		Fringes of silk, the 2 lb.	21
Clothes, old and new. See Apparel, Wearing.		of wool or flock fringes, the 6 lbs.	15
Cloves, the 100 lb.	36	Galipot, the 100 lb.	2
Club sticks, the long hundred of 48 sticks	48	Galls, the 200 lb.	9
Goals of all sorts, including coils and cinders, duty free.		Gause is charged as craps.	
Coal pitch, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12	Ginger, dry, the 100 lb.	12
Coal tar, the last (12 barrels in the last)	12	preserved, the 100 lb.	24
Coal or cobalt ore, the 100 lb.	36	Glassware, etc.:-	
Cochineal, the 100 lb.	6	bottles, empty, the shock of 60	1
Cocoa, the 100 lb.	6	the set or 2 pieces	12
Cod fish. See Fish.		The preceding are common green bottles of the capacity of 3 quarts and under; the larger and superior sorts are charged ad valorem.	
Codlins of flax and hemp, the 10 ship lb.	36	window glasses, the 6 boxes or crates	15
Coffee, the 100 lb.	6	drinking glasses from Venice, in boxes, the box	9
Coin of gold and silver, duty free.		Drinking glasses from other places than Venice, or reported by the dozen, are charged ad valorem.	
Cony wool, the 5 lb.	21	Gloves, Russian, the 1/200 pair	36
Copper, wrought and unwrought, the ship lb.	6	All other descriptions of gloves are charged ad valorem.	
live. See Fish.		Glove, the 100 lb.	6
Copperas (vitrif), the ship lb.	6	Goats' hair, common, the ship lb.	9
blue, the ship lb.	6	Angora, Levant, and Persian is charged as camel's hair.	
Cordage, namely-cables, cable yarn, rigging and hawser	18	Goldwire (a kind of stuff no longer in use, the two pieces)	8
1st size, the ship lb.	36	Goods, not enumerated in the present tariff. See Merchandise.	
old, used, the 5 ship lb.	6	The number of barrels being unknown, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
proceeding from a wreck, duty free.		Grindstones, any duty free.	
Cordovan. See Leather.		Iron, viz.:-	
Coriander seed, the 200 lb.	3	back wheat, the last (12 barrels to the last)	18
Cork wood in bundles, the 5 bundles	6	belly groins, peeled, shelled, and bulled barley, the last (12 barrels to the last)	30
In other packages, pay ad valorem.		oat, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12
Corns, all, pay ad valorem.		The number of barrels being unknown, 200 lbs. nett weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
Cotton wool, the 100 lb.	18	Eye-grit (superior buck wheat groats), the 100 lb.	2
Cotton cloth, white, common, the 8 pieces	15		
25 sils being reckoned to the piece.			
manufactures of it so far as they are not particularly enumerated, or included in the descriptions mentioned in the present tariff, pay ad valorem.			
Coutlers are charged according to dimensions, as Swedish and Norway spars.			
Cows, each	18		
Grape, the 2 lb.	6		
Culshis, the 100 lb.	8		
Curranes, the 6	8		
Cumin seed, the 100 lb.	9		
Curranis, the 200 lb.	9		
Cypress boxes, the package of 12 pieces	9		
Damask of silk, the 4 pieces	9		
of linen, the 3 pieces	6		
of wool, the 4 pieces	6		
25 sils of damask are reckoned to the piece.			
Dates, the 100 lb.	9		
Deals and deal ends of ash, beech, lime, maple, and oak. See Planks.			
of fir and pine, viz.:-			
Prussian, the shock of 60	36		
from other places, of the length of 21 feet and upwards, the shock of 60	36		

	Silver.		Silver.
Onions, the last (12 barrels to the last) -	10	Rackcloth. See <i>Linen</i> .	
Oranges, fresh of all sorts, the box, without regard to the number of pieces contained therein (50 boxes to the last) pickled, are charged as pickled lemons.	1	Raffron, the 5 lbs.	9
Organic silk. See <i>Silk</i> .		Rackcloth, the 4 pieces or rolls (50 silts being reckoned to the piece)	10
Orpiment, the 100 lbs.	6	aid, used in paper-mills, is charged ad valorem.	
Osmunda. See <i>Iron, Spices, and Metals</i> .		Rails, Lonsbury, the last of 12 barrels	26
Oxgall. See <i>Silk</i> .		all other, the last (12 barrels to the last)	94
Oxymel, the 5 reams	10	Railrope, the 100 lbs.	6
<i>N. B.</i> The number of bales being reported without the number of reams, 10 reams are reckoned to each bale.		Ranunculus. See <i>Carry-roots</i> .	
Parings and postboard are charged ad valorem.	3	Raromet, the 2 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	15
Parrot's grains, the 100 lbs.	3	Rasensilla, the 100 lbs.	15
Passment ware, such as lace, fringes, cords, span buttons, &c., when of gold or silver, the lb.	6	Batins of cotton are charged ad valorem.	
Passment ware, when of iron, the lb.	5	of silk, the 2 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	9
Peas, the 5 lbs.	10	of wool, the 4 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	9
Peas, the last (12 barrels to the last)	6	of piece	9
Peas, the last (12 barrels to the last)	6	Sarcel (Serratalia), the ship lb.	9
Pepper, the 100 lbs.	12	Says or Hayata-yarn. See <i>Yarn</i> .	
Perlimbaco wood. See <i>Drywoods</i> , under <i>Wood</i> .		Says or says, 100 double, the 2 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	9
Peruvian is charged as serge.		single, the 4 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	9
Perry. See <i>Cider</i> .		Seeds. See the several species.	
Pilement, red, from Sweden, the last (12 barrels to the last)	45	Sempiterno is charged as Serge.	
Danzig, or Danzig red, the ship lb.	9	Serge, the 4 pieces (25 silts being reckoned to the piece)	3
other pieces. See <i>Merch</i> .	9	Seriton is charged as single say.	
Pimento, the 200 lbs.	9	Ship's materials proceeding from a wreck, duty free.	5
Pipe staves. See <i>Silvers</i> .		Shirts, woolen, the 10 pieces	5
Pitch, great brand, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12	Shovel-shafts are charged as common spars.	
small brand, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12	Shrine, painted, the basket	16
all. See <i>Oil</i> .		Rhuncus, the 400 lbs.	9
Planks and boards, viz. —		Riema-earth. See <i>Cohrs</i> .	
of maple and lime, of 21 feet and upwards in length, the shock at 60	30	Roan, raw and unspun, of all sorts, the 100 lbs.	5
ditto ditto, from 12 feet to under 21 feet, the shock or 60	24	lines, forest or forest, and original, the 10 lbs.	5
ditto ditto, under 12 feet, the 1,000	30	wrought: passment ware and ribbons of silk and forest with gold and silver, the lb.	5
Plant ends and dead ends of maple and lime are charged in the same proportion as the preceding.	45	ribbons and fringes of silk and forest, silk cords, embroidery and sewing-silk, passment ware of silk, with similar articles wrought of silk, the 2 lbs.	5
of oak, beech, and ash, the shock or 60	45	stuffs not otherwise enumerated and described, the 2 pieces (25 silts of silk stuffs are reckoned to the piece)	9
of oak, beech, and ash, the shock or 60	45	Stockings. See <i>Stockings</i> .	
of greater length. See <i>Planks and Boards of Oak, &c.</i> , at above.	12	manufactures of, in so far as they are not particularly specified, or included among the sorts enumerated in the present tariff, pay duty ad valorem.	
of fir and pine. See <i>Doas of Fir and Pine</i> .		Stiver in bars, duty free.	
<i>Remark.</i> — Planks of fir and pine, square, of 9 inches and upwards in thickness (denominated tall planks or thick stuff) employed in ship-building, are charged as balls of fir. But under 9 inches in thickness, they pay as fir deals of 21 feet and upwards, namely, 30 silts per shock of 60.		Skins, viz. —	
Plaster stones, duty free.		Beaver, 100	48
(40 cubic feet to the last.)		back, the 10 dickers, or 100 skins	18
Plates, iron or black, the ship lb.	6	calabash, or squirrel, the 1,000	26
copper brass, and metal, are charged as copper, brass, and metal.		cat, wild and tame, the 1,000	26
white iron or tin plates, pay ad valorem.		cat, wild and tame, the 1,000	26
Palm of fir and pine pay according to their length and thickness as spars.		fox, the 100	36
of birch and alder, pay as common spars.		grenet, the 1,000	36
Poppy-seed is charged as canary-seed.		goat, the 1,000	36
Porter in hogsheads, the 2 hogsheads	9	kid, the 1,000	36
(1 hhd. from England = 54 gallons; from Sweden, 50 cants.)		lamb, the 1,000	36
in bottles, is charged ad valorem.		martin, the timber of 40	12
Portulac. See <i>Ases</i> .		meter, the 100	26
Potatoes, the 100 barrels (12 barrels to the last)	18	rabbit, black, the 1,000	12
in pipes, the pipe of 200 lbs.	18	grey, the 1,000	12
in other casks, the quality of the prunes not being stated, the 200 lbs.	16	the colour not being specified, the 1,000	12
in boxes, cases, or similar packages, the quality of the prunes not being stated, are charged as French prunes.	9	Roman, the 4 dozen	26
Quarry-stones or sandstones are charged ad valorem.		of the value of 100 specie dollars	26
Quicksilver, the 25 lbs.	18	sheep, the 1,000	36
of other dimensions, are charged as Swedish and Norway spars.		stag and reindeer, the dicker of 10	9
Rabbits in baskets or frails, the 400 lbs.	9	swell, the 100	36
(weight unknown), each basket or frail	1	Furs of all kinds pay ad valorem. See <i>Furs</i> .	
black or current raisins, the 200 lbs.	9	Shinners' wool. See <i>Wool</i> .	
of other sorts, the 100 lbs.	9	Soop, green, the last (12 barrels to the last)	26
Rapessed, the last (24 barrels to the last)	36	The number 1 barrels unknown, 200 lbs. net weight is reckoned to the barrel.	
Rash is charged as bombazens.		white and Spanish, the 100 lbs.	9
Ratens is charged as fine wollen cloth.		scented, is charged ad valorem.	
Reindeer hides. See <i>Skins</i> .		Rods. See <i>Berilla</i> .	
Rhapontic root, the 25 lbs.	9	Spars, viz. —	
Rhubarb, the 25 lbs.	9	of oak, each	3
Ribbons of silk and flower, the 5 lbs.	5	fir and pine) large, exceeding 36 ft. the pair or 2	3
with gold and silver, each, the 5 lbs.	5	of 36 ft. the 2	3
linen or tape, and other ribbons not particularly enumerated and described, the 5 lbs.	3	under 36 ft. or common, the 1,000	10
cotton, are charged ad valorem.		of Swedish and Norway; 9 in. and upwards in thickness, the pair	3
Rile (a kind of spars), from Prussia and Russia, the shock or 60	48	from 7 to under 9 in., the 5	3
from Sweden and Norway, to 6 inches in thickness, the 10 pieces	4	from 5 to under 7 in., the 3	3
of other dimensions, are charged as Swedish and Norway spars.		under 5 in., or common, the 1,000	16
Rice, not being rough and in the husk, the 200 lbs.	9	Repeat-iron, the 100	9
rough and in the husk, denominated paddy or melior, the 400 lbs.	6	Repeat-shafts, the 100	6
(A bushel of paddy is reckoned equal to 45 lbs. nett.)		Repeater. See <i>Sizes</i> .	
Rice-bar, See <i>Spars of Fir and Pine</i> .		Spermaceti oil in train oil	24
Rifle barrels, short, the 12	3	Spirit, the hogshead of 30 galtes	24
Rifle musk. Swedish, the ship lb.	6	Starch, the 300 lbs.	3
(Orchilla and all other rockness is charged ad valorem.		Stavens, viz. —	
Rosette, blue mixed, of 25 silts to the piece, each piece	8	Swedish, the 6 shocks of 60 staves each	1
Rosin, the ship lb.	6	all other sorts, the 48 shocks	26
Rye, the last (20 barrels to the last)	94	The headings belonging to the same are related to staves, and pay duty accordingly.	
See <i>Fleur</i> .		Stave-1 from Russia and Sweden, the ship lb.	12
		from other places, the 100 lbs.	4
		wire. See <i>Wire</i> .	
		Stockings, viz. —	
		of the 50 pair	8
		children's and half, the 100 pair	8
		worsted and woolen, fine woven kersey and sayette, the 10 pair	3
		do. do. children's or half, the 20 pair	3
		course woolen, of all sorts, the 3 dozen pair	1
		of cloth, common, the dozen pair	1
		of silk, the dozen pair	30
		knit, the 50 pair	30
		Stones, small, or pebbles for fishing-nets, duty free, used for hauling, are charged ad valorem.	
		Stones, the 100 feet	3
		flag, the 100 feet	3
		Foot-measure unknown, each stone is reckoned at 2 ft.	
		Storn caps, the 100	12
		Brooming (small herrings) are charged as herrings.	

Coivers.	Reivers.
100 lbs.	84
In hogheads, the hoghead of 150 lbs.	56
Bags, or butchers' bags (later), the 2 ship lbs.	9
Bags, raw, the 100 lbs.	5
Caney and confectiories, the 100 lbs.	18
Refined powder and all others, the 100 lbs.	9
Sugar-bakers' clay dry free.	9
Sword blades, the 100	84
Wills, the 100	8
Wax, the vat or pipe	26
The pipe is reckoned at 1800 lbs. net, and the weight is not reported on computing the duty, where the measure is not reported.	
Tallow, the ship lb.	6
Candles, the ship lb.	6
Tankards or jugs, the dozen	26
Tar, gross head, the last (18 barrels to the last)	18
Tar, small head, the last (12 barrels to the last)	9
Tar, the last (12 barrels to the last)	12
Tar-paving is charged as sail-cloth.	
Tartaric is charged as buck-wheat.	
Thick stuff. See <i>Plaster of Fir and Pine</i> .	
Thread of gold or silver, the lb.	5
silk and flax, or sewing silk, the 2 lbs.	5
Iron, the 50 lbs.	15
cotton, or sewing cotton, the 50 lbs.	15
Ticks. See <i>Bed-linen</i> .	
Tillers, the shock of 60	48
Timber. See <i>Wood</i> , and the different sorts.	
Tin, the ship lb.	5
Tobacco, Virginia or Russian, the ship lb.	5
all other kinds of leaf and manufactured tobacco, the 100 lbs.	4
Cigars, snuff and tobacco stems are charged ad valorem.	
Train oil, 2 hds. (8 hogheads to the last)	9
Trees of fir and pine, round, according to dimensions, as mast.	
Tryp, woolen, the 4 pieces (25 cils to the piece)	5
Turnery, the 100 lbs.	4
Turpentine is charged as soap-stead.	
Turpentine, the ship lb.	9
oil of, is charged ad valorem.	
Veget. fine, the piece (25 cils being reckoned to the piece)	9
half, the 2 pieces (25 cils being reckoned to the piece)	9
Thread, is charged as half-veget.	
Vases, alks, and vases, one each mercury	30
one package or case, value 100 rials each	30
Vergrite, the 100 lbs.	9
Vermilion. See <i>Glass</i> .	
Vinegar of wine, the pipe of 2 hds.	81
of cider do.	9
of beer do. (the hoghead is reckoned at 50 retes.)	9
Vitriol, the ship lb.	9
oil of, is charged ad valorem.	
Wadmel, a coarse woolen cloth, the 4 pieces (25 cils being reckoned to the piece)	5
Waincoat boots, Courland, the 100	18
Prussian, the 100	48
from other places, the 100	48
Wainuts, the last (18 barrels or 36 boisseaux to the last)	12
Wax, the ship lb.	26
Wax candles, the ship lb.	26
Wearing apparel. See <i>Apparel</i> .	
Weigens. See <i>Timber and Wood</i> .	
Weed ash. See <i>Ashes</i> .	
Weld, the ship lb.	9
White oil. See <i>Tin oil</i> .	
Wheat, the last (20 barrels to the last)	48
Hour. See <i>Flour</i> .	
Whetstones, duty free, with the exception of hones or oil-stones, which pay ad valorem.	
White lead. See <i>Lead</i> .	
Wind beams, the 1,000 pieces	16
Windlasses, ships' of iron, the ship lb.	6
of wood, are charged according to dimensions as round timber. See <i>Masts</i> .	
Window glass. See <i>Glass-ware</i> .	
Wines, viz. —	
Italian — Cagliari, Calabria, Leghorn, Mersale, Mesasale, Italian Muscato, Naples, Palermo, Syracuse and all other Italian wines, the butt or pipe	96
the hoghead	48
the anker	8
The following are treated and charged duty as Italian wines: — Cape, Constantia, Corsican, Cyprus, Fayal-Madeira, Funchal, Madeira, Malmsay, not the produce of the Canary Islands, Pico-Madeira and Zante wines.	
Spanish and Portuguese, viz. — Barcelona, Hencilaric, Judo, Canary-wine, Fayal, with the exception of the Canary Islands, Pico-Madeira and Zante wines.	
Fayal-Madeira, Fiquelra, Irtica, liquor wines, the sort not being stated, Lisbon, Malaga, Malaga sack, Mountain, Palm-sack, Pedro-Ximenes, Pico, with the exception of Pico-Madeira, Port, Saut, Sherry or Xeres, Tarragona, Valencian, Tinto, Valencian and all other wines the produce of the Canary Islands, including all Spanish and Portuguese wines, not specified in the present list, when laden in privileged ships, the butt or pipe	72
the hoghead	36
the anker	6
French, viz. — Challawette, Charente, Crotzse, La Flotte, Marennin, St. Martin, Nantes, Poulignen, La Rochelle and Bourdeaux, the hoghead of 30 retes	18
Bordeaux and Libourne, the 5 hogheads of 30 retes each	104
Bayonne, Burgundy, Cahors, Cassi, Cete, Champagny, Dieppe, Havre, Hermitage, Hieres, Marseilles, French Muscato, Fleischer, Fronsac, Rouen, Toulon and all other French wines not specially enumerated and described, including all French wines,	

Wines — continued.	Stivers.
which proceeding from places not in France, pass the Sound and the Belts, the hoghead of 30 retes —	74
denominated Muscato, Mescal, and all kinds of Alenian wine, or Hock, the 5 anns	192
Hungary or Tokay and all other Hungarian wines, the 5 anns	192
In bottles, when laden in privileged ships, the 100 bottles —	24
Wine of copper and brass, the ship lb. —	4
Wine of steel and iron, the 100 lbs. —	4
of steel when in casks or crates, the cask or crate —	24
wood, the ship lb. —	6
Wood, viz. —	
See <i>Laying</i> , Fernambuco and Brazil wood of all sorts, the 100 pieces	30
do. Harwood, Callistow, Campany, Camwood, Flow, Fustick of all sorts, Gallois, Macassar, Japan or Sapan, Logwood, Province and Sandal-wood, the 1,000 lbs.	8
do. Nuxagum or blood-wood, Rio de la Hacha, St. Martin's or Sta. Marta, and Biocchish wood, the 1,000 lbs.	12
or timber for houses and shipbuilding, boat stems and wood for boatbuilding, the 25 pieces	6
do. holt wood of oak and fir, See <i>Balks</i> , cross beams (Riegelholz). See <i>Balks</i> .	
do. cross wood, the shock of 60	24
do. lath-wood, the 100 pieces	8
N.B. Where lathwood is reported in fathoms with the number of pieces, the duty is charged on the number of pieces; but where the latter is not stated, the hoghead is reckoned at 150 pieces.	
do. logs of birch and oak, the 10	9
do. oak, the 53	36
do. quarters of 9 inches and upwards pay as Balks.	
do. quarters under 9 in. in thickness, the 60	94
do. quins and wedges pay the same duty as quarters.	
do. paling boards, square, pay as balks of oak and fir.	
do. paling boards, round, pay as round timber.	
do. round, pays according to dimensions as masts.	
do. stems perforated for pumps and gutters, the 45	36
do. denominated building and ship's timber, crooked timber, half wood, keel wood, knees and long-wood, the 25 pieces	36
do. from Riga, called "Rundbälzer," pays according to dimensions as masts.	
do. denominated "Bausen-bälzer" of oak and fir, pays as balks of oak and fir.	
do. denominated "Höls" pays as do.	
do. ends of ships (Bastholz), the shock of 60	64
used for staves, denominated clap-wood, Dutch, and French wood, bending boards, pipe and rat wood, the long hundred of 48 shocks	48
used for staves, called cooper's wood and stave wood, the 4 shocks	3
See more under the particular heads.	
for fuel, duty free, 9 fathoms to the last.	
Ware, viz. troughs, trays, milk-bases, parringers, and bowls, the 5 shocks, or 300	9
wrenchers and platters, the 3 shocks	9
shovels and scoops, the 10 shocks	9
nails or trunnels. See <i>Nails</i> .	
Wool, viz. —	
Raw wool and shavings, the 2 ship lbs.	9
wool and raw-wool, common wool, spinners' and carron wool, Turkey-wool, and all other sorts of coarse wool, the ship lb.	6
Spanish, and all other sorts of fine wool, English, Scotch, Prussian, and all other sorts of sheep-wool, the quality of which is not particularly described, the ship lb.	9
Wool-cards (hand-cards), the cask of 50 dozen pair	12
(The number of pairs not being stated, 12 lbs. net is reckoned to the dozen pair.)	
Cards used in cloth manufactories (<i>cards tribriques</i>), and fullers' (bailles or tenzeles (<i>cardons à carder</i>)), are charged ad valorem.	
Wool, manufactures of, in so far as they are not particularly enumerated, or included in the various descriptions rated in the present tariff, are charged duty ad valorem.	
Woolen and worsted yarn. See <i>Yarn</i> .	
Yards, sail, from 7 to under 10 palms each	8
Yarn, viz. —	
sail-yarn, spun twine, tarred twine, and rope-yarn, the ship lb.	6
sail-twine, the ship lb.	9
hempen-yarn, fine, 3-2 ship lb.	36
flax and linen yarn, and Eberfelds yarn, the ship lb.	36
Kemp-yarn, linen, and Danetic yarn, when not further described, is charged as flax yarn.	
N.B. — Yarn from the ports of Prussia, being reported in shocks, if the shock is reckoned at 30 lbs. net, or 15 shocks to the ship lb. net.	
cotton or silk, the 100 lbs.	16
cotton embroidering yarn, knitting and sewing yarn, the 50 lbs.	15
Turkey red yarn, the 50 lbs.	18
molain, the 50 lbs.	18
woolen and worsted, or sayette, the 5 lbs.	3
liver-theads and sewing-silk. See <i>Threads</i> .	
Zinc or spelter, the 100 lbs.	8

The following statements are subjoined to the Tariff of Tolls: —
 1. Where the Sound tariff, on rating any specific article, distinguishes between fine and ordinary quality, and the ship's

papers do not report to which of the two the article belongs, the duty is always charged according to the rate imposed upon

the superior article, unless it may be inferred from the value stated in the ship's papers that the goods are really of an inferior kind.

2. Where the duty is payable per shipment, such shipment is intended to denote a quantity, as respects goods from Russia and Sweden, of 400 lbs. from Denmark and Norway, of 200 lbs. and from all other places, of 500 lbs.

3. With regard to timber, the duty on round timber is computed according to its dimensions, and on planks, deals, and boards (in so far as the duty is imposed upon a certain length), according to foot measure, without considering the denominations by which the several descriptions of timber may be reported in the ship's papers, in such manner that the foot and inch measure of the country where the cargo has been shipped is invariably made the basis for calculating the duty, and when the ship's papers report a foreign measure other than that actually in use at the place of shipment, it is raised by the customs to the latter measure, previously to the duty being charged.

4. Where the number of pieces is not specified in the ship's papers for such manufactured goods as are taxed in the tariff by the piece, such goods are presumed to be of a length of 20 or 25 c's per piece, according to quality, as mentioned in the tariff under the head of each particular article. Where, however, both the number of pieces and of c's are stated, the duty is preferably charged upon the former, it being only

charged upon the latter where the number of pieces is unspecified.

In compliance with these principles,	
(1st) Danish s'ls are reckoned respectively at 3 and 4 pieces.	
— Danish s'ls do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— Norway s'ls do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— Russian s'ls do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— Russian s'ls do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— Norwegian s'ls do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— English yards do.	do. 3 — 4 —
— French toises do.	do. 4 — 5 —

5. The duty upon spirits is always charged upon the quantity contained in the casks without regard to the denominations by which those latter may have been reported to the effect which those latter may have been reported to the effect (that the measure in vells, gallons, litres, or as the case may be, is adopted for computing the duty).

6. The duty is charged upon the nett weight of the articles liable to the duties. Where, therefore, the ship's papers only state the gross weight, the following rates are allowed:—viz., 4 per cent. upon goods in bags, packages, bundles, serons, bales, &c., and 10 per cent. upon acids in boxes, cases, crates, casks, &c., with the exception, however, of honey, resin, and linseed oil in casks, on which 17 per cent. is allowed.

7. As stipulated by 1st. of the Conventions of the 15th and 20th August 1841, the duty is chargeable upon the weights and measures of the places where the cargoes or goods liable to the duties, have been shipped.

EMBARGO, an order issued by the government of a country to prevent the sailing of ships.

EMERALD (Fr. *Émeraude*; Ger. *Smaragd*; It. *Smeraldo*; Lat. *Smaragdus*; Sp. *Esmeralda*), a precious stone in high estimation. It is distinguished from all other gems by its peculiar emerald green lustre, varying in intensity from the palest possible tinge to a full and deep colour, than which, as Pliny has truly stated, nothing can be more beautiful and pleasing; *nullius coloris aspectus juvenilior est*. It emulates, he continues, if it do not surpass, the verdure of the spring; and the eye, satiated by the dazzling glare of the more brilliant gems, or wearied by intense application, is refreshed and strengthened by the quiet enlivening green of the emerald. In Pliny's time, the best came from Scythia. Those met with in modern times do not often exceed the size of a walnut. Some of a much larger size, and perfect, have been found, but they are extremely rare. Nero used one as an eye-glass in surveying the combats of the gladiators. Hitherto it has always been found crystallised. Specific gravity from 2.6 to 2.77. — (*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvii. cap. 5*; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

"For the last two centuries and more, the only country known to yield emeralds is Peru, where they occur in Santa Fé, and in the valley of Yucay. Several large stones have appeared in Europe; about 2 years ago I cut one, exceeding 2 ounces in weight, for the Emperor of Morocco, but it was full of imperfections. The largest specimen known is an hexagonal crystal, nearly 6 inches long, and above 2 in diameter. This gem, however small, is so rarely seen perfect, that 'an emerald without a flaw has passed into a proverb. A fine stone of 4 carats may be valued at 40*l.* or 50*l.*, or even more if very pure. Inferior stones of 1 or 2 carats are sold at from 40*l.* to 70*l.* per carat; and if smaller and defective, at 10*l.* or 15*l.* per carat. Fine emeralds are rare, and in such demand, that a particular sort has been known to have passed into the possession of a series of purchasers, and to have made the tour of Europe in the course of half a century."—*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 104.)

EMERY (Fr. *Emeril*, *Emeri*; Ger. *Smirgel*; It. *Smeriglio*, *Smeriglio*; Sp. *Emeril*; Rus. *Nashdak*; Lat. *Smiris*), a mineral brought to Britain from the Isle of Naxos, where it exists in large quantities. It occurs also in Germany, Italy, and Spain. It is always in shapeless masses, and mixed with other minerals. Colour intermediate between greyish black and bluish grey. Specific gravity about 4. Lustre glistening and adamantine. Emery is extensively used in the polishing of hard bodies. Its fine powder is obtained by trituration. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

ENGROSSING, is "the buying up of corn and other dead victuals, with intent to sell them again."—(*Blackstone*, book iv, esp. 42.) We have shown, in another article, how absurd it is to suppose that this practice should have any injurious influence — (*anté*, p. 399.) But, for a long time, many secretaries that occurred were either entirely ascribed to the influence of engrossers and forestallers — (see **FORESTALLING**) — or, at least, were supposed to be materially aggravated by their proceedings. In consequence, however, of the prevalence of more just and enlarged views upon such subjects, the statutes that had been made for the suppression and punishment of engrossing, forestalling, &c. were repealed in 1772. But notwithstanding this repeal, engrossing continues to be an indictable offence, punishable at common law by fine and imprisonment; though it is not at all likely, were an attempt made, that any jury would now be found ignorant or prejudiced enough to convict any one on such a charge.

ENTRY, BILL OF. See **IMPORTATION**.

ERMINE (Ger. *Hermelin*; Fr. *Hermine*, *Ermine*; Rus. *Gornostoi*), a species of weasel (*Mustela candida* Lin.), abundant in all cold countries, particularly Russia, Norway, Lapland, &c., and producing a most valuable species of fur. In summer, the ermine is of a brown colour, and is called the *stoat*. It is in winter only that the fur has that beautiful snowy whiteness and consistence so much admired. — (See **FUR**.)

ESPARTO, a species of rush, the *Stipa tenacissima* of botanists. It is found in the southern provinces of Spain; and is particularly abundant on all the sterile, uncultivated, and mountainous districts of Valencia. — *Heuckmann (Hist. of Invent. vol. ii. p. 266.*

Eng. ed.) supposes, apparently with good reason, that the *stipa tenacissima* is the plant described by Pliny under the name of *Sparta*, who ascribes its application to useful purposes to the Carthaginians. — (*Hist. Nat. lib. xix. c. 2.*) It is still used for the same purposes as in antiquity, being manufactured into cordage, shoes, matting, baskets, nets, mattresses, sacks, &c. Cables made of esparto are said to be excellent; being light, they float on the surface of the water, and are not, therefore, so liable as hempen cables to be cut or injured by a foul bottom. They are exclusively made use of in the Spanish navy. Esparto is largely consumed in the manufacture of *alpérgates*. These are light shoes worn by the Valencian peasantry, having platted soles made either of esparto or hemp, but principally of the former. They are extremely cheap and commodious in hot climates; and besides being in extensive demand at home, used to be exported in immense quantities to both Indies: but since the emancipation of Spanish America, this trade has greatly fallen off. The Spanish peasantry have attained to wonderful dexterity in the manufacture of esparto. "After having soaked the rush in water, the women and children, without either wheel or spindle, contrive to twist two threads at the same time. This they do by rubbing them between the palms of their hands, in the same manner as a shoemaker forms a thread upon his knees, with this difference, that one motion gives the twist to each thread, and, at the same time, unites them. To keep the threads aunter, the thumb of the right hand is interposed between them; and when that is wanted for other purposes, the left thumb supplies its place. Two threads being thus twisted into one of the bigness of a large crow-quill, 46 yards are sold for little more than *yd.*, the materials being worth about $\frac{1}{10}$ th part of the price." — (*Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. iii. p. 177., see also p. 129.; *Fischer's Picture of Valencia*, Eng. ed. p. 92. and p. 57. &c.)

ESTRICH or **ESTRIDGE** (Fr. *Duvel d'astruche*; It. *Penna matta di strosen*; Sp. *Pumazo de avestruz*; Lat. *Struthionum plumæ molliores*), is the fine soft down which lies immediately under the feathers of the ostrich. The finest is used as a substitute for beaver in the manufacture of hats, and the coarser or stronger sort is employed in the fabrication of a stuff which resembles fine woollen cloth. Estridge is brought from the Levant, Italy, and other parts of the Mediterranean.

EUPHORBBIUM (Ger. *Euphorbiengummi*; Lat. *Euphorbium*; Fr. *Euphorba*; Arab. *Akal-nafzah*), the produce of a perennial plant, a native of Africa, and of many parts of India, &c. It is a concrete gum resin; is inodorous; when first chewed has little taste, but it soon gives a very acrid burning impression to the tongue, palate, and throat, which is very permanent, and almost insupportable. It is imported in serons, containing from 100 to 150 lbs. It is in small, hollow, forked pieces, often mixed with acids and other impurities. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

EXCHANGE. In commerce, this term is generally used to designate that species of mercantile transactions, by which the debts of individuals residing at a distance from their creditors are cancelled without the transmission of money.

Among cities or countries having any considerable intercourse together, the debts mutually due by each other approach, for the most part, near to an equality. There are at all times, for example, a considerable number of persons in London indebted to Hamburg; but, speaking generally, there are about an equal number of persons in London to whom Hamburg is indebted. And hence, when A. of London has a payment to make to B. of Hamburg, he does not remit an equivalent sum of money to the latter; but he goes into the market and buys a *bill* upon Hamburg, that is, he buys an order from C. of London addressed to his debtor D. of Hamburg, requesting him to pay the amount to A. or his order. A., having indorsed this bill or order, sends it to B., who receives payment from his neighbour D. The convenience of all parties is consulted by a transaction of this sort. The debts due by A. to B., and by D. to C., are extinguished without the intervention of any money. A. of London pays C. of ditto, and D. of Hamburg pays B. of ditto. The debtor in one place is substituted for the debtor in another; and a postage or two, and the stamp for the bill, form the whole expenses. All risk of loss is obviated.

A bill of exchange may, therefore, be defined to be an order addressed to some person residing at a distance, directing him to pay a certain specified sum to the person in whose favour the bill is drawn, or his order. In mercantile phraseology, the person who draws a bill is termed the *drawer*; the person in whose favour it is drawn, the *remitter*; the person on whom it is drawn, the *drawee*; and after he has accepted, the *acceptor*. Those persons into whose hands the bill may have passed previously to its being paid, are, from their writing their names on the back, termed *indorsers*; and the person in whose possession the bill is at any given period, is termed the *holder* or *possessor*.

The negotiation of inland bills of exchange, or of those drawn in one part of Great Britain and Ireland on another, is entirely in the hands of bankers, and is conducted in the manner already explained. — (See *antè*, p. 66.) Bills drawn by the merchants

of one country upon another are termed *foreign bills of exchange*, and it is to their negotiation that the following remarks principally apply.

I. *Par of Exchange.* — The *par* of the currency of any two countries means, among merchants, the equivalency of a certain amount of the currency of the one in the currency of the other, *supposing the currencies of both to be of the precise weight and purity fixed by their respective mints.* Thus, according to the mint regulations of Great Britain and France, 1*l.* sterling is equal to 25 fr. 20 cent., which is said to be the *par* between London and Paris. And the exchange between the two countries is said to be at *par* when bills are negotiated on this footing; that is, for example, when a bill for 100*l.* drawn in London is worth 2,520 fr. in Paris, and conversely. When 1*l.* in London buys a bill on Paris for more than 25 fr. 20 cent., the exchange is said to be in favour of London and against Paris; and when, on the other hand, 1*l.* in London will not buy a bill on Paris for 25 fr. 20 cent., the exchange is against London and in favour of Paris.*

II. *Circumstances which determine the Course of Exchange.* — The exchange is affected, or made to diverge from *par*, by two classes of circumstances: *first*, by any discrepancy between the actual weight or fineness of the coins, or of the bullion for which the substitutes used in their place will exchange, and their weight or fineness as fixed by the mint regulations; and, *secondly*, by any sudden increase or diminution of the bills drawn in one country upon another.

1. It is but seldom that the coins of any country correspond exactly with their mint standard; and when they diverge from it, an allowance corresponding to the difference between the actual value of the coins and their mint value must be made in determining the *real par*. Thus, if, while the coins of Great Britain corresponded with the mint standard in weight and purity, those of France were either 10 per cent. worse or debased below the standard of her mint, the exchange, it is obvious, would be at *real par* when it was *nominally* 10 per cent. against Paris, or when a bill payable in London for 100*l.* was worth in Paris 2,772 fr. instead of 2,520 fr. In estimating the real course of exchange between any 2 or more places, it is always necessary to attend carefully to this circumstance; that is, to examine whether their currencies be all of the standard weight and purity, and if not, how much they differ from it. When the coins circulating in a country are either so worn or rubbed as to have sunk considerably below their mint standard, or when paper money is depreciated from excess or want of credit, the exchange is at *real par* only when it is against such country to the extent to which its coins are worn or its paper depreciated. When this circumstance is taken into account, it will be found that the exchange during the latter years of the war, though apparently very much against this country, was really in our favour. The depression was nominal only; being occasioned by the great depreciation of the paper currency in which bills were paid.

2. Variations in the actual course of exchange, or in the price of bills, arising from circumstances affecting the currency of either of two countries trading together, are *nominal* only: such as are *real* grow out of circumstances affecting their *trades*.

When two countries trade together, and each buys of the other commodities of precisely the same value, their debts and credits will be equal, and, of course, the *real* exchange will be at *par*. The *bills* drawn by the one will be exactly equivalent to those drawn by the other, and their respective claims will be adjusted without requiring the transfer of bullion or any other valuable produce. But it very rarely happens that the debts reciprocally due by any two countries are equal. There is almost always a balance owing on the one side or the other; and this balance must affect the exchange. If the debts due by London to Paris exceeded those due by Paris to London, the competition in the London market for bills on Paris would, because of the comparatively great amount of payments our merchants had to make in Paris, be greater than the compe-

* The statements in the text explain what is usually meant by the *par* of exchange; but its exact determination, or the ascertaining of the precise equivalency of a certain amount of the currency of one country in the currency of another, is exceedingly difficult. If the standard of one be gold and that of another silver, the *par* must necessarily vary with every variation in the relative values of these metals. This, however, is not all: even where two countries use the same metal for a standard, its value may be greater in one than in the other, and in estimating the *par* of exchange between them this difference must be taken into account. In illustration of this we may take the case of France and Mexico: they both use silver for a standard; but silver being largely produced in Mexico, is always cheaper there than in France, and is extensively imported into the latter; and taking the cost of this importation at 2 or 3 per cent., it is plain that the exchange would be really at *par* when it appeared to be 2 or 3 per cent. against Mexico. But the value of the precious metals, even in contiguous countries, is always exposed to fluctuations from the over issue or withdrawal of paper, from circumstances affecting the balance of payments, &c., as shown in the text. It is obvious, therefore, that it is all but impossible to say, by merely looking at the mint regulations of any two or more countries, and the prices of bullion in each, what is the *par* of exchange between them. And, luckily, this is not necessary. The importation and exportation of bullion is the real test of the exchange. If bullion be stationary, neither flowing into nor out of a country, its exchanges may be truly said to be at *par*; and, on the other hand, if there be an efflux of bullion from a country, it is a proof that the exchange is against it, and conversely if there be an influx of bullion into a country.

tion in Paris for bills on London; and, consequently, the real exchange would be in favour of Paris and against London.

The cost of conveying bullion from one country to another forms the limit within which the rise and fall of the *real* exchange between them must be confined. If 1 per cent. sufficed to cover the expense and risk attending the transmission of money from London to Paris, it would be indifferent to a London merchant whether he paid 1 per cent. premium for a bill of exchange on Paris, or remitted money direct to that city. If the premium were less than 1 per cent., it would clearly be his interest to make his payments by bills in preference to remittances: and that it could not exceed 1 per cent. is obvious; for every one would prefer remitting money, to buying a bill at a greater premium than sufficed to cover the expense of a money remittance. If, owing to the breaking out of hostilities between the two countries, or to any other cause, the cost of remitting money from London to Paris were increased, the fluctuations of the *real* exchange between them *might* also be increased. For the limits within which such fluctuations *may* range, correspond in all cases with the cost of making remittances in cash.

Fluctuations in the *nominal* exchange, that is, in the value of the currencies of countries trading together, have no effect on foreign trade. When the currency is depreciated, the premium which the exporter of commodities derives from the sale of the bill drawn on his correspondent abroad, is only equivalent to the increase in the price of the goods exported, occasioned by this depreciation. But when the premium on a foreign bill is a consequence, not of a fall in the value of money, but of a deficiency in the supply of bills, there is no rise of prices; and in these circumstances the unfavourable exchange operates as a stimulus to exportation. As soon as the *real* exchange diverges from *par*, the mere inspection of a price current is no longer sufficient to regulate the operations of the merchant. If it be unfavourable, the premium which the exporter will receive on the sale of his bill must be included in the estimate of the profit he is likely to derive from the transaction. The greater that premium, the less will be the difference of prices necessary to induce him to export. And hence an unfavourable *real* exchange has an effect exactly the same with what would be produced by granting a bounty on exportation equal to the premium on foreign bills.

But for the same reason that an unfavourable *real* exchange increases exportation, it proportionally diminishes importation. When the exchange is really unfavourable, the price of commodities imported from abroad must be so much lower than their price at home, as not merely to afford, exclusive of expenses, the ordinary profit of stock on their sale, but also to compensate for the premium which the importer must pay for a foreign bill, if he remit one to his correspondent, or for the discount, added to the invoice price, if his correspondent draw upon him. A less quantity of foreign goods will, therefore, suit our market when the *real* exchange is unfavourable; and fewer payments having to be made abroad, the competition for foreign bills will be diminished, and the *real* exchange rendered proportionally favourable. In the same way, it is easy to see that a favourable *real* exchange must operate as a *duty* on exportation, and as a *bounty* on importation.

It is thus that fluctuations in the *real* exchange have a necessary tendency to correct themselves. They can never, for any considerable period, *exceed* the expense of transmitting bullion from the debtor to the creditor country. But the exchange cannot continue either permanently favourable or unfavourable to this extent. When favourable, it corrects itself by restricting exportation and facilitating importation; and when unfavourable, it produces the same effect by giving an unusual stimulus to exportation, and by throwing obstacles in the way of importation. The true *PAR* forms the centre of these oscillations; and although the thousand circumstances which are daily and hourly affecting the state of debt and credit, prevent the ordinary course of exchange from being almost ever precisely at *par*, its fluctuations, whether on the one side or the other, are confined within certain limits, and have a constant tendency to disappear.

This natural tendency which the exchange has to correct itself, is powerfully assisted by the operations of the bill-merchants.

England, for example, might owe a large excess of debt to Amsterdam; yet, as the aggregate amount of the debts *due* by a commercial country is generally balanced by the amount of those which it has to receive, the deficiency of bills on Amsterdam in London would most probably be compensated by a proportional redundancy of those on some other place. Now, it is the business of the merchants who deal in bills, in the same way as of those who deal in bullion or any other commodity, to buy them where they are cheapest, and to sell them where they are dearest. They would, therefore, buy up the bills drawn by other countries on Amsterdam, and dispose of them in London; and by so doing, would prevent any great fall in the price of bills on Amsterdam in those countries in which the supply exceeded the demand, and any great rise in Great Britain and those countries in which the supply happened to be deficient. In the trade between Italy and this country, the bills drawn on Great Britain amount almost invari-

riably to a greater sum than those drawn on Italy. The bill-merchants, however, by buying up the excess of the Italian bills on London, and selling them in Holland, and other countries indebted to England, prevent the *real* exchange from ever becoming very much depressed.

III. *Negotiation of Bills of Exchange.* — Bills of exchange may be made payable on demand (the invariable term of payment in the case of checks), at *sight*, at a certain specified time *after sight* or *after date*, or at *usance*, which is the usual term allowed by the custom or law of the place where the bill is payable. Generally, however, a few days are allowed for payment beyond the term when the bill becomes due, which are denominated *days of grace*, and which vary in different countries. In Great Britain and Ireland, *three days' grace* are allowed on all bills except those payable on demand, which must be paid as soon as presented. The following is a statement of the usance and days of grace for bills drawn upon some of the principal commercial cities: —

[*m* | *d.* *m* | *s.* *d* | *d.* *d* | *s.* *d* | *a.* respectively denote *months after date*, *months after sight*, *days after date*, *days after sight*, *days after acceptance*.]

London on	Usance.	Days of Grace.	London on	Usance.	Days of Grace.	London on	Usance.	Days of Grace.
Amsterdam	1 m d.	6	Geneva	30 d d.	5	Vienna †	14 d a.	3
Rotterdam	1 m d.	6	Madrid	2 m s.	14	Malta	30 d d.	18
Antwerp	1 m d.	6	Cádiz	60 d d.	5	Naples	3 m d.	3
Hamburg	1 m d.	12	Bilboa	3 m d.	14	Palermo	3 m d.	0
Altona	1 m d.	12	Gibraltar	3 m s.	14	Lisbon	30 d a.	6
Dantzig	14 d a.	10	Leghorn	3 m d.	0	Oporto	30 d a.	6
Paris *	30 d d.	10	Leipzig	14 d a.	0	Rio Janeiro	30 d d.	6
Bordeaux	30 d d.	10	Genoa	3 m d.	30	Dublin	21 d a.	3
Bremen	1 m d.	6	Venice	3 m d.	6	Cork	21 d a.	3
Barcelona	60 d d.	14						

In the dating of bills, the new style is used in every country in Europe, with the exception of Russia.

In London, bills of exchange are bought and sold by brokers, who go round to the principal merchants and discover whether they are buyers or sellers of bills. A few of the brokers of most influence, after ascertaining the state of the relative supply and demand for bills, suggest a price at which the greater part of the transactions of the day are settled, with such deviations as particular bills, from their being in very high or low credit, may be subject to. The price fixed by the brokers is that which is published in *Wettenhall's List*; but the first houses generally negotiate their bills on $\frac{1}{2}$, 1, 1½, and 2 per cent. better terms than those quoted. In London and other great commercial cities, a class of middlemen speculate largely on the rise and fall of the exchange; buying bills when they expect a rise, and selling them when a fall is anticipated.

It is usual, in drawing foreign bills of exchange, to draw them in sets, or duplicates, lest the first should be lost or miscarry. When bills are drawn in sets, each must contain a condition that it shall be payable only while the others remain unpaid; thus, the first is payable only, "second and third unpaid;" the second, "first and third being unpaid;" and the third, "first and second unpaid."

All bills of exchange must be drawn upon stamps as under: —

<i>Inland Bills and Notes.</i> — Not exceeding Two Months after Date, or Sixty Days after Sight.			Exceeding Two Months, &c.	
	£ s.	£ s.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
If	0 and not above	5 5 - -	0 1 0	0 1 6
Above	3 3 - -	20 0 - -	0 1 6	0 3 0
—	20 0 - -	30 0 - -	0 2 0	0 3 6
—	30 0 - -	50 0 - -	0 2 6	0 3 6
—	50 0 - -	100 0 - -	0 3 6	0 4 6
—	100 0 - -	250 0 - -	0 4 6	0 8 0
—	200 0 - -	500 0 - -	0 5 0	0 6 0
—	300 0 - -	500 0 - -	0 6 0	0 6 6
—	500 0 - -	1,000 0 - -	0 8 6	0 12 6
—	1,000 0 - -	2,000 0 - -	0 12 6	0 18 0
—	2,000 0 - -	3,000 0 - -	0 15 6	1 8 0
—	3,000 0 - -	- - - - -	1 8 0	1 10 0

Provisory notes from 2s. to 100l. inclusive are not to be drawn payable to bearer on demand (excepting bankers' *re-issuable* notes, which require a different stamp). — But notes for any sum exceeding 100l. may be drawn either payable to bearer on demand, or otherwise.

Foreign Bills of Exchange. — Foreign bill, drawn in but payable out of Great Britain, if drawn singly, the same duty as an inland bill.

<i>Foreign bills of exchange, drawn in sets, s. d.</i>		<i>s. d.</i>	
for every bill of each set, if the sum does not exceed 100l.	- 1 6	Exceeding 500l. and not exceeding 1,000l.	- 5 0
Exceeding 100l. and not exceeding 300l.	- 2 0	- 1,000l.	- 7 6
- 300l.	- 4 0	- 2,000l.	- 10 0
		- 3,000l.	- 15 0

* In France, no days of grace are allowed on bills payable *à vue*.

† In Austria, bills payable at sight, or on demand, or at less than 7 days after sight or date, are not allowed any days of grace.

No one acquainted with the fundamental rules of arithmetic can have any difficulty whatever in estimating how much a sum of money in one country is worth in another, according to the state of the exchange at the time. The common arithmetical books abound in examples of such computations. But in conducting the business of exchange, a direct remittance is not always preferred. When a merchant in London, for example, means to discharge a debt due by him in Paris, it is his business to ascertain not only the state of the direct exchange between London and Paris, and, consequently, the sum which he must pay in London for a bill on Paris equivalent to his debt, but also the state of the exchange between London and Hamburg and Paris, &c.; for it frequently happens that it may be more advantageous for him to buy a bill on Hamburg, Amsterdam, or Lisbon, and to direct his agent to invest the proceeds in a bill on Paris, rather than remit directly to the latter. This is termed the *AMARTRATION* of exchange. An example or two will suffice to show the principle on which it is conducted.

Thus, if the exchange between London and Amsterdam be 35s. Flemish (old coinage) per pound sterling, and between Paris and Amsterdam 1s. 6d. Flemish per franc, then, in order to ascertain whether a direct or indirect remittance to Paris would be most advantageous, we must calculate what would be the value of the franc in English money if the remittance were made through Holland; for if it be less than that resulting from the direct exchange, it will obviously be the preferable mode of remitting. This is determined by stating, as 35s. Flem. (the Amsterdam currency in a pound sterling) : 1s. 6d. Flem. (Amsterdam currency in a franc) : 1l. : 10d. the proportional or *arbitrated* value of the franc. — Hence, if the English money, or bill of exchange, to pay a debt in Paris, were remitted by Amsterdam, it would require 10d. to discharge a debt of a franc, or 1l. to discharge a debt of 34 francs; and therefore, if the exchange between London and Paris were at 24, it would be indifferent to the English merchant whether he remitted directly to Paris, or indirectly *via* Amsterdam; but if the exchange between London and Paris were *above* 24, then a direct remittance would be preferable; while, if, on the other hand, the direct exchange were less than 24, the indirect remittance ought as plainly to be preferred.

"Suppose," to borrow an example from Kelly (*Universal Cambist*, vol. II. p. 137.) "the exchange of London and Lisbon to be at 68d. per milree, and that of Lisbon on Madrid 600 rees per dollar, the arbitrated price between London and Madrid is 34d. sterling per dollar; for, as 1,000 rees : 68d. : 500 rees : 34d. But if the direct exchange of London on Madrid be 35d. sterling per dollar, then London, by remitting directly to Madrid, must pay 35d. for every dollar; whereas, by remitting through Lisbon, he will pay only 34d.; it is therefore the interest of London to remit indirectly to Madrid through Lisbon. On the other hand, if London draws directly on Madrid, he will receive 35d. sterling per dollar; whereas, by drawing indirectly through Lisbon, he would receive only 34d.; it is therefore the interest of London to draw directly on Madrid. Hence the following rules:—

- "1. Where the certain price is given, draw through the place which produces the lowest arbitrated price, and remit through that which produces the highest.
- "2. Where the uncertain price is given, draw through that place which produces the highest arbitrated price, and remit through that which produces the lowest."

In compound arbitration, or when more than 3 places are concerned, then, in order to find how much a remittance passing through them all will amount to, in the last place, or, which is the same thing, to find the arbitrated price between the first and last, by the above rules, and then to repeat the statements in the same manner as in the foregoing examples.

Thus, if the exchange between London and Amsterdam be 35s. Flem. for 1l. sterling; between Amsterdam and Lisbon 42d. Flem. for 1 old crusade; and between Lisbon and Paris 480 rees for 3 francs: what is the arbitrated price between London and Paris?

The first of these methods was tried, and it was found too slow and expensive; and the second and third plans were considered likely to turn the exchange against Spain. The following method by the indirect, or circular exchange, was, therefore, adopted.

A merchant, or *banquier*, at Paris, was appointed to manage the operation, which he thus conducted:— He chose London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, Cadiz, Madrid, and Paris, as the principal hinges on which the operation was to turn; and he engaged correspondents in each of these cities to support the circulation. Madrid and Cadiz were the places in Spain from whence remittances were to be made; and dollars were, of course, to be sent to where they bore the highest price, for which bills were to be procured on Paris, or on any other places that might be deemed more advantageous.

The principle being thus established, it only remained to regulate the extent of the operation, so as not to issue too much paper on Spain, and to give the circulation as much support as possible from real business. With this view, London was chosen as a place to which the operation might be chiefly directed, as the price of dollars was then high in England; a circumstance which rendered the proportionally exchange advantageous to Spain.

The business was commenced at Paris, where the negotiation of drafts issued on Hamburg and Amsterdam served to answer the immediate demands of the state; and orders were transmitted to these places to draw for the reimbursements on London, Madrid, or Cadiz, according as the course of exchange was most favourable. The proceedings were all conducted with judgment, and attended with complete success.

This abridged operation evidently consists in arranging the terms so that those which would form the divisors in continued statements in the Rule of Three, are multiplied together for a common divisor, and the other terms for a common dividend. The ordinary arithmetical books abound with examples of such operations.

The following account of the manner in which a very large transaction was actually conducted by indirect remittances, will sufficiently illustrate the principles we have been endeavouring to explain.

In 1804, Spain was bound to pay to France a large subsidy; and, in order to do this, three distinct methods presented themselves:—

1. To send dollars to Paris by land.
 2. To remit bills of exchange directly to Paris.
 3. To authorise Paris to draw directly on Spain.
- The first of these methods was tried, but it was found too slow and expensive; and the second and third plans were considered likely to turn the exchange against Spain. The following method by the indirect, or circular exchange, was, therefore, adopted.

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success. At the commencement of the operation, the course of exchange of Cadiz on London was 36*d.*; but by the plan adopted, Spain got 39*d.*, or above 8 per cent. by the remittance of dollars to London, and considerable advantages were also gained by the circulation of bills through the several places on the Continent. — (*Kelly's Cambist*, vol. ii. p. 168.) *Dubois's Elements of Commerce*, 2d ed. p. 228.)

Table specifying the Value of the Monies of Account of the principal Places with which this Country has Exchange Transactions, taking Silver at 5*s.* an oz., and specifying also the Par of Exchange with such Places on this Hypothesis. — (Abstracted from *Tate's Modern Cambist*, to which the reader is referred for farther explanations).

				Par of Exchange.
Petersburg	- 100 copecks	= 1 rouble	= 2 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>½d.</i>	6 roub. 40 cop. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Berlin	- 30 sil. groschen	= 1 Pruss. doll.	= 2 <i>s.</i> 10 <i>½d.</i>	6 doll. 27 s. 8 = 1 <i>l.</i>
Copenhagen	- 96 skillings	= 1 Rig. doll.	= 2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>½d.</i>	9 doll. 10 sk = 1 <i>l.</i>
Hamburg	- 16 schillings	= 1 mark	= 1 <i>s.</i> 5 <i>½d.</i>	13 mks. 10 <i>½</i> sch. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Amsterdam	- 100 centimes	= 1 florin	= 1 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	11 s. 97 cents = 1 <i>l.</i>
Antwerp	- 100 centimes	= 1 florin	= 1 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	11 s. 97 cents = 1 <i>l.</i>
Paris	- 100 centimes	= 1 franc	= 9 <i>½d.</i>	25 fr. 87 cents = 1 <i>l.</i>
Frankfort	- 24 <i>½</i> guld. or flor.	= 1 mark	= 1 <i>s.</i> 7 <i>½d.</i>	12 <i>½</i> guidens = 1 <i>l.</i>
Vienna	- 60 kreusers	= 1 florin	= 2 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>½d.</i>	9 s. 50 kr. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Venice	- 100 centesimi	= 1 lira Austriaca	= 8 <i>½d.</i>	29 li. 52 cent. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Genoa	- 100 centesimi	= 1 lira Nuova	= 9 <i>½d.</i>	25 li. 57 cent. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Leghorn	- 100 centesimi	= 1 lira Toscana	= 7 <i>½d.</i>	30 li. 69 cent. = 1 <i>l.</i>
Madrid	- 8 reales	= 1 dollar of Plate	= 2 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>½d.</i>	6 doll. 28 reales = 1 <i>l.</i>
Lisbon	- 1000 reis	= 1 milreis	= 4 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>	4 mil. 240 reis = 1 <i>l.</i>
New York	- 100 cents	= 1 dollar	= 4 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>	4 doll. 80 cents = 1 <i>l.</i>
Rio Janeiro	- 1000 reis	= 1 milreis	= 2 <i>s.</i> 7 <i>d.</i>	7 mil. 777 reis = 1 <i>l.</i>
Havannah	- 100 cents	= 1 dollar	= 4 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>½d.</i>	4 doll. 44 cents = 1 <i>l.</i>

It is easy from this table to calculate the value of any of the above coins, taking silver at 5*s.* 2*d.*, 5*s.* 6*d.* an oz., or any other price, and thence to deduce the par of exchange at such rates. The values of the coins in the Table of Coins (*ante*, p. 310.) are estimated on the hypothesis that silver is worth 5*s.* 2*d.* an oz.

LAW OF BILLS OF EXCHANGE.

The chief legal privileges appertaining to bills are, first, that though only a simple contract, yet they are always presumed to have been originally given for a good and valuable consideration; and, secondly, they are assignable to a third person not named in the bill or party to the contract, so as to vest in the assignee a right of action, in his own name; which right of action, no release by the drawer to the acceptor, nor set-off or cross demand due from the former to the latter, can affect.

All persons, whether merchants or not, being legally qualified to contract, may be parties to a bill. But no action can be supported against a person incapable of binding himself, on a bill drawn, indorsed, or accepted by such incapacitated person; at the same time the bill is good against all other competent parties thereto.

Bills may be drawn, accepted, or indorsed by the party's agent or attorney verbally authorised for the purpose. When a person has such authority, he must either write the name of his principal, or state in writing that he draws, &c. as agent, thus: "per procurator, for A. B." Where one of several partners accepts a bill drawn on the firm, for himself and partners, or in his own name only, such acceptance binds the partnership if it concern the trade. But the acceptance of one of several partners on behalf of himself and partners, will not bind the others, if it concern the acceptor only in a separate and distinct interest; and the holder of the bill, at the time he becomes so, was aware of that circumstance. If, however, he be a *bona fide* holder for a sufficient consideration, and had no such knowledge at the time he first became possessed of the bill, no subsequently acquired knowledge of the misconduct of the partner in giving such security will prevent him from recovering on such bills against all the partners.

Although no precise form of words is required to constitute a bill of exchange or promissory note, yet it is necessary that it should be payable *at all events*, and not depend on any contingency; and that it be made for the payment of money only, and not for payment of money and performance of some other act, as the delivery of a horse, or the like.

If, however, the event on which the payment is to depend must inevitably happen, it is of no importance how long the payment may be in suspense; so a bill is negotiable and valid if drawn payable 6 weeks after the death of the drawer's father, or payable to an infant when he shall become of age.

Any material alteration of a bill after it has been drawn, accepted, or indorsed, such as the date, sum, or time of payment, will invalidate it: but the mere correction of a mistake, as by inserting the words "or order," will have no such effect.

The negotiability of a bill depends on the insertion of sufficient operative words of transfer; such as by making it payable to A. or order, or to A. or bearer, or to bearer generally.

Although a bill is presumed to have been originally drawn upon a good and valuable consideration, yet in certain cases a want of sufficient consideration may be insisted on in defence to an action on a bill. Certain considerations have been made illegal by statute; as for signing a bankrupt's certificate, for money won at gaming, or for money lent on a usurious contract. But with respect to gaming, it is held, that a bill founded on a gambling transaction is good in the hands of a *bona fide* holder; and by 58 Geo. 2. c. 93. a bill or note in the hands of an innocent holder, although originally founded on a usurious contract, is not invalid.

In general, if a bill is fair and legal in its origin, a subsequent illegal contract or consideration on the indorsement thereof will not invalidate it in the hands of a *bona fide* holder.

A bill cannot be given in evidence in a court of justice, unless it be duly stamped, not only with a stamp of the proper value, but also of the proper denomination.

Acceptance of a Bill. — An acceptance is an engagement to pay a bill according to the tenor of the acceptance, which may be either *absolute* or *qualified*. An *absolute* acceptance is an engagement to pay a bill according to its request, which is done by the drawee writing "Accepted" on the bill, and subscribing his name, or writing "Accepted" only; or merely subscribing his name at the bottom or across the bill. A *qualified* acceptance is when a bill is accepted conditionally; as when goods conveyed to the drawee are sold, or when a navy bill is paid, or other future event which does not bind the acceptor till the contingency has happened.

An acceptance may be also partial; as to pay 100*l.* instead of 150*l.*, or to pay at a different time or place from that required by the bill. But in all cases of a conditional or partial acceptance, the holder should, if he mean to resort to the other parties to the bill in default of payment, give notice to them of such partial or conditional acceptance.

In all cases of presenting a bill for acceptance, it is necessary to present the bill at the house where the drawee lives, or where it is made payable. By 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 78., all bills accepted payable at a banker's or other place are to be deemed a general acceptance; but if they are accepted payable at a banker's "only and not otherwise or elsewhere," it is a qualified acceptance, and the acceptor is not liable to pay the bill,

except in default of payment when such payment shall have been first demanded at the banker's. The drawer is entitled to keep the bill 24 hours when presented for acceptance. The acceptance of an inland bill must be *in writing on the face of the bill*, or if there be more parts than one, on one of such parts; nothing short of this constitutes a valid acceptance.

When a bill is made payable *at sight*, or at a certain time after sight, it must, in either case, in order to fix the time when it is to be paid, be presented for acceptance; and the date of the acceptance should appear thus: "Accepted, 10th December, 1845."

Due diligence is the only thing to be considered in presenting any description of bill for acceptance; and such diligence is a question depending on the situation of the parties, the distance at which they live, and the facility of communication between them.

When the drawer refuses to accept, any third party, after protesting, may accept for the honour of the bill generally, or for the drawee, or for the indorser; in which case the acceptance is called an *acceptance supra protest*.

The drawers and indorsers are discharged from liability, unless due notice of non-acceptance when presented for acceptance, or non-payment at the time the bill becomes due, is given. These notices must be given with all due diligence to all the parties to whom the holder means to resort for payment. Generally, in both foreign and inland bills, notice is given next day to the immediate indorser, and such indorser, or allowed a day, when he should give fresh notice to the parties who are liable to him.

Notice may be sent by the post, however near the residence of the parties may be to each other; and though the letter containing such notice should miscarry, yet it will be sufficient; but the letter, containing the notice, should be delivered at the General Post-Office, or at a receiving-house appointed by that office, not to the bellman in the street. In all cases of notice, notice to one of several parties is held to be notice to all; and if one of several drawers be also the acceptor, it is not necessary to give notice to the other drawers.

Upon the non-acceptance or non-payment of a bill, the holder, or a public notary for him, should protest it; that is, draw up a notice of the refusal to accept or pay the bill, and the declaration of the holder against sustaining loss thereby. Inland bills need not be protested; in practice they are usually only noted for non-acceptance; but this, without the protest, is wholly futile, and adds nothing whatever to the evidence of the holder, while it entails a useless expense on those liable to pay.

Indorsement of Bills.—An indorsement is the act by which the holder of a negotiable instrument transfers his right to another person, termed the indorsee. It is usually made on the back of a bill, and must be in writing; but is not prescribed any set form of words as necessary to the ceremony, and in general the mere signature of the indorser is sufficient.

All bills payable to order or to bearer for 12 and upwards are negotiable by indorsement; and the transfer of them for a good consideration, before they are payable, gives a right of action against all the precedent parties on the bill, if the bills in themselves are valid; but a transfer after they are due will only place the holder in the situation of the person from whom he takes them.

Bills may be transferred either by delivery only, or by indorsement and delivery: bills payable to order are transferred by the latter mode only; but bills payable to bearer may be transferred by either mode. On a transfer by delivery, the person making it ceases to be a party to the bill; but on a transfer by indorsement, he is to all intents and purposes chargeable as a new drawer.

A bill originally transferable may be restricted by restricted words; for the payee or indorsee, having the absolute property in the bill, may, by express words, restrict its currency, by indorsing it "Payable to A. B. only," or "To A. B. for his use," or any other words clearly demonstrating his intention to make a restrictive and limited indorsement. Such special indorsement precludes the person in whose favour it is made from making a transfer, so as to give a right of action against the special indorser, or any of the precedent parties to the bill.

In taking bills to account or discount, it is important well to examine all special indorsements. Lord Tenterden decided that a person who discounts a bill indorsed "Pay to A. B. or order for my use," discounts it subject to the risk of having to pay the money to the special indorser, who so limited the application *for my use*; thus a party may be liable to pay the amount of the bill twice over, unless he previously ascertains that the payment has been made conformably to the import of the indorsement.

After the payment of part, a bill may be indorsed over for the residue.

Presentment for Payment.—The holder of a bill must be careful to present it for payment at the time when due, or the drawer and indorsers will be exonerated from their liability; even the bankruptcy, insolvency, or death of the acceptor, will not excuse a neglect to make presentment to the assignee or executor; nor will the insufficiency of a bill in any respect constitute an excuse for non-presentment: the presentment should be made at a reasonable time of the day when the bill is due; and if by the known custom of any trade or place bills are payable only within particular hours, a presentment must be within those hours. If a bill has a qualified acceptance, the presentment should be at the place mentioned in such qualified acceptance, or all the parties will be discharged from their obligations.

If a bill fall due on Sunday, Good Friday, Christmas Day, or any public fast or thanksgiving day, the presentment must be on the day preceding these holidays. By 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 16, if a bill or note be payable on the day preceding these holidays, notice of the dishonour may be given the day following the holiday; and if Christmas Day fall on Monday, notice may be given on Tuesday.

Bills, however, payable at usance, or at a certain time after date or sight, or after demand, ought not to be presented for payment precisely at the expiration of the time mentioned in the bills, but at the expiration of what are termed *days of grace*. The days of grace allowed vary in different countries, and ought always to be computed according to the usage of the place where the bill is due.—(See *ante*, p. 557.) At Hamburgh, and in France, the day on which the bill falls due makes one of the days of grace; but no where else.

On bills payable on demand, or when no time of payment is expressed, no days of grace are allowed; but they are payable instantly on presentment. On bank post bills no days of grace are claimed; but on bills payable at sight the usual days of grace are allowed from the sight or demand, as notified by the date of the acceptance.

Payment of a bill should be made only to the holder; and it may be refused unless the bill be produced and delivered up. On payment a receipt should be written on the back; and when a part is paid, the same should be acknowledged upon the bill, or the party paying may be liable to pay the amount a second time to a *bona fide* indorser.

Promissory Notes and Checks.—The chief distinction between promissory notes and bills of exchange is that the former are a direct engagement by the drawer to pay them according to their tenor, without the intervention of a third party as a drawee or acceptor. Promissory notes may be drawn payable on demand to a person named therein, or to order, or to bearer generally. They are assignable and indorsable; and in all respects so nearly assimilated to bills by 3 & 4 Ann. c. 9, that the laws which have been stated as bearing upon the latter, may be generally understood as applicable to the former. In *Edis v. Bury*, it has been decided, in case an instrument is drawn so equivocally as to render it uncertain whether it be a bill of exchange or promissory note, the holder may treat it as either against the drawer.

Promissory notes, bills, drafts, or undertakings in writing, being made negotiable or transferable, for a less sum than 20*l.*, are void, and persons uttering such are subject to a penalty not exceeding 20*l.*, recoverable before a justice of peace.

The issue of any promissory note payable to bearer on demand for a less sum than 5*l.* by the Bank of England, or any licensed English banker, is prohibited; and by 9 Geo. 4. c. 66. it is provided, that no corporation or person shall utter or negotiate, in England, any such note which has been made or issued

stioners for the assessing of the duties should be as brief and clear as possible, and should interfere as little as possible with the details and processes of the manufacture. And, supposing that the duties were assessed so as to give the least inconvenience to the parties, that they were in all cases reduced to a reasonable amount, and the legal proceedings placed on a proper footing, we incline to think that all traces of the old prejudice against the excise would speedily disappear.

An Account of the Quantities of the several Articles charged with Duties of Excise in the U. Kingdom, together with the Gross Amount of Duty thereon during the Years 1839, 1840, and 1841.—(Porter's Tables for 1841, p. 33.)

Articles.	Quantities charged.			Amount of Duty.					
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1839.		1840.		1841.	
				£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Auctions, amount of sales charged with duty	6,557,640	8,780,983	6,315,417	297,206	1	1	290,039	11	3
Bricks	1,811,798,585	1,725,632,733	1,464,227,270	475,149	2	11	324,424	10	4
Glass, crown	136,719	146,834	116,893	602,118	12	0	526,903	8	5
Flint	101,924	101,924	96,618	97,058	0	0	101,035	19	7
Plata	24,613	33,623	27,630	85,239	0	0	104,119	11	6
German sheet	-	-	20,855	-	-	-	-	-	-
Broad	8,514	9,051	-	19,771	0	0	13,916	11	0
Bottle	485,166	325,790	499,581	169,808	2	0	180,513	4	10
Hops	44,899,299	7,114,917	20,004,108	357,858	0	0	46,257	17	3
Licences, viz. 1.—Auctioneers	3,658	3,658	3,658	19,490	0	0	19,490	0	0
Brewers of strong beer, not exceeding 20 barrels	8,441	8,285	6,189	4,290	1	0	-	-	-
Do exceeding 20 and not exceeding 50 barrels	6,734	6,836	6,789	6,734	-	-	9,27	-	-
Do exceeding 50 and not exceeding 100	10,271	10,458	9,448	15,356	10	0	15,919	7	6
Do exceeding 100 and not exceeding 1,000	16,257	16,850	16,129	25,614	0	0	25,613	0	0
Do exceeding 1,000 barrels	1,863	1,795	1,701	17,903	10	0	17,643	8	8
Brewers of table beer	68	111	106	26	10	0	89	3	0
Retail brewers under the act 4 Geo. 4. c. 54.	24	40	40	12	10	0	290	10	0
Sellers of strong beer only, not being brewers	1,124	1,049	2,247	3,540	12	0	2,468	1	2
Beer retailers, whose premises are rated under 20l. per annum	74,700	69,397	67,265	78,590	10	0	76,399	1	7
Do, at 20l. or upwards	19,307	20,187	20,430	60,817	1	0	60,696	3	5
Retailers of beer, cider, or perry, under the provisions of the act 1 Will. 4. c. 54., and 4 Will. 4. c. 55. (to be drunk on the premises)	38,879	56,871	32,715	122,183	7	0	719,410	14	3
Do under the same acts (not to be drunk on the premises)	5,941	3,743	5,533	6,238	1	0	6,201	5	8
Do of cider and perry only, under the same acts	590	438	606	619	10	0	474	4	6
Tea and coffee dealers	105,391	103,434	101,193	57,955	1	0	59,685	8	8
Glass manufacturers	148	154	148	4,960	0	0	5,281	0	0
Maltsters	11,811	11,621	11,177	23,235	0	0	23,533	3	10
Paper makers	470	407	407	2,616	0	0	1,973	19	0
Soap makers	879	383	314	1,616	0	0	1,607	16	0
Distillers and rectifiers	441	433	369	2,410	0	0	2,544	0	0
Dealers in spirits, not being retailers	3,513	3,588	3,256	29,150	0	0	29,423	9	6
Retailers of spirits whose premises are rated under 10l. per annum	41,441	36,849	34,225	97,026	9	0	61,035	5	11
Do ditto at 10l. and under 20l.	37,381	26,822	26,813	115,000	0	0	114,469	5	7
Do 20l. — 30l.	2,537	3,911	4,892	24,299	2	0	25,833	11	10
Do 30l. — 40l.	2,227	2,566	2,825	18,573	9	0	19,738	10	0
Do 40l. — 50l.	4,264	4,102	4,189	25,851	4	0	26,273	10	0
Do 50l. and upwards	2,649	2,382	2,240	25,411	1	0	25,285	13	10
Makers of stills	6,536	6,564	6,711	59,178	0	0	74,273	19	0
Chemists, or any other trade requiring a still	18	23	16	9	0	0	13	8	0
Retailers of spirits in Ireland being duly licensed to sell coffee, tea, &c., whose premises are rated under 25l. per annum	350	347	297	5,307	10	0	5,440	1	2
Do ditto at 25l. and under 50l.	42	39	46	441	0	0	418	19	0
Do 50l. — 60l.	47	47	29	82	17	0	69	19	5
Do 60l. — 75l.	27	25	23	214	4	0	203	18	9
Do 75l. and upwards	6	7	7	1,051	1	0	1,072	16	0
Retailers of sweets	2,401	2,590	2,811	3,821	1	0	3,821	16	6
Manufacturers of tobacco and snuff	606	696	696	6,803	0	0	7,411	5	6
Dealers in tobacco and snuff	185,755	185,541	185,151	46,438	15	0	46,609	9	9
Vinager makers	24	70	38	370	0	0	368	10	0
Dealers in foreign wine not having a licence to retail spirits, nor a licence to retail beer	2,014	1,924	1,949	20,140	0	0	20,286	10	0
Dealers in foreign wine having a licence to retail beer, but not having a licence to retail spirits	311	327	301	1,306	4	0	1,457	13	4
Dealers in foreign wine having a licence to retail beer or spirits	37,061	26,277	27,030	56,268	2	0	59,194	16	0
Passage vessels on board which liquors and tobacco are sold	368	378	352	366	0	0	389	8	0
To let horses for hire	10,642	10,833	10,353	3,900	15	0	4,009	17	6
Surcharges	-	-	-	3,248	19	2	3,940	7	11
Amount of duty on licences granted for periods less than a year	-	-	-	17,223	14	6	15,168	14	1
Malt from barley	39,315,824	41,826,023	35,636,715	5,078,223	18	8	5,628,212	4	5
Beer or higg	615,117	610,637	607,372	61,531	14	0	63,665	18	3
Paper, of all kinds	97,643,825	97,227,336	97,103,848	61,623	17	7	63,668	16	6
Soap, hard	165,984,736	159,928,191	156,888,290	672,410	19	5	1,033,394	16	5
Soft	14,874,063	17,535,836	14,478,351	61,979	3	0	66,255	9	0
Spirits	25,190,843	21,839,237	20,642,333	5,263,220	1	0	5,308,017	0	0
Sugar from beet-root	16	104	3,542	19	16	0	130	16	7
Sweets and medicated spirits imported from Scotland and Ireland	26,207	26,886	29,034	1,809	4	4	1,477	4	2
Vinager	3,003,705	3,090,909	3,102,698	23,079	17	6	26,880	5	4
Amount of duty on horses let for hire	-	-	-	221,046	14	7	210,186	17	8
Total	-	-	-	15,427,378	9	1	15,866,905	16	6

Some excise duties, that were justly objected to, have been repealed within these few years; and we are not sure that there is one of the existing duties (1845) that can be fairly objected to on principle, though the rate of duty might, perhaps, in some cases, be advantageously reduced. We subjoin an account of the articles subject to excise duties in Great Britain in 1842, with the gross and nett produce of the duties in the same year:—

Articles.	Gross Receipt.			Nett Produce.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Auctions	260,500	11	0½	277,878	12	2½
Bricks	400,874	12	11½	393,050	12	9
Glass	769,483	4	4	567,126	7	4½
Hops	266,778	6	8½	260,978	10	10½
Licences	923,997	7	11	923,190	4	10½
Malt	4,430,459	14	0	4,232,429	0	2½
Paper	600,813	9	3	561,917	8	0
Post-horse duty	178,288	5	10½	178,288	5	10½
<i>Ditto</i> licences	4,169	15	10	4,169	15	10
Soap	1,060,848	19	10½	828,004	14	2½
Spirits	4,636,364	18	6½	4,038,911	11	11½
Sugar	6,585	19	7½	6,585	19	7½
Vinegar	23,275	17	3	23,275	17	3
Fines, forfeitures, &c.	13,028,720	3	2½	12,309,818	10	2½
	13,244	1	7½	12,344	1	7½
Total	12,040,964	4	11½	12,322,007	11	11½

But the duty on glass, which interfered injuriously with the manufacturer, and that on vinegar, have been repealed in the present year (1845).

For the more easily levying the revenue of excise, England and Wales are divided into about 56 collections, some of which are called by the names of particular counties, others by the names of great towns, where one county is divided into several collections, or where a collection comprehends the contiguous parts of several counties. Every such collection is subdivided into several districts, within which there is a supervisor; and each district is again subdivided into out-rides and foot-walks, within each of which there is a gauger or surveying officer.

Abstract of the Gross Excise Revenue of England, Scotland, and Ireland, for 1840, 1841, and 1842.

	1840.			1841.			1842.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
England	12,533,664	12	8	11,696,407	19	7	10,693,862	4	11½
Scotland	2,085,473	5	8	2,111,782	4	13	2,347,102	4	17½
Ireland	1,268,187	17	8	1,279,484	12	9½	1,398,281	14	7
United Kingdom	15,886,905	15	8	15,477,674	15	11½	14,539,245	19	6½

The expense of collecting the excise revenue, in 1842, amounted in Great Britain to 62,32,512, per cent. of the gross produce, and in Ireland to 12,166,824, per cent.

It has been objected to the excise duties, that they "greatly raise the cost of subsistence to the labouring classes;" but it is easy to see that this assertion has no solid foundation. Of the above sum of 14,339,346*l.*, produced in the U. Kingdom in 1842, the duties on spirits, malt, and licences produced no less than 10,441,893*l.* 4*s.* 11½*d.* In fact, the only excise duty that can be said to fall on a necessary, is that laid on soap, which produced in the above year, in Great Britain only (for this duty does not extend to Ireland), 828,004*l.* But supposing this duty to amount in ordinary years to 1,000,000*l.* it follows, taking the population of Great Britain at 18,500,000, that it does not, at an average, impose a burden of above 1*s.* 1*d.* on each individual: so that if we estimate its annual pressure on a labouring family of 5 persons at 5*s.* 6*d.*, we shall not be within, but rather beyond, the mark.

The excise duty on sugar was imposed, by the act 3 & 4 Victoria, cap. 57., on all sugar raised in the U. Kingdom, whether from beet-root, potatoes, or other materials. It amounts to 1*s.* a cwt., being the same as the duty on British colonial sugar. We incline, however, to think that the better policy would be to prohibit the home production of such articles; inasmuch as it is sure to facilitate smuggling and adulteration.

The laws with respect to the general management of the excise were consolidated by the 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 5., from which the following particulars are selected:—

Commissioners.—Four commissioners constitute a board. They are to be subject, in all things relating to their peculiar duty, to the orders of the Treasury. They may appoint collectors and other subordinate officers, and give them such salaries and allowances as the Treasury shall direct; but they are not allowed to increase the number of inferior officers without the permission and approval of the Treasury. No member of the House of Commons can be a commissioner of excise.

Officers of Excise.—No officer of excise is to vote or interfere at any election of a member of parliament, under pain of forfeiting 50*l.*, and being rendered incapable of ever holding any office or place of trust under his Majesty.

No person holding any office of excise is to deal in any sort of goods subject to the excise laws.

Any person bribing or offering to bribe any officer of excise shall forfeit 500*l.* and every officer accepting such bribe, or doing, conniving at, or permitting any act or thing whereby any of the provisions of the excise laws may be evaded or broken, shall forfeit 500*l.*, and be declared incapable of ever after serving his Majesty in any capacity whatever. But if any of the parties to such illegal transactions shall inform against the other, before any proceedings thereupon shall have been instituted, he shall be indemnified against the penalties and disabilities imposed for such offences.

Duties and Powers of Officers.—It is lawful for any officer to enter any building or other place, used for carrying on any trade subject to the excise, either by night or by day (but if by night, in the presence of a constable or peace officer), to inspect

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specie the same, &c. And upon an officer making oath that he has cause to suspect that goods forbidden under the excise acts are deposited in any private house or place, the commissioners of excise, or if justified of the power, may grant a warrant to the officer to enter such house or place (if in the night, in the presence of a constable) to search for and seize such forbidden goods.

Warrants shall may be left by the officers on the premises of persons subject to the excise laws; and any one who shall receive or refuse such warrants shall be liable to a penalty of 500*l*.
Removal from a vessel Duty.—Goods fraudulently removed or concealed, in order to avoid the duty, to be forfeited; and every person assisting in such removal shall forfeit and lose twofold the value of such goods, or 100*l*., at the discretion of the commissioners.

Obstructing Officers.—All persons who shall oppose, molest, or any manner of excise in the execution of his duty, shall respectively for every such offence, forfeit 500*l*.

Officers violently resisted in making any seizure may oppose force to force; and in the event of their wounding, maiming, or killing any person, when so opposed, they shall be admitted in jail, and may plead the general issue.

Justices, magistrates, bailiffs, constables, &c. are required to assist excise officers; and any constable or peace officer who, on notice and request, declines going with an excise officer, is to forfeit 5*l*. for every such offence.

Distinctions of Goods seized.—No claim shall be entered for goods seized, except in the real names of the proprietors of such goods. (Alabamians are bound with 3 sureties in a penalty of 100*l*., to pay the expenses of claim; and in default thereof, the goods are to be sold.)

Proceedings in Courts of Law.—All penalties under the excise laws may be heard and adjudged by any 3 or more of the commissioners of excise in the Courts of Exchequer at Westminster, Edinburgh or Dublin respectively, according as the offence may have taken place in England, Scotland, or Ireland; and that the proceedings in the courts commence within 8 years after the commission of the offence.

Information for the recovery of penalties against the excise laws in London may be heard and adjudged by any 3 or more of the commissioners of excise; and in other places such informers may be established before 1 or more justices of the peace, and may be heard and adjudged by any 2 or more such justices.

Mitigation of Penalties.—Justices are authorised, if they shall see cause, except when there is a special provision to the contrary, to mitigate any penalty incurred for any offence committed against the excise laws to one fourth part thereof; but it is lawful for the commissioners of excise, when they see cause, either to mitigate, or entirely remit, such penalty.

Distribution of Penalties.—All penalties and forfeitures incurred under the excise acts are to be distributed, half to his majesty, and half to the officer or persons who shall discover, inform, or sue for the penalty. On proof being made of any officer acting collusively in making a seizure, the commissioners may direct his share to be forfeited.

Oaths and Affirmations.—Persons wilfully taking or making any false oath or affirmation as to any matter connected with the excise laws, shall, upon being convicted of such offence, suffer the pains and penalties incident to wilful and corrupt perjury; and those procuring or abetting such persons to swear or affirm falsely shall, upon conviction, be liable to the pains and penalties incident to subornation of perjury.

Actions against Excise Officers.—No writ, summons, or process shall be sued out or served upon, nor shall any action be brought, raised, or prosecuted against, any officer of excise, for anything done under any of the excise laws, until after the expiration of 1 calendar month next after notice in writing has been delivered to such officer, specifying the cause of such action, and the name and place of abode of the person to whose name it is to be brought. No action shall lie against any excise officer for any thing done under the excise laws, unless he be brought within 3 months after the cause of action shall have arisen. If judgment be given against the plaintiff, and in favour of the defendant, the latter shall, in every such action, have triple costs awarded to him.

Forging Certificates, &c.—By the 41 Geo. 2, c. 91. it is enacted that if any one shall forge, counterfeit, or knowingly give any forged certificate required to be granted by any officer of excise, he shall be guilty of felony, and being convicted, shall be transported for 7 years.

All individuals carrying on any business subjected to the control of the excise, must take out a license renewable annually on the 1st of July. (See *Licenses*.)

All such individuals are also obliged to make entries of every building, place, vessel, or stall, in the name of the owner, in the name of the real owner, with the officer of excise in whose survey such building, place, &c. shall be situated. Individuals found employed in unlicensed excise manufactures are severally liable in a penalty of 50*l*. for the first offence; and in the event of any such offender refusing or neglecting to pay such penalty, he is to be committed to the house of correction or other prison for 3 calendar months, to be kept to hard labour; and not to be liberated until the fine of 50*l*. has been paid, or the term of 3 months has expired; and if found guilty of a second offence, the fine is to be 60*l*., and in the event of its not being paid, the imprisonment is to be for 6 months. (7 & 8 Geo. 4, c. 53, s. 25.)

Permits are usually necessary for the removal of excisable commodities. (See *Permits*.)

EXPORTS, the articles exported, or sent beyond seas. — (See IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.)

F.

FACTOR, an agent employed by some one individual or individuals, to transact business on his or their account. He is not generally resident in the same place as his principal, but, usually, in a foreign country. He is authorised, either by letter of attorney or otherwise, to receive, buy, and sell goods and merchandise; and, generally, to transact all sorts of business on account of his employers, under such limitations and conditions as the letter may choose to impose. A very large proportion of the foreign trade of this and most other countries is now carried on by means of factors or agents.

Factors and brokers are, in some respects, nearly identical, but in others they are radically different. "A factor," said Mr. Justice Holroyd, "differs materially from a broker. The former is a person to whom goods are sent or consigned; and he has not only the possession, but, in consequence of its being usual to advance money upon them, has also a special property in them, and a general lien upon them. When, therefore, he sells in his own name, it is within the scope of his authority; and it may be right, therefore, that the principal should be bound by the consequences of such sale. But the case of a broker is different: he has not the possession of the goods, and so the vendor cannot be deceived by the circumstance; and, besides, the employing a person to sell goods as a broker does not authorise him to sell in his own name. If, therefore, he sells in his own name, he acts beyond the scope of his authority; and his principal is not bound."

A factor is usually paid by a per-centage or commission on the goods he sells or buys. If he act under what is called a *del credere* commission, that is, if he guarantee the price of the goods sold on account of his principal, he receives an additional per-centage to indemnify him for this additional responsibility. In cases of this sort the factor stands in the vendue's place, and must answer to the principal for the value of the goods sold. But where the factor undertakes no responsibility, and intimates that he acts only on account of another, it is clearly established that he is not liable in the event of the vendue's failing.

The sound maxim, that the principal is responsible for the acts of his agent, prevails universally in courts of law and equity. In order to bind the principal, it is necessary only that third parties should deal *bona fide* with the agent, and that the conduct of the latter should be conformable to the common usage and mode of dealing. Thus, a factor may sell goods upon credit, that being in the ordinary course of conducting mercantile

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affairs; but a stock broker, though acting *bona fide*, and with a view to the benefit of his principal, cannot sell stock upon credit, unless he have special instructions to that effect; that being contrary to the usual course of business.

A sale by a factor creates a contract between the owner and buyer; and this rule holds even in cases where the factor acts upon a *del credere* commission. Hence, if a factor sell goods, and the owner give notice to the buyer to pay the price to him, and not to the factor, the buyer will not be justified in afterwards paying the factor, and the owner may bring his action against the buyer for the price, unless the factor has a lien thereon. But if no such notice be given, a payment to the individual selling is quite sufficient.

If a factor buy goods on account of his principal, where he is accustomed so to do, the contract of the factor binds the principal to a performance of the bargain; and the principal is the person to be sued for non-performance. But it is ruled, that if a factor enter into a charterparty of affreightment with the master of a ship, the contract obliges him only, unless he lade the vessel with his principal's goods, in which case the principal and lading become liable, and not the factor. Where a factor, who is authorised to sell goods in his own name, makes the buyer debtor to himself; then, though he be not answerable to the principal for the debt, if the money be not paid, yet he has a right to receive it, if it be paid, and his receipt is a sufficient discharge; the factor may, in such a case, enforce the payment by action, and the buyer cannot defend himself by alleging that the principal was indebted to him in more than the amount.

"Where a factor," said Lord Mansfield, "dealing for a principal, but concealing that principal, delivers goods in his own name, the person contracting with him has a right to consider him, to all intents and purposes, as the principal; and though the real principal may appear, and bring an action on that contract against the purchaser of the goods, yet that purchaser may set off any claim he may have against the factor, in answer to the demand of the principal."

Merchants employing the same factor run the joint risk of his actions, although they are strangers to each other: thus, if different merchants remit to a factor different bales of goods, and the factor sell them as a single lot to an individual who is to pay one moiety of the price down and the other at 6 months' end; if the buyer fail before the second payment, each merchant must bear a proportional share of the loss, and be content to accept his dividend of the money advanced. — (*Beaves, Lex Merc.*)

A factor employed, without his knowledge, in negotiating an illegal or fraudulent transaction, has an action against his principal. On this ground it was decided, that a merchant who had consigned counterfeit jewels to his factor, representing them to be genuine, should make full compensation to the factor for the injury done to him by being concerned in such a transaction, as well as to the persons to whom the jewels had been sold.

The office of a factor or agent being one of very great trust and responsibility, those who undertake it are bound, both legally and morally, to conduct themselves with the utmost fidelity and circumspection. A factor should take the greatest care of his principal's goods in his hands: he should be punctual in advising him as to his transactions on his behalf, in sales, purchases, freights, and, more particularly, bills of exchange: he should deviate as seldom as possible from the terms, and never from the *spirit and tenor*, of the orders he receives as to the sale of commodities: in the execution of a commission for purchasing goods, he should endeavour to conform as closely as practicable to his instructions as to the quality or kind of goods: if he give more for them than he is authorised, they may be thrown on his hands; but he is bound to buy them for as much less as he possibly can. After the goods are bought, he must dispose of them according to order. If he send them to a different place from that to which he was directed, they will be at his risk, unless the principal, on getting advice of the transaction, consent to acknowledge it.*

* "Whoever," says Dr. Paley, "undertakes another man's business, makes it his own; that is, promises to employ upon it the same care, attention, and diligence, that he would do if it were actually his own; for he knows that the business was committed to him with that expectation. And he promises nothing more than this. Therefore, an agent is not obliged to wait, inquire, solicit, ride about the country, toil, or study, whilst there remains a possibility of benefiting his employer. If he exert as much activity, and use such caution, as the value of the business in his judgment deserves; that is, as he would have thought sufficient if the same interest of his own had been at stake; he has discharged his duty, although it should afterwards turn out, that by more activity and longer perseverance, he might have concluded the business with greater advantage." — (*Moral and Pol. Phil.* c. 12.)

There seems to be a good deal of laxity in this statement. It is necessary to distinguish between those who, in executing a commission, render their services for the particular occasion only, without hire, and those who undertake it *in the course of business*, making a regular charge for their trouble. If the former bestow on it that ordinary degree of care and attention which the *generality of mankind* bestow on similar affairs of their own, it is all, perhaps, that can be expected; but the latter will be justly censurable, if they do not execute their engagements on account of others with that care and diligence which a "provident and attentive father of a family" uses in his own private concerns. It is his duty to exert themselves proportionally to the exigency of the affair in hand; and neither to do any thing, how minute soever, by which their employers may sustain damage, nor omit any thing, however inconsiderable, which the nature of the act requires. Perhaps the best general rule on the subject is, to suppose a factor

A factor who sells a commodity under the price he is ordered, may be obliged to make good the difference, unless the commodity be of a perishable nature and not in a condition longer to be kept. And if he purchase goods for another at a fixed rate, and their price having afterwards risen, he fraudulently takes them to himself, and sends them somewhere else, in order to secure an advantage, he will be found, by the custom of merchants, liable in damages to his principal.

If a factor, in conformity with a merchant's orders, buy with his money, or on his credit, a commodity he is directed to purchase, and, without giving advice of the transaction, sells it again at a profit, appropriating that profit to himself, the merchant may recover it from him, and have him amerced for fraud.

If a factor buy, conformably to his instructions, goods of which he is robbed, or which suffer some unavoidable injury, he is discharged, and the loss falls on the principal. But if the goods be stolen from the factor, he will not be so easily discharged; for the fact of their having been abstracted by *stealth*, and not by *violence*, raises a strong presumption that he had not taken that reasonable care of them which was incumbent upon him. If, however, he can prove that the goods were lodged in a place of security, and that he had not been guilty of positive negligence, nor exercised less care towards them than towards his own property, he will not be held responsible even for a theft committed by his servants. — (*Jones on Bailments*, 2d ed. p. 76.; *Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. iii. p. 368.)

If a factor, having money in his hands belonging to his principal, neglect to insure a ship and goods, according to order, he must, in the event of the ship miscarrying, make good the damage; and if he make any composition with the insurers after insurance, without orders to that effect, he is answerable for the whole insurance. A principal at the end of a very long letter, directed his agent thus: "Observe, the premium on this value is also to be insured." But the agent, not noticing this sentence, neglected to insure the premium; and being sued, was held liable for the omission.

If goods are remitted to a factor, and he make a false entry of them at the Custom-house, or land them without entry, and they are, in consequence, seized or forfeited, he is bound to make good the damage to his principal; but if the factor make his entry according to invoice or letters of advice, and these proving erroneous, the goods are seized, he is discharged.

It is now a settled point, that a factor has a lien on goods consigned to him, not only for incidental charges, but as an item of mutual account for the balance due to him so long as he remains in possession. If he be surety in a bond for his principal, he has a lien on the goods sold by him on account of such principal, to the amount of the sum he is bound for.

It being the general rule of law "that property does not change while *in transitu*," or in the hands of a carrier, a consignment made *before* the bankruptcy of a consignor, but not arriving till *after*, remains the property of the consignor, except, indeed, where the *delivery is made by the order* and upon the account of the consignee, and is a complete *alienation from* the consignor. In the case, therefore, of a consignment to a factor, the property remains the consignor's, and passes into the hands of *his* assignees. When a factor has a lien on goods, he has a right to the price, though received after the bankruptcy.

Where general or unlimited orders are given to a factor, he is left to buy and sell on the best conditions he can. And if detriment arise to a principal from the proceedings of a factor acting under such authority, he has no redress, unless he can show that he acted fraudulently or with *gross negligence*.

A factor or broker acting against the interest of his principal cannot even receive his commission. If he pay money on account of his principal, without being authorised, he cannot recover it back.

An agent cannot delegate his rights to another so as to bind the principal, unless expressly authorised to nominate a sub-agent.

(For further information as to the general powers and liabilities of factors and agents, see *Beawes, Lex Mercatoria*, art. *Factors, Supercargoes*, &c.; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 3.; *Woolrych on Commercial Law*, pp. 317—329, &c. See also the article *BROKERS*.)

Under the law with respect to the transactions of factors or agents on third parties that prevailed down to the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 94., it was held, that a factor, as such, had no authority to *pledge*, but only to *sell* the goods of his principal; and it was repeatedly decided that a principal might recover back goods on which a *bonâ fide* advance of

or agent bound to exert that degree of care and vigilance that may be reasonably expected of him by others. At all events, it is clear he is not to be regulated by his own notions of the "value of the business." A man may neglect business of his own, or not think it worth attending to; but he is not, therefore, to be excused for neglecting any similar business he has undertaken to transact for others. — (There are some very good observations on this subject in *Sir William Jones's Essay on Bailments*, 2d ed. p. 53. and *passim*.)

money had been made by a third party, without his being bound to repay such advance; and notwithstanding this third party was wholly ignorant that the individual pledging the goods held them as a mere factor or agent. It used also to be held, that *bona fide* purchasers of goods from factors or agents not vested with the power of sale, might be made liable to pay the price of the goods a second time to the real owner.

The extreme hardship and injurious influence of such regulations is obvious. It is the business of a principal to satisfy himself as to the conduct and character of the factor or agent he employs; and if he make a false estimate of them, it is more equitable, surely, that he should be the sufferer, than those who have no means of knowing any thing of the matter. The injustice of the law in question, and the injury it did to the commerce of the country, had frequently excited attention; and was very ably set forth by the late Lord Liverpool, in his speech in the House of Lords, on moving the second reading of the bill referred to,

"Those of your Lordships who were acquainted with commercial transactions, would know that money was frequently advanced on goods, without its being possible for the person advancing the money to have any further acquaintance with the transactions, than that the factor was in actual possession of the goods. It then became a question, putting fraud out of view, if the factor became a bankrupt, or in any other way failed to execute his engagements, whether the loss should fall on the principal who had consigned these goods, or on the pledgee who had advanced money on them. It had been of late ruled, that if the factor were intrusted only to dispose of the property, the loss must fall on the pledgee. He meant to contend, that this was contrary to equity, and contrary to analogy; that it was disapproved of by high authority, and was contrary to the law in every country of the world, except this, and the United States of America, which had drawn their law from this country. It was contrary to equity, he thought, that the pledgee, who had advanced his money without any fraud, but on the *bona fide* possession of the goods, should suffer. He had placed no confidence, but the principal who had appointed the factor had placed confidence. He could limit him in his operations as he pleased — he could give him any kind of instructions — he might qualify his power — he was bound to take precautions before placing confidence; and he was in all respects more liable to suffer from his faults than the pledgee. The latter knew nothing of the power of the factor, he saw only the goods, and advanced his money on what was a sufficient security for repayment. On every principle of natural equity, therefore, the loss ought to fall, not on the pledgee, but on the principal. He knew that this view was connected with one very important question — that of possession and title; but it was not possible for transactions to go on, unless the possession was admitted as the title to the goods. If this were an indifferent question, or a question involving only a few cases, he would not have called on their Lordships to legislate on this subject; but all the commercial interests of the country were connected with it. And he might say he believed that two thirds of the whole commerce of the country was carried on by consigning goods to a factor, and leaving it to his discretion to dispose of them to the greatest advantage, sending them to market when he pleased, and raising money on them when he could not send them to market. Bills of exchange, Banker's bills, and money bills of every description, were subject to this rule. If a person consigned Exchange bills to a second person, and he parted with them, the third party who obtained them was held to have a right to them. Commercial proceedings were of as much importance as money proceedings, and he could not see why they should not receive the same security. It might be asked, perhaps, when this was felt to be so great an evil, why it was not altered before; but it seemed to be one of those things which had grown up gradually, and which did much mischief before they became actually known. The first decision, he believed, which established the law as it now stood, was delivered in 1749, and he knew that Lord Chief Justice Gibbs had said, he could not explain the origin of that decision. He supposed it might have been dictated by some fraud. That decision, the Lord Chief Justice maintained, was at variance with the best interests of commerce, and had grown out of circumstances he could not explain. From the time of the first decision, the decisions had not been numerous, till of late years. He did not doubt but the judges had decided according to the law as it was established by these precedents; but in doing that, they had expressed their regret that these precedents had been established. [Here his Lordship read an extract from opinions delivered by the late Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough, and a late Judge, Mr. Le Blanc, expressing their regret, in deciding cases according to these precedents, that they had been established.] He inferred from these opinions, that these judges, though they had felt themselves obliged to decide in this way, supposed that the law was contrary to the general analogy of our laws, and to the principles of justice. He then came to the last consideration, the law of this country being in this respect different from the law of all other countries, except the law of the United States of America. In all other countries, the law was recognised to be what he wished to establish by the bill before their Lordships. When there was no evidence of fraud, it was held, that the man advancing money on goods held by a factor, should not suffer for his faults, but that the person who consigned in the factor must be the sufferer. This was also the law in Scotland. He had mentioned, too, that the evils of the law were felt in America, and that means had been taken for bringing it before the congress, with a view to assimilate the law of America to the law of other countries. If the question were examined by the principles of equity, by analogy with other cases, by the authority of those who decided in our courts, or by the practice of other countries, it would be found that the reasons were strong in favour of the bill. It was of great importance in commercial transactions, that our law should be like the laws of other countries. It was not the same with the laws relative to real property — to our local law, if he might so call it; but when the bill was founded on equity and analogy, he thought it was an additional reason in its favour, that it assimilated our commercial law to the commercial law of other countries. He did not know if he had made himself understood, or if he had sufficiently explained the object of the bill; but the measure was founded in justice, and he hoped to have their Lordships' assent to it." The noble Earl concluded by moving the second reading of the bill.

Nothing can be clearer or more satisfactory than the principle laid down by Lord Liverpool, in the above extract from his speech. But the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 94., which his Lordship introduced, did not fully carry out his views; for while it confirms *bona fide* sales, made in the ordinary course of business, in cases in which the purchaser had notice that the seller was merely an agent, it does not confirm *bona fide* advances made on goods, or on documents of title to goods, under the same circumstances. To obviate this discrepancy, to get rid of the litigation to which certain ambiguities in the 6 Geo. 4. c. 94. had given rise, and to facilitate commerce, the following statute, 5 & 6 Victoria, c. 39., was passed in 1842.

Bona fide Advances to Persons intrusted with the Possession of Goods or Documents of Title, though known to be Agents, protected. — From and after the passing of this act, any agent intrusted with the

possession of goods, or of the documents of title to goods, shall be deemed and taken to be owner of such goods and documents, so far as to give validity to any contract or agreement by way of pledge, lien, or security *bond fide* made by any person with such agent, as well for any original loan, advance, or payment made upon the security of such goods or documents, as also for any further or continuing advances in respect thereof; and such contract or agreement shall be binding upon and good against the owner of such goods, and all other persons interested therein, notwithstanding the person claiming such pledge or lien may have had notice that the person with whom such contract or agreement is made is only an agent. — § 1.

Bond fide Deposits in exchange practised. — Where any such contract or agreement for pledge, lien, or security shall be made in consideration of the delivery or transfer to such agent of any other goods or merchandise, or document of title, or negotiable security, upon which the person so delivering up the same had at the time a valid and available lien and security for or in respect of a previous advance by virtue of some contract or agreement made with such agent, such contract and agreement, if *bond fide* on the part of the person with whom the same may be made, shall be deemed to be a contract made in consideration of an advance within the true intent and meaning of this act, and shall be as valid and effectual, to all intents and purposes, and to the same extent, as if the consideration for the same had been a *bond fide* present advance of money; provided always, that the lien acquired under such last-mentioned contract or agreement upon the goods or documents deposited in exchange shall not exceed the value at the time of the goods and merchandise which, or the documents of title to which, or the negotiable security which shall be delivered up and exchanged. — § 2.

But the Statute to protect only Transactions bond fide. — This act, and every matter and thing herein contained, shall be deemed and construed to give validity to such contracts and agreements only, and to protect only such loans, advances, and exchanges, as shall be made *bond fide*, and without notice that the agent making such contracts or agreements as aforesaid has not authority to make the same, or is acting *malà fide* in respect thereof against the owner of such goods and merchandise; and nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to or protect any lien or pledge for or in respect of any antecedent debt, owing from any agent to any person with or to whom such lien or pledge shall be given or received as aforesaid in deviating from any express order or authority received from the owner; but that, for the purpose and to the intent of protecting only *bond fide* loans, advances, and exchanges as aforesaid (though made with notice of such agent not being the owner, but without any notice of the agent's acting without authority), and to no further or any other intent or purpose, such contract or agreement as aforesaid shall be binding on the owner and all other persons interested in such goods. — § 3.

Meaning of the Term "Document of Title," &c. — Any bill of lading, India warrant, dock warrant, warehouse keeper's certificate, warrant, or order for the delivery of goods, or any other document used in the ordinary course of business as proof of the possession or control of goods, or authorizing or purporting to authorize, either by indorsement or by delivery, the possessor of such document to transfer or receive goods thereby represented, shall be deemed and taken to be a document of title within the meaning of this act; and any agent intrusted as aforesaid, and possessed of any such document of title, whether derived immediately from the owner of such goods, or obtained by reason of such agent's having been intrusted with the possession of the goods, or of any other document of title thereto, shall be deemed and taken to have been intrusted with the possession of the goods represented by such document of title as aforesaid, and all contracts pledging or giving a lien upon such documents of title as aforesaid shall be deemed and taken to be respectively pledges of and liens upon the goods to which the same relate; and such agent shall be deemed to be possessed of such goods or documents, whether the same shall be in his actual custody, or shall be held by any other person subject to his control or on his behalf; and where any loan or advance shall be *bond fide* made to any agent intrusted with and in possession of any such goods or documents of title as aforesaid, on the faith of any contract or agreement in writing to consign, deposit, transfer, or deliver such goods or documents of title as aforesaid, and such goods or documents of title shall actually be received by the person making such loan or advance, without notice that such agent was not authorised to make such pledge or security, every such loan or advance shall be deemed and taken to be a loan or advance on the security of such goods or documents of title within the meaning of this act, though such goods or documents of title shall not actually be received by the person making such loan or advance till the period subsequent thereto; and any contract or agreement, whether made direct with such agent as aforesaid, or with any clerk or other person on his behalf, shall be deemed a contract or agreement with such agent; and any payment made, whether by money or bill of exchange, or other negotiable security, shall be deemed and taken to be an advance within the meaning of this act; and an agent in possession as aforesaid of such goods or documents shall be taken, for the purposes of this act, to have been intrusted therewith by the owner thereof, unless the contrary can be shown in evidence. — § 4.

Agent's civil Responsibility not to be diminished. — Nothing herein contained shall lessen, vary, alter, or affect the civil responsibility of an agent for any breach of duty or contract, or non-fulfilment of his orders or authority in respect of any such contract, agreement, lien, or pledge as aforesaid. — § 5.

Agent making consignments contrary to Instruction of Principal, guilty of Misdemeanor. — If any agent intrusted as aforesaid shall, contrary to or without the authority of his principal in that behalf, for his own benefit and in violation of good faith, make any consignment, deposit, transfer, or delivery of any goods or documents of title so intrusted to him as aforesaid, and by way of a pledge, lien, or security; or shall, contrary to or without such authority, for his own benefit and in violation of good faith, accept any advance on the faith of any contract or agreement to consign, deposit, transfer, or deliver such goods or documents of title as aforesaid; every such agent shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and being convicted thereof, shall be sentenced to transportation for any term not exceeding 14 years nor less than 7 years, or to suffer such other punishment by fine or imprisonment, or by both, as the court shall award; and every clerk or other person who shall knowingly and wilfully act and assist in or being any such consignment, deposit, transfer, or delivery, or in accepting or procuring such advance as aforesaid, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and being convicted thereof, shall be liable, at the discretion of the court, to any of the punishments which the court shall award, as hereinbefore last mentioned; provided nevertheless, that no such agent shall be liable to any prosecution for consigning, depositing, transferring, or delivering any such goods or documents of title, in case the same shall not be made a security for or subject to the payment of any greater sum of money than the amount which at the time of such consignment, deposit, transfer, or delivery was justly due and owing to such agent from his principal, together with the amount of any bills of exchange drawn by or on account of such principal, and accepted by such agent; provided also, that the conviction of any such agent shall not be received in evidence in any action at law or suit in equity against him, and no agent intrusted as aforesaid shall be liable to be convicted by the court in respect of any act done by him, if he shall, at any time previously to his being indicted for such offence, have disclosed the same in open court, in consequence of any compulsory process of any court of law or equity in any action, suit, or proceeding which shall have been *bond fide* instituted by any party aggrieved, or if he shall have disclosed the same in any examination or deposition before any commissioner of bankrupt. — § 6.

Right of Owner to redeem, &c. — Nothing herein contained shall prevent such owner as aforesaid from having the right to redeem such goods or documents of title pledged or aforesaid at any time before such goods shall have been sold, upon repayment of the amount of the lien thereon, or restoration of the securities in respect of which such lien may exist, and upon payment or satisfaction to such agent, if by him required, of any sum of money for or in respect of which such agent would by law be entitled to

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retain the same goods or documents, or any of them, by way of lien as against such owner, or to prevent the said owner from recovering of and from such person with whom any such goods or documents may have been pledged, or who shall have any such lien thereon as aforesaid, any balance or sum of money remaining in his hands as the produce of the sale of such goods, after deducting the amount of the lien of such person under such contract or agreement: provided always, that in case of the bankruptcy of any such agent, the owner of the goods which shall have been so redeemed by such owner shall, in respect of the sum paid by him on account of such agent for such redemption, be held to have paid such sum for the use of such agent before his bankruptcy, and in case the goods shall not be so redeemed, the owner shall be deemed a creditor of such agent for the value of the goods so pledged at the time of the pledge, and shall, if he shall think fit, be entitled in either of such cases to prove for or set off the sum so paid, or the value of such goods, as the case may be.—§ 7.

Clause 8. refers to the interpretation of the act.

FACTORAGE, or COMMISSION, the allowance given to factors by the merchants and manufacturers, &c. who employ them: it is a percentage on the goods they purchase or sell on account of their principals; and varies in different countries, and as it refers to different articles. It is customary for factors, as observed in the previous article, to insure the debts due to those for whom they sell for an additional, or *del credere*, commission, generally averaging from 1½ to 2 per cent. Factorage or commission is also frequently charged at a certain rate per cask, or other package, measure, or weight, especially when the factor is only employed to receive or deliver: this commission is usually fixed by special agreement between the merchant and factor.

Factorage, Brokerage, and Commission Table.

Amnt.	At ¼ per Ct.	At ½ per Ct.	At ¾ per Ct.	At 1 per Ct.	At 1 ¼ per Ct.	At 1 ½ per Ct.	At 2 per Ct.	At 3 per Ct.
1	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
2	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
3	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
4	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
5	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
6	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
7	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
8	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
9	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
10	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
20	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
30	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
40	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
50	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
60	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
70	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
80	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
90	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
100	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
200	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
300	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
400	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
500	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
600	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
700	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
800	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
900	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
1,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
2,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
3,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
4,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
5,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
10,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0

Amnt.	At 1 ¼ per Ct.	At 2 per Ct.	At 2 ½ per Ct.	At 3 per Ct.	At 4 per Ct.	At 4 ½ per Ct.	At 5 per Ct.
1	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
2	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
3	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
4	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
5	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
6	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
7	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
8	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
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200	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
300	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
400	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
500	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
600	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
700	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
800	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
900	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
1,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
2,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
3,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
4,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
5,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0
10,000	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	0 0 0 0

FACTORY, in commerce, a place where merchants and factors reside, to negotiate business for themselves and their correspondents on commission. We have factories in China, Turkey, Russia, &c.

6. *Clerk of the Market.* — Owners and governors of fairs are to take care that every thing be sold according to just weights and measures. And for that and other purposes they may appoint a clerk of the fair or market, who is to mark and allow all such weights, &c.; charging 1*d.* for sealing and marking a bushel, $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* for marking a half bushel or peck, and $\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* for marking a gallon, pottle, quart, pint, &c., under penalty of 5*l.* — (22 *Cha.* 2. c. 8.)

7. *Tolls.* — Being a matter of private benefit to the owners of fairs or markets, and not incidental to them, tolls are not exigible unless specially granted in the patent: but the king may by a new grant authorise a reasonable toll to be taken. If the toll granted be excessive, the patent will be void. It is a general rule, unless changed by a contrary custom obtaining time out of mind, that no toll be paid for any thing brought to a fair or market, before the same is sold, and that it shall then be paid by the buyer.

The owner of a house next to a fair or market is not allowed to open his shop during such fair or market without paying *stallage* (toll for having a stall); on the ground that if he take the benefit of the market he ought to pay the duties thereon. This regulation has been a good deal complained of.

The owners of fairs and markets are required by statute (2 & 3 Ph. and M. c. 7.) to appoint a person in a special open place to take the toll. The most important part of this person's duty has reference to his entering the horses sold with three distinguishing marks, and the names, &c. of those who buy and sell them. — (See *Horses*.)

An action lies against any one who refuses to pay the customary toll.

(For further information as to British fairs and markets, see *Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. ii. c. 9.)

The 3 Geo. 4. c. 55. enacts, that at all fairs held within 10 miles of Temple Bar, business and amusements of all kinds shall cease at 11 o'clock in the evening, and not re-commence before 6 o'clock in the morning, under a penalty of 40*s.* to be paid by any master, mistress, or other person, having the care or management of any house, shop, room, booth, standing, tent, caravan or wagon, where any breach of this enactment shall have been committed. Power is also given by the same act to any 2 justices of the peace, within their respective jurisdictions, to put a stop to any fair which is held without charter, prescription, or lawful authority.

8. *Principal British Fairs.* — Among these may be specified Stourbridge, in Worcestershire. Bristol has two considerable fairs, one in March and one in September. Exeter December fair, for cattle, horses, and most sorts of commodities. Weyhill fair, in Hampshire (October 10.), has, probably, the greatest display of sheep of any fair in the kingdom. Bartholomew fair, in London, used to be of considerable importance, but latterly it was appropriated only to shows of wild beasts, and such like exhibitions, and has, within these few years, been very properly suppressed. St. Faith's near Norwich (October 17.), is the principal English fair for Scotch cattle. They are sold to the graziers and feeders of Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, &c., by whom they are fattened for the London markets, where they are met with in great abundance. But besides those sold at St. Faith's, large numbers of Scotch cattle are disposed of at Market Harborough, Carlisle, Ormskirk, and other places. Ipswich has two considerable fairs: one in August, for lambs; and one in September, for butter and cheese: it is reckoned that above 100,000 lambs are annually sold at the former. Woodborough-hill, in Dorset, for west country manufactures, as kerseys, druggets, &c. Woodstock October fair, for cheese. Northampton and Nottingham have each several large fairs, for horses, cattle, cheese, &c. The August fair of Horncastle, in Lincolnshire, is the largest horse fair in the kingdom, many thousands horses being exhibited for sale during its continuance: it is resorted to by crowds of dealers from all parts of Great Britain, by several from the Continent, and sometimes even from North America. Howden, in Yorkshire, has, also, a very large horse fair, particularly for Yorkshire hunters. Devizes, in Wiltshire, has several large fairs for sheep and cattle. There is usually a large display of cheese at the Gloucester April fair. A guild, or jubilee, commencing the last week of August, is held every twentieth year at Preston, in Lancashire; the last was held in 1842, and was well attended. The October fair of Market Harborough, Leicestershire, lasts 9 days, and a great deal of business is usually done in cattle, cheese, &c. Woodbridge Lady-day fair is celebrated for the show of Suffolk horses. Falkirk fair, or tryst, is one of the most important in Scotland, for the sale of cattle and sheep. The October fair of Ballinasloe, in the county Galway, is famous for the display of cattle and sheep; by far the largest proportion of these animals raised for sale in Connaught being disposed of at it. The sheep are generally from 3 to 4, the heifers from 3 to 4, and the bullocks from 4 to 5 years of age. They are mostly lean; and are kept for a year in Leinster before they are fit for the Dublin or Liverpool markets.

We subjoin an

Account of the Number of Sheep and Cattle exhibited at the October Fairs of Ballinacloe, from 1790 to 1842, both inclusive.

Years.	Sheep, total sold and unsold.	Horned Cattle, total sold and unsold.	Years.	Sheep, total sold and unsold.	Horned Cattle, total sold and unsold.	Years.	Sheep, total sold and unsold.	Horned Cattle, total sold and unsold.
1790	61,631	8,632	1808	82,799	9,327	1886	84,405	9,240
1791	67,227	8,162	1809	78,948	8,457	1887	91,573	8,549
1792	68,031	7,929	1810	81,001	7,528	1888	97,384	11,513
1793	68,484	7,816	1811	85,489	7,462	1889	86,112	8,523
1794	67,473	7,337	1812	83,529	9,982	1830	81,556	7,272
1795	65,847	7,296	1813	77,068	9,669	1831	82,176	8,269
1796	70,551	8,289	1814	80,920	9,611	1832	83,054	8,189
1797	71,248	6,800	1815	84,764	8,149	1833	86,412	8,761
1798	74,151	7,651	1816	75,553	8,853	1834	86,714	8,637
1799	77,537	9,957	1817	70,309	6,402	1835	84,431	5,584
1800	70,286	7,748	1818	70,877	9,610	1836	85,638	9,483
1801	75,292	9,743	1819	78,222	9,738	1837	89,336	9,137
1802	84,426	9,744	1820	80,778	8,503	1838	89,969	14,143
1803	87,682	6,664	1821	83,400	7,394	1839	96,231	11,750
1804	87,604	8,901	1822	90,177	5,017	1840	91,922	12,208
1805	84,254	10,104	1823	85,939	10,909	1841	77,189	14,164
1806	87,585	12,190	1824	84,224	10,505	1842	76,815	14,564
1807	80,262	8,268	1825	94,253	10,258			

9. *Principal French Fairs.* — Among these may be specified the fairs of St. Germain's, Lyons, Rheims, Chartres, Rouen, Bordeaux, Troyes, and Bayonne; but they are much fallen off.

The most important of the modern French fairs is that of Beaucaire, on the right bank of the Rhone opposite to Tarrascon, 14 miles E. Nismes. It is very favourably situated for an entrepôt, being, exclusive of the command of internal navigation afforded by the Rhone, connected by canals with the sea and the *Canal du Midi*. The fair, which commences on the 22d and finishes on the 28th of July, was formerly the greatest in Europe, and, though a good deal fallen off, it is still attended by a vast concourse of people, not from France only, but also from Switzerland, Germany, Italy, Spain, and the Levant. Almost every sort of article, whether of convenience or luxury, may then be met with in the town. It is said that the number of visitors still amounts to from 70,000 to 80,000, and the amount of business done to 150,000,000 fr.; but we incline to think that these estimates, especially the first, is very greatly exaggerated, and that it would be nearer the mark were it reduced a half. All bills due at this fair are presented on the 27th, and protested on the 28th. A tribunal instituted for the purpose takes cognizance of and immediately settles all disputes growing out of transactions that take place at the fair. A military force attends to preserve order, and the prefect of the department, who is always present, entertains the principal merchants and strangers. — (See *Geographical Dictionary*, art. *Beaucaire*, and the authorities there referred to.)

10. *German Fairs.* — The principal German, or rather European, fairs, are those of Frankfort on the Maine, Frankfort on the Oder, and Leipsic. The concourse of merchants, and the business done at these fairs, are generally very great. They are copiously supplied with the cotton stuffs, twist, cloths, and hardware of England; the silks and jewellery of France; the printed cottons of Switzerland and Austria; the raw, manufactured, and literary products of Germany; the furs of the North; Turkey carpets; Cachemere shawls, &c.; and there, also, are to be found merchants of all countries, those of Ispahan negotiating with those of Montreal for the purchase of furs; and Georgians and Servians supplying themselves with the cottons of Manchester and the jewellery of Paris. There, in fact, are met the representatives, as it were, of every people in the world, labouring, though without intending it, to promote each other's interest, and to extend and strengthen those ties that bind together the great family of the human race.

The fairs at Frankfort on the Maine should begin, the first on Easter Tuesday, and the second on the Monday nearest to the 8th of September. Their duration is limited to 3 weeks, but they usually begin from 8 to 15 days before their legal commencement. Accounts are kept in rixdollars: 1 rixdollar of account = 1½ florin, or 4½ copsticks, or 22½ batzen. The rixdollar = 3s. 1 8d.; so that the par of exchange is 141 batzen per 1l. sterling. 100 lbs. common Frankfort weight = 103 lbs. avoirdupois. The foot = 11 2/7 English inches.

The fairs at Frankfort on the Oder are 3 in number: viz. *Reminiscere*, in February or March; *St. Margaret*, in July; and *St. Martin*, in November. They ought, strictly speaking, to terminate in 8 days, but they usually extend to 15. The Prussian government gives every facility to those who attend these fairs. Accounts are kept in Prussian money, that is, in rixdollars of 2s. 11½d. 100 lbs. Prussian = 103 lbs. avoirdupois. The foot = 12 3/56 English inches.

The fairs of Leipsic are still more celebrated than those of either Frankfort. They are held thrice a year, — on the 1st of January, at Easter, and at Michaelmas. The first is the least important. The Easter and Michaelmas fairs are famous, particularly the former, for the vast number of new publications usually offered for sale. They are

attended by all the principal booksellers of Germany, and by many from the adjoining countries, who adjust their accounts, learn the state of the trade in all parts of the world, and endeavour to form new connections. Most German publishers have agents in Leipsic; which is to the literature of Germany, what London is to that of Great Britain. As many as 4,500 new publications have been in a single Leipsic catalogue! They are also great markets for Saxon woollens and other goods, British calicos, French silks, and, in fact, for most descriptions of produce. The fairs ought to close in 8 days, but they usually continue for about 3 weeks. No days of grace are allowed. The holder of a bill must demand payment on the day it becomes due; and, if not paid, he must have it protested on that very day, and returned by the first opportunity. If he neglect any of these regulations, he loses all right of recourse upon the drawer and indorsers. Money of account at Leipsic same as at Frankfort on the Maine. 100 lbs. Leipsic = 103 lbs. avoirdupois. The foot = 11.11 English inches. — (*Kelly's Cambist; Manuel de Nelkenbrecher; Bowring's Report on the Prussian Commercial Union*, pp. 255—269, &c.

Dr. Bright gives, in his *Travels in Hungary* (pp. 201—223.), an interesting account of the fairs held at Debretzin and Pesth. The latter has become the grand centre of Hungarian commerce; most part of which is conducted at its fairs.

11. *Italian Fairs.*—Of these, the most celebrated is that of Sinigaglia, a small but handsome town of the Papal dominions, on the Misa, near its confluence with the Adriatic. The fair commences on the 20th of July, and should terminate on the last day of that month, but it usually continues 8 or 10 days longer. The duties on goods brought to the fair are extremely moderate, and every thing is done to promote the convenience of those frequenting it. All sorts of cotton, woollen, and silk goods, colonial produce, iron and steel, hardware, jewellery, brandy and liqueurs, timber, drugs, spices, &c. are brought here by the English, French, Austrians, Swiss, &c. These are exchanged for the various raw and manufactured products of Italy and the Levant; consisting, among others, of raw, thrown, and wrought silks; oil, fruits, cheese, alum, soda, sumach, sulphur, &c. The value of the imports for the fair of 1841 was estimated at about 1,700,000*l.* Accounts are kept in scudi of 20 soldi; the scudo = 4*s.* 4*d.* very nearly. 100 lbs. Sinigaglia = 73*½* avoirdupois. The ell or braccio measures 25.33 English inches. — (*Manuel de Nelkenbrecher; Macgregor's Tariffs, Italy*, p. 121.)

12. *Russian Fairs.*—These are numerous, and many of them are well attended. The most important is held at Nijnii-Novgorod, at the confluence of the Oka with the Wolga, lat. 56° 19' 40" N. lon. 44° 28' 30" E. Previously to 1817 this fair was held in a less convenient situation, at Makarieff, lower down the Wolga. But the buildings for the accommodation of the merchants at the latter having been accidentally burnt down in 1816, government took advantage of the circumstance to remove the fair to Nijnii. It is principally carried on within the new bazaars constructed for that purpose on the left bank of the Oka. These, which are divided into parallel rows or streets, are constructed of stone walls roofed with iron, having covered galleries in front supported by iron pillars. They are built on piles, and, to guard against inundations, the ground on which they stand has been raised about 20 feet. Being enclosed on 3 sides by canals, and on the 4th by a navigable inlet of the Oka, there is every facility for the delivery and shipment of goods. The establishment is of great extent, comprising 2,524 booths, and is admitted on all hands to be at once the largest and most perfect of its kind that is anywhere to be met with. But, in addition to the above, no fewer than 2,506 shops and booths, belonging to private parties, and constructed of wood, were occupied during the fair of 1841. The fair begins on the 1st of July and continues for a month or 6 weeks.

The value of the different Russian products offered for sale and sold in 1841 is stated to have been as follows:—

Articles.	Offered for Sale.	Sold.
	<i>Silver roubles.</i>	<i>Silver roubles.</i>
Cottons	7,536,665	5,047,865
Woollen stuffs	3,148,495	2,680,173
Linen	3,180,732	2,575,736
Silks	3,820,489	3,230,389
Hides	1,096,473	1,198,473
Hides, raw and tanned	1,043,583	875,983
Metals and works in metal	7,900,330	6,450,330
Porcelain, earthenware, &c.	309,860	336,860
Dried fish, caviar, fish oil, &c.	813,778	475,478
Corn and flour	2,850,750	1,643,750
Wine, brandy, &c.	806,786	781,386
Refined sugar, wax, paper, bristles, &c.	4,753,148	4,616,748
Totals	37,132,693	29,763,473 *

The value of the merchandise offered for sale and sold at this fair in the undermentioned years, is stated, in the official returns, to have been as follows:—

* One silver rouble is equal to 3*½* paper roubles, and is worth about 3*s.* 2*d.*

Years.	Merchandise offered for Sale.		Merchandise sold.	
		Paper roubles.		Paper roubles.
1837		146,638,181		125,567,881
1838		126,139,502		120,534,509
1839		163,643,674		137,700,774
1840		165,427,384		135,801,451
1841		176,775,121		145,364,298

Tea, brought from Kiachta, is an important article at the Novgorod fairs. Previously to 1840 the quantity of tea sold at any single fair did not exceed 38,000 chests; but in 1840 and 1841 the quantities, exclusive of about 5,500 chests of coarse or Tartar tea, exceeded 50,000 chests each year, its value in 1841 having been estimated at 7,107,500 silver roubles. The total value of the various articles of Asiatic (including Chinese) produce exposed for sale at Novgorod in 1841 amounted to 9,146,719 silver roubles, being more than double the value of the products of Western Europe exposed in the same year. Of the latter, indigo, wine, and cottons were the principal articles.— (*Journal des Manufactures, Petersburg, 1842.*) The stationary population of the town, which may amount to about 25,000, is, during the fair, said to amount to from 130,000 to 160,000, including Chinese, Persians, Armenians, Tartars, Bokharians, &c. Theatrical exhibitions, shows of wild beasts, and other Bartholomew fair exhibitions, add to the attractions of the scene.

Another celebrated Russian fair is held, in the month of December, at Kiachta, in Mongolia, on the Chinese frontier, lat. 50° 21' 5" N., lon. 106° 28' 15" E. The town is small, the population not exceeding 4,000 or 5,000; but by far the largest part of the commerce between the Russian and Chinese empires is transacted at its fair, and it is also the centre of the political intercourse between them. The commodities brought by the Russians consist principally of Russian and German broad cloths, furs, sheep and lamb skins, leather, coarse linens, worsted stuffs, cattle, &c., with, for the most part, bullion. These they exchange with the Chinese for tea, raw and manufactured silk, nankeens, porcelain, sugar candy, rhubarb, tobacco, musk, &c., the value of the articles other than tea being, however, quite inconsiderable. The quantity of tea purchased at the Kiachta fairs by the Russians, which has latterly increased very considerably, amounted, in 1841, according to the official returns, to 242,608 poods, or 8,733,888 lbs., valued at 7,313,325 silver roubles. It consists principally of the fine and costly species of tea called pekoo; and in the above year, its estimated cost price, taking the rouble at 3s. 2d., must have been as high as 2s. 7½d. per lb. But, exclusive of this, the Russians buy large quantities of a coarser species of tea, called break or Tartar tea, which, though not thought worth the trouble of putting into packages, is largely consumed by the nomadic Tartars and Siberians. According to the same accounts, the total value of the exports to China, which pass almost wholly through Kiachta, in 1841, amounted to 7,671,118 silver roubles, and that of the imports to 7,687,576 do. The Russian trade is in the hands of a comparatively small number of merchants, some of whom are very rich; that of the Chinese is much more diffused. Commodities may be conveyed from Kiachta to European Russia either by land or by water. In the former case, the journey takes a year; in the latter, it takes 3 years, or rather 3 very short summers; the rivers being for the most part of the year frozen over.— (*Schnitzler, Statistique Générale de l'Empire de la Russie*, p. 143; *Official Statement of the Trade of the Russian Empire in 1841*, &c.)

13. *Eastern Fairs.*—The most important fair in the Eastern world is that held at Mecca, during the resort of pilgrims in the month of Dhalhajja. It used to be frequented by many thousands of individuals of all ranks and orders, brought together from the remotest corners of the Mohammedan world; and though the numbers attending it have declined of late years, the concourse is still very great.— (See CARAVAN.)

Hurdwar, in Hindostan, in lat. 29° 57' N., lon. 78° 2' E., 117 miles N. E. from Delhi, is famous from its being one of the principal places of Hindoo pilgrimage, and the greatest fair in India. The town, which is but inconsiderable, is situated on the Ganges, at the point where that sacred stream issues from the mountains. The pilgrimage and fair are held together at the vernal equinox; and Europeans, nowise addicted to exaggeration, who have been repeatedly present on these occasions, estimate that from 200,000 to 300,000 strangers are then assembled in the town and its vicinity. But every twelfth year is reckoned peculiarly holy; and then it is supposed that from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000, and even 2,000,000 pilgrims and dealers are congregated together from all parts of India and the countries to the north. In 1819, which happened to be a twelfth year, when the auspicious moment for bathing in the Ganges was announced to the impatient devotees, the rush was so tremendous that no fewer than 430 persons were either trampled to death under foot, or drowned in the river! The foreigners resorting to Hurdwar fair for commercial purposes only, consist principally of natives of Nepal, the Punjab, and Peshawar, with Afghans, Usbeck Tartars, &c. They import vast numbers of horses, cattle, and camels; Persian dried fruits, shawls, drugs, &c.: the returns are made in cotton piece goods, indigo, sugar, spices, and other tropical productions.

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Sold.
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5,620,175
2,375,736
2,329,569
1,498,273
876,683
6,456,530
336,869
473,978
1,645,750
781,308
4,516,748
39,762,473 *

mentioned

The merchants never mention the price of their goods, but conduct the bargain by touching the different joints of their fingers, to hinder the bystanders gaining any information. During the Mahratta sway, a kind of poll-tax and duties on cattle were levied; but all is now free, without impost or molestation of any sort. Owing, also, to the precautions adopted by the British government, the most perfect order is preserved; much to the surprise and satisfaction of the natives; for, antecedent to our occupation of the country, the fairs usually ended in disorder and bloodshed. — (*Private information, and the excellent account of Hurdwar in Hamilton's Gazetteer.*)

The fairs of Portobello, Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, once so famous, are now totally deserted; that of the Havannah is also much fallen off.

FATHOM, a measure of length, 6 feet, chiefly used for measuring the length of cordage, and the depth of water and mines.

FEATHERS, BED-FEATHERS (Fr. *Plumes, Plumes à lit*; Ger. *Federn, Bettfedern*; Du. *Bedveern, Pluimen*; It. *Piume*; Sp. *Plumas*), make a considerable article of commerce; particularly those of the ostrich, heron, swan, peacock, goose, and other poultry; for plumes, ornaments of the head, filling of beds, quilts, &c. The coarsest part of the ostrich plumage is generally denominated *hair*, to which it bears a resemblance, and is used in the manufacture of hats. Many parts of Great Britain supply feathers for beds, and an inferior sort is brought from Ireland. Eider down is imported from the north of Europe; the ducks that supply it being inhabitants of Greenland, Iceland, and Norway. The eider duck breeds in the islands on the west of Scotland, but not in sufficient numbers to form a profitable branch of trade to the inhabitants. Hudson's Bay furnishes very fine feathers. The down of the swan is brought from Dantzic, as well as large quantities of superior feathers.

The bed-feathers imported in 1842 produced 776*l.* of duty; the duty on ostrich feathers during the same year being 83*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*

FIDDLES, or VIOLINS (Ger. *Violinen, Geigen*; Du. *Vioolen*; Fr. *Violons*; It. *Violini*; Sp. *Violines*; Rus. *Шрипицѣи*), musical instruments, too well known to need any particular description. The finest-toned violins are those made in Italy; they are usually called Cremonas, from the name of the town where they were formerly manufactured in the highest perfection: 50 or 60 guineas have not unfrequently been given for a Cremona violin.

FIGS (Ger. *Feigen*; Du. *Vygen*; Fr. *Figues*; It. *Fichi*; Sp. *Higos*; Lat. *Fici, Caricæ*; Arab. *Tven*), the fruit of the fig tree (*Ficus carica*), a native of Asia, but early introduced into Europe. It flourishes in Turkey, Greece, France, Spain, Italy, and Northern Africa, and even sometimes ripens its fruit in the open air in this country. Figs, when ripe, are, for the most part, dried in ovens to preserve them; and then packed very closely in the small chests and baskets in which we import them. The best come from Turkey; those of Kalamata, in the Morea, are said to be the most luscious. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Dried figs form a very considerable article of commerce in Provence, Italy, and Spain; besides affording, as in the East, a principal article of sustenance for the population. In Spain, figs are chiefly exported from Andalusia and Valencia; but they are more or less abundant in every province. In the northern parts of France there are many fig gardens, particularly at Argenteuil.

Account of the Quantities of Figs entered for Consumption, and of the Produce of the Duties thereon, in 1840, 1841, and 1842

Quantities.						Duties.											
1840.			1841.			1840.		1841.		1842.							
Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.	£.	s. d.						
29,551	0	15	29,177	3	14	22,038	0	3	20,798	8	2	22,918	2	3	18,064	4	4

Of 30,063 cwt. of figs, imported in 1810, 17,863 cwt. were brought from Turkey, 4,351 do. from Portugal, 3,885 do. from Spain, 2,000 do. from Italy, and 1,033 from the Morea. The duty on figs was reduced in 1842 from 1*l.* 6*s.* to 1*l.* a cwt. — (*Decennial Returns by Board of Trade; Parl. Paper No. 45. Sess. 1843.*)

No abatement of duty is made on account of any damage received by figs.

FILE, FILES (Da. *File*; Du. *Vylen*; Fr. *Limes*; Ger. *Feilen*; It. *Lime*), an instrument of iron or forged steel, cut in little furrows, used to polish or smooth metals, timber, and other hard bodies.

FIR. See **PINE**.

FIRE-ARMS. Under this designation is comprised all sorts of guns, fowling-pieces, blunderbusses, pistols, &c. The manufacture of these weapons is of considerable importance; employing at all times, but especially during war, a large number of persons.

In consequence of the frequent occurrence of accidents from the bursting of insufficient barrels, the legislature has most properly interfered, not to regulate their manufacture, but to prevent all persons from using or selling barrels that have not been regularly proved in a public proof-house. The first act for this purpose was passed in 1813; but it was soon after superseded by a fuller and more complete one, the 25 Geo. 3. c. 99. This statute imposes a fine of 20*l.* on any person using, in any of the progressive stages

of its manufacture, any barrel not duly proved; on any person delivering the same, except through a proof-house; and on any person receiving, for the purpose of making guns, &c., any barrels which have not passed through a proof-house. These penalties to be levied on conviction before 2 justices; with like penalties, to be similarly levied, on persons counterfeiting the proof-marks.

FIRE-WORKS. By 9 & 10 Will. 3., all sorts of fire-works are declared to be a common nuisance: and the making, causing to be made, giving, selling, or offering for sale, any squibs, rockets, serpents, or other fireworks, or any cases or implements for making the same, is made subject to a penalty of 5*l.*, to be recovered on conviction before a justice of the peace. Casting or firing any such fire-works, or permitting the same to be cast or fired, from any house or place, and casting or firing the same into any house, shop, street, highway, or river, is subjected to a penalty of 20*s.*, to be recovered in like manner; and if not immediately paid, the party to be imprisoned and kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding a month. But the statute provides, that it shall be lawful for the master, lieutenant, or commissioners of his Majesty's ordnance, or those authorised by them, to give orders for making any fire-works, to be used according to such orders.

FIRKIN, a measure of capacity, equal to 9 ale gallons, or 7½ Imperial gallons, or 2,538 cubic inches. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

FIRLOT, a dry measure used in Scotland. The Linlithgow wheat firLOT is to the Imperial bushel as .998 to 1; and the Linlithgow barley firLOT is to the Imperial bushel as 1.456 to 1. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

FISH (Ger. *Fische*; Du. *Viscken*; Da. and Sw. *Fisk*; Fr. *Poissons*; It. *Pesci*; Sp. *Pescados*; Port. *Petizes*; Rus. *Rüb*; Pol. *Rybi*; Lat. *Pisces*), a term used in natural history to denote every variety of animal inhabiting seas, rivers, lakes, ponds, &c. that cannot exist for any considerable time out of the water. But in a commercial point of view, those fishes only are referred to, that are caught by man, and used either as food or for some other useful purpose. Of these, herring, salmon, cod, pilchard, mackarel, turbot, lobster, oyster, whale, &c. are among the most important. — (See the different articles under these titles.)

The supply of fish in the seas round Britain is most abundant, or rather quite inexhaustible. "The coasts of Great Britain," says Sir John Borroughs, "doe yield such a continued sea harvest of gain and benefit to all those that with diligence doe labour in the same, that no time or season of the yeare passeth away without some apparent meanes of profitable employment, especially to such as apply themselves to fishing; which, from the beginning of the year unto the latter end, continueth upon some part or other upon our coastes; and these in such infinite shoales and multitudes of fishes are offered to the takers, as may justly move admiration, not only to strangers, but to those that dully are employed amongst them."—"That this harvest," says Mr. Barrow, "ripe for gathering at all seasons of the year — without the labour of tillage, without expense of seed or manure, without the payment of rent or taxes — is inexhaustible, the extraordinary fecundity of the most valuable kinds of fish would alone afford abundant proof. To enumerate the thousands, and even millions of eggs, which are impregnated in the herring, the cod, the ling, and indeed in almost the whole of the esculent fish, would give but an inadequate idea of the prodigious multitudes in which they flock to our shores; the shoals themselves must be seen, in order to convey to the mind any just notion of their aggregate mass." — (For an account of the shoals of herrings, see *HERRING*.)

But, notwithstanding these statements, there has been, for these some years past, a growing complaint of a scarcity of such fish as breed in the channel; and it is affirmed, in the report of the Commons' committee of 1833, on the Channel fisheries, that the fact of such scarcity existing has been completely established. The committee ascribe it to various causes, but principally to the destruction of the spawn or brood of fish, by fishing with trawl or drag nets with small meshes, near the shore, during the breeding season; a practice prohibited by several statutes, which seem, however, to have fallen into disuse. The committee represent the fishermen as being generally in a very depressed state, and that the business is, for the most part, very unprofitable. We believe that this is the fact; but we do not know any period when the same might not have been said with quite as much truth as at present. Smith has remarked, that from the age of Theocritus downwards, fishermen have been proverbially poor — (*Wealth of Nations*, p. 45.); and a library might be filled with the acts, reports, plans, tracts, &c. that have been printed in this country during the last 2 centuries, containing regulations, schemes, suggestions, &c. for the improvement of fisheries and fishermen. But it is not too much to say, that not one of these well-meant endeavours, notwithstanding the enormous expense incurred in carrying some of them into effect, has been productive of any material advantage! and we see no reason to think that the suggestions of the late committee, supposing they were to be acted upon, would have any better success.

The injury done to the breeding grounds might, perhaps, be obviated; but besides this, the committee laid much stress on the encroachments of the French and other

foreign fishermen, and on the licence given to import foreign-caught turbot, &c. duty free! We confess, it appears to us quite visionary to suppose that these circumstances could have much influence. Our fishermen, living upon the very shores of the bays to which the French are said to resort, have advantages on their side sufficient, surely, to insure them a superiority, without the forcible expulsion, supposing that could be accomplished, of their foreign competitors. A man who does not succeed in a business carried on at his own door so well as one who resides 100 miles off, must look for the cause in his want of skill or industry; and should seek rather to improve himself than to discard his rival. The proposition for excluding turbot, &c. of foreign catch, is one that ought not to be listened to for a single moment. Such exclusion could not be of the slightest advantage to the British fishermen, unless it occasioned a rise in the price of the fish; and we need not say, that if the legislature interfere at all in the matter, it should have for its object the lowering, not the raising of prices. We are glad, however, to have to state that a convention for fixing the limits of the oyster and other fisheries on the coasts of the U. Kingdom and of France, was signed at Paris on the 2d of August, 1839.

All that it is possible to do for the fishery, by relieving it from tithes and other burdens, and facilitating the disposal of the fish in the markets of this and other countries, should be done; but, except in so far as its interests may be promoted in this way, and, perhaps, by some new regulations for preserving the brood, we do not see what more is to be done by legislative interference. It will be seen, in our articles on the herring and whale fisheries, that the bounty system was attended with vast expense, without leading to any useful result.

Except in London and a few sea-port towns, the consumption of fish in England is not great. The price in the metropolis, though it has been a good deal reduced of late years, is still very high. This has been pretty generally believed to be in no small degree owing to the salesmen of Billingsgate market being able, in a great measure, to regulate both the supply of the article and its price. The committee of 1833, however, declare, that though they minutely examined the subject, it did not appear that any improper monopoly or injurious regulations subsisted either in the mode of supplying the market, or in the sale of the fish. Had any such existed, the establishment of Hungerford market would have tended materially to counteract their influence.

Sir John Barrow, in a valuable article on the fisheries, in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, has estimated the value of the entire annual produce of the foreign and domestic fisheries of Great Britain at 8,300,000. But it is admitted by every one who knows any thing of the subject, that this estimate is very greatly exaggerated. We doubt much, whether the entire value of the fisheries can be reckoned so high as 4,500,000.

Regulations as to Importation.—Fish of foreign taking, except anchovies, eels, turbot, and lobsters, may not be imported into the U. Kingdom in fishing vessels, or in any other vessels not regularly cleared out from some foreign port.—(5 & 6 Vict. c. 47. § 4.)

FLAX (Ger. *Flachs*; Du. *Vlasch*; Fr. *Lin*; It. and Sp. *Lino*; Rus. *Len*, *Lon*; Pol. *Len*; Lat. *Linum*), an important plant (*Linum usitatissimum*) that has been cultivated from the earliest ages in Great Britain and many other countries; its fibres being manufactured into thread, and its seed crushed for oil. Generally, however, we have been in the habit of importing a large proportion of our supplies. The premiums given by the legislature to force the cultivation of flax have had very little effect; the fact being, as Mr. Loudon has stated, that its culture is found to be, on the whole, less profitable than that of corn. When allowed to ripen its seed, it is one of the most severe crops.

Russia supplies by far the largest portion of the flax imported into this country, the principal sorts being Petersburg, Narva, Riga, Revel, Pernau, Liebau, Memel, and Oberland. Petersburg and Narva flax are nearly of the same quality, the latter being but little inferior to the former. Both sorts come to us in bundles of 12, 9, and 6 heads. The Riga flax seems to deserve the preference of any imported from the Baltic. It is the growth of the provinces of Marienburg, Druania, Thiesenhausen, and Lithuania.

The best Marienburg is called simply Marienburg (M), or Marienburg clean; the second quality, cut (GM) and the third, *risten dreyband* (RD); of the three other provinces, the first quality bears the name of *rakitzer*; — as *Druania rakitzer* (DR), *Thiesenhausen rakitzer* (TR), and *Lithuania rakitzer* (LR). The cut flax of these three provinces is the second quality; and to the third quality belong the *badstüb* and *badstüb cut* (B and BG); the *paternoster* (PN); and *hafs three band* (HD). *Badstüb* and *paternoster* are the refuse of the *rakitzer* flax, and the *three band* again the refuse of the former sorts, and consequently very ordinary. The Revel and Pernau consists of Marienburg, *cut*, *risten*, *hafs three band*, and *three band*. The Liebau and Memel growths are distinguished by the denomination of *four and three band*. These two sorts, as well as the Oberland flax, come from Königsberg, Eibing, &c., and are little esteemed in the British markets.

Flanders or Dutch flax is well dressed, and of the finest quality.

Flax is extensively cultivated in Egypt. Of late years, some of the Italian ports, which used to be supplied from Russia, have been fully supplied on lower terms from Alexandria.

The *Phormium tenax*, or New Zealand flax, has been said to exceed every other species in strength of fibre and whiteness; qualities which (if it really possess them in the degree stated) must make it peculiarly well fitted for being made into canvas and cordage. In point of fact, however, there is a great diversity of opinion as to its real merits, and it fetches at present but a low price. In 1831 and 1832 the imports of New Zealand flax amounted respectively to 15,725 and 15,867 cwts.; but they fell off in 1835 to 7,812 cwts., and since then none has been imported. It is alleged that this is a consequence of the imperfect preparation of the flax, which has hitherto been entirely intrusted to the native women. But without presuming to say whether the defects with which it is charged be inherent in the flax itself, or depend on its preparation, it is abundantly certain that, unless it be furnished of a superior quality, it will not suit our markets.

When flax is brought to the principal Russian ports whence it is shipped, it is classified according to its qualities, and made up in bundles by sworn inspectors (*brachera*) appointed by government for the assortment of that and all other merchandise. These functionaries are said to perform their task with laudable impartiality and exactness. A ticket is attached to every bundle of assorted flax, containing the names of the inspector and owner, the sort of flax, and the period when it was selected or inspected. — (See *MEMO.*) Good flax should be of a fine bright colour, well separated from the tow, collilla, or coarser portion of the plant; and of a long, fine, and strong fibre. In purchasing flax, it is usual to employ agents wholly devoted to this peculiar business.

Account of the Quantities of Flax and Tow imported into the United Kingdom during the 7 Years from 1830 to 1841 inclusive, distinguishing the Countries whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	<i>Cwts.</i>						
Norway	438,483	1,037,091	683,025	1,089,259	705,708	879,401	969,455
Sweden	84,987	180,991	95,709	131,745	89,454	135,590	119,615
Holland	104,431	155,018	134,918	191,602	160,487	113,106	126,095
Belgium	78,791	119,259	118,398	155,423	180,581	80,748	97,218
France	16,102	36,118	32,257	65,033	73,607	4,325	28,559
All other countries	24,288	11,410	5,260	6,454	8,913	10,098	19,863
Total	740,015	1,529,116	1,000,865	1,695,276	1,293,700	1,253,240	1,340,843

Account of the Quantities of Flax entered for Consumption, and of the Produce of the Duties thereon, in 1840, 1841 and 1842.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
<i>Cwts.</i> 1,900,109	<i>Cwts.</i> 1,353,631	<i>Cwts.</i> 1,148,616	£ s. d. 5,281 13 2	£ s. d. 5,973 19 8	£ s. d. 8,764 5 8

The duty on flax is only 1d. a cwt.

FLAX, the produce or manufacture of Europe, not to be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or of the country from which it is imported, on pain of forfeiture of the goods and 100% by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 84.) We subjoin an account of the charges on the importation of the different sorts of flax from Petersburg and Riga.

Charges at Petersburg on 12 Head Flax, per ton.
Circle, 16 bobbin = 63 poods = 1 ton.

Duty, 60 cop. per bocco/a	Pap. rou. cop.	
Quarantine duty, 1 per cent.		
Additional duty, 10 per cent.		
	R. 37 76	
Custom-house charges, 4 per cent.		
Inspection and weighing, 30 cop. per bobbin		
Broking, 1 roob. per bocco/a		
Insuring, 75 cop. per ditto		
Lightage and attendance to Cronstadt, 8 roob.		
Wage		
Broking, 60 cop. per ton		
Fixed charges	R. 73 69	

Charges here, per ton, taking the price at 45s.

Insurance, 1 1/2, 6d. per cent. and policy, during the summer, for best risks	£ s. d.
Round dues	0 6 9
Freight, say 5 1/2, 6d. per ton in full	2 12 6
Customs	0 2 8
Landing charges	1 11 0
Discount, 3 1/2 per cent. (being sold at 9 months' credit)	1 15 9
Brokerage, 1/2 per cent.	0 4 6
Loss by tare, 2 per cent.	25 15 8
	0 18 0
	26 13 8

Broking, 1 per cent.
Commission and extra charges, 3 per cent.
Stamp, 1 per cent.
Brokerage on bills, 1/2 per cent. } 1 per cent.
See charges varying according to the price paid.
This flax is bought at so much per shipboard. 6 shipboard = 1 ton.
The charges of importation are the same, or nearly so, as on Petersburg flax.

9 Head Flax.
26 bobbin = 63 poods = 1 ton. *Rev. cop.* = 80 35
Fixed charges at Petersburg amount to =
The other charges same as on 12 head; the charges of import may be called the same as on 12 head also, the difference being only on the value; which makes the insurance, discount, and brokerage of less amount. The increase of fixed charges at Petersburg is owing to the larger number of bobbin to the ton.
6 Head Flax.
47 bobbin = 63 poods = 1 ton. *Rev. cop.* = 91 52
Fixed charges, per ton =
Other charges, *vide supra*.

FLAX-SEED, or LINSEED (Fr. *Lin*, *Graine de Lin*; Ger. *Leinsaat*; Du. *Lijnzaad*; It. *Linacee*; Sp. *Linaza*; Port. *Linhaça*; Pol. *Stemie*, *Liniane*; Rus. *Semjanow*; Lat. *Linum semen*), the seed of flax. It contains a great deal of oil, which it yields by expression; and is cultivated either that it may be used in sowing, or sent to the crushing mills to be converted into oil.

602 FLOTSAM, JETSAM, AND LAGAN.—FREIGHT.

As the quality of the crop depends much on the seed employed, a good deal of care is requisite in selecting the best. Generally speaking, it should be chosen of a bright, brownish colour, oily to the feel, heavy, and quite fresh. Dutch seed is in the highest estimation for sowing; it not only ripens sooner than any other that is imported, but produces larger crops, and of the quality that best suits our principal manufacturers. American seed produces fine flax, but the produce is not so large as from Dutch seed. British flax seed is sometimes used instead of Dutch; but the risk of the crop misgiving is so much greater, "that those only who are ignorant of the consequences, or who are compelled from necessity, are chargeable with this act of ill-judged parsimony."—(*London's Encyc. of Agriculture.*) Crushing seed is principally imported from Russia, but considerable quantities are also brought from India, Italy, and Egypt.

Account of the Quantities of Flaxseed or Linseed imported into the United Kingdom during the 7 Years from 1835 to 1841 inclusive, distinguishing the Countries whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Russia	1,554,073	1,169,530	3,439,654	2,506,228	3,307,458	2,567,318	2,225,545
Sweden	48,997	58,819	23,183	37,084	24,703	25,605	24,806
Denmark	19,061	48,285	41,923	16,315	14,887	13,099	17,334
France	135,387	495,781	897,459	165,718	206,538	338,070	301,119
Germany	30,588	57,100	55,715	14,843	10,767	20,319	8,508
Holland	87,172	103,497	42,248	45,630	55,198	66,727	42,248
Belgium	112	175	2	2,723	4,480	40,418	2
France	35,188	10	2	840	758	17,555	12
Italy, and the Italian islands	111	18,087	171,937	209,174	148,759	161,016	49,331
Turkey	111	40,061	54,866	94,297	48,970	16,408	287
East India Company's territories, and Ceylon	197,416	274,168	196,852	78,572	163,958	207,869	199,522
United States of America	194,886	145,572	26,427	42,070	49,357	73,308	29,345
All other countries	2,583	5,100	30,041	10,680	81,996	4,256	13,138
Totals	2,906,748	3,339,413	3,291,083	3,204,869	4,151,047	3,558,070	2,907,685

Account of the Quantities of Flaxseed or Linseed imported for Consumption, and of the Produce of the Duties thereon, in 1840, 1841, and 1842.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Qrs. Bush	Qrs. Bush	Qrs. Bush	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
411,262 0	339,097 1	859,641 4	21,218 8 9	17,826 2 11	5,220 8 7

The duty is 1*d.* a quarter; and the price, in January, 1843, varied from 43*s.* to 50*s.* a quarter.

FLOTSAM, JETSAM, AND LAGAN. In order to constitute a legal wreck, the goods must come to land. If they continue at sea, the law distinguishes them by the foregoing unepoch and barbarous appellations: *flotsam* is when the goods continue swimming on the surface of the waves; *jetsam* is when they are sunk under the surface of the water; and *lagan* is when they are sunk, but tied to a cork or buoy to be found again.—(*Blackstone*, book i. c. 8.) Foreign liquors, brought or coming into Great Britain or Ireland, as derelict, flotsam, &c., are to pay the same duties and receive the same drawbacks as similar liquors regularly imported.

FLOUR (Ger. *Feines mehl*, *Semmelmehl*; Du. *Bloem*; Fr. *Fleur de Farine*; It. *Fiore* Sp. *Flor*), the meal of wheat corn, finely ground and sifted. There are three qualities of flour, denominated *firsts*, *seconds*, and *thirds*, of which the first is the purest.—(See CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.)

FOOT, a measure of length, consisting of 12 inches.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

FORESTALLING, the buying or contracting for any cattle, provision, or merchandise, on its way to the market, or dissuading persons from buying their goods there, or persuading them to raise the price, or spreading any false rumour with intent to enhance the value of any article. In the remoter periods of our history several statutes were passed, prohibiting forestalling under severe penalties; but as more enlarged views upon such subjects began to prevail, their impolicy became obvious, and they were consequently repealed in 1772. But forestalling is still punishable at common law by fine and imprisonment; though it be doubtful whether any jury would now convict an individual accused of such practices.—(*Wealth of Nations*, p. 237.)

FRANKINCENSE. See ROSIN.

FREIGHT, the sum paid by the merchant or other person hiring a ship, or part of a ship, for the use of such ship or part, during a specified voyage or for a specified time.

The freight is most commonly fixed by the charterparty—(see CHARTERPARTY)—or bill of lading—(see BILL OF LADING); but in the absence of any formal stipulations on the subject, it would be due according to the custom or usage of trade.

In the case of a charterparty, if the stipulated payment be a gross sum for an entire ship, or an entire part of a ship, for the whole voyage, the gross sum will be payable

although the merchant has not fully laden the ship. And if a certain sum be stipulated for every ton, or other portion of the ship's capacity, for the whole voyage, the payment must be according to the number of tons, &c. which the ship is proved capable of containing, without regard to the quantity actually put on board by the merchant. On the other hand, if the merchant have stipulated to pay a certain sum per cask or bale of goods, the payment must be, in the first place, according to the number of casks and bales shipped and delivered; and if he have further covenanted to furnish a complete lading, or a specific number of casks or bales, and failed to do so, he must make good the loss which the owners have sustained by his failure.

If an entire ship be hired, and the burden thereof be expressed in the Charterparty, and the merchant bind himself to pay a certain sum for every ton, &c. of goods which he shall lade on board, but does not bind himself to furnish a complete lading, the owners can only demand payment for the quantity of goods actually shipped. But if the merchant agree to load a full and complete cargo, though the ship be described as of less burden than she really is, the merchant must load a full cargo, according to the real burden of the ship, and he will be liable for freight according to what ought to be loaded.

The delivery of goods at the place of destination is in general necessary to entitle the owner to freight; but with respect to living animals, whether men or cattle, which may frequently die during the voyage, without any fault or neglect of the persons belonging to the ship, it is ruled, that if there be no express agreement whether the freight is to be paid for the lading, or for the transporting them, freight shall be paid as well for the dead as for the living: if the agreement be to pay freight for the lading, then death certainly cannot deprive the owners of the freight; but if the agreement be to pay freight for transporting them, then no freight is due for those that die on the voyage, because as to them the contract is not performed. These distinctions have been made in the civil law, and have been adopted into the modern systems of maritime law.

Freight is most frequently contracted to be paid either by the whole voyage, or by the month, or other time. In the former case the owners take upon themselves the chance of the voyage being long or short: but in the latter the risk of the duration falls upon the merchant; and if no time be fixed for the commencement of the computation, it will begin from the day on which the ship breaks ground and commences her voyage, and will continue during the whole course of the voyage, and during all unavoidable delays not occasioned by the act or neglect of the owners or master, or by such circumstances as occasion a suspension of the contract for a particular period. Thus, the freight will be payable for the time consumed in necessary repairs during a voyage, provided it do not appear that the ship was insufficient at the outset, or that there was any improper delay in repairing her.

In the absence of an express contract to the contrary, the entire freight is not earned until the whole cargo be ready for delivery, or has been delivered to the consignee according to the contract for its conveyance.

If a consignee receive goods in pursuance of the usual bill of lading, by which it is expressed that he is to pay the freight, he, by such receipt, makes himself debtor for the freight, and may be sued for it. But a person who is only an agent for the consignee, and who is known to the master to be acting in that character, does not make himself personally answerable for the freight by receiving the goods, although he also enters them in his own name at the Custom-house.

In some cases freight is to be paid, or rather an equivalent recompence made to the owners, although the goods have not been delivered at the place of destination, and though the contract for conveyance be not strictly performed. Thus, if part of the cargo be thrown overboard for the necessary preservation of the ship and the remainder of the goods, and the ship afterwards reach the place of destination, the value of this part is to be answered to the merchant by way of general average, and the value of the freight thereof allowed to the owner. So, if the master be compelled by necessity to sell a part of the cargo for victuals or repairs, the owners must pay to the merchant the price which the goods would have fetched at the place of destination; and, therefore, are allowed to charge the merchant with the money that would have been due if they had been conveyed thither.

When goods are deteriorated during a voyage, the merchant is entitled to a compensation, provided the deterioration has proceeded from the fault or neglect of the master or mariners; and of course he is not answerable for the freight, unless he accept the goods, except by way of deduction from the amount of the compensation. On the other hand, if the deterioration has proceeded from a principle of decay naturally inherent in the commodity itself, whether active in every situation, or in the confinement and closeness of a ship, or from the perils of the sea, or the act of God, the merchant must bear the loss and pay the freight; for the master and owners are in no fault, nor does their contract contain any insurance or warranty against such an event. In our West India

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trade, the freight of sugar and molasses is usually regulated by the weight of the casks at the port of delivery here, which, in fact, is in every instance less than the weight at the time of the shipment; and, therefore, the loss of freight occasioned by the leakage necessarily falls upon the owners of the ship by the nature of the contract.

Different opinions have been entertained by Valin, Pothier, and other great authorities as to maritime law, with respect to the expediency of allowing the merchant to abandon his goods for freight in the event of their being damaged. This question has not been judicially decided in this country. "The only point," says Lord Tenterden, "intended to be proposed by me as doubtful, is the right to abandon for freight alone at the port of destination; and in point of practice, I have been informed that this right is never claimed in this country."—(*Law of Shipping*, part III. c. 7.)

Freight being the return made for the conveyance of goods or passengers to a particular destination, no claim arises for its payment in the event of a total loss; and it is laid down by Lord Mansfield, that "in case of a total loss with salvage, the merchant may either take the part saved, or abandon."—(*Abbott*, part III. c. 7.) But after the merchant has made his election, he must abide by it.

It often happens that a ship is hired by a charterparty to sail from one port to another, and thence back to the first—as, for example, from London to Leghorn, and from Leghorn back to London—at a certain sum to be paid for every month or other period of the duration of the employment. Upon such a contract, if the whole be one entire voyage, and the ship sail in safety to Leghorn, and there deliver the goods of the merchant and take others on board to be brought to London, but happen to be lost in her return thither, nothing is due for freight, although the merchant has had the benefit of the voyage to Leghorn; but, if the outward and homeward voyages be distinct, freight will be due for the proportion of the time employed in the outward voyage. "If," said Lord Mansfield, in a case of this sort, "there be one entire voyage out and in, and the ship be cast away on the homeward voyage, no freight is due; no wages are due, because the whole profit is lost; and by express agreement the parties may make the outward and homeward voyage one. Nothing is more common than two voyages: wherever there are two voyages, and one is performed, and the ship is lost on the homeward voyage, freight is due for the first."—(*K. B. Trin. Term, 11 Gen. 5.*)

It frequently happens that the master or owner fails to complete his contract, either by not delivering the whole goods to the consignee or owner, or by delivering them at a place short of their original destination; in these cases, if the owner or consignee of the goods derive any benefit from their conveyance, he is liable to the payment of freight according to the proportion of the voyage performed, or *pro rata itineris peracti*: and though contracts of this nature be frequently entire and indivisible, and the master or owner of the ship cannot, from their nature, sue thereon, and recover a rateable freight, or *pro rata itineris*; yet he may do so upon a fresh implied contract, for as much as he deserves to have, unless there be an express clause in the original charterparty or contract to the contrary. A fresh implied contract is inferred from the owner's or consignee's acceptance of the goods. Many difficulties have, indeed, arisen in deciding as to what shall amount to an acceptance: it is not, however, necessary actually to receive the goods; acceptance may be made by the express or implied directions, and with the consent, of the owner or consignee of the goods, but not otherwise.

It sometimes happens that the owner of the ship, who is originally entitled to the freight, sells or otherwise disposes of his interest in the ship, where a chartered ship is sold before the voyage, the vendee, and not the vendor or party to whom he afterwards assigns the charterparty, is entitled to the freight. But where a ship has been sold during the voyage, the owner, with whom a covenant to pay freight has been made, is entitled to the freight, and not the vendee. A mortgagee who does not take possession, is not entitled to the freight.

The time and manner of paying freight are frequently regulated by express stipulations in a charterparty, or other written contract; and when that is the case, they must be respected: but if there be no express stipulation contrary to or inconsistent with the right of lien, the goods remain as a security till the freight is paid; for the master is not bound to deliver them, or any part of them, without payment of the freight and other charges in respect thereof. But the master cannot detain the cargo on board the vessel till these payments be made, as the merchant would, in that case, have no opportunity of examining the condition of the goods. In England, the practice is, when the master is doubtful of payment, to send such goods as are not required to be landed at any particular wharf, to a public wharf, ordering the wharfinger not to part with them till the freight and other charges are paid. No right of lien for freight can exist, unless the freight be earned; if the freighter or a stranger prevent the freight from becoming due, the ship owner or master's remedy is by action of damages.

(For further information and details with respect to this subject, see the art. CHARTER-

berry, in this Dictionary; *Abbot* (Lord Tenterden) on the *Law of Shipping*, part. iii. c. 7.; *Malloy's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 9.; *Molloy de Jure Maritimo*, book ii. c. 4., &c.)
 FRUIT (Ger. *Obst*, *Früchte*; Du. *Ooft*; Fr. *Fruit*; It. *Frutta*, *Frutta*; Sp. *Fruta*; Rus. *Ovoshchich*; Lat. *Fructum*). This appellation is bestowed by commercial men upon those species of fruit, such as oranges, lemons, almonds, raisins, currants, apples, &c., which constitute articles of importation from foreign countries.

FULLERS' EARTH (Ger. *Wahererde*; Du. *Voliarde*; Fr. *Terre à foinen*; It. *Terra da purgatori*; Sp. *Tierra de batan*; Rus. *Schiffnaina*; Lat. *Terra fullonum*), a species of clay, of a greenish white, greenish grey, olive and oil green, and sometimes spotted colour. It is usually opaque, very soft, and feels greasy. It is used by fullers to take grease out of cloth before they apply the soap. The best is found in Hucking-hamshire and Surrey. When good, it has a greenish white, or greenish grey colour, falls into powder in water, appears to melt on the tongue like butter, communicates a milky hue to water, and deposits very little sand when mixed with boiling water. The remarkable detersive property on woollen cloth depends on the alumina, which should be at least one fifth of the whole, but not much more than one fourth, lest it become too tenacious. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Jameson's Mineralogy*.) Malcolm, in his *Survey of Surrey*, published in 1809, says that he took considerable pains in endeavouring to ascertain the consumption of fullers' earth, and that he found it to be about 6,800 tons a year for the entire kingdom, of which about 4,000 tons were furnished by Surrey.

FUNDS (PUBLIC), the name given to the public funded debt due by government.

The practice of borrowing money in order to defray a part of the war expenditure began, in this country, in the reign of William III. In the infancy of the practice, it was customary to borrow upon the security of some tax, or portion of a tax, not apart as a fund for discharging the principal and interest of the sum borrowed. This discharge was, however, very rarely effected. The public exigencies still continuing, the loans were, in most cases, either continued, or the taxes were again mortgaged for fresh ones. At length the practice of borrowing for a fixed period, or, as it is commonly termed, upon terminable annuities, was almost entirely abandoned, and most loans were made upon interminable annuities, or until such time as it might be convenient for government to pay off the principal.

In the beginning of the funding system, the term fund meant the taxes or funds appropriated to the discharge of the principal and interest of loans; those who held government securities, and sold them to others, selling, of course, a corresponding claim upon some fund. But after the debt began to grow large, and the practice of borrowing upon interminable annuities had been introduced, the meaning attached to the term fund was gradually changed; and instead of signifying the security upon which loans were advanced, it has, for a long time, signified the principal of the loans themselves.

Owing partly, perhaps, to the scarcity of disposable capital at the time, but far more to the supposed insecurity of the Revolutionary establishment, the rate of interest paid by government in the early part of the funding system was, comparatively, high. But as the country became richer, and the confidence of the public in the stability of government was increased, ministers were enabled to take measures for reducing the interest, first in 1716, and again in 1749.

During the reigns of William III. and Anne, the interest stipulated for loans was very various. But in the reign of George II. a different practice was adopted. Instead of varying the interest upon the loan according to the state of the money market at the time, the rate of interest was generally fixed at *three or three and a half per cent.*; the necessary variation being made in the principal funded. Thus, suppose government were anxious to borrow, that they preferred borrowing in a 3 per cent. stock, and that they could not negotiate a loan for less than 4½ per cent.; they effected their object by giving the lender, in return for every 100*l.* advanced, 150*l.* 3 per cent. stock; that is, they bound the country to pay him or his assignees 4*l.* 10*s.* a year in all time to come, or, otherwise, to extinguish the debt by a payment of 150*l.* In consequence of the prevalence of this practice, the principal of the debt now existing amounts to nearly *two fifths* more than the sum actually advanced by the lenders.

Some advantages are, however, derivable, or supposed to be derivable, from this system. It renders the management of the debt, and its transfer, more simple and commodious than it would have been, had it consisted of a great number of funds bearing different rates of interest: and it is contended, that the greater field for speculation afforded to the dealers in stocks bearing a low rate of interest, has enabled government to borrow, by funding additional capitals, for a considerably less payment on account of interest than would have been necessary had no such increase of capital been made.

In point of fact, however, these advantages are but inconsiderable, while the disadvantages inseparable from the practice of funding a large amount of stock at a low rate of interest are great and lasting. During war, especially if any considerable portion of its expenditure be defrayed by means of loans, the rate of interest uniformly rises, and

is usually much higher than during peace. If, therefore, loans were funded in stocks bearing a rate of interest equivalent to the market rate when they happen to be contracted for, the charge on their account might be reduced soon after the return of peace, according to the fall in the rate of interest; whereas, when loans are funded in stocks bearing a low rate of interest, with a corresponding increase of capital, it becomes impossible to take advantage of the fall of interest at the return of peace, and the country is burthened with the war interest in all time to come! It is not easy to exaggerate the injury we have sustained by overlooking this plain principle. In 1815, to specify only one of many similar instances, government bargained for a loan of 36,000,000*l.*, it being stipulated that every subscriber of 100*l.* should be entitled to 17*l.* 3 per cent. stock, and 10*l.* 4 per cent. stock, making the interest on the loan 5*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* per cent. The great improvidence of this transaction is obvious. Had from 5*l.* 15*s.* to 6*l.* per cent. of interest been paid for the loan, it might have been obtained without funding any additional capital; and had that been done, we should have been able, within 4 or 5 years, in consequence of the fall of interest after the peace, to reduce the charge on account of the loan to 3 or 3½ per cent.; but, owing to the way in which the contract was made, we have not had, and will not have, any means of reducing the exorbitant charge on account of this loan, so long as the market rate of interest is above 3 per cent., except by paying 17*l.* for every 100*l.* originally received, exclusive of the 10*l.* of 4 per cent. stock! But this, as already stated, is only one instance out of many of the same sort. We believe, indeed, that we are within the mark when we affirm that, owing to this erroneous method of funding, the country is at present paying from 6,000,000*l.* to 7,000,000*l.* a year on account of the public debt more than it would have had to pay, had the same sums been borrowed and funded without any increase of capital.*

That this improvident system should have been so extensively acted on by our finance ministers during the American and French wars is the more surprising, seeing that experience had already demonstrated the advantages of funding limited capitals at a comparatively high rate of interest. Owing partly to the scarcity of capital, but much more to the supposed instability of the revolutionary establishment, the loans during the reigns of William III. and Anne were mostly contracted at a very high rate of interest. Luckily, however, this was not attempted to be disguised by assigning to the parties large amounts of stock bearing a low rate of interest. The stock created was the exact amount of the loans, the interest on it being increased according to the supposed insecurity of the government, the scarcity of floating capital, &c. Now, mark the consequences of this. So early as 1716, Sir Robert Walpole, availing himself of the greater facility with which money was procured after the treaty of Utrecht, and of the greater stability of the government, was able, by offering to pay off the creditors, to reduce the charge on account of the debt from 1,598,602*l.* to 1,274,146*l.*, being a saving of 324,456*l.*, or about ¼ part of the entire charge. In 1727, a farther saving of about 340,000*l.* a-year was effected by reducing the interest on the greater portion of the debt from 5 to 4 per cent. And in 1749, during the administration of Mr. Pelham, the interest was again reduced from 4 to 3 per cent., a measure which produced a fresh saving of 565,000*l.* a-year!

Happily the practice of funding in a 5 per cent. stock, was not entirely abandoned during the late war. In 1822 the total British and Irish 5 per cent. stock amounted to about 150,000,000*l.*; and, by offering to pay it off, a reduction of interest was then effected to the extent of about 1,200,000*l.* a-year! And, since that period, further savings have been effected by the reduction of the interest on the 4 and 4½ per cent. stock. But, unfortunately, by far the greatest proportion of the debt created during the late war, and that with the American colonies, was funded in the 3 per cents.; and, as already stated, the charge on that portion has, in consequence, been hitherto, and will, most probably, continue to be, for an indefinite period, unsusceptible of diminution.

* For a further and full discussion of this subject, see the *Treatise on Taxation* and the *Funding System*, by the author of this work, pp. 427—445.

An Account of the State of the Public Funded and Unfunded Debt of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Charge thereupon, at the 31st of January, 1846.—(Annual Finance Book for 1846, p. 19.)

DEBT.		Capital of Unredeemed Debt.		CHARGE.		In Great Britain.		In Ireland.		Total Annual Charge of Unredeemed Debt.	
		£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
<p>DEBT DUE TO THE PUBLIC CREDITOR.</p>											
<p>Capital of Unredeemed Debt.</p>											
<p>Great Britain.</p>											
Debt due to the South Sea Company, at 3 per cent.		3,662,784	9 6½								
Old South Sea annuities		3,251,418	1 6								
New South Sea annuities		2,398,574	2 6								
South Sea annuities, 1751		11,013,000	0 0								
Debt due to the Bank of England		11,781,639	16 11								
Debt due to the Bank of Ireland, in 1798		364,164,787	16 7½								
Consolidated annuities		123,488,828	5 9								
Reduced annuities		509,230,737	3 6½								
Total at 3 per cent.		218,175,061	1 3								
Annunities at 3½ per cent.		450,076	3 2								
New 6 per cent. annuities		727,835,534	7 11½								
Total, Great Britain											
<p>Ireland.</p>											
Irish consolidated annuities, at 3 per cent.		5,890,631	2 2								
Irish reduced annuities		221,483	4 5								
Annunities at 3½ per cent.		30,090,328	17 11								
Debt due to the Bank of Ireland, at 3½ per cent.		2,650,769	4 8								
New 6 per cent. annuities		9,072	11 2								
Total, Ireland		38,836,898	0 4								
Total, United Kingdom		765,572,822	3 2½								
Exchequer bills outstanding, 5th Jan. 1846		18,390,200	0 0								
Total funded and unfunded debt, 5th May, 1846		783,963,022	8 3½								
<p>CHARGE.</p>											
<p>Capital of Unredeemed Debt.</p>											
<p>Great Britain.</p>											
Annual interest on unredeemed capital		22,389,117	4 2								
Long annuities, expire 1860		1,246,784	1 8								
Annunities per 4 Geo. 4, c. 22, expire 1867		383,740	0 0								
Annunities for 10 years, per 5 Geo. 3, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, which expire at various periods, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		21,689,897	14 6								
Deduct, expired and unexpired, including 2,063,100 Waterloo annuities, Geo. 3, c. 24.		623,184	7 0								
Total		21,066,713	7 0								
Life annuities, per 48 Geo. 3, c. 142, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		22,627,072	0 6								
Deduct expired and unclaimed, viz.—											
ditto		1,134,088	15 6								
Total		21,492,984	5 0								
Tontines and other Life annuities payable at the National Debt Office.		982,083	5 0								
per various acts		24,230	8 7								
Total		26,172,451	11 4								
Management of Exchequer bills (1845)		93,111	12 10								
Total annual charge, exclusive of 65,534,76, 63d. Geo. 4, c. 24, standing in the names of the several persons who have been appointed to the year of upwards, and of unclaimed dividends, and also on account of donations and bequests		422,598	0 0								
Total		26,688,217	11 2								
<p>Ireland.</p>											
Annual interest on unredeemed capital		22,389,117	4 2								
Long annuities, expire 1860		1,246,784	1 8								
Annunities per 4 Geo. 4, c. 22, expire 1867		383,740	0 0								
Annunities for 10 years, per 5 Geo. 3, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, which expire at various periods, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		21,689,897	14 6								
Deduct, expired and unexpired, including 2,063,100 Waterloo annuities, Geo. 3, c. 24.		623,184	7 0								
Total		21,066,713	7 0								
Life annuities, per 48 Geo. 3, c. 142, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		22,627,072	0 6								
Deduct expired and unclaimed, viz.—											
ditto		1,134,088	15 6								
Total		21,492,984	5 0								
Tontines and other Life annuities payable at the National Debt Office.		982,083	5 0								
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Annunities for 10 years, per 5 Geo. 3, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, which expire at various periods, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		21,689,897	14 6								
Deduct, expired and unexpired, including 2,063,100 Waterloo annuities, Geo. 3, c. 24.		623,184	7 0								
Total		21,066,713	7 0								
Life annuities, per 48 Geo. 3, c. 142, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, viz.—											
Granted up to 5 Jan. 1846		22,627,072	0 6								
Deduct expired and unclaimed, viz.—											
ditto		1,134,088	15 6								
Total		21,492,984	5 0								
Tontines and other Life annuities payable at the National Debt Office.		982,083	5 0								
per various acts		24,230	8 7								
Total		26,172,451	11 4								
Management of Exchequer bills (1845)		93,111	12 10								
Total annual charge, exclusive of 65,534,76, 63d. Geo. 4, c. 24, standing in the names of the several persons who have been appointed to the year of upwards, and of unclaimed dividends, and also on account of donations and bequests		422,598	0 0								
Total		26,688,217	11 2								

The act 10 Geo. 4. (abolishing the sinking funds) enacts, that the sum heretofore annually applicable to the reduction of the principal of the funded debt shall consist of the actual surplus revenue beyond the expenditure. In 1845, this surplus amounted to £3,729,305*l.*

The following accounts exhibit the progress of the National Debt of Great Britain from the Revolution to the present time:—

An Account showing the Total Amount of the Unredeemed Funded Public Debt of the United Kingdom, and the Annual Charge thereon, on the 5th day of January, 1817, and on the 5th day of January in every subsequent Year down to 1846.

Years ending	Capital of Unredeemed Funded Debt.	Annual Charge thereon.
1st Feb. 1817.	796,500,191	29,842,014
5th Jan. 1818	776,742,403	29,310,454
1819	751,567,318	29,531,294
1820	724,980,481	29,789,658
1821	801,565,510	30,149,920
1822	795,519,707	29,985,216
1823	796,550,114	28,496,866
1824	791,701,614	29,078,570
1825	791,125,222	28,372,206
1826	778,128,267	28,267,272
1827	785,901,739	28,536,905
1828	771,676,892	28,389,869
1829	772,322,640	28,245,354
1830	771,123,282	28,285,980
1831	771,486,996	27,674,754
1832	755,545,884	27,658,499
1833	754,100,549	27,703,455
1834	751,659,883	27,729,110
1835	743,675,299	27,783,454
1836	755,549,866	28,405,565
1837	761,422,670	28,235,192
1838	762,275,188	28,283,739
1839	761,217,690	28,286,503
1840	766,547,644	28,748,794
1841	766,371,725	28,256,294
1842	773,550,738	28,701,438
1843	773,068,340	28,609,708
1844	773,169,092	28,216,982
1845	769,193,614	27,539,244
1846	766,672,222	27,702,280

Amount of the Unfunded Debt in Exchequer Bills, and of the Annual Charge thereon, on the 5th of January, 1817, and on the 5th of January in every subsequent Year down to 1846.

Years ending 5 Jan.	Amount of Exchequer Bills.	Rate of Interest per Diem.	Charge of Interest per Annum
1817	44,650,500	3s. 9d. Nov. 1816	2,175,927
1818	56,729,400	4d. 24 Feb. 1817	1,891,515
1819	43,300,400	4d. 11 Oct. 1817	1,696,450
1820	36,303,800	-	847,091
1821	30,965,900	-	1,589,181
1822	21,666,500	-	1,008,311
1823	26,221,150	-	1,509,409
1824	24,741,750	14d. 24 June, 1824	1,111,229
1825	32,398,450	-	1,686,016
1826	27,994,200	2d. 19 Dec. 1825	920,000
1827	24,765,550	-	770,900
1828	27,016,850	-	802,188
1829	27,657,000	14d. 30 Sep. 1829	860,475
1830	25,490,550	14d. 18 Dec. 1829	806,076
1831	27,871,650	-	786,465
1832	27,135,550	-	604,285
1833	27,373,000	-	677,380
1834	27,906,900	-	735,996
1835	26,521,350	-	638,417
1836	26,976,600	2d. 29 Sept. 1836	688,417
1837	26,979,000	2d. 21 Nov. 1836	692,098
1838	24,044,550	2d. 14 Dec. 1837	671,309
1839	24,026,050	14d. 18 Mar. 1839	617,270
1840	19,965,050	2d. 16 Mar. 1840	788,707
1841	17,076,550	-	569,120
1842	18,243,850	2d. 15 June, 1842	797,048
1843	18,182,100	14d. 17 Mar. 1843	651,601
1844	18,407,500	14d. 16 June, 1843	694,051
1845	18,401,500	-	468,265
1846	16,380,200	-	492,654

The interest paid within each year is given in the column of charge, which interest has accrued upon the capital stated in the preceding year.

Account of the Principal and Annual Charge of the Public Debt at different Periods since the Revolution *

	Principal, Funded and Unfunded.	Interest and Management.
Debt at the Revolution in 1689	664,865	29,855
Excess of Debt contracted during the reign of William III. above Debt paid off -	15,730,439	1,271,087
Debt at the accession of Queen Anne, in 1702	16,394,702	1,510,942
Debt contracted during Queen Anne's reign	27,750,661	2,040,416
Debt at the accession of George I., in 1714	54,145,563	3,551,353
Debt paid off during the reign of George I., above Debt contracted	4,053,125	1,135,867
Debt at the accession of George II., in 1727	58,092,238	2,217,551
Debt contracted from the accession of George II. till the peace of Paris, in 1763, 5 years after the accession of George III.	86,773,192	2,634,500
Debt in 1763	138,865,430	4,852,051
Paid during peace, from 1763 to 1775	10,261,793	380,480
Debt at the commencement of the American war, in 1775	123,583,635	4,471,571
Debt contracted during the American war	121,267,993	5,088,536
Debt at the conclusion of the American war, 1784	249,851,628	9,560,907
Paid during peace, from 1784 to 1793	10,501,580	449,277
Debt at the commencement of the French war, in 1793	239,350,148	9,311,650
Debt contracted during the French war	601,500,543	22,704,511
Total Funded and Unfunded Debt on the 1st of February, 1817, when the English and Irish Exchequers were consolidated	840,850,491	32,015,241
Debt cancelled from the 1st of February, 1817, to the 5th of January, 1846	55,797,169	2,890,407
Debt, and charge thereon, 5th of January, 1846	785,053,322	29,125,254

* This account has been made up partly from the table in Dr. Hamilton's work on the National Debt (3rd ed. p. 100.), partly from Price on the State of the Finances in 1794 (p. 8.), and partly from the above Accounts.

The above statement shows that a reduction of 55,797,469*l.* was effected in the principal of the national debt, and of 3,890,407*l.* in the annual charge on account thereof, between February, 1817, and January, 1846. The debt, at the last-mentioned period, includes the stock created by the funding of the loan of 15,000,000*l.* in 1835, for behoof of the slave proprietors. The diminution has been brought about partly by the application of surplus revenue to buy up stock, but more by the reduction of the interest on the 4 and 5 per cent. stocks existing in 1817, and by that paid on the unfunded debt. The total annual saving by the reduction of interest on the funded debt between 1822, when the first, and 1844, when the last reduction was made (that of the 3*l.* per cent. annuities, mentioned in former impressions of this work), has been 3,051,800*l.*; and, considerable as this is, it would have been three times as great, but

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for the pernicious practice, previously pointed out, of funding large nominal capitals. We subjoin

A Return showing the Results of the Operations undertaken in 1822, 1824, 1825, 1830, 1831, and 1844, for reducing the Charge on account of the National Debt, and the Terms upon which such Reduction was made; also, showing the Annual Interest on the Funded Debt saved thereby

			Gross Capitala.	Annual Interest.	Annual Interest saved.
		Five per cent. (Navy) Annuities, capital	152,422,143		
		Amount of Dissents paid off	8,734,276		
			149,687,867	7,481,353	
		Bonns of 5l. per cent. allowed to those who as- sected	7,481,350		
		Capital 4l. per cents.	137,109,417	8,284,268	
1822	3 per cents. reduced to 4 per cents; viz. 103l. 4 per cents. for 100l. 5 per cents., per 3 Geo. 4. c. 9.	Bank of Ireland Debt at 5 per cent. reduced to 4 per cent. at par, per 3 Geo. 4. c. 25.	1,153,848	57,092	1,107,025
		Bank of Ireland Debt, at 5 per cent. Same Capital, at 4 per cent.	1,123,846	46,153	
		Four per cent. Annuities	76,248,180	3,049,927	11,538
		Same Capital, at 3l. per cent., including 6,149,845l. Non-assents, vested in the Com- missioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, per 5 Geo. 4. c. 45.	76,248,180	3,668,685	
1824	Old 4 per cents. reduced to 3l. per cents. at par, 5 Geo. 4. c. 11.				361,242
1824 & 1825	5 per cents. 1797, reduced to 5 per cents.; viz., 138l. 6s. 8d. consoli- dated 5 per cents. for 100l. 5 per cents., 37 Geo. 3. c. 10.	Capital at 5 per cent. Deduct Dissents paid off	1,013,668 41,011		
		Capital at 3 per cent.	979,657	48,632	
			1,266,876	58,506	
		4 per cent. Annuities, formerly Navy 5 per cents.; Capital	153,671,091		9,798
		Amount of Dissents paid off	2,860,915		
1830	4 per cents. exchanged for 100l. of 3l. per cents., or 70l. of 5 per cents., per 11 Geo. 4. c. 13.	Which was exchanged for 150,119,609l., 3l. 10s. per cent. Annuities	150,790,178	6,031,607	
		469,399l., 5l. per cent. Annuities	3,254,196 33,459		
		Interest:		3,277,653	753,358
1834	4 per cents. 1826 reduced to 3l. per cents. at par, per 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 31.	4 per cent. Annuities, created in 1826. Capital - Same Capital, at 3l. 10s. per cent., including 4,133,731l. Dissents, vested in Commissioners for the reduction of the National Debt on ac- count of the Fund for Banks for Savings	10,622,911	424,916	
		Debt at 3 per cent.	1,015,284	50,769	53,113
		Debt at 4 per cent.	1,615,284	64,615	
1841	Bank of Ireland Debt, at 5 and 4 per cent., re- duced to 3l. per cent., per 3 and 4 Vict. c. 75, and Warrants of Treas- ury, 30 January, 1841	Same Capital at 3l. per cent.	2,630,768 2,630,768	113,384 94,076	25,808
		N. or 3l. 10s. per cent. Annuities	157,243,317		
		Reduced 3l. 10s. per cent. Annuities	67,701,606		
		3l. 10s. per cent. Annuities, 1816	3,514,598		
		Old 3l. 10s. per cent. and Debentures	14,401,171		
1844	3l. per cents. reduced at par to 2l. per cents. until 10 October, 1851, and from that period to be reduced to 1l. per cents., and not liable to fur- ther reduction until after 10 October, 1874, per 7 Vict. c. 4 and 5	Amount of Dissents and Non-assents paid off	846,860,663 103,332		
		Same capital at 3l. 5s. per cent.	248,757,311 248,757,311	9,706,506 8,091,614	621,933
					3,051,800

We subjoin a brief notice of the different funds or stocks constituting the public debt, as it stood on the 5th of January, 1846.

I. FUNDS BEARING INTEREST AT THREE PER CENT.

1. *South Sea Debt and Annuities.* — This portion of the debt, amounting, on the 5th of January, 1846, to 9,830,907l., is all that now remains of the capital of the once famous, or rather infamous, South Sea Company. The Company has, for a considerable time past, ceased to have any thing to do with trade: so that the functions of the directors are wholly restricted to the transfer of the Company's stock, and the payment of the dividends on it; both of which operations are performed at the South Sea House, and not at the Bank. The dividends on the old South Sea annuities are payable on the 5th of April and 10th of October; the dividends on the rest of the Company's stock are payable on the 5th of January and 5th of July.

2. *Debt due to the Bank of England.* — This consists of the sum of 11,015,100l. lent by the Bank to the public at 3 per cent.; dividends payable on the 5th of April and 10th of October. This must not be confounded with the Bank capital of 14,553,000l. on which the stockholders divide. The dividend on the latter has been 7 per cent. since 1839. — (See *antè*, p. 77. and p. 94.)

3. *Bank Annuities created in 1726.* — The civil list settled upon George I. was 700,000*l.* a year; but having fallen into arrear, this stock, consisting of 825,990*l.*, was created for the purpose of cancelling Exchequer bills that had been issued to defray the arrear. "The capital is irredeemable; and being small, in comparison with the other public funds, and a stock in which little is done on speculation, the price is generally at least 1 per cent. lower than the 3 per cent. consols." — (*Cohen's* edit. of *Fairman on the Funds*, p. 40.)

4. *Three per Cent. Consols, or Consolidated Annuities.* — This stock forms by much the largest portion of the public debt. It had its origin in 1751, when an act was passed, consolidating (hence the name) several separate stocks bearing an interest of 3 per cent. into one general stock. At the period when the consolidation took place, the principal of the funds blended together amounted to 9,137,821*l.*; but by the funding of additional loans, and parts of loans, in this stock, it amounted, on the 5th of January, 1846, to the immense sum of 364,164,788*l.*

The consolidated annuities are distinguished from the 3 per cent. reduced annuities, by the circumstance of the interest upon them never having been varied, and by the dividends becoming due at different periods. This stock is, from its magnitude, and the proportionally great number of its holders, the soonest affected by all those circumstances which tend to elevate or depress the price of funded property; and, on this account, it is the stock which speculators and jobbers most commonly select for their operations. Dividends payable on the 5th of January and 5th of July.

5. *Three per Cent. Reduced Annuities.* — This fund was established in 1757. It consisted, as the name implies, of several funds which had previously been borrowed at a higher rate of interest; but, by an act passed in 1749, it was declared that such holders of the funds in question as did not choose to accept in future of a reduced interest of 3 per cent. should be paid off, — an alternative which comparatively few embraced. The debts that were thus reduced and consolidated, amounted, at the establishment of the fund, to 17,571,574*l.* By the addition of new loans, they now amount to 123,438,532*l.* Dividends payable on the 5th of April and 10th of October.

II. FUNDS BEARING MORE THAN THREE PER CENT. INTEREST.

1. *Annuities at 3½ per Cent.* — This stock was formed in 1844 by the acts 7 Vict. c. 4. and c. 5., which directed that the following stocks, viz.: —

New 3½ per Cent. Annuities, formed in 1830	-	-	-	£ 157,215,517
Reduced 3½ per Cent. Annuities	-	-	-	67,701,666
3½ per Cent. Annuities	-	-	-	9,514,369
Old 3½ per Cent. Annuities and Debentures	-	-	-	14,101,171
				£ 248,536,663

should be converted into a new stock bearing interest at 3½ per cent. till the 10th of October, 1854, when the interest is to be reduced to 3 per cent., with the proviso that it is not to be farther reduced till 1874. Dissentients to be paid off. The new stock created under this arrangement amounted on the 1st of January, 1846, to 218,173,061*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.* Dividends payable 5th of April and 5th of October.

2. *New 5 per Cent. Annuities.* — This stock was formed in 1830, at the same time with the new 3½ per cent. annuities referred to above, under the 11 Geo. 4. c. 13. This statute gave the holders of the 4 per cent. stock, the interest on which was then to be reduced, the option of subscribing into the new 3½ per cent. annuities, or into a new 5 per cent. stock, at the rate of 100*l.* 4 per cent. for 70*l.* 5 per cent. Few, however, availed themselves of the latter alternative. Amount, 5th of January, 1846, 430,076*l.*

III. ANNUITIES.

1. *Long Annuities.* — These annuities were created at different periods, but they all expire together in 1860. They were chiefly granted by way of premiums or donations to the subscribers to loans. — Payable on the 5th of April and 10th of October.

2. *Annuities per 4 Geo. 4. c. 22.* — This annuity is payable to the Bank of England, and is commonly known by the name of the "Dead Weight" annuity. (See *ante*, p. 94.) It expires in 1867. It is equivalent to a perpetual annuity of 470,319*l.* 10*s.*

3. *Annuities per 48 Geo. 3., 10 Geo. 4. c. 24., and 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 14.* — These acts authorised the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt to grant annuities for terms of years, and life annuities; accepting in payment either money or stock, according to rates specified in Tables to be approved by the Lords of the Treasury. No annuities are granted on the life of any *nominee* under 15 years of age, nor in any case not approved by the commissioners. Annuities for terms of years not granted for any period less than ten years. These annuities are transferable, but not in parts or shares. Those for terms of years, payable 5th of January and 5th of July; and those for lives, 5th of April and 10th of October.

The terminable and life annuities granted under the above acts, amounted, on the 5th

of January, 1845, to 3,967,092*l.*, being equal, according to the calculations of Mr. Finlaison, to a corresponding *perpetual* annuity of 1,501,132*l.*

Irish Debt. — It seems unnecessary to enter into any details with respect to the public debt of Ireland. The various descriptions of stock of which it consists, and their amount, are specified above. The dividends on the Irish debt are paid at the Bank of Ireland; and, in order to accommodate the public, stock may be transferred, at the pleasure of the holders, from Ireland to Great Britain, and from the latter to the former.

Exchequer Bills are bills of credit issued by authority of parliament. They are for various sums, and bear interest (generally from 1*l.* to 2*l.* per diem, per 100*l.*) according to the usual rate at the time. The advances of the Bank to Government are made upon Exchequer bills; and the daily transactions between the Bank and Government are principally carried on through their intervention. Notice of the time at which outstanding Exchequer bills are to be paid off is given by public advertisement. Bankers prefer vesting in Exchequer bills to any other species of stock, even though the interest be for the most part comparatively low; because the capital may be received at the Treasury at the rate originally paid for it, the holders being exempted from any risk of fluctuation. Exchequer bills were first issued in 1696, and have been annually issued ever since. The amount outstanding, and *unprovided for*, on the 5th of January, 1846, was 18,980,200*l.*

India Stock and India Bonds are always quoted in the lists of the prices of the public funds. The stock on which the East India Company divide is 6,000,000*l.*; the dividend on which has been, since 1793, 10*l.* per cent.; and is to remain at that rate during the continuance of the charter. India bonds are generally for 100*l.* each, and bear at present 2*l.* per cent. interest, payable 31st of March and 30th of September. In selling them, the interest due down to the day of sale is, with the premium, added to the amount of the bills; the total being the sum to be paid by the purchaser. The premium, which is, consequently, the only variable part of the price, is influenced by the circumstances which influence the price of stocks generally, — the number of bonds in circulation, &c.

The price of stocks is influenced by a variety of circumstances. Whatever tends to shake or to increase the public confidence in the stability of government, tends at the same time, to lower or increase the price of stocks. They are also affected by the state of the revenue; and, more than all, by the facility of obtaining supplies of disposable capital, and the interest which may be realised upon loans to responsible persons. From 1790 till the rebellion of 1745, the 3 per cents. were never under 89, and were once, in June, 1737, as high as 107. During the rebellion they sunk to 76; but in 1749 rose again to 100. In the interval between the peace of Paris, in 1763, and the breaking out of the American war, they averaged from 80 to 90; but towards the close of the war they sunk to 54. In 1792, they were, at one time, as high as 96. In 1797 the prospects of the country, owing to the successes of the French, the mutiny in the fleet, and other adverse circumstances, were by no means favourable; and in consequence the price of 3 per cents. sunk, on the 20th of September, on the intelligence transpiring of an attempt to negotiate with the French republic having failed, to 47*½*, being the lowest price to which they have ever fallen.

Average Prices of 3 per Cent. Consols, in Each Year since 1820

Years.		Prices of Consols.			Years.		Prices of Consols.					
		£	s.	d.			£	s.	d.			
1820		68	11	3	1828	85	17	6	1835	91	0	0
1821		73	15	0	1829	90	12	6	1836	89	8	9
1822		79	3	9	1830	86	10	9	1837	91	1	3
1823		79	12	6	1831	79	17	6	1838	92	17	6
1824		91	11	3	1832	83	15	0	1839	91	11	3
1825		87	11	3	1833	88	8	9	1840	89	7	6
1826		79	5	0	1834	90	5	0	1841	88	17	6
1827		83	2	6								

The following were the prices of the different descriptions of British funds on Tuesday the 10th January, 1847.

Bank Stock, div. 7 per cent.	205 ½	6	South Sea Stock, div. 2 ½ per cent.	101 ½
3 per Cent. Reduced Annuities	92 ½	6	Ditto, Old Annuities, div. 3 per cent.	90 ½
3 per Cent. Consols	92 ½	6	Ditto, New Annuities, div. 3 per cent.	90 ½
5 per Cent. Annuities, 1790	97 ½	6	5 per Cent. Annuities, 1791	—
5 per Cent. Annuities	—	—	Bank Stock for Account, Feb. 25th	—
New 5 per Cent.	114 ½	6	3 per Cent. Consols for Account, Feb. 25th	92 ½
Long Annuities, expire 5th Jan. 1860	91 ½	6	India Stock for Account, Feb. 25th	249
Annuities for 30 Years, expire Oct. 10th 1859	94 ½	6	Canada Gov. granted Deben., 4 per cent.	—
Ditto, Jan. 5th, 1860	91 ½	6	Exchequer Bills, £1000 1 <i>l.</i>	—
Ditto, Jan. 5th, 1860	91 ½	6	Ditto, £500	8 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> p.
India Stock, 10 <i>l.</i> per cent.	255	6	Ditto, Small	8 <i>l.</i> 4 <i>s.</i> p.
Ditto Bonds, 5 per cent. 1000 <i>l.</i>	—	—	Ditto, Advertised	8 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i> p.
Ditto, under 1000 <i>l.</i>	8 <i>l.</i> p.	—		

Agreements for the sale of stock are generally made at the Stock Exchange, which is frequented by a set of middlemen, called *jobbers*, whose business is to accommodate the buyers and sellers of stock with the exact sums they want. A jobber is generally possessed of considerable property in the funds; and he declares a price at which he will either sell or buy. Thus, he declares he is ready to buy 3 per cent. consols at 85*½*, or

to sell at 25 $\frac{1}{2}$; so that, in this way, a person willing to buy or sell any sum, however small, has never any difficulty in finding an individual with whom to deal. The jobber's profit is generally $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., for which he transacts both a sale and a purchase. He frequently confines himself entirely to this sort of business, and engages in no other description of stock speculation.

We borrow the following details from Dr. Hamilton's valuable work on the National Debt:—

"A bargain for the sale of stock, being agreed on, is carried into execution at the Transfer Office, at the Bank, or the South Sea House. For this purpose the seller makes out a note in writing, which contains the name and designation of the seller and purchaser, and the sum and description of the stock to be transferred. He delivers this to the proper clerk; and then fills up a receipt, a printed form of which, with blanks, is obtained at the office. The clerk in the mean time examines the seller's accounts, and if he find him possessed of the stock proposed to be sold, he makes out the transfer. This is signed in the books by the seller, who delivers the receipt to the clerk; and upon the purchaser's signing his acceptance in the book, the clerk signs the receipt as witness. It is then delivered to the purchaser upon payment of the money, and thus the business is completed.

"This business is generally transacted by brokers, who derive their authority from their employers by powers of attorney. Forms of these are obtained at the respective offices. Some authorise the broker to sell, others to accept a purchase, and others to receive the dividends. Some comprehend all these objects, and the two last are generally united. Powers of attorney authorising to sell must be deposited in the proper office for examination one day before selling; a stockholder acting personally, after granting a letter of attorney, revokes it by implication.

"The person in whose name the stock is invested when the books are shut, previous to the payment of the dividends, receives the dividend for the half year preceding; and, therefore, a purchaser during the currency of the half year has the benefit of the interest on stock he buys, from the last term of payment to the day of transfer. The price of stock, therefore, rises gradually, *cetera paribus*, from term to term; and when the dividend is paid, it undergoes a fall equal thereto. Thus, the 3 per cent. consols should be higher than the 3 per cent. reduced by $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. from the 6th of April to the 5th of July, and from the 10th of October to the 5th of January; and should be as much lower from the 5th of January to the 5th of March, and from the 5th of July to the 10th of October; and this is nearly the case. Accidental circumstances may occasion a slight deviation.

"The dividends on the different stocks being payable at different terms, it is in the power of the stockholders to invest their property in such a manner as to draw their income quarterly.

"The business of speculation in the stocks is founded on the variation of the price of stock, which it probably tends in some measure to support. It consists in buying or selling stock according to the views entertained, by those who engage in this business, of the probability of the value rising or falling.

"This business is rarely conducted by persons who have property in the funds. But a practice also prevails among those who have no such property, of contracting for the sale of stock on a future day at a price agreed on. For instance, A. may agree to sell B. 10,000*l.* of 3 per cent. stock, to be transferred in 20 days, for 6,000*l.* A. has, in fact, no such stock; but if the price on the day appointed for the transfer be only 5*l.* he may purchase as much as will enable him to fulfil his bargain for 8,000*l.*, and thus gain 200*l.* by the transaction; on the other hand, if the price of that stock should rise to 6*l.* he will lose 200*l.* The business is generally settled without any actual purchase of stock, or transfer; A. paying to B. or receiving from him the difference between the price of stock on the day of settlement, and the price agreed on.

"This practice, which amounts to nothing else than a wager concerning the price of stock, is not sanctioned by law; yet it is carried on to a great extent; and as neither party can be compelled by law to implement these bargains, their sense of honour, and the disgrace attending a breach of contract, are the principles by which the business is supported. In the language of the Stock Exchange, the buyer is called a *Bull*, and the seller a *Bear*, and the person who refuses to pay his loss is called a *Loose Duck*; and the names of these defaulters are exhibited in the Stock Exchange, where they dare not appear afterwards.

"These bargains are usually made for certain days fixed by a committee of the Stock Exchange, called *settling days*, of which there are about 8 in the year; viz. one in each of the months of January, February, April, May, July, August, October, November; and they are always on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, or Friday being the days on which the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt make purchases. The settling days in January and July are always the first days of the opening of the Bank books for public transfer; and these days are notified at the Bank when the consols are shut to prepare for the dividend. The price at which stock is sold to be transferred on the next settling day, is called the price *on account*. Sometimes, instead of closing the account on the settling day, the stock is carried on to a future day, on such terms as the party agree on. This is called a *continuation*.

"All the business, however, which is done in the stocks *for time*, is not of a gambling nature. In a place of so extensive commerce as London, opulent merchants, who possess property in the funds, and are unwilling to part with it, have frequently occasion to raise money for a short time. Their resource in this case is to sell for money, and buy for account; and although the money raised in this manner costs more than the legal interest, it affords an important accommodation, and it may be rendered strictly legal and recoverable."—(Third ed. pp. 314–317.)

It would be foreign to the object of this work to enter upon any explanation of the comparative advantages and disadvantages of the funding system. Perhaps, on the whole, the latter preponderate; though it is not to be denied that the former are very considerable. The purchase of funded property affords a ready method of investment; and as neither the Bank of England, nor any of the London private banks, allows interest upon deposits, it is plain that, had it not been for the facilities given by the funds, individuals unable to employ their savings in some branch of business, would, down to a late period, have derived no immediate advantage from them, unless they resorted to the hazardous expedient of lending upon private credit. But since the establishment of joint stock banks in the metropolis, which allow interest on deposits, the advantage of the funds as a means of commodious investment is not quite so obvious, though, probably, it is little less real; for, it may be doubted whether the banks in question, or even the Scotch banks, which have been long in the habit of allowing interest on deposits, could do so, or whether, in fact, they could be conducted at all, without the aid of the funds.

The subjoined account of the number of dividend warrants issued in the quarters

• The letters of the alphabet are placed round the room, and the setter must apply to the clerk who has his station under the initial of his name. In all the offices, there are supervising clerks who join in witnessing the transfer.

ending with the 10th of October and 5th of January, 1842, is a very important document. The large number (85,991) of holders of sums not producing above 2l. of quarterly dividend, is principally to be ascribed to the circumstances already mentioned as peculiar to the banking system of the metropolis; and there can be little doubt that their number would be materially diminished, did the Bank of England and the private banks allow a reasonable rate of interest on deposits. It is evident from this account, that the number of persons having a direct interest in the funds is much greater than it represents. The dividends upon the funded property belonging to the Equitable and other insurance companies, the different banking companies, &c. are paid upon single warrants, as if they were due to so many private individuals; whereas they are, really, paid to these individuals only because they act as factors or trustees for a vast number more. It is consequently quite absurd to pretend, as is sometimes done, that any interference with funded property would affect only some 285,000 individuals out of a population of 26,000,000. Any attack upon the dividends would really be destructive, not merely of the interests of those to whom dividend warrants are issued, but of *all* who depend upon them: it would destroy our whole system of insurance and banking, and overspread the country with bankruptcy and ruin. Not only, therefore, is every proposal for an invasion of the property of the fundholders bottomed on injustice and robbery, but it would, were it acted upon, be little less ruinous to the community than to the peculiar class intended to be plundered.

Account of the Number of Persons who were entitled to Dividends on the Portions of the Public Debt held by them which became due at the Quarters ended the 10th of October 1841, and 5th January 1842, arranged in classes according to the Amount of Dividend paid to each.

	Not exceeding									Exceeding 1000l.	Total.
	5l.	10l.	50l.	100l.	500l.	1000l.	5000l.	10000l.	50000l.		
Number to whom dividends were payable											
On 3l. per cent. reduced annuities -	1,605	5,213	12,224	3,695	4,251	720	696	217	61	28	36,464
On 3l. 10s. per cent. -	9,290	6,318	11,211	3,034	1,668	427	354	97	30	14	31,471
On 3l. 10s. per cent. annuities, 161s. -	173	120	374	150	102	11	12	20	4	1	1,211
On long annuities -	4,646	3,747	6,885	1,534	795	259	175	72	36	96	16,439
On annuities for terms of years -	1,005	523	1,559	314	149	53	30	10	11	13	3,741
On 3l. per cent. consolidated annuities -	23,537	15,973	35,746	10,553	6,662	3,908	1,466	699	186	74	105,380
On 3l. per cent. annuities, 173s. -	111	68	150	36	21	3	4	1	1	1	366
On new 3l. 10s. per cent. annuities -	1,265,228	15,229	30,234	6,972	3,323	818	465	177	44	14	85,268
On new 3l. per cent. annuities -	92	32	34	23	20	4	5	1	1	1	208
On annuities for terms of years -	963	607	1,537	385	125	57	95	96	14	35	5,614
Totals -	85,991	45,396	106,144	36,604	14,897	4,545	3,343	1,390	387	110	829,529

* Dividends payable 10th of October. † Dividends payable 5th of January.

The following Table has been calculated, in order to show in which of the public funds money may be invested, so as to yield the greatest interest. It gives the prices, differing by 1 per cent. from 50 to 93 for 3 per cents., &c., at which they all must be, to yield the same interest; so that, supposing the 3 per cents. to be at 80, a sum invested in them, or in the 3l per cents., will yield the same interest, provided the latter be at 93; if the 3l per cents. be below this sum, it will of course be more advantageous, in so far as any interest is concerned, to invest in them than in the 3 per cents.; while, if they be above 93, it will be less advantageous.

To get the true value of the different funds at any particular period, in order to compare them accurately together, it is necessary to deduct from each the amount of interest accruing upon it from the payment of the last dividend.—(For further details, see ante, p. 82. and p. 188.)

Table showing the Prices the different Funds must be at to produce an equal Interest; and also the annual Interest produced by 100l. sterling invested at any of those Prices.

3 per Cent. Price.	3l per Cent. Price.	4 per Cent. Price.	5 per Cent. Price.	Interest.	3 per Cent. Price.	3l per Cent. Price.	4 per Cent. Price.	5 per Cent. Price.	Interest.
£ 50	£ 88	£ 84	£ 80	£ 6	£ 72	£ 84	£ 80	£ 76	£ 6
51	89	85	81	6 1	73	85	81	77	6 1
52	90	86	82	6 2	74	86	82	78	6 2
53	91	87	83	6 3	75	87	83	79	6 3
54	92	88	84	6 4	76	88	84	80	6 4
55	93	89	85	6 5	77	89	85	81	6 5
56	94	90	86	6 6	78	90	86	82	6 6
57	95	91	87	6 7	79	91	87	83	6 7
58	96	92	88	6 8	80	92	88	84	6 8
59	97	93	89	6 9	81	93	89	85	6 9
60	98	94	90	7 0	82	94	90	86	7 0
61	99	95	91	7 1	83	95	91	87	7 1
62	100	96	92	7 2	84	96	92	88	7 2
63	101	97	93	7 3	85	97	93	89	7 3
64	102	98	94	7 4	86	98	94	90	7 4
65	103	99	95	7 5	87	99	95	91	7 5
66	104	100	96	7 6	88	100	96	92	7 6
67	105	101	97	7 7	89	101	97	93	7 7
68	106	102	98	7 8	90	102	98	94	7 8
69	107	103	99	7 9	91	103	99	95	7 9
70	108	104	100	8 0	92	104	100	96	8 0
71	109	105	101	8 1	93	105	101	97	8 1

Foreign Funds.—Exclusive of the funded and unfunded debt due by the British government, more than 19-20ths of which is held by British subjects, our countrymen are also large creditors of foreign states. With the exception of Spain, the interest on the debts of most European states is paid with great regularity; and their funds form what may, on the whole, be reckoned, at least so long as peace is preserved, a pretty secure investment. Our countrymen are, also, large creditors of the new South American States, and of the U. States of North America. Owing, however, to the anarchy in which the former have been almost constantly involved, and the consequent want of power, and probably also of inclination, on the part of their rulers, to make any adequate provision for the payment of their debts, a large arrear of interest has, in most instances, been allowed to accumulate, with but little prospect of its being speedily reduced.

The public debt of the U. States, which amounted, at the close of the last war with this country, to 158,718,049 dollars, was entirely paid off in 1835. This proceeding, so honourable to the U. States, naturally tended to raise the character of American securities in the English market, and facilitated the contracting of loans by the different state governments. These have been contracted principally for the construction of canals, railways, and other local improvements, the erection of public buildings, the establishment of banks, insurance offices, and other institutions. Subjoined is a

Statement of the Debts of the several indebted States and Cities of the Union in 1842.

States, &c.	Debts in Dollars.	States, &c.	Debts in Dollars.	Cities.	Debts in Dollars.
Maine	1,678,267	Tennessee	1,789,168	New York	9,678,969
Massachusetts	6,149,137	Kentucky	4,665,000	Boston	1,608,232
New York	20,165,254	Ohio	14,809,478	Philadelphia	1,000,000
New Jersey	83,583	Illinois	13,667,333	Baltimore	6,990,970
Pennsylvania	54,723,261	Missouri	3,939,557	Albany	695,558
Maryland	15,109,029	Michigan	6,011,000	Troy	361,000
Virginia	6,857,161	Arkansas	3,755,268	Cincinnati	860,000
S. Carolina	3,764,734	Florida	3,900,000	New Orleans	1,758,180
Georgia	500,000	District of Columbia	1,500,000	Mobile	313,000
Alabama	10,859,536			Charleston	1,119,358
Mississippi	12,400,000				
Louisiana	20,585,000				
		Total	198,267,455		22,278,441
		Debts of the States for the United States surplus money deposited with them	28,101,611		226,469,099
		Total of State and City debts			248,641,540

Some of the funds so borrowed have been profitably laid out; but a large proportion has, we believe, been expended on projects, some of which will, probably, be a total loss, while others will yield little or no revenue for years to come. But their injudicious outlay does not certainly afford so much as the shadow of an excuse for the conduct of Pennsylvania, Michigan, Mississippi, Louisiana, and other states, who have proceeded to repudiate their debts. Nothing, in fact, was ever heard of in the public conduct of nations more entirely profligate and audaciously villanous than this repudiation. Necessity may compel a state, as well as an individual, to become bankrupt; but the repudiating American states have no such excuse. Pennsylvania, indeed, is not only one of the wealthiest and most flourishing communities in America, but in the world; and, down to this disgraceful occurrence, the inhabitants were supposed to be eminently moral and high principled. The other repudiating states are universally, also, in the most prosperous circumstances; they are all but entirely free from the burden of taxes; and the smallest sacrifice on their part, such as the imposition of a small internal duty on spirits, tobacco, or some such article, consumed within their limits, would enable them to face all their engagements. The truth is, that their dishonesty is glaring and barefaced, admitting neither of palliation nor excuse. The pretences they have put forward in its extenuation serve only to set it in a still more striking point of view. What is it to the capitalists who made them loans, whether they expended them judiciously or employed honest agents? That was their own private affair; and to decline paying their just debts on such flimsy grounds is the climax of knavery. We regret to have to state, that our countrymen are large creditors of the states who have repudiated their debts, holding no less than 20,026,458 doll. (about 4,000,000.) of Pennsylvania stock.—(*Downe's American Almanac* for 1843, p. 272.) We would fain hope that the experience they have now had of American honour will make them more cautious how they trust to it on future occasions.

At the same time, it would be unjust not to state that New York and several of the leading states of the Union have treated the doctrine of repudiation with contempt, and have honourably distinguished themselves by their adherence to their engagements; and, seeing the disgrace that will be brought upon the Union by the proceedings of the repudiating states, the central government may, it is to be hoped, endeavour to bring them to a sense of their duty.

If any thing other than the consciousness, which they cannot but feel, of their dishonesty and bad faith, were necessary to make the repudiating states retrace their steps, it would be found in the disgust which their conduct has everywhere generated, the disgrace it has entailed on the American character, and the pain it has inflicted on the friends and well-wishers of American institutions. We have never, indeed, been of opinion that the latter had any very well-founded claim to the unqualified commendations that have been so frequently bestowed on them; though we did not certainly anticipate that under their influence any considerable portion of the population would have thus early become so lost to all sense of moral obligation, and such adepts in the art of swindling, as the repudiation of their debts and their banking schemes show them to be.

Our readers, we are sure, will be glad to have the opportunity of perusing the following petition to Congress in reference to this subject. The Americans cannot surely continue deaf to such an appeal. Its forcible statements derive additional weight from their coming from so distinguished a friend to liberal institutions.

The Humble Petition of the Rev. Sydney Smith to the House of Congress at Washington.

"I petition your honourable house to institute some measure for the restoration of American credit, and for the repayment of debts incurred and repudiated by several of the states. Your petitioner resides in the State of Pennsylvania a sum of money, for the purpose of some public improvement. The amount, though small, is to him important, and is a saving from a life income, made with difficulty and privation. If their refusal to pay (from which a very large number of English families are suffering) had been the result of war, produced by the unjust aggression of powerful enemies; if it had arisen from civil discord, if it had proceeded from an improvident application of means in the first years of self-government; if it were the act of a poor state struggling against the barrenness of nature, — every friend of America would have been contented to wait for better times; but the fraud is committed in profound peace, by Pennsylvania, the richest state in the Union, after the wise investment of the borrowed money in lands and canals, of which the repudiators are every day reaping the advantage. It is an act of bad faith which (all its circumstances considered) has no parallel, and no excuse.

"Nor is it only the loss of property which your petitioner laments: he laments still more that immense power which the bad faith of America has given to aristocratical opinions, and to the enemies of free institutions in the Old World. It is in vain any longer to appeal to history, and to point out the wrongs which the many have received from the few. The Americans, who boast to have improved the institutions of the Old World, have at least equalled its crimes. A great nation, after trampling under foot all earthly tyranny, has been guilty of a fraud as enormous as ever disgraced the worst king of the most degraded nation of Europe.

"It is most painful to your petitioner to see that American citizens exult, wherever they may go, the result of the fraud they belong to a dishonest people, who pride themselves on having tricked and pillaged Europe; and this mark is fixed, by their faithless legislators, on some of the best and most honourable men in the world, whom every Englishman has been eager to see, and proud to receive.

"It is a subject of serious concern to your petitioner that you are losing all that power which the friends of freedom rejoiced that you possessed, looking upon you as the ark of human happiness, and the most splendid picture of justice and wisdom that the world had yet seen. Little did the friends of America expect it, and sad is the spectacle, to see you rejected by every state in Europe, as a nation with whom no contract can be made, because none will be kept; unstable in the very foundations of social life, shuffling in the elements of good faith, men who prefer any load of infamy, however great, to any pressure of taxation, however light.

"Nor is it only this gigantic bankruptcy for so many degrees of longitude and latitude which your petitioner deplures, but he is alarmed also by that total want of shame with which these things have been done, the callous immorality with which Europe has been plundered, that deadness of the moral sense which seems to preclude all return to honesty, to perpetuate this new infamy, and to threaten its extension over every state of the Union.

"To any man of real philanthropy, who receives pleasure from the improvements of the world, the repudiation of the public debts of America, and the shameless manner in which it has been talked of and done, is the most melancholy event which has happened during the existence of the present generation. Your petitioner sincerely prays that the great and good men still existing among you may, by teaching to the U. States the deep disgrace they have incurred in the Old World, restore them to moral health, to that high position they have lost, and which, for the happiness of mankind, it is so important they should ever maintain; for the U. States are now working out the greatest of all political problems, and upon that vantage-ground the eyes of thinking men are intensely fixed, to see how far the mass of mankind can be trusted with the management of their own affairs, and the establishment of their own happiness."

FURS, in commerce, the skins of different animals, covered, for the most part, with thick fine hair, the inner side being converted by a peculiar process into a sort of leather. Furs, previously to their undergoing this process, are denominated *peltry*.

Beaver fur, from its extensive use in the hat manufacture, is a very important commercial article. That made use of in this country is almost entirely brought from North America. It is gradually becoming scarcer and dearer, being now obtainable only in considerable quantities from the most northerly and inaccessible districts. The fur of the middle-aged or young animal, called cub beaver, is most esteemed. It is the finest, most glossy, and takes the best dye. Fitch, or the fur of the fitchet or polecat, is principally imported from Germany; it is soft and warm, but the unpleasant smell which adheres to it depresses its value. Martin and mink (a diminutive species of otter) are principally imported from the U. States and Canada. The fur of the musquash or muskrat (a diminutive species of beaver) is imported in vast quantities from our possessions in North America; which also supply us with considerable quantities of otter skins. Nutria skins are principally brought from Buenos Ayres. The more valuable furs, as ermine, sable, &c., come principally from Russia.

FUR TRADE. We are indebted for the following details with respect to the fur trade to one of the most extensive and intelligent fur merchants of London.

"Though practically engaged in the fur trade, I fear I shall be able to say little with regard to it not already known to you; but were I to write on the subject, I should divide the trade into 2, or rather 3 classes.

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Debits in Dollars.
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"1. The 1st class would comprise articles of necessity; among which I should principally number an immense variety of lamb skins, varying so widely from each other in size, quality, colour, and value, that, to most persons, they would appear as the produce of so many different species of animals. These lamb skins are produced in all parts of the globe, and are everywhere consumed; but they form, in particular, an essential part of the dress of thousands among the lower classes in Russia, Poland, East Prussia, Hungary, Bohemia, and Saxony. In Russia and other cold climates, the skins of various other animals may be considered as articles of actual necessity.

"2. The 2d class would in a measure form part of the first, as it also comprises furs which through habit and fashion have now become articles of necessity. I should here enumerate all those different skins commonly called *hauling furs*. Few who are not acquainted with this branch of the fur trade can form an idea of its extent. It spreads, of course, over all parts of the globe where hats are worn, and requires very superior judgment and considerable capital to conduct it successfully. The furs now used for hat making are beaver, musquash, otter, nutria, hare, and rabbit; but each of these may be subdivided into 20 different sorts or classes.

"Nutria, or nutria, is comparatively a new article. It began first to be imported in large quantities about 1810, from the Spanish possessions in South America. — (See NUTRIA.) The skin is used for different purposes, being either dressed as a peltry, or cut (shorn) as a hatting fur; and if well manufactured and prepared, it bears some resemblance to beaver fur, and is used for similar purposes.

"3. Under the 3d and last class I should bring all those furs which, though continually sold, and used in immense quantities, must still be considered mere articles of fashion, as their value varies according to the whims and fancies of different nations. There are, however, exceptions among these; and many furs may be considered as standard articles, since they are always used, though their price is much influenced by changes of fashion.

"This class comprises an endless variety of furs, as under it may be brought the skins of most animals in existence; almost all of them appearing occasionally in the trade.

"Furs being entirely the produce of nature, which can neither be cultivated nor increased, their value is not influenced by fashion alone, but depends materially on the larger or smaller supplies received. The weather has great influence on the quality and quantity of furs imported from all quarters of the globe; and this circumstance renders the fur trade more difficult, perhaps, and precarious than any other. The quality, and consequently the price, of many furs will differ every year. It would be completely impossible to state the value of the different articles of furs, the trade being the most fluctuating imaginable. I have often seen the same article rise and fall 100, 200, and 300 per cent. in the course of a twelvemonth; nay, in several instances, in the space of 1 month only.

"Among the furs which always rank very high (though, like all the rest, they change in value) may be specified the Siberian sable, and the black and silver fox. These articles are at all times comparatively very scarce, and command high prices.

"The chief supplies of peltries are received from Russia (particularly the Asiatic part of that empire), and from North America. But many other countries produce very beautiful and useful furs; and though we are most indebted to Asia and America, Europe furnishes a very considerable quantity. Africa and Australia are of little importance to the fur trade, as, from their situation, they furnish but few articles, and consume still less. From the former we draw leopard and tiger skins (the most beautiful of that species), while the *only* production of the latter is the kangaroo; this, however, is never used as a fur being chiefly consumed by leather dressers and tanners for the sake of its pelt.

"Besides numerous private traders, there are several fur companies of very old standing, who in various countries do a great amount of business. Among these, the Hudson's Bay Company (in London) deserves to be mentioned first, not only from the extent of their business, but because it is one of the oldest chartered companies in England.

"The American Fur Company (in New York) stands next. They chiefly trade to London, whither they send the produce of the States and other parts of North America.

"The 3d company is the Russo-American (in Moscow). They trade to the Russian possessions on the western coast of North America, whence they draw their supplies, which are chiefly consumed in Russia, and sent to China.

"The 4th and last company of any consequence is the Danish Greenland Company (in Copenhagen). They do but a very limited business; exposing their goods for sale once a year in Copenhagen.

"The principal consumption of the furs which I should bring under the head of the 3d class, is in China, Turkey, and Russia, and among the more civilized countries of Europe, particularly in England. Germany consumes a considerable quantity. The consumption of America is comparatively little. In Africa, none but the Egyptians wear fur. In Australia, none is consumed.

"Hatting furs are used throughout Europe (with the exception of Turkey and Greece), and in America; but by far the principal trade in these articles is carried on in London and New York.

"Most of the companies sell their goods by public sale, and the principal fur fairs are held at Kjachta (on the borders of China); Nijni Novgorod, between Moscow and Casan, in Russia; and twice a year at Leipzig. — (See FAIRS.)

"It is a remarkable feature of the fur trade, that almost every country or town which produces and exports furs, imports and consumes the fur of some other place, frequently the most distant. It is but

an article is consumed in the country where it is produced, though that country may consume a very great extent."

For more details with respect to the North American fur trade may not be

... was first practised by the French settlers at Quebec and Montreal; and consisted then, as now, in bartering fire-arms, ammunition, cloth, spirits, and other articles in demand among the Indians, for beaver and other skins. In 1670, Charles II. established the Hudson's Bay Company, to which he assigned the exclusive privilege of trading with the Indians in and about the vast inlet known by the name of Hudson's Bay. The company founded establishments at Forts Churchill and Albany, Nelson River, and other places on the west coast of the bay. But the trade they carried on, though said to be a profitable one, was of very limited extent; and their conduct on various occasions shows how thoroughly they were "possessed with that spirit of jealousy which prevails in some degree in all knots and societies of men endued with peculiar privileges." — (*European Settlements*, vol. ii. p. 268.) Mr. Burke has, in the same place, expressed his astonishment that the trade has not been thrown open. But as the company's charter was never confirmed by any act of parliament, all British subjects are lawfully entitled to trade with those regions; though, from the difficulties attached to the trade, the protection required in carrying it on, and the undisguised hostility which private traders have experienced from the agents of the company, the

latter have been allowed to monopolise it with but little opposition. In 1783-4, the principal traders engaged in the fur trade of Canada formed themselves into an association known by the name of the North-West Company, having their chief establishment at Montreal. This new company prosecuted the trade with great enterprise and very considerable success. The course of their proceedings in their adventurous undertakings has been minutely described by Mr. Mackenzie, one of the agents of the company, in his *Voyage from Montreal, through the Continent of America*. This gentleman informs us, that some of those engaged in this trade are employed at the astonishing distance of upwards of 4,000 miles north-west of Montreal! A very numerous caravan, if we may so call it, sets out every year for *Le Grands Portage*, on Lake Superior, where they meet those who have wintered in the remoter establishments, from whom they receive the furs collected in the course of the season, and whom they, at the same time, furnish with fresh supplies of the various articles required in the trade. Fort Chepeywan, on the Lake of the Hills, in lon. 110° 26' W., used to be one of the most distant stations of the servants of the North-West Company; but many of the Indians who traded with the fort came from districts contiguous to, and sometimes even beyond, the Rocky Mountains.

The competition and success of the North-West Company seem to have roused the dormant energies of the Hudson's Bay Company. The conflicting interests and pretensions of the two associations were naturally productive of much jealousy and ill-will. Under the auspices of the late Earl of Selkirk, who was for a considerable period at the head of the Hudson's Bay Company, a colony was projected and founded on the Red River, which runs into Lake Winnipeg. The North-West Company regarded this establishment as an encroachment upon their peculiar rights; and the animosities thence arising led to the most violent proceedings on the part of the servants of both companies. At length, however, the more moderate individuals of each party began to perceive that their interests were not materially different; and the rival companies, wearied and impoverished by their dissensions, ultimately united under the name of the *Hudson's Bay Fur Company*, which at present engrosses most of the fur trade of British America. The most important part of the trade is still carried on from Montreal in the way described by Mr. Mackenzie.

The *North American Fur Company*, the leading directors of which reside in the city of New York, have long enjoyed the principal part of the Indian trade of the great lakes and the Upper Mississippi. But, with the exception of the musk rat, most of the fur-clad animals are exterminated in the vicinity of the lakes. The skins of racoons are of little value; and the beaver is now scarce on this side the Rocky Mountains. The further north the furs are taken, the better is their quality.

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Furs Imported in 1841, specifying the Countries whence they were brought and the Quantity furnished by each Country.

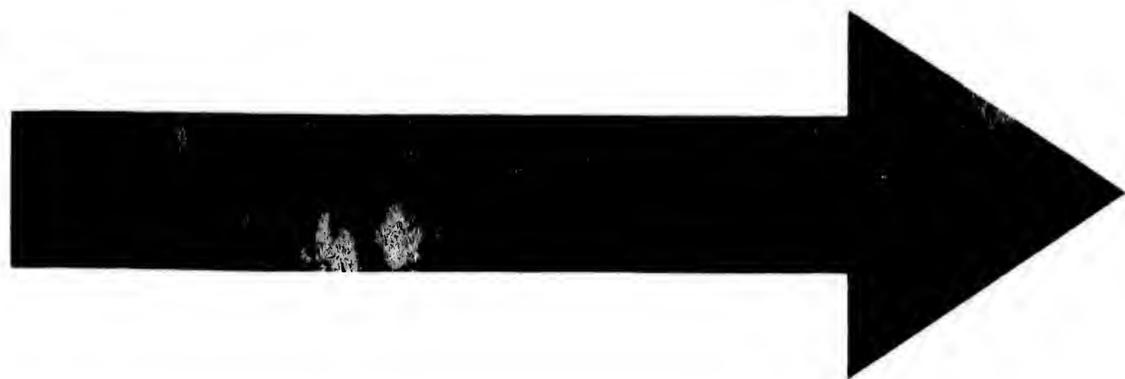
Countries.	Bear.	Beaver.	Fitch.	Marten.	Mink.	Musquash.	Nutria.	Otter.
	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Russia	-	-	-	7,109	-	-	-	-
Germany	-	3	85,060	76,818	1,833	160	-	-
Holland	-	-	2,686	1,312	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-	-	8,922	1,437	-	-	-	-
France	-	-	5,100	21,681	-	-	-	-
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	11	-	-	1	-	-	45	2,743
British North American colonies	5,339	52,910	-	67,375	22,233	147,835	-	8,644
United States of America	5,279	15,220	-	40,998	109,257	191,914	-	5,457
States of the Rio de la Plata	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,119,565	11,541
All other countries	8	287	-	-	-	-	116	187
Total	11,997	67,780	101,768	217,259	133,323	339,939	1,125,917	24,115

The furs from our North American colonies are mostly all imported by the Hudson's Bay Company, by whom they are sold at public sales.

China is one of the best markets for furs. The Russo-American Fur Company are in the habit of carrying a considerable quantity of the furs taken by them in Kamtschaka and Russian America to Kjachta, where they are exchanged for tea and other Chinese produce. We subjoin

An Official Account of the Furs disposed of by the Russian Fur Company at Kjachta, in 1839, 1840, and 1841. — (*Supplément du Journal de l'Interieur* for 1842, p. 157.)

Furs.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Sea otter	511	100	468
Ditto tails	1,053	1,095	891
Beaver, 1st class	7,361	5,294	5,779
Ditto 2d class	2,272	2,035	-
Ditto 3d class	2,984	1,616	1,381
Man bear	9,853	9,000	10,000
Common fox	2,869	2,461	2,817
White	-	-	608
Yellow	44	52	153
Lynx	793	608	608
(Hutton (<i>Muscula gulo</i>))	443	149	753
Wolf	87	-	187
Musk rat	91	-	32
Otter	1,643	1,798	905
	1,288	-	7,602



FUSTIAN (Ger. *Barchent*; Du. *Fustein*; Fr. *Futaine*; It. *Fustagno*, *Frustagno*; Sp. *Fustan*; Rus. *Bumasea*; Pol. *Barchan*), a kind of cotton stuff, wealed or ribbed on one side.

FUSTIC (Ger. *Gelholz*, *Fustick*; Du. *Geelhout*; Fr. *Bois jaune de Brésil*; It. *Legno giallo de Brasilio*; Sp. *Palo del Brasilamarillo*), the wood of a species of mulberry (*Morus tinctoria*), growing in most parts of South America, in the United States, and the West India islands. It is a large and handsome tree; and the timber, though, like most other dye woods, brittle, or at least easily splintered, is hard and strong. It is very extensively used as an ingredient in the dyeing of yellow, and is largely imported for that purpose. Of 9,047 tons of fustic imported into Great Britain in 1840, 2,183 tons were brought from the British West Indies, 1,201 ditto from Cuba and the foreign West Indies, 397 ditto from the United States, 546 ditto from Mexico, 4,349 ditto from Colombia, and 192 ditto from Brazil. Fustic from Cuba fetches full 30 per cent. more in the London market than that of Jamaica or Colombia. At present, the price of the former varies from 7*l.* to 9*l.* a ton, while the latter varies from 6*l.* to 7*l.* a ton. The consumption amounted at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, to 7,560 tons a year. The duty on fustic from a foreign country is 2*s.* a ton, and from a British plantation, 1*s.* per ditto.

Zante, or *young fustic*, is really a species of sumach (*Rhus cotinus* Lin.), and is quite distinct from the *morus tinctoria*, or *old fustic*; the latter being a large American tree, while the former is a small European shrub. It grows in Italy and the south of France, but is principally exported from the Ionian Islands and Patras in the Morea. It imparts a beautiful bright yellow dye to cottons, &c., which, when proper mordants are used, is very permanent. It is conveniently stowed amongst a cargo of dry goods, as it may be cut into pieces of any length without injury. Only a small quantity of this species of sumach is imported; the imports in 1840 being 82 tons. Its price fluctuates considerably.

G.

GALACZ or **GALATZ**, a town of Moldavia, on the left bank of the Danube, between the confluence of the Sereth and Pruth with that river, lat. 45° 25' N., long. 28° E. It is ill built and dirty: population supposed to amount to 12,000. The trade of the town is chiefly carried on by Greek merchants; but, within the last few years, various English and other foreigners have formed establishments in it. Though at a considerable distance inland, Galacz is in the best position for becoming the port of the Province. At present, however, it is little more than the port of Moldavia, Ibraila, or Brahilow, about 12 miles farther inland, being the port of Wallachia. The commercial importance of these ports, and indeed of the Danube, dates only from the treaty of Adrianople in 1829. Previously to that epoch the trade of the principalities laboured under the most oppressive restrictions, and was principally carried on by land. But all articles of native produce may now be freely exported either by sea or land, on paying moderate duties; and the duties on imports are also, for the most part, comparatively moderate. The probability indeed seems to be that Galacz, "the Alexandria," as it has been called, "of the Scythian Nile," will at no very distant period become a first-rate emporium. The rescuing of Moldavia and Wallachia from Turkish misgovernment has, of itself, been of signal advantage; and the political jealousies that so long obstructed the navigation of the Danube have been, for the present at least, in a considerable degree mitigated. The establishment of a regular intercourse by means of steam packets between Vienna and Galacz, and thence, by the Black Sea, with Constantinople and Trebizond, has already done a great deal, and will every day do more, to introduce a spirit of improvement into the vast and fertile, but long neglected, countries traversed by the Danube in the lower part of its course. The capacities of this great river as a commercial highway are certainly unequalled by those of any other European stream; and their full development would be of immeasurable advantage, not merely to the countries on its banks, but to all commercial nations.

Exports and Imports. — Moldavia and Wallachia are very productive provinces, being fruitful both of corn and cattle. The exports of the former are very extensive, having amounted, in 1840, to 230,568 quarters of wheat from Galacz, and 151,200 ditto from Brahilow, exclusive of large quantities of Indian corn. The quality of the wheat, which is partly hard and partly soft, was, a few years ago, very inferior, being generally damp, and having an earthy smell from its being kept in pits dug in the ground. Latterly, however, it has been much improved; and the finer samples now fetch, in Marseilles, Genoa, and Leghorn, within from 4 to 5 per cent. of the price of Odessa wheat. But it would appear to be altogether unsuitable for our markets; so much so, that, notwithstanding the high prices in England in 1840 and 1841, the im-

ports of wheat from the Danube in these years were quite inconsiderable. Both provinces fatten large herds of cattle, particularly Moldavia, which annually sends great numbers to the Austrian states. Tallow may be had in large quantities, its annual produce in Wallachia only being estimated at about 3,000,000 oke, or 8,500,000 lbs. Until within these two or three years the tallow shipped at Galacz was burdened with a heavy export duty, which checked its sale, and consequently, also, its growth. Happily, however, that duty is now reduced to 3 per cent., and the exportation is rapidly increasing. The quality of the Danubian tallow is excellent. Among the other articles of export are wool, timber, hides, and skins, lard, butter, bristles, bones, jerked beef, linseed, barilla, yellow-berries, coarse cheese, &c. Timber of the finest quality may be had in any quantity; but as it can only be advantageously exported in large ships, which cannot when laden make their way over the bar, the trade in it has hitherto been confined within comparatively narrow limits. One, however, would be disposed to think that this difficulty might be obviated by sending down the timber in rafts and loading outside the bar.

Notwithstanding the recent period at which the navigation of the Danube has been opened, and the barbarous state of the countries in the lower parts of its course, the value of the exports from Galacz and Brailow probably at this moment (1843) exceed 1,000,000*l.* a year, of which from 600,000*l.* to 650,000*l.* may be from the former. But, considerable as this is, it is nothing to what it certainly would be were civilisation to make any considerable progress in the countries traversed by the Danube after it leaves the Austrian dominions, and still more were the river to become, as it naturally is, the principal channel for the conveyance of products to and from Hungary and Transylvania.

The great articles of import are manufactured cotton goods and cotton twist, principally from England, the demand for which is rapidly increasing; with sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; olive and olive oil, iron and steel, hardware, &c.

Entrance to Galacz.—Of the three principal mouths of the river, the Soullneh (middle) mouth, to lat. 45° 10' 30" N., long. 29° 41' 20" E., is the only one accessible by vessels of considerable burden. The depth of water on the bar, at its entrance, $\frac{1}{2}$ mile from shore, varies from 10 to 13 and 14 feet, according to the season of the year, and the direction of the wind. From the bar to Galacz and Brailow, there is nowhere less than 18 feet water, and in many places from 50 to 70 feet. Vessels of 300 tons lie close to the quays at Galacz. The shores at the mouth of the river being low, and bordered with reeds and shoals, vessels intending to enter the river generally make the small rocky islet of Ptilonidi, or Serpent's Isle, in lat. 45° 15' 15" N., long. 30° 10' 20" E., whence the Soullneh mouth bears W. by S. distant 23 miles. According to Mr. Cunningham, the first objects seen, on nearing the shore, are the masts of vessels in the river and the houses in the town of Soullneh, which, however, are very low. Higgenbottom says that there is a wooden tower on the south shore at the entrance to the river; but, though the contrary has been often affirmed, and its position given in Arrowsmith's map, there is certainly no light-house. When a ship approaches the entrance, a boat from the Russian captain of the port goes off, and by waving a red flag indicates the course to be kept. Lighters are generally stationed without the bar, into which large ships discharge a part of their cargoes; and pilots may generally be obtained from them or other vessels. As the current is sometimes very strong, and difficult to stem, the establishment of steam tugs at the mouth of the river would obviate the principal difficulties incident to its navigation. An E. S. E. wind carries a vessel from Soullneh to Galacz through all the different reaches of the river; but otherwise the navigation is difficult, and tracking is in parts necessary.

Frost usually sets in on the Danube in the month of December, and continues till the month of March; in 1833, however, there was no frost. Freight in the ports of the Danube are always from 20 to 25 per cent. higher than in Odessa; premiums of insurance, on the contrary, are not higher than at the latter, except on such vessels as, on account of their size, are obliged to discharge outside the bar.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—These are mostly the same as at Constantinople, which see. Accounts are kept in piastres and paras. 1 piastre = 40 paras.

Galacz.—Ducat blanc = pia. 44. Silver ruble = 15 pia. Spanish dollar = 19 pia. 18. Turkish yermelik, old coinage = 13 pia. 32 paras; Turkish yermelik, new coinage, = 17 pia. 15 paras. Austrian swanziger = 3 pia. 5 paras. It is to be observed that when exchanges are so high that it is requisite to remit in specie, any of these coins may go to a premium, according as it suits better than others for the remittance; and just now, owing to the want of bills to remit to Austria, the ducat blanc = 41 pia. 20 paras.

Brailow has two rates of currency: the one for charges, which is the same as in Galacz, and the other for the purchase of merchandise, as follows:—Ducat blanc = 32 pia.; Spanish dollar = 14 pia.; Turkish yermelik, old coinage = 14 pia.; Turkish yermelik, new coinage, = 12 pia. 28 paras; swanziger = 3 pia. 12 paras. Note.—The same as in Galacz, any of these coins may go to a premium.

Galacz and Brailow.—All duties are paid in both places, in the course of the Treasury, as follows:—Ducat blanc = 3½ pia.; silver ruble = 1½ pia.; Spanish dollar = 1½ pia.; Turkish yermelik, old, = 1½ pia.; swanziger = ½ pia. The ducat blanc weighs 1 Turkish drachm.

Exchange.—Bills can generally be sold on the following places, and the present (1843) rates are as noted; it must be observed, however, that these rates are very high; and when a great deal of paper is offering, they may go 4 per cent. lower.

	Plas.	Paras.	per forin.
Vienna	9	16	forin.
Trieste	9	16	forin.
Marseilles	3	25	franc.
Genoa	3	25	franc.
Laghorn	7	40	lira.
London	90	80	d. sterl.
Odessa	490	per 100 roubles.	
Constantinople	11	113	per 100 of Galacz.

Weights.—Galacz and Brailow. 400 drams = 1 oke. 46 oke = 1 cantar.

Measures.—Galacz and Brailow. 20 banniza = 1 kilo. 3 kilo of Galacz = 2 kilo of Brailow.

Correspondence of Weights and Measures of Galacz with those of Foreign Places.

29½ oke	=	1 cwt. English.
78 "	=	100 kilogrammes.
44 "	=	100 lbs. of Vienna.
128 "	=	1 pud of Russia.
100 kilo of Galacz	=	150 imperial quarters.
100 "	=	13½ hectolitres.
100 "	=	225 stajo of Venice.
100 "	=	100 sacks of Leghorn.
100 "	=	200 sheverts of Odessa.
160 oke linaced	=	1 imperial quarter
55 "	=	1 hectolitre.
115 "	=	1 chetvert.
1 kilo of Brailow	=	½ imperial quarters.

Note.—These measures generally measure out somewhat less.

* This island was famous in antiquity for its temple in honour of Achilles, to whom it was sacred. It was called *Leuce*, or the White Island, from the myriads of sea-fowl by which it was usually covered. There seems to be no good foundation for the modern notion of its being infested with serpents. It is singular, however, seeing that it is now annually passed by numbers of European ships, that it should not have been visited by any traveller. It may be expected to contain some remains of antiquity.—(See *Clarke's Travels in Russia, Turkey, &c.* 8vo. edit. vol. ii. p. 394—401.)

Charges on Shipping, &c. in Galatz and Ibraila.
Port Charges.—In Galatz anchorage is 30 pia., and a guarantee for 5 days' observation 5 pia. per day. In Ibraila anchorage is 17½ pia., and guarantee for 5 days' observation 5 pia. per day.
Quarantine.—Vessels generally remain in quarantine during their stay, as little or no advantage is gained by taking private.
 Vessels wishing to take private may obtain it in 14 to 21 days, according to the state of health in Turkey, by taking a Health Office guard on board; or the captain alone may take private, the same as any passenger, by going into the Lazaretto. During the last year, as the health was good in Constantinople and along the Danube, the quarantine was only seven days.

Accounts of Exports by Sea from Galatz in the Year 1840, in English Weights and Measures, and Value in Sterling, free on board.

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Price.	Amount in Sterling.
Wheat - Imp. grs.	250,588	36 0	9,021,328
Indian corn - "	199,250	17 0	3,387,250
Kidney beans - "	833	50 0	41,650

Merchandise.	Quantity.	Price.	Amount in Sterling.
Lined - Imp. grs.	1,158	27 0	31,266
Hampeed - "	10	30 0	300
Flax - cwt.	700	25 0	17,500
Wool, Zigal - lbs.	117,000	0 2	4,410
Wool, Zorum - "	669,300	0 2	26,372
Tallow - cwt.	938	26 0	24,388
Tobacco - "	750	30 0	22,500
Hare skins - pieces	12,000	0 1	1,200
Beeswax - cwt.	150	45 0	6,750
Cheese - "	4,400	15 0	66,000
Oil hides - pieces	3,750	0 8	3,000
Wine - gal.	222,750	0 8	17,820
Walnuts - cwt.	81	1 1	81
Fruites - "	1,068	5 0	5,340
Salt - "	84,641	3 0	253,923
Flambe - pieces	65,150	0 4	2,606
Metals and spars - "	41,800	0 5	2,090
Slaves - "	30,000	0 8	2,400
			£ 204,447

Note.—The foregoing table, taken from the books of the Quarantine, and corrected by those of the Customs-house, is correct.

In 1842, 154,675 quarters of wheat, 7,351 quarters of Indian corn, 9,524 cwt. of wool, 450 tons beans, &c. were exported from Galatz.

Account of the Exports by Sea from Brahlow in 1841 and 1842, in English Weights and Measures, and their Value in Sterling, free on board.

1841.				1842.			
Merchandise.	Quantity.	Price.	Amount in Sterling.	Quantity.	Price.	Amount in Sterling.	
Wheat - Imp. grs.	84,899	12s.	93,161	160,121	91s.	160,121	
Indian corn - "	35,818	15s.	50,113	10,221	11s.	5,621	
Barley - "	30,544	2s.	9,468	73,502	6s. 5d.	36,919	
Millet - "	5,704	0s.	1,492	1,492	7s.	1,049	
Kidney beans - "	5,097	18s.	5,315	2,470	18s.	2,252	
Lined - "	1,327	36s.	1,816	356	36s.	2,372	
Wool - lbs.	122,000	8d.	4,797	93,963	8d.	3,159	
Tallow - cwt.	48,470	34s.	16,399	40,535	34s.	13,979	
Hog's lard - "	534	30s.	161	491	30s.	146	
Tobacco - "	179	30s.	53	172	30s.	51	
Honey - "	312	30s.	93	800	30s.	240	
Butter and mutton - "	471	42s.	198	720	42s.	302	
Cheese - "	3,243	18s.	1,533	4,617	18s.	3,001	
Hides, ox - "	1,508	10s.	999	5,298	10s.	1,648	
Buffalo - "	174	30s.	52	174	30s.	52	
Shins, hare's - "	46,317	6d.	1,538	18,435	6d.	307	
Wine - "	9,283	2s.	18,566	2,990	2s.	5,980	
Spirits - "	1,530	2s.	3,060	110	2s.	220	
Fruites - cwt.	1,294	5s.	399	5,235	5s.	261	
Spinous and pears - "	576	5s.	2,880	869	5s.	434	
Yellow berries - "	560	50s.	840	306	50s.	152	
Bills - "	8,720	7s.	77	1,168	7s.	416	
Cartharides - "	5,700	1s. 6d.	338	2,301	1s. 6d.	144	
Soda or barilla - cwt.	343	4s.	48	1,343	4s.	269	
Pasturem (jerred beef) - "	1,410	10s.	705	3,459	10s.	1,229	
Tongues of - "	8,869	4d.	81	9,161	4d.	153	
Biscuits - cwt.	85	120s.	428	4,199	30s.	5,927	
Boxes, cuttle - tons	228	20s.	1,365	104	5s.	260	
Wine - cwt.	-	-	-	104	5s.	260	
Slaves - pieces	-	-	-	39,500	4d.	492	
Totals	-	-	225,484	-	-	228,641	

Pro forma Invoice of Wheat purchased in Galatz, and put free on board.

Kilo 1000 wheat at 150 pia. ½ kilo	-	-	-	-	-	150,000	0
Kilo 20 less on sailing.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kilo 970 shipped.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CHARGES.							
Duty on kilo 970, @ pia. 4.—D 31½ = 44	-	-	-	-	-	5,419	89
Town duty, @ para 10 ½ kilo	-	-	-	-	-	150	0
Measuring on purchasing, @ para 8 ½ kilo	-	-	-	-	-	200	0
Portage receiving, @ para 80 ½ kilo - sorting, @ para 20 ½ kilo	-	-	-	-	-	800	0
Cartage in warehouse according to distance, para 20 ½ kilo on kilos 970	-	-	-	-	-	727	50
Measuring shipping on kilos 970 @ para 12	-	-	-	-	-	829	0
Cartage on shipping, para 50	-	-	-	-	-	485	0
Warehouse, ¼ ¼ 0	-	-	-	-	-	727	50
Brokers, ¼ ¼ 0	-	-	-	-	-	750	0
Scandaligo box for measure	-	-	-	-	-	50	0
Attendance of warehouseman	-	-	-	-	-	50	0
Postage and petty expenses	-	-	-	-	-	50	0
Commission, 5 0/0	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,974 19
Bill brokerage, 1 0/0	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,239 22
	-	-	-	-	-	-	165 96
	-	-	-	-	-	-	£ 165,969 37

When the grain is shipped direct from the warehouse of the seller, without being transported to the warehouse of the buyer, then the charges will be less by the cartage and portage passed for that purpose.

When the season is advanced and the streets in bad order, the charge of unloading will be something more.

Duties.—An ad valorem duty of 5 per cent. is levied on all articles, except provisions, imported into, or exported from, the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia. Government reserves to itself the power of prohibiting the exportation of any article, but it has to give a month's previous notice of any such prohibition. Galatz is a free port; that is, a port at which all commodities may be landed, warehoused, re-exported, and consumed in the town, free of duty. Quarantine regulations are strictly enforced, unless performed previously to entering the river. Ismail and Reni, ports of the Russian province of Bessarabia, are situated on the Danube, and are both, but espe-

cially Ismail, a good deal nearer its mouth than Galatz; but they are much less considerable in point of commercial importance. Having little importation, their trade is confined almost entirely to the exportation of corn, and even in this respect they are very inferior to Galatz and Brahlow. They are subject to the Russian duties and regulations.

We have gleaned these particulars from a variety of works, but principally from the valuable Report by Mr. Cunningham, now Vice-consul at Brahlow, printed at Galatz in 1841: the work of Nagmeister, On the Commerce of the Black Sea, Eng. Trans. pp. 83-86, &c.; Purday's sailing Directions to the Black Sea, p. 153, &c.

Account of Vessels departing loaded from Brahlow in 1842, with a Specification of their Cargoes.

Nation.	No.	Wheat.		Barley.		Indian Corn.		Tallow.		
		Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Cwt.	Cwt.			
Greek	161	89,485	18,016	2,419	18,841					Kidney beans, 350 qrs.; wool, 18,800 lbs.; cheese, 1,160 cwt.; hides, 201; staves, 5,581; bones, 110 tons.
Russian	46	13,278	6,183	2,153	4,777					Kidney beans, 830 qrs.; linseed, 336 qrs.; cheese, 163 cwt.; staves, 2,001; bones, 160 tons.
Turkish	190	31,610	44,123	737	5,681					Millet, 1,210 qrs.; kidney beans, 260 qrs.; cheese, 290 cwt.; bones, 158 tons.
Sardinian	35	14,166	7,430	2,081	1,758					Kidney beans, 260 qrs.; linseed, 35 qrs.; staves, 1,112.
Austrian	16	6,784	3,719	1,948	3,676					Hides, 621; bones, 652 tons.
English	6	5,298	-	-	6,008					Bones, 900.
Ionian	3	1,480	-	-	1,004					
French	1	-	-	-	498					
Belgian	4	2,660	-	-	-					Wool, 127,000 lbs.; cheese, 730 cwt.
Hanoverian	1	-	-	-	-					Staves, 11,900; bones, 103 tons.
Wallachian	11	3,393	-	900	1,599					
Moldavian	1	5,344	-	-	794					
Napollitan	1	-	-	-	-					Bones, 130 tons.
Sarona	1	266	-	-	-					
Serbian	1	-	-	-	-					
Totals	411	160,121	73,898	10,821	40,633					

Account of Vessels departing loaded from Galacz, and Cargoes of same, in 1840.

Nation.	No.	Wheat.		Indian Corn.		Linnseed.		Wool.		Kidney Beans.		Tallow.		Hurdies.
		Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Qrs.	Cwt.						
Greek	280	107,823	78,354	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Oz hides, 3,780 pieces; cheese, 1,242 cwt.; salt, 15,487 cwt.; staves, 54,530 pieces; deals, 41,700.
Turkish	31	20,574	20,800	-	-	290,640	201	-	-	-	-	-	-	Salt, 6,350 cwt.; deals, 35,555; rafa of maize, 3; cheese, 3,008 cwt.; tobacco, 344 cwt.
Sardinian	38	43,174	33,230	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Wine, 322,750 gallons; prunes, 1088 cwt.; walnuts, 811 cwt.; salt, 10,822 cwt.; deals, 6,500.
Russian	64	25,555	10,419	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Austrian	60	11,573	36,109	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ionian	39	10,369	5,100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Serbian	14	3,560	2,458	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
English	3	3,014	-	-	890	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Napollitan	2	354	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Wallachian	2	2,329	1,573	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Salt, 2,001 cwt.; deals, 350.
Belgian	9	1,441	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Tobacco, 336 cwt.; Hempseed, 9 qrs.;
Mechlinburg	1	1,098	-	-	269	76,160	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	flax, 23 cwt.; Marcelline, 1,200.
Roman	1	-	618	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Totals	645	230,566	180,037	1,150	266,800	333	338							

In 1842, only 309 vessels left Galacz with cargoes; of these, 6 were English, principally loaded with tallow and bones.

Mouths of the Danube. — There is a great discrepancy in the statements of ancient authors as to the number of channels by which the Danube poured its waters into the Euxine. — (*Cellarii Notitia Orbis Antiqui*, lib. ii. cap. 8.) A similar discrepancy exists at this moment; some authorities affirming that it has 4, others 5, and others 6 or 7 mouths. But, as stated above, there are only 3 of any considerable magnitude, viz. the Kilja mouth on the north, and successively the Soulineh mouth, and the Edrillis mouth. But, besides these, there are other channels of inferior importance, of which two, at least, are still more to the south than the Edrillis mouth. In antiquity, the most southerly channel was the deepest, and best suited for the purposes of navigation, and was thence called *Sacrum*. — (See *Cellarius ut supr.*) It is not, however, to be wondered at, that, in the course of so many ages, very great changes should have taken place in the channels of the river. It seems probable that the *Ostium Sacrum*, or southern channel of the ancients, may have run between *Carsum*, now Hirchova, and the lake *Halmysris*, now Rassein, which communicates with the Euxine at Kara Kerman, formerly *Istropolis*, and at a point still more to the south. At any rate, there certainly was a channel in the route now pointed out — (*D'Anville Abrégé de la Géographie Ancienne*, tom. i. p. 307.); and as it is a good deal more to the south than the Edrillis mouth, with which the *Ostium Sacrum* has been commonly identified, it would seem to have the best claim to the distinction of being synonymous with the latter. This channel is, in fact, still partially open, and it is stated that the Austrian government has seriously entertained a project for making it navigable. There can be no doubt, that if this could be effected, it would be of much importance to the trade with Hungary and the countries on the upper part of the river, by materially shortening the river navigation, and facilitating the transit of ships and goods to and from the Black Sea; but the marshy nature of the ground is said to oppose formidable obstacles to the construction of a canal.

Navigation of the Danube. — Steam navigation was first established on the Danube in 1830, since which the undertaking has gone on prospering, so much so, that the communication between Vienna and Constantinople is now maintained by a line of 7 steam vessels. The Austrian steam company, which was the first in the field, have extended their scheme by starting vessels between Vienna and Linz, and a Bavarian company commenced in 1838 running a vessel between Ratisbon and Linz. It is probable that in a year or two steamers may ply from Ulm downwards.

3,139
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At present steam boats ply on the Danube as long as the river remains free from ice (usually from February or March to November), from Ratisbon to Linz, once a week; Linz to Vienna, 10 hours, once a week; Vienna to Presburg and Pesth, twice; Pesth to Drencova, once a week; Gladova to Galacz, once a week; Galacz to Constantinople, once a fortnight.

The voyage from Vienna to Constantinople, including stoppages, is seldom performed in less than 14 days, and sometimes occupies 17; in returning against the stream it takes at least a month, including 10 days quarantine at Orsova. The fare, first place, is 134 fl., about 13*l*.; second place, 94 fl.

The navigation of the Danube by steamers is unfortunately interrupted for about 50 miles, between Drencova and Gladova, by rocks and rapids, the lowest and most considerable of which is a sort of cataract, called the "Irongate," about 3 miles below the Hungarian frontier. It is worthy of remark that the most illustrious of the Roman emperors, Trajan, alive to all the advantages to be derived from the easy navigation of the Danube, had with equal industry and sagacity formed a road, or towing path, along the river's edge, for facilitating the operation of towing, of which the remains are still extant, with an inscription commemorative of the completion of the works. It has been proposed to overcome the difficulties in the way of the navigation by renovating the old Roman road, and deepening the channel contiguous to it. But it rarely happens that attempts to improve the navigation in the bed of a river, under any thing like similar circumstances, are even tolerably successful. The better way undoubtedly would be, were it practicable, to construct a lateral canal, or rather a canal from the mouth of the Bereska to Palanka, which would not only avoid the rapids, but also shorten the navigation by getting rid of the bend of the river by Orsova. But the difficulties in the way of such an undertaking, from the nature of the ground, are said to be insuperable; and it is, therefore, probable that the distance of 50 miles along the rapids will continue, if not always, at least for some considerable time, a *portage*. The inconvenience, however, of this break in the navigation has been diminished, as far as possible, by the construction of an admirable carriage road (recently finished), at great expense, by the Hungarian diet, from Moldova to Orsova. In the extent of excavations in the rock, and terraces of masonry, upon which it is carried, it is not inferior as a specimen of engineering to the finest roads over the Alps. Several steamers have been transported down these rapids at the season of floods, small barges pass them at all times, and little boats, laden with wax and wool, are towed up by men and oxen. The passengers and goods conveyed by the steamers are transferred from Moldova in row-boats, to Gladova, below the Irongate, where they embark on another steamer. — (*Geog. Dict. art. Danube.*)

A railroad is nearly completed from Brunn, the capital of Moravia, to Vienna; another railroad diverges, from the Danube at Linz, north to Budweis in Bohemia, where it reaches the banks of the Muldau, and through it communicates with the Elbe.

Junction of the Danube and the Rhine. — The long projected canal to unite the Danube and Rhine, the favourite scheme of Charlemagne, is being carried into execution by the King of Bavaria, and is now (1843) nearly finished. It extends from Bamberg, by Erlangen and Nuremberg, to Neumark, joining the Danube at Kellheim, a few miles above Ratisbon. The distance between the Maine near Bamberg, and the Danube, is about 112 miles; but the actual extent of canal is less, the communication being in part effected by the Regnitz, a tributary of the Maine, and the Altmuhl, a tributary of the Danube. When this is accomplished, an internal communication by water will be established throughout all the vast country, stretching from the shores of the Netherlands to the Black Sea; so that produce shipped at Rotterdam or at Galacz may be conveyed from the one to the other in the same vessel.

GALANGAL (Ger. *Galgant*; Du. and Fr. *Galanga*; Rus. *Kalyan*; Lat. *Galanga*; Arab. *Kastalk*; Chin. *Lawdon*), the root of the *galanga*, brought from China and the East Indies in pieces about an inch long, and hardly $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch thick. A larger root of the same kind (*Greater Galangal*), an inch or more in thickness, is to be rejected. It has an aromatic smell, not very grateful; and an unpleasant, bitterish, extremely hot, biting taste. It should be chosen full and plump, of a bright colour, very firm and sound: 12 cwt. are allowed to a ton. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

GALBANUM (Fr. *Galbanum*; Ger. *Mutterharz*; It. *Galbano*; Lat. *Galbanum*; Arab. *Barzud*), a species of gum resin obtained from a perennial plant (*Galbanum officinale*) growing in Africa, near the Cape of Good Hope, and in Syria and Persia. It is brought to this country from the Levant in cases or chests containing from 100 to 300 lbs. each. The best is in ductile masses, composed of distinct whitish tears agglutinated together by a pale brown or yellowish substance. It is generally much mixed with stalks, seeds, and other impurities. The separate tears are considered as the best. When the colour is dark brown or blackish, it is to be rejected. It has a strong peculiar odour, and a bitterish, warm, acrid taste. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

GALLON, a measure of capacity, both for dry and liquid articles, containing 4 quarts. By 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., "the Imperial gallon shall be the standard measure of capacity, and shall contain 10 lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water, weighed in air at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer being at 30 inches, or 277.274 cubic inches; and all other measures of capacity to be used, as well for wine, beer, ale, spirits, and all sorts of liquids, as for dry goods, not measured by heaped measure, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained from such gallon; and all measures shall be taken in parts, or multiples, or certain proportions, of the said Imperial standard gallon." The old English gallon, wine measure, contained 231 cubic inches; and the old English gallon, ale measure, contained 282 cubic inches. Hence the Imperial gallon is about $\frac{1}{4}$ larger than the old wine gallon, and about $\frac{1}{10}$ less than the old ale gallon. By the 6 Geo. 4. c. 58. § 6. it is enacted, that from and after the 6th of January, 1826, whenever any gallon measure is mentioned in any act of parliament relative to the excise, it shall be taken and deemed to be a gallon Imperial standard measure. — (See **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES**.)

GALLS, or **GALL-NUTS** (Fr. *Galles*, *Noix de Galle*; Ger. *Gallapfl*, *Gallus*; It. *Galle*, *Galluze*; Lat. *Gala*; Arab. *Afis*; Hind. *Majouphal*; Pers. *Mac*), are excrescences produced by the attacks of a small insect, which deposits its eggs in the tender shoots of a species of oak (*Quercus infectoria* Lin.), abundant in Asia Minor, Syria, Persia, &c. Galls are inodorous, and have a nauseously bitter and astringent taste. They are nearly spherical, and vary in magnitude from the size of a pea to that of a hazel nut. When good, they are of a black or deep olive colour; their surface is tubercular, and almost prickly; they are heavy, brittle, and break with a flinty fracture. They are known in commerce by the names of *white*, *green*, and *blue*. The white galls are those which have not been gathered till after the insect has eaten its way out of the nidus and made its escape. They are not so heavy as the others, are of a lighter colour, and do not fetch so high a price. The green and blue galls are gathered before the insect has escaped; they are heavier and darker than the former, and are said to afford about one third more of colouring matter.

Galls are of great importance in the arts, being very extensively used in dyeing, and in the manufacture of ink, of which they form one of the principal ingredients. They are the most powerful of all the vegetable astringents; and are frequently used with great effect in medicine.

The ancients reckoned the gall-nuts of Syria superior to every other, and they still retain their pre-eminence. They are principally exported from Aleppo, Tripoli, Smyrna, and Sidon; those brought from the first come chiefly from Mosul, on the western bank of the Tigris, about ten days' journey from Aleppo. The real Mosul galls are unquestionably the best of any; but all that are gathered in the surrounding country are sold under this name. Those from Caramania are of a very inferior quality. The galls met with in India are carried thither from Persia by Arabian merchants.

It is not unusual to dye the whitish gall-nuts blue, in order to increase their value. The fraud is, however, detected by the deeper blue tinge that is thus imparted to them; and by their being powdered and lighter than the genuine blue galls.

The price of galls in bond varies in the London market from 50s. to 64s. a cwt. The duty is 1s. a cwt. — (*Rees's Cyclopædia*; *Bancroft on Colours*; *Asiatic's Mat. Indica*, &c.)

GALVESTON, the principal sea-port of the newly formed republic of Texas, at the N. E. end of the long, low, narrow island of the same name, on the north shore of the Gulf of Mexico, and on the channel forming the entrance to the bay of Galveston, an extensive inlet of the sea between the N. side of the island and the mainland, lat. 29° 16' 37" N., long. 94° 49' 41" W. Having only recently attained to any distinction, Galveston is yet of no great magnitude, its population not perhaps exceeding 6,000 or 7,000; but it is daily increasing; and if population and cultivation should increase in the interior, it will most probably become one of the principal *entrepôts* in this part of the world.

The bar outside Galveston harbour and bay, between the N. E. end of the island and Point Bolivar on the mainland, has not more than 134 feet water at the highest springs, and but 10 feet at ebb; hence the smaller class of vessels, or those under 200 or 250 tons, are most suitable for the trade of the port, as well as for that of almost all the other ports on the N. and E. sides of the gulf, the deficiency of water being all but universal. Though the land below, the houses of Galveston may be seen from the masthead at a distance of several miles. Vessels drawing 8 feet water and upwards should, however, not approach the bar nearer than 6 fathoms, without heaving to and making the signal for a pilot, which is promptly attended to. Vessels drawing less than 8 feet water may approach the bar till the water shoals to 4 fathoms before heaving to. Vessels making the port in the night should invariably anchor in 5 or 6 fathoms; and the holding ground being excellent, those who are well found in anchors and cables have nothing to fear. Pilot boats are now constantly on the look-out; and ships should on no account attempt crossing the bar till they have got a pilot on board. In the harbour there is from 18 to 30 feet water. The bay, which stretches about 35 miles from N. to S., and from 12 to 18 miles from E. to W., has not generally more than 9 feet water, and is intersected by a bar, on which there is only from 5 to 6 feet water. — (*Kennedy's Texas*, l. 29.) Several very considerable rivers have their embouchure in the bay, so that the town has a considerable command of internal navigation.

It is no part of our business to give any account of the circumstances which led to the independence of Texas; but we may shortly state that it had its origin in the attempts of the Mexican government to impose taxes on the settlers. In fact, no direct taxes at present exist in the country; so that all, or nearly all, the public revenue is derived from customs duties, of which the port of Galveston pays about two-thirds.

The great articles of export from Galveston, and indeed, from Texas, are cotton, provisions, cattle and other stock, hides and skins, furs, bullion from Mexico, &c. The articles of importation consist principally of cotton and other manufactured goods, hardware, agricultural implements and machinery,

powder and shot, salt, coal, &c. The following details give a view of the trade and of the regulations under which it is conducted.

Movels, Weights, and Measures, same as those of the U. States; for which see New York.

Gross Return of Foreign Trade of the Port of Galveston, in 1842.

Arrived.				Departed.			
Nations.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	
			Ex. 10			Ex. 10	
British	6	1256	8092 14 5	6	1,336	18,992 14 6	d.
Texas	3	171	733 4 8	3	45	16 18 4	d.
French	3	569	3,434 8 0	3	601	6,192 4 10	d.
Spanish	2	378	1,274 7 6	2	77	3,053 3 6	d.
American	7	20,151	90,536 8 0	77	20,151	35,141 4 6	d.
Dutchmen	2	475	3,434 14 9	5	476	2,664 9 7	d.
	96	23,007	108,015 4 5	95	22,981	5,990 9 5	d.

Return of British Trade in the Port of Galveston, in 1842.

Arrived.				Departed.				
Name of Vessel.	Entry.	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargo.	Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Date of Clear-	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargo.	Invoice Value of Cargo.
Severn	Feb. 5.	235	Turk's Is.	\$ 4.	Apr. 9.	238	Liverpool, Cotton.	2 2 4.
Jane	Feb. 25.	192	London.	1,037 13 0	May 3.	192	London.	8,918 13 4
Funchall	June 14.	189	-	541 19 7	Aug 2.	189	London.	1,449 8 5
					184.			
Mary Barry	Oct. 27.	154	-	5,175 9 0	Jan. 14.	156	London.	9,180 4 6
Iron Queen	Nov. 20.	314	Liverpool, Salt &c.	514 14 0	Jan. 31.	314	Liverpool.	5,506 16 6
Alpha	Dec. 11.	174	London.	5,589 16 10	Mar. 4.	174	London.	5,560 9 0
		1,538		8,002 14 0		1,358		18,992 14 6

Charges on Shipping in the Ports of Texas.

Tonnage Duty.—All sailing vessels entering any port of the republic from any foreign port or place, are chargeable with a tonnage duty of 50 cents per ton, and steam-boats with 20 cents, according to registered tonnage.

Subsides.—Any ship or vessel of less than 100 tons burden pays 14 dollars of ID and upwards 24 dollars.

Clearance.—For every clearance of vessels of the above-mentioned burden, the same fees respectively:—

Port entry - - - - - \$ 00
 Permit to land goods - - - - - \$ 00
 Bond taken officially - - - - - \$ 00
 Permit to load goods for exportation, that may be entitled to debenture or official certificate - - - - - \$ 00
 Bill of health - - - - - \$ 00

For every document (registers excepted) required by any merchant, owner, or master of any ship or vessel, not before enumerated, - - - - - \$ 00

Rate of Pilotage at Galveston.—On all vessels drawing less than 8 feet water, 2 dollars 50 cents per foot. On all vessels drawing 8 feet and over, 3 dollars per foot.

Any pilot that may be detained a sailing on any vessel bound for sea, or any vessel that may be prevented from entering the port by contrary winds or otherwise, shall be entitled to receive 5 dollars per day for each day he may be detained after the first 24 hours.

Any pilot taking charge of a vessel in distress from loss of anchors, spars, or rudder, shall receive such extra compensation as in the opinion of the collector of customs the circumstances of the case may require; the same to be awarded by the collector after hearing the parties.

Any pilot speaking a vessel outside the bar, inward bound, or any vessel inside the bar, outward bound, and offering his services, shall be entitled to full pilotage whether those services be accepted or not.

Any pilot speaking a vessel, inward bound, inside the bar, shall, if his services be accepted, be entitled to half pilotage; but, if his services be not accepted, he shall not be entitled to any pilotage.

Any vessel, after waiting outside the bar for four hours with a signal for a pilot flying, may enter port free of all pilotage charges.

Any pilot boarding a vessel 15 miles from shore, shall be entitled to 25 per cent. more than the regular rates for off-shore pilotage.

* * * * * Consignees are, in all cases, liable for the pilotage of vessels consigned to them, and no vessel is permitted to go to sea, until all pilotage has been paid.

Pilotage Regulations at Galveston.—The collector of customs at Galveston is authorized to appoint as many pilots as may be necessary for the shipping, with power of suspension and dismissal, requiring bond with good security, in the sum of 10,000 dollars, for the faithful performance of duties; without which appointments it is not lawful for any person to exercise the calling of pilot.

Each license pilot may appoint two deputies, for whose acts he is responsible; these appointments are subject to the approval of the collector.

Any pilot or deputy taking charge of a vessel, while in a state of insobriety, forfeits his appointment. Any pilot willfully or negligently losing any vessel, is to be dismissed, and is, with his estates, liable to the party injured for all damages sustained by reason of his misconduct.

Any branch or deputy pilot, who fails to board with promptitude a vessel in need of his services, is, for the first offence, subject to the penalty of suspension for three months, and for the second, to forfeiture of his appointment; and any pilot,

who for any cause whatever forfeits his branch, or appointment, is ever afterwards held incapable of filling any office of the kind.

Flag of Texas.—The national flag consists of a blue perpendicular stripe, of the width of one-third the length of the flag, with a white star of five points in the centre, and two horizontal stripes of equal width, of two-thirds the length of the flag; the upper, white; the lower, red.

Regulations for the Coasting Trade, and for the Protection of Texas Shipping.—No merchant vessel is permitted to assume the Texas flag, unless owned by a citizen or citizens of the republic; nor can such vessel be commanded after assuming it, save by a citizen of the republic; if every vessel or boat above 8 tons burden, before sailing under the national flag, must be enrolled at the Custom-house of some port of the country, and must take out a register, or passing licence, according to the rules and regulations, and under the responsibility and restrictions observed and demanded in the U. States of America, so far as they may be compatible with the statute of Texas.

The enrolment and the register or licence of every merchant vessel, sailing under the Texas flag, is to specify her name, class, description, measurement, and burden, and to declare whether she be of domestic or foreign construction; and if the former, when and in what part of the republic she was built.

All vessels of domestic build, and sailing under the national flag, are free from every kind of tonnage duty, and are subject to no other exaction than is specified in the tariff of free established by law.

Vessels built in a foreign country, on becoming the property of a citizen or citizens of the republic, may be enrolled under the Texas flag, and employed either in the coasting or coasting trade; but if engaged in the latter, under a coasting licence, an annual tonnage duty of 57 1/2 cents for each ton of her burden, for which the vessel and her securities are bound in the bond of her licence; and in case that her licence be returned within the year of its term, the said tonnage duty is to be exacted in proportion only to the time which has intervened between the date of the licence and its relinquishment. If the licence be returned in consequence of wreck, the duty is to be paid in proportion to the time that she elapsed between the date of the vessel and the date of the licence. Any foreign vessel adopting the flag of the republic is required to pay for enrolment and register, or licence; and for all coasting licences and clearances, while under coasting licence, fees double in amount of those paid by vessels of domestic build.

Foreign vessels, without changing owner, master, or flag, by giving a bond conditioned and secured according to the mode of licensing coasting vessels in the U. States, and depositing the register with the collector of port of the republic, may obtain from said collector a licence to carry on the coasting trade, and no other, for the term of six months; which licence may be relinquished for the aforesaid register within or at the end of the specified term; or may be renewed. On granting or renewing such licence, the collector exacts a half-yearly tonnage duty of 63 cents for each ton of the vessel's burden, no part of which duty is to be refunded, even should the licence be relinquished within the term of the vessel, while under licence, pay for licence and for all coasting licences and clearances, fees double in amount of those levied on licensed coasters of domestic construction.

Any foreign vessel, without changing her owner, master, flag, or register, may receive as any port of the republic, a cargo either of domestic or foreign produce, and land the same in any other port of the republic; such foreign vessel making sail voyage coastwise, has to pay at the port of her entrance coastwise, a

tonnage duty of 15 cents for each ton of her burden; and while engaged in such voyage, with cargo so received, she is subject to the payment of fees, for entrance and clearance, double in amount to those paid for entrance and clearance from and to a foreign port.

No vessel bearing the flag of the republic, and sailing under a register, whether she be of domestic or foreign build, is subject to the payment of tonnage duty for her tonnage for entrance from and clearance to a foreign port, than those specified in the tariff of fees established by law. Any Texas vessel of domestic construction, making a coasting voyage under register, pays for entrance and clearance coastwise, the same fee as if sailing to or arriving from a foreign port. Vessels of foreign build, sailing under the flag of the republic, and making a coasting voyage, under register, pay double that amount of fee for such entrance and clearance.

Every vessel or boat of more than 4 tons burden, in sailing from one port of the republic to another, without cargo, and with or without coasting license, is to report, and clear verbally; if laden with foreign merchandise, or with cotton, or other articles of domestic produce for exportation out of the republic, the contents of such cargo is to be briefly stated in writing; if laden with foreign merchandise, or with cotton, or other articles of domestic produce for exportation out of the republic, the contents of the cargo are to be specified in a manifest, a duplicate of which is to be left at the custom-house where she clears.

Warehousing.—A law passed 5th February, 1840, enjoins the secretary of the Treasury to provide good and sufficient warehouses in the ports of the republic, for the storage of goods, wares, and merchandise, without payment upon the first entry thereof, or for exportation, in conformity with the revenue laws. Merchants are allowed to warehouse in their own stores under custom-house lock and key.

All warehoused goods are to be duly cleared either for exportation, or for home consumption, within one year from the date of entry, unless the secretary of the Treasury, for good and sufficient reasons, should extend the time, which he is empowered to do, in further term of three months. If any such goods be not so cleared, it is the duty of the secretary of the Treasury to order the collector of customs, where such failure may take place, to advertise and sell, at public auction, all such goods, by giving fifteen days' public notice, the proceeds of sale being applied to the payment of the duties, warehouse rent, and other charges, and the residue, if any, to the owners or proprietors of the goods, if discoverable, and if not, to be paid to him who claims the treasury.

The secretary of the Treasury is empowered to remit or return the duties payable or paid on goods entered to be warehoused, and lost or destroyed, either on ship-board or in the landing or shipping of the same, or in the receiving into or delivery from the warehouse.

Officers of the customs guilty of causing any embargement, waste, spill, or destruction, in goods legally warehoused, are subject upon conviction to any punishment the proper tribunal may inflict, one year being the shortest term of imprisonment for such offence, unless the goods were spoiled, or destroyed if the importer is not liable to duty, and in case where importers prosecute officers of customs to conviction, the damage sustained by them is to be made good by the secretary of the Treasury.

When it is intended that warehoused goods shall be re-warehoused for exportation beyond seas, bond is required, with security, equal to the amount of the duties, that such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, and that they shall be landed at the place for which they are entered outwardly, or otherwise as directed by the collector of the duties of the collector of customs. Warehoused goods are not to be exported in any craft of less than 45 tons burden.

Collectors of customs are empowered to appoint appraisers to appraise and estimate damage sustained by warehoused goods, on estimates before forwarded to the secretary of the Treasury; he is authorized to refund to the importers or proprietors of such goods the excess of duties paid, that is, the difference between their value, in a sound and proper state, and in their injured condition. If the duties have not been paid, the collector is empowered to assess according to present value.

The unpacking, assortment, and re-shipment of damaged merchandise are allowed, and collectors of customs are authorized to accept, the abandonment for the duties, of any quantity of tobacco, coffee, pepper, and pimento; and also, of any whole package of other merchandise.

Drawbacks.—Drawback is allowed and paid on all goods, wares, or merchandise, whereupon duties have been paid, and which are exported to any place beyond seas, from the port or place of original importation, but no portion of drawback is extended to goods, wares, or merchandise exported or transported to the territory of any state or power immediately adjoining the republic of Texas. To obtain the benefit of drawback, goods must be exported within twelve months from the date of their entry, in the district into which they were imported or introduced.

Farming utensils, implements of husbandry, furniture which has been used in use, to the amount of 100 dollars, and also the tools, or implements of trade, of persons arriving in the republic, their wearing apparel, and other personal baggage in use, free.

By a treaty with France, the following articles, the production and manufacture of France, imported direct in French or Texian vessels, are subject to a reduction as follows:—

- Brandy - - - - - One fifth.
- Wines - - - - - Two fifths.
- Silks - - - - - Ten per cent. ad valorem.

Note.—According to a proclamation issued by President Houston, dated 21st December, 1845, the proclamation issued 14th February, 1840, by President Lamar, was revoked, and French wines, &c. made to pay duty as specified in the foregoing tariff.

An additional duty of 5 per cent. on all goods imported on foreign bottoms, excepting Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands, those powers having treaties with Texas. In consequence of the lapse of the treaty between Texas and the U. States, vessels of the latter country are at present subjected to this duty.

All articles not enumerated, pay 15 per cent. (We are principally indebted for the foregoing statements, the most valuable hitherto published with regard to Texas, to the report made by the British Consul at Galveston, to the Foreign Office, on the 1st of June, 1845.)

Tariff of the Republic of Texas, now in operation, and which took effect from and after the 1st Day of February, 1842.

Articles.	Specific.	Ad valorem.	Articles.	Specific.	Ad valorem.
Arms, fire, of every description	-	15 3/4 ct.	Rice, per lb.	-	2 cts.
Allspice	8 cts. lb.	-	Salt, per bushel	-	10 "
Butter	-	5 "	Sugar, brown, per lb.	-	5 "
Beef, per barrel	3 dollars	-	" " " " " "	-	5 "
Bacon	10 cts. lb.	-	" " " " " "	-	5 "
Bees, per bushel	-	25 "	Soup, per bar	-	50 3/4 ct.
Boots and shoes	-	25 "	" " " " " "	-	50 3/4 ct.
Bonnets, ladies'	-	15 "	" " " " " "	-	50 "
Bags and bale rope	-	10 "	Spices, allspice, per lb.	-	5 cts.
Books and stationery	-	15 "	" " " " " "	-	50 "
Bills, testaments, and primary school books	Free.	-	" " " " " "	-	50 "
Coffee	2 cts. lb.	-	Saddlery	-	Free.
Corn and corn meal, bushel of 50 lbs.	30 cts.	-	" " " " " "	-	15 "
Candles, sperm, lb.	-	10 "	Stationery	-	Free.
" " " " " "	-	4 "	" " " " " "	-	15 "
Cheese	-	5 "	School books	-	Free.
Chocolate	-	5 "	" " " " " "	-	15 cts.
Candies	-	5 "	Tin wares of all kinds	-	30 "
Cloves, Spanish, per 1,000	3 dollars	-	Tobacco, manufactured	-	30 "
" " " " " "	-	3 "	" " " " " "	-	30 "
Clothing, ready made	-	50 "	Winegar, per gallon	-	10 cts.
Conserves, and essences of all kinds	-	50 "	Wares, crockery, and porcelain	-	50 "
Crockery ware	-	50 "	Wearing apparel in use	-	-
Calinet ware of all kinds	-	50 "	Liquors:—	-	-
Chairs of all kinds	-	50 "	" " " " " "	-	50 cts.
Cutlery of all kinds	-	25 "	" " " " " "	-	60 "
Carriages for pleasure	-	35 "	" " " " " "	-	75 "
Flour, per barrel	1 dollar	-	" " " " " "	-	75 "
Fruits, dry and green	-	50 "	" " " " " "	-	75 "
Grains not enumerated, per bushel of 50 lbs.	-	20 cts.	Wines:—	-	-
Hats of all kinds	-	25 "	" " " " " "	-	10 cts.
Hardware and cutlery	-	25 "	" " " " " "	-	10 cts.
Harness of all kinds	-	25 "	" " " " " "	-	18 "
Iron	8 cts.	-	" " " " " "	-	10 "
Lumber and house frames	-	15 "	" " " " " "	-	10 "
Lead, powder, and fire-arms	-	30 "	" " " " " "	-	18 "
Manufactures of wood	-	15 "	" " " " " "	-	30 cts.
Oil, sperm, per bushel	-	20 cts.	" " " " " "	-	75 cts.
Onion, per gallon of 50 lbs.	-	15 "	" " " " " "	-	30 "
Peas and beans, per bushel	-	50 cts.	" " " " " "	-	50 "
Pepper, per lb., black	-	5 "	" " " " " "	-	10 "
Pickles	-	50 "	" " " " " "	-	-

Probable Progress of Texas. — Our anticipations of the future progress of this newly formed state are not so sanguine as those that seem to be generally entertained. The

country, no doubt, is, speaking generally, highly productive, well watered, and well situated for commerce; but the climate, especially in the lower and more fertile districts, is too hot and relaxing, and the land too fruitful, to permit or require its cultivation being vigorously prosecuted by free labourers. Had the importation of slaves into Texas been permitted, its progress might, and most probably would, have been as rapid as that of the southern states of the American Union. But their importation, except from the U. States, is prohibited; and if the supply from this quarter should fail, and the prohibition of their importation from other quarters be really enforced, its progress will, we apprehend, be comparatively slow. It is a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose that free settlers in such a country should exhibit any considerable portion of the energy and industry they would exhibit if they had to cultivate a less fertile soil, or were placed under a severer climate. Mexico and the U. States may both be referred to in illustration of this principle; industry is, in the former, at the lowest possible ebb (see *Geog. Dict.*, art. *Mexico*), though it is needless to add, that the incentives to labour are there quite as great as in Texas. And does any one suppose that the cultivation of cotton and sugar would be carried to near its present extent in the Southern U. States, but for their all but unlimited command of slave labour? We, therefore, are well convinced that the future progress of Texas will depend principally on the fact, whether she can or cannot derive ample supplies of slave labour. If she can (whether with or without the sanction of the law is in this respect of no importance), the fair presumption is, that she will make a rapid progress; whereas, if she cannot, her progress will, most probably, be comparatively slow; and we should anticipate that, under such circumstances, her inhabitants will gradually fall into the same state of semi-barbarous indolence into which the Mexicans have already sunk.

In exchange for the cotton and other products sent to Great Britain, the Texans import British manufactured goods, not only for their own consumption, but partly, also, for the supply of the N. States of Mexico. Indeed, Santa Fé has been, since 1825, the great emporium of N. or New Mexico, and in it the traders of that country meet those of the U. States; the former purchasing the manufactures brought by the latter with peltry and bullion, so that a good deal of specie reaches the U. States by this route. The annual amount of the trade at Santa Fé was estimated, in 1834, at 2,000,000 dollars; and in 1841 Iken estimated it at 3,000,000 dollars. Most of the articles for this trade are purchased in Philadelphia, whence they are transported overland to Pittsburg, where they are shipped for St. Louis, being thence conveyed in wagons to Santa Fé, which they reach after a journey of at least 4,000 miles. From St. Louis to Santa Fé, about 1,300 m., the road is extremely bad, running through a country so infested by hostile Indians, that the U. States government is obliged usually to send an escort of cavalry with the larger caravans; indeed, 200 dragoons were sent in 1839 for the protection of one body of traders! — (*Kennedy*, ii. 417.) But Santa Fé is only 600 m. from the Texan coast; so that it may not unreasonably, perhaps, be anticipated, that eventually Galveston and the other Texan ports will be the principal routes by which European goods will reach N. Mexico. It may, also, be pretty confidently anticipated, that Texas will become the seat of an extensive smuggling trade into the southern and western states of the American Union. Seeing the high duties imposed by the American tariff on so many important articles, and the facilities which the country affords for smuggling into the Union, it is all but certain that it will be extensively carried on.

GAMBOGE (Fr. *Gomme gutte*; Ger. *Gummigutt*; It. *Gomma gutta*; Lat. *Gummi gutta*, *Cambogia*; Arab. *Ossararewund*; Siamese and Cambodian, *Rong*), a concrete vegetable juice, or gum resin, the produce of the *Garcinia Cambogia*, a forest tree of the genus which affords the mangosteen, the most exquisite fruit of the East. The districts which yield gamboge lie on the east side of the Gulph of Siam, between the latitudes of 10° and 12° north, comprising a portion of Siam and the kingdom of Cambodia, whence its English name. It is obtained by making incisions in the bark of the tree, from which it exudes, and is collected in vessels placed to receive it. In these it assumes a firm consistence; and being formed into orbicular masses, or more frequently cylindrical rolls, it is at once fit for the market. It is of a bright yellow colour, opaque, brittle, breaks vitreous, has no smell, and very little taste. Specific gravity 1.22. When taken internally, it operates as a most violent cathartic. It forms a beautiful yellow pigment, for which purpose it is principally used. The Dutch began to import it about the middle of the seventeenth century. The greater part of the gamboge of commerce first finds its way to Bangkok, the Siamese capital, or to Saigon, the capital of lower Cochin China; from these it is carried by junks to Singapore, whence it is shipped for Europe. Its price at Singapore varies, according to quality, from 30 to 80 dollars per picul. Dark coloured pieces should be rejected. — (*Crawford's Embassy to Siam*, p. 425.; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

GARNET, GARNETS (Fr. *Grenats*; Ger. *Grenate*, *Grenatstein*; It. *Grenati*; Lat. *Grenati*; Rus. *Grenatnoi kamen*, Sp. *Granadas*). There are two species of garnet, the precious and the common. The colour of the first is red; and hence the name of the mineral, from its supposed resemblance to the flower of the pomegranate; passes from Columbine red, to cherry and brown red; commonly crystallised. External lustre glistening, internal shining, vitreous; transparent, sometimes only translucent; specific gravity 4.08 to 4.35. The colour of the common garnet is of various shades of brown and green. Different colours often appear in the same mass; translucent; black varieties nearly opaque; specific gravity from 3.66 to 3.75. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.) The finest varieties come from India, and some good specimens have been received from Greenland. When large and free from flaws, garnets are worth from 2*l.* to 3*l.* or 6*l.*, and even more; but stones of this value are of rare occurrence, and always in demand. — (*Mosses on Diamonds*, &c. 2d ed. p. 113.)

GAS COMPANIES, the term usually applied to designate the companies or associations established in most large towns for lighting the streets and houses with gas.

Every one must have remarked that most species of coal, when ignited, give out large quantities of gas, which burns with much brilliancy, yielding a great quantity of light as well as of heat. Dr. Clayton seems to have been the first who attempted, about 1756, to apply this gas to the purposes of artificial illumination; but his experiments were upon a very limited scale, and no further attention was paid to the subject till more than half a century afterwards. At length, however, Mr. Murdoch, of Soho, instituted a series of judicious experiments on the extrication of gas from coal; and, by his ingenuity and sagacity, succeeded in establishing one of the most capital improvements ever made in the arts. Mr. Murdoch found that the gas might be collected in reservoirs, purified, conveyed by pipes to a great distance from the furnace where it was generated; and that it affords, by its slow combustion, when allowed to escape through small orifices, a beautiful and steady light. This great discovery, which places Mr. Murdoch in the first rank among the benefactors of mankind, was first brought into practice at Redruth, in Cornwall. In 1802, it was applied to light Mr. Murdoch's manufactory at Soho; in 1805, it was adopted by Messrs. Philips and Lee, of Manchester, in the lighting of their great cotton mill; and is now employed in the lighting of the streets, theatres, and other public buildings, factories, &c. of all the considerable towns of the empire; and also in most considerable towns of the Continent and America.

Gas light is indebted, for its rapid diffusion, not more to its peculiar softness, clearness, and unvarying intensity, than to its comparative cheapness. According to Dr. Thomson (*Encyc. Brit. art. Gas Lights*), if we value the quantity of light given by 1 lb. of tallow in candles at 1*s.*, an equal quantity of light from coal gas will not cost more than 2*d.*, being less than a fourth part of the cost of the former.

Oil and other substances have been used in furnishing gas for the purpose of illumination, but none of them has answered so well as coal. Most of the oil gas establishments have been abandoned.

The construction of gas works on a large scale, and the carrying of pipes through the streets and into houses, &c., is very expensive, and requires a large outlay of capital. Hence most of the gas lights in the different towns are supplied by joint stock companies. Many of them have turned out to be very profitable concerns.

The subjoined Table contains a statement of the most important particulars connected with the principal gas companies; viz. the number of shares in each, the nominal amount of each share, the sums actually paid up, the market price of shares, the dividend payable on them, &c. — (From the *Trade List* for the 27th of June, 1843.)

Names of Companies.	Number of Shares.	Amount of Shares.	Cost per Share.	Selling Price per Share.	Dividend per Annum.	Dividends payable.
Chartered - - - -	12,000	£ 50	£ s.	£ s.		
Ditto new - - - -	5,000	50	10 0	55 10	6 per cent.	May, Nov.
City - - - - -	1,000	100	100 0	200 0	10 per cent.	May, Nov.
Ditto new - - - -	1,000	100	100 0	200 0	10 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Imperial - - - - -	10,000	50	50 0	75 10	6 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Ditto debentures - -	36,500	100	100 0	100 0	4 per cent.	Apr. Oct.
Phoenix - - - - -	9,000	50	39 0	32 10	5 per cent.	Jan. July.
British (London) - -	5,000	40	18 0	20 10	1 <i>l.</i> 5 <i>s.</i>	Feb. Aug.
Ditto (Country) - -	5,000	20	19 0	25 10	1 <i>l.</i> 8 <i>s.</i>	Apr. Oct.
Ditto debentures - -	- - -	100	- - -	101 0	6 per cent.	Jan. July.
Independent - - - -	2,000	30	30 0	55 0	6 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Gen. Un. Gas Light Company	9,000	30	48 0	28 0	4 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Imperial Continental -	4,000	75	62 <i>l.</i> 0	125 0	- - -	Jan. July.
Bradford - - - - -	600	25	20 0	- - -	10 per cent.	- - -
Brentford - - - - -	600	50	50 0	18 0	- - -	- - -
Bath - - - - -	2,500	20	16 0	20 0	1 <i>l.</i> 4 <i>s.</i>	Feb. Aug.
Barnsley - - - - -	600	10	10 0	10 0	- - -	Mar. Sept.
Birmingham - - - -	704	50	50 0	103 0	5 <i>s.</i>	Feb. Aug.
Birmingham and Staffordshire	2,400	50	50 0	78 0	4 <i>s.</i>	Feb. Aug.
Brighton - - - - -	2,250	20	20 0	19 0	4 per cent.	Feb. Aug.

Table of Gas Companies — continued.

Names of Companies.	Number of Shares.	Amount of Shares.	Cost per Share.	Selling Price per Share.	Dividend per Annum.	Dividend payable.
Brighton, new	750	30	18 0	-	-	Feb. Aug.
Bristol	4,250	30	-	22 0	7½ per cent.	
Canterbury	340	50	-	54 10	5 per cent.	
Carlisle	-	25	22 0	-	10 per cent.	Jan. July.
Chesterham	800	50	50 0	-	10 per cent.	
Coventry	800	50	-	30 0	5 per cent.	
Derby	300	50	50 0	-	7 per cent.	
Dover	180	50	-	62 0	5 per cent.	
Dudley	800	20	-	20 0	5 per cent.	July.
Exeter	340	50	-	-	5.	
Edinburgh	-	35	25 0	-	10 per cent.	
Great Yarmouth	780	30	30 0	19 0	12.	Jan. July.
Guildford	-	25	25 0	22 0	11.	
Glasgow	-	25	25 0	-	10 per cent.	
Hallifax	600	25	25 0	-	5 per cent.	
Ipswich	-	10	-	-	-	
Isle of Thanet	800	55	30 0	10 5	5 per cent.	Jan. July.
Kidderminster	780	50	50 0	-	7½ per cent.	January.
Leeds	301	100	100 0	-	7 per cent.	
Leicester	-	50	50 0	-	7½ per cent.	January.
Leth	-	30	25 0	-	5 per cent.	
Lewes	220	50	-	25 0	-	
Liverpool	600	100	100 0	-	17 per cent.	
Ditto (new company)	-	-	120 0	-	-	
Lancaster	-	-	20 0	-	7 per cent.	
Maldstone	300	50	50 0	100 0	10 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Macclesfield	-	50	50 0	-	5 per cent.	
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	-	50	-	-	10 per cent.	
Newport, Isle of Wight	320	50	-	16 0	11.	
Northampton	542	20	19 0	-	7½ per cent.	
Nottingham	250	50	50 0	-	15 per cent.	
Oxford	120	150	150 0	-	10 per cent.	
Poplar	600	150	-	26 10	-	
Portsea Island	600	150	53 0	50 0	5 per cent.	Jan. July.
Plymouth	10,000	50	-	70 0	5.	July.
Ratcliff	1,000	100	80 0	70 0	5 per cent.	Mar. Sept.
Rochdale	480	25	25 0	45 0	7½ per cent.	
Sheffield	1,500	50	55 0	50 0	10 per cent.	
Shrewsbury	1,000	10	10 0	12 0	7 per cent.	
Stamford	-	-	50 0	55 0	5 per cent.	
Stockport	-	-	50 0	50 0	10 per cent.	
Swansea	-	-	55 0	50 0	5 per cent.	
South Metropolitan	4,000	50	30 10	18 10	5 per cent.	July.
Warwick	254	50	-	50 0	5 per cent.	March.
Wakefield	400	25	-	-	-	
Warrington	100	20	-	40 0	10 per cent.	
Wolverhampton	550	30	30 0	40 0	10 per cent.	
Worcester	600	30	30 0	22 0	5 per cent.	
York	-	25	25 0	42 0	10 per cent.	

GENEVA (Du. *Genever*; Fr. *Genèvre*; Ger. *Gaud*, *Genever*; It. *Acqua di Ginepro*; Lat. *Juniperi aqua*; Sp. *Agua de Enebro*), a spirit obtained by distillation from grain, rectified with the addition of juniper berries. The latter give to the spirit that peculiar flavour by which it is distinguished, and are also said to render it diuretic. Geneva is a corruption of *genèvre*, the French term for the juniper berry.

By far the best Geneva is made in Holland, where its manufacture is carried on to a very great extent. The distilleries of Schiedam have long been famous, and are at present in a very prosperous condition. Schiedam geneva is made solely of spirit obtained from rye and barley, flavoured with juniper berries. It becomes milder, and acquires, as it gets old, an oily flavour disliked by the Hollanders; hence nearly the whole of the "Schiedam" is exported, principally to the East Indies. There are no fewer than 300 distilleries in Schiedam, 100 in other parts of Holland, and not more than 40 in Belgium. The entire annual produce of the distillery in Holland is estimated at 2,000,000 ankers, or 20,500,000 wine gallons, of which about two thirds are exported. — (*Cloet, Description Géographique des Pays Bas*, p. 32.)

In nothing, perhaps, has the destructive effect of heavy taxation been so strongly exhibited, as in the trade of geneva. It appears from the *Parl. Paper* No. 248, Sess. 1826, that during the 10 years ending with 1786, when the duty on geneva was about 10s. the wine gallon, the average annual consumption in Great Britain amounted to about 80,362 gallons. But in 1786, Mr. Pitt reduced the duties to 5s. a gallon; and the effect of this wise and politic measure was such, that in the next decennial period the average imports for home consumption amounted to 444,391 gallons! From 1796 to 1806, the duties fluctuated from 7s. 6d. to 14s. 1, but as the taste for geneva had been formed, and as the duties on other spirits had been increased in about the same proportion, the consumption went on increasing, having been, at an average of the 10 years, as high as 724,351 gallons a year. This was the maximum of consumption. Mr. Vanartart soon after began his inauspicious career, and immediately raised the duty from 14s. to 20s. 6d. the consequence of this increase being, that in the 10 years ending with 1816, the average consumption amounted to only 272,828 gallons. Since then the duties have continued stationary, being at this moment 22s. 10d. the Imperial gallon, or an article which may be bought in bond for 12s. 6d. or 2s. 6d. The duties on rum and British spirits having been materially reduced during the last 10 years, the consumption of geneva has gone on progressively diminishing, till it now amounts, as appears from the subjoined official

statement, to no more than 15,228 gallons; being only one-fifth-fourth part of what it amounted to during the 10 years ending with 1806.

In Ireland the effects of this *fero deo* system have been more injurious than appears from this Table. During the 4 years ending with 1808, the books of the Irish Custom-house show that there were, at an average, 68,528 gallons of Geneva consumed for home consumption, producing at the then duty of 7s. 2d., 28,928*s.* a year; whereas, notwithstanding the vast increase of population, the consumption of Geneva in Ireland, in 1842, was only 1,246 gallons, and the revenue only 1,406*s.*

To make any lengthened commentary on such statements would be useless. Our policy, if we may apply this term to so revoluting a display of short-sighted vanity, has had no other effect than to lessen the public revenue and enjoyment of the people, to injure our trade with Holland, and to foster and promote the ruinous and destructive practice of smuggling. The exorbitant duties on Geneva, brandy, and tobacco have led to the formation of the coast guard and the preventive water guard, costing together about 400,000*s.* a year; and yet, notwithstanding this outlay, and notwithstanding the innumerable penalties and punishments to which he is exposed, the trade of the smuggler is not put down, but is, on the contrary, in a peculiarly flourishing condition; and so it will continue, in despite of every thing that can be done for its suppression, till these duties be adequately reduced.

We believe our gin manufacturers have nothing to apprehend from a reduction of the duties on Geneva to 10*s.* a gallon. The lower classes, who are the great consumers, prefer English gin to every other stimulant. Nothing would have so much influence in improving the quality of the latter as the admission of Geneva at a moderate duty. It would also have the beneficial effect of putting an end to the manufacture of the spurious compound sold under its name.

The regulations as to the importation, &c. of Geneva are similar to those affecting BRANDY, which see.

An Account of the Number of Gallons (Imperial Measure) of Geneva entered for Home Consumption in Great Britain and Ireland, the Rates of Duty on the same, and the entire Net Produce of the Duty, each Year since 1814.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.			Net Produce of Duty (Customs and Excise).						Rates of Duty per Imperial Gallon (Customs and Excise).		
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Great Britain.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.		Gr. Britain.	Ireland.	
				Imp. gall.	Imp. gall.	£	d.	£	d.			£
1814	149,308	8,078	155,374	188,559	13	8	3,581	16	5	174,141	11	8
1815	128,526	1,944	130,470	174,090	13	8	3,581	16	5	155,789	11	8
1816	103,973	1,503	105,476	116,967	12	11	2,529	15	4	118,897	8	7
1817	105,493	1,174	107,657	118,537	19	10	2,013	16	0	120,850	10	10
1818	115,323	1,328	116,651	127,712	2	11	2,712	2	11	120,375	2	11
1819	109,783	1,184	105,647	116,296	13	7	2,705	2	9	117,904	10	4
1820	102,087	1,283	103,370	108,905	2	8	2,943	17	11	117,947	23	1
1821	89,413	1,294	90,707	100,905	0	8	3,810	10	10	103,868	10	10
1822	84,670	2,017	86,687	95,981	16	8	3,283	14	3	102,503	10	5
1823	87,744	1,164	88,908	95,416	0	8	2,650	18	0	104,668	14	0
1824	89,855	418	90,017	101,089	19	8	478	7	11	101,256	0	2
1825	83,709	1,000	84,709	94,463	2	8	1,143	17	11	95,699	0	0
1826	97,013	1,061	98,074	99,168	11	10	1,837	0	10	107,887	0	0
1827	66,710	1,908	68,618	87,804	11	11	3,147	19	6	89,532	4	5
1828	45,205	2,281	47,486	64,453	0	0	2,600	11	10	64,934	0	11
1829	46,301	1,843	48,144	64,647	17	8	2,073	13	6	61,723	9	9
1830	39,006	1,795	40,801	58,230	0	0	2,018	0	0	54,868	0	0
1831	35,519	1,643	37,162	53,839	0	0	1,643	0	0	50,494	0	0
1832	30,949	1,408	32,357	43,514	0	0	1,577	0	0	43,091	0	0
1833	19,700	1,378	21,078	32,160	0	0	1,437	0	0	32,507	0	0
1834	15,507	1,365	16,872	21,432	0	0	1,745	0	0	24,501	0	0
1835	14,798	1,634	16,432	20,330	0	0	1,326	0	0	22,156	0	0
1836	19,447	1,480	20,927	30,215	0	0	1,081	0	0	27,496	0	0
1837	18,567	1,411	20,378	18,787	0	0	1,088	0	0	20,388	0	0
1838	17,078	1,153	18,231	19,211	0	0	1,308	0	0	20,517	0	0
1839	17,432	1,113	18,545	18,545	0	0	1,149	0	0	20,489	0	0
1840	14,757	1,355	15,298	18,749	0	0	1,401	0	0	18,180	0	0
1841	14,308	1,218	15,521	16,548	0	0	1,391	0	0	17,739	0	0
1842	13,523	1,248	14,779	15,508	0	0	1,408	0	0	16,616	0	0

GENOVA, a maritime city of Italy, once the capital of the famous republic of that name, now a province of the kingdom of Sardinia, at the bottom of the extensive gulph to which it gives its name; the light-house being in lat. 44 24' 40" N., lon. 8° 52' 55" E. Population, in 1838, 115,257. Genoa is one of the finest cities of Europe. In general, the streets are inconveniently narrow; but some of the principal ones are moderately wide, and consist almost entirely of public buildings, and private palaces erected during the period of her prosperity. Being built on a rising ground, in the form of an amphitheatre, the appearance of the town from the sea is most magnificent, and justifies the epithet given to her of "la superba."

Port.—The harbour is semicircular, the diameter being about 1,000 fathoms. It is artificial, being formed by two gigantic moles having opposite directions. That on the east side, called the old mole (*molo vecchio*), projects from the centre of the city W. by S. It is about 260 fathoms in length, and has a battery near its middle. The new mole (*molo nuovo*), on the opposite side of the port, adjoins the southern extremity of the suburb of St. Pietro d'Arena, projecting about 210 fathoms from shore in an E. S. E. direction. The mole heads bear from each other N. E. by E. and S. W. by W., the distance between them, forming the entrance to the harbour, being about 350 fathoms. The light-house is without the port, on the west side, near the extremity of a point of land, and contiguous to the bottom of the new mole. It is a lofty square tower; and as it stands on a high rock, and is painted white, it is visible in clear weather at a great distance. There is also a harbour light at the extremity of the new mole. There is no difficulty in entering the harbour; the ground is clean, and there is plenty of water, particularly on the side next the new mole; care, however, must be taken, in coming from the west, to give the light-house point a good offing. Moderate sized merchantmen commonly anchor inside the old mole contiguous to the *porto franco*, or bonded warehouses, having a hawser made fast to the mole, and an anchor ahead. Men of war and the largest class of merchantmen may anchor inside the new mole, but they must not come too near the shore. Ships sometimes anchor without the harbour in from 10 to 25 fathoms, the light-house bearing N. A. W. at a distant 2 or 3 miles. The S. W. winds occasion a heavy swell, but the bottom is clay and holds well. Within the town are two rather shallow basins designed for gallees and small trading vessels. There is also an arsenal.

Money.—Accounts were formerly kept at Genoa in lire of 20 soldi, each soldo containing 12 denari; and money was divided into *banco* and *scudi al banco*. But since the 1st of January, 1827, the ancient method of reckoning has ceased, and accounts are now kept in the Italian, divided into cents. The weight and fineness of the new coins are precisely the same as those of France; so that the par of ex-

Dividends payable.
Feb. Aug.
Jan. July.
July.
Jan. July.
Jan. July.
January.
Jan. July.
January.
July.
March.

t. *Acqua di* distillation to the spirit or it diuretic.
ried on to a re at present obtained from aquires, as it whole of the more than 300 in Belgium. 0,000 ankers, loet, Descrip-
bited, as in the 0 years ending consumption in to *ss.* a gallon; of the average quities fluctuated their spirits had ing been, at an consumption. Mr. 1 *ss.* to 20 *ss.* ge consumption at this moment id. The duties consumption of subjoined official

change = 50/20 lire per li., if estimated in silver at s. 2s. an oz., and 25/54, if estimated in silver at s. an oz. 6 old lire di banco are equal to 5 new lire very nearly.—(*Manuel de Nethsbroeker*.) Sales of merchandise continue, however, to be, to some extent, made in the old currency. The prices given in a subsequent part of this article are in it.

The Bank of Genoa, or of St. George, was one of the most ancient and celebrated banks of circulation and deposits in Europe. Until 1766, when the bank was pillaged by the Austrians, it was customary to make all bills of exchange drawn upon Genoa payable in *banco*; but since then they have generally been made payable in money, *fuori di banco*. In 1800, when the French were besieged in Genoa by the Austrians they took the treasure of the bank to pay their troops. The establishment has never recovered from this blow; some warehouses, and a part of the town's revenues, were assigned to it, but they yield a very poor dividend. It is no longer used as a place of deposit for money.

Weights and Measures.—The pound is of two sorts; *the peso sottile* = 4,891½ English grains, and the *peso grosso*. The latter is 10 per cent. heavier than the former; hence the cantaro of 100 lbs. *peso sottile* = 69/89 lbs. avoirdupois; and the cantaro of 100 lbs. *peso grosso* = 76/87½ lbs. avoirdupois. The latter is used for weighing bulky commodities; the former is used in the weighing of gold and silver, and of all commodities of small bulk.

Corn is measured by the *mina* of 3 quarts or 96 gombette; 1 *mina* = 2½ Winchester bushels nearly. Salt is sold by the *mondino* of 8 *mina*.

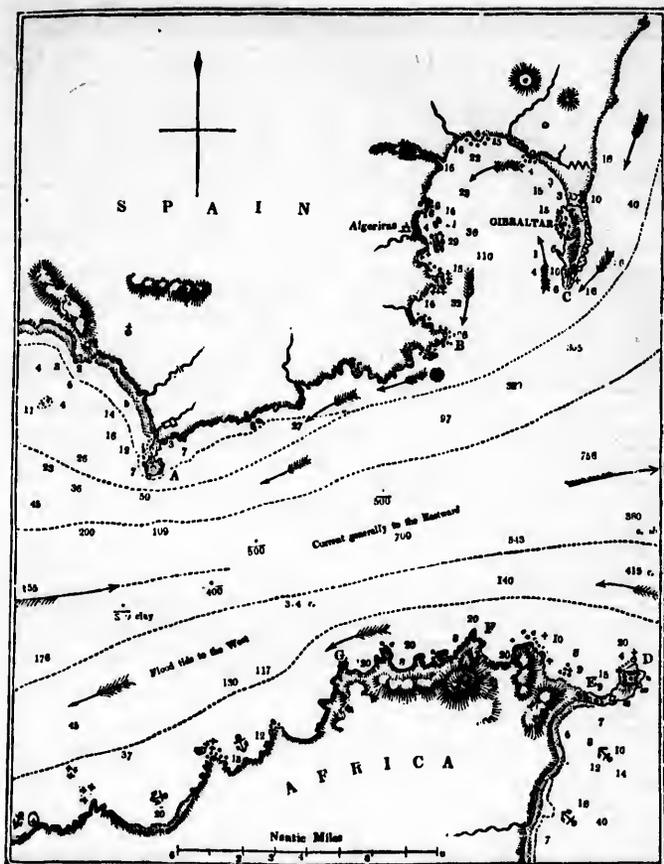
Of liquid measure, 100 pinte = 1 *barilla*.
2 *barilla* = 1 *messarola* = 39½ English wine gallons. The *barilla* of oil = 17 English gallons.

Of long measures, the *palm* = 9/736 English inches. The *canna* is of 3 sorts; the *canna piccola*, used by tradesmen and manufacturers, = 9 *palm*, or 87/8 English inches; the *canna grossa*, used by merchants, = 12 *palm* = 116/7 English inches; and the *canna* used at the Custom-house = 10 *palm* = 97/26 English inches. The *braccio* = 2½ *palm*.

Trade, &c.—Genoa is the *entrepôt* of a large extent of country; and her commerce, though inferior to what it once was, is very considerable, and has lately been increasing. She is a free port; that is, a port where goods may be warehoused and exported free of duty. The exports consist partly of the raw products of the adjacent country, such as olive oil (an article of great value and importance), rice, fruits, cheese, rags, steel, argol, &c.; partly of the products of her manufacturing industry, such as silks, damasks, and velvets (for the production of which she has been long famous), thrown silk, paper, soap, works in marble, alabaster, coral, &c.; the printed cottons of Switzerland, and the other products of that country and of the western parts of Lombardy, intended for the south of Europe and the Levant; and partly of the various foreign products brought by sea, and placed in *porto franco*. The imports principally consist of cotton and woollen stuffs; cotton wool, mostly from Egypt; corn from the Black Sea, Sicily, and Barbary; sugar, salted fish, spices, coffee, cochineal, indigo, hides, iron, and naval stores from the Baltic; hardware, and tin plates from England; wool, tobacco, lead (principally from Spain), wax, &c. Corn, *barilla*, Gallipoli oil, cotton, valonia, sponge, galls, and other products of the countries adjoining the Black Sea, Sicily, the Levant, &c. may in general be had here, though not in so great abundance as at Leghorn. The abolition of the various duties and Custom-house fees formerly charged on the transit of goods through Genoa and the Sardinian territories, has had a very beneficial influence on the trade of this port, particularly as regards the importation of raw cotton for Switzerland and Milan, as well as of the different descriptions of colonial produce.

Statement of the Principal Articles of Raw Produce exported from Genoa, with their Prices there on the 3rd of January, 1843, in *Porto franco* (Bond), in Italian Money, Weights, and Measures, and free on Board in English Money, Weights, and Measures.—(From the *Circular of Grants, Balfour, and Co.*)

Exports.	Genoa Rates in Porto franco.		Price in English Money, and Weights, free on board.				Exports.	Genoa Rates in Porto franco.		Price in English Money, and Weights, free on board.					
	£	s. d.	£	s.	d.	wt.		£	s.	d.	wt.	£	s.	d.	wt.
Almonds, sweet -	44	to 46	100	2	7	5	wt.	Gd. Genoa, superfine -	164	to 166	hrl.	54	7	2	turn of
Berardy, 1s. 6d. proof -	none							Gallipoli -	103	to 115	—	74	6	3	252
Spain, 3s. 6d. spirit -	32	to 34	—	0	0	0	—	Tunis -	64	to 66	—	62	14	3	imp.
Britonstone roll -	16	to 0	—	12	9	0	—	Sicily -	64	to 66	—	62	14	3	gal.
Cantharides -	54	to 0	1	0	3	2	1 lb.	Paper, Florence, 14 lbs. -	54	to 57	—	64	10	5	—
Cheese, Parmesan -	150	to 0	150	0	0	11	—	Medice, 14 lbs. -	42	to 51	pr. rrm.	0	4	4	rrm. of
Citron, preserved -	9	to 0	1	0	0	2/33	—	Almaso, 17 lbs. -	82	to 87	pr. rrm.	0	5	6	475
Cotton, Wako -	none						—	Quicksilver -	64	to 67	1 lb.	0	6	0	—
Cream of tartar -	78	to 80	—	2	18	7	wt.	Rice, Lombardy -	116	to 118	150 lb.	0	12	10	1 lb.
Essence of Orange -	8	to 0	1	0	2	31	1 lb.	Saffron -	34	to 41	1 lb.	1	17	8	1 lb.
Bergamotte -	8	to 0	1	0	7	8	—	Silks, sewing, black -	214	to 22	—	2	1	5	10
Cremona -	24	to 4	—	0	4	0	—	Soap, white -	48	to 50	150 lb.	1	16	10	wt.
Galls, Turkey, blue -	10	to 11	—	3	16	10	wt.	Medice -	36	to 38	—	1	6	8	—
in sorts -	16	to 17	—	4	7	8	—	Shumac, Sicily -	18	to 30	25 lb.	0	9	10	—
Gum Arabic, picked -	22	to 28	—	4	4	3	—	Steel, Milan (No. 00) -	56	to 0	150 lb.	1	7	9	—
Myrrh in dross -	14	to 19	—	7	14	0	—	No. 1) assort. -	34	to 35	—	2	6	10	—
in sorts -	10	to 13	—	3	1	7	—	Tallow, Russia -	32	to 33	—	2	6	10	—
Hemp, Bologna, Lendrian -	39	to 60	100	3	1	1	ton.	Wax, Candia -	24	to 26	1 lb.	1	13	0	—
Garden, 1st -	56	to 27	—	40	18	0	—	Wine, Catalonia -	90	to 100	pipe	3	5	0	pipe
Cordage, 1st -	40	to 50	—	33	17	7	—	Valvet, 3 pias blue black -	4	to 5	yd.	0	10	6	yard
2nd -	40	to 48	—	34	8	10	—	Grain, wheat, Polish, soft -	184	to 80	min	1	16	9	imp. q.
Ferrara, Garden -	31	to 42	—	27	6	3	—	Tungroch, hard -	19	to 19	—	1	16	9	—
Cordage -	66	to 47	—	33	14	6	—	Barley, Barbary -	none	—	—	1	2	0	—
Piedmont, 1st -	65	to 63	—	36	3	10	—	Indian Corn, Black Sea -	116	to 0	—	1	2	0	—
2nd -	18	to 21	—	3	16	9	imp. q.								
Liquorice paste, Calabria -	53	to 55	100	3	17	4	—								
Medican -	39	to 66	—	17	6	—	—								
Manna in flakes -	107	to 0	1	0	4	8	1 lb.								
in sorts -	26	to 28	0	1	9	—	1 lb.								
Opiam, Turkey -	11	to 13	—	1	10	10	1 lb.								



References to Plan.—A, point and light-house of Tarifa, lat. $36^{\circ} 0' 30''$ N., lon. $6^{\circ} 35' 15''$ W. The light-house was erected in 1813, and the light revolves. B, Cabriza Point. C, Europa Point, the extremity of the rock of Gibraltar. D, town and fortress of Ceuta on the African coast. E, Little Ceuta Bay. F, Point Leona. G, Point Cires. The soundings and the direction of the currents are marked in the chart. Variation in the Straits, $22^{\circ} 31'$.

Gibraltar is also of great importance to Great Britain in a military and naval point of view, being, in fact, the key of the Mediterranean, and affording a convenient and secure station for the outfit, refreshment, repair, and accommodation of our ships of war and merchantmen. The revenue collected in the town amounts to from 30,000*l.* to 40,000*l.*, which is about sufficient to defray the public civil expenditure of the place. The expense annually incurred in Great Britain on account of the garrison, in time of peace, amounts to about 200,000*l.*—a small sum compared with the important political and commercial advantages it is the means of securing.

Money.—The effective or hard dollar = 4*s.* 4*d.*; the current dollar being estimated at 8 hard dollars = 1*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*. Reals and quarters of both hard and current dollars are the same, being, the former = $\frac{1}{4}$ *l.*, and the latter = $\frac{1}{4}$ *s.*

Accounts are kept in current dollars (pesos), divided into 8 reals of 16 quarten each; 12 reals currency make a cob or hard dollar, by which goods are bought and sold; and 3 of these reals are considered equal to 5 Spanish reals vellon.

Gibraltar draws on London in effective dollars of 12 reals, and London on Gibraltar in current dollars of 8 reals.

The exchange of Gibraltar on Cadix, and other cities of Spain, is in hard dollars as a percentage, which varies considerably, and mostly in favour of Gibraltar.

Wetlands and Measures are those of England, excepting the arroba = 25 lbs. English; grain is sold by the fanega, 6 of which make 1 Winchester quarter; wine is sold by the gallon, 100 of which are equal to 109 $\frac{1}{4}$ English wine gallons.

GILD, or GUILD, a company of merchants or manufacturers, whence the halls of such companies are denominated Gild or Guild Halls.

GILL, a measure of capacity. See **WEIGHTS and MEASURES**.

GIN. English geneva, or gin, is made of spirit obtained from oats, barley, or malt, rectified, or redistilled, with the addition of juniper berries, oil of turpentine, &c. All spirits manufactured in England, and most of the Scotch and Irish spirits imported into England, are subjected to the process of rectification. English gin is said to be one of the most wholesome spirits.—(See **STRATTS**.)

GINGER (Ger. *Inger*; Du. *Gember*; Fr. *Gingembre*; It. *Zenzero*; Sp. *Jenjibre*, *Agengibre*; Rus. *Inbir*; Lat. *Zingiber*; Pers. *Zungebel*; Arab. *Zingebel*), the roots of a plant (*Amomum Zingiber*), a native of the East Indies and China, but which was early carried to and succeeds very well in the West Indies. After the roots are dug, the best are selected, scraped, washed, and dried in the sun with great care. This is called *white ginger*; while the inferior roots, which are scalded in boiling water before being dried, are denominated *black ginger*. Preserved ginger is made by scalding the green roots, or the roots taken up when they are young and full of sap, till they are tender; then peeling them in cold water, and putting them into a thin syrup, from which they are shifted into the jars in which they come to us, and a rich syrup poured over them. Dried ginger has a pungent aromatic odour, and a hot, biting taste. It is imported in bags, each containing about a cwt. The white brings the highest price, being more pungent and better flavoured. The external characters of goodness in both sorts of dried ginger are, soundness, or the being free from worm holes, heaviness, and firmness; the pieces that are small, light, and soft, or very friable and fibrous, should be rejected. The best preserved ginger is nearly translucent; it should be chosen of a bright yellow colour; rejecting that which is dark-coloured, fibrous, or stringy.—(*Milburn's Orient. Commerce*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The consumption of ginger does not exceed 10,000 cwt. a year. This is principally to be ascribed to the oppressive duties with which it was burdened previously to 1842, these being no less than 2*l.* 13*s.* a cwt. on foreign ginger, and 1*l.* on that brought from a British possession; but in the above mentioned year the duties were reduced to 10*s.* and 5*s.* a cwt. Of 16,504 cwt. of ginger imported in 1840, 9,381 came from the British West Indies, 9,777 from the East India Company's possessions and Ceylon, and 896 from Western Africa.

GINSENG (Du. *Ginseng*, *Ginsem*; Fr. *Ginseng*; Ger. *Kraftwurz*, *Ginseng*; It. *Ginseng*; Sp. *Jinseng*; Chin. *Yansam*; Tart. *Orhota*), the root of a small plant (*Panax quinquefolium* Lin.), growing in China, Tartary, and several parts of North America. The latter is what we generally see in England, and is an article of trade to China, which is its only market. Large quantities were formerly exported from this country; but it is now carried direct to China by the Americans. It is sometimes exported crude, and sometimes cured or clarified. Within these few years, it has been discovered in the Himalaya mountains, and small quantities have been thence sent to Canton; but the speculation has not succeeded. It is only about 40 years since it began to be sent from America to China. Previously to the present century, the Chinese drew their supplies from the wilds of Tartary, and the root brought an exorbitant price. Crude ginseng now sells in the Canton market at from 60 to 70 dollars per picul, and prepared at from 70 to 80 dollars. In 1841, there were sent from the United States to China, 640,967 lbs. of ginseng, valued at 437,245 dollars.—(*Papers laid before Congress*, July 21. 1842.)

GLASS (Ger. and Du. *Glas*; Fr. *Vitre*, *Verre*; It. *Vetro*; Sp. *Vidrio*; Rus. *Steklo*; Lat. *Vitrum*), a transparent, brittle, facitious body. It is formed by mixing together some sort of siliceous earth, as fine sand, or powdered flint, with an alkali, such as soda, potash, or pearlsh, and subjecting them to a strong heat. By this means they are melted into a transparent, soft, tenacious mass, that may, when hot, be formed into thin plates, bent and shaped in every possible way. When cool, it becomes brittle, and is denominated glass. Litharge, minium, borax, the black oxide of manganese, &c. are sometimes used in the manufacture of glass, according to the purposes to which it is to be applied.

The kinds of glass, and their ingredients, are stated by Dr. Ure as follows:—

"There are 5 distinct kinds of glass at present manufactured—1. Flint glass, or glass of lead; 2. Plate glass, or glass of pure soda; 3. Crown glass, the best window glass; 4. Broad glass, a coarse window glass; 5. Bottle, or coarse green glass.
"1. *Flint Glass*, so named because the siliceous ingredient was originally employed in the form of ground flint. It is now made of the following composition:—

Purified Lynn sand	100 parts
Litharge, or red lead	80
Purified pearlsh	50

"To correct the green colour derived from combustible matter, or oxide of iron, a little black oxide of manganese is added, and sometimes nitre and arsenic. The fusion is accomplished usually in about 30 hours.

"2. *Plate Glass*.—Good carbons of soda, procured by decomposing common salt with pearlsh, is employed as the flux. The proportion of the materials is—

Pure sand	43.0
Dry subcarbonate of soda	25.0
Pure quicklime	4.0
Nitre	1.5

Broken plate glass . . . 50.0—100.0.
About 70 parts of good plate glass may be run off from these materials.

"3. *Crown, or fine Window Glass*.—This is made of sand vitrified by the impure barilla manufactured by incineration of sea weed on the Scotch and Irish shores. The most approved composition is—

	By Measure.	By Weight.
Fine and purified	3	200
Best kelp ground	11	350

"4. *Broad Glass*.—This is made of a mixture of soap-boilers' waste, kelp, and sand. The first ingredient consists of lime used for rendering the alkali of the soap-boiler caustic, the insoluble matter of his kelp or barilla, and a quantity of



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salt and water, all in a patty state. The proportions necessarily vary. 2 of the waste, 1 of hole, and 1 of sand, form a pretty good broad glass. They are mixed together, dried, and filtered.

"5. Bottle Glass is the coarsest kind. It is made of coarse"

waste and river sand, in proportions which practice would determine according to the quantity of the waste; some seep-bottles extracting more saline matter, and others less, from their holes. Common sand and lime, with a little common clay and sea salt, form a cheap mixture for bottle glass."

1. *Historical Notices with respect to Glass.*—The manufacture of glass is one of the very highest beauty and utility. It is most probable that we are indebted for this wonderful art, as we are for the gift of letters, to the Phœnicians. According to Pliny (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. c. 26.*), glass had been made for many ages, of sand found near the mouth of the small river Belus in Phœnicia. "The report," says he, "is, that the crew of a merchant ship laden with nitre (fossil alkali) having used some pieces of it to support the kettles placed on the fires they had made on the sand, were surprised to see pieces formed of a translucent substance, or glass. This was a sufficient hint for the manufacture. Ingenuity (*astuta et ingeniosa solertia*) was immediately at work, to improve the process thus happily suggested. Hence the magnetical stone came to be added, from an idea that it contained not only iron, but glass. They also used clear pebbles, shells, and fossil sand. Indian glass is said to be formed of native crystal, and is on that account superior to every other." Phœnician glass is prepared with light dry wood, to which copper and nitre are added, the last being principally brought from Ophir. It is occasionally tinged with different colours. Sometimes it is brought to the desired shape by being blown, sometimes by being ground on a lathe, and sometimes it is embossed like silver." Sidon, he adds, is famous for this manufacture. It was there that mirrors were first invented. In Pliny's time, glass was made in Italy, of fine sand on the shore between Cumæ and the Lucrine bay.

Glass was manufactured at Rome into various articles of convenience and ornament. Pliny mentions that Nero gave 6,000 sesterces (50,000*l.* according to the ordinary method of reckoning) for two glass cups, each having two handles! These, however, must have been of an immense size and of exquisite workmanship; for glass was then in common use for drinking vessels, and was used even in the form of bottles in which to keep wine.—(*Mart. Epig. lib. ii. 22. 40.*, and *lib. iv. 86.*)

There is no authentic evidence of glass being used in windows previously to the third or fourth century; and then, and for long after, it was used only in churches and other public buildings. In this country, even so late as the latter part of the sixteenth century, glass was very rarely met with. In a survey of Alnwick Castle, made in 1573, it is stated—"And, because throwe extreme winds, the glasse of the windowes of this and other my lord's castles and houses here in the country dooth decay and waste, yt were good the whole leights of everie windowe, at the departure of his lordshippe from lyeinge at any of his said castles, and houses, and dowering the time of his lordship's absence, or others lyeinge in them, were taken doune and lade up in safety: And at sooche time as ather his lordshippe or anie other sholde lye at any of the said places, the same might then be set uppe of newe, with smale charges, whereas now the decaye thereof shall be veris costlie and chargeable to be repayed."—(*North. Houeh. Book, xvii.*) Sir F. M. Eden thinks it probable that glass windows were not introduced into farmhouses in England much before the reign of James I. They are mentioned in a lease in 1615, in a parish in Suffolk. In Scotland, however, as late as 1661, the windows of ordinary country houses were not glazed, and only the upper parts of even those in the king's palaces had glass; the lower ones having two wooden shutters, to open at pleasure, and admit the fresh air. From a passage in Harri-son's *Description of England*, it may be inferred that glass was introduced into country houses in the reign of Henry VIII. He says,—“Of old time,” (meaning, probably, the beginning of the century,) “our countrie houses instead of glasse did use much lattise, and that made either of wicker or fine rifts of oke in checkerwise. I read also that some of the better sort, in and before the time of the Saxons, did make panels of horne instead of glasse, and fix them in wooden calmes (casements); but as horne in windowes is now (1584) quite laid doune in everie place, so our lattises are also growne into disuse, because glasse is come to be so plentiful, and within verie little so good, cheape, if not better than the other.” Glass is now introduced into the windows of almost every cottage of Great Britain; and in this cold, damp climate, it ought rather to be considered as a necessary of life, than as the most elegant and useful of conveniences. What Dr. Johnson has said as to glass deserves to be quoted.—“By some fortuitous liquefaction was mankind taught to produce a body at once in a high degree solid and transparent, which might admit the light of the sun, and exclude the violence of the wind; which might extend the sight of the philosopher to new ranges of existence, and charm him at one time with the unbounded extent of the material creation, and at another with the

* If this be a correct description of the glass of India in the age of Pliny, it has since fallen off very much; Indian glass being now about the very worst that is made. At present, the Hindoo manufacture is of fragments of broken glass, quartz sand, and impure soda,—an article found native in many parts of India, particularly in the south. The furnaces are so bad that they cannot melt our common bottle glass.—(*Hamilton's Mysore, vol. iii. p. 370.*) The glass of China is much better than that of India, though still very inferior to that Europe.

endless subordination of animal life; and, what is yet of more importance, might supply the decays of nature, and succour old age with subsidiary sight. Thus was the first artificer in glass employed, though without his own knowledge or expectation. He was facilitating and prolonging the enjoyment of light, enlarging the avenues of science, and conferring the highest and most lasting pleasures; he was enabling the student to contemplate nature, and the beauty to behold herself."—(*Rambler*, No. 9.)

Venice, for a long time, excelled all Europe in the manufacture of glass, but was subsequently rivaled by France. The manufacture was early introduced into England; but it was not carried on to any extent previously to the sixteenth century. The first plates for looking-glasses and coach windows were made in 1673, at Lambeth, by Venetian artists under the protection of the Duke of Buckingham. The British Plate Company was incorporated in 1773, when it erected its extensive works at Ravenhead, near St. Helen's, in Lancashire. The manufacture was at first conducted by workmen from France, whence we had previously brought all our plate glass. But that which is now made at Ravenhead, at Liverpool, and London, is equal or superior to any imported from the Continent.

It is difficult to form any precise estimate of the value of the glass annually produced in Great Britain. We believe, however, that it cannot amount to less than 2,000,000*l.*; and that the workmen employed in the different departments of the manufacture exceed 40,000.

Duties on Glass.—Considering the vast importance of glass, and the various necessary, convenient, and ornamental purposes to which it is applied, it was much to be wished that it could be exempted from all taxation. But if the public exigencies make its taxation indispensable, the duties on it should, at all events, be kept within reasonable limits, and imposed in the way least likely to be injurious. We regret, however, to have to state that these apparently obvious considerations have been all but wholly lost sight of in the taxing of glass in this country; the duties on it having been carried to a most exorbitant extent, and imposed in the most oppressive manner. After successive augmentations, the duties were raised in 1813 to the amount of 9*s.* a cwt. on flint and plate glass! And the consequence was, that, despite the increase of wealth and population in the interim, the consumption of both these sorts of glass was less than it had been in 1794, when the duty was only 3*s.* 2*d.* a cwt. The progress of the manufacture and of the duties since 1813 is exhibited in the subjoined tables, the influence of the various modifications of the latter on production being too obvious to require being pointed out. Still, however, there can be no doubt that the duty is at this moment a great deal too high, and that it is in other respects most objectionable.

We do not know whether it be possible materially to vary the mode in which the duties are assessed, without opening a still wider door to fraud than that which now exists. But at present they not only augment the price of a most indispensable article by their entire amount, but they farther augment it, and that in no inconsiderable degree, by fettering the operations of the manufacturers, and preventing them from making experiments and improvements, and introducing new processes. In this respect the duties are especially injurious. Nor can any one acquainted with the facts entertain any doubt that the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry were fully justified in expressing their conviction that "no tax can combine more objections, or be more at variance with all sound principles of taxation, than this duty on glass."

If it be impossible otherwise to get rid of these duties, we incline to think that they might be advantageously commuted for an increase of the duty on windows in houses of 10*l.* a year and upwards. The greater cheapness of glass would more than compensate to most householders for the increase of the window tax, at the same time that the glass manufacture would be vastly increased and improved.

But, whatever may be done with the rest, that portion of the duty which is assessed on common bottle glass should certainly be repealed. It is oppressive without being productive, and might be abandoned without any considerable sacrifice. The duty on this description of glass produced, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, 172,518*l.* a year of gross income; but of this no less than 100,317*l.* a year was drawn back on exportation, making the nett revenue only 72,201*l.* a year!—a miserable compensation for the injury done to the manufacture and the public, and for the fraud inseparable from such a duty.

The excise regulations as to the manufacture of glass were formerly dispersed over various statutes, and were at once numerous and complicated in the extreme. Latterly, however, they have been consolidated in the statute 1 & 2 Vict. c. 44; but, notwithstanding the regulations have been a good deal simplified, this statute is of great length, comprising no fewer than 85 sections; so that, were its length not a sufficient obstacle, it would be quite useless giving any abstract of it in this place, as no one would think of engaging in the manufacture without having beside him a copy of the act.

I. A Return of the Rates of Duty on Glass in 1813, with the Quantities of each Kind of Glass retained for Home Use, and the aggregate Net Revenue to each Year, from 1813 to 1842, both included, noting the Periods when any Alteration of the Duty took place, and the Amount of such Alterations.

Rate of Duty in 1813, % ad.	Flint.			Crown.	German Sheet.	Broad.	Common Bottle.	Total.	Period and Amount of Alteration of Duty.	Aggregate Net Revenue.
	96c.	96c.	75c. 6d.	75c. 6d.	30c.	5c. 2d.				
Years.	Quantity of Glass retained for Home Use.									
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.			
1813	23,370	9,398	84,441	-	6,994	47,344	171,253			401,950
1814	24,347	9,778	84,831	-	6,928	44,834	166,158			230,791
1815	24,911	9,778	77,483	-	6,458	42,461	147,091			475,780
1816	20,011	-	66,151	-	6,140	160,221	244,323			335,188
1817	22,117	17,379	78,561	-	6,374	125,611	230,699			481,219
1818	26,978	6,391	82,993	-	6,319	201,795	324,376			691,269
1819	28,809	6,478	90,788	-	6,867	238,468	374,738		[From 5th July, 1818, the duty on plate glass reduced from 4s. 10s. to 3s. per cwt.]	606,176
1820	24,745	6,736	74,183	-	7,789	171,485	288,940			500,295
1821	21,927	5,718	86,364	-	6,032	171,117	265,111			511,076
1822	21,400	6,569	93,510	-	6,323	184,492	294,517			559,029
1823	21,829	11,607	101,309	-	6,173	198,556	312,436			607,278
1824	24,264	15,363	123,843	-	6,493	236,725	410,329			748,354
1825	24,184	16,089	140,894	-	6,347	251,939	449,843		[From 5th July, 1825, the duty of 4s. 10s. on flint glass reduced, and a new duty of 12s. 10s. for every 1,000 lbs. of fused materials for flint glass imposed.]	779,300
1826	27,090	19,287	115,731	-	6,113	282,412	485,973			780,920
1827	26,598	18,909	114,381	-	7,211	326,794	469,683			899,738
1828	24,255	17,090	121,168	-	6,970	257,787	454,466		[From 5th July, 1828, the duty on common bottle glass reduced in Great Britain from 8s. 2d. to 7s. per cwt., and the duty on every description of glass diminished throughout the U. Kingdom.]	728,097
1829	20,869	13,925	98,239	-	6,864	219,901	342,811			609,106
1830	49,353	12,677	80,988	-	4,845	180,945	324,746			542,261
1831	49,508	14,373	68,689	-	5,513	130,590	299,104			531,718
1832	61,596	11,554	86,007	179	5,304	158,719	313,340		[From 10th October, 1832, the duty on fused materials for flint glass reduced from 12s. 10s. per 1,000 lbs. to 9s. for every 100 lbs.]	558,423
1833	54,814	13,823	105,154	-	6,306	164,000	344,131			618,781
1834	52,890	16,306	106,369	-	6,766	194,143	378,494			664,391
1835	45,836	16,941	111,681	4,368	5,847	201,613	384,236		[From 10th October, 1835, the duty on fused materials for flint glass reduced from 9s. to 6s. 6d. per 100 lbs.]	640,149
1836	66,866	19,999	117,041	-	7,639	249,145	440,674			865,162
1837	79,131	21,640	121,309	707	7,190	247,846	456,413			608,993
1838	81,594	23,998	113,756	2,468	6,236	215,616	471,928			661,996
1839	83,509	26,455	113,540	2,170	6,514	228,408	468,608			691,467
1840	82,466	31,300	111,516	7,916	9,049	238,284	478,799		[From 15th May, 1840, the duty on every description of glass increased 5 per cent.; and from 15th August, 1840, the duty on broad glass increased from 1s. 10s. to 1s. 15s. 6d. per cwt.]	784,243
1841	74,414	29,088	95,033	11,398	-	190,427	391,180			618,568
1842	68,098	18,206	81,713	17,117	-	101,637	346,263			563,437

II. Account exhibiting the Quantities of the different Descriptions of Glass manufactured during each of the 3 Years ending with 1842, with the Quantities exported, the Rates and Produce of the Duties, &c.— (Obtained from the Excise.)

Description of Glass.	Quantity manufactured.	Quantity exported.	Rate of Duty.	Gross Amount of Duty.	Drawback on Glass exported.	Net Amount of Duty (Ex- cise) after deducting draw- back and other legal al- lowances.
Flint glass	Cwts. 1840 104,499 1841 97,594 1842 85,635	Cwts. 19,913 20,516 13,696	[To 16th May, 1840, 18s. 8d. per cwt.; since 18s. 6d. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	101,029 85,063 81,273	21,199 19,015 15,098	79,830 73,950 66,573
Plate glass	Cwts. 1840 83,623 1841 37,639 1842 21,228	Cwts. 12,619 181,113 68,518	[To 15th May, 1840, 3s. per cwt.; since 3s. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	104,117 87,061 57,612	7,412 17,483 9,666	96,705 69,578 57,946
Crown glass	Cwts. 1840 129,978 1841 116,896 1842 97,495	Cwts. 15,318 19,118 12,369	[To 15th May, 1840, 3s. 10s. 6d. per cwt.; since 3s. 10s. 6d. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	499,969 431,064 376,205	73,580 79,070 60,891	417,497 357,537 313,523
German sheet glass	Cwts. 1840 16,859 1841 20,555 1842 25,500	Cwts. 6,919 6,781 7,704	[To 15th May, 1840, 3s. 10s. 6d. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	63,986 80,172 98,297	33,604 36,378 48,248	30,382 43,597 66,049
Broad sheet glass	Cwts. 1840 9,051 1841 - 1842 -	Cwts. 11 - -	[To 15th May, 1840, 1s. 10s. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	13,915 - -	2 - -	13,915 - -
Common bottle glass	Cwts. 1840 225,571 1841 301,177 1842 390,482	Cwts. 492,867 310,937 226,633	[To 15th May, 1840, 7s. per cwt.; since 7s. per cwt. and 5 per cent.]	159,953 184,174 145,496	103,998 114,109 89,615	83,357 70,065 60,561
Total net revenue collected during the 3 years ending with 1842				1,802,595	-	1,802,595
Annual average net revenue of the 3 years ending with 1842				600,865	-	600,865

III. Account of the Quantities of Foreign Glass entered for Consumption during each of the 3 Years ending with 1842, with the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duties on the same.—(Omitted from the Customs.)

Description of Glass.	Quantity entered for Home Consumption.	Amount at Duty.	Rate of Duty.	Until July 9th, 1842.		From July 9th, 1842.			
				£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		
Film glass - 1840	Cwt. Included with glass manufactures not otherwise described. 218 Square Feet.	1,580	Film and cut glass, per cent. ad valorem -	-	-	30	0	0	
Ditto - 1841				-	-	1	0	0	
Ditto - 1842				-	-	1	0	0	
Plate glass - 1840	1,183	403	Plate glass, superficial measure, and all glass exceeding 1/8th in thickness, viz. — Not containing more than 9 sq. feet, per sq. foot - - - - - Containing more than 9, and not more than 14 square feet, per square foot - - - - - Containing more than 14, and not more than 36 square feet, per sq. foot - - - - - Containing more than 36 sq. feet, per sq. foot - - - - -	0	6	0	4	0	
Ditto - 1841	1,087	315		0	8	0	5	0	
Ditto - 1842	1,069	514		0	6	0	6	0	
Crown glass - 1840	Cwt. 15	100		0	11	0	0	7	0
Ditto - 1841	6	54		-	-	-	-	-	-
German sheet glass - 1840	25	361	10	0	0	6	18	0	
Ditto - 1841	46	485	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Ditto - 1842	96	619	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Common bottle do. - 1840	Quarts. 1,117,608	17,869	Bottles of glass covered with wicker, per dozen quarts - - - - - Ditto, per cwt. - - - - - Ditto, green or common, not being phials, empty, per doz. quarts - - - - - Ditto ditto, full, imported from any British possession, per dozen quarts - - - - - Ditto ditto, imported from any foreign place, containing wine or spirits, per doz. quarts - - - - - Do. do., not containing do., per doz. quarts - - - - - Glass bottles, not otherwise described, per cent. ad valorem - - - - - Glass manufactures, not otherwise described, per cent. ad valorem - - - - - Ditto, per cwt. - - - - -	1	2	0	-	-	
Ditto - 1841	1,050,528	16,991		4	0	0	-	-	
Ditto - 1842	Cwt. 683,824 } Quarts. 10,547 }	16,518		0	2	0	0	11	per cwt.
Glass bottles - 1840	181	1,167		0	4	0	0	0	
Do. (not described) - 1841	153	966		85	0	0	0	0	
Ditto do. - 1842	174	88	4	0	0	0	0		
Glass manufactures - 1840	285	3,007	20	0	0	0	0		
Do. (not otherwise described) - 1841	826	9,481	-	-	-	-	-		
Ditto do. - 1842	138	651	4	0	0	0	0		

And further, on the above rates, 51. per centum, from the 10th of May, 1840.

GLOVES (Ger. *Handschuhe*; Fr. *Gants*; It. *Guanti*; Sp. *Gautes*; Rus. *Rukavizii*, *Pertschaki*, *Golizii*), well known articles of dress used for covering the hands, usually made of leather, but frequently also of cotton, wool, silk, &c. The leather used in the manufacture of gloves is not, properly speaking, tanned, but prepared by a peculiar process that renders it soft and pliable. Some sorts of leather gloves admit of being washed, and others not. Woodstock and Worcester, but particularly the former, are celebrated for the manufacture of leather gloves of a superior quality; in which a great number of women and girls, as well as men, are employed. The produce of the Worcester manufacture has been estimated at about 42,000 dozen pairs of oil leather, or beaver gloves; and 470,000 dozen pairs of kid and lamb-skin gloves; the value of the whole, when finished, being about 375,000*l.* Besides Worcester and Woodstock, London, Yeovil, Ludlow, and Leominster are the principal seats of the leather glove manufacture. Gloves are sometimes sewed by machinery; but this is done only to improve the work by rendering the stitches more correctly equidistant, as it is not cheaper than manual labour. Limerick used to be famous for the manufacture of a sort of ladies' gloves, called chicken gloves. Large quantities of cotton gloves are made at Nottingham and Leicester.

Influence of Repeal of Prohibition of Importation.—The importation of leather gloves and mitts was formerly prohibited, under the severest penalties. This prohibition had the effect, by preventing all competition and emulation with the foreigner, to check improvement, and to render British gloves at once inferior in quality and high in price. This system was, however, permitted to continue till 1826, when the prohibition was repealed, and gloves allowed to be imported on payment of duties, which, though high, are not prohibitory. This measure was vehemently opposed; and many predictions were made of the total ruin of the manufacture; but in this, as in most other instances, experience has shown that the trade had not been materially benefited by the prohibition. The wholesome competition to which the manufacturers now felt themselves, for the first time, exposed, made them exert all their energies; and it is admitted on all hands, that there has been a more rapid improvement in the manufacture during the last dozen years than in the previous half century. There has been, no doubt, a great deal of complaining of a decay of trade among the leather glove manufacturers; but we are assured that, if there be any real foundation for their complaints, it is ascribable far more to the growing use of home-made cotton gloves than to the importation of foreign leather gloves; and had it not been for the improved fabric, and greater cheapness of British leather gloves, that has grown out of the new system, it is abundantly certain that cotton gloves would have gained still more rapidly on them. In point of fact, however, it does not appear, taking the smuggling that formerly existed into account, that there has been any falling off in the leather glove trade. At all events, there has been no serious falling off in the number of skins brought from abroad to be used in the manufacture, and consequently in the number of pairs of gloves produced from such skins; and there is no reason for thinking that it is different with the other departments.

Leather gloves must be imported in packages, containing each 100 dozen pairs at least, and in vessels of 70 tons burden or upwards, on penalty of forfeiture.—(7 Geo. 4. c. 48. § 7.)

obtained for ad, noting as.

Aggregate Net Revenue.	£
501,350	
530,791	
473,780	
853,198	
431,519	
584,399	
606,176	
500,595	
241,075	
559,099	
607,578	
746,548	
779,308	
780,990	
686,736	
759,097	
609,406	
449,461	
631,716	
558,423	
615,781	
664,301	
640,149	
665,166	
609,995	
667,096	
691,467	
724,343	
613,566	
363,437	

during each the Duties,

Net Amount of Duty (Revenue) after deducting drawback and other legal allowances.	£
79,630	
79,969	
66,273	
96,705	
69,378	
57,246	
417,497	
87,537	
315,325	
30,389	
43,207	
66,049	
15,913	
85,937	
70,065	
60,581	
£ 1,908,593	
£ 634,196	

Account of the Number of Pairs of Habit Gloves, Men's Gloves, and Women's Gloves and Mitts, Imported into the United Kingdom, with the Amount of Duty paid thereon, in 1840, 1841, and 1842, and the Rates of Duty.

Description of Gloves.	Quantities.						Duties.					
	1840.		1841.		1842.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Pairs.	£ s. d.	Pairs.	£ s. d.	Pairs.	£ s. d.						
Habit Gloves - - -	1,013,347		919,611		1,019,109		17,261	4 11	18,109	3 10	16,211	5 3
Men's ditto - - -	437,733		375,534		429,564		9,371	9 1	8,163	14 11	5,718	4 5
Women's ditto, or mitts - -	56,957		64,490		90,036		1,607	7 1	1,928	0 1	3,190	7 5
Totals - - -	1,508,037		1,359,701		1,538,709		28,499	14 2	28,199	0 10	27,644	17 4

Account of the Number of Lamb and Kid Skins entered for Home Consumption since 1820, with an Estimate of the Quantity of Gloves which such Skins would produce, on the Supposition that from each 120 Skins there would be manufactured 18 Dozen Pairs of Gloves.

Years.	Number of Lamb Skins.	Number of Kid Skins.	Total Lamb and Kid.	Doz. Gloves produced each year.	Years.	Number of Lamb Skins.	Number of Kid Skins.	Total Lamb and Kid.	Doz. Gloves produced each year.
1820	379,817	266,445	1,019,260	189,889	1831	5,929,854	1,006,807	5,901,841	665,180
1821	1,809,039	346,908	1,465,025	918,756	1832	1,801,141	709,337	3,010,478	391,273
1822	1,908,631	406,385	2,317,174	347,869	1833	3,418,480	817,028	3,335,512	465,328
1823	1,974,143	497,444	2,471,587	370,728	1834	3,734,343	799,006	3,593,518	539,028
1824	3,201,393	631,990	3,833,390	438,980	1835	3,287,048	956,698	3,243,574	494,251
1825	2,038,553	771,599	2,810,073	330,506	1836	3,699,784	745,679	3,458,408	513,490
1826	1,745,773	675,333	2,319,211	347,888	1837	1,664,080	937,350	2,601,510	390,197
1827	3,749,357	640,865	5,390,990	508,536	1838	1,927,703	786,481	3,184,166	439,258
1828	2,817,478	801,639	3,619,113	673,300	1839	2,130,478	690,868	3,211,441	491,716
1829	1,830,390	698,604	2,528,994	391,344	1840	1,608,228	697,012	2,369,540	337,431
1830	1,296,850	1,066,309	2,363,059	441,900					

GOLD (Ger. *Gold*; Du. *Goud*; Ita. and Sw. *Guld*; Fr. *Or*; It. and Sp. *Oro*; Port. *Oiro*, *Ouro*; Rus. *Soloto*; Pol. *Zloto*; Lat. *Aurum*; Arab. *Tibr* and *Zehab*; Sans. *Svarna*; Malay, *Más*), the most precious of all the metals, seems to have been known from the earliest antiquity. It is of an orange red, or reddish yellow colour, and has no perceptible taste or smell. Its lustre is considerable, yielding only to that of platinum, steel, silver, and mercury. It is rather softer than silver. Its specific gravity is 19.3. No other substance is equal to it in ductility and malleability. It may be beaten out into leaves so thin, that one grain of gold will cover 56½ square inches. These leaves are only $\frac{1}{100000}$ of an inch thick. But the gold leaf with which silver wire is covered has only $\frac{1}{15}$ of that thickness. An ounce of gold upon silver is capable of being extended more than 1,300 miles in length. Its tenacity is considerable, though in this respect it yields to iron, copper, platinum, and silver. From the experiments of Seckingen, it appears that a gold wire 0.078 inch in diameter, is capable of supporting a weight of 150.07 lbs. without breaking. It melts at 32° of Wedgwood's pyrometer. When melted, it assumes a bright bluish green colour. It expands in the act of fusion, and consequently contracts while becoming solid more than most metals; a circumstance which renders it less proper for casting in moulds.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

For the quantities of gold produced, and the places where it is produced, see **PRECIOUS METALS**.

GOMUTI, or **EJOO**, a species of palm (*Borassus Gomuti*), growing in the Indian islands. A valuable product is obtained from this palm, resembling *black horse hair*; it is found between the trunk and the branches, at the insertion of the latter, in a matted form, interspersed with long, hard, woody twigs of the same colour. When freed from the latter, it is manufactured by the natives into cordage. Its fibres are stronger and more durable, but less pliant, than those of the cocoa nut, or coir—(see **COIR**); and is, therefore, fitter for cables and standing rigging, but less fit for running rigging. The native shipping of the Eastern islands of all kinds are chiefly equipped with cordage of the gomuti; and the largest European shipping in the Indies use cables of it. It undergoes no preparation but that of spinning and twisting; no material similar to our tar or pitch, indispensable to the preservation of hempen cordage, being necessary with a substance that, in a remarkable degree, possesses the quality of resisting alterations of heat and moisture. The gomuti of Amboyna, and the other Spice islands, is the best. That of Java has a coarse ligneous fibre. Gomuti is generally sold in twisted shreds or yarns, often as low as 1 dollar a picul, and seldom more than 2. Were European ingenuity applied to the improvement of this material, there seems little doubt that it might be rendered more extensively useful.—(*Crawford's East. Archip.* vol. iii. p. 425.)

GOOD HOPE, CAPE OF. See **CAPE TOWN**.

GOTTENBURG, or, more properly, **GOTHABORG**, on the south-west coast of Sweden, at the head of a fiord near the Cattegat, which receives the river Götha, lat. 57° 42' 4" N., lon. 11° 57' 45" E. Population 29,000, and increasing. Vessels do not come close to the city, but lie in the river or harbour at a short distance from the shore, goods being conveyed from and to them by lighters that navigate the canals

by which the lower part of the town is intersected. The depth of water in the port is 17 fathoms, and there is no tide, bar, or shallow. A vessel entering the Götha must take a pilot on board, whose duty it is to meet her a league west of Wingo beaçon. After Strickholm, Gottenburg has the most extensive commerce of any town in Sweden. Iron and steel, the former excellent, but the latter inferior to that made in England, form the principal articles of export. They are brought from the rich mines of Wermland, distant about 300 miles; being conveyed partly by the lake Wener, partly by the Tröllhätte canal—(see CANALS),—and partly by the river Götha. The exports of iron, in 1839, amounted in all to 191,150 skib., of which 134,630 were taken by the U. States, and 56,518 by England. The original cost of iron is supposed to be increased about 5 per cent. by the expense of its conveyance to Gottenburg; and the shipping charges, inclusive of the export duty, are about 10 per cent. additional. The next great article of export is timber, particularly deals, which are also furnished by Wermland. Of these, the exports, in 1839, were 148,650 dozen, of which 64,870 dozen went to Great Britain, and the residue to France, Holland, &c. The other articles of export are, linen, sail-cloth, tar, copper, alum, glass, cobalt, manganese, linseed, oak bark, bones, juniper berries, cranberries, rock moss for dyeing, &c. Grain is sometimes imported and sometimes exported. The principal articles of import are sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton yarn and twist, salt, indigo, and dye woods, South Sea oil, rice, herrings, wine, spices, &c. There belonged to the port in 1837, exclusive of river craft, 72 vessels of the aggregate burden of 6,354 Swedish lasts, or 15,250 English tons, which had increased in 1839 to 8,100 lasts, and in 1840 to about 9,600 ditto; and ship building has since been going on briskly. The opening of the Götha canal by which Gottenburg communicates with a large portion of the interior of Sweden, has exercised a powerful and beneficial influence over her commerce. She carries on an extensive trade with England, and English is generally understood. Steamers run once a week between Gottenburg and Hull for 8 months of the year; but in winter the intercourse with England is kept up by the tedious route of Lubeck and Hamburg.

Herring Fishery.—Gottenburg used, at no distant period, to be one of the principal seats of the herring fishery; but at present this branch of industry is quite extinct, and it has always been very capricious. From 1656 to 1668, great quantities of herrings were taken; from 1668 to 1690, they left the coast; during the next 15 years they were again abundant; but from 1676 to 1747, they entirely disappeared. From 1747 to 1770, they were abundant, 186,614 barrels being taken in 1763, and 181,463 in 1768. From 1766 to 1799, the fishery was very good, from 110,000 to 190,000 barrels being annually exported. In 1804, the export was 79,819 barrels. In 1806 and 1809, fish were very scarce; and in 1812 they entirely disappeared, and have not hitherto returned; so that Gottenburg, instead of exporting, at present imports considerable supplies of herrings.

Both iron and timber pay duties on exportation, but they are not heavy. **Custom-house Regulations and Port Charges.**—On arriving in port, no person is allowed to board or to leave a vessel till she be in custody of the officers; who, having inspected the manifests and papers, send them to the Custom-house. An officer is appointed to superintend the unloading and also the loading. The public charges of all sorts on a Swedish ship and on a foreign ship not privileged, each of 300 tons burden, unloading and loading mixed cargoes at Uottenburg, would be, on the former 34*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*, on the latter 40*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* On a privileged foreign ship the charges are the same as on a Swedish ship. **Warehousing System.**—Goods may be bonded for any length of time, on paying $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem* for the first 2 years, and $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. annually thereafter. **Commission, Credit, &c.**—The usual rate of commission is 2 per cent. Goods are commonly sold on credit. Raw sugar

at 9 months, with 3 months' interest to the seller. Other goods at 2, 4, and 6 months. **Banking, &c.**—There are no public or private banking establishments at Gottenburg for the issue of notes; but the national bank has two offices here which advance limited sums of money, at 5 per cent. on the security of goods, and in discount of bills. Some of the English insurance companies have agents here, who do a good deal of business. **See GÖTTE, WATER, &c.**—There may be had here of excellent quality and cheap. Beef 1*l.* 6*s.* per lb., best rye bread 2*d.* per lb., and butter 6*d.* per lb. **Money, Weights, Measures, &c.**, same as at Stockholm, which see. In compiling this article, we have made use of consular returns, Cass's Travels in the North of Europe, vol. iv. pp. 567—575; and some valuable private communications.

GRAPES, DAYS OF. See EXCHANGE.

GRAPES (Ger. *Trauben*; Fr. *Raisins*; It. *Grappoli, Grappi*; Sp. *Uvas, Racimos*; Lat. *Uva*), a well known fruit, produced from the vine. France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, as well as some parts of Germany and Hungary, produce grapes which yield wines of various qualities and flavour, many of them excellent. We import green grapes from Lisbon, and other parts of Portugal, Malaga, &c.; they are brought packed in jars, and secured from damage by means of saw-dust, plentifully strewed between the layers of fruit. The grapes grown in Great Britain in the open air are much smaller, and by no means so luscious, as those of foreign countries; but those raised in hot-houses are quite equal, if not superior, to the latter. Grapes are imported not only in their natural state, but dried and preserved, in which latter state they are denominated RAISINS; which see.

GRINDSTONES, flat circular stones of different diameters and thickness, mounted on spindles or axles, and made to revolve with different degrees of velocity, employed to polish steel articles, to give an edge to cutting instruments, &c. Grindstones not in constant use are commonly turned by wind handles; but at Sheffield and other places, where polished articles and cutlery are extensively manufactured, large numbers of grindstones, being mounted in buildings appropriated to that purpose, called grind or blade mills, are turned by straps, acting on their axles, the moving power being either water or steam. The stone best suited to form grindstones is what is called a sharp-grit; it

Mitta, Inc.
1842, and

11	2	5	5
10	4	5	5
64	17	4	

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Dec. Givens
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565,180
201,578
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being chosen finer or coarser grained according to the purposes for which they are destined. The principal grindstone quarry in England is at Gateshead Fell, in the county of Durham; where they are produced in vast numbers, not only for home use, but for exportation to all parts of the world. But those principally in use at Sheffield are mostly quarried at Wickersley, in Yorkshire.

They are classed in eight different sizes, called *foots*, according to their dimensions, as in the following table:—

Denominations.	Diameter.	Thickness.	No. in a Chaldron.	Denominations.	Diameter.	Thickness.	No. in a Chaldron.
	Inches.	Inches.			Inches.	Inches.	
1 foot	10	3	36	5 foote	35	6	5
2 foot	14	3½	27	6 foote	43	6	3
3 foote	20	4	18	7 foote	50	6	1½
4 foote	28	4	9	8 foote	56	6	1

A grindstone foot is 8 inches: the size is found by adding the diameter and thickness together. Thus, a stone 56 inches diameter by 8 thick, making together 64 inches, is an 8-foot stone, of 8 inches each foot.

Besides the above sizes, grindstones are made, when ordered, of any intermediate dimensions: many are made much larger than any of the above sizes; some as large as 76 inches diameter, and 14 or 15 inches thick, which are a great weight, a cubic foot weighing 1 cwt. 1 qr. 14 lbs.—(*Rees's Cyclopaedia*; *Bailey's Survey of Durham*, p. 43.)

Grinding is an unhealthy and dangerous employment. For some purposes, the stones are made to revolve with an extreme degree of velocity, which makes them occasionally fly in pieces. But the greatest annoyance to which the grinder is exposed is from his inhaling the minute particles of stones, and of iron and steel, that are always flying about, particularly in the process termed dry grinding. Contrivances have been suggested for obviating this serious inconvenience; but whether it is owing to their unskillfulness, or to the carelessness of the workmen, none of them has succeeded in practice.—(*Treatise on Iron and Steel*, *Lardner's Cyclopaedia*, p. 258.)

GUAIAACUM, on LIGNUM VITÆ (Fr. *Gayac*, *Bois saint*; Ger. *Pochhaln*; It. *Guaiaco*; Lat. *Guaiacum*, *Lignum vitæ*; Sp. *Guayaco*), the wood of a tree, a native of Jamaica, Hayti, and the warmer parts of America. It is a dark-looking evergreen, growing to from 40 to 50 feet in height, and from 14 to 18 inches in diameter. The bark is hard, smooth, and brittle; the wood is externally yellowish, and internally of a blackish brown colour. Lignum vitæ is the weightiest timber with which we are acquainted, its specific gravity being 1.333. It is exceedingly hard, and difficult to work. It can hardly be split, but breaks into pieces like a stone, or crystallised metal. It is full of a resinous juice (*guaiac*), which prevents oil or water from working into it, and renders it proof against decay. Its weight and hardness make it the very best timber for stampers and malleys; and it is admirably adapted for the sheaves or pulleys of blocks, and for friction rollers or castors. It is extensively used by turners.

The *guaiac*, or gum, spontaneously exudes from the tree, and concretes in very pure tears. It is imported in casks or mats; the former containing from 1 to 4 cwt., the latter generally less than 1 cwt. each. Its colour differs considerably, being partly brownish, partly reddish, and partly greenish; and it always becomes green when left exposed to the light in the open air. It has a certain degree of transparency, and breaks with a vitreous fracture. When pounded, it emits a pleasant balsamic smell, but has scarcely any taste, although when swallowed it excites a burning sensation in the throat. When heated, it melts, diffusing, at the same time, a pretty strong fragrant odour. Its specific gravity is 1.229.—(See *Vegët. Sub., Lib. of Entert. Knowledge*; *Thomson's Chemistry*, &c.)

GUANO, or HUANO (the Peruvian term for manure), a substance used as a manure found on certain small islands off the coast of Peru and Bolivia, and on parts of the shore of the mainland. It is friable and easily reduced to powder; its colour varies from a dull red to a dirty white, and it has a strong smell, and a fat, unctuous feel. At an average it may weigh from 50 to 60 lbs. a bushel. Humboldt was either the first, or one of the first, by whom this important substance was brought to Europe; but it was described at a much earlier date by Ulloa (*Voyage au Perou*, i. 481.), and has been used as a manure by the Peruvians from the age of the Incas downwards. Very different opinions have been entertained as to its nature and origin. Many have supposed that it was a peculiar mineral or earth; but Ulloa is clearly of opinion that it consists of the excrements of the sea-birds which are found in prodigious swarms all along the Peruvian and Bolivian shores; and there can hardly be any longer a doubt that such is the case. The localities where the deposit is principally met with being within a rainless region, it is accumulated with a rapidity of which we have no idea. Guano is of very different qualities; some authorities give the preference to the whitish varieties, which are believed to be more recent, while others prefer the red. According to Klaproth, a quantity of guano represented by 100 contained, urate of ammonia 16 parts, phosphate of lime 10 do., oxalate of lime 12½ do., silica 4 do., common salt ¼ do., sand 28 do., and water, organic and combustible matter, 28½ do.; but its composition is found to differ very materially. The best is that which contains the greatest proportion of ammoniacal salts.

Guano has been only very recently introduced into England; and there is a good

deal of discrepancy in the statements that have been put forth as to its operation. There can, however, be no doubt that it is a most efficient manure, and that about 2 or 2½ cwt. per acre of average guano mixed with about two-thirds the usual quantity of farm-yard manure (which is required to keep the soil loose) will produce, when applied to land that is well drained, nearly double the ordinary quantity of potatoes. In turnip husbandry, splendid crops are produced by the agency of guano only; but in this case from 4 to 5 cwt. per acre should be applied. It has, also, a powerful influence in improving crops of corn and the pasture following such crops. The effect of guano is very materially increased by its being covered up to some considerable depth as soon as it is laid on the soil; and top-dressing is certainly the most wasteful way of applying the manure. — (*Private information.*) Under such circumstances it becomes of very considerable importance to learn the probable supply of this valuable deposit, and the price at which it may be imported and sold in Europe.

Unfortunately, however, our information on both these points is less complete than might be desired. Since it began to be largely exported to this and other foreign countries, an apprehension has, we understand, begun to gain ground in Peru, that the deposits would in no very long time be wholly exhausted; and as this would occasion the ruin of those estates along the coast of Peru, and the department of Arequipa, in which guano has long been extensively used as a manure, government has been called upon to avert this catastrophe by prohibiting its export. We are, however, well convinced that this apprehension is entirely groundless, and that the deposits are in fact all but inexhaustible. At present guano is principally obtained from some small islands opposite Pisco, in about lat. 13° 55' S., and long. 76° 30' W., and it is stated by Mr. B. H. Wilson, the well-informed English consul in Peru, that though it is supposed that about 300 tons a year have been carried for centuries from Chincha, one of the islands in question, to the opposite coast, it is estimated that there is still upon that island the enormous quantity of 17,000,000 tons, and that the supply in the various islands of the group now alluded to, may be safely estimated at above 40,000,000 tons! But, exclusive of these, there are other islands more to the south, whence guano is shipped for Arequipa, and which are still very far from being exhausted; and, as already stated, vast deposits have been found on the coast of the mainland, especially near La Mar or Cobiya; so that, making every allowance for exaggeration, the supply of guano cannot, for all practical purposes, be regarded otherwise than as inexhaustible.

The islands where the guano is found being uninhabited except by those employed in its shipment, it would, but for the interference of government, cost nothing save the expense of putting it on board and the freight home. But the governments of Peru and Bolivia were either so little aware of the value of the article, and of their duty to their constituents, or so corrupt, that they sold in 1839 to private parties, (Messrs. Quiros, Allier, and Co. of Lima,) for a mere trifle (40,000 dollars), the sole right to ship guano for the term of nine years; so that these parties had it in their power to exact any price they pleased for the article! This contract was, however, too ruinous to be allowed to continue; and was cancelled by the Peruvian government on the 27th of November, 1841, on the ground of enormous public lesion, and of ignorance of the value of the privilege that had been conceded. We cannot positively say whether the shipment of guano be now free, or whether it be again subjected to some species of restraint. We believe, however, that Quiros, Allier, and Co., and certain other houses, obtained, though with considerable modifications, a renewal of the monopoly held by the former in the course of last year, but we have not learned the terms of the new contract, nor whether it be still in force. But, supposing its exportation were free, the expenses attending the shipment of a cargo of 500 tons guano from Chincha, or other Peruvian island, would be —

Carriage to the shoot of 500 tons, at 5 rs.	-	-	-	313	4	=	£	69	17	11
Payment to master of the shoot	-	-	-	30	0	=	3	17	0	
Seven men in launch shipping 36 tons daily, at 14 rs. each for 14 days	-	-	-	171	4	=	32	16	8	
Anchorage	-	-	-	10	0	=	1	18	4	
Agency	-	-	-	50	0	=	9	11	8	
Payments, &c. for peons or labourers	-	-	-	6	0	=	1	3	6	
				570	0	=	109	5	0	
3750 bags at 3 rs. required for one half the quantity of guano, at 15 bags per ton,										
the other half of the guano being shipped in bulk	-	-	-	937	0	=	179	11	10	
				1507	0	=	298	16	10	

or about 3 dolls. or 12s. per ton. And adding to this, 5s. per ton for freight, and 1l. per ton for insurance, expenses of receiving and sale in England, profit, &c., the entire cost would be 6l. 12s. a ton, or about 6s. 7d. a cwt.

Between the 1st of January, 1842, and the 20th of August that year, 11,207 tons of guano were shipped from Peru, and 887 tons from Bolivia, and with the exception of a single cargo of about 350 tons for France, and one of 200 tons for Genoa, the whole of this quantity was shipped for England! This shows the already great and growing importance of the trade. And the probability is, that, unless the Peruvian government lay a heavy export duty on the article, or give a monopoly of its supply to private parties,

the export will be very greatly increased. It may be questioned, however, seeing that the guano islands are uninhabited, and at a considerable distance from the shore, whether the Peruvian government would be entitled to adopt measures in reference to them so hostile to the interests of other nations as those now alluded to. All vessels loading Peruvian guano for exportation must take their final departure from the port of Callao; but it is difficult to perceive the use of this regulation, unless it be to increase the trouble and expense of the shippers. — (Besides Ulloa, *ubi supra*, in the French trans., we have derived the foregoing particulars from various sources, but principally from consular Reports and the communications of private parties resident in Peru.)

GUAYAQUIL, a city and port of Colombia, on the western coast of South America, lat. 2° 11' 21" S., long. 79° 43' W. Population, 20,000? The town is situated on the banks of the river of the same name, about 6 or 7 leagues from the Isla Verde, or 9 leagues from the Isla Puña, in the Gulph of Guayaquil, opposite to the mouth of the river. Ships bound for Guayaquil generally call at the Isla Puña, where expert pilots may be had, who carry them up to the town by night or by day, according to the state of the tides. The town is old; but as the houses are of wood, and it has frequently suffered from fires, much of it is comparatively modern, and has a good appearance. There is a dry dock on the south bank of the river, where several ships of a superior construction have been built.

The district in which Guayaquil is situated has, for a considerable period, formed a part of the republic of Ecuador or Equator. Like the other S. American states, it has been subjected to perpetually recurring revolutions; but Guayaquil has notwithstanding continued to enjoy a considerable commerce. Its principal article of export is cocoa, of which large quantities are shipped; and next to it are timber, tobacco, celbo wool used in stuffing mattresses, &c. The principal articles of import are British manufactured cottons and hardware, silks, wines, flour, &c.

Account of the Export of Cocons from Guayaquil, during each of the Six Years ending with 1836, specifying the Countries to which it was exported, and the Quantities sent to each.

Countries.	1835.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	Total.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Spain	2,106,166	2,709,981	2,079,379	4,439,996	4,439,818	2,119,809	84,257,290
England	—	—	—	—	836,447	119,568	739,015
France	388,745	379,091	355,375	606,804	—	736,728	3,562,968
United States	830,536	741,697	436,190	196,041	1,018,368	909,676	5,183,419
Mexico	1,476,699	1,991,194	2,309,599	1,034,083	875,949	1,421,001	5,708,524
Central America	361,099	285,358	650,397	486,189	64,070	431,822	2,873,492
New Granada	56,414	3,106	62,928	49,995	24,718	—	267,586
Peru	575,801	806,270	638,187	2,127,478	711,821	767,378	5,556,009
Chili	250,542	225,017	386,711	463,253	396,700	120,699	1,740,907
Manilla	139,823	125,778	—	67,463	—	—	577,413
Hamburg	—	—	—	—	—	400,002	400,002
Genoa	—	—	—	—	828,877	—	328,577
San Tomas	—	—	405,000	—	—	—	405,000
Rio Janeiro	—	—	206,454	435,671	945,000	—	983,925
Total	6,695,778	10,999,868	13,800,931	10,914,569	6,580,123	7,106,075	58,131,554

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Value of their Cargoes, which entered inwards and cleared outwards at the Port of Guayaquil, distinguishing the Countries to which the same belonged, in the Year 1835. — (Consular Returns.)

Countries.	Inwards.			Outwards.			Remarks.
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	
British	11	2,066	45,375	The same as entered.		25,456	About one third of the number of vessels, entered as Peruvian, and some entered as Mexican, belong to this port, but were put under the colours for better protection during the revolution of 1824.
Colombian	12	1,727	14,040			5,470	
United States	19	2,421	46,532			71,765	
French	4	1,027	4,908			7,985	
Sardinian	5	1,475	8,820			10,714	
Hamburg	1	101	1,000			5,000	
Danish	3	407	3,000			11,500	
Mexican	18	1,599	16,831			22,378	
Chilian	11	1,718	25,680			19,622	
Peruvian	65	5,398	57,410			40,686	
Total	123	21,430	221,680	210,429			

GUERNSEY. For the peculiar regulations to be observed in trading with Guernsey, Jersey, &c., see IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.

GUMS, RESINS, GUM-RESINS. In commerce, the term gum is not only applied to gums properly so called, but also to resins and gum-resins. But though these substances have many properties in common, they are yet sufficiently distinct.

I. Gum is a thick transparent fluid that issues spontaneously from certain species of plants, particularly such as produce stone fruit, as plum and cherry trees. It is very adhesive, and gradually hardens by exposure to the atmosphere. It is usually obtained in small pieces, like tears, moderately hard and somewhat brittle while cold; so that it can be reduced by pounding to a fine powder. When pure, it is colourless; but it has commonly a yellowish tinge; it is not destitute of lustre; it has no smell; its taste is insipid; its specific gravity varies from 1.3161 to 1.4317; it readily dissolves in water, but is insoluble in alcohol. Gum is extensively used in the arts, particularly in calico printing, to give consistence to the colours, and to hinder them from spreading. It is also used in painting, in the manufacture of ink, in medicine, &c.

The only important gums, in a commercial point of view, are *gum Arabic* and *gum Senegal*.

1. *Gum Arabic* (Fr. *Gomme Arabique*; It. *Gomma Arabica*; Ger. *Arabisches gummi*; Arab. *Tukh*), the produce of the *Acacia vera*, a tree growing in Arabia, and in many parts of Africa. The gum exudes naturally from the trunk and branches, and hardens by exposure to the air. "The more sickly the tree appears, the more gum it yields; and the hotter the weather, the more prolific it is. A wet winter and a cool or mild summer are unfavourable to gum."—(*Jackson's Morocco*, p. 84.) It is in irregularly shaped pieces, hard, brittle, and semi-transparent. When pure it is almost colourless, or of a pale yellowish hue; being insipid, inodorous, and dissolving completely in the mouth. Specific gravity 1.31 to 1.43. It is often mixed with gum Senegal. East India gum Arabic is, though a useful, a spurious article, not being the produce of the *acacia vera*, but of other species of plants. The best gum is either imported direct from Alexandria, Smyrna, Tripoli, Mogadore, Tangiers, &c., or at second hand from them through Gibraltar, Malta, and the Italian ports. The price depends principally on its whiteness and solubility, increasing and diminishing, according as the article has more or less of these qualities.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*, and *private information*.)

At an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, the gum Arabic entered for consumption amounted to 18,176 cwt. a year. Previously to 1832, the duty on gum Arabic from a British possession was 6s. a cwt., and from other parts 12s.; but the duty on it and all other gums was then fixed at 6s. a cwt. without regard to origin, and in 1842 it was further reduced to 1s. a cwt. Of 25,389 cwt. of gum Arabic imported in 1835, Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco furnished 4,687; Turkey, 413; Italy, 1,889; Cape of Good Hope, 2,713; the East Indies, 15,431, &c. The price of gum Arabic in bond in the London market was, in June 1842, fine yellow from 42s. to 60s. a cwt., and brown in drops from 16s. to 20s. per do.; best Turkey from 9s. to 10s. per do.

2. *Gum Senegal*, principally brought from the island of that name on the coast of Africa, is obtained from various trees, but chiefly from two: one called *Vereck*, which yields a white gum; the other called *Nebuel*, which yields a red gum; varieties of the *acacia gummiifera*. Gum Arabic is very often mixed with gum Senegal. The latter is nearly as pure as the former, but it is usually in larger masses, of a darker colour, and more clammy and tenacious. It is the sort of gum principally employed by calico printers.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*, *Thomson's Dispensatory*, *Annie's Materia Indica*, &c.) The entries of gum Senegal for consumption amounted, at an average of the three years ending with 1842, to 17,715 cwts. a year. It was worth in June 1843, when garbled, from 87s. 6d. to 95s. a cwt. The trade in gum Senegal is principally in the hands of the French.

II. *Resins*, for the most part, exude spontaneously from trees, though they are often obtained by artificial wounds, and are not uncommonly, at first, combined with volatile oil, from which they are separated by distillation. They are solid substances, naturally brittle; have a certain degree of transparency, and a colour most commonly inclining to yellow. Their taste is more or less acrid, and not unlike that of volatile oils; but they have no smell, unless they happen to contain some foreign body. They are all heavier than water, their specific gravity varying from 1.0182 to 1.1862. They differ from gums in being insoluble in water, whether cold or hot; while they are, with a few exceptions, soluble in alcohol, especially when assisted by heat. When heated, they melt; and if the heat be increased, they take fire, burning with a strong yellow flame, and emitting a vast quantity of smoke. Common *rosin* furnishes a very perfect example of a resin, and it is from this substance that the whole genus have derived their name. Rosin is, indeed, frequently denominated resin. The principal resins are *Animi*, *Elemi*, *Copal*, *Lac*, *Labdanum*, *Mastic*, *Rosin*, *Sandarach*, *Tacamahac*, &c.; which see, under their respective names.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

III. *Gum-resins*, a class of vegetable substances consisting of gum and resin. They differ from resins in this—that they never exude spontaneously from the plant, being obtained either by bruising the parts containing them, and expressing the juice, which is always in a state of emulsion, generally white, but sometimes of a different colour, or by making incisions in the plant, from which the juice flows. The juice, being exposed to the action of the sun, is condensed and inspissated, till it forms the gum-resin of commerce. Gum-resins are usually opaque, or, at least, their transparency is inferior to that of resins. They are always solid, and most commonly brittle, and have, sometimes, a fatty appearance. When heated, they do not melt as resins do, neither are they so combustible. Heat, however, commonly softens them, and causes them to swell. They burn with a flame. They have almost always a strong smell, which, in several instances, is alliaceous. Their taste, also, is often acrid, and always much stronger than that of resins. They are usually heavier than resins. They are partially soluble in water, but the solution is always opaque, and usually milky. Alcohol partially dissolves them, the solution being transparent.

The most common gum-resins are *Aloes*, *Ammonia*, *Euphorbium*, *Galbanum*, *Gamboge*, *Myrrh*, *Olibanum*, *Sagapenum*, *Seammony*, &c.; which see, under their respective names.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

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GUNPOWDER (Ger. *Pulver*, *Schiesspulver*; Du. *Buskruit*; Da. *Krudt*, *Pulver*; Sw. *Krut*; Fr. *Poudre*; It. *Polvere*; Sp. and Port. *Pólvora*; Rus. *Pорох*; Pol. *Froch*; Lat. *Pulvis pyrius*). This well known inflammable powder is composed of nitre, sulphur, and charcoal, reduced to powder, and mixed intimately with each other. The proportion of the ingredients varies very considerably; but good gunpowder may be composed of the following proportions; viz. 76 parts of nitre, 15 of charcoal, and 9 of sulphur. These ingredients are first reduced to a fine powder separately, then mixed intimately, and formed into a thick paste with water. After this has dried a little, it is placed upon a kind of sieve full of holes, through which it is forced. By this process it is divided into grains, the size of which depends upon the size of the holes through which they have been squeezed. The powder, when dry, is put into barrels, which are made to turn round on their axis. By this motion the grains of gunpowder rub against each other, their asperities are worn off, and their surfaces are made smooth. The powder is then said to be glazed. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Dr. Thomson, whose learning is equal to his science, has the following remarks with respect to the introduction of gunpowder into warlike operations: — "The discoverer of this compound, and the person who first thought of applying it to the purposes of war, are unknown. It is certain, however, that it was used in the fourteenth century. From certain archives quoted by Wiegleb, it appears that cannons were employed in Germany before the year 1372. No traces of it can be found in any European author previously to the thirteenth century; but it seems to have been known to the Chinese long before that period. There is reason to believe that cannons were used in the battle of Cressy, which was fought in 1346. They seem even to have been used three years earlier, at the siege of Algesiras; but before this time they must have been known in Germany, as there is a piece of ordnance at Amberg, on which is inscribed the year 1303. Roger Bacon, who died in 1292, knew the properties of gunpowder; but it does not follow that he was acquainted with its application to fire-arms." — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.) For further particulars as to the introduction of cannon, see that article.

The manufacture and sale of gunpowder is regulated by several statutes. By the 12 Geo. 3. c. 61. It is enacted, that no person shall use mills or other engines for making gunpowder, or manufacturing the same in any way, except in mills and other places which were *actually in existence* at the time of passing the act, or which, if erected afterwards, have been sanctioned by a licence, under pain of forfeiting the gunpowder, and 2s. a pound. It is further enacted, that no mill worked by a pestle, and usually termed a pebble mill, shall be used in making gunpowder, under the above-mentioned penalty; and that no more than 40 lbs. of powder, or materials to be made into gunpowder, shall be made at any one time under a single pair of mill-stones, on pain of forfeiting all above 40 lbs., and 2s. for every pound; nor shall more than 40 cwt. be dried in any one stove or place at any one time, under forfeiture of all above that quantity, and 2s. for every pound thereof. The powder mills erected at Battle, Crowhurst, Saddlescombe, and Brede, in Sussex, previously to 1772, are exempted from the above regulations so far as relates to the making of the fowling powder.

No dealer is to keep more than 200 lbs. of powder, nor any person not a dealer more than 50 lbs., in the cities of London or Westminster, or within 3 miles thereof, or within any other city, borough, or market town, or 1 mile thereof, or within 2 miles of the king's palaces or magazines, or $\frac{1}{4}$ a mile of any parish church, on pain of forfeiture, and 2s. per lb.; except in licensed mills, or to the amount of 300 lbs. for the use of cullevics, within 200 yards of them.

Not more than 25 barrels are to be carried by any land carriage, nor more than 200 barrels by water, unless going by sea or coastwise, each barrel not to contain more than 100 lbs.

All vessels, except his Majesty's, coming into the Thames, are to put on shore, at or below Blackwall, all the gunpowder they have on board exceeding 25 lbs. Vessels outward bound are not to receive on board more than 25 lbs. of gunpowder previously to their arrival at Blackwall. The Trinity House have authority to appoint searchers to inspect ships, and search for gunpowder. All the gunpowder found above 25 lbs., and the barrels containing it, and 2s. for every lb. above that quantity, are forfeited. Any person obstructing an officer searching for concealed gunpowder is liable to a penalty of 10*l*. The places of deposit for gunpowder are regulated by the 54 Geo. 3. c. 159.

The exportation of gunpowder may be prohibited by order in council. Its importation is prohibited on pain of forfeiture, except by licence from his Majesty; such licence to be granted for furnishing his Majesty's stores only. — (6 Geo. 4. c. 107.)

The act 1 Will. 4. c. 44. prohibits the manufacture and keeping of gunpowder in Ireland by any person who has not obtained a licence from the Lord Lieutenant; such licences may be suspended on notice from the chief secretary, and any one selling gunpowder during the suspension of such licence shall forfeit 500*l*. Gunpowder makers under this act are to return monthly accounts of their stock, &c. to the chief secretary. This act, which contains a variety of restrictive clauses, was limited to one year's duration, but has been prolonged.

GUNNY (Hind. *Tūt*; Ben. *Gūni*), a strong coarse sackcloth manufactured in Bengal for making into bags, sacks, and packing generally, answering at once the two purposes for which canvas and *bast* are used in Europe. The material from which this article is manufactured is the fibre of two plants of the genus *Corechorus*; viz. *Corechorus olitorius*, and *Corechorus capsularis* (Bengali, *pat*); both, but particularly the first, extensively cultivated throughout Lower Bengal. Besides a large domestic consumption of gunny, the whole rice, paddy, wheat, pulses, sugar, and saltpetre of the country, as well as the pepper, coffee, and other foreign produce exported from Calcutta, are packed in bags or sacks made of this article. There is also a considerable exportation of manufactured bags, each commonly capable of containing two maunds, or about 160 lbs. weight, to Prince of Wales Island, Malacca, Singapore, Java, and Bombay. In 1841-42 there were exported from Calcutta 5,330,899 gunny bags, of the value of 499,426 rup.

(49,942l.) and 95,412 pieces of gunny cloth, worth 433,321 rup. (43,332l.). — (Wallich; Roxburgh; Review of the External Commerce of Bengal for 1841-42.)

GYPSUM, or SULPHATE OF LIME, is found in various parts of the Continent, in Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire, and in Nova Scotia, whence it is largely exported. When reduced to a powder, and formed into a paste with water, it is termed *plaster of Paris*, and is much used for forming casts, &c. It is also used for laying floors, and has been advantageously employed as a manure.

H.

HACKNEY COACHES are coaches stationed in the streets or other public places, and bound to carry such persons as require their services, for certain rates of hire according to the distances travelled. They have generally been licensed by authority, and subjected to certain regulations, intended to prevent strangers and others using them from fraud and imposition. It may be doubted, however, whether these regulations have had any good effect; and whether the public would not be as well accommodated, at least in all large towns, by throwing the business open, and trusting to competition to rectify abuses. As respects London, nothing can be said in favour of its hackney coach establishment. Speaking generally, the coaches are the dirtiest, most disagreeable vehicles that can well be imagined, and the horses and drivers are but little superior; forming a striking contrast to the elegance and commodiousness of the private carriages, the excellence of the horses, and the neatness of the servants.

Hackney coaches were first established in London in 1625; but they were not then stationed in the streets, but at the principal inns. In the reign of Charles II. their number was considerable. Commissioners for licensing and superintending hackney coaches were established by the act 9 Ann. c. 23.; and successive acts have been passed, specifying the number of coaches that might be licensed, the duties payable to government, and the conditions under which licences were to be granted. There are immense numbers of hackney coaches, chariots, and cabriolets annually licensed in the metropolis.

Hackney Coach Regulations, Fares, &c.—The regulations as to hackney coaches in the city of London are governed by the acts 6 & 7 Vict. c. 86. and the 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 22. The first of these acts provides for the appointment of a registrar of metropolitan public carriages, who is to grant licences, costing 5s. each, to the drivers and conductors of stage, hackney, and other carriages, and to watermen. The persons so licensed receive metal tickets or badges, which they are to wear conspicuously on their breast, and persons acting as drivers, conductors, watermen, &c., without such licences and tickets, are to be fined 5s.; and proprietors who suffer drivers, conductors, &c. to act for them shall forfeit 10l. for every such offence. — § 8, 9, 10, &c.

In 1842 there were licensed under this act, in the metropolitan district, 4,546 hackney drivers; 1,412 stage drivers; 1,543 conductors; and 287 watermen.

The other act, 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 22., regulates the licensing of carriages, the amount of fares, &c. We notice a few of the more important clauses.

Definitions.—A hackney coach is any carriage with 2 or more wheels, standing or plying for hire in any public street or road. — § 4.

Licensing, Plates, &c.—A licence to keep a hackney coach costs 5l., and a weekly sum of 10s. has to be paid per advance on every licence. A plate specifying the number of the licence is to be placed inside the coach; and 2 other plates, on which are painted the names of the proprietor, or of one of the proprietors of the coach, are to be placed externally, one on each side. Penalty on proprietor for letting or employing a hackney coach, without having properly numbered plates properly fixed upon such coach, 10l.; ditto on driver, if proprietor, 10l.; if not, 5l. — § 22, 23.

Obligation to ply.—Carriages standing on the streets with plates, to be deemed hackney coaches; and, unless actually hired, shall be compellable, under a penalty of 40s., to go with any person offering to hire the same. — § 35.

Distance.—Drivers of hackney coaches compellable, under a penalty of 40s., to go any distance not exceeding 3 miles from the General Post Office, or from the place where they shall have been hired. — § 34.

Number of Passengers.—To prevent disputes, the number of persons to be carried by hackney coaches is to be painted in some conspicuous place outside; and they are compellable, under a penalty of 40s., to carry this number if required. — § 46.

Rates and Fares.—These may be charged, at the option of the proprietor or driver, either by time or distance; that is, by the hour or mile, but not by the day. The terms are, when charged by distance.

For every hackney coach, drawn by 2 horses, for any distance within and not exceeding 1 mile, 1s.; and for every distance exceeding 1 mile after the rate of 6d. for every 1/2 mile, and for any fractional part of 1/2 mile over and above any number of 1/2 miles completed.

Fares when taken by time are—For any time within and not exceeding 30 minutes, 1s.; above 30 minutes and not exceeding 45 do., 1s. 6d.; above 45 minutes and not exceeding 1 hour, 2s.; and for any further time exceeding 1 hour, (then after the rate and proportion of 6d. for every 15 minutes completed, and 6d. for any fractional part of the period of 15 minutes.

Cabriolets, or carriages with one horse, are entitled in time fares, and no more, of the rates and charges above mentioned. — s. 35. and schedules.

Back Fare.—The driver of a hackney coach (discharged beyond the limits of the metropolis, that is, beyond 3 miles from the General Post Office, or before 6 o'clock in the evening, or before 6 o'clock in the morning, shall be entitled to full fare from the place of such discharge to the nearest part of said limits, or to the stand where the coach shall have been hired beyond the limits, at the option of the hirer. Coaches discharged during the day beyond the limits, are entitled to a back fare at the rate of 6d. a mile; but such back fare is not payable for any distance less than 4 miles. — § 39.

Coaches waiting are entitled to a reasonable deposit, to be accounted for in the fare. Penalty on drivers refusing to wait, or to account for deposit, 40s. — § 47.

Refusal to pay Fare, or defacing or injuring any hackney coach, may be punished, unless reasonable satisfaction be made for the same, by imprisonment for 1 calendar month. — § 41.

Drivers exacting more than legal Fares liable to a penalty of 40s. — § 42.
Agreement to pay more than legal Fare, not binding; sum paid beyond such legal fare may be recovered back, and driver is liable to a penalty of 40s. — § 43.
Drivers demanding more than Fares agreed upon, though distance be exceeded, or it be less than the legal fare, forfeit 40s. for each offence. — § 44, 45.
Drivers to hold Check Strings, under a penalty of 20s. — § 46.
Property left in Hackney Coaches to be carried to Stamp Office, under a penalty of 20l. If not claimed within a year, to be given to driver; or if not applied for, to be sold. — § 48.
Courts of Aldermen authorised to make orders for regulating hackney coaches in city. — § 54.
Offences may be tried either by a Justice appointed for that purpose by the secretary of state, or by any 2 of his Majesty's Justices. — § 55.

HAIR, HUMAN (Ger. *Haare*, *Menschen-haar*; Du. *Hair*; Fr. *Cheveux*; It. *Capelli umani*; Sp. *Cabellos*; Lat. *Capilli*). "Human hair makes a very considerable article in commerce, especially since the mode of perruques has obtained. Hair of the growth of the northern countries, as England, &c., is valued much beyond that of the more southern ones, as Italy, Spain, the southern parts of France, &c. Good hair is well fed, and neither too coarse nor too slender; the bigness rendering it less susceptible of the artificial curl, and disposing it rather to frizzle; and the smallness making its curl of too short duration. Its length should be about 25 inches; the more it falls short of this, the less value it bears." — (*Ency. Brit.*)

HAIR OF BEASTS (Ger. *Haare*, *Huhaar*; Du. *Hair*; Fr. *Poil*; It. and Sp. *Pelo*; Lat. *Pellex*). The hair of horses is extensively used in the manufacture of chairs, sofas, saddles, &c.; while the hair or wool of beavers, hares, rabbits, &c. is much employed in the manufacture of hats, &c.

HAIR-POWDER (Ger. *Puder*; Fr. *Poudre à poudrer*; It. *Polvere di cipri*; Sp. *Pobos de polvo*) is used as an ornament for the hair, and generally made from starch pulverised, and sometimes perfumed. A tax of 1l. 3s. 6d. a year is laid upon all persons who wear hair-powder. Different statutes prohibit the mixing of hair-powder with starch or alabaster. And hair-powder makers are prohibited having alabaster in their custody.

HALIFAX, the capital of Nova Scotia, on the south-east coast of that province, lat. 44° 36' N., lon. 63° 28' W. It is situated on a peninsula on the west side of Chebucto Bay, and has one of the finest harbours in America. Population, exclusive of the military, about 19,000. The town is irregularly built, and most of the houses are of wood. The government-house is one of the most splendid edifices in North America. Halifax was founded in 1749.

Port. — The best mark in sailing for Halifax is Sambre light-house, on a small island off the cape of the same name, on the west side of the entrance to the harbour, in lat. 44° 30', lon. 63° 32'. The light, which is fixed, is 210 feet above the level of the sea; and a detachment of artillery, with two 24-pounders, is upon duty at the light-house, firing at regular intervals during the continuance of the dense fogs with which this part of the coast is very much infested. — (*Couleur, Tables des Principales Positions Géographiques*, p. 78.) The course into the harbour for large ships, after passing Sambre light, is between the main land on the west, and Macnab's Island on the east. On a spit projecting from the latter a light-house has recently been constructed; and when this is seen, ships may run in without fear. The harbour is defended by several pretty strong forts. Ships usually anchor abreast of the town, where the harbour is rather more than a mile in width. After gradually narrowing to about $\frac{1}{3}$ of that width, it suddenly expands into a noble sheet of water, called Bedford Basin, completely land-locked, with deep water throughout, and capable of accommodating the whole navy of Great Britain. The harbour is accessible at all times, and is rarely impeded by ice. There is an extensive royal dockyard at Halifax; which during war is an important naval station, being particularly well calculated for the shelter, repair, and outfit of the fleets cruising on the American coast and in the West Indies. Mr. McGregor has severely, and we believe, justly censured the project for the removal of the dockyard from Halifax to Bermuda.

Trade, &c. of Halifax and Nova Scotia. — Halifax is the seat of a considerable fishery; but the British colonists seem to be, for what reason it is not easy to say, less enterprising and successful fishers than the New Englanders. The principal trade of the town and province is with the West Indies, Great Britain, and the United States. To the former they export dried and pickled fish, lumber, coals, grindstones, cattle, flour, butter, cheese, oats, potatoes, &c. They export the same articles to the southern ports of the United States, and gypsum to the eastern ports of New England. To Great Britain they send timber, deals; whale, cod, and seal oil; furs, &c. The principal exports of timber are from Pictou on the St. Lawrence. The imports consist principally of colonial produce from the West Indies; all sorts of manufactured goods from Great Britain; and of flour, lumber, &c. from the United States, principally for exportation to the West Indies.

In 1826 a company was formed for making a canal across the country from Halifax to the basin of Minas, which unites with the bottom of the Bay of Fundy. The navigation is formed, for the most part, by Shubenacadie lake and river. The legislature gave 15,000*l.* to this undertaking. The excavated part of the canal is 60 feet wide at top, 36 feet at bottom, and admits vessels drawing 8 feet water. It seems very questionable whether this canal will be profitable to the shareholders; but it is of very considerable service to the trade of Halifax.

There are two private banking companies at Halifax. Accounts are kept in pounds, shillings, and pence, the same as in England, and the weights and measures are also the same.

About 100 large square-rigged vessels, and about the same number of large schooners, with several smaller craft, belong to Halifax.

The splendid steam ships *Hibernia*, *Caledonia*, *Britannia*, and *Arad*, of 1,200 tons each, conveying the mails to British North America, ply between this port and Boston in the U. States and Liverpool. They sail from the latter twice a month during the summer months, but only once a month in winter. They fare to Halifax or Boston from Liverpool, including provisions and steward's fee (but excluding wines and liquors), is 2*l.* 10*s.* On arriving at Halifax, passengers are conveyed by coaches across the Peninsula to Pictou, whence they are carried by steamers to Quebec and Montreal. A steam intercourse is also kept up in summer with Boston.

In 1838 there were exported from Nova Scotia, and principally from Halifax —

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Beef and pork	barrels	5,559	Whalebone	cwts.	200
Coals	tons	33,794	Grindstones	-	1,000
Corn and meal	-	13,510	Wood of all sorts	-	5,592
Fish — cod, dry	cwts.	215,342	All other articles	-	137,718
Other sorts	-	49,597			72,897
Gypsum	tons	31,088	Total value of exports	-	544,511
Oil, train and sperm	galls.	154,208			
					27,063

Account exhibiting the Values of the Imports into and Exports from Nova Scotia, with the Number and Tonnage of the Ships entering inwards and outwards in 1842.

Imports from	Estimated Value.	Ships inwards.		Exports to	Estimated Value.	Ships outwards.	
		Number.	Tons.			Number.	Tons.
Great Britain	337,564	107	40,090	Great Britain	72,734	61	29,062
British West Indies	44,043	-	-	British West Indies	433,425	-	-
British North American colonies	204,979	1,909	138,238	British North American colonies	237,891	2,308	167,443
British colonies elsewhere	98,178	-	-	British colonies elsewhere	6,042	-	-
United States of America	373,739	1,866	121,721	United States of America	72,599	1,214	121,345
Foreign states	113,575	173	24,590	Foreign states	29,418	27	7,771
Total	1,171,658	3,437	316,448	Total	859,254	3,564	326,628

HAMS. See BACON and HAMS.

HAMBURG, a free Hanseatic city, on the north bank of the river Elbe, about 70 miles from its mouth, lat. 53° 32' 51" N., lon. 9° 58' 37" E. Population, including the suburbs of St. George and St. Pauli, but excluding the territory attached to the city, 137,000. Hamburg is the greatest commercial city of Germany, and, perhaps, of the Continent. She owes this distinction principally to her situation. The Elbe, which may be navigated by lighters as far as Melnik, in Bohemia, renders her the entrepôt of a vast extent of country. Advantage, too, has been taken of natural facilities that extend still further her internal navigation; a water communication having been established, by means of the Spree and of artificial cuts and sluices, between the Elbe and the Oder, and between the latter and the Vistula; so that a considerable part of the produce of Silesia destined for foreign markets, and some even of that of Poland, is conveyed to Hamburg. — (See CANALS.) There is, also, a communication by means of the Steknitz canal, with the Trave, and, consequently, with Lubeck and the Baltic. She is, also, in the course of being connected by means of railways with Berlin, Hanover and Brunswick, Kiel, &c. Vessels drawing 14 feet water come up to the town at all times; and vessels drawing 18 feet may come safely up with the spring tides. The largest vessels sometimes load from and unload into lighters at Cuxhaven. The trade of Hamburg embraces every article that Germany either sells to or buys from foreigners. The exports principally consist of grain of all sorts, wool, clover seed, bark, spelter, butter, salted provisions, rags, wooden clocks and toys, linens, and all sorts of German manufactured goods, Rhenish wines, &c. Most sorts of Baltic articles, such as grain, flax, iron, pitch and tar, wax, &c., may generally be bought as cheap at Hamburg, allowing for difference of freight, as in the ports whence they were originally brought. The imports consist principally of sugar; coffee, which is the favourite article for speculative purchases; cotton wool, stuffs, and yarn; tobacco, hides, indigo, wine, brandy, rum, dyewoods, tea, pepper, &c. Being brought from many different places, there is a great variety of quality in the grain found at Hamburg; but a large proportion of the wheat is inferior. Some of the barley is very good, and fit for malting. The oats are feed of various qualities. It will be afterwards seen that the total annual value of the import and export trade of the port (including that of Altona, the merchants of which conduct their business on the Hamburg exchange,) may be estimated at about 20,000,000*l.* sterling a year, or upwards: and as the largest portion of this immense trade is in our hands, it will be necessary that we should be a little fuller than ordinary in our details as to this great emporium.

Hamburg was visited by a dreadful and most destructive fire in May, 1842. But, notwithstanding the heavy losses that were in consequence incurred, and the paralysis it occasioned in trade and industry, the shock was less severe than might have been anticipated. The system of mutual insurance having been generally adopted, the proprietors of houses and other property have been subjected to a tax, to defray the interest of a loan of 32 millions marks-banco raised to indemnify the sufferers, and to enable them to rebuild their houses. And we are glad to have to state that the work of reparation has been vigorously commenced, and that the probability is, that in a few years all traces of the recent calamity will have been obliterated. We have not, however, owing to the destruction of documents during the fire, been able to obtain any authentic accounts of the trade of Hamburg in 1842; and this is the less to be regretted, seeing that the fire, by interrupting for a while and otherwise deranging the ordinary channels of commercial intercourse, influenced the trade of that year too much to allow of its entering into any fair average statement of the trade of the port.

Money is generally reckoned in Hamburg in marks, of 16s, each of 12 pennings; and is of two sorts, *Banco and current.* The former consists of the sums inscribed in the books of the Bank, opposite to the names of those who have deposited specie or bills in the bank, or got it transferred to them at the rate of 77½ pence banco for the Cologne mark of fine silver. The value of the marks banco, taking silver at 6s. 8m., is consequently 1s. 5½d., which makes the par of exchange 15 marks 10 schilling banco per 1l. sterling. Banco is worth about 2½ per cent. more than current; it is generally varying from 140 to 145. Speaking generally, the value of the current mark may be taken at 1s. 2d. or 1s. 2½d. sterling. The silver coins current in Hamburg are, specie dollars (of which 38 are equal to a mark Cologne, fine silver); Prussian current dollar (14 dollars to the mark fine); new 12. 5d. pieces (18 to the mark fine); Danish prob. current, and Hamburg current (34 to the mark fine). The gold coin comprises ducats = 9s. 4d. sterling, Louis and Frederick's d'ors. The silver of these different coins, with hanco, constantly vary. Hamburg has for many years contained no coin monies, with the exception of ducats and the smaller coins.

Measures and Weights. — A new regulation of these was effected by an act passed on the 16th January, 1845. There are in Hamburg 5 different sorts of *poised weights*:
 1. The tank or silver weight (formerly the Cologne weight).
 2. The commercial weight.
 3. The apothecary weight.
 One pound tank, or silver weight is = 2 marks; 1 mark (Cologne) is 235.8489 grains, or 465.57 Dutch Aa. = 100 marks = 29,554 English troy ounce.
 The old relation between the commercial weight and tank weight, by which the commercial pound is equal to 35½ oz. bank weight, has been confirmed by the late act.
 1 centner = 112 pounds; 1 pound = 35 cent. = 100 drachms; 1 drachm = 4 pfeenings.
 100 commercial lbs. = 106.256 English lbs. avoirdupois.
 100 ———— 49.6628 Holgerman.
 100 ———— 86.5353 lbs. Vienna.
 100 ———— 96.9218 lbs. German customs unit.

1 "schiffpund," in commerce, = 24 centners, or 20 "Hesprung" of 14 lbs. each, or 280 lbs.
 1 "schiffpund" by land carriage has 20 "Hesprung," each of 16 pounds; i. e. 320 lbs.
 A pipe of 16 800 lbs. 1 barrel of butter (small willow and hoops) is taken at 224 lbs. 1 but with common hoops, at 280 lbs. net.
Line Measure. — The Hamburg foot, divided into 12 inches, of 3 parts each, = 0.28657 metres, = 137.036 Parisian lines, = 11.289 Eng. inches. Hence

100 Hamburg feet = 84.021 Eng. feet.
 100 ———— 29.651 French metres.
 100 ———— 91.307 Prussian or Russian feet.
 100 ———— 89.504 Vienna feet.
 7 The Hamburg ell (short ell) = Hamburg feet. 0.77314 metres = 284.172 Parisian lines. 100 Hamburg ells = 64 681 Eng. yards.

The Braubent still for long all most commonly used in Hamburg, in measurement of piece goods, = 27.585 Eng. inches.
Liquid Measure. — 1 fuder = 8 muns, 1 mun = 4 untors or 2 eimers; 1 untor = 5 viertels; 1 viertel = 2 stutchen; 1 stutchen = 2 kanten; 1 kanten = 2 quarters of Cressel. 1 eimer = 4 viertels; 1 hogshead = 11 muns, or 6 eimers, or 30 viertels, each of 6 quarters or bottles.
 The stutchen contains 266 Hamburg cubic inches, = 3.62 litres.

100 Hamburg viertels = 159.30 English imperial gallons.
 100 ———— 724.16 French litres.
 100 ———— 839.45 Prussian quarters.
 100 ———— 311.98 Vienna mases.
 The full beer barrel contains 48 stutchen, or 192 quarters; the small barrel only 32 stutchen, or 128 quarters.
 The singular barrel contains 20 stutchen, or 160 quarters.
 The whale and fish oil barrel contains 32 stutchen, or 128 quarters; ½ whale oil barrels = 1 quartal.

Grain Measure. — One last = 60 fass; 1 fass = 2 hinnten, 1 hinnten = 4 spint. The weight of wheat, rye, and peas is 40 fass; but of oats and barley, 30 fass. The scheffel of wheat, rye, and peas, is 4 fass; of barley and oats, 3 fass.
 The fass contains 3972 Hamburg cubic inches, = 92734 litres, and 2638.45 Parisian cubic inches, equal to 100 Hamburg fass = 18.1535 imperial quarters.
 100 ———— 59.254 hectolitres.
 100 ———— 95.527 Prussian scheffels.
 100 ———— 85.763 Austrian heben.

100 Hamburg last = 108.815 imperial quarters.
 The mode of measuring grain has hitherto been by the masters stiving or piling it into the fass, and striking off the surplus with a wooden roller pressed lightly along the upper edge; but an alteration is expected on a new corn law, now projected, coming into operation; there will probably be a new fass measure of 4333 Hamburg cubic inches, equal to the Prussian scheffel.

In practice, 1 Hamburg last is taken at 11 imperial quarters, 31 hectolitres, 27 Prussian scheffels, 25 Scotch barrels, and 161 Russian chetwats.
 The coal barrel contains (when the 1483 3/8-cubic inch measure of heerd or heaped measure is added) 16,438 cubic inches. The Hamburg ship last, or last of commerce, really weighs 6000 pounds, or 3 tons (not 4000 pounds, as is generally stated).

Account of the Ships and Tonnage which arrived at and departed from Hamburg in 1840 and 1841, specifying the Countries to which the Ship belonged, and the Number belonging to each.

Flags.	1840.				1841.			
	Arrivals.		Departures.		Arrivals.		Departures.	
	Ships.	Tons of 4,000 lbs.	Ships.	Tons of 4,000 lbs.	Ships.	Tons of 4,000 lbs.	Ships.	Tons of 4,000 lbs.
Belgian	19	1,578	21	1,689	4	184	4	181
Brazilian	1	275	1	275	0	0	0	0
Denmark	106	4,394	103	4,689	63	5,785	64	5,790
Danish	1,179	46,094	1,157	45,214	1,398	32,474	1,328	22,258
France	147	8,506	146	8,417	111	7,412	111	7,303
Greece	940	95,135	915	93,560	1	107	1	107
Great Britain	359	37,846	347	36,196	1,028	101,967	1,021	100,460
Hamburg	569	10,465	579	10,350	424	37,505	423	37,190
Hanoverian	5	427	5	427	7	628	3	452
Lubeck	5	427	5	427	6	478	3	455
Mecklenburg	3	97	3	97	2	165	2	165
Neapolitan	309	17,454	297	17,858	293	18,444	293	18,484
Netherlands	62	9,302	55	8,246	38	5,517	35	5,267
Austrian	81	463	3	463	3	879	3	865
Hamburg	81	1,354	81	1,354	114	1,329	112	1,310
Portuguese	17	979	16	913	14	833	14	833
Prussian	23	2,227	27	4,681	25	4,257	21	4,010
Russian	13	1,741	13	1,742	14	1,687	9	1,487
Swedish and Norwegian	218	15,992	222	15,765	226	15,780	229	15,820
Spanish	3	3,746	30	3,461	23	1,485	16	1,095
Venezuelan	2	150	2	150	2	180	2	180
Total	4,073	214,291	4,033	245,958	4,513	275,515	4,466	271,247

Of the above there were—
 To Great Britain — 1,190 ships. 1,500 ships.
 From ditto — 1,516 ships. 1,516 ships.
 To Australian ports — 376 ships. 361
 From ditto — 425
 Hamburg possessed, at the close of 1841, 804 ships of the burden of 24,543 lasts, each of 4000 lbs.
 Besides the regular steamers which go to and from London, Hull, Amsterdam, Haere, and Dunkirk, and other steamers sail to Magdeburg, Berlin, and to different places on the Elbe.
 The river craft arrived at and departed from Hamburg consisted of—

Arrivals.	Craft.		Burden.	
	1840	1841	1840	1841
1840	4,381	113,444	4,973	86,639
1841	5,154	128,012	4,722	88,548

Account of some of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce imported into Hamburg during each of the Four Years ending with 1840.

Articles.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Sugar — lbs.	87,458,000	97,005,000	86,022,000	98,973,000
Coffee — — —	50,179,000	49,081,000	41,501,000	55,606,200
Tea — — — —	1,241,000	1,391,000	826,900	935,900
Locos — — —	363,000	1,265,000	612,000	902,100

Articles.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Rice — lbs.	6,266,000	6,625,000	9,774,600	8,721,800
Cotton — — —	14,325,000	11,728,000	11,078,900	12,237,600
Hides — — —	3,916,900	4,117,700	4,257,600	3,595,000
Tobacco — — —	11,721,000	9,754,000	9,989,600	14,989,600
Indigo — — —	1,202,000	1,583,000	1,584,000	1,728,000
Palm oil — — —	101,000	120,100	1,100,700	1,086,700
Pepper and pimento —	1,770,000	1,373,000	2,028,000	3,565,500
Ginger — — — —	650,300	1,143,000	1,111,100	769,300
Wine & fish oil — casks	8,016	8,868	6,035	6,035
Herrings lbs.	36,089	24,327	23,017	25,193
Wine — blads.	37,550	49,340	40,200	50,170
Olive oil lbs.	2,504,000	1,105,100	1,554,400	1,728,100
Raisins — — —	4,708,000	7,091,000	7,815,100	4,155,700
Almonds — — —	1,430,000	1,216,000	2,520,100	1,719,000
Southern Fruits boxes	30,606	34,988	42,446	31,242
Iron — lbs.	10,840,000	14,088,000	15,633,700	20,837,900
Coin — boxes	25,775	30,238	30,811	46,308
Cotton twist	53,807,000	34,541,000	36,429,000	38,428,000
Manufactured goods pig.	—	—	about 5,035,000	6,035,000

Hides.	Import from 1. January to 31. December.		Total Import.
	1840.	1841.	
From W. Indies and S. America	153,840	170,000	323,840
United States	6,550	50,265	56,815
Great Britain	11,900	14,800	26,700
Other Parts in Europe	29,590	14,530	44,120
Total Import	202,880	249,600	452,480

Cotton.	Import from 1. January to 31. December.		Total Import.
	1840.	1841.	
From East India	1,430	92,100	93,530
United States	1,520	6,170	7,690
West India	4,000	3,500	7,500
Other Parts in Europe	7,460	11,840	19,300
Total Import	55,910	74,500	130,410

Total Import.	In Tons.	
	1840.	1841.
454,588	512,580	967,168
175,266	170,534	345,800
482,011	529,500	1,011,511
31,260	31,260	62,520
52,900	52,900	105,800
25,600	25,600	51,200

The total value of imports in the years 1839 to 1841, inclusive, is estimated as follows:—

Year	Banco.	£
1839	about 164,300,000	12,867,000
1840	172,000,000	13,573,000
1841	160,000,000	12,500,000

of which more than half was received from Great Britain.

The export of corn depends chiefly on the wants of England, which occasioned a very large export during 1839, 1840, and 1841, being in amount and value as follows:—

Year	Ests.	Banco.	£
1839	45,191	estimated value	14,430,000, or 1,067,950
1840	45,296	—	15,414,000, or 1,000,950
1841	59,487	—	17,252,000, or 1,293,500

The prices of wheat during these years were—

Year	Highest price.	Lowest price.
1839	162 to 212 doll.	110 to 172 doll. currency.
1840	152 to 198 doll.	88 to 130 doll. currency.
1841	154 to 193 doll.	85 to 122 doll. currency.

(See art. *Cow Leas* and *Cow Teams*.)

The export of wool (nearly the whole of which goes to Great Britain) was as follows:—

1839	55,649 bales, or about 19,431,000 lbs.
1840	54,975
1841	53,500

The once important trade in German linens to Spain and her former American possessions, has of late years greatly fallen off. This is a consequence of the competition of England, who, by means of her superior machinery, is able, not only to spin, but to produce cloth cheaper than any other country. On the other hand, however, the import of linen yarns from England is being progressively augmented.

The total value of the exports from Hamburg has been estimated as follows:—

Year	Banco.	£
1839	107,000,000	8,025,500
1840	103,000,000	7,913,000
1841	109,500,000	8,212,500

Navigations of the Elbe, Pilotage, &c.—The mouth of the Elbe is encumbered with sand banks. The channel leading to Cuxhaven is bounded on the north by the Vogel Sands and North frouds, and on the south by the Schaathorn Sands and Neuwark Island. On the latter there are 2 light-houses and 2 beacons, and on the Schaathorn is another beacon. The light-houses on Neuwark Island are about 700 yards apart; the most southerly, which is also the most elevated, being in lat. 53° 54' 37" N., long. 8° 52' 10" E. It is 128 feet high, being twice the height of the other. The channel is, in some places, hardly 4 of a mile wide. The outer red buoy in the middle of the channel, at its mouth, bears from Hailoland S. E. by E. distant nearly 30 miles. But the best mark in entering the Elbe is the floating light, or signal ship, moored 5 miles N.W. by N. of the red buoy, in 11 fathoms at low water. This vessel never leaves her station, unless compelled by ice in the winter season. By night she exhibits a lantern light 66 feet above deck, and in foggy weather rings a bell every quarter of an hour. A second signal ship is stationed 2½ miles S.E. by E. from the first, at the westernmost point of a sand bank dividing the fair way of the river. She is rigged like a galleon, to distinguish her by day from the first signal ship; and during night she exhibits two lights, one 16 feet above the other. The distance from the outer red buoy to Cuxhaven is about 16 miles; thence to Glückstadt the course is east, 28 miles; from the latter to Stade the course is south-easterly, 9 miles; and then easterly to Hamburg, 18 miles. The channel throughout is marked with black and white buoys, which are numbered and specified in the charts. The black ones are to be left, in passing up the river, on the starboard or right-hand side, and the white on the larboard side.

Every vessel coming from sea into the Elbe, and drawing 4 feet water, is directed to take a pilot on board, and must pay pilotage, though she do not take one. However well the signals, lights, beacons, and buoys, may be arranged, an experienced pilot is very necessary, in case of a fog in the night, or of a storm. To take in a pilot, a vessel must heave to by the pilot galleon, which lies, in good weather, near the red buoy, and in bad weather N.W. from Neuwark, and is known by being at the flagstaff an admiral's flag, and a long streamer flying at the top. If the pilot boat have no pilot on board, or if the weather be so bad that the pilot cannot leave her, she lowers her flag, and then the vessel coming in must sail, with the signal for a pilot hoisted to Cuxhaven, and heave to there, where she is certain of getting one.

There are no docks or quays at Hamburg; and it is singular, considering the great trade of the port, that none have been constructed. It is more in the river outside of piles driven into the ground a short distance from shore; and in this situation they are not exposed to any danger unless the piles give way, which rarely happens. There is a sort of inner harbour formed by an arm of the Elbe which runs into the city, where small craft lie and discharge their cargoes. Larger vessels load and unload from their moorings, by means of lighters. These carry the goods from and to the warehouses which front the various small arms and channels of the river, and the canals carried from it into different parts of the city. The charges on account of lighterage are extremely moderate.

Port Charges.—The charges of a public nature payable by vessels entering the port of Hamburg, unloading and loading, are pilotage and lading. The separate items of which are given in the following Table.

Pilotage and Lading.—The Hamburg pilots, generally speaking, take charge of vessels only from the Red Buoy to Freyburgh or Glückstadt; the pilotage for which is regulated by law of the 19th of February, 1800, as follows:—

Description of the Vessel, from her Name to her Regt. to her Port.	For each Foot Hamburg Measure which a Vessel Draws.*		English Money.	
	During the Winter Months.	During the Summer Months.	£	s. d. c.
Vessels coming northwards, and colliers.	2 0	3 0	2	4 3 6
All vessels, snacks, and kayen drawing more than 4 feet water, and in ballast.	2 0	3 0	2	4 3 6
Vessels laden with salt or curm, wheresoever they may come from.	3 0	4 0	3	6 5 3
Vessels which, besides salt, curm, or ballast, have one third of the cargo consisting of piece goods.	4 0	6 0	4	6 7 0
Vessels laden with herrings.	2 0	3 0	2	4 3 6
All vessels laden with wine, oil, vinegar, train oil, iron, lead, packages, or bags, and all vessels coming from foreign parts, whether laden or not.	4 0	6 0	4	6 7 0
All snacks going between Hülland, Friedland, and Hamburg with piece goods.	4 0	6 0	4	6 7 0

* Sixteen feet English are equal to 17 feet Hamburg.

Half Pilotage only.—N.B. In case the Hamburg pilots enter a vessel only within the first buoy beyond the Hoochaken, Brungy, or Cuxhaven, half the above mentioned pilotage is paid. Also half pilotage must be paid at all events, whether the vessel has taken a pilot from the pilot galleon or not.

Pilotage earned.—The above pilotage is earned if vessels are brought as far as Freyburgh or Glückstadt, and when from stress of wind or weather, which seldom happens, the Hamburg pilots take vessels to Wittenberg or Neumühlen, they are to pay, without distinction—

To Wittenberg, Neumühlen	Merch. currency.	£	s. d. c.
—	—	1	8 21 0

Pilotage all the way.—For pilotage the whole way from Cuxhaven to Hamburg there is no table of rates, for, generally speaking, the Hamburg pilots do not take vessels up beyond Boack.

From Boack in Hamburg.—Vessels are generally piloted from Boeck to Hamburg by Danish or Hanoverian pilots to whom it is customary to pay 3 marks.

Lading and Custom-house Charges.—British and other foreign vessels pay the same as Hamburg vessels. For clearing in and clearing out, no separate charges are made: visiting the port is considered as one voyage, and the charges on vessels are paid as follows:—

For vessels arrived with cargoes from the undermentioned places: viz.—

Places.	For every Commercial Last of 6,000 lbs.	Merch.	£	s. d. c.
The East Indies	—	3	0 3 6	
West Indies, North and South America	—	2	8 0 3 6	
Portugal, Spain, and the Mediterranean	—	0	2 2 4	
The rest of the European ports	—	1	8 0 9	
Holland, East Prussia, the Weser, Eyaar, and Jutland	—	0	12 0 10 1/2	
For vessels under 30 commercial lasts* without distinction	—	4	0 0 3 1/2	
Vessels arriving and departing in ballast, of upwards of 30 commercial lasts	—	0	8 0 0 7	

* It is difficult to determine the exact ratio of a last to a ton; but it may be taken at about 3/4 to 1. But in Hamburg all vessels are measured by the harbour-master; and it is upon his report that the lading is calculated.

For all vessels laden with coals, wood, or turf, no lading is paid, provided they do not take return cargoes.

Half Lading.—Vessels arriving in ballast and departing with a cargo pay half the above lading, according to their destination.

N.B.—Exclusive of the above dues, which are all remarkably moderate, vessels coming to the port of Hamburg are obliged to pay certain dues to Hanover, called the *Stück* or *hansen dues*. These are rated according to the number of the vessel's masts, and are over and above the Stück duties on the cargo.—(For the items, see *Stück*.)

Duties.—The import and export duty was formerly 1 1/2 per cent. (countant for banco, or 1 1/2 on 1839) on goods imported and exported by sea, and 2 1/2 per cent. (countant for banco), for such as were received and transported by land or river conveyance; but for some years, these duties have been greatly reduced, and are now only 1 1/2 per cent. on imports, and 1 1/2 per cent. on exports. The greater part of the imports and exports are, how-

1 per cent. for *del credere*, if such guarantee be required; on purchases, 2 per cent. Under particular agreements, the rates sometimes vary considerably from the above.

Citizenship.—Foreigners cannot establish themselves as merchants, or carry on any business in their own names, at Hamburg, without becoming burghers; and to be manufacturers, they must also enter the guild or corporation peculiar to the trade they mean to follow. But, to become a burgher, one has only to comply with certain forms and pay certain fees, which do not, in all, exceed 10%. He then becomes, in the eye of the law, a Hamburg subject, and enjoys all the rights and privileges of a native.

Fire-insurance, &c.—For an account of the Bank of Hamburg, see BANKS (HAMBURG). All sorts of insurances are effected at Hamburg. A municipal regulation compels the insurance of all houses within the city, the rate varying according to the number of fires, and the amount of loss. Marine insurance is principally effected by joint stock companies, of which there are several; their competition has reduced the premiums to the lowest level, and the business is not understood to be profitable. The high duties on policies of insurance in this country have led to the insuring of a good many English ships at Hamburg. Life insurance is not prosecuted in Germany to any considerable extent; but some of the English companies have agents here, who are said not to be very scrupulous.

Bankruptcy.—Considering the vast number of merchants and tradespeople at Hamburg, bankruptcy does not seem to be of frequent occurrence.

Much of the business transacted at Hamburg being on commission and for account of houses abroad, the failure of foreign merchants is a prevalent source of bankruptcy. Another source of bankruptcy is losses on goods imported or exported on speculation, and occasionally losses in the funds, in which

a good deal of gambling goes on here. Expensive living is not nearly so prevalent a source of bankruptcy here as in London and other places.

The law of Hamburg makes 3 classes of bankrupts;—the unfortunate, the careless, and the fraudulent. The first class consists of those whose books show that misfortune alone has occasioned the bankruptcy; that the party has all along lived within his probable income, and on account of his misfortune completely for all his loss. Whoever is adjudged by the court to belong to this class (which contains but few in number), is considered entirely free from his debts, and is not subject to be called upon hereafter. The second and most numerous class, contains those termed "careless" bankrupts. These are persons who have entered into speculations exceeding their means, who have gone on for a considerable time after they found their affairs in arrears, who have lived beyond their income, have not kept their books in good order, and so forth. They are liable to be confined in prison for a period of 3 or 8 months; and, provided they have not paid a dividend of 40 per cent., may be called upon for payment of their debt after 5 years from their discharge. If a claim be made by any creditor after this lapse of time, the bankrupt is obliged to pay whatever sum he is able for the benefit of his creditors. He must swear that he cannot pay any thing, or not above a certain sum, without depleting himself and his family of necessaries. Every 5 years this claim may be repeated. All careless bankrupts are disabled from holding offices of honour. The third class contains the "fraudulent" bankrupts, who are liable to be imprisoned, according to the extent of their frauds, for a limited period, or even for life, besides being rendered incapable of holding any office whatever. Should a bankrupt abscond, he is called upon by public advertisement to appear by a certain day, in default of which he is adjudged a fraudulent bankrupt, and his name is posted up on a black board on the Exchange.

General Remarks.—The trade of Hamburg is, in a great measure, passive; that is, it depends more on the varying wants and policy of others than on its own. There is nothing of such vital importance as the free navigation of the Elbe to the prosperity of Hamburg, and, indeed, of all the countries through which it flows. This, too, is a matter of paramount consequence as respects our interests; for the Elbe is the grand inlet by which British manufactures find their way into some of the richest and most extensive European countries. The principle that the navigation of the Elbe, the Rhine, the Weser, &c. should be quite free along their whole course, was distinctly laid down by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. But, no general tariff of duties being then established, this declaration has not had the practical effect that might have been expected. It is probable, however, that all impediments to the free navigation of the Elbe above Hamburg will be speedily removed. It is in an especial manner for the interest of Prussia, Saxony, Austria, and England, that these impediments should be abolished. So long, however, as the State duties are kept up, it would be folly to imagine that much attention should be paid to our remonstrances against other duties. If we cannot prevail on Hanover to emancipate our commerce from oppressive restrictions and burdens, we need hardly expect to succeed with any other power. Were the State duties and those in the upper parts of the Elbe wholly abolished, we have little doubt that the trade of Hamburg would be vastly increased; which, however advantageous to her, would be far more advantageous to the extensive countries of which she is the grand emporium.

In compiling this article we have made use of *Oddy's European Commerce*, pp. 412–439; the *Dictionnaire de Commerce (Ency. Méthodique)*, l. 44–53; the *Circulars of Brecken, Gosler and Co., Anderson, Hofer, and Co.*, and other eminent merchants; and of detailed statements transmitted to us from Hamburg founded on the works of Dr. Soetber, and C. and F. Norback, &c. From the circumstance of no official returns being published or obtainable at Hamburg, the returns of imports given above must not be regarded as quite accurate, though the errors they involve cannot be material.

HANSEATIC LEAGUE, an association of the principal cities in the north of Germany, Prussia, &c., for the better carrying on of commerce, and for their mutual safety and defence. This confederacy, so celebrated in the early history of modern Europe, contributed in no ordinary degree to introduce the blessings of civilisation and good government into the North. The extension and protection of commerce was, however, its main object; and hence a short account of it may not be deemed misplaced in a work of this description.

Origin and Progress of the Hanseatic League.—Hamburg, founded by Charlemagne in the ninth, and Lubeck, founded about the middle of the twelfth century, were the earliest members of the League. The distance between them not being very considerable, and being alike interested in the repression of those disorders to which most parts of Europe, and particularly the coast of the Baltic, were a prey in the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, they early formed an intimate political union, partly in the view of maintaining a safe intercourse by land with each other, and partly for the protection of navigation from the attacks of the pirates, with which every sea was at that time infested. There is no very distinct evidence as to the period when this alliance was consummated; some ascribe its origin to the year 1169, others to the year 1200, and others to the year 1241. But the most probable opinion seems to be, that it would grow up by slow degrees, and be perfected according as the advantage derivable from it became more obvious. Such was the origin of the Hanseatic League, so called from the old Teutonic word *hansa*, signifying an association or confederacy.

Adam of Bremen, who flourished in the eleventh century, is the earliest writer who has given any information with respect to the commerce of the countries lying round the Baltic. And from the errors into which he has fallen in describing the northern and eastern shores of that sea, it is evident they had been very little frequented and not at all known in his time. But from the beginning of the twelfth century, the progress of commerce and navigation in the North was exceedingly rapid. The countries which stretch along the bottom of the Baltic, from Holstein to Russia, and which had been occupied by barbarous tribes of Slavonic origin, were then subjugated by the kings of Denmark, the dukes of Saxony, and other princes. The greater part of the inhabitants being exterminated, their place was filled by German colonists, who founded the towns of Stralsund, Rostock, Wismar, &c. Prussia and Poland were afterwards subjugated by the Christian princes and the Knights of the Teutonic Order. So that, in a comparatively short period, the foundations of civilisation and the arts were laid in countries whose barbarism had ever remained impervious to the Roman power.

The cities that were established along the coast of the Baltic, and even in the interior of the countries bordering upon it, eagerly joined the Hanseatic confederation. They were indebted to the merchants of Lubeck for supplies of the commodities produced in more civilised countries, and they looked up to them for protection against the barbarians by whom they were surrounded. The progress of the League was in consequence singularly rapid. Previously to the end of the thirteenth century, it embraced every considerable city in all those vast countries extending from Livonia to Holland, and was a match for the most powerful monarchs.

The Hanseatic confederacy was at its highest degree of power and splendour during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It then comprised from 60 to 80 cities, which were distributed into 4 classes or circles. Lubeck was at the head of the first circle, and had under it Hamburg, Bremen, Rostock, Wismar, &c. Cologne was at the head of the second circle, with 29 towns under it. Brunswick was at the head of the third circle, consisting of 13 towns. Dantzic was at the head of the fourth circle, having under it 8 towns in its vicinity, besides several that were more remote. The supreme authority of the League was vested in the deputies of the different towns assembled in congress. In it they discussed all their measures; decided upon the sum that each city should contribute to the common fund; and upon the questions that arose between the confederacy and other powers, as well as those that frequently arose between the different members of the confederacy. The place for the meeting of congress was not fixed, but it was most frequently held at Lubeck, which was considered as the capital of the League, and there its archives were kept. Sometimes, however, congresses were held at Hamburg, Cologne, and other towns. They met once every 3 years, or oftener if occasion required. The letters of convocation specified the principal subjects which would most probably be brought under discussion. Any one might be chosen for a deputy; and the congress consisted not of merchants only, but also of clergymen, lawyers, artists, &c. When the deliberations were concluded, the decrees were formally communicated to the magistrates of the cities at the head of each circle, by whom they were subsequently communicated to those below them; and the most vigorous measures were adopted for carrying them into effect. One of the burgomasters of Lubeck presided at the meetings of congress; and during the recess the magistrates of that city had the sole, or at all events the principal, direction of the affairs of the League.

Besides the towns already mentioned, there were others that were denominated confederated cities, or allies. The latter neither contributed to the common fund of the League, nor sent deputies to congress; even the members were not all on the same footing in respect to privileges: and the internal commotions by which it was frequently agitated, partly originating in this cause, and partly in the discordant interests and conflicting pretensions of the different cities, materially impaired the power of the confederacy. But in despite of these disadvantages, the League succeeded for a lengthened period, not only in controlling its own refractory members, but in making itself respected and dreaded by others. It produced able generals and admirals, skilful politicians, and some of the most enterprising, successful, and wealthy merchants of modern times.

As the power of the confederated cities was increased and consolidated, they became more ambitious. Instead of limiting their efforts to the mere advancement of commerce and their own protection, they endeavoured to acquire the monopoly of the trade of the North, and to exercise the same sort of dominion over the Baltic that the Venetians exercised over the Adriatic. For this purpose they succeeded in obtaining, partly in return for loans of money, and partly by force, various privileges and immunities from the northern sovereigns, which secured to them almost the whole foreign commerce of Scandinavia, Denmark, Prussia, Poland, Russia, &c. They exclusively carried on the herring fishery of the Sound, at the same time that they endeavoured to

obstruct and hinder the navigation of foreign vessels in the Baltic. It should, however, be observed, that the immunities they enjoyed were mostly indispensable to the security of their commerce, in consequence of the barbarism that then prevailed; and notwithstanding their attempts at monopoly, there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that the progress of civilisation in the North was prodigiously accelerated by the influence and ascendancy of the Hanseatic cities. They repressed piracy by sea and robbery by land, which must have broken out again had their power been overthrown before civilisation was fully established; they accustomed the inhabitants to the principles, and set before them the example, of good government and subordination; they introduced amongst them conveniences and enjoyments unknown by their ancestors, or despised by them, and inspired them with a taste for literature and science; they did for the people round the Baltic, what the Phœnicians had done in remoter ages for those round the Mediterranean, and deserve, equally with them, to be placed in the first rank amongst the benefactors of mankind.

"In order," as has been justly observed, "to accomplish their purpose of rendering the Baltic a large field for the prosecution of commercial and industrious pursuits, it was necessary to instruct men, still barbarous, in the rudiments of industry, and to familiarise them in the principles of civilisation. These great principles were laid by the confederation, and at the close of the fifteenth century the Baltic and the neighbouring seas had, by its means, become frequented routes of communication between the North and the South. The people of the former were enabled to follow the progress of the latter in knowledge and industry. The forests of Sweden, Poland, &c. gave place to corn, hemp, and flax; the mines were wrought, and in return the produce and manufactures of the south were imported. Towns and villages were erected in Scandinavia, where huts only were before seen: the skins of the bear and the wolf were exchanged for woollens, linens, and silks: learning was introduced; and printing was hardly invented before it was practised in Denmark, Sweden, &c."—(*Carteau, Tableau de la Mer Baltique*, tom. ii. p. 175.)

The kings of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway were frequently engaged in hostilities with the Hanse towns. They regarded, and, it must be admitted, not without pretty good reason, the privileges acquired by the League, in their kingdoms, as so many usurpations. But their efforts to abolish these privileges served, for more than 2 centuries, only to augment and extend them.

"On the part of the League there was union, subordination, and money; whereas the half-savage Scandinavian monarchies were full of divisions, factions, and troubles; revolution was immediately followed by revolution, and feudal anarchy was at its height. There was another circumstance, not less important, in favour of the Hanseatic cities. The popular governments established amongst them possessed the respect and confidence of the inhabitants, and were able to direct the public energies for the good of the state. The astonishing prosperity of the confederated cities was not wholly the effect of commerce. To the undisciplined armies of the princes of the North—armies composed of vassals without attachment to their lords—the cities opposed, besides the inferior nobles, whose services they liberally rewarded, citizens accustomed to danger, and resolved to defend their liberties and property. Their military operations were combined and directed by a council composed of men of tried talents and experience, devoted to their country, responsible to their fellow citizens, and enjoying their confidence. It was chiefly, however, on their marine forces that the cities depended. They employed their ships indifferently in war or commerce, so that their naval armaments were fitted out at comparatively small expense. Exclusive, too, of these favourable circumstances, the fortifications of the principal cities were looked upon as impregnable; and as their commerce supplied them abundantly with all sorts of provisions, it need not excite our astonishment that Lubeck alone was able to carry on wars with the surrounding monarchs, and to terminate them with honour and advantage; and still less that the League should long have enjoyed a decided preponderance in the North."—(*L'Art de écrire les Dates*, 3^{me} partie, tom. viii. p. 204.)

The extirpation of piracy was one of the objects which had originally led to the formation of the League, and which it never ceased to prosecute. Owing, however, to the barbarism then so universally prevalent, and the countenance openly given by many princes and nobles to those engaged in this infamous profession, it was not possible wholly to root it out. But the vigorous efforts of the League to abate the nuisance, though not entirely successful, served to render the navigation of the North Sea and the Baltic comparatively secure, and were of signal advantage to commerce. Nor was this the only mode in which the power of the confederacy was directly employed to promote the common interests of mankind. Their exertions to protect shipwrecked mariners from the atrocities to which they had been subject, and to procure the restitution of shipwrecked property to its legitimate owners, though, most probably, like their exertions to repress piracy, a consequence of selfish considerations, were in no ordinary

degree meritorious; and contributed not less to the advancement of civilisation than to the security of navigation.*

Factories belonging to the League. — In order to facilitate and extend their commercial transactions, the League established various factories in foreign countries; the principal of which were at Novogorod in Russia, London, Bruges in the Netherlands, and Bergen in Norway.

Novogorod, situated at the confluence of the Volkof with the Inler Lake, was, for a lengthened period, the most renowned emporium in the north-eastern parts of Europe. In the beginning of the eleventh century, the inhabitants obtained considerable privileges that laid the foundation of their liberty and prosperity. Their sovereigns were at first subordinate to the grand dukes or czars of Russia; but as the city and the contiguous territory increased in population and wealth, they gradually usurped an almost absolute independency. The power of these sovereigns over their subjects seems, at the same time, to have been exceedingly limited; and, in effect, Novogorod ought rather to be considered as a republic under the jurisdiction of an elective magistrate, than as a state subject to a regular line of hereditary monarchs, possessed of extensive prerogatives. During the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, Novogorod formed the grand *entrepôt* between the countries to the east of Poland and the Hanseatic cities. Its fairs were frequented by an immense concourse of people from all the surrounding countries, as well as by numbers of merchants from the Hanse towns, who engrossed the greater part of its foreign commerce, and who furnished its markets with the manufactures and products of distant countries. Novogorod is said to have contained, during its most flourishing period, towards the middle of the 15th century, upwards of 400,000 souls. This, however, is most probably an exaggeration. But its dominions were then very extensive; and its wealth and power seemed so great and well established, and the city itself so impregnable, as to give rise to a proverb, Who can resist the Gods and great Novogorod? *Quis contra Deos et magnam Novogorodiam?* — (*Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, vol. ii. p. 80.)

But its power and prosperity were far from being so firmly established as its eulogists, and those who had only visited its fairs, appear to have supposed. In the latter part of the 15th century, Ivan Vassilievitch, czar of Russia, having secured his dominions against the inroads of the Tartars, and extended his empire by the conquest of some of the neighbouring principalities, asserted his right to the principality of Novogorod, and supported his pretensions by a formidable army. Had the inhabitants been animated by the spirit of unanimity and patriotism, they might have defied his efforts; but their dissensions facilitated their conquest, and rendered them an easy prey. Having entered the city at the head of his troops, Ivan received from the citizens the charter of their liberties, which they either wanted courage or inclination to defend, and carried off an enormous bell to Moscow, that has been long regarded with a sort of superstitious veneration as the palladium of the city. But notwithstanding the despotism to which Novogorod was subject, during the reigns of Ivan and his successors, it continued for a considerable period to be the largest as well as most commercial city in the Russian empire. The famous Richard Chancellour, who passed through Novogorod in 1554, in his way from the court of the czar, says, that "next unto Moscow, the city of Novogorod is reputed the chiefest of Russia; for although it be in majestic inferior to it, yet in greatness it goeth beyond it. It is the chiefest and greatest mart town of all Muscovy; and albeit the emperor's seat is not there, but at Moscow, yet the commodiousness of the river falling into the Gulf of Finland, whereby it is well frequented by merchants, makes it more famous than Moscow itself."

But the scourge of the destroyer soon after fell on this celebrated city. Ivan IV., having discovered, in 1570, a correspondence between some of the principal citizens and the King of Poland, relative to a surrender of the city into his hands, punished them in the most inhuman manner. The slaughter by which the bloodthirsty barbarian sought to satisfy his revenge was alike extensive and indiscriminating. The crime of a few citizens was made a pretext for the massacre of 25,000 or 30,000. Novogorod never recovered from this dreadful blow. It still, however, continued to be a place of considerable trade, until the foundation of Petersburg, which immediately became the seat of that commerce that had formerly centred at Novogorod. The degradation of this ill-fated city is now complete. It is at present an inconsiderable place, with a population of about 7,000 or 8,000; and is remarkable only for its history and antiquities.

The merchants of the Hanse towns, or Hansards, as they were then commonly termed, were established in London at a very early period, and their factory here was

* A series of resolutions were unanimously agreed to by the merchants frequenting the port of Wisby, one of the principal emporiums of the League, in 1287, providing for the restoration of shipwrecked property to its original owners, and threatening to eject from the "*consoliditate mercatorum*," any city that did not act conformably to the regulations laid down.

of considerable magnitude and importance. They enjoyed various privileges and immunities; they were permitted to govern themselves by their own laws and regulations; the custody of one of the gates of the city (Bishopsgate) was committed to their care; and the duties on various sorts of imported commodities were considerably reduced in their favour. These privileges necessarily excited the ill-will and animosity of the English merchants. The Hansards were every now and then accused of acting with bad faith; of introducing commodities as their own that were really the produce of others, in order to enable them to evade the duties with which they ought to have been charged; of capriciously extending the list of towns belonging to the association; and obstructing the commerce of the English in the Baltic. Efforts were continually making to bring these disputes to a termination; but as they really grew out of the privileges granted to and claimed by the Hansards, this was found to be impossible. The latter were exposed to many indignities; and their factory, which was situated in Thames Street, was not unfrequently attacked. The League exerted themselves vigorously in defence of their privileges; and having declared war against England, they succeeded in excluding our vessels from the Baltic, and acted with such energy, that Edward IV. was glad to come to an accommodation with them, on terms which were any thing but honourable to the English. In the treaty for this purpose, negotiated in 1474, the privileges of the merchants of the Hanse towns were renewed, and the king assigned to them, in absolute property, a large space of ground, with the buildings upon it, in Thames Street, denominated the Steel Yard, whence the Hanse merchants have been commonly denominated the Association of the Steel Yard; the property of their establishments at Boston and Lynn was also secured to them; the king engaged to allow no stranger to participate in their privileges; one of the articles bore that the Hanse merchants should be no longer subject to the Judges of the English Admiralty Court, but that a particular tribunal should be formed for the easy and speedy settlement of all disputes that might arise between them and the English; and it was further agreed that the particular privileges awarded to the Hanse merchants should be published as often as the latter judged proper, in all the sea-port towns of England, and such Englishmen as infringed upon them should be punished. In return for these concessions, the English acquired the liberty of freely trading in the Baltic, and especially in the port of Dantzic and in Prussia. In 1498, all direct commerce with the Netherlands being suspended, the trade fell into the hands of the Hanse merchants, whose commerce was in consequence very greatly extended. But, according as the spirit of commercial enterprise awakened in the nation, and as the benefits resulting from the prosecution of foreign trade came to be better known, the privileges of the Hanse merchants became more and more obnoxious. They were in consequence considerably modified in the reigns of Henry VII. and Henry VIII., and were at length wholly abolished in 1597. — (*Anderson's Hist. Com.* Anno 1474, &c.)

The different individuals belonging to the factory in London, as well as those belonging to the other factories of the League, lived together at a common table, and were enjoined to observe the strictest celibacy. The direction of the factory in London was intrusted to an alderman, 2 assessors, and nine councillors. The latter were sent by the cities forming the different classes into which the League was divided. The business of these functionaries was to devise means for extending and securing the privileges and commerce of the association; to watch over the operations of the merchants; and to adjust any disputes that might arise amongst the members of the confederacy, or between them and the English. The League endeavoured at all times to promote, as much as possible, the employment of their own ships. In pursuance of this object, they went so far, in 1447, as to forbid the importation of English merchandise into the confederated cities, except by their own vessels. But a regulation of this sort could not be carried into full effect; and was enforced or modified according as circumstances were favourable or adverse to the pretensions of the League. Its very existence was, however, an insult to the English nation; and the irritation produced by the occasional attempts to act upon it, contributed materially to the subversion of the privileges the Hanseatic merchants had acquired amongst us.

By means of their factory at Bergen, and of the privileges which had been either granted to or usurped by them, the League enjoyed for a lengthened period the monopoly of the commerce of Norway.

But the principal factory of the League was at Bruges in the Netherlands. Bruges became, at a very early period, one of the first commercial cities of Europe, and the centre of the most extensive trade carried on to the north of Italy. The art of navigation in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was so imperfect, that a voyage from Italy to the Baltic and back again could not be performed in a single season; and hence, for the sake of their mutual convenience, the Italian and Hanseatic merchants determined on establishing a magazine or storehouse of their respective products in some intermediate situation. Bruges was fixed upon for this purpose; a distinction

which it seems to have owed as much to the freedom enjoyed by the inhabitants, and the liberality of the government of the Low Countries, as to the convenience of its situation. In consequence of this preference, Bruges speedily rose to the very highest rank among commercial cities, and became a place of vast wealth. It was at once a staple for English wool, for the woollen and linen manufactures of the Netherlands, for the timber, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, tallow, corn, fish, ashes, &c. of the North; and for the spices and Indian commodities, as well as their domestic manufactures imported by the Italian merchants. The fairs of Bruges were the best frequented of any in Europe. Ludovico Guicciardini mentions, in his *Description of the Low Countries*, that, in the year 1518, no fewer than 5 Venetian galleasses, vessels of very considerable burden, arrived at Bruges in order to dispose of their cargoes at the fair. The Hanseatic merchants were the principal purchasers of Indian commodities; they disposed of them in the ports of the Baltic, or carried them up the great rivers into the heart of Germany. The vivifying effects of this commerce were every where felt; the regular intercourse opened between the nations in the north and south of Europe made them sensible of their mutual wants, and gave a wonderful stimulus to the spirit of industry. This was particularly the case with regard to the Netherlands. Manufactures of wool and flax had been established in that country as early as the age of Charlemagne; and the resort of foreigners to their markets, and the great additional vent that was thus opened for their manufactures, made them be carried on with a vigour and success that had been hitherto unknown. These circumstances, combined with the free spirit of their institutions, and the moderation of the government, so greatly promoted every elegant and useful art, that the Netherlands early became the most civilised, best cultivated, richest, and most populous country of Europe.

Decline of the Hanseatic League. — From the middle of the fifteenth century, the power of the confederacy, though still very formidable, began to decline. This was not owing to any misconduct on the part of its leaders, but to the progress of that improvement it had done so much to promote. The superiority enjoyed by the League resulted as much from the anarchy, confusion, and barbarism that prevailed throughout the kingdoms of the North, as from the good government and order that distinguished the towns. But a distinction of this sort could not be permanent. The civilisation which had been at first confined to the cities, gradually spread from them, as from so many centres, over the contiguous country. Feudal anarchy was every where superseded by a system of subordination; arts and industry were diffused and cultivated; and the authority of government was at length firmly established. This change not only rendered the princes, over whom the League had so frequently triumphed, superior to it in power; but the inhabitants of the countries amongst which the confederated cities were scattered, having learned to entertain a just sense of the advantages derivable from commerce and navigation, could not brook the superiority of the association, or bear to see its members in possession of immunities of which they were deprived: and in addition to these circumstances, which must speedily have occasioned the dissolution of the League, the interests of the different cities of which it consisted became daily more and more opposed to each other. Lubeck, Hamburg, Bremen, and the towns in their vicinity, were latterly the only ones that had any interest in its maintenance. The cities in Zealand and Holland joined it, chiefly because they would otherwise have been excluded from the commerce of the Baltic; and those of Prussia, Poland, and Russia did the same, because, had they not belonged to it, they would have been shut out from all intercourse with strangers. When, however, the Zealanders and Hollanders became sufficiently powerful at sea to be able to vindicate their right to the free navigation of the Baltic by force of arms, they immediately seceded from the League; and no sooner had the ships of the Dutch, the English, &c. begun to trade directly with the Polish and Prussian Hanse towns, than these nations also embraced the first opportunity of withdrawing from it. The fall of this great confederacy was really, therefore, a consequence of the improved state of society, and of the development of the commercial spirit in the different nations of Europe. It was most serviceable so long as those for whom its merchants acted as factors and carriers were too barbarous, too much occupied with other matters, or destitute of the necessary capital and skill, to act in these capacities for themselves. When they were in a situation to do this, the functions of the Hanseatic merchants ceased as a matter of course; their confederacy fell to pieces; and at the middle of the seventh century the cities of Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen were all that continued to acknowledge the authority of the League. Even to this day they preserve the shadow of its power; being acknowledged in the act for the establishment of the Germanic confederation, signed at Vienna, the 8th of June, 1815, as free Hanseatic cities. — (From an article in No. 13. of the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, contributed by the author of this work.)

HARBOUR, HAVEN, or PORT, a piece of water communicating with the sea, or with a navigable river or lake, having depth sufficient to float ships of considerable

burden, where there is convenient anchorage, and where ships may lie, load, and unload, screened from the winds, and without the reach of the tide.

Qualities of a good Harbour. — There is every variety in the form and quality of harbours. They are either natural or artificial; but, however formed, a good harbour should have sufficient depth of water to admit the largest ships at all times of the tide; it should be easy of access, without having too wide an entrance; the bottom should be clean and good; and ships should be able to lie close alongside quays or piers, that the expense and inconveniences of loading and unloading by means of lighters may be avoided. Ships lying in a harbour that is land-locked, and surrounded by high grounds or buildings, are, at once, without the reach of storms, tides, and currents; and may, in most cases, be easily protected from hostile attacks. Bar harbours are those that have bars or banks at their entrances, and do not, therefore, admit of the ingress or egress of large ships except at high water. These are most commonly river harbours; the sand and mud brought down by the stream, and driven back by the waves, naturally forming a bar or bank at their mouths.

Best British Harbours. — Good harbours are of essential importance to a maritime nation; and immense sums have been expended in all countries ambitious of naval or commercial greatness in their improvement and formation. Portsmouth, Milford Haven, and the Cove of Cork are the finest harbours in the British islands, being surpassed by very few, if any, in the world. Of these, Portsmouth is entitled to the pre-eminence. This admirable harbour is about as wide at its mouth as the Thames at Westminster Bridge, expanding within into a noble basin, almost sufficient to contain the whole navy of Great Britain. Its entrance is unobstructed by any bar or shallow; and it has, throughout, water adequate to float the largest men of war at the lowest tides. The anchorage ground is excellent, and it is entirely free from sunken rocks, sand banks, or any similar obstructions. The western side of the harbour is formed by the island of Portsea; and on its south-western extremity, at the entrance to the harbour, is situated the town of Portsmouth, and its large and important suburb Portsea. Here are docks and other establishments for the building, repair, and outfit of ships of war, constructed upon a very large scale, and furnished with every conveniency. The fortifications that protect this great naval *depôt* are superior, both as respects strength and extent, to any other in the kingdom. "Thus," to use the words of Dr. Campbell, "it appears that Portsmouth derives from nature all the prerogatives the most fertile wits and most intelligent judges could devise or desire; and that these have been well seconded by art, without consideration of expense, which, in national improvements, is little to be regarded. Add to all this the striking excellence of its situation, which is such as if Providence had expressly determined it for that use to which we see it applied, — the bridling the power of France, and, if I may so speak, the peculiar residence of Neptune." — (*Survey of Great Britain*, vol. i. p. 370.)

Portsmouth harbour has the additional and important advantage of opening into the celebrated road of Spithead, between the Hampshire coast and the Isle of Wight, forming a safe and convenient retreat for the largest fleets.

Milford Haven deeply indents the southern part of Pembrokeshire. It is of great extent, and has many subordinate bays, creeks, and roads. The water is deep, and the anchorage ground excellent; and being completely land-locked, ships lie as safely as if they were in dock.

Cork harbour has a striking resemblance to that of Portsmouth, but is of larger extent; it has, like it, a narrow entrance, leading into a capacious basin, affording a secure asylum for any number of ships.

Plymouth, which, after Portsmouth, is the principal naval *depôt* of England, has an admirable double harbour. The roadstead in Plymouth Sound has recently been much improved by the construction, at a vast expense, of a stupendous breakwater more than 1,700 yards in length. This artificial bulwark protects the ships lying inside from the effects of the heavy swell thrown into the Sound by southerly and south-easterly winds.

London stands at the head of the river ports of Great Britain. Considering the limited course of the Thames, there is, probably, no river that is navigable for large ships to so great a distance from sea, or whose mouth is less obstructed by banks. London is mainly indebted for the unrivalled magnitude of her commerce to her favourable situation on this noble river; which not only gives her all the advantages of an excellent port, accessible at all times to the largest ships, but renders her the emporium of the extensive, rich, and populous country comprised in the basin of the Thames.

The Mersey, now the second commercial river in the empire, is more incommoded by banks than the Thames; and is in all respects inferior, as a channel of navigation, to the latter. Still, however, it gives to Liverpool very great advantages; and the new channel that has recently been discovered in the banks promises to be of much importance in facilitating the access to and from the port. This channel will be found laid down in the map of Liverpool and its environs, attached to the article Docks in this work.

Bristol and Hull are both river ports. Owing to the extraordinary rise of the tide in the Bristol Channel, the former is accessible to the largest ships. The Humber is a good deal impeded by banks; but it also is navigable as far as Hull, by very large vessels. The Tyne admits vessels of very considerable burden as far as Newcastle, which, next to London, is the most important port, for the extent of the shipping belonging to it, of any in the empire.

The shallowness of the Clyde from Greenock up to Glasgow has been a serious drawback upon the commercial progress of the latter. Large sums have been expended in attempts to contract the course and to deepen the bed of the river; and they have been so far successful, that vessels of 400 tons burden may now (1843) ascend to the city, at high water. But there seems little probability of its ever becoming suitable for the navigation of ships of large burden.

Generally speaking, the harbours on the east coasts, both of Great Britain and Ireland, are, with the exception of the Thames, very inferior to those on their south and west coasts. Several harbours on the shores of Sussex, Kent, Lincoln, &c., that once admitted pretty large ships, are now completely choked up by sand. Large sums have been expended upon the ports of Yarmouth, Boston, Sunderland, Leith, Dundee, Aberdeen, &c. Dublin harbour being naturally bad, and obstructed by a bar, a new harbour has been formed, at a great expense, at Kingstown, without the bar, in deep water. There has also been a large outlay upon the harbours of Donaghadee, Portpatrick, &c.

For an account of the shipping belonging to the different ports of Great Britain and Ireland, the reader is referred to the article *SHIPS* in this work. The charges on account of Docks, Pilotage, &c. are specified under these articles.

Foreign Harbours and Ports. — The reader will find the principal foreign commercial harbours described in this work at considerable length under their respective titles. The principal French ports for the accommodation of men of war are Brest, Toulon, and Cherbourg. The latter has been very greatly improved by the construction of a gigantic breakwater, and the excavation of immense basins. Besides Cadiz, the principal ports for the Spanish navy are Ferrol and Carthagena. Cronstadt is the principal rendezvous of the Russian navy; Landscrona, of that of Sweden; and the Helder, of that of Holland.

Law of England as to Harbours. — The anchorage, &c. of ships was regulated by several statutes. But most of these regulations have been repealed, modified, or re-enacted, by the 54 Geo. 3. c. 149.

This act authorizes the Admiralty to provide for the moorings of his Majesty's ships; and prohibits any private ship from fastening thereto. It further authorizes the Admiralty to prohibit the *breaching* of any ship or vessel at any place or places on shore they may think fit; and to point out the places where private ships shall deposit the gunpowder they may have on board exceeding 5 lbs. — (§ 6.) It prohibits the use of any fire on board any ship or vessel that is being braced in any port, harbour, or haven, between the hours of 11 in the evening and 5 in the morning, from the 1st of October to the 31st of March inclusive; and between the hours of 11 in the evening and 4 in the morning from the 1st of April to the 30th of September inclusive; and it prohibits the melting or boiling of any pitch, tar, tallow, &c. within 250 yards of any of his Majesty's ships, or of his Majesty's dock-yards. By another section, the keeping of guns shotted, and the firing of the same in any port, is prohibited under a penalty of 5s. for every gun kept shotted, and 10s. for every gun discharged. — (§ 9.) The sweeping or creeping for anchors, &c. within the distance of 150 yards of any of his Majesty's ships of war, or of his Majesty's moorings, is prohibited under a penalty of 10l. for every offence. — (§ 10.) The loading and unloading of ballast is also regulated by this statute; but for the provisions with respect to it, see *BALLAST*.

HARDWARE (Ger. *Kurze waaren*; Du. *Yzerkransery*; Da. *Isekransery*; Sw. *Järnkram*; Fr. *Clinguillerie, Quincillerie*; It. *Chincaglio*; Sp. *Quinquilleria*; Port. *Quincalharia*; Rus. *Mjelotzchnue towurii*) includes every kind of goods manufactured from metals, comprising iron, brass, steel, and copper articles of all descriptions. Birmingham and Sheffield are the principal seats of the British hardware manufactures; and from these, immense quantities of knives, razors, scissars, gilt and plated ware, fire-arms, &c. are supplied, as well for exportation to most parts of the world, as for home consumption.

The hardware manufacture is one of the most important carried on in Great Britain; and from the abundance of iron, tin, and copper ores in this country, and our inexhaustible coal mines, it is one which seems to be established on a very secure foundation. The late Mr. Stevenson, in his elaborate and excellent article on the statistics of England, in the *Edinburgh Encyclopædia*, published in 1815, estimated the value of all the articles made of iron at 10,000,000l., and the persons employed in the trade at 200,000. Mr. Stevenson estimated the value of all the articles made of brass and copper at 3,000,000l., and the persons employed at 50,000; and he further estimated the value of steel, plated, and hardware articles, including toys, at 4,000,000l., and the persons employed at 70,000. So that, assuming these estimates to be nearly correct, the total value of the goods produced from different sorts of metals in England and Wales, in 1815, must have amounted to the sum of 17,000,000l., and the persons employed to 320,000.

There is reason to believe that this estimate, in so far, at least, as respects the value of

the manufacture, was at the time decidedly too high; but at this moment it is most probably within the mark. There has been a very extraordinary augmentation of the quantity of bar and pig iron produced within the last 15 years; and the rapid increase of Birmingham and Sheffield, as well as of the smaller seats of the hardware manufacture, shows that it has been increased in a corresponding proportion. We have been assured, by those well acquainted with most departments of the trade, that if to the iron and other hardware manufactures of England be added those of Scotland, their total aggregate value cannot now be reckoned at less than 17,500,000*l.* a year, affording *direct* employment, in the various departments of the trade, for at least 360,000 persons.

Fall of Prices. — Owing partly to the reduced cost of iron, but incomparably more to improvements in manufacturing, a very extraordinary fall has taken place in the price of most hardware articles during the last 12 or 15 years. In some articles the fall exceeds 80 per cent.; and there are but few in which it does not exceed 30 per cent. In consequence, the poorest individuals are now able to supply themselves with an infinite variety of commodious and useful articles, which, half a century ago, were either wholly unknown, or were too dear to be purchased by any but the richer classes. And those who reflect on the importance of the prevalence of habits of cleanliness and neatness will readily agree with us in thinking that the substitution of the convenient and beautiful hardware and earthenware household articles, that are now every where to be met with, for the wooden and horn articles used by our ancestors, has been in no ordinary degree advantageous. But it is not in this respect only that the cheapness and improvement of hardware is essential. Many of the most powerful and indispensable tools and instruments used by the labourer come under this description; and every one is aware how important it is that they should be at once cheap and efficient.

Account showing the Countries to which Brass and Copper Manufactures, Hardware and Cutlery, Iron and Steel, Wrought and Unwrought, Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery, & Watches, Tin & Pewter Ware and Tin Plates.

Countries.	Brass and Copper Manufactures.		Hardware and Cutlery.		Iron and Steel, Wrought and Unwrought.		Plate, Plated Ware, Jewellery, & Watches.	Tin & Pewter Ware and Tin Plates.
	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Declared Value.	Declared Value.
Russia	77	519	5,997	20,969	1,499	20,411	2,254	2,907
Sweden	356	1,283	2,554	3,730	182	2,035	273	408
Norway	15	439	1,040	4,503	489	5,599	50	598
Denmark	189	1,012	839	3,959	13,943	79,671	61	4,702
Prussia	92	435	964	5,769	36,215	136,568	11	1,338
Germany	9,417	49,185	18,157	99,419	33,791	203,201	9,466	17,443
Holland	39,404	172,175	6,917	38,339	36,246	240,884	11,825	10,766
Belgium	8,406	37,536	4,199	20,424	1,628	21,488	1,529	5,766
France	133,903	675,628	13,797	67,779	15,089	95,933	5,034	7,543
Portugal Proper	4,262	15,737	3,224	20,476	10,176	73,510	201	6,275
Azores	7	42	51	256	128	1,679	-	-
Madeira	2	98	61	330	132	1,231	-	230
Spain and the Balearic Islands	1,109	6,060	4,299	13,178	7,204	39,234	826	4,953
Canaries	18	94	54	89	139	1,531	17	3,167
Gibraltar	1,092	5,554	2,018	20,775	3,013	25,534	1,389	5,178
Italy and the Italian Islands	7,364	36,124	6,988	36,991	25,149	177,583	3,819	14,866
Malta	628	3,192	1,015	2,909	1,575	9,544	1,103	806
Ionian Islands	39	209	367	1,607	523	4,117	180	535
Morocco and Greek Islands	-	-	114	437	3,053	19,024	22	793
Turkey	-	-	1,113	6,738	2,665	41,607	6,700	5,663
Syria and Palestine	-	-	18	148	152	1,138	92	506
Egypt	222	1,265	1,040	5,345	357	3,599	373	875
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco	31	149	66	232	492	3,419	192	352
Western coast of Africa	2,914	16,152	4,031	19,378	1,999	17,864	1,025	418
Cape Verd Islands	216	1,297	1,983	9,636	1,584	17,431	5,196	1,591
Saint Helena	-	-	37	210	11	186	-	118
Ascension Island	-	-	1	4	9	78	-	12
Mauritius	375	1,970	1,660	8,082	1,813	20,287	1,266	2,669
E. India Comp. territories and Ceylon	69,638	339,992	18,185	104,796	36,936	317,127	46,317	15,136
Burma, Java, and other islands of the Indian sea	706	3,397	1,293	6,223	1,769	14,039	400	1,164
China	412	1,915	100	566	71	217	-	-
Philippine Islands	499	2,530	392	1,963	2,338	17,478	325	56
British settlements in Australia	1,329	6,292	13,699	60,126	6,847	24,427	26,255	2,942
New Zealand	68	319	658	3,456	465	7,148	390	1,293
British North American colonies	5,478	29,997	36,725	155,750	25,693	235,649	15,283	27,438
West Indies	5,263	31,209	16,398	68,542	5,163	106,896	21,069	12,849
Hawaii	44	342	446	1,230	107	4,416	80	294
Other and other foreign West Indian colonies	4,206	21,277	17,144	51,636	5,140	60,274	3,013	3,867
United States of America	20,995	104,123	124,444	584,400	79,186	626,572	34,079	217,220
Texas	2	15	114	533	39	653	161	-
Mexico	11	70	2,543	17,998	754	6,203	279	663
Guatemala	6	32	-	-	44	307	-	-
Columbia	64	325	1,379	3,596	221	2,375	338	220
Brazil	6,297	35,205	13,297	49,671	4,421	29,290	3,233	5,024
States of the Rio de la Plata	13	61	15,643	44,008	65	25,715	3,374	4,611
CHINA	400	2,009	3,785	19,342	682	7,940	6,329	800
Peru	297	1,915	4,198	19,304	699	7,639	497	1,272
Isle of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	3,316	16,149	2,721	10,795	2,466	22,138	6,295	784
Totals	327,247	1,523,744	353,318	1,623,961	360,873	2,277,278	214,126	290,631

Account of the real or declared Value of the different Articles of Hardware exported from Great Britain to Foreign Countries, during each of the 3 Years ended 5th of January, 1843.

	1840.	1841.	1842.
Brass and copper manufactures	£ 1,444,174	£ 1,523,615	£ 1,810,714
Hardware and cutlery	1,348,556	1,622,821	1,398,082
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	2,815,918	2,870,487	2,454,250
Mathematical and optical instruments	36,371	24,237	22,761
Plats, plated wares, jewellery, and watches	204,192	213,940	201,240
Tin and pewter wares (exclusive of unwrought tin)	360,015	390,476	363,504
Totals	£ 5,909,828	£ 6,645,576	£ 6,230,851

HARPOONER, the man that throws the harpoon in fishing for whales. By 35 Geo. 3. c. 92. § 34., no harpooner, line manager, or boat steerer, belonging to any ship or vessel fitted out for the Greenland or Southern whale fisheries, shall be impressed from the said service; but shall be privileged from being impressed so long as he shall belong to, and be employed on board, any ship or vessel whatever in the fisheries aforesaid.

HATS (Ger. *Hüte*; Du. *Hoeden*; Fr. *Chapeaux*; It. *Cappelli*; Sp. *Sombreros*; Rus. *Schlopia*), coverings for the head in very general use in Great Britain and many other countries, and known to every body. They are made of very various forms and sorts of material. They may, however, be divided into two great classes, viz. those felted or made of fur, wool, silk, &c., and those made of straw; the former being principally worn by men, and the latter by women.

I. HATS (FELTED, FUR, SILK, &c.). We possess little information as to the importance of hats as a distinct branch of manufacture, anterior to the reign of Elizabeth.

Felted hats are stated to have been worn by the Saxons, but the earliest notice we find of "beaver" hats, is in an inventory of the effects of Sir John Falstoffe in 1459. Philip Stubbs, in his "Anatomic of Abuses," published in 1555, mentions amongst other varieties, "beaver hats of 20, 30, and 40 shillings price being fetched from beyond the seas." In subsequent reigns, and particularly during the Commonwealth, the manufacture of both beaver and felted hats must have arrived at some importance; and not only the quality, but the shape of the hat, began to possess an influence in denoting the religious or political bias of the wearer, a characteristic of this article of dress, which obtains even at the present day. An interesting account of hats as worn at different periods of our history is given in the *Archæologia*, and the details of the manufacture, as it is now carried on, are given in a work called "Days in the Factories" (by Mr. George Dodd) published in the present year (1843).

Charles VII. of France wore a hat on his public entry into Rouen in 1449, which is believed to have been among the first manufactured in his kingdom. — (*Encyclopédie*, art. *Chapeaux*.)

The following details with respect to the species of hats manufactured, their value &c., furnished by a high practical authority, were published in the former edition of this work, and present a view of the trade as it existed in 1833; but material changes have since taken place in the manufacture.

1. *Stuff Hats*. — This term is applied to the trade only to the best description of hats, or to those brought to the highest perfection in London. Since the introduction of "waterproofing," it is found unnecessary to use so valuable a material as beaver in the foundation or frame-work of the best hats. Instead of it, fine seasoned backs of English cone wool, red Vigonia wool, Dutch carreated cone wool, and a small quantity of fine Saxony lambs' wool, are employed with equal advantage.

The covering, i. e. the "napping," of the best qualities is a mixture of *cheek* beaver, with white and brown stage beaver, or seasoned beaver, commonly called "wooms." Inferior stuffs are napped with mixtures of stage beaver, nutria, hares' wool, and musquash.

Of late years, hats have been much reduced in weight. This is principally owing to the new method of "waterproofing," which is effected in the bodies of the hats prior to their being napped. The elastic properties of the gums employed for this purpose, when dissolved in pure spirits of wine, give a body to the stuffs which allows a good deal of their weight to be dispensed with.

Not 20 years ago, 96 ounces of stuff were worked up into 1 dozen ordinary sized hats for gentlemen; at present, from 33 to 34 ounces only are required to complete the same quantity. It is proper to observe that the heavy duty on English spirits of wine is very injurious to the manufacture, as it causes the employment of inferior dissolvents, as naphtha and gas spirit, which injure the gums.

The manufacture of the best hats employs in London nearly 1,000 makers and finishers, besides giving employment to nearly 3,000 men in Gloucestershire and Derbyshire, in body-making and ruffing. The gross returns amount to about 640,000*l*.

2. *Plated Hats*. — Next to fine hats are those designated "plated," so called from the *plate*, or napping, being of a distinct and superior nature to the foundation or body. The latter is generally formed of Kent, Spanish, or Shropshire wool; while the former consists of a mixture of fine beaver, hares' wool, musquash, nutria, and English back wool. From the cheapness of coal and the purity of the water in Lancashire, Cheshire, and Staffordshire, the whole of the plating trade is engrossed by them. The men employed in the 3 counties, including apprentices, do not exceed 3,000. The total returns amount to about 1,080,000*l*, inclusive of bonnets and children's fancy beaver hats.

3. *Felt Hats and Cordies* are the coarsest species, being made wholly of Kent, Shropshire, and Italian wools. Cordies are distinguished by a fine covering of camel or goat hair. A very large trade was at one time carried on in these articles; but since the introduction of caps, and the manufacture of inferior plates, the returns have sunk from 1,000,000*l*. to scarcely 150,000*l*. I Atherstone, Rudgeley, Bristol, and Newcastle-under-Lime are the principal places where they are manufactured.

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Tin & Pewter Wares and Tin Plates.	Declared Value.
254	3,207
275	4,628
20	295
61	4,707
11	5,538
488	17,443
335	10,766
249	5,725
034	7,543
201	6,273
—	7
830	221
826	4,853
87	167
329	3,178
819	14,466
103	806
180	333
22	723
709	5,563
39	304
373	373
—	352
098	418
196	1,594
112	47
12	2,269
266	15,156
317	1,164
450	—
523	56
3,538	3,992
380	123
823	29,488
14,059	13,226
59	494
60	—
0,043	3,567
4,002	217,430
161	—
879	663
332	226
1,333	5,064
2,334	4,611
2,990	500
1,232	287
6,303	754
4,120	300,621

4. *Silk Hats*, made from silk, plush, or shag, manufactured in Coventry, Banbury, and Spitalfields, form, at present, a very important branch of the hat trade. Many thousand dozen are exported to Italy, Gibraltar, the Cape, Sydney, and Van Diemen's Land. Little progress was made in this article for the first quarter of a century after its invention, in consequence of the hard appearance which the cane and willow framework necessarily gave the hats; but now that beaver hat bodies have been used, as well as those of lawn and muslin, this difficulty has been overcome, and silk hats have as soft an outline and as great a variety of shapes as beaver hats. London alone produces nearly 150,000 dozen silk hats annually; and the quantity manufactured in Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Glasgow is estimated at upwards of 100,000 dozen more, making a total of above 250,000 dozen. The workmen are distinct from beaver hatters; and owing to the competition of labourers, the trade has advanced in a greater ratio. This branch gives employment to about 3,000 men.

5. *Machinery as applied to Hats*.—Mr. Williams, an American, introduced, a few years since, machinery for the bowing, breaking up, and felting wools for hats. The opposition of the journeyman body-makers, who refused to assist in the necessary process termed *basining*, caused it to be laid aside; it is now used only in the preparation of the shella required for silk hats, which were formerly made to a great extent in Ireland, but is now nearly extinct in that quarter.

At present (1843) *silk hats* of a low quality are more extensively worn; and public taste has set strongly in favour of a new and showy kind of silk hat, made on the French plan, and of a material imported from France at a duty of 30 per cent. This change, which has reduced the consumption of both *stuff* and *plated* hats, probably arose, so far as regards the lower sorts of silk hats, from motives of economy, induced by the recent state of the country, and in the higher qualities, chiefly from the influence of fashion. But though there be no reason to conclude that this change will be permanent, it has at present depressed the trade, especially in the finer branches.

Machinery is extensively used in the preparation of the materials for the manufacture, but has hitherto been found inapplicable to the manufacture itself, which, in some processes, requires a certain amount of mental dexterity. Particular districts are celebrated for particular branches of the trade, chiefly from special regard to the respective quality and cheapness of wages; but the increased competition of late had a tendency to concentrate the trade in a few localities rather than to disperse it, although it is still rather widely distributed. Hitherto the trade has not been exposed to foreign competition in the home market, but it has been of late years seriously affected in the Brazilian and West Indian markets.

Few beaver or ruffed hats meet the English manufacturer in the markets referred to; but chiefly hats of silk or felted horse's wool, of styles not adapted to our taste, though suited to that of Europe and South America. This competition originates most probably in the high duties paid by our manufacturers on the ingredients or materials used (spirits of wine paying 400 per cent. duty on its value, and silk 30 per cent.), or in the lower price of labour or materials, or in some other though not very appreciable causes.

English hats, though to a limited extent, and in an unfinished state, have been exported to the Continent. The hats chiefly exported to our colonies are silk, plated, and stuff hats, generally of a light description. Wool felts, which before the Emancipation Act were largely exported, have now materially decreased, the article termed "negro felts" being almost extinct.

This trade employs a great amount of labour, being supposed to furnish, at present, employment to not less than 30,000 persons. In the Lancashire district, the first and second manufacturing processes are chiefly carried on in the houses of the workmen. The labour of women and children is very largely employed in the trade generally, but less in the actual manufacture than in the preparation of the material; the proportions may be, in both departments, men 50 per cent., women 25 per cent., and children 25 per cent.; and their earnings, on a yearly average, are, men 25s., women 7s., and boys 6s. per week. The depression in the finer branches of the manufacture has doubtless affected the earnings of the workmen engaged in them, as a less amount of skill and labour is required in the production of low silk hats than in beavers, and the increased quantity produced in the lower descriptions has not furnished an amount of employment equivalent to the decrease in the higher branch. Combinations on the part of the workmen have occasionally arisen, sometimes from questions affecting wages and disputes arising out of the extirpation of trades' unions, but not to any considerable extent, from attempts to introduce machinery.

No data exist on which to form any certain estimate of the value of the different branches of the manufacture or of its aggregate amount. But it is estimated, on good grounds, that on *plated* goods, the cost of the raw material varies from 25 to 40 per cent., the labour and manufacturing expenses from 75 to 60 per cent.; on *stuff* hats, materials 40 to 50 per cent., labour, &c. 60 to 50 per cent.; silk hats, materials 50 per cent., labour, &c., 50 per cent. The proportions in value are estimated as under:—

Plated hats	-	-	-	-	-	£	1,200,000
Stuff do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	800,000
Silk do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	900,000
Wool felts	-	-	-	-	-	-	100,000
							£3,000,000

The duty on hats, which was formerly 10s. 6d. each, was reduced in 1842 to 2s. 6d. on fur and wool hats, and to 3s. 6d. on silk. In 1836, 53,894 dozen hats were exported, of the real or declared value of 148,262.; but in 1841, the exports only amounted to 22,522 dozen, of the value of 81,9837. The falling off has been principally in the exports to the West Indies and Brazil.

N.B.—The materials for these supplementary details have been kindly furnished by H. Christy, Esq., of the eminent house of Christy's and Co., London, who employ about 1500 persons in this manufacture; and by J. Harris, Esq., of the house of John Harris and Sons, Southwark, also most extensive manufacturers.

II. *HATS (STRAW)*.—It is most probable that the idea of *plaiting straws* was first suggested by the making of baskets of osiers and willow, alluded to by Virgil, in his *Pastorals*, as one of the pursuits of the agricultural population of Italy. We are ignorant of the period when the manufacture of straw plait first became of importance in that country; but it appears from Coryat's *Cruddities*, published in 1611, that "the most delicate strawen hats" were worn by both men and women in many places of Piedmont, "many of them having at least an hundred seams." It is evident, therefore, that the art of straw plaiting must have arrived at great perfection upwards of two centuries since; but it does not appear to have been followed in England for more than 70 or 80 years, as it is within the remembrance of some of the old inhabitants of the straw districts, now alive, that the wives and daughters of the farmers used to plait straw for making their own bonnets, before straw plaiting became established as a manufacture. In fact, the custom, among the women of England, of wearing bonnets, is comparatively modern: it is scarcely 100 years since "*hoods and pinners*" were generally worn, and it was

only the ladies of quality who wore small silk hats. — (See *Malcolm's Manners and Customs.*)

British Plait. — The straw plait district comprises the counties of Bedford, Hertford, and Buckingham, being the most favourable for the production of the wheat straw, which is the material chiefly used in England. The manufacture is also followed in some places in Essex and Suffolk, but very partially in other counties. During the late war, the importation of straw hats from Leghorn having in a great measure ceased, an extraordinary degree of encouragement was given to our domestic manufacture, and a proportionate degree of comfort was derived by the agricultural labourers in these places, by the wives and children of whom it was chiefly followed. This produced competition, and led to an improvement of the plait by *splitting* the straw, which had formerly been used entire — to a more careful selection of the straw itself — and also to improvements in finishing and bleaching. So successful was straw plaiting at this period, that it has been ascertained that women have earned as much as 22s. a week for their labour. (See *Evidence on the Poor Laws*, p. 277.) But the conclusion of the war, Leghorn hats again came into the market; and from their superiority in fineness, colour, and durability, they speedily acquired a preference over those of home manufacture, which consequently began to decline. Still the wages continued good, as the fashion of wearing Dunstable straw hats had gradually established itself over the country, which kept up the demand for them; and many individuals abandoned the working of pillow lace (another domestic manufacture peculiar to Bedford and Bucks, which in 1830 had fallen into decay, owing to the application of machinery), and betook themselves to straw plaiting, as a more profitable employment. With the view of improving the condition of the straw plaiters, who from their increased numbers were reduced to great distress, and enabling them to meet the foreign competition, the Society of Arts, in the years 1822 to 1827, held out premiums for the successful application of some of our native grasses or straw, other than the wheat straw in general use, and for improvements in plaiting, finishing, and bleaching. Many specimens were sent to the Society; and, amongst other candidates, Mr. Parry, of London, in 1822, received the large silver medal for an imitation and description of the mode of plaiting the Leghorn hats. Mr. Cobbett, also, who had contributed samples of plaiting, made from 15 different sorts of grass indigenous to England, received a similar reward. The publication of these contributions in the Society's *Transactions* has followed. The results to the British manufacture. Our native grasses were not found to promise much success, owing to the brittleness of their stems and the unevenness of their colour; but Mr. Parry's communication was of especial importance, as the straw of Tuscany speedily became an article of import. He immediately set the example, by teaching and employing about 70 women and children to plait the straw by the Italian method; and it is peculiarly gratifying to observe, as an evidence of its success, that while the importation of Leghorn hats has, during the last few years, been on the decline, the *unmanufactured material has been progressively increasing*. This increase, which is imported at a nominal duty of 1s. a cwt., is chiefly plaited in our straw districts; and the Tuscan plait, which formerly paid a duty of 17s. per lb., reduced to 7s. 6d. in 1842, has likewise been largely imported, and made up into bonnets in this country, as fine and as beautiful as the genuine Leghorn hat.

There is, perhaps, no manufacture more deserving of encouragement and sympathy than that of straw plait, as it is quite independent of machinery, and is a domestic and healthful employment, affording subsistence to great numbers of the families of agricultural labourers, who without this resource would be reduced to parish relief. By the united efforts of many benevolent individuals, numerous schools of industry have of late years been established in Bedfordshire, where the children of the poor are taught the art of plaiting and bonnet-making, and are afterwards, by means of premiums arising from bequests left for that purpose, offered as apprentices to the trade. This has had a tendency not only to increase the number of hands, but by proper instruction and superintendance, materially to improve the quality of the plait, and has doubtless promoted that successful competition with the Italian manufacture, which has been progressively increasing of late years. From 1830 to the autumn of 1834 the English trade was on the decline, but a demand from America arose at that period, and continued to improve until the fall of 1839, when it again subsided and prices became considerably reduced. This state of things continued until the fall of 1842 when a favourable reaction took place, and the trade has since gradually recovered, and is now in a healthy and brisk state. At present (1843) it is believed that an increase has taken place in the manufacture of straw bonnets of about *two-thirds*, and of straw plait, about *one-third*, compared with the quantity produced in 1833. From an estimate made at that period by an intelligent individual, intimately acquainted with the manufacture, it was considered that every score (or 20 yards) of plait, consumed a pound of straw in the state in which it is bought of the farmer; that at an average, every plaiter made 15 yards per diem; that in the counties of Hertford, Bedford, and Bucks, there were at an average 10,000 scores brought to market every day, to make which 15,300 persons (women and children) must be employed. In Essex and Suffolk, it was estimated that 2,000 scores were the daily produce, to make which about 3,000 persons were employed, and that about 4,000 persons more must have been employed to convert these quantities into bonnets. Including other places where the manufacture was carried on in England, it was supposed that there were in all about 30,000 persons engaged in it at that period. At the present time (including about 1,500 sewers in London) it is believed there cannot be less than from 40,000 to 50,000 persons engaged in the manufacture. The earnings of the plaiters vary from 3d. to 3s. 6d. per score, or from 1s. 6d. to 10s. per week; women averaging about 3s. 6d. and children 1s., while the sewers may earn from 3s. to 12s. weekly, or an average of about 8s. There are 7 descriptions of plait in general use; viz. *whole Dunstable* (the first introduced), plaited with 7 entire straws; *split straw*, introduced about 40 years since; *patent Dunstable*, or double 7, formed of 14 split straws, every 2 wetted and laid together, invented about 35 years since; *Deanshire*, formed of 7 split straws, invented about 20 years since; *Luton plait* (an imitation of whole Dunstable), formed of double 7, and coarser than patent Dunstable, invented about 20 years since; *Bedford Leghorn*, formed of 23 or double 11 straws, and plaited similarly to the Tuscan; and *Italian*, formed of 11 split straws. But there are other varieties in fancy straw plait, not generally in demand for the home trade, but chiefly required for exportation; such as the *bazook* of 7 straws; the *lance*, of 17 straws; the *rose*; of 23 straws; and *diamond*, of 23 straws. There were other plaits, called *rusic*, of 4 coars straws split, and *pearl*, of 4 small straws entire; but these are now superseded. The principal markets are Luton, Dunstable, and St. Alban's, where the plait is usually brought every morning by the plaiters, and bought by the dealers.

The plaits above mentioned are almost exclusively used for women's bonnets or children's hats; but in addition to these a considerable trade has sprung up during the last few years in the manufacture of hats for men and boys, made from *Brazilian grass*, large quantities of which are imported at a mere nominal duty. This grass was first brought into use about 35 years ago, by Mr. Fraser, a nurseryman residing at Chelsea, who took out a patent for hats made from that material, and sold them as high as two guineas each. This article is now much in demand amongst the peasantry, from its strong and durable character, as well as its lightness, and gives employment to upwards of 1,000 hands in the counties of Bedford and Herts, who earn from 3s. to 4s. weekly, being paid at the rate of 6d. to 1s. a hat, according to quality.

But the advantages which followed the publication, by the Society of Arts, of the various attempts to improve the trade, were not confined to England. Messrs. J. & A. Muir, of Greenock, (who subsequently sent specimens to the Society, and received 2 different medals) were in consequence attracted to the manufacture, and in 1823 established straw plaiting, in imitation of Leghorn, in the Orkney islands, with

singular success, adopting *rye* straw, dwarfed by being grown on poor land, as the material best suited for the purpose. In the estimation of persons largely employed in the trade in London, hats manufactured in Orkney were quite equal, both in colour and quality, to those of Leghorn; indeed, some of the plait sent to the Society was so fine, as to be capable of making a hat of 80 rows in the brim, being equal to 10 or 11 rows in an inch; but we learn with regret that the prevalence of mildew in that humid climate is so insidious to the bleaching of the straw, that it is equal to 50 per cent. on the value of the crop. To this circumstance, and to the low prices of Leghorn hats of late years, is to be ascribed the difficulty they have had, even with the protecting duty of 3*l.* 8*s.* per dozen, in withstanding the competition of the foreign manufacturer. In their letter to the Society of Arts, of the 10th of February, 1826, Messrs. Muhl stated,—"We had last year about 5 acres of straw, which will produce about 12,000 score of plait,—suppose on the average of 3 score to the hat, will be 4,000 hats, not more. We think them one hundredth part of the consumption of the United Kingdom. These 4,000 hats may give to the manufacturer, including his profit, 5,000*l.* For seed and straw 7 acres of land would be required, and in manufacturing 600 persons would be constantly employed all the year. We suppose the consumption of Leghorn hats to be not less than 500,000, in the United Kingdom; now, were these all made by our own industrious population, 700 acres of poor land would be required, and 50,000 persons would be employed in the manufacture."—(*Trans. of Soc. Arts.*) The plaiters in Orkney were earning, in 1827, only from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per week, and since that period the trade has declined; the hats from that quarter are not held in the same estimation, and plait making has much decreased owing to the Bedfordshire plaiters coming successfully into competition with them in price; time and practice having taught them to produce a greater number of yards per day.

Italian Plait.—In Italy, the manufacture is principally followed in the neighbourhood of Florence, Pisa, Siena, and the Val d'Arno, in the Duchy of Tuscany; and it is also established at Venice and other places. There, as in England, it is purely a domestic manufacture, and the produce collected by dealers who go round the country. There is no means of estimating, with any degree of accuracy, the number of individuals employed, as the government is entirely unprovided with statistical data, and is even opposed to any being collected. But supposing that England took out a third of the Italian manufacture (and it is believed that she does not), we would not appear that, even in the most prosperous times, more than 30,000 persons could have been engaged in it.

The description of straw used, which is cultivated solely for the purposes of the manufacture, and not for the grain, is the *tritium turgidum*, a variety of bearded wheat, which seems to differ in no respect from the spring wheat grown in the vale of Evesham and other parts of England.—(*Trans. of Soc. Arts.*) After undergoing a certain preparatory process, the upper parts of the stems (being first sorted by colour and thickness) are formed into a plait of generally 13 straws, which is afterwards knitted together at the edges into a circular shape called a "flat," or hat. The fineness of the flats is determined by the number of rows of plait which compose them (counting from the bottom of the crown to the edge of the brim), and their relative fineness ranges from about No. 20, to 60, being the rows contained in the breadth of the brim, which is generally 9 inches. They are afterwards assorted into 1st, 2d, and 3d qualities, which are determined by the colour and texture; the most faultless being denominated the 1st, while the most defective is described as the 3d quality. These qualities are much influenced by the season of the year in which the straw is plaited. Spring is the most favourable, not only for plaiting, but for bleaching and finishing. The dust and perspiration in summer, and the benumbed fingers of the workwomen in winter, when they are compelled to keep within their smoky huts, plaiting the cold and wet straw, are equally injurious to the colour of the hats, which no bleaching can improve. The flats are afterwards made up in cases of 10 or 20 dozen, assorted in progressive numbers or qualities, and the price of the middle or average number governs the whole. The *Brozzi* make bears the highest repute, and the *Sigma* is considered secondary; which names are given to the flats, from the districts where they are plaited. Florence is the principal market, and the demand is chiefly from England, France, Germany, and America; but the kinds mostly required are the lower numbers; and the very finest hats, particularly of late, being considered too expensive by the buyers.

The importation of Leghorn straw hats has very sensibly decreased of late years, owing to the change of fashion in favour of silk bonnets, and also the prevailing and increasing practice of English dealers, from the high duty on the manufactured article, importing the straw plait, and the straw itself for the purpose of being knitted, plaited, and finished in this country. In 1850, not less than 168,525 hats were entered for home consumption, while in 1840 the quantity fell to 8,344 only; and these, ladies' and boys' and infants' hats of the highest quality,—the only article now imported; while in straw plait the importation has fallen from 34,662 lbs. in 1838, to 13,95 lbs. in 1840, arising wholly from the improvements made by our own plaiters, in quality and quantity produced, attended with a consequent reduction in price. In Tuscan plait, the only descriptions now imported are the best qualities, in the production of which the Italians still possess an advantage over us, though it is believed to be of a temporary nature. Notwithstanding the alterations in our tariff, which reduced the duty on straw plait from 17*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per lb., it will be seen that the importation has only increased in a very trifling degree. The reduction in the importation of unmanufactured straw is to be attributed rather to the change of fashion which has prevailed of late years amongst the higher and middling classes in England, than to any other cause. For some time the gradual cessation in the English demand was attended with serious consequences to the poor straw plaiters of Tuscany, many of whom abandoned the trade and betook themselves to other occupations, particularly to the working of red woollen caps for Greece and Turkey; immense quantities of which have been exported from Leghorn since the peace. With the view of counteracting the ruinous effects which our high duty entailed on their trade, the merchants and dealers in Tuscany, interested in the straw hat manufacture, petitioned their government, in 1830, to remonstrate with ours on the subject; but this remonstrance, if ever made, was not likely, from the condition of our own population, to be very favourably received. It is, however, understood that of late years, since the English demand has fallen off, America has more than supplied our place in the Leghorn hat trade.

The following prices of different numbers and qualities of Leghorn hats were in 1834 considered such as would encourage the workpeople in Tuscany to produce good work, and are believed to be about the prices paid at the present time:—

	First Quality.		Second Quality.		Third Quality.	
	Tuscan.	English.	Tuscan.	English.	Tuscan.	English.
No. 30.	11 lire = 0 7 4	10 lire = 0 6 4	10 lire = 0 6 4	8 lire = 0 5 4	8 lire = 0 5 4	8 lire = 0 5 4
40.	21 — = 0 14 0	20 — = 0 13 4	20 — = 0 13 4	18 — = 0 12 0	18 — = 0 12 0	18 — = 0 12 0
45.	25 — = 0 17 4	25 — = 0 16 8	25 — = 0 16 8	25 — = 0 15 4	25 — = 0 15 4	25 — = 0 15 4

The straw for plaiting a No. 30, at 8 lire costs 2 lire, about 1*s.* 4*d.* English; for bleaching and finishing, 1 lira = 8*d.*; the estimated loss of rows in a mass, that either go up into the crown in the process of finishing and pressing, or that must be taken from the brim to reduce it to London measure (2½ inches), may be calculated at 1 lira more, or 8*d.* As it requires not less than 6 days for plaiting and knitting the hat, there therefore remains only 4 lire, or 2*s.* 4*d.* English, for a week's work! Cheap as subsistence may be in Tuscany, surely this miserable pittance is not calculated to excite the envy of the poorest labourer in England. But the earnings of the straw plaiters solely depend on their abilities and industry. The straw is furnished to them to be plaited and knitted, and they are paid according to the number or fineness of the hat. Some of the *Brozzi* women have earned as much as 4 lire, or about 2*s.* 6*d.*

to 8s per day, when hats were at the highest (calculating the time in which they can plait and knit a hat, at 6 days for a No. 30., and a fortnight for a No. 40.); and these chosen few still earn about 1s. 6d. per day; but taking the whole plaiters, the following, in the opinion of a house largely interested in the trade in Italy, may be considered as a fair calculation of the average wages which have been paid during the last 25 years. —

Women earned per diem, in the year 1817, 1s. 6d.; 1819-20, 8d.; 1823-5, 1s. 6d.; 1826-7, 6d.; 1828-32, 5d. Men, for ironing the hats, 4s. a day; ditto, for pressing and washing, 1s. 6d. to 2s.; women, for picking straw, 1s. to 1s. 2d.

The following statement shows the imports into England of Italian straw hats, straw plait, and unmanufactured straw, since 1820: —

Years.	Hats or Bonnets of Straw.				Plaiting of Straw.				Unmanufactured Straw.	
	Imported.	Exported.	Consumption.	Net Revenue.	Imported.	Exported.	Consumption.	Net Revenue.	Imported.	Net Revenue.
1820	No. 69,510	No. 2,952	No. 71,929	£ 20,466	Lbs. 2	Lbs. -	£ 2	£ -	Lbs. -	£ -
1821	141,412	2,633	100,069	21,537	44	50	22	22	-	-
1822	145,223	19,995	117,099	21,537	318	-	243	417	-	-
1823	189,928	10,850	181,651	25,260	4,654	-	3,054	2,979	-	-
1824	189,452	5,075	185,968	24,575	4,573	-	4,966	4,170	-	-
1825	327,040	9,281	297,447	69,047	14,037	-	11,850	10,073	699	82
1826	231,607	15,435	209,974	56,115	9,837	854	8,984	5,484	435	26
1827	255,855	19,551	235,640	74,408	3,948	707	3,947	2,560	787	79
1828	384,072	8,277	374,906	77,781	5,592	283	5,100	4,355	4,189	420
1829	160,128	67,050	93,078	27,771	4,832	487	3,510	2,854	5,050	605
1830	169,660	54,132	168,925	47,760	6,183	756	7,984	6,669	15,686	1,859
1831	84,066	34,290	93,017	26,641	23,254	9,102	16,450	15,497	22,314	2,272
1832	169,422	26,271	60,850	17,920	19,109	1,605	17,911	15,174	48,034	811
Unmanufact. Straw & Grass.										
	Im-ported.	Ex-ported.	Con-summation.	Net Rev.	Im-ported.	Ex-ported.	Con-summation.	Net Rev.	Im-ported.	Net Rev.
1833	85,793	56,093	21,469	6,008	22,223	2,801	22,079	16,768	1,987	14
1834	16,550	-	11,437	-	-	-	-	-	14	2,511
1835	7,472	13,117	2,938	1,041	27,483	7,656	21,211	26,519	3,801	158
1836	19,182	16,172	3,537	1,008	49,890	11,846	29,781	21,558	4,203	40
1837	26,228	19,714	5,684	1,639	30,862	7,546	25,968	30,003	2,711	80
1838	14,472	9,775	4,228	1,292	40,110	11,026	34,662	39,032	3,407	57
1839	41,386	42,045	3,779	1,073	44,941	14,011	29,240	18,960	3,550	13
1840	15,097	7,782	8,514	3,482	37,020	13,777	13,035	11,279	2,050	5
1841	22,553	7,174	9,666	2,971	15,700	14,781	7,971	7,103	4,078	140

The duty on hats of less than 22 inches in diameter was 3s. per dozen; above 22 inches, 6s. 16s. until 1847, when the duty was reduced to 8s. 6d. per lb.

The rate of duty, was 17s. per lb. until 1844, when it was reduced to 7s. 6d.

The duty from 1830 to 1825, was 20 per cent.; from 1825 to 1835, 10 per cent. It is now 1d. per cwt.

* The repayments in this year exceed the gross receipts.

We are indebted for this very excellent article on straw hats to Mr. Robert Slater, of Fore Street, London.

HAVANNAH, on HAVANA, on the north coast of the noble island of Cuba, of which it is the capital, the Morro castle being, according to Humboldt, in lat. 23° 8' 15" N., lon. 82° 22' 45" W. The population, exclusive of troops and strangers (which may amount to 25,000), is probably not far short of 135,000. In 1827, the resident population amounted to 94,023; viz. 46,621 whites, 8,215 free coloured, 15,347 free blacks, 1,010 coloured slaves, and 22,830 black slaves. The port of Havannah is the finest in the West Indies, or, perhaps, in the world. The entrance is narrow, but the water is deep, without bar or obstruction of any sort, and within it expands into a magnificent bay, capable of accommodating 1,000 large ships; vessels of the greatest draught of water coming close to the quays. The city lies along the entrance to, and on the west side of, the bay. The suburb Regla is on the opposite side. The Morro and Punta castles, the former on the east, and the latter on the west side of the entrance of the harbour, are strongly fortified, as is the entire city; the citadel is also a place of great strength; and fortifications have been erected on such of the neighbouring heights as command the city or port. The arsenal and dock-yard lie toward the western angle of the bay, to the south of the city. In the city the streets are narrow, inconvenient, and filthy; but in the suburbs, now as extensive as the city, they are wider and better laid out. Latterly, too, the police and cleanliness of all parts of the town have been materially improved.

From its position, which commands both inlets to the Gulph of Mexico, its great strength, and excellent harbour, Havannah is, in a political point of view, by far the most important maritime station in the West Indies. As a commercial city it also ranks in the first class; being, in this respect, second to none in the New World, New York only excepted. For a long period, Havannah engrossed almost the whole foreign trade of Cuba; but since the relaxation of the old colonial system, various ports, such, for instance, as Matanzas, that were hardly known 30 years ago, have become places of great commercial importance. The rapid extension of the commerce of Havannah is, therefore, entirely to be ascribed to the freedom it now enjoys, and to the great increase of wealth and population in the city, and generally throughout the island.

The advance of Cuba, during the last half century, has been very great; though not more, perhaps, than might have been expected, from its natural advantages, at least since its ports were freely opened to foreigners, in 1809. It is at once the largest and

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the best situated of the West India islands. It is about 605 miles in length; but its breadth from north to south nowhere exceeds 117 miles, and is in many places much less. The total area, exclusive of that of the numerous keys and islands attached to it, is about 89,000 square miles. The climate is, generally speaking, delightful; the refreshing sea breezes preventing the heat from becoming excessive, and fitting it for the growth of a vast variety of products. Hurricanes, which are so destructive in Jamaica and the Caribbean Islands, are here comparatively rare; and, when they do occur, far less violent. The soil is of very various qualities: there is a considerable extent of swampy marshes and rocks unfit for any sort of cultivation; but there is much soil that is very superior, and capable of affording the most luxuriant crops of sugar, coffee, maize, &c. The ancient policy of restricting trade to 2 or 3 ports, caused all the population to congregate in their vicinity, neglecting the rest of the island, and allowing some of the finest land and best situations for planting to remain unoccupied. But since a different and more liberal policy has been followed, population has begun to extend itself over all the most fertile districts, wherever they are to be met with. Still, however, only a very small proportion of the best land of the island is under cultivation, and its products and population might both be doubled or trebled with the utmost facility. The first regular census of Cuba was taken in 1775, when the whole resident population amounted to 170,370 souls. Since this period the increase has been as follows:—1791, 272,140; 1817, 551,998; and 1827, 704,867; exclusive of strangers. We subjoin a

Classification of the Population of Cuba according to the Censuses of 1775 and 1827

	1775.			1827.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Whites	54,555	40,864	95,419	168,638	142,228	310,866
Free mulattoes	10,081	9,086	19,167	36,028	29,456	65,484
Free blacks	5,939	5,629	11,568	23,984	25,079	49,063
Slaves	29,774	15,568	44,332	183,990	105,658	289,648
Total	99,309	71,061	170,370	403,905	300,383	704,288

Another census has recently been taken (in 1842), according to which the population is said to amount to 1,007,630, viz.: whites, 418,291; free coloured, 152,838; and slaves, 436,491. But it is alleged that both the slave and white population, especially the former, is underrated in this census, and that the population is little, if at all, short of 1,500,000 or 1,200,000.

The rapid increase of the slave population is principally to be ascribed to the continued importation of slaves from Africa. In some years, since the peace of 1815, as many as 40,000 blacks are believed to have been imported into Cuba in a single year. Spain had indeed agreed by treaty in 1820 to abolish the trade; but this treaty was little better than a dead letter, and it is only since 1835, when a more efficient treaty with Spain was entered into, that the trade has sustained any considerable diminution. But though it be no longer continued under the Spanish flag, it is continued, though to a much less extent, under other flags. At present, perhaps, about 10,000 negroes may be annually imported.—(See Blandin's clear and accurate *Account of the Trade in Slaves*, p. 285.)

But though it were to be wished, as well for the interests of the island as of humanity, that the further importation of slaves should be put a stop to, we are not of the number of those who think that it would be good policy rashly to agitate the question of the emancipation of slaves in Cuba. Their treatment in that island, as in all the other colonies of Spain, has always been singularly humane; and the results of their emancipation in Hayti and the British Islands have not been such as to offer much inducement to the authorities in Cuba to take up this difficult question. It may, no doubt, be forced on their consideration; and the emancipation of so many slaves in their immediate vicinity will materially increase the difficulty of maintaining the existing order of things. Under these circumstances, good policy would seem to suggest that timely provision should be made for the gradual bringing about of that emancipation which is, perhaps, inevitable, coupling it, if that be practicable, with some scheme for insuring the supply of some sort of compulsory labour.

Whatever opinion may be formed of slavery in the abstract, we believe it would not be difficult to show that it has contributed, in no ordinary degree, to the rapid advancement of Cuba. Industry will always be proportioned to the strength of the motives by which it is occasioned; and in countries like Cuba, of great natural fertility and under a tropical sun, where a half or more of the articles indispensable in Europe would be useless, it were absurd to imagine that the inhabitants, supposing them to be free, should exhibit the persevering industry of free labourers in the temperate zone. The *dolce far niente* is in such countries the *summum bonum*; and we believe it will be found that the extensive cultivation of sugar, and of most other commercial products within the tropics, depends on the maintenance of slavery, or of compulsory labour of one kind or other. The people of England may be but little affected, at least directly, by these considerations, and may, therefore, on the principle of *fiat justitia, ruat cælum*, think themselves warranted in using their influence to enforce the abolition of slavery wherever it exists. But to the Cubans, Brazilians, the inhabitants of the Southern States of America, and a host of others, this question is of the last importance. Were the slaves emancipated, not in law merely, but practically and in fact, the probability is that neither Cuba nor Brazil would, in a dozen years, export a single cwt. of sugar. Why should they do so any more than Hayti? The blacks, were they really emancipated, would be able to support themselves in that state in which they wish to live, without engaging in any thing like the severe labour of sugar planting; and under such circumstances it would be a contradiction to suppose they should engage in it. But it might be difficult, perhaps, to show what good consequences would result from such a change. It is at all events clear that the commerce of the world and the comforts of all civilised nations would be seriously impaired; and it is by no means clear that the condition of the blacks would be sensibly, or at all, improved.

Inasmuch as the blacks imported into Cuba since 1820 have been imported in opposition to the stipulations in the treaty of that date with this country, it has been proposed by some over zealous British functionaries to set on foot inquiries in the island for the purpose of emancipating the slaves so imported. And we regret to say that this extraordinary proposal appears to have received some countenance from the English government. It is clear, however, that, were it acted upon, it would be equivalent to the forcible emancipation of all the slaves in the island; for the fact of many thousands of their brethren having been set at liberty by foreign interference would effectually annihilate that prestige in favour of the whites which enables them to maintain the existing state of things. It is needless to say that this outrageous proposal has met with the most determined opposition from the authorities in Cuba, and

It is so wild and dangerous a character that it is to be hoped it may be forthwith abandoned. The suppression of the slave trade is an object to effect which we may laudably exert all our energies; but we have no right to intermeddle with the domestic policy of others, or to tell them whether they should or should not emancipate their slaves.

Besides slaves, the planters employ free labourers, mostly of an Indian mixed breed, who work for moderate wages. These, however, are little engaged in the fields, but in other branches of labour, and particularly in bringing sugar from the interior to the shipping ports.

The articles principally exported from Cuba are, sugar of the finest quality, coffee, copper ore, tobacco, bees' wax, honey, molasses, &c. Of these, the first is decidedly the most important. The following statements show the astonishing increase that has taken place in the exportation of this staple article.

Account of the Exportation of Sugar from Havannah, from 1786 to 1846.

From 1786 - 1799	-	-	68,150 boxes at 400 lbs.	=	27,260,000 lbs.
1799 - 1800	-	-	110,091	-	44,036,400
1800 - 1810	-	-	177,958	-	71,199,300
1810 - 1820	-	-	207,626	-	83,078,400
1820 - 1825	-	-	250,394	-	100,153,600
In 1826	-	-	271,013	-	108,405,500
1830	-	-	323,732	-	129,492,800
1838	-	-	358,256	-	143,302,400
1840	-	-	440,144	-	176,057,600
1842	-	-	441,878	-	176,751,200
1844	-	-	534,882	-	213,953,200
1845	-	-	267,958	-	107,088,000
1846	-	-	515,278	-	206,111,200

But Havannah having ceased to be the only port for the exportation of sugar, as it was in former times, we must advert to the trade of the other ports, to obtain a correct account of the whole exports of sugar. The following are the Custom-house returns for

Ports.	1841.		1846.	
	Boxes.	lbs.	Boxes.	lbs.
Exports of sugar from Havannah	-	440,144 = 176,057,600	515,278 =	206,111,200
Matanzas	-	273,759 = 109,507,900	295,184 =	118,078,600
Trinidad	-	70,959 = 28,383,600	-	26,260,000
St. Iago de Cuba	-	28,281 = 11,312,400	37,591 =	15,036,400
Total	812,192	324,878,600	913,703	365,481,200

But, exclusive of the above, considerable quantities of sugar are shipped from Cienfuegos, Nuevitas, Higuain, Mansanilla, and other ports; and a good deal is also shipped without entry or payment of duty. We may, therefore, safely add 10 per cent. to the above quantities for the omissions now referred to; which will make the total exports in 1846, 403,200,000 lbs. or 160,000 tons. The consumption of the island is estimated at about 30,000 tons, making its total produce about 200,000 tons. The falling off in the exports in 1845 was a consequence of the tremendous hurricane by which the island was visited in October, 1844. At present (1848) the produce of the island may be safely estimated at from 250,000 to 300,000 tons.

Next to sugar, coffee is the most valuable vegetable production of Cuba. Its cultivation increased, for a while, with unprecedented rapidity. In 1800, there were but 80 plantations in the island; in 1817, there were 779; and in 1827, there were no fewer than 2,067, of at least 40,000 trees each! In 1804, the exportation from Havannah was 1,250,000 lbs.; in 1809, it amounted to 8,000,000 lbs.; from 1815 to 1820, it averaged annually 16,186,200 lbs.; and in 1827 it amounted to 35,837,175 lbs. The exports from the other ports increased with equal rapidity. They amounted, in 1827, to 14,809,406 lbs.; making the total exportation for that year 50,646,581 lbs. But the consequent low price, or rather, perhaps, the greater attention paid to the culture of sugar, have checked the further increase of the coffee plantations. At an average of the years 1841 and 1842, the exports amounted, according to the Custom-house returns, to 1,567,723 arrobas, or 39,886,010 lbs.; but to this 10 per cent. must be added for deficient entries. They have since, however, declined still more rapidly.

Tobacco differs much in quality; but the cigars of Cuba are esteemed the finest in the world. (See Tobacco.) Formerly, the culture and sale of this important plant were monopolised by government; but since 1821, this monopoly has been wholly relinquished, there being no longer any restrictions either on the growth or sale of the article. The cultivator pays a duty, which, however, is to a great extent craved, of 1 per cent. *ad valorem* upon his crop. In consequence of the freedom thus given to the business, the culture and exportation of tobacco are both rapidly extending; so much so, that the value of the exports of cigars and tobacco amounted in 1841 to above 2 millions of dollars, being considerably more than the value of the exports of coffee. Molasses, rum (tafia), wax, and honey, are also largely produced and form important articles of trade.

The copper mines near Santiago and in other parts of the island, after having been abandoned for nearly a century, were reopened a few years ago, and are now worked, principally by Englishmen, with great vigour and success. The value of the exports of ore exceeds, at present, 4 millions of dollars, and is, next to sugar, the most valuable product of the island. It is mostly sent to England to be smelted.

The imports consist principally of corn, flour, and grain of all sorts, with provisions, principally from the United States, cotton goods from the latter and England; wines from Spain and France; linens from the Hanse towns and England; hardware and metals from England; silks from France and Spain; gold and silver from Mexico; spices, fruits, dye-stuffs, lumber, haberdashery, &c.

The following is an Account of the Trade of the U. Kingdom with Cuba in 1847.

Account of the Declared Values of the Principal Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the U. Kingdom, exported to Cuba in 1847.

Articles Exported.	Declared Value.	Articles exported.	Declared Value.
Apparel, Slops, and Haberdashery	5,796	Machinery and Mill Work	19,314
Brass and Copper Manufactures	24,551	Silk Manufactures	35,526
Coals, Cinders, and Culin	9,518	Tin and Pawter Wares, Tin unwrought and	-
Cotton Manufactures, including Cotton Yarn	234,674	Tin Plates	10,258
Earthenware of all sorts	36,244	Woolen Manufactures, including Yarn	31,314
Glass	7,802	Other Articles	31,057
Hardware and Cutlery	80,023	Aggregate Value of British and Irish Pro-	-
Iron and Steel wrought and unwrought	144,371	duce and Manufactures	896,540
Linen Manufactures, including Linen Yarn	250,722		

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles imported into the U. Kingdom from Cuba in 1847, with the Quantities of these Articles entered for Home Consumption, and the Duties chargeable on the same.

Articles.	Quantities imported.	Quantities (of Articles subject to Duty) entered for Consump.	Rates of Duty chargeable.
Cedar Wood tons	1,751	-	Free from 19 March, 1845.
Cuchinales, Ursalita and Dust lbs.	4,536	-	-
Coffee	261,490	66,656	0 0 6½ per lb.
Copper Ore tons	23,856	23,897	5 8 0 to 10 per ton of metal.
Castile	1,878	-	0 6 0
Honey cwt.	4,405	750	Free from 19 March, 1845.
Indigo lbs.	85,841	-	0 10 8 per cwt.
Logwood tons	798	-	Free from 19 March, 1845.
Mahogany	4,133	-	-
Molasses cwt.	191,119	66,187	0 7 10 to 5 July 1847, and 7s. 6d. from 5 July 1847.
Rum (including overproof) } gallons	305,867	13	0 10 0 per gal. from 19 March, 1845.
Sugar, unrefined } cwt.	975,420	320,143	Not equal to white clayed, 11. 1s. per cwt. to 5 July 1847. Do. do. do. 17. 1s. do. from 5 July 1847. Equal to white clayed, 11. 1s. do. to 5 July 1847. Do. do. do. 11. 1s. do. from 5 July 1847. Equal to double refined, 12. 11s. 6d. per cwt. to 5 July 1847. Do. do. do. 11. 10s. do. from 5 July 1847. Other refined, 11. 1s. do. to 5 July 1847. Do. do. do. 11. 6s. 6d. do. from 5 July 1847.
Sugar, refined	39,194	16,073	-
Tobacco, unmanufactured . lbs.	540,856	234,987	0 3 1½ per lb.
Tobacco, manufactured, or Cigars	304,513	165,048	0 9 5½ -
Wool, Cotton	11,864	-	Free from 19 March, 1845.

The imports of this and of mahogany and other woods have rapidly increased, in consequence of the abolition of the duty. The changes in the sugar duties in this country have been followed by an extraordinary increase in the quantity of Cuban sugar entered for consumption. Formerly, indeed, it may be said to have been wholly excluded, the entries in 1845, having

been only 20 cwt. Provided nothing occur to interrupt the tranquillity of the island and the supply of slave labour, the probability is that Cuba will, at no very remote period, furnish us with very large quantities of sugar. Her capacities of production exceed at present (1846) those of every other colony in the West Indies.

We subjoin some statements respecting the trade of Cuba in 1840, 1841, and 1842, derived from the *Balanza general de Comercio de la Isla de Cuba*, for these years, published in the Havannah.

Imports in 1841.

In Spanish vessels :-	Doll.
Merchandise from Spain	3,841,292
Merchandise from foreign countries	6,626,719
In foreign vessels :-	
Merchandise from foreign countries	5,517,482
Merchandise from foreign countries stored in the bonding warehouses	3,259,485
Total	25,041,410
The imports amounted in 1840 to	24,700,190
Increase in 1841	341,220

The imports consisted of the following articles :-

Wines	2,429,875
Fresh and salt meat, pork, jerked beef, &c.	3,180,265
Spices	65,068
Fruits	247,275
Strain	4,025,616
Butter, lard, cheese, &c.	1,437,663
Fish, viz. herrings, cod, &c.	454,480
Cotton goods	1,991,040
Woolens	18,275
Linens	1,913,480
Hilks	294,500
Leather	384,695
Woods, viz. deals, casks, hoops, &c.	1,379,155
Metals	1,175,595
Other articles	6,916,800
Total	25,041,410

Of the 3,034 vessels that entered the harbours of Cuba in 1841, 1,053 were Spanish, and 1,981 foreign. The duties levied by the Custom-house office of Cuba in 1844, on the merchandise imported, exported, &c., amounted to 7,161,392 doll., and in 1845 to 5,970,748 doll.

Account of the principal Exports of Native Produce from Cuba in 1842, distinguishing the Countries to which they were sent and the Value sent to each.

Countries.	Rum.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Molasses.	Tobacco.	Copper Ore.
Spain	\$ 67,495	\$ 1,697,007	\$ 191,595	\$ 1,392	\$ 417,877	
United States of America	6,760	3,374,048	1,162,857	716,551	991,041	\$ 87,068
France	8,373	407,493	795,595	1,543	370,361	
Ireland Britain	97,035	3,569,179	315,455	15,848	378,500	4,699,330
Holland	540	345,701	25,254	-	101,510	
Belgium	190	206,636	3,013	-	4,541	
Germany	75,210	1,299,045	404,595	268	938,943	
Other places	20,046	779,200	91,535	9,549	118,691	
Total	\$ 198,551	\$ 11,457,609	\$ 2,898,969	\$ 744,608	\$ 2,311,572	\$ 4,081,408

Spain and the United States have hitherto enjoyed by far the largest share of the trade of Cuba. Of the total value of the imports, amounting in 1842 to 24,637,527 doll., those from the U. Kingdom were estimated at only 3,113,698 doll., while those from the United States were estimated at 6,200,221 doll. Indeed the total value of our exports to Cuba in 1842 amounted to only 565,233, and though they happened in that year to be unusually low, their average value did not formerly exceed 600,000, or 650,000. This limited amount of our trade was wholly a consequence of our loading the sugar, tobacco, cigars, coffee, wood, &c., of Cuba with prohibitory duties, so that its inhabitants had no means of paying for our products, except at second hand through Hamburg, Havre, and other places indebted to them. But the late alterations in our tariff have already, as previously seen, effected a material change in this respect; and the presumption is that our trade with this fine island will continue progressively to increase. During the year ended the 30th of June, 1847, the United States imported from Cuba produce worth 12,394,867 doll., while the exports from the United States to Cuba amounted to only 6,577,706 doll., the balance being paid by bills on Hamburg, Holland, and other places indebted to America. — (*Papers printed by order of Congress, 14th December, 1847.*)

Exports in 1841.

In Spanish vessels :-	Doll.
Merchandise shipped for Spain	3,434,000
Merchandise for foreign countries	3,409,540
In foreign vessels :-	
Merchandise shipped for foreign countries	18,811,490
Shipped from the bonding warehouses	2,848,809
Total	28,704,818
The exports amounted in 1840 to	29,911,780
Increase in 1841	838,830

The number of vessels that entered inwards and cleared from the harbours of the island of Cuba, in 1841, was 6,156, whereof Engaged in the trade with Spain 3,280 The United States 2,794 England 719 France 118 Belgium 11 The Hanse Towns 199

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Monies.—One dollar = 8 reales pinto = 80 reales valon. One double-coin = 17 dollars. The merchants reckon 444 dollars = 1000, or 1 dollar = 4r. 6d. very nearly. There is an export duty of 1 per cent. on gold, and 3 per cent. on silver. It is a curious fact that no description of paper money has ever circulated in Cuba.

Weights and Measures.—One quintal = 100 lbs., or 4 arrobas of 25 lbs. 100 lbs. Spanish = 101 1/2 lbs. English, or 46 1/2 kilograms. 108 varas = 100 yards; 140 varas = 100 French ails or 91 varas = 100 Brabant ails; 108 varas = 100 Hamburg ails. 1 fanega = 3 bushels nearly, or 100 lbs. Spanish. An arroba of wine or spirits = 1 English wine gallons nearly. A cahiz of sugar = 1300 lbs. A bag of coffee = 150 lbs.; a hophoad of molasses = 110 gallons; a pipe of tads or rum = 120 gallons; and a bale of tobacco = 100 lbs.

The usual Commission charged by merchants on the sale of goods is 5 per cent., with a *del credere* of 2 1/2 per cent. sometimes, are on credit and guaranteed, and a further commission of 2 1/2 per cent. for the returns, whether in bills or produce. On purchases the commission is 2 1/2 per cent., and a further 2 1/2 per cent. if drawn for in bills of exchange. For procuring freight 2 per cent. is charged, and 1/2 for insuring the amount. For advances of money the rate is 5 per cent., which, no other commission is chargeable. Bill business is done at various rates, from 1 to 2 1/2 per cent. according to its magnitude. These are the rates of the foreign houses; those of the Spanish and Creole merchants are generally higher. There is no obstacle whatever to the establishment of foreigners as merchants in the island. The law says that those who are naturalized in Spain may freely carry on trade with the same rights and obligations as the natives of the kingdom, and that those who have not been naturalized, or have a legal domicile, may still carry on trade under regulations stipulated in the treaties in force between the respective governments; and in default of such conventional regulations, the same privileges are to be conceded as those enjoyed by the natives of the country in the country of which such foreigners are natives. In practice, this last condition is not much attended to; as foreigners are allowed to establish themselves as merchants without any inquiry as to the rights and privileges enjoyed by Spaniards in the country they come from. As to manufacturers and mechanics, the only difficulty that can arise regards their right of entering the island every stranger is required to find security in the following manner:—“I am responsible and become security in every case for the person and conduct of A. B., arrived from C. in the ship D., binding myself to present him if called on by the government, and to conduct him at my expense to any place that may be designated.” This security is easily obtained, and, in fact, encouragement is given to mechanics and white people of all classes to settle in the island. After landing it is only necessary to apply for a letter of domicile, and to present a certificate that the applicant is of a respectable character, and professes the Roman catholic religion. Free coloured people, however, by a royal order of the 12th March, 1837, are prohibited from landing unless they possess whittaker; and so rigorously is this order enforced, that such persons, though acting as seamen, are, on their arrival, taken out of the vessels in which they have come, and are kept in custody until their departure, when they are compelled to proceed again on board, and leave the island. The business of a broker is exercised by a royal licence, and no foreigner is eligible to the office unless naturalized in the form prescribed by law. In every commercial town a certain number only is allowed, corresponding with the population and trade of the place. In the great cities, the business of merchant is often combined with that of planter; and sometimes, the importing merchant keeps a shop or store, where he sells his goods by retail. The foreign merchants are generally regarded as transient visitors, who see them for the purpose of accumulating such a fortune as may enable them to live with some degree of comfort in their own country. As a class they are not considered wealthy, but they are almost all in the full enjoyment of credit. The mercantile capital, as well as the proprietary wealth of the island, may be said to be concentrated in the hands of the Creoles. When the emigrants from the Peninsula make fortunes in the island, they seldom think of returning to Europe.

Customs Duties in 1818.—The tariff of Cuba, like that of Spain, is exceedingly complex, being divided into a great many classes, and embracing a vast number of articles, many of which are of very trifling importance. All, or almost all, the articles of import are valued in the tariff at certain fixed rates, upon which the duties are charged at so much per cent. Hence, when the fixed or tariff prices exceed the real prices of the goods the duties are proportionally increased; and conversely when the tariff prices are under the real prices. The duties vary from

per 25 to 27 1/2 on goods of foreign vessels from foreign ports; 25 to 19 1/2 on foreign goods by Spanish vessels, and 17 1/2 to 14 1/2 on Spanish produce from Spain by foreign vessels; 7 1/2 on Spanish produce by Spanish vessels, and only 1/2 if Rice. A balance duty of 1 per cent. is added to all but the 7 1/2 and 2 1/2 per cent. duties.

The principal exception to the above rule is in the case of flour, which pays a fixed duty of 2-00 Dollars per bushel per Spanish ship from Spain. 8-75 - - - per Foreign ship from Spain. 8-50 - - - per Spanish ship from other parts. 8-00 - - - per Foreign ship.

Had Spain been able to supply Cuba with flour as cheaply as other countries this high discriminating duty in favour of Spanish flour would have been of comparatively little importance. But such is not the case. Cuba depends almost wholly on her supply of flour from the U. States, principally from New Orleans; so that the discriminating duty is the most oppressive regulation that can be imagined. We are surprised it is submitted to. Flour-bags, furnace-mouths, grate-bars, crown-wheels, shafts, rollers, sugar-bowls, skimmers, steam-engines, and other such articles for sugar estates is also made at stations, and asses, are exported from duty.

Special concessions have also been made in favour of the Gas Company, &c., which pays only 7 1/2 per cent. on imports.

We subjoin a note of the duties on the principal articles of export.

Articles.	Denomination.	Foreign Ships.	Spanish Ships.
Cigars	per Milla.	10	10 to 8
Cocoa	per Arroba.	10	10 to 8
Coffee	per Cibi.	20	12
Copper ore	per Arroba.	10	10 to 8
Hides in the hair	per Cma.	11	5 to 6
Honey	per Hhd.	1-37	75 to 7
Molasses	per Free.	1-37	Free.
Rum	per Pipe.	57	27 1/2
Sugar	per Ho.	1-50	75
Tobacco	per Cibi.	1-50	75
Wax, white	per Arr.	35	18 to 18
Yellow	per Arr.	22	12 to 9

Tonnage Duties on foreign ships, 12 rs. per ton; on Spanish ships, 5 rs. per ton.

Port Charges on a Vessel of 240 Tons, arriving in the Havannah in Ballast, and taking away a Cargo in 1818.

	If Foreign.	If Spanish.
Captain of port in and out	Doll. Cts. 6 0	Doll. Cts. 8 0
Health of crew, 1 real per ton	10 0	5 0
Interfer to take	2 0	2 0
Transit of manifest	2 0	2 0
Boiler's fee	2 0	2 0
Governor's fee	2 0	2 0
Moro's fee	4 0	4 0
Tonnage duty, 12 and 1 per cent.	568 50	151 50
Mod in wharf, 12 rs. and 1 per cent.	62 50	62 50
Wharfage and stage hire, 10 rs. per 100 tons per day	100 0	100 0
Custom-house visit on entry	25 0	34 0
Annotation fee, stamp paper, &c. about	8 0	8 0
Bill of health and certificate	160 0	160 0
Lighterage, 10 cts. a box, say on 1,000 boxes	4 0	10 0
Consul's fees, about	10 0	10 0
Pilotage (if pilot be called)	6 0	5 0
Free wharf discharging ballast, 3 per day, say 5 days	128 0	128 0
Hoisting and stowing cargo, 8 cts. per box	8 90	8 90
Stamps and boat hire	800 0	574 90
Commission for advice and trouble, 1/2	800 0	14 37
	820 0	589 27

If the vessel arrive and sail in ballast, or without breaking bulk, she avoids the health visit, Moro light, tonnage, and mud engine dues; and if she brings cargo, the transference of manifest is more, according to its length, wharfage dues are incurred for the time of discharge, and the tidewaters charge 85s for each day. Vessels taking entire cargoes of molasses pay no tonnage duty.

Shipping Charges in Havannah, of Sugar in Boxes, including Cost and Commission.

1,600 boxes, weighing gross	Ar. lbs. 30,653 30
Off cart-hooks, 10 lbs.	640 0
	30,013 20
Tare, 47 lb. per box	27,005 20 at 8 cts.
Net	27,005 20 at 8 cts.
	Doll. Rl. 27,005 6
	Boxes at 45 - 5,900 0
	24,205 6

Ar. lbs. 750,345
Add 1 1/2 per cent. 11,255 Spanish heavier

Gross weight, cart-hooks off - 30,013 20
Or Spanish lbs. 750,345
Add 1 1/2 per cent. 11,255 Spanish heavier

Gross weight, 761,600 lbs. or 6,800 cwt. Tare, about 80 lbs. per box, or 800 cwt.; making net 6,000 cwt.

Customs Regulations.—Every ship-master is bound to have on his arrival ready for delivery to the boarding officers of the revenue, a manifest, containing a detailed statement of his cargo and ship stores, and in the act of handing it over, has to write thereon an oath that he has no other cargo on board, and the board when he delivers it, taking care that it be countersigned by the boarding officers. Within 12 hours, which begin to count from the moment he delivers such manifest until 7

which in the evening, and again from 6 o'clock in the morning until the moment the said 14 hours elapse, he can make any alteration by presenting a separate note in which he specifies the errors he may have committed in the manifest. Every expiration of these 14 hours no alteration will be permitted. Goods not manifested will be confiscated without remedy; and if their value should not exceed 1,000 dollars, the master of the vessel will be liable to pay a penalty of double the amount of such non-manifested goods; if they exceed that sum, and belong to the master or consignee, he is liable to the vessel, freight, and other emoluments will be forfeited to the revenue. Goods over manifested will pay duties as if they were on board. Goods not manifested, but claimed in time by a consignee, will be delivered up to the latter, but the master in this case will be subject to a fine equal in amount to that of such goods. Goods of other non-manifested by other master or consignee, are liable to a duty of 50 cent. Goods falling short of the quantity manifested, when landed, and not being included in any invoice of consignee, will render the master liable to a penalty

of 200 dollars for each package or filling short. Every master must present himself, within 14 hours after his arrival, at the Custom-house, in order to swear to his manifest, in neglect of which he is liable to a fine of 1,000 dollars. Every consignee is obliged to present a detailed note of goods within 48 hours after the arrival of a vessel; if not, such goods are liable to 50 cent. extra duty (the same is the case in 1811). The manifest must contain a statement of the number of pieces, contents, quantity, weight, and measure. Every vessel is required to bring a bill of health certified by the British consul at the port of her departure, or that nearest to it, otherwise they are placed in quarantine.

In compiling this article, we have consulted Humboldt's *Grand Voyage aux Indes*; Cuba, Paris, 1820; and the Supplement (*Tableau statistique*) of Barbo, Paris, 1831; Turnbull's (*Atlas*, Lond., 1847) *Geog. Dict. art. Cuba and Havannah*; the *Bulletin* (Geneva) for the year 1821; private communications from Cuba; and papers laid before the *Fr. Indian Committee* in 1848.

HAVRE, or HAVRE DE GRACE, a commercial and strongly fortified sea-port town of France, on the English channel, near the mouth of the Seine, on its northern bank, lat. 49° 29' 14" N., lon. 0° 6' 38" E. Population, in 1842, 26,433, to which may be added 5,000 more for the crews of the shipping constantly in the port. It was a saying of Napoleon that "*Paris, Rouen, Le Havre, ne forment qu'une seule ville, dont la Seine est la grande rue.*" Havre being, in fact, the sea-port of Paris, most of the colonial and foreign products destined for its consumption are imported thither. Nearly double the quantity of goods, estimated by weight, is annually imported at Marseilles; but the total value of the imports at Havre amounts very nearly to that of those at the former port. The principal imports are cotton, sugar, coffee, linen thread and linen goods, rice, indigo, tobacco, hides, dyewoods, spices, drugs, timber, iron, tin, dried fish, &c.: grain and flour are sometimes imported and sometimes exported. The principal exports are silks, woollen and cotton stuffs, lace, gloves and shoes, trinkets, perfumery, champagne and other wines, brandy, glass, furniture, books, &c.

The Harbour, which is the best and most accessible on this part of the French coast, consists of 3 basins separated from each other and from the outer port by 4 locks, and capable of accommodating about 450 ships. A large body of water being retained by a sluice, and discharged at ebb tide, clears the entrance to the harbour and prevents the accumulation of silt, sand, &c. Cap de la Hève, forming the northern extremity of the Seine, lies N. W. from Havre, distant about 24 miles. It is elevated 300 feet above the level of the sea, and is surmounted by 2 light-houses 50 feet high. These, which are 325 feet apart, exhibit powerful fixed lights. There is also a brilliant harbour-light at the entrance to the port, on the extremity of the western jetty. Havre has 2 roadsteads. The great or outer road is about a league from the port, and rather more than 3 leagues W. S. W. from Cape de la Hève; the little or inner road is about 1 league from the port, and about 3 of a mile S. S. E. from Cape de la Hève. They are separated by the sand bank called *Leclat*; between which and the bank called *Les Hauts de la Rade* is the north-west passage to the port. The Hoc, or southern passage, lies between the last mentioned bank and that of Amfar. In the great road there is from 6 to 7½ fathoms water at ebb; and in the little, from 3 to 3½. Large ships always lie in the former. The rise of the tide is from 22 to 27 feet; and by taking advantage of it, the largest class of merchantmen enter the port. The water in the harbour does not begin perceptibly to subside till about 3 hours after high water, — a peculiarity ascribed to the current down the Seine across the entrance to the harbour being sufficiently powerful to dam up for a while the water in the latter. Large fleets, taking advantage of this circumstance, are able to leave the port in a single tide, and get to sea, even though the wind should be unfavourable. — (See *Plan of Havre*, published by LAURE; *Annuaire du Commerce Maritime*; *Cochin sur Les Phares*, p. 59, &c.)

The Chamber of Commerce of Havre have recently published the following information and instructions for the use of vessels frequenting the port: —

"Five buoys have been moored in the shallow Rade, under the designation of the *Banc de l'Eclat*, and *Hauts de la Rade*.

"These buoys are similar in form, but of different colours, viz.: The first to the northward is white; the second, white with a black top; the third is black; the fourth is black with a white top; the fifth is red.

"Vessels must always come to anchor at a distance of at least five cables' length outside the line of these buoys, which they may not pass without danger before one hour and a half prior to high water, or four hours after ebb; and they must at all times pass at distance of five cables' length from the black as well as from the red buoy, both of which are moored on the shallowest parts of these banks. Nevertheless ships may at all hours of the tide frequent the north-western passage, comprised between Cape La Hève and the two northernmost buoys.

"All vessels using the north-western passage, and bound into the inner roadstead (*Petit Rade*), must steer for the white buoy, the farthest north, and after leaving it a little distance on the starboard hand, should then stand towards the second white buoy, taking care never to come so close to the shore as altogether to lose sight of the lantern of the northernmost lighthouse on Cape La Hève. When the light of the northernmost pier head bears by compass N. E., and the lighthouses on the Hève bear by compass N. N. E., the ship may be brought to an anchor.

"Besides the five buoys herein described, one of lesser dimensions has been moored on the shallow of the inner roadstead, at about five cables' length W. N. W. of the north-west pier head. Vessels of light draught of water coming to an anchor in that part of the road, should give this buoy an oblique of at least one cable's length."

Most part of the goods imported into Havre are destined for the internal consumption of France. The coasting trade has increased very largely of late years, as is proved by the great increase of French wines, soaps, and other produce imported at Paris from Havre, instead of being sent to the capital by land. The coasting vessels transfer their cargoes to large barges, called *chalandes*, which are towed by steam tugs as far as Rouen, and thence by horses to Paris. The foreign trade of the port is also very extensive. It is seen from No. 1. of the subjoined accounts that there entered the port in 1842 no fewer than 607 ships, of the burden of 221,000 tons from ports out of Europe. Lines of sailing packets are established between Havre and New York, New Orleans, &c. A regular intercourse by means of steam packets is kept up with London, Southampton, and other ports. The entrances to the basins are too narrow to admit the passage of the largest steamers, which have, in consequence, to remain in the outer port imperfectly sheltered from the winds. Indeed the port is at present inadequate to the proper accommodation of the great and growing trade of which it is the centre, and extensive works are about to be undertaken for its improvement.

There belonged to the port, on the 31st of December, 1841, 333 vessels of the aggregate burden of 63,357 tons. The customs duties which in 1837 produced 18,123,955 francs, had increased in 1847 to 25,002,000 francs.

The *Monies, Weights, and Measures of Havre* are the same as those of the rest of France; for which see ARTS, BORDEAUX, COINS, and WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

II. PORT CHARGES.—Charges on a British Vessel from England or an English Possession.

Pilotage in -	26 fr. for the 1st hundred tons 23 fr. for the 2nd hundred tons 23 fr. for the 3rd hundred tons, and above 1 per cent. for the head pilot 24 fr. outside the berths 12 fr. outside the pier 9 fr. in the harbour	Tonnage dues -	0 60 per ton and 10 per cent. on 0 37 1/2 per ton harbour 0 75 per ton dock 1 65 per ton harbour dues with other cargoes 2 50 per ton dues dues with other cargoes 1 25 stamps From 2 fr. 85 c. to 12 fr. 15 c. for clearances according to his ton- nage
Weighting anchors	1 50 per each cwt.	Pilotage out -	0 25 per ton of goods shipped 0 12 per ton of goods measurement
Weighting chains -	0 50 ditto and one third more if there be no buoy rope	Protest before the court	5 50
Haulers -	0 30 per man, besides 1 fr. 50 c. for the havers	Affirmation before the court	5 50
Bridges -	3 60 for each bridge	Gunpowder shipped and unshipped	5 0
Ballast unshipped	0 64 per half metre	Breakage in -	0 50 per ton of goods landed Breakage out -
Ballast shipped	1 14 per half metre for sand 1 95 per half metre for clean ballast	Breakage on bal- last	0 12 per ton of goods measurement
Board of health -	2 50 for a vessel of 50 tons mea- surement and under from Europe 5 0 for a vessel of 51 tons mea- surement and above from Europe 10 0 for a vessel from other countries		

III. Account of principal Articles of Importation at the Port of Havre in the undermentioned Years.

	1814.	1817.	1816.	1815.	1811.
Cotton from —					
New Orleans —	106,770 bales	106,870 bales	136,938 bales	107,982 bales	111,370 bales
Mobla	59,454 —	40,240 —	69,476 —	69,496 —	51,310 —
Charleston and Savannah	34,498 —	53,485 —	62,217 —	78,098 —	45,654 —
Florida & Virginia	—	4,598 —	0,011 —	4,327 —	1,507 —
New York	30,463 —	49,005 —	49,250 —	61,771 —	56,379 —
Brazil	1,496 —	3,272 —	830 —	3,194 —	6,399 —
Other countries	4,768 —	10,027 —	9,237 —	6,298 —	4,532 —
Sugar from —					
Martinique and Guadalupe	33,065 casks	67,850 casks	55,000 casks	66,500 casks	49,600 casks
Réunion	18,895 bags	25,843 bags	49,643 bags	47,507 bags	38,925 bags
Havannah	5,937 chests	5,707 boxes	3,980 boxes	1,051 boxes	1933 boxes
Brazil	4,759 chests	425 chests	3,224 casks	99 tierces	932 chests
Other qualities	28,919 bags	22,225 bags	21,025 bags	181 quarters	11,301 bags
Coffee from —					
Martinique and Guadalupe	775 boxes	206 boxes	70 boxes	21,548 bags & qrs.	594 boxes
Réunion	2,298 casks	—	470 casks	2,851 casks	2,961 casks
Havannah	105 quarters	1184 qrs. and boxes	35 tierces	1,770 tier. & qrs.	2,981 qrs. & bags
Other qualities	364 boxes	—	1,532 quarters	—	—
several other qualities	65 tierces	110 tierces	215 tierces	170 tierces	570 tierces
1,215 quarters	3,087 quarters	2,400 quarters	2,815 quarters	4,750 quarters	4,750 quarters
19 bags	11 bags	—	—	10 bags	10 bags
1,100 bales	115 bales	1,903 bales	3,887 bales	1,225 bales	1,225 bales
81,006 bags	69,046 bags	59,000 bags	69,218 bags	77,758 bags	77,758 bags
2 quarters	30 quarters	126 quarters	171 quarters	109 SMO bags	109 SMO bags
29,276 bags	125,067 bags & hhdts	78,000 bags	86,012 bags	418 SMO bags	418 SMO bags
1,873 chests	1,836 chests	1,837 chests	1,836 chests & tier.	—	—
7,068 bales 74 tier.	621 casks	—	—	—	—
567 qrs. 2 boxes	1,189 tier. & qrs.	3,759 quarters	3,150 quarters	—	—
1814.	1841.	1810.	1839.	1838.	
Bees' wax -	1,968 bx. 3 cargoes	1,610 bales	645 bx. 1 cargo	540 bales	472 bx. 1 cargo
Cocoa	6,257 bx.	10,312 bx. 1 cargo	15,267 bx.	6,411 bx.	9,670 bx.
Cigars, foreign	3,005 boxes	3,918 boxes	4,150 boxes	3,412 boxes	4,872 boxes
Cochineal	183 serons	183 serons	183 serons	367 —	115 —
Copper (new)	94,510 pieces	115,250 pieces	65,461 pieces	40,270 pieces	85,112 pieces
Clover seeds	5,012 bgs. 740 hhdts.	3,800 bgs.	5,250 bgs.	1,010 bgs.	1,010 bgs.
Dye woods	15,800,000 lb.	23,470,000 lb.	27,000,000 lb.	16,900,000 lb.	19,500,000 lb.
Drugs	19,750 pack. 8 carg.	6,980 packages	9,960 packages	7,925 packages	7,800 packages
Flour, foreign	2,040 barrels	1,130 barrels	5,772 barrels	19,374 barrels	1,948 barrels
Gums, Bengual	618 —	4,277 packages	5,210 packages	4,010 packages	5,900 packages
Indigo	—	1,607 boxes	2,080 —	1,115 boxes	1,512 boxes
Hamp, foreign	458 pack. 2 cargoes	282 pack. 2 cargoes	1,004 pack. 2 carg.	1,368 pack. 1 carg.	514 packages
Hair (horse)	1112 bales, 6 carg.	648 bales	785 bales	1,469 bales	2,102 bx. 2 cargoes
Hides	2,200 bales	1,518 —	835 —	556 —	1,395 bales
India	85,725 h. 5,400 hhd.	45,223 bx. & pack.	81,000 bx. & pack.	51,250 bx. 38,880 pks.	18,100 bx. 40,150 pks.
Iron, foreign	11,900,000 lb.	7,800,000 lb.	6,500,000 lb.	5,200,000 lb.	4,400,000 lb.
Indigo from India	4,200 serons	4,232 serons	4,232 serons	4,486 serons	8,812 serons
Do. from America	214 serons, 13 bales	161 serons	308 serons	354 serons	86 serons
Ivory	4,012 teeth	4,232 teeth	988 teeth	978 teeth	5,637 teeth
Linseed, foreign	1192 pack. 1 cargo	81 packages	119 packages	193 packages	193 packages
Lard	5,440 bales, 14 carg.	6,012 pack. 7 carg.	5,545 bx. 3 cargoes	3,014 hhdts.	3,234 —
Lac-dye	165 boxes	136 boxes	251 boxes	617 boxes	843 boxes
Lead -	68,200 pigs	40,210 pigs	71,029 pigs	43,010 pigs	46,067 pigs
Mahogany	21,210 —	49,084 —	15,721 —	31,874 —	33,900 —
Madder	570 hhdts.	570 hhdts.	520 hhdts.	740 hhdts.	812 hhdts.
Mother-o'-pearl	690 pack. 2 cargoes	562 pack. 2 cargoes	532 pack. 15 carg.	904 packages	574 pack. 1 cargo
Nitrates of soda	7,442 bags	3,212 bags	3,225 bags	2,251 packages	4,210 packages
Oranges and lemons	16,500 boxes	40,210 pigs	7,751 "do	9,425 boxes	8,812 boxes
Oils, whale	6,000,000 lb.	15,760,000 lb.	10,550,000 lb.	11,690,000 lb.	7,800,000 lb.
Pearlash (American)	1,232 barrels	1,860 barrels	618 barrels	1,475 barrels	1,010 barrels
Pepper	1,487 bales	5,990 bales	7,077 bales	1,027 bales	3,781 bales
Potash (American)	6,400 barrels	4,136 barrels	2,707 barrels	4,536 barrels	3,690 barrels
Portwine	1,813 serons	1,813 serons	1,813 serons	1,813 serons	1,813 serons
Quackilver	1,235 jars	1,212 jars	1,990 jars	1,615 jars	6,210 jars
Quercitron (American)	639 hhdts.	301 hhdts.	1,444 hhdts.	1,011 hhdts.	1,771 hhdts.
Rice (Indian)	1,615 bales & bund.	2,212 bundles	6,010 bundles	6,010 bundles	5,000 bundles
Rocella	—	3,878 —	1,874 bales	284 bales	1,115 bales
Rubins, foreign	36,000 boxes	24,540 boxes	24,540 boxes	32,576 boxes	32,576 boxes
Rice	9010 hhdts. 1570 bgs.	3045 hhdts. 4012 bgs.	6929 hhdts. 1570 bgs.	9047 hhdts. 1570 bgs.	5550 hhdts. 1570 bgs.
Salt provisions	3,375 barrels	3,820 barrels	1,980 barrels	3,000 barrels	3,375 barrels
Saltpers (Indian)	19,012 bags	16,808 bags	14,533 bags	11,225 bags	7,750 bags
Sarsaparilla	015 bales	1,056 bales	1,056 packages	693 packages	378 packages
Sulphur	4,900,000 lb.	5,800,000 lb.	3,000,000 lb.	3,000,000 lb.	2,300,000 lb.
Stomach	1,665 boxes	2,865 boxes	4,000 boxes	3,000 boxes	4,000 boxes
Tapioca	1,068 hhdts.	385 hhdts.	214 hhdts.	200 hhdts.	210 hhdts.

III. Account of Importations, &c. — continued.

	1842.	1841.	1840.	1839.	1838.
Tea	5,490 packages	7,770 boxes	1,087 packages	8,210 packages	4,212 packages
Turmeric	4,778 bags	1,256 bags	1,172 bags	4,272 bags	6,292 bags
Tar (North)	5,770 barrels	991 barrels	1,410 barrels	1,774 barrels	3,522 barrels
Tallow	25,292 hhdts.	13,214 hhdts.	6,303 hhdts.	6,480 hhdts.	3,286 hhdts.
Tobacco	18,210	16,178	16,178	16,569	9,935
Tar (Colonial)	3,840 barrels	1,463 barrels	1,594 barrels	2,449 barrels	565 barrels
Woods (Baltic)	316 cargoes	148 cargoes	150 cargoes	217 cargoes	173 cargoes
Whalebone	19,975 bundles	21,415 bundles	18,815 bundles	22,500 bundles	18,301 bundles
Wool, foreign	6,012 bales	4,219 bales	1,745 bales	3,283 bales	5,502 bales
Wine, do.	1,840 casks	910 casks	647 casks	1,574 casks	1,329 casks
White lead (Dutch)	356 barrels	375 barrels	450 barrels	410 barrels	178 barrels
Zinc	128,200 sheets	265,200 sheets	248,150 sheets	159,220 sheets	252,411 sheets

IV. Account of the annual Imports of Coffee into Havre, with the annual Sales thereof, and the Stocks on hand on the 31st of December in each Year, from 1848 to 1828, both inclusive.

Years.	Imports.			Sales.			Stock.		
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	
1848	80,885,310	19,558,810	5,135,300	1837	19,559,000	80,410,300	3,024,000	800	
1847	86,530,000	24,258,500	4,092,000	1836	17,796,245	16,171,845	4,272,000	800	
1846	17,000,000	18,500,000	3,200,000	1835	15,440,000	16,820,000	2,230,000	800	
1845	18,850,000	18,000,000	3,500,000	1834	15,500,000	15,980,000	3,570,000	800	
1844	22,600,000	22,100,000	5,900,000	1833	14,300,000	15,300,000	4,090,000	800	
1843	18,900,000	17,100,000	3,000,000	1832	16,850,000	15,650,000	5,000,000	800	
1842	19,350,000	20,500,000	3,200,000	1831	16,000,000	16,000,000	1,900,000	800	
1841	17,650,000	15,900,000	4,550,000	1830	15,300,000	15,000,000	2,800,000	800	
1840	25,600,000	23,250,000	2,100,000	1829	15,600,000	15,980,000	3,500,000	800	
1839	14,800,000	15,500,000	1,700,000	1828	16,000,000	15,800,000	2,800,000	800	
1838	19,720,000	20,014,000	2,700,000						

V. Account of the annual Imports of Cotton into Havre, with the annual Sales thereof, and the Stocks on hand on the 31st December in each Year, from 1848 to 1828, both inclusive.

Years.	Imports.			Sales.			Stock.		
	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	Bales.	
1848	237,325	260,135	19,000	1836	292,066	283,586	45,500	800	
1847	267,500	251,500	41,500	1835	214,509	217,709	18,900	800	
1846	294,935	350,435	35,500	1834	301,419	313,419	29,200	800	
1845	331,287	334,287	50,000	1833	210,953	193,593	34,000	800	
1844	279,651	295,651	25,000	1832	181,299	185,229	17,000	800	
1843	385,265	335,265	108,000	1831	327,501	311,501	18,000	800	
1842	370,427	352,427	108,000	1830	115,188	163,688	45,000	800	
1841	327,387	344,627	26,500	1829	173,330	185,430	37,500	800	
1840	278,136	258,136	77,000	1828	118,735	161,835	87,000	800	
1839	265,243	242,243	57,000	1827	169,274	168,274	46,500	800	
1838	229,416	229,746	25,500	1826	81,035	185,535	44,000	800	
1837	248,459	261,459	35,000						

VI. Account of the annual Imports of Sugar into Havre, with the annual Sales thereof, and the Stocks on hand on the 31st December in each Year, from 1848 to 1828, both inclusive.

Years.	Imports.			Sales.			Stock.		
	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	Hhdts.	
1848	82,165	80,083	11,000	1837	58,453	58,453	11,500	800	
1847	67,850	63,550	7,000	1836	45,287	42,287	11,500	800	
1846	85,100	82,500	2,500	1835	55,349	58,349	9,000	800	
1845	68,200	62,500	3,000	1834	69,430	69,430	12,000	800	
1844	49,600	58,600	5,000	1833	50,700	51,700	3,000	800	
1843	54,800	none	14,000	1832	46,000	57,000	4,000	800	
1842	61,000	60,000	0	1831	58,450	56,450	14,000	800	
1841	54,760	51,260	14,000	1830	49,820	44,820	12,000	800	
1840	51,900	46,500	6,500	1829	60,560	63,560	7,000	800	
1839	46,350	51,850	1,500	1828	60,770	62,770	10,000	800	
1838	55,990	47,990	7,000						

Prices of Commodities, Duty paid and in Bond, Duties, Taxes, Commercial Allowances, &c. — These important particulars may be learned by the inspection of the subjoined Price Current for the 27th of December, 1848.

The duties on some of the articles mentioned in it will, most probably, at no very distant period, be varied. But the other particulars embodied in it will always render it an important document.

Aches, per 50 ktl.	Duty paid.			Duty paid.			In Bond.		
	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.	Fr. ct.
New York	- 51	50	53	0	0	0	0	0	0
Canan	- 49	0	50	0	0	0	0	0	0
French, American	- 50	0	51	0	0	0	0	0	0
Duty on net weight; by French vessels from European ports, 5 ct. 90 gr. in; from elsewhere, 9 Fr. 55 ct. By foreign vessels, 11 Fr. 55 ct. — (See exceptions at Note A.)									
Commercial and Custom-house tare: 12 per cent.									
Beeswax, per ½ ktl.									
North American yellow	1 30	1 50	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
New Orleans, do.	- 1 20	1 30	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
Russia	- 0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
West India fair	- none	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
Sesquial	- 1 0	0 1 25	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
Duty on gross weight; yellow, by French vessels from European ports, 5 ct. 1/2 from elsewhere 4 3/5 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 8 1/2 ct. — (See Note A.)									
Commercial tare, real.									
Cochin, per ½ ktl.									
Loss from ord. to fine	0 0	0 0	0 0	none.					
Black, ditto	0 0	0 0	0 0	none.					
Duty on net weight; by French vessels from places out of Europe, 8 1/2 ct. from elsewhere, 55 ct. By foreign vessels, 8 1/2 ct. (See Note A.)									
Custom-house tare: in casks, 12 per cent.; in kegs, 8 per cent.									
Commercial tare, real.									
Cocoa, Cascaes, per ½ ktl.	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 70	10 10				

	Duty paid.	In Bond.
Mocha coffee the tare runs from 4 1/2 to 1 1/2 kil. upon bales of 75 to 90 kil.		
Copper, S. America, per 4 kil.	0 87 to 0 90	0 0 to 0 0
Brazilian and India	1 03 - 1 12	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from European ports, 1-10 ct.; from elsewhere, 1-20 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 1-35 ct. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Cotton, per 4 kil.		
Upland	0 56 to 0 70	0 0 to 0 0
Mobile	0 56 - 0 73	0 0 - 0 0
New Orleans	0 56 - 0 73	0 0 - 0 0
Sea-Island	1 0 - 2 50	0 0 - 0 0
Pernambuco	0 70 - 0 85	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on net weight on long or short staple, by French vessels from the French colonies, 1/2 ct.; from European ports (Turkey excepted), 10 ct.; from the East Indies and countries beyond Cape Horn, 24 ct.; from other countries, 11 ct. By foreign vessels (except from Turkey), 19 1/2 ct. By French vessels from Turkey, 14 ct.; by foreign vessels from Turkey, 13 5/8 ct. (See Note A.)		
Custom-house tare: on United States cottons, 6 per cent.; corda off: on Brazil cottons, 4 per cent.; on St. Domingo, in bales, 6 per cent.; on Carman and Caracas, 7 kil. per seron above 40 kil., and 8 kil. per seron of 40 kil. and under.		
Draft: 2 kil. on Sea Island and Bengul; 3 kil. on all other descriptions in bales exceeding 50 kil., and 1 1/2 kil. upon bales under 50 kil.		
Flour, American, per barrel	0 0 to 0 0	0 0 to 0 0
Free of tonnage dues up to January 31, 1848.		
Gums, Senegal, per 1 kil.	0 73 to 0 80	0 0 to 0 0
East Indies, copal scraped	none	0 0 to 0 0
shellac, orange	0 70 - 0 80	0 0 - 0 0
ditto, garnet	0 30 - 0 60	0 0 - 0 0
ditto, liver	0 50 - 0 55	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on Senegal, gross weight: by French vessels from Bengul, 24 ct.; from European ports, 13 ct.; from elsewhere, 11 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 15 1/2 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: on coaks, real; on bags, 2 per cent.		
Duty on copal, gross weight, per 50 kil., by French vessels from the East Indies, 55 ct.; from elsewhere, 11 fr. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 16 fr. 50 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Duty on shellac, net weight: by French vessels from the East Indies, 27-100 ct.; from elsewhere, 54 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 81 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Hides, per 4 kil.		
Buenos Ayres	0 47 to 0 75	0 0 to 0 0
Fernambuco and Bahia	0 31 - 0 33	0 0 - 0 0
Rio-Janeiro	0 40 - 0 47	0 0 - 0 0
Carthagena and Caracas	0 50 - 0 42	0 0 - 0 0
New Orleans, wet salted	0 18 - 0 22	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from European ports, 24 ct.; from elsewhere, 21 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 21 ct. (See Note A.)		
Five bull hides are admitted among 100 hides without allowance, and 1 kil. is allowed for every bull hide above that number to the extent of 12; when more than 12 the allowance is conditional.		
Hops, American, 1847	53 0 to 57 50	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on net weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 53 fr. 50 kil. By foreign vessels, 56 fr. 1/2 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: on bales, 4 per cent.		
Horse hair, per 4 kil.		
Buenos Ayres, mixed	0 62 to 0 87	0 0 to 0 0
Russia	none	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels, 55-100 ct.; by foreign vessels, 21 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Indigo, per 4 kil.		
Bengal	0 0 to 0 0	0 0 to 0 0
superfine violet and blue	0 0 - 0 0	0 0 - 0 0
superfine violet & purple	0 8 - 2 25	0 0 - 0 0
fine violet and purple	7 60 - 7 75	0 0 - 0 0
good violet	7 0 - 7 10	0 0 - 0 0
middling violet	5 50 - 5 75	0 0 - 0 0
fine red	6 60 - 6 75	0 0 - 0 0
good red	5 60 - 6 10	0 0 - 0 0
good to fine copper	5 0 - 5 50	0 0 - 0 0
ordinary to low copper	4 0 - 4 60	0 0 - 0 0
Java	4 25 - 9 0	0 0 - 0 0
Kurpah	5 0 - 7 0	0 0 - 0 0
Madras	5 50 - 4 90	0 0 - 0 0
Manilla	3 75 - 4 50	0 0 - 0 0
Caracas	3 0 - 6 25	0 0 - 0 0
Guatemala flower	6 0 - 6 25	0 0 - 0 0
sobbe saliente	5 0 - 5 50	0 0 - 0 0
cortin	4 25 - 5 0	0 0 - 0 0
ordinals and low	0 0 - 3 60	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on net weight: by French vessels from places of growth out of Europe, 27 1/2 ct.; from European ports, 1 fr. 53 ct.; from Manilla direct, 32 ct.; from elsewhere, 1 fr. 10 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 2 fr. 80 ct. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Custom-house tare: on chests, coaks, and serons, real; or at the option of the importer, 12 per cent. on chests or coaks, and 9 per cent. on serons.		
Commercial tare: on coaks or chests, real; on serons of 100 to 110 kil., 1 kil.; on do. of 85 to 90 kil., 10 kil.; on do. of 70 to 84 kil., 9 kil.; on do. of 50 to 69 kil., 7 kil.		
Allowance: 1 kil. per chest.		
Lac dye, per 4 kil.	2 75 to 3 0	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on net weight: by French vessels from the East Indies, 12 1/2 ct.; from elsewhere, 4 1/2 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 55 ct. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Commercial and Custom-house tare: real.		
Lead, American, per 50 kil.	none	0 0 to 0 0
Spanish and British	24 0 to 24 50	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 2 fr. 75 ct. By foreign vessels, 3 fr. 85 ct. (See Note A.)		
Pepper, light, per 4 kil.	0 57 to 0 60	0 0 to 0 0
half heavy	0 63 - 0 0	0 0 - 0 0

	Duty paid.	In Bond.
Duty on net weight: by French vessels from the East Indies and from countries W. of Cape Horn, 22 ct.; from elsewhere, 44 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 27 1/2 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: on single bags, 5 per cent.		
Commercial tare: on single bags, 2 per cent.		
Pimento per 4 kil.		
Jamaica	0 0 to 0 0	0 0 to 0 65
Tobago	0 0 to 0 0	0 0 to 0 0
by French vessels from the East Indies and from countries W. of Cape Horn, 24 1/2 ct.; from elsewhere, 49 1/2 ct. By foreign vessels, 53 ct.		
Tares: as for Pepper.		
Querciton, per 50 kil.		
Philadelphia, last sort	16 50 to 17 0	0 0 to 0 0
Baltimore	15 0 - 15 0	none
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from European ports, 3 fr. 85 ct.; from other countries, 9 fr. 20 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 4 fr. 35 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: 12 per cent.		
Quicksilver, per 4 kil.	none	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 11 ct.; by foreign vessels, 12-10 ct. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Rice, Carolina, 1847, per 50 kil.	24 0 to 26 0	0 0 to 0 0
Ditto 1848	26 0 - 30 0	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: from India, by French vessels 27 1/2 ct.; by foreign vessels, 4 fr. 85 ct.; from European ports, 1 fr. 37 1/2 ct. Commercial tare: 12 per cent. on coaks, and 9 per cent. on bags.		
Saltpetre, East India, per 50 kil.	0 0 to 0 0	35 0 to 36 0
Nitrate of Soda	0 0 - 0 0	16 0 - 16 25
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from East Indies or the South Sea, 55 ct.; from European ports, 11 fr. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 1 fr. 75 ct. By French vessels from countries out of Europe, 4 fr. 12 1/2 ct. Commercial tare: 6 kil. per double bale of the customary form.		
Skins, deer, each	0 0 to 0 0	0 0 to 0 0
Duty per 50 kil. on gross weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 55 ct. By foreign vessels 60 1/2 ct. (See Note A.)		
Skates, per 50 kil.	25 0 to 26 0	0 0 to 0 0
Duty on gross weight: 54 ct. per 50 kil.		
Sugar, per 50 kil.		
Mart. and Guad. bonne 46	0 0 to 0 0	28 50 to 29 0
Havannah, white	0 0 - 0 0	none.
brown	0 0 - 0 0	92 0 - 0 0
St. Yago	0 0 - 0 0	none.
Porto-Rico, raw, bonne 46	0 0 - 0 0	23 50 - 0 0
Brazil, white	0 0 - 0 0	18 0 - 19 0
Manilla	0 0 - 0 0	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on net weight: raw sugars, not by French vessels from the East Indies, 53 fr. from European ports, 41 fr. 25 ct.; from elsewhere, 55 fr. 75 ct. By foreign vessels, 46 fr. 75 ct. Raw sugars, white or clayed, without distinction of quality or mode of fabrication, by French vessels from the East Indies, 44 fr.; by foreign vessels, 52 fr. 50 ct.; from elsewhere, 49 fr. 75 ct. By foreign vessels, 57 fr. 75 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial-house tare: on chests, 18 per cent.; on single bags, 12 per cent.; on double bags, 4 per cent.		
Commercial tare: Havannah and St. Yago chests, 13 per cent.; Brazil, 17 per cent.; on bags under 75 kil., 5 kil. per bag; ditto of 75 kil. and upwards, 25 kil.		
Tallow, Russia, per 50 kil.	63 0 to 64 0	0 0 to 0 0
to arrive	none	0 0 - 0 0
American	62 0 - 64 0	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 3 fr. 23 ct. By foreign vessels, 9 fr. 30 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: 12 per cent.		
Terra japonica, per 4 kil.		
brown	0 26 to 0 28	0 0 to 0 0
yellow	0 27 - 0 30	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from the East Indies, 24 ct.; from European ports, 19 fr. 30 ct.; from elsewhere, 15-110 ct. By foreign vessels, 27 fr. 75 ct. (See Note A.)		
Commercial tare: real.		
Texas, per 4 kil.	0 0 to 0 0	2 0 to 3 75
Imperial	0 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 3 75
Imperial	0 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 4 0
Young Hyson	0 0 - 0 0	1 30 - 2 60
Hyson skin	0 0 - 0 0	1 30 - 2 60
Pekin	7 0 - 7 25	3 0 - 5 50
Pouchong	1 2 - 1 2	0 0 - 0 0
Pouchong	0 0 - 0 0	1 0 - 1 0
Duty on net weight: by French vessels from the East Indies, 44 ct.; from China, 66 ct.; from elsewhere, 2 fr. 75 ct. By other vessels from any port whatever, 3 fr. 30 ct. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Commercial-house tare: real.		
Commercial tare: on Imperial, gunpowder, young hyson, and pekin, 10 kil. per chest; on hyson and hyson skin, 9 kil. on souchong, 15 kil.; on chests add boxes, conventional.		
Tin, strait and Banca, per 50 kil.	97 0 to 100 0	0 0 to 0 0
British	95 0 - 95 0	0 0 - 0 0
North American	75 0 - 80 0	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from the East Indies, 54 ct.; from elsewhere, 1 fr. 10 ct. By foreign vessels from any port whatever, 2 fr. 20 ct. per 50 kil. (See exceptions at Note A.)		
Commercial tare: on coaks, real.		
Whalebone, per 4 kil.	1 95 to 2 0	0 0 to 0 0
north-west	1 95 - 0 0	0 0 - 0 0
southern Amer. fishery	1 95 - 0 0	0 0 - 0 0
Duty on gross weight: by French vessels from any port whatever, 15 1/2 ct. By foreign vessels, 19 1/2 ct.		

The great articles of import consist of grain and flour, especially into the southern departments; raw cotton; raw silk; sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; timber; olive oil and oil seeds; coal; wool; hides and skins; copper; tobacco; indigo and other dye stuffs; flax and thread, &c. The articles of export consist of silk, cotton and woollen goods; wines; hard goods, toys, pedlars' wares, and wooden goods; wrought skins; linens and canvases; paper; brandy; refined sugar; madder; tanned leather; perfumery; linen and linen goods, &c. &c. In 1847 the total real value of the imports into France, entered for consumption, amounted to 958.9 millions fr.; and that of articles of the growth and produce of France, exported during the same year, was 719.8 millions fr. Of these the articles specified above were in millions of fr. as follows: viz.:-

Imports.	Mills of fr.	Imports.	Mills of fr.	Exports.	Mills of fr.	Exports.	Mills of fr.
Wheat and Flour	309.0	Indigo	13.3	Rilk goods	149.0	Brandy	18.7
Cotton	67.2	Wool	30.4	Cotton do.	28.0	Refined sugar	11.0
Silk	67.0	Flax	26,029.000	Woolen do.	69.0	Madder	13.9
Sugar and coffee	80.0	Olive oil	38.0	Wines	47.0	Metallic goods	13.7
Timber	60.7	Copper	13.4	Hard goods	30.8	Earthenware and crystal	10.1
Oil seeds	19.0	Cast Iron	13.4	Wrought skins	24.8	Linen and linen goods	17.7
Hides and skins	32.6	Tobacco	9.7	Flannels of flax and hemp	30.8	Tanned leather	9.6
	24.0	Lead	9.1	Paper	19.6	Perfumery	6.0

Owing to the scarcity of 1847 the imports of grain and flour in that year were unusually large. Horses and cattle are largely imported and exported; but the imports usually predominate. (For Table of Foreign Trade in 1847, see previous page.)

The customs' duties collected at the principal emporia during 1847, were as follows; viz.:-

	Fr.
Marsailles	34,742,000
Havre	26,029,000
Paris	20,809,000
Nantes	15,918,000
Bordeaux	14,987,000
Dunkirk	7,242,000
Rouen	5,533,000
All other custom houses	75,752,000

SUMMARY.			
Ships.	1830.	1840.	1844.
Ships of 800 tons and upwards	2	3	1
700 to 800 tons	6	1	1
600 - 700	3	3	6
500 - 600	14	5	8
400 - 500	53	53	35
300 - 400	203	150	119
200 - 300	578	533	433
100 - 200	1,545	1,265	1,275
60 - 100	1,556	1,061	1,499
30 - 60	1,101	1,201	1,353
20 and under	9,983	10,844	6,900
Total French Ships	14,852	15,600	15,679

VIII.— Account showing the Total Number of Ships, with their Tonnage and Crews, entering Inwards in the different Ports of France in 1841, specifying the Countries whence they came, and distinguishing between French and Foreign Ships.— (*Administration des Douanes for 1841, p. 588.*)

Countries.	French Ships entered.			Foreign Ships entered.			Total of French and Foreign Ships.								
	Ships.	Tonn.	Crew.	Ships.	Tonn.	Crew.	Ships.	Tonn.	Crew.						
EUROPE.	857	11,191	938	81	26,684	1,118	391	84,442	4,267	469	109,126	5,683	643	121,200	6,643
Russia	—	—	—	—	—	—	117	21,061	1,099	337	44,771	2,406	259	47,075	2,668
Sweden	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	5,927	283	733	129,786	6,037	806	135,600	6,793
Norway	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	6,005	328	4	1,123	58	2	5,123	143
Denmark	—	—	—	—	—	—	102	11,638	504	285	65,295	3,444	396	55,762	3,783
Prussia	—	—	—	—	—	—	11	1,129	726	26	10,113	737	310	21,114	2,080
Low Countries	99	5,467	39	101	8,044	444	11	1,392	117	47	5,028	318	118	9,927	684
Belgium	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	5,051	187	46	4,732	290	149	16,540	3,911
Hanover-Town	103	15,798	1,801	15	1,701	103	21	2,001	187	46	4,732	290	149	16,540	3,911
Hanover	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mecklenburg	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	500	10	3	346	22	3	246	22
England (Gibraltar, Malin, Ionian Isls.)	2,763	163,341	16,720	5,216	469,185	43,208	69	9,645	543	5,275	478,840	43,751	6,058	645,101	62,471
Portugal (Madeira, C. de Verdes Islands, Azores)	48	5,776	370	13	1,358	129	7	1,014	63	22	2,372	192	70	8,150	601
Spain (the Canaries)	439	39,429	4,192	851	21,842	2,939	107	14,329	1,041	958	46,571	7,983	1,417	89,760	13,175
Austria	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sardinia	—	—	—	—	—	—	27	5,191	298	284	30,436	4,508	1,616	75,741	10,263
Two Sicilies	—	—	—	—	—	—	34	15,643	2,178	375	56,497	5,319	617	70,558	7,149
Tuscany	—	—	—	—	—	—	181	2,613	1,158	818	15,182	1,859	654	29,927	4,118
Roman States, Lucera, Monaco	55	5,400	407	156	7,994	1,018	146	10,854	1,148	302	16,788	2,180	357	24,188	2,547
Greece and its Islands in the Archipelago	6	589	48	1	283	18	—	—	—	1	593	16	7	971	66
Turkey and its Islands in the Archipelago	178	40,571	4,928	3	651	37	100	19,296	1,179	103	19,827	1,816	276	60,396	3,838
Avicca	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Egypt	36	6,673	401	—	—	—	41	10,527	501	41	10,527	501	77	17,000	902
States of Barbary (Tunis, Tripoli, and Morocco)	29	8,481	189	2	119	18	45	5,006	457	47	5,327	456	76	7,808	653
Algeria	—	—	—	—	—	—	107	58,764	3,133	197	35,764	3,133	778	86,358	6,333
W. coast (from Morocco to the C. of L. Hope)	5	1,177	78	1	124	9	—	—	—	1	154	9	6	1,311	78
English possessions, C. of G. Hope, Mauritius	1	193	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	193
Other countries (inc. Madagascar)	6	1,150	70	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	1,150
India, English posses.	20	5,692	325	—	—	—	1	276	18	1	276	18	21	5,968	343
Dutch	17	5,015	281	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	17	5,015	281
Philippines	1	510	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	510
China, Cochin China, Oceania Islands	2	671	39	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	671
Americas.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States	49	14,220	717	237	150,505	5,590	2	489	23	339	150,994	5,123	388	163,214	6,350
Hayti	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
English possessions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch	73	16,266	966	47	5,686	508	6	1,092	56	35	6,718	364	128	27,944	1,550
Danish	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spanish	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swedish	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Guatemala	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VIII.—continued.

Countries.	French Ships entered.			Foreign Ships entered.									Total of French and Foreign Ships.		
	Ships.	Tonn.	Crew.	Carrying the Flag of the Country whence they came.			Other Flags.			Total.			Ships.	Tonn.	Crew.
Venezuela	23	3,828	240	0	997	56	0	0	0	997	56	260	4,855	315	
New Granada	18	5,567	807	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	5,567	807	
Peru (Lower Peru)	8	753	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	753	34	
Bolivia (Higher Peru)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Chili	11	2,670	169	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	2,670	169	
Rio de la Plata (Buenos Ayres)	27	4,991	303	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	4,991	303	
Uruguay (Montevideo)	39	6,230	383	0	614	39	0	1,657	96	11	2,481	133	451	2,641	
Texas	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Equator	9	449	38	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	449	38	
Farzen Colonias.															
Guadeloupe	145	33,323	1,922	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	145	33,323	1,922	
Martinique	121	25,521	1,525	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	121	25,521	1,525	
Bourbon	80	25,220	1,529	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	25,220	1,529	
Senegal	27	5,779	531	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	5,779	531	
Cayenne	26	4,243	276	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	4,243	276	
French possessions in India	8	115	24	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	115	24	
Fishery, cod	449	64,094	9,259	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	449	64,094	9,259	
Fishery, whale	27	10,542	792	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	27	10,542	792	
Total	7,865	683,449	67,083	8,982	1,007,244	76,962	1,761	290,044	18,923	10,743	1,287,388	97,757	18,026	1,380,857	164,419

The following Statements, showing the Produce of Wine in France, and the Exports in 1845 and 1846, were furnished to the *Economist*, from which we have taken them, by the authorities in Bordeaux.

Account of the Produce of Wine in France in each Department, in the order of their importance.

Departments.		Departments.	
	Hectolitres.		Hectolitres.
Herauld	3,616,000	Aveyron	353,000
Charente Inferieure	3,284,000	Jura	357,000
Gironde	3,091,000	Vendee	319,000
Vaz	1,633,000	Terrain and Gironna	314,000
Charente	1,124,000	Tarn	314,000
Gers	1,128,000	Haut Rhin	374,000
Gard	1,138,000	Deux Sèvres	370,000
Aude	1,011,000	Correze	353,000
Meurthe	912,000	Hautes Pyrenees	298,000
Yonne	836,000	Indre	315,000
Loiret	800,000	Isere	342,000
Dordogne	770,000	Loire	249,000
Rhone	740,000	Ardeche	292,000
Seine and Loire	644,000	Vaucluse	238,000
Lot et Garonne	637,000	Voges	314,000
Indre et Loire	628,000	Cher	250,000
Bouches du Rhone	626,000	Aisne	228,000
Haute Gironne	604,000	Meuse	274,000
Aube	692,000	Arriege	166,000
Loire Inferieure	668,000	Allier	155,000
Cote d'Or	638,000	Doubs	174,000
Loire and Cher	52,000	Nievre	170,000
Puy de Dome	536,000	Hautes Alpes	114,000
Haute Marne	608,000	Seine	107,000
Maine and Loire	510,000	Eure and Loire	106,000
Seine and Oise	604,000	Sarthe	93,000
Seine et Marne	516,000	Hautes Alpes	86,000
Bas Rhin	599,000	Isar	65,000
Lot	445,000	Haute Loire	62,000
Meuse	459,000	Ardenes	70,000
Vienne	459,000	Haute Vienne	42,000
Hautes Pyrenees	325,000	Eure	31,000
Landes	386,000	Lozere	14,000
Marne	281,000	Morbihan	5,000
Haute Seine	218,000	Finistere	5,000
Drome	303,000	Cantal	4,000
Pyrenees Orientales	301,000		
Als	255,000		
		Total productions	35,765,000

Account of the Export of French Wines to all Countries in 1845 and 1846.

	1845	1846		1845	1846
	Litres.	Litres.		Litres.	Litres.
Russia	3,855,700	3,069,500	Philippine Islands	147,900	9,100
Sweden	608,000	316,600	China, Coch China, and Pacific Islands	0	0
Norway	621,000	272,700	Haiti	312,600	481,900
Denmark	1,619,600	1,218,700	United States	2,849,600	10,388,000
Hanseatic towns	13,549,900	14,597,400	British Possessions in America	100,300	107,800
Hermania Zollverein	5,210,600	4,604,000	Spanish Possessions in America	688,700	336,000
Hanover and Hocklenburgh Schwerin	746,000	537,600	Danish Possessions in America	694,100	499,400
Netherlands	9,689,800	3,775,700	Brazil	3,002,800	1,473,300
Belgium	10,638,300	6,169,500	Mexico	304,200	318,000
England	5,225,600	2,633,000	Guatemala	9,500	9,500
Portugal	0	0	Venezuela	228,000	113,500
Austria	456,000	136,300	New Granada	36,600	37,000
Spain	421,600	5,439,700	Peru and Bolivia	307,100	207,300
Sardinia	7,810,700	11,929,000	Chili	1,870,000	1,425,000
Naples	377,900	167,000	Rio de la Plata	6,665,000	5,530,000
Papal States	391,600	245,100	Uruguay	1,023,600	667,900
Tuscany	391,600	245,100	Texas and Equador	95,800	0
Switzerland	13,828,100	15,186,300	Guadeloupe	2,572,000	2,383,000
Greece	0	0	Martinique	3,064,300	2,403,700
Turkey	172,500	851,700	Bourbon	2,045,600	3,473,500
Egypt	286,100	864,500	Senegal	1,481,700	1,107,300
Herzary States	0	0	Cayenne	589,000	864,900
Algeria	34,379,500	42,538,500	French Newfoundland	573,600	853,500
W. coast of Africa	74,600	47,500			
Mauritius	8,093,400	5,236,600			
Other African countries	0	0			
India	480,700	139,140			
Dutch Indian Possessions	469,300	126,700			
French Indian Possessions	82,500	253,500			
			Total	117,133,100	135,318,139

TRADE BETWEEN FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

Nothing can more strikingly illustrate the mischievous influence of commercial restrictions, than the history of the trade between Great Britain and France. Here we have two countries of vast wealth and population, near neighbours, and each possessing many important articles that the other wants, and yet the intercourse between them has generally been inconsiderable. At a distant period this was not the case. Previously to the accession of William III., the importation of wine only from France amounted to about 13,500 tuns a year, our imports of brandy and other articles being proportionally large. But Louis XIV. having espoused the cause of the exiled family of Stuart, the British government, not recollecting that the blow they aimed at the French would also smite their own subjects, imposed, in 1693, a *discriminating* duty of 8*l.* a tun on French wine, and in 1697 raised it to no less than 39*l.* a tun! It is probable that this excess of duty would have been repealed as soon as the peculiar circumstances in which it originated had disappeared, had not the stipulations in the famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen, in 1703, given it permanence. But, according to this treaty, we bound ourselves for the future to charge 33*½* per cent. higher duties on the wines of France imported into England, than on those of Portugal; the Portuguese, by way of compensation, binding themselves to admit our wools into their markets in preference to those of other countries, at a fixed and invariable rate of duty.

Though very generally regarded, at the time, as the highest exertion of diplomatic skill and address, the Methuen treaty was, undoubtedly, founded on the narrowest and most contracted views of national interest; and has, in consequence, proved, in no common degree, injurious to both parties, but especially to England. By binding ourselves to receive Portuguese wines for *two thirds* of the duty payable on those of France, we, in effect, gave the Portuguese growers a monopoly of the British market; at the same time that we excluded one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our commodities, and provoked them to retaliate. This, indeed, was no difficult task. Unhappily, they were but too ready to embark in that course of vindictive policy of which we set them the example; so that, prohibitions on the one side being immediately followed by counter-prohibitions on the other, the trade between the two countries was nearly annihilated! But the indirect were still more injurious than the direct consequences of this wretched policy. It inspired both parties with feelings of jealousy and dislike, and kept them in the frowning attitude of mutual defiance. Each envied the other's prosperity; and being disposed to take fire at even fancied encroachments, the most frivolous pretexts were sufficient to engage them in contests that have filled the whole world with bloodshed and confusion. But had things been left to their natural course, — had an unfettered commercial intercourse been allowed to grow up between the two countries, — the one would have formed so near, so vast, and so profitable a market for the produce of the other, that they could not have remained long at war without occasioning the most extensively ruinous distress, — distress which no government would be willing to inflict on its subjects, and to which, though the government were willing, it is most probable no people would be disposed to submit. A free trade between England and France would give these two great nations *one common interest*. It would occasion not only a vast increase of the industry, and of the comforts and enjoyments, of the people of both countries, but would be the best attainable security against future hostilities. "We know," said Mr. Villiers, in his able and instructive speech (15th of June, 1830), "that British enterprise will fetch the extremest points on earth in the business of exchange; but here are the shores of France nearer to England than those of Ireland itself — nay, Bordeaux is commercially nearer to London than it is to Paris; and, but for the lamentable perversion of the gifts and dispositions of nature, and of the ingenuity of man, the highways of commerce between these countries — the seas which surround Great Britain and Ireland, and wash the shores of France — should literally swarm with vessels, engaged, not only in the interchange of material products, but in diffusing knowledge and stimulating improvement; in creating every where new neighbourhoods; in consolidating international dependence; in short, in drawing daily more close the bonds of international peace and confidence, and thus advancing, while they also served to confirm and secure, the peace, the civilisation, and the happiness of Europe."

The commercial treaty which Mr. Pitt negotiated with France in 1786 was the first attempt to introduce a better system into the trade between the two countries; and it is one of the few treaties of this description that have been bottomed on fair and liberal principles. But the Revolution in France, and the lengthened and bloody wars by

* We regret to have to add, that this was one of the last public appearances made by Mr. Villiers. He died in December, 1832, at the early age of 31. His death was a national loss. Few have entered upon public life with better dispositions, more enlarged and comprehensive views, or a more sincere desire to promote the happiness of their species.

Total of French and Foreign Ships.		
Days.	Tons.	Crew.
50	4,853	312
21	3,070	204
	775	51
11	2,570	169
30	5,511	376
43	8,711	524
9	499	32
143	53,323	1,522
192	78,541	2,243
350	33,293	1,746
37	5,778	351
28	4,345	274
449	24,064	8,759
27	10,619	799
17	1,008,119,080,837	164,570

in 1845 and 1846, to Bordeaux, importance.

Metric.
353,000
337,000
331,000
319,000
307,000
304,000
374,000
270,000
253,000
268,000
215,000
242,000
228,000
342,000
438,000
212,000
250,000
228,000
274,000
165,000
195,000
170,000
170,000
114,000
107,000
106,000
89,000
85,000
65,000
82,000
70,000
24,000
31,000
14,000
8,000
3,000
8,000
35,785,000

1846
Litres.
9,100
481,900
10,398,000
107,800
336,000
898,400
1,473,300
318,400
86,500
113,200
57,000
307,800
1,423,900
355,900
567,300
8,283,000
2,403,700
5,473,300
1,497,300
664,000
853,500
135,518,139

which it was followed, totally suppressed that mutually beneficial intercourse which had begun to grow up under Mr. Pitt's treaty, and revived and embittered all the old hostile feelings and prejudices inherited by both parties. Since the peace of 1815 the animosities and prejudices in question have, however, been much mitigated. The abolition of the discriminating duty on French wine, in 1831, had a considerable influence in bringing about this improved state of things, at least in a commercial point of view; and, but for the unfortunate misunderstanding respecting the affairs of Turkey and Egypt, it is probable that the trade with France would have been already relieved from the greater number of its more oppressive restraints.

But notwithstanding the difficulties under which it labours, we are glad to have to state that the trade with France has increased rapidly during the last 10 years, and is now become of primary importance. No one, however, can doubt, who reflects for a moment on the situation, means, and wants of the two countries, that the trade between them is still susceptible of an all but indefinite increase. And, happily, it is in our power, by adopting a line of conduct eminently fitted to promote our interests, to give a powerful stimulus to this trade. At present the French policy is really less illiberal than our own; at all events, the value of the British produce exported to France has for some time past materially exceeded that of the French produce imported into the U. Kingdom. The reason of this excess of the exports, as compared with the imports, is to be found in the oppressive duties laid on the brandies, silks, and other leading articles of French produce imported into England. We have already seen (art. BRANDY) that the duty on brandy might be reduced from 22s. 10d. to 10s. a gallon, without any loss whatever to the revenue; at the same time that such a reduction would be of the greatest service to the trade between the two countries. The existing duties on gloves, silks, and such like articles are good for nothing, unless it be to discourage legitimate commerce, and to encourage smuggling and the corruption of the officers. It is inconsequential and absurd to make the reduction of such duties contingent on the fact of a simultaneous reduction being made in the duties on the importation of British hardware, cottons, &c. into France. The mischievous influence of the French duties does not in any degree diminish the mischievous influence of our own duties. Does the high price of iron in France, or the smuggling and corruption prevalent in the Seine and the Garonne, compensate the people of Britain for the high price of brandy, or atone for the smuggling and barefaced corruption that prevail in the Thames? Our business is to impose reasonable duties on the articles which we import, without inquiring or caring whether others do the same by the articles which they import. And if we acted on this sound and not very recondite principle in the case of the various commodities that come from France, we should certainly in no long time double our trade with that country, and make it far more difficult for the French to maintain their duties and prohibitions.

But it is said that if we do this, that if we reduce the duties on French produce brought to England, without, at the same time, stipulating for an equal reduction of the duties on British produce sent to France, we shall be obliged to send gold, and not manufactured goods, in payment of the increased produce we may bring from her! Perhaps it was hardly worth while noticing this last resort of superannuated ignorance. Assuming for a moment that the fact were as stated, it would be no reason for our declining to reduce the duties on French products. Whether we carry on a trade with France, or any other nation, by sending returns in bullion or ordinary produce, is really of very trifling importance. We may be assured that we never send bullion to another country unless it be more valuable there than here; that is, unless its exportation be for our advantage. — (See art. BALANCE OF TRADE.) In point of fact, too, we have rarely sent any bullion to France, even when our imports from her greatly exceeded our exports; the excess of bills on England in such cases being usually paid by drafts on Holland, Hamburg, and other places indebted to us. Of all imaginary terrors, that of being exhausted of an adequate supply of the precious metals, were we to give greater freedom to the trade with France or any other country, is the most idle and ridiculous.

The great articles of importation into the U. Kingdom from France consist of brandy, wine, madder, silk manufactures and raw silk, gloves, eggs, fruits, skins, books, &c. It should, however, be observed that a large proportion of the imports of raw and thrown silk consists, in fact, of imports from Italy, which come to us *in transitu*, through France.

The great articles of export from this country to France consist of linens and linen yarn, copper and copper manufactures, coal, lace and patent net, horses, hosiery, &c. The increase in the exportation of linens and linen since 1833 has been quite extraordinary; and it has not been so much affected as might have been anticipated by the increase of duties in 1842.

X. — Account of the Quantities and declared Values of the Principal Articles exported from the United Kingdom to France, and of the Total declared Value of the Exports to the same, since 1814.

Year.	Coals, Cinders, and Cullin.		Copper melted in France from Foreign Ore.		Calicoes, Mullins, Fustians, &c.		Cotton Manufactures.		Lace and Patent Net.		Hosiery and Small Wares.		Hardware and Cutlery.		Linen Manufactures.		Linen Yarn.		Mills and Mill-works.		Steam Engines.		Machinery.		Textile Manufactures of British and Foreign Woollen Yarns, &c.				
	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	
1814	7064	£ 5,068	Cwts.	£	Yards.	£	Yards.	£	Yards.	£	Yards.	£	Cwt.	£	Yards.	£	Lbs.	£	9	£	15	£	15	£	15	£	15	£	
1815	19,190	8,585	1,325	5,267	989,807	125,160	3,521	100	11,893	1,077	9,889	37,314	3,703	368	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1816	17,432	6,180	1,225	5,267	199,540	21,092	60	100	904	5,289	5,289	3,432	144	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1817	18,936	5,530	1,225	5,267	271,358	25,808	1,761	60	490	608	6,020	4,451	541	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1818	29,078	7,441	1,225	5,267	143,374	14,269	60	38	321	1,518	14,073	3,453	389	214	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1819	22,098	6,095	1,225	5,267	45,388	4,165	3,781	—	321	1,518	14,073	3,453	389	214	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1820	27,747	7,719	1,225	5,267	45,388	4,165	3,781	—	16	1,133	11,609	10,689	971	305	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1821	29,169	7,104	1,225	5,267	17,577	1,820	1,511	—	49	1,836	15,986	2,322	201	400	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1822	22,163	5,477	1,225	5,267	17,577	1,820	1,511	—	10	2,092	31,812	8,345	513	800	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1823	24,042	5,804	1,225	5,267	8,323	5,834	45,006	1,380	113	2,194	24,773	19,763	1,969	324	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1824	21,252	5,253	1,225	5,267	11,729	5,383	140,856	4,716	519	3,194	25,985	19,296	1,966	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1825	21,252	5,253	1,225	5,267	11,729	5,383	140,856	4,716	519	3,194	25,985	19,296	1,966	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1826	46,123	14,033	—	—	410,710	18,892	517,460	6,765	1,141	4,044	29,831	78,637	9,693	155	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1827	35,410	9,847	—	—	79,196	5,945	690,907	12,746	687	3,497	29,388	54,412	6,123	73	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1828	41,981	11,176	148	569,090	15,462	416,866	2,295	924	3,648	24,037	102,933	11,140	123	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1829	52,196	14,854	1,325	5,267	62,460	35,337	1,274,460	11,468	3,245	4,415	16,166	102,642	8,953	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1830	52,196	14,854	1,325	5,267	62,460	35,337	1,274,460	11,468	3,245	4,415	16,166	102,642	8,953	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1831	35,896	10,973	5,655	26,346	896,487	46,347	4,746,689	34,664	1,656	3,901	35,145	183,598	13,055	603	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1832	45,218	12,822	18,275	74,895	1,544,075	60,774	6,098,547	39,892	2,763	6,031	45,967	237,301	61,513	1,703	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1833	59,630	17,144	17,563	76,820	2,317,697	60,774	6,098,547	39,892	2,763	6,031	45,967	237,301	61,513	1,703	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1834	104,128	31,547	41,109	184,764	2,452,493	72,263	5,341,441	37,192	3,930	10,120	49,984	1,998,158	118,662	723	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1835	205,140	68,694	18,565	86,107	3,386,577	50,219	7,189,198	32,430	4,318	10,120	49,984	1,998,158	118,662	723	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1836	265,143	89,304	82,860	335,298	2,606,515	60,321	14,479,995	64,591	47,114	10,159	56,655	7,633,291	273,454	372	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1837	272,123	89,304	82,860	335,298	2,606,515	60,321	14,479,995	64,591	47,114	10,159	56,655	7,633,291	273,454	372	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1838	240,373	116,961	84,567	335,298	2,606,515	60,321	14,479,995	64,591	47,114	10,159	56,655	7,633,291	273,454	372	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1839	284,954	129,240	115,701	437,516	2,938,888	64,029	13,615,494	63,698	56,984	12,918	67,478	6,255,476	246,829	467	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1840	315,975	173,278	134,388	473,585	3,251,112	68,198	14,384,654	69,683	63,069	14,430	67,759	8,525,563	281,893	1,806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1841	412,922	147,280	101,116	463,912	3,046,036	64,946	12,632,123	54,369	53,069	17,692	95,354	4,975,691	127,566	1,497	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1842	462,941	161,392	100,548	473,585	3,251,112	68,198	14,384,654	69,683	63,069	14,430	67,759	8,525,563	281,893	1,806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1843	515,975	173,278	134,388	473,585	3,251,112	68,198	14,384,654	69,683	63,069	14,430	67,759	8,525,563	281,893	1,806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1844	412,922	147,280	101,116	463,912	3,046,036	64,946	12,632,123	54,369	53,069	17,692	95,354	4,975,691	127,566	1,497	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

* Sic in official returns; but there can be no doubt that the statement is wrong.

sale or retail, without being subject to any of the penalties contained in any act touching hawkers, pedlars, and petty chapmen.

No person committed under these acts for non-payment of penalties can be detained in custody for a longer period than 3 months.

Hawkers exposing their goods to sale in a market town, must do it in a market-place.

Persons hawking tea without a licence are liable to a penalty under 36 Geo. 3. c. 41.; and even though they had a licence, they would be liable to a penalty for selling tea in an unentered place. — (*Chitty's ed. of Burn's Justice*, vol. ii. p. 1113.)

Any person duly licensed to trade as a hawker and pedlar may set up any lawful trade in any place where he is resident, though he have not served any apprenticeship to the same, and, if prosecuted, he may plead the general issue and have double costs. — (*See Chitty's ed. of Burn's Justice*, vol. ii. pp. 1102—1124.)

The hawkers' and pedlars' duty produced in 1841, 33,762*l.* gross revenue; and the charges of collection are very heavy, amounting to between 5,000*l.* and 6,000*l.* Whatever, therefore, may be the other advantages of this tax, it cannot, certainly, be said to be very productive.

HAY (*Ger. Heu*; *Du. Hooi*; *Fr. Foin*; *It. Fieno*; *Sp. Heno*; *Lat. Fanum*), any kind of grass, cut and dried for the food of cattle. The business of hay-making is said to be better understood in Middlesex than in any other part of the kingdom. The great object is to preserve the green colour of the grass as much as possible, and to have it juicy, fresh, and free from all sorts of mustiness.

The sale of hay within the bills of mortality, and 30 miles of the cities of London and Westminster, is regulated by the act 36 Geo. 3. c. 84. It enacts that all hay shall be sold by the load of 36 trusses, each truss weighing 50 lbs., except new hay, which is to weigh 60 lbs. till the 4th of September, and afterwards 56 lbs. only; so that till the 4th of September a load of hay weighs exactly a ton, but thereafter only 18 cwt. The clerk of the market is bound to keep a regular book for the inspection of the public, specifying the names of the seller, the buyer, the salesman, and the price of each load. Salesmen and factors are prohibited from dealing on their own account.

There are three public markets in the metropolis for the sale of hay and straw; Whitechapel, Smithfield, and the Hay-market in the vicinity of the Regent's Park. The latter would formerly be held in the street called the Haymarket.

Straw is sold by the load of 36 trusses, of 36 lbs. each, making in all 11 cwt. 64 lbs.

It is affirmed, we know not with what foundation, that considerable frauds are perpetrated in the sale of hay and straw.

HEMP (*Ger. Hanf*; *Du. Hennip, Kennip*; *Da. Hamp*; *Sw. Hampa*; *Fr. Chanvre*; *It. Canape*; *Sp. Canamo*; *Rus. Konopl, Konopel*; *Pol. Konope*), a valuable plant (the *Cannabis sativa* of Linnæus), supposed to be a native of India, but long since naturalised and extensively cultivated in Italy, and many countries of Europe, particularly Russia and Poland, where it forms an article of primary commercial importance. It is also cultivated in different parts of America, though not in such quantities as to supersede its importation. It is stronger and coarser in the fibre than flax; but its uses, culture, and management are pretty much the same. When grown for seed, it is a very exhausting crop; but when pulled green, it is considered as a cleaner of the ground. In this country its cultivation is not deemed profitable; so that, notwithstanding the encouragement it has received from government, and the excellent quality of English hemp, it is but little grown, except in some few districts of Suffolk and Lincolnshire. The quantity raised in Ireland is also inconsiderable. — (*London's Encyc. of Agricult.*)

Exceedingly good *huckaback* is made from hemp, for towels and common tablecloths. Low-priced hempen cloths are a general wear for husbandmen, servants, and labouring manufacturers; the better sorts for working farmers and tradesmen in the country; and the finer ones, if wide, are preferred by some gentlemen for strength and warmth. They possess this advantage over Irish and other linens, — that their colour improves in wearing, while that of linen deteriorates. But the great consumption of hemp is in the manufacture of sailcloth and cordage, for which purposes it is peculiarly fitted by the strength of its fibre. English hemp, when properly prepared, is said to be stronger than that of every other country, Russia not excepted; and would, therefore, make the best cordage. It is, however, but little used in that way, or in the making of sailcloth; being principally made into cloth for the uses already stated.

Hemp has been cultivated in Bengal from the remotest antiquity, but not, as in Europe, for the purpose of being manufactured into cloth and cordage. In the Hindoo economy it serves as a substitute for malt; a favourite intoxicating liquor, called *banga*, being produced from it! This, also, is the use to which it is applied in Egypt. — (*Milburn's Orient. Commerce*, &c.)

The price of hemp fluctuated very much during the war. In consequence of difficulties in the way of its importation, it stood at a very high level from 1808 to 1814. This was the principal circumstance that originally brought iron cables into use; and the extent to which they are now introduced, has contributed materially to diminish the consumption and importation of hemp. — (*Tooke on High and Low Prices*, 2d ed. p. 345.)

We borrow the following particulars, with respect to the hemp trade of Petersburg, from the work of Mr. Bortnow on the commerce of that city: —

Hemp forms a very important article of export from Petersburg, and deserves particular notice. It is assorted, according to its quality, into *clean hemp*, or firsts; *out-shot hemp*, or seconds; and *half-clean hemp* or thirds; and *hemp codilla*.

Of the first 3 sorts there are annually exported about 2,000,000 poods, the greatest part in English and American bottoms. It is brought to Petersburg, from the interior beyond Moscow, by water; and its quality depends very much on the country in which it is produced. That brought from Karataher is the best; next to this, that produced in Beler; hemp from Gahatak is considered inferior to the latter.

As soon as the hemp is brought down in the spring, or in the course of the summer, it is selected and made up in bundles; both operations being performed by sworn selectors (*brachery*) and binders appointed by government for this purpose; and it is a well-known fact, that this is done with great impartiality and exactness.

A bundle of clean hemp weighs from 55 to 65 poods; ditto out-shot, 48 to 55 ditto; ditto half-clean, 40 to 45 ditto. (1 pood = 36 lbs. avoirdupois.)

Binding of hemp is paid for at the rate of 2 roubles 50 copecks for *clean*, 2 roubles for *out-shot*, and 1 rouble 60 copecks for *half-clean*, per bundle; one half is paid by the seller, and the other half by the purchaser, and is charged accordingly by their agents.

The expense of selecting hemp is 50 copecks per *bercovita* (or 10 poods), and is the same for every sort. To every bundle of assorted hemp is attached a ticket with the names of the selector, binder, and owner,

and the date and year. Every bundle has also affixed to it a piece of lead, stamped on one side with the name of the selector, and on the other with the sort of hemp and the time when it was selected. The external marks of good hemp are, its being of an equal green colour and free from spilla; but its good quality is proved by the strength of the fibre, which should be fine, thin, and long. The first sort should be quite clean and free from spilla; the *out-shot* is less so; and the *half-clean* contains a still greater portion of spilla, and is moreover of mixed qualities and colours.

As a perfect knowledge of the qualities of hemp and flax can only be acquired by experience and attention, agents usually employ men constantly occupied in this business; by which means they are sure of getting goods of the best quality, and have the best chance of giving satisfaction to their principals; because, although the hemp is selected by sworn selectors, yet, owing to the quantity of business and the speed with which it must be executed, &c., there are often great differences in the same sorts. The charges are in this way somewhat increased; but this is trifling in comparison of the advantage gained. The part separated, or picked out in cleaning hemp, is called *hemp codilla*; it is generally made up in small bundles of 1 pood, which are again, when shipped, bound together in large bundles, each consisting of about 30 small ones.

Particular care must be taken to ship hemp and flax in fine dry weather; if it get wet, it heats and is totally spoiled. For this reason every vessel taking in hemp or flax is furnished with mats to prevent its getting damp. Hemp, being light and bulky, is, when stowed, forced into the hold by means of winches, which renders the operation of loading rather slow.

It may be taken as a general rule, that the prices of hemp are highest in the months of May, June, July, and the early part of August, the demand for this article being then greatest, and the exportation to North America being principally effected at this season. Again, the prices of hemp are lowest in the month of September; the reason of which is, that the less opulent hemp-merchants return at the end of this month to their own country, in order to make new purchases for the ensuing year; and rather than be detained, sell the remainder of their stock some rubles below the market price. This causes a general decline; although an unusual demand for the article happening at the same time, or political events or rumours, occasionally produce a contrary effect. Two large warehouses, called *ambars*, are built in Petersburg for the special purpose of housing hemp, where the greatest order is observed.

Account of the Quantities of Hemp imported into the United Kingdom during the Seven Years from 1830 to 1841 (inclusive), specifying the Countries from which they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1830.	1831.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Russia - - - - -	<i>Cwts.</i> 810,519	<i>Cwts.</i> 856,458	<i>Cwts.</i> 891,073	<i>Cwts.</i> 811,000	<i>Cwts.</i> 751,038	<i>Cwts.</i> 898,810	<i>Cwts.</i> 843,764
Italy and the Italian Islands - - - - -	19,968	47,894	5,136	4,850	14,693	6,678	18,744
East India Company's territories and colonies - - - - -	40,854	18,590	168,568	107,994	138,501	55,343	78,909
Philippine Islands - - - - -	9,554	8,677	1,845	35,412*	38,711	15,421	18,749
All other countries - - - - -	7,708	4,703	8,098	13,021	62,978	7,098	7,399
Totals - - - - -	887,509	956,028	1,173,621	1,150,376	1,069,603	1,086,068	1,088,165

Account of the Quantities of Hemp entered for Home Consumption, and the Amount of Duty paid thereon, in each of the Three Years 1840, 1841, and 1842.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
<i>Cwts. grs. lbs.</i> 727,637 1 10	<i>Cwts. grs. lbs.</i> 645,939 9 21	<i>Cwts. grs. lbs.</i> 614,169 9 28	£ 2,213 4 4	£ 2,823 1 11	£ 2,687 6 11

Sixty poods of hemp and 40 poods of codilla make a last at Petersburg; 63 poods make an English ton.—(pp. 47—52.)

Riga hemp fetches a higher price than that of Petersburg. It is divided into 3 sorts: viz. rhine, clean, or clean, out-shot, and pass or half-clean. The following are the prices of hemp, duty paid, as quoted in the London markets, June, 1843:—

	£	s.	d.	per ton.
Hemp, Riga Rhine - - - - -	-	-	31	0 0 0
Petersburg, clean - - - - -	-	-	29	10 0 0
out-shot - - - - -	-	-	28	0 0 0
half-clean - - - - -	-	-	27	0 0 0
Italian - - - - -	-	-	35	0 0 0
Manilla - - - - -	-	-	22	10 22 0
Sunn - - - - -	-	-	14	0 15 0

We subjoin a statement of the various charges on the exportation of hemp from Petersburg, and on its importation into this country.

	<i>Rou. cop.</i>
<i>Clean Hemp.</i> —1 bundle = 63 poods = 1 ton.	25 26
Duty, 3 rou. 60 cop. per bercovits - - - - -	3 27
Additional duty, 10 per cent. - - - - -	0 28
Quarantine duty, 1 per cent. - - - - -	1 1
<i>A.</i> 35 11	
Custom-house charges, 4 per cent. - - - - -	3 73
Receiving, weighing, and shipping, 5½ rou. per bundle - - - - -	3 15
Bracking, 50 cop. per bercovits - - - - -	3 38
Binding, 40 cop. per 400 - - - - -	8 0
Lighterage and attendance to Cronstadt, 8 rou. per bundle - - - - -	1 12
Rebinding, 3½ rou. per bundle, ½ charged - - - - -	0 60
Brokerage, 60 cop. per ton - - - - -	4 45 38

Charges of importation per ton, taking the price at 40l. per ton.	<i>Rou. cop.</i>
Insurance, say 11, and 3 policy - - - - -	0 10 6
Freight, 52s. 6d. per ton - - - - -	8 18 6
Customs and Russian duties - - - - -	10 10 0
Landling charges - - - - -	0 5 0
Bound dues - - - - -	0 5 0
Discount, 5½ per cent. - - - - -	0 4 0
Brokerage - - - - -	0 4 0
Per ton - - - - -	410 5 8

In the above calculation, no allowance is made for damage; which, if care be taken to select a good vessel and an early season, does not amount to much. The estimates are nearly the lowest rates of charge. The insurance, indeed, is sometimes as low as 12s. 6d. per cent., and policy. Thus, however, is only in the very earliest part of the season; it rises to 21 per cent. in the autumn.

Brokerage, ¼ per cent.
Commissioner and extra charges, 3 per cent.
Stamps or drafts, ¼ per cent. } ½ per cent.
Brokerage, ¼ per cent.

Out-shot Hemp.—1 bundle = 63 poods = 1 ton. *Rou. cop.*
Fixed charges - - - - - 46 11
Other charges same. - - - - -
Half-clean Hemp.—1 bundle = 63 poods = 1 ton. *Rou. cop.*
Fixed charges - - - - - 48 7
Other charges same. - - - - -

Hemp the produce or manufacture of Europe may not be imported into the United Kingdom for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from

which it is imported, under penalty of forfeiting the same and 100l. by the master of the ship.— (22 & 4 W. 4. c. 54. § 2. and 22.)

Hemp (MANILLA), commonly called Manila white rope. Mr. Crawford gives the following account of this article:—"Of the wild banana one kind (*Musa testitia*) grows in vast abundance in some of the most northerly of the spice islands. In the great island of Mindanao, in the Philippines, it fills extensive forests. From the fibrous bark or epidermis is manufactured a kind of cloth, in frequent use among the natives. It also affords the material of the most valuable cordage which the indigenous products of the Archipelago yield. This is known to our traders and navigators under the name of Manila rope, and is equally applicable to cables, and to standing or running rigging."—(*Hist. of Archipelago*, vol. I. p. 412.)

Hemp (INDIAN), or SUNN and JUTA. Sunn consists of the fibre of the *croalaria Juncea*, a totally different plant from the *cannabis sativa*, which, as already stated, is never used by the Hindoos for cloth or cordage. Sunn is grown in various places of Hindostan. The strongest, whitest, and most durable species is produced at Comeroooly. During those periods of the late war when the intercourse with the Baltic was interrupted, and hemp bore an enormous price, large quantities of sunn were imported; but after the intercourse with the Continent was renewed the importation of sunn ceased for several years. But within the last dozen years it has been again imported to a considerable extent. It is, however, deficient in toughness.

Juta consists of the fibres of two plants, called the chonch and isbund (*Corchorus olitorius* and *Corchorus capsularis*), extensively cultivated in Bengal, and forming, in fact, the material of which gunny bags and gunny cloth are made. It fetches nearly though not quite as high a price as sunn. It comes into competition with flax, tow, and codilla, in the manufacture of stair and other carpets, bagging for cotton and other goods, and such like fabrics, being extensively used for these purposes in Dundee. But it is unsuitable for cordage and other articles into which hemp is manufactured, from its snapping when twisted, and rotting in water. The quantities imported, and the prices, have fluctuated very greatly during the last dozen years; but from 12l. to 15l. a ton appears to be a fair average price. When first introduced into this country, in 1815, the price of jute varied from 35s. to 40s. a ton. It was then, however, very little used, and did not, in fact, begin to come into any thing like general use as bagging till 1827 or 1828.

HEMP-SEED (Fr. *Chenevis*, *Chenevi*; Ger. *Hanfsaat*; It. *Cannapuccia*; Lat. *Semen cannabinum*; Rus. *Konopjanoe Semja*), the seed of hemp. The best hemp-seed is that which is brightest, and will not break when rubbed. It is used either as seed, or for crushing for oil, or as food for fowls. Previously to 1832 it was loaded with a duty of 2l. per quarter, which was then reduced to 1s. per ditto. This duty produced in 1840, 128l., showing that 2,560 quarters had been entered for consumption.

HERRINGS, AND HERRING FISHERY. The herring (*Clupea harengus* of Linnaeus) is a fish too well known to require any description. It is every where in high esteem, both when fresh and when salted.

"Herrings are found from the highest northern latitudes yet known, as low as the northern coasts of France. They are met with in vast shoals on the coast of America as low as Carolina. In Chesapeake Bay is an annual inundation of those fish, which cover the shore in such quantities as to become a nuisance. We find them again in the seas of Kamtschatka; and probably they reach Japan. The great winter rendezvous of the herring is within the Arctic circle: there they continue for many months, in order to recruit themselves after the fatigue of spawning; the seas within that space swarming with insect food in a far greater degree than those of our warmer latitudes. This mighty army begins to put itself in motion in June. They begin to appear off the Shetland Isles in April and May. These are only the forerunners of the grand shoal, which comes in June; and their appearance is marked by certain signs, such as the numbers of birds, like gannets and others, which follow to prey on them; but when the main body approaches, its breadth and depth is such as to alter the appearance of the very ocean. It is divided into distinct columns of 5 or 6 miles in length, and 3 or 4 in breadth; and they drive the water before them, with a kind of rippling. Sometimes they sink for the space of 10 or 15 minutes, and then rise again to the surface; and in fine weather reflect a variety of splendid colours, like a field of the most precious gems.

"The first check this army meets in its march southward, is from the Shetland Isles, which divide it into two parts; one wing takes to the east, the other to the western shores of Great Britain, and fill every bay and creek with their numbers: the former proceed towards Yarmouth, the great and ancient mart of herrings; they then pass through the British Channel, and after that in a manner disappear. Those which take towards the west, after offering themselves to the Hebrides, where the great stationary fishery is, proceed to the north of Ireland, where they meet with a second interruption, and are obliged to make a second division: the one takes to the western side, and is scarcely perceived, being soon lost in the immensity of the Atlantic; but the other, that passes into the Irish Sea, rejoices and feeds the inhabitants of most of the coasts that border on it. These brigades, as we may call them, which are thus separated from the greater columns, are often capricious in their motions, and do not show an invariable attachment to their haunts.

"This instinct of migration was given to the herrings, that they might deposit their spawn in warmer seas, that would mature and vivify it more assuredly than those of the frozen zone. It is not from defect of food that they set themselves in motion; for they come to us full of fat, and on their return are almost universally observed to be lean and miserable. What their food is near the pole, we are not yet informed; but in our seas they feed much on the *oniscus marinus*, a crustaceous insect, and sometimes on their own fry.

"They are full of roe in the end of June, and continue in perfection till the beginning of winter, when they deposit their spawn. The young herrings begin to approach the shores in July and August, and are then from $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch to 2 inches long. Though we have no particular authority for it, yet, as very few young herrings are found in our seas during winter, it seems most certain that they must return to their parental haunts beneath the ice. Some of the old herrings continue on our coast the whole year." — (*Pennant's British Zoology.*)

The herring was unknown to the ancients, being rarely, if ever, found within the Mediterranean. The Dutch are said to have engaged in the fishery in 1164. The invention of pickling or salting herrings is ascribed to one Beukels, or Beukelson, of Biervliet, near Sluys, who died in 1397. The emperor Charles V. visited his grave, and ordered a magnificent tomb to be erected to his memory. Since this early period, the Dutch have uniformly maintained their ascendancy in the herring fishery; but, owing to the Reformation, and the relaxed observance of Lent in Catholic countries, the demand for herrings upon the Continent is now far less than in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

Importance of the Herring Fishery. Progress of it in Great Britain. — There is, perhaps, no branch of industry, the importance of which has been so much over-rated as that of the herring fishery. For more than 2 centuries, company after company has been formed for its prosecution, fishing villages have been built, piers constructed, boards and regulations established, and vast sums expended in bounties; and yet the fishery never got into a healthy state till it was left to its own resources. The false estimates that have been long current with respect to the extent and value of the Dutch herring fishery, contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else, to the formation of exaggerated notions of the importance of this business. That the Hollanders prosecuted it to a greater extent, and with far greater success, than any other people, is, indeed, most true. There is not, however, the shadow of a ground for believing that they ever employed, as has often been stated, about 450,000 individuals in the fishery and the employments immediately subservient to it. We question whether they ever employed so many as 50,000. At the time when the Dutch carried on the fishery to the greatest extent, the entire population of the Seven United Provinces did not certainly exceed 2,400,000; and deducting a half for women, and from a half to two thirds of the remaining 1,200,000 for boys and old men, it would follow, according to the statement in question, that every able-bodied man in Holland must have been engaged in the herring fishery! It is astonishing how such ridiculously exaggerated accounts ever obtained any circulation; and still more so, that they should have been referred to and quoted, without, apparently, any doubt being entertained of their authenticity, down to our own times! Had they been sifted ever so little, their falsehood would have been obvious; and we should have saved many hundreds of thousands of pounds that have been thrown away in attempting to rival that which never existed.

It would be impossible, within the limits to which this article must be confined, to give any detailed account of the various attempts that have been made at different periods to encourage and bolster up the herring fishery. In 1740, in pursuance of a recommendation in his Majesty's speech at the opening of parliament, and of a report of a committee of the House of Commons, 500,000*l.* was subscribed for carrying on the fisheries, under a corporation called "The Society of the Free British Fishery." The Prince of Wales was chosen governor of the Society, which was patronized by men of the first rank and fortune in the state. But this Society did not trust entirely to its own efforts for success. The duties were reallocated upon the salt used in the fisheries; and besides this reasonable encouragement, a high tonnage bounty was granted upon every buss fitted out for the deep sea fishery. In consequence, many vessels were sent out, as Dr. Smith has truly stated, not to catch herrings, but to catch the bounty; and to such an extent was this abuse carried, that in 1759, when the tonnage bounty was 5*0s.*, the almost incredible sum of 150*l. 7s. 6d.* was paid as bounty upon every barrel of merchantable herrings that was produced! — (*Wealth of Nations*, p. 231.) But notwithstanding this encouragement, such was the waste and mismanagement of the Company's affairs, that it was speedily destroyed. Smith says, that in 1794 hardly a vestige remained of its having ever been in existence.

But notwithstanding this ill success, a new company was formed, for nearly the same objects, in 1766, of which George III. was patron. It has had nearly the same fate. "For a season or two, busses were fitted out by the society; but if every herring caught had carried a ducat in his mouth, the expense of its capture would scarcely have been repaid. The bubble ended by the society for fishing in the deep sea becoming a kind of building society, for purchasing ground in situations where curers and fishermen find it convenient to settle, and selling or letting it in small lots to them, at such advance of price as yields something better than fishing profits." — (See an excellent article on the *Herring Fishery* in the 11th Number of the *Quarterly Journal of Agriculture*.)

In 1808, a fresh attempt was made for the improvement and extension of the fishery. The act 48 Geo. 3. established a distinct set of commissioners for the superintendance of all matters connected with the fishery, and authorized them to appoint a sufficient number of fishery officers, to be stationed at the different ports, whose duty it is to see that the various regulations with respect to the gutting, packing, &c. of the herrings, and the branding of the barrels, are duly carried into effect. In 1805, a bounty of 3*0s.* per ton was granted on all vessels employed in the deep sea herring fishery, of above 60 tons burden, but payable only on 100 tons; and in 1820, a bounty of 20*0s.* per ton, which, under certain specified circumstances, might be increased to 50*0s.*, was granted on all vessels of from 16 to 60 tons, fitted out for the shore herring fishery; and, exclusively of these bounties on the tonnage, a bounty of 2*0s.* a barrel was allowed on all herrings cured gutted during the 5 years ending the 5th of April, 1815, and a bounty of 2*0s.* a barrel on their exportation, whether cured gutted or ungutted. During the 11 years ending the 5th of April, 1826, the bounty on herrings cured gutted was 4*0s.* a barrel.

It is stated in the article already referred to, that the cost of a barrel of cured herrings is about 16*0s.*, the half going to the fisherman for the green fish, the other half to the curer for barrel, salt, and labour. The bounty of 4*0s.* a barrel was, therefore, equal to half the value of the herrings as sold by the fisherman, and to one fourth of their value as sold by the curer! In consequence of this forced system, the fishery was rapidly increased. The following statement, extracted from the *Report of the Commissioners of the Fishery Board*, dated 27th of July, 1843, shows the progress it has made since 1809: —

They seem to have been first set forth in a treatise ascribed to Sir Walter Raleigh; and, what is singular, they were admitted by De Witt into his excellent work, the *True Interest of Holland*. They have been implicitly adopted by Sir John Barrow, in the article *Fisheries* in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

Abstract of the Total Quantity of White Herrings cured, branded for Bounty, and exported, in so far as the same have been brought under the Cognizance of the Officers of the Fishery, from the 5th of April, 1810, distinguishing each Year, and the Herrings cured gutted, from those cured unguoted. — (Paris Paper No. 495, Sess. 1843.)

Years ending April 3.	Total Quantity of Herrings cured.			Total Quantity of Herrings branded.	Total Quantity of Herrings exported.		
	Gutted.	Ungutted.	Total.		Gutted.	Ungutted.	Total.
	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
1811	65,530	96,397	161,927	16,980	19,828	36,811	
1812	79,515	29,004	111,519	58,430	27,564	85,994	
1813	89,003	155,406	244,409	40,100	89,225	129,325	
1814	39,931	27,611	110,542	70,077	61,744	131,821	
1815	103,372	64,767	160,139	43,576	66,938	78,567	
1816	135,506	86,674	222,180	116,536	161,544	278,080	
1817	153,776	36,567	198,343	140,018	115,480	255,498	
1818	301,470	25,430	327,901	145,099	148,177	293,276	
1819	303,777	97,103	400,880	270,098	212,301	482,399	
1820	347,190	35,301	382,491	309,700	244,998	554,718	
1821	413,308	28,087	441,395	365,372	299,453	664,825	
1822	391,609	24,877	416,486	363,953	312,891	676,844	
1823	323,037	25,432	348,469	303,110	169,459	472,569	
1824	335,450	56,740	392,190	299,571	236,505	536,076	
1825	305,597	44,896	350,493	271,813	201,983	473,796	
1826	340,118	39,115	379,233	291,429	217,052	508,481	
1827	359,718	29,484	389,202	325,606	165,741	491,347	
1828	379,560	60,418	440,000	379,517	170,766	550,283	
1829	306,949	45,737	352,686	334,927	202,813	537,740	
1830	280,533	29,253	309,786	299,577	214,114	513,691	
1831	371,096	68,274	439,370	337,085	269,976	607,061	
1832	315,113	49,247	364,360	357,339	211,830	569,169	
1833	363,611	63,379	426,990	368,229	218,222	586,451	
1834	352,577	68,253	420,830	378,180	269,133	647,313	
1835	317,924	60,074	377,998	356,299	250	356,549	
1836	399,534	69,290	468,824	407,617	370,846	778,463	
1837	360,169	107,600	467,769	414,194	347,238	761,432	
1838	386,400	125,274	511,674	441,532	397,630	839,162	
1839	384,439	173,503	557,942	465,659	353,080	818,739	
1840	405,373	138,265	543,638	491,311	340,531	831,842	
1841	437,137	186,103	623,240	545,180	385,851	931,031	
1842	489,520	177,624	667,144	590,923	283,530	874,453	

On looking at this Table, it is seen that the fishery made no progress under the new system till 1815, when the bounty was raised to 4s. This is a sufficient proof of the factitious and unnatural state of the business. Its extension, under the circumstances in question, instead of affording any proof of its being in a really flourishing condition, was distinctly the reverse. Individuals without capital, but who obtained loans sufficient to enable them to acquire boats, barrels, salt, &c. on the credit of the bounty, entered in vast numbers into the trade. The market was most commonly glutted with fish; and yet the temptation held out by the bounty caused it to be still further overloaded. Great injury was consequently done to those fish curers who possessed capital; and even the fishermen were injured by the system. "Most of the boats employed in the fishery never touch the water but during 6 weeks, from the middle or end of July to the middle of September. They are owned and sailed, not by regular fishermen following that vocation only, but by tradesmen, small farmers, farm-servants, and other landmen, who, by their insufficient skill to manage a boat at that season, but who do not follow the sea except for the 6 weeks of the herring fishery, when they go upon a kind of gambling speculation, of earning a twelvemonth's income by 6 weeks' work." — (*Quarterly Journal*, No. 11, p. 653.)

It has been often said, in vindication of the bounty system, that by extending the fishery it extended an important nursery for seamen; but the preceding statement shows that such has not been its effect. On the contrary, it has tended to depress the condition of the genuine fisherman, by bringing a host of interlopers into the field; and it has also been prejudicial to the little farmers and tradesmen, by withdrawing their attention from their peculiar business, that they may embark in what has hitherto been little less than a sort of lottery adventure.

These consequences and the increasing amount of the sum paid for bounties, at length induced the government to adopt a different system. By an act passed in 1825, the bounty of 2s. 8d. on exported herrings was made to cease in 1826, and is, was annually deducted from the bounty of 4s. a barrel paid on gutted herrings, till it ceased in 1830. And the above table shows conclusively that those who contended that the best way to promote the fishery was to let it alone, were in the right; and the quantity of herrings cured and the quantity exported having been both nearly doubled since the cessation of the bounties. The fishery is now, for the first time these hundred years, placed on a secure foundation; the supply is proportioned to the real demand, while the genuine fishermen, and those curers who have capital of their own, are no longer injured by the competition of landmen and others allured to the business by factitious encouragement and trading on capital furnished by government.

The repeal of the salt laws, and of the duty on salt, which preceded the repeal of the bounty, was of signal service to the fishery. It is true that salt used in the fisheries was exempted from the duty; but in order to prevent the revenue from being defrauded, so many regulations were enacted, and the difficulties and penalties to which the fishermen were in consequence subjected were so very great, that some of them chose rather to pay the duty upon the salt they made use of, than to undertake compliance with the regulations.

It is to be regretted, that when government repealed the bounty, it did not also abolish the "Fishery Board," and the officers and regulations it had appointed and enacted. So long as the bounty existed, it was quite proper that those who claimed it should be subjected to such regulations as government chose to enforce; but since it has been repealed, we see no reason why the fishery should not be made perfectly free, and every one allowed to prepare his herrings as he thinks best. It is said, indeed, that there was no inspection of the fish, frauds of all sorts would be practised; that the barrels would be ill made, and of a deficient size; that the fish would not be properly packed; that the bottom and middle of the barrels would be filled with bad ones, and a few good ones only placed at the top; that there would not be a sufficiency of pickle, &c. But it is obvious that the reasons alleged in vindication of the official inspection kept up in the herring fishery, might be alleged in vindication of a similar inspection in almost every other branch of industry. It is, in point of fact, utterly useless. It is an attempt, on the part of government, to do that for their subjects, which they can do better for themselves. Supposing the official inspection were put an end to, the merchants and others who buy herrings of the curers would themselves inspect the barrels; and while any attempt at fraud by the curers could thus be effectually obviated, they would be left at liberty to prepare their herrings in any way that they pleased, without being compelled, as at present, to follow only one system, or to prepare fish in the same way for the tables of the poor as for those of the rich. So far, indeed, is it from being true that the inspection system tends to put down trickery, that there is much reason to think that its effect is directly the reverse. The surveillance exercised by the officers in any thing but the herring fishery, and the official brand is often affixed to barrels which, were it not for the undeserved confidence that is too frequently

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Exports.	
Total.	
Barrels.	
28,512	
64,241	
109,725	
138,013	
141,303	
107,538	
138,694	
162,389	
227,169	
253,518	
494,405	
411,236	
170,415	
539,630	
892,016	
217,473	
156,406	
145,629	
905,875	
202,554	
261,001	
917,490	
200,584	
274,093	
158,405	
173,333	
189,863	
235,158	
429,730	
254,442	
230,137	
264,736	

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Germany - - -
Holland - - -
Belgium - - -
Western coast of Africa
Cape of Good Hope
East India Company's territories, and
Ceylon - - -
Philippine Islands
British settlements in Australia
Do. West Indies
U. States of America
Brazil
States of the Rio de la Plata
Chili
All other countries
Totals

placed in it by the unwary, would lie on the curer's hands. It is rather a security against the detection of fraud than against its existence.

The grand object of the herring fishery "Board" has been to enforce such a system of curing as would bring British herrings to a level with those of the Dutch. In this, however, they have completely failed; Dutch herrings generally fetching double the price of British herrings in every market of Europe. Neither is this to be wondered at. The consumers of Dutch herrings are the inhabitants of the Netherlands and of the German towns, who use them rather as a luxury than as an article of food, and who do not grudge the price that is necessary to have them in the finest order. The consumers of British herrings, on the other hand, are the negroes of the West Indies, and the poor of Ireland and Scotland. Cheapness is the prime requisite in the estimation of such persons; and nothing can be more entirely absurd, than that a public Board should endeavor to force the fish curers to adopt such a system in the preparation of herrings as must infallibly raise their price beyond the means of those by whom they are bought. Why should not the taste of the consumers be consulted as much in this as in any thing else? It would not be more ridiculous to attempt to have all cheese made of the same richness and flavour as Stilton, than it is to attempt to bring up all herrings to the standard of the Dutch.

We do, therefore, hope that an end may be put to this system; and that our legislators and patriots will cease to torment themselves with schemes for the improvement of the fisheries. The very best thing they can do for them is to let them alone. It is not a business that requires any sort of adventitious encouragement. Every obstacle to the easy introduction of fish into London and other places should certainly be removed; but all direct interferences with the fishery are sure to be in the last degree pernicious.

Of the 284,736 barrels of herrings exported from Great Britain in the year ending the 5th of April, 1842, 187,953 went to Ireland, 5,713 to places out of Europe (chiefly the West Indies), and 91,069 to places in Europe other than Ireland. The exportation of herrings to the W. Indies has of late years rapidly declined, in consequence, no doubt, of the emancipation of the slaves.

HIDES (Ger. *Häute*; Du. *Huiden*; Fr. *Peaux*; It. *Cuoia*; Sp. *Pellejos, Pielas*; Rus. *Koshi*), signify, generally, the skins of beasts; but the term is more particularly applied to those of large cattle, such as bullocks, cows, horses, &c. Hides are raw or green; that is, in the state in which they are taken off the carcase, or dressed with salt, alum, and saltpetre, to prevent them from putrefying; or they are cured or tanned. The hides of South America are in the highest repute, and vast quantities of them are annually imported into Great Britain. Large quantities are also imported from various parts of the Continent; and from India, the Cape of Good Hope, &c.

An Account of the Weight of the Hides Imported into the United Kingdom in each of the Ten Years ending with 1841; specifying the Countries whence the Hides were imported and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1835.	1835.	1835.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Cwts.								
Russia - - - - -	5,771	5,027	37,139	37,836	11,414	3,066	6,345	9,131	14,441
Denmark - - - - -	7,256	8,991	8,451	5,999	11,459	9,201	9,445	4,011	1,041
Germany - - - - -	18,604	30,168	17,256	18,574	23,575	14,877	16,797	8,564	6,744
Holland - - - - -	18,484	6,281	8,034	10,723	21,269	16,176	2,818	2,851	566
Belgium - - - - -	1,845	1,847	740	1,074	3,012	1,285	8,197	1,084	1,211
Western coast of Africa	1,875	5,875	5,875	5,875	5,875	5,875	5,875	5,875	5,875
Cape of Good Hope	15,193	18,734	20,365	20,296	18,498	18,098	10,377	14,418	8,636
East India Company's territories, and Ceylon - - - - -	9,788	29,537	31,213	41,984	40,883	40,714	37,474	65,833	22,850
Philippine Islands	418	7,963	6,718	8,476	1,021	5,333	6,079	6,886	1,982
British settlements in Australia	6,719	3,450	7,658	10,181	6,534	6,362	2,629	2,606	2,430
Do. West Indies	1,907	1,127	4,426	5,464	5,977	4,514	5,401	4,921	4,753
U. States of America	12,316	23,395	34,787	38,141	18,338	23,528	12,081	4,587	5,472
Brazil	17,707	28,507	149,791	37,703	26,855	16,006	28,463	37,981	34,190
States of the Rio de la Plata	65,613	121,612	87,470	135,090	139,914	170,572	181,319	252,877	206,067
Chili	1,253	6,334	6,053	5,231	885	403	1,484	2,380	6,513
All other countries	7,525	7,994	22,856	23,734	21,731	12,998	12,544	12,774	14,342
Totals	186,680	296,499	437,295	550,697	352,061	335,632	348,343	418,391	352,867

His Majesty is authorised to prohibit, by proclamation or order in council published in the *London Gazette*, the importation of any hides or skins, horns or hoofs, or any other part of any cattle or beast, in order to prevent any contagious distemper from being brought into the kingdom. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 58.)

Hides and skins paying duty by weight, may be delivered from the bonded warehouses, on the parties entering an average weight, due care being taken that the lockers actually retally and reweigh the hides and skins on delivery; and in the case of delivery for exportation, to express in cart notes the exact number delivered from the warehouse, in order to enable the export officer on the quay to check the quantity; and the merchant is to indorse on the socket and bill the total number and weight shipped, before the vessel is suffered to clear. — (*Customs Order*, 4th Dec. 1824.)

HOGSHEAD, a measure of capacity, containing 52½ Imperial gallons. A hogshead is equal to ½ a pipe. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

HOLIDAYS, are understood to be those days, exclusive of Sundays, on which no regular public business is transacted at particular public offices. They are either fixed or variable. They are not the same for all public offices. Those kept at the Bank of England have recently been reduced a full half.

The *variable holidays* are, Ash Wednesday, Good Friday, Easter Monday and Tuesday, Holy Thursday, Whit Monday and Tuesday.

It is enacted by stat. 6 Geo. 4 c. 106. § 13., that no holidays shall be kept by the Customs except Christmas-day and Good Friday, the King's birthday, and such days as may be appointed by proclamation for the purpose of a general fast.

The 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 53. § 16. enacts that no holidays shall be kept at the Exchequer, except Christmas-day and Good Friday, the birthdays of his Majesty and the Prince of Wales, the anniversaries of the Restoration of Charles II., and of his Majesty's coronation, and such days as may be appointed by proclamation for the celebration of a general fast, or such days as may be appointed as holidays by any warrant issued for that purpose by the Lords of the Treasury.

HONEY (Du. *Honig*, *Honing*; Fr. *Miel*; Ger. *Honig*; It. *Miele*; Lat. *Mel*; Rus. *Med*; Sp. *Miel*), a vegetable juice collected by bees. "Its flavour varies according to the nature of the flowers from which it is collected. Thus, the honeys of Minorca, Narbonne, and England are known by their flavours; and the honey prepared in different parts even of the same country differs. It is separated from the comb by dripping and by expression: the first method affords the purest sort; the second separates a less pure honey; and a still inferior kind is obtained by heating the comb before it is pressed. When obtained from young hives, which have not swarmed, it is denominated *virgin honey*. It is sometimes adulterated with flour, which is detected by mixing it with tepid water: the honey dissolves, while the flour remains nearly unaltered."—(Thomson's *Dispensatory*.)

By stat. 23 Eliz. c. 8. § 4., all vessels of honey are to be marked with the initial letters of the name of the owner, on pain of forfeiting 6s. 8d.; and contain, the barrel 92 gallons, the kilderkin 16 gallons, and the firkin 8 gallons, or forfeit 5s. for every gallon wanting; and if any honey sold be corrupted with any deceitful mixture, the seller shall forfeit the honey, &c.

HOPS (Ger. *Hopfen*; Du. *Hoppe*; Fr. *Houblon*; It. *Luppoli*, *Bruscandoli*; Sp. *Oblon*; Rus. *Chmel*; Lat. *Humulus Lupulus*). The hop is a perennial rooted plant, of which there are several varieties. It has an annual twining stem, which, when supported on poles, or trees, will reach the height of from 12 to 20 feet or more. It is a native of Britain, and most parts of Europe. When the hop was first used for preserving and improving beer, or cultivated for that purpose, is not known—(see *ALK*); but its culture was introduced into this country from Flanders in the reign of Henry VIII. Hops are first mentioned in the Statute Book in 1552, in an act 5 & 6 Edward 6. c. 5.; and it would appear from an act passed in 1603 (1 Jac. 1. c. 18.), that hops were at that time extensively cultivated in England. Walter Blithe, in his *Improvee Improved*, published in 1649 (3d ed. 1653, p. 240.), has a chapter upon improvement by plantations of hops, in which there is this striking passage. He observes, that "hops were then grown to be a national commodity; but that it was not many years since the famous city of London petitioned the parliament of England against two nuisances; and these were, Newcastle coals, in regard to their stench, &c., and hops, in regard they would *spoil the taste of drink*, and endanger the people: and had the parliament been no wiser than they, we had been in a measure pined, and in a great measure starved; which is just answerable to the principles of those men who cry down all devices, or ingenious discoveries, as projects, and thereby stifle and choak improvement."

After the hops have been picked and dried, the brightest and finest are put into pockets or fine bagging, and the brown into coarse or heavy bagging. The former are chiefly used in the brewing of fine ales, and the latter by the porter brewers. A pocket of hops, if they be good in quality, well cured and tight trodden, will weigh about 1½ cwt.; and a bag of hops will, under the same conditions, weigh about 2½ cwt. If the weight of either exceeds or falls much short of this medium, there is reason to suspect that the hops are of an inferior quality, or have been badly manufactured. The brighter the colour of hops, the greater is the estimation in which they are held. Earnings hops are reckoned best. The expense of forming hop plantations is very great, amounting in some instances to from 70l. to 100l. an acre; and the produce is very uncertain, the crop being frequently insufficient to defray the expenses of cultivation.

The hop growers are placed under the *surveillance* of the excise, a duty of 2d. per lb. being laid on all hops produced in this country. A hop planter is obliged to give notice to the excise, on or before the 1st of August each year, of the number of acres he has in cultivation; the situation and number of his nats or kilns for drying; the place or places of bagging, which, with the storerooms or warerooms in which the packages are intended to be lodged, are entered by the officer. No hops can be removed from the rooms thus entered, before they have been weighed and marked by a revenue officer; who marks, or ought to mark, its weight, and the name and residence of the grower, upon each bag, pocket, or package. Counterfeiting the officer's mark is prohibited under a penalty of 100l., and defacing it under a penalty of 20l. A planter or grower knowingly putting hops of different qualities or values into the same bag or package, forfeits 20l. And any person mixing with hops any dr., or other thing, to change or alter the colour or scent, shall forfeit 5l. a cwt. on all the hops so changed or altered. The malicious cutting or destroying of hop plantations may be punished by transportation beyond seas for life, or any term not less than 7 years, or by imprisonment and hard labour in a common goal, for any term not exceeding 7 years.—(*London's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Steevenson's Surrey*; *Burn's Justice*, &c.)

The duty on hops of the growth of Great Britain produced, in 1842, 260,978l. 18s. 10½d. The land under hops in England comprises about 52,000 acres, of which there are in Kent about 27,500, in Sussex 10,500, in Hereford, 12,500, in Worcestershire 2,000, &c.

Hops exported from Great Britain are, on being again imported, to be treated as foreign, whether originally so or not.

HORN (Du. *Hoorn*; Fr. *Corne*; Ger. *Horn*; Lat. *Cornu*), a substance too well known to require any description. Horns are of very considerable importance in the arts, being applied to a great variety of useful purposes. They are very extensively used in the manufacture of handles for knives, and in that of spoons, combs, lanterns, snuff-horns, &c. When divided into thin plates, horns are tolerably transparent, and were formerly used instead of glass in windows. Glue is sometimes made out of the refuse of horn. We annually import considerable quantities. At an average of 1840 and 1841, the entries of foreign horn for home consumption amounted to 22,888 cwt.

HORSE (Ger. *Pferd*; Du. *Paard*; Da. *Hest*; Sw. *Häst*; Fr. *Cheval*; It. *Cavallo*; Sp. *Caballo*; Rus. *Loshad*; Pol. *Kon*; Lat. *Equus*; Gr. Ἴππος), a domestic

quadruped of the highest utility, being by far the most valuable acquisition made by man among the lower animals.

There is a great variety of horses in Britain. The frequent introduction of foreign breeds, and their judicious mixture, having greatly improved the native stocks. Our race horses are the fleetest in the world; our carriage and cavalry horses are amongst the handsomest and most active of those employed for these purposes; and our heavy draught horses are the most powerful, beautiful, and docile of any of the large breeds.

Number and Value of Horses in Great Britain.—The number of horses used in Great Britain for different purposes is very great, although less so, perhaps, than has been generally supposed. Mr. Middleton (*Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 639), estimated the total number of horses in England and Wales, employed in husbandry, at 1,200,000, and those employed for other purposes at 600,000. Dr. Colquhoun, contrary to his usual practice, reduces this estimate to 1,500,000 for Great Britain; and in this instance we are inclined to think his guess is pretty near the mark. In 1814, when the horses employed in husbandry were taxed, the numbers of the various descriptions of horses in England and Wales, which paid duty, amounted to 1,204,307. But this account did not include stage-coach, mail-coach, and hackney-coach horses, nor did it include those used in posting. Poor persons keeping only one horse were also exempted from the duty; as were all horses employed in the regular regiments of cavalry and artillery, and in the volunteer cavalry. In Mr. Middleton's estimate, already referred to, he estimated the number of post-chaise, mail, stage, and hackney-coach horses, at 100,000; and from the inquiries we have made, we are satisfied that if we estimate the number of such horses in Great Britain, at this moment, at 125,000, we shall be decidedly beyond the mark.

On the whole, therefore, it may be fairly estimated that there are in Great Britain from 1,400,000 to 1,600,000 horses employed for various purposes of pleasure and utility. They may, probably, be worth at an average from 10*l.* to 12*l.*, making their total value from 14,000,000*l.* to 18,000,000*l.* sterling, exclusive of the young horses.

The duties begin to be charged as soon as horses are used for drawing or riding, and not previously.

An Account of the Number of Horses charged with Duty in the Years ending the 5th of April, 1825, 1832, and 1841, the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duties.

	1825.			1832.			1841.		
	No. of Horses.	Rates of Duty for each Horse.	Amount of Duty.	No. of Horses.	Rates of Duty for each Horse.	Amount of Duty.	No. of Horses.	Rates of Duty for each Horse.	Amount of Duty.
Horses used for riding or drawing carriages, and charged at progressive rates:—									
Persons keeping 1	116,593	1 s. 6 d.	167,510 8	123,668	Same	177,772 15 0	89,519	Same	195,390 1 3
— 2	27,418	2 7 0	64,775 0 8	31,073	do.	73,409 19 3	34,671	do.	81,910 4 9
— 3	10,251	3 12 0	36,859 3 0	10,743	do.	29,008 5 0	11,770	do.	30,719 5 6
— 4	5,748	4 15 0	15,807 0 0	5,845	do.	16,073 15 0	6,556	do.	17,479 0 0
— 5	5,190	5 10 0	8,992 0 0	5,210	do.	8,947 17 6	3,276	do.	9,151 17 0
— 6	1,774	6 18 0	6,488 16 0	2,128	do.	6,900 4 0	2,418	do.	6,310 10 0
— 7 & 6	2,279	7 19 0	6,208 10 0	2,204	do.	6,584 9 0	2,280	do.	6,811 10 0
— 9	585	8 0 0	1,756 16 0	552	do.	3,615 19 0	615	do.	1,861 19 9
— 10 to 12	1,486	3 6 0	4,718 11 0	1,254	do.	4,398 13 0	1,253	do.	3,978 5 6
— 13 - 16	200	3 9 0	1,657 10 0	719	do.	2,491 16 3	853	do.	2,718 18 9
— 17	17	4 0 0	108 16 0	55	do.	163 4 0	49	do.	156 16 0
— 18	24	4 0 0	174 3 0	126	do.	406 7 0	162	do.	582 9 0
— 19 & upwards	135	5 0 0	432 5 0	76	do.	217 0 0	96	do.	312 0 0
— 20 & upwards	1,018	3 6 0	3,559 8 0	1,112	do.	5,708 12 0	1,543	do.	4,451 11 0
Total	171,147		309,178 8 0	183,878		549,259 9 0	164,286		394,970 12 6
Horses let to hire	1,702	1 8 0	2,446 12 6	2,073	do.	2,913 18 9	1,179	do.	3,182 6 3
Race horses	711	4 17 0	1,022 1 3	997	do.	1,333 3 9	1,053	do.	3,833 10 0
Horses used for riding and drawing carriages, and not exceeding 15 hands	19,121	1 1 0	30,077 1 0	24,639	do.	25,970 19 0	22,594	do.	23,723 14 0
Horses rode by farming bailiffs	1,251	1 0 0	1,563 15 0	1,438	do.	1,797 10 0	55	do.	68 15 0
Do. by hutchers, where only is kept	8,089	1 8 9	4,296 13 9	3,364	do.	4,835 15 0	3,589	do.	4,671 13 9
Do. where 2 are kept solely for trade	1,085	0 10 6	569 12 6	1,213	do.	636 16 6	1,030	do.	540 15 0
Horses not chargeable to any of the foregoing duties, and not exempted	112,989	0 10 6	60,319 4 6	123,728	do.	64,927 4 0	132,318	do.	69,478 11 0
Mules	410	0 10 6	215 8 0	348	do.	182 14 0	381	do.	200 0 0
Totals	310,803		518,678	518,678		1,058,065	394,970		1,058,065

Exemptions.—Besides the above account of the horses charged with duty, an account is published of the numbers exempted from the duty. This account is not, however, to be relied on inasmuch as very many of those whose horses are not liable to the duties never think of making any returns. By not attending to this circumstance, we inadvertently, in a former edition of this work, under-rated the number of horses engaged in certain departments of industry.

Influence of Railroads on Horses.—The statements now made, show the dependence that ought to be placed on the estimates occasionally put forth by some of the promoters of railroads and steam carriages. These gentlemen are pleased to tell us, that, by superseding the employment of horses in public conveyances, and in the regular carriage of goods, the full adoption of their projects will in the end enable 1,000,000 horses to be dispensed with; and that, as each horse consumes as much food as 8 men, it will at once provide subsistence for 8,000,000 human beings! To dwell upon the absurdity of such a statement would be worse than useless; nor should we have thought of noticing it, but that it found its way into a report of a committee of the House of Commons. It is sufficient to observe, that though all the stage

and mail coaches and all the public waggons, vans, &c. employed in the empire, were superseded by steam carriages, they would not, even then, have rendered 120,000 horses superfluous. The notion that 1 horse consumes as much as 8 men, at least if we suppose the men to be reasonably well fed, is too ridiculous to deserve notice.

The rates of duty payable at present (1843) on horses, are the same as those specified in the above Table for 1841. A horse *bona fide* kept and usually employed for the purpose of husbandry, on a farm of less value than 200*l.* a year, though occasionally used as a riding horse, is exempted from the duty. And husbandry horses, whatever may be the value of the farm on which they are kept, may be ridden free of duty, to and from any place to which a burden shall have been carried or brought back; to procure medical assistance, and to or from markets, places of public worship, elections of members of parliament, courts of justice, or meetings of commissioners of taxes.

Brood mares, while kept for the sole purpose of breeding, are exempted from all duty.

Horses may be let or lent for agricultural purposes, without any increase of duty.

Mules employed in carrying ore and coal are exempted from any duty. — See the Statutes in *Chitty's edition of Burn's Justice*, vol. v. tit. *Assessed Taxes*.)

The facility with which horses may be stolen has led to the enactment of several regulations with respect to their sale, &c. The property of a horse cannot be conveyed away without the express consent of the owner. Hence, a *bona fide* purchaser gains no property in a horse that has been stolen, unless it be bought in a fair, or an open market. It is directed that the keeper of every fair or market shall appoint a certain open place for the sale of horses, and one or more persons to take toll there, and keep the place from 10 in the forenoon till sunset. The owner's property in the horse stolen is not altered by sale in a legal fair, unless it be openly ridden, led, walked, or kept standing for one hour at least, and has been registered, for which the buyer is to pay toll. Sellers of horses in fairs or markets must know to the toll-takers, or to some other creditable person known to them, who declares his knowledge of them, and enters the same in a book kept by the toll-taker for the purpose. Without these formalities, the sale is void. The owner of a horse stolen may, notwithstanding its legal sale, redeem it on payment or tender of the price my time within 6 months of the time of the theft. — *Burn's Justice of the Peace, Chitty's ed.* vol. iii. p. 264.)

In order to obviate the facility afforded by means of slaughtering houses for the disposal of stolen horses, it was enacted in 1786 (26 Geo. 3. c. 71.), that all persons keeping places for slaughtering horses, geldings, sheep, hogs, or other cattle not killed for butcher's meat, shall obtain a licence from the quarter sessions, first producing from the minister and churchwardens, or from the minister and 2 substantial householders, a certificate of their fitness to be intrusted with the management and carrying on of such business. Persons slaughtering horses or cattle without licence are guilty of felony, and may be whipped and imprisoned, or transported. Persons licensed are bound to affix over the door or gate of the place where their business is carried on, in legible characters, the words "Licensed for slaughtering Horses, pursuant to an Act passed in the 25th Year of his Majesty King Geo. III.": The parishioners entitled to meet in vestry are authorised to choose annually, or oftener, inspectors, whose duty it is to take an account and description, &c. of every living horse, &c. that may be brought to such slaughtering houses to be killed, and of every dead horse that may be brought to be flayed. Persons bringing cattle are to be asked an account of themselves, and if it be not deemed satisfactory, they may be carried before a justice. This act does not extend to curriers, fellmongers, tanners, or persons killing aged or diseased cattle, for the purpose of using or curing their hides in their respective businesses; but those, or any other persons, who shall knowingly or wilfully kill any sound or useful horse, &c., shall for every such offence forfeit not more than 20*l.*, and not less than 10*l.*

The stealing of horses and other cattle is a capital crime, punishable by death. The maliciously wounding, maiming, killing, &c. of horses and other cattle, is to be punished, at the discretion of the court, by transportation beyond seas for life, for any term not less than 7 years, or by imprisonment for any term not exceeding 4 years; and if a male, he may be once, twice, or three publicly or privately whipped, should the court so direct. — (7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29. § 25; 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 30. § 16.)

French Trade in Horses.—The horses of France are not, speaking generally, nearly so handsome, fleet, or powerful as those of England. Lately, however, the French have been making great efforts to improve the breed of horses, and have, in this view, been making large importations from England and other countries. At an average of the 5 years ending with 1827, the excess of horses imported into France, above those exported, amounted to about 13,000 a year. — *Bulletin des Sciences Géographiques*, tom. xix. p. 5.) The imports from England have, in some late years, amounted to nearly 2,000 horses.

HORSE DEALERS, persons whose business it is to buy and sell horses.

Every person carrying on the business of a horse dealer is required to keep a book, in which he shall enter an account of the number of the horses kept by him for sale and for use, specifying the duties to which the same are respectively liable; this book is to be open, at all reasonable times, to the inspection of the officers, and a true copy of the same is to be delivered quarterly to the assessor or assessors of the parish in which the party resides. Penalty for non-compliance, 50*l.* — (43 Geo. 3. c. 161.) Horse dealers are assessed, if they carry on their business in the metropolis, 2*l.*; and if elsewhere, 12*l.* 10*s.*

In 1841 there were in the metropolis 1,839 licensed horse-dealers, and in other parts of Great Britain 12,312, making a grand total of 14,151.

HUNDRED WEIGHT, a weight of 112 lbs. avoirdupois, generally written cwt.

I. AND J.

JALAP, or **JALOP** (Ger. *Jalapp*; Fr. *Jalap*; It. *Sciarappa*; Sp. *Jalapa*), the root of a sort of convolvulus, so named from Xalapa, in Mexico, whence we chiefly import it. The root, when brought to this country, is in thin transverse slices, solid, hard, weighty, of a blackish colour on the outside, and internally of a dark grey, with black circular striæ. The hardest and darkest coloured is the best; that which is light, spongy, and pale coloured, should be rejected. The odour of jalap, especially when in powder, is very characteristic. Its taste is exceedingly nauseous, accompanied by a sweetish bitterness. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Brand's Pharmacy*.) The entries of jalap for home consumption amounted, at an average of 1840 and 1841, to 44,962 lbs. a year.

JAMAICA PEPPER. See **PIMENTO**.

JAPANNED WARES (Ger. *Japanische ware*; Du. *Japansch lakwerk*; Fr. *Marchandises de Japon*), articles of every description, such as tea-trays, clock-dials, candlesticks, snuff-boxes, &c. covered with coats of japan, whether plain, or embellished with

painting or gilding. Birmingham is the grand staple of this manufacture, which is there carried on to a great extent. Pontypool, in Monmouthshire, was formerly famous for japanning; but it is at present continued there on a very small scale only. It is prosecuted with spirit and success at Billston and Wolverhampton.

JASPER (*Ger. Jaspis*; *Du. Jaspis*; *Fr. Jaspe*; *It. Diaspro*; *Sp. Jaspe*; *Rus. Jaschma*). This stone is an ingredient in the composition of many mountains. It occurs usually in large amorphous masses, sometimes in round or angular pieces; its fracture is conchoidal; specific gravity from 2 to 2.7. Its colours are various: when heated it does not dehydrate: it is usually divided into 4 species, denominated Egyptian jasper, striped jasper, porcelain jasper, and common jasper. It is sometimes employed by jewellers in the formation of seals.

JERSEY. See GUERNSEY.

JET, or PITCH COAL (*Du. Git, Zwarte barnsteen*; *Fr. Jais, Jayet*; *Ger. Gagat*; *It. Gagata, Lustrino*; *Lat. Gagus, Gagates*), of a black velvet colour, occurs massive, in plates; sometimes in the shape of branches of trees, but without a regular woody texture. Internal lustre shining, resinous, soft; rather brittle; easily frangible: specific gravity 1.3. It is used for fuel, and for making vessels and snuff-boxes. In Prussia it is called black amber, and is cut into rosaries and necklaces. It is distinguished by its brilliancy and conchoidal fracture. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

JETSAM. See FLOTSAM.

IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, the bringing of commodities from and sending them to other countries. A very large portion of the revenue of Great Britain being derived from customs duties, or from duties on commodities imported from abroad; and drawbacks being given on many, and bounties on a few articles exported; the business of importation and exportation is subjected to various regulations, which must be carefully observed by those who would avoid incurring penalties, and subjecting their property to confiscation. The regulations referred to are embodied in the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86., which came into operation on the 4th August, 1845. We subjoin a full abstract of this important statute.

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

No Goods to be landed nor Bulk broken before Report and Entry.—No goods shall be unladen from any ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port or place in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, nor shall bulk be broken after the arrival of such ship within 4 leagues of the coasts thereof respectively, before due report of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and warrant granted in manner herein-after directed; and no goods shall be so unladen, except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods not duly reported, or which shall be unladen contrary hereto, shall be forfeited; and if bulk be broken contrary hereto, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and if, after the arrival of any ship within 4 leagues of the coast of the U. K. or of the Isle of Man, any alteration be made in the stowage of the cargo of such ship, so as to facilitate the unloading of any part of such cargo, or if any part be stowed, destroyed, or thrown overboard, or any package be opened, such ship shall be deemed to have broken bulk; provided always, that the several articles herein-after enumerated may be landed in the U. K. without report, entry, or warrant; (that is to say,) diamonds and bullion, fresh fish of British taking and imported in British ships, and lobsters, fresh, however taken or imported.—§ 2.

MANIFEST.

All British Ships to have Manifests.—No goods shall be imported into the U. K. or the Isle of Man from parts beyond seas in any British ship, unless the master have on board a manifest of such goods, made out and dated and signed by him at the place or respective places where the same, or the different parts of the same, was or were taken on board, and authenticated in the manner herein-after provided; and every such manifest shall set forth the name and the tonnage of the ship, the name of the master and of the place to which the ship belongs, and of the place or places where the goods were taken on board respectively, and of the place or places for which they are destined respectively, and shall contain a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, and of the sorts of goods and different kinds of each sort contained therein, to the best of the master's knowledge, and the general denomination of the contents of every package containing the following articles imported from any foreign place in Europe, namely, cambrics or lawns, leather gloves, manufactures of silk, tobacco, cigars, or snuff, and the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, and the names of the respective shippers and consignees, as far as the same can be known to the master; and to such particular account shall be subjoined a general account or recapitulation of the total number of the packages of each sort, describing the same by their usual names, or by such descriptions as the same can best be known by, and the different goods therein, and also the total quantities of the different goods stowed loose; and all such cambrics or lawns, leather gloves, manufactures of silk, tobacco, cigars, or snuff not so manifested shall be forfeited.—§ 3.

Manifest to be produced to Officers in Colonies.—Before any ship shall be cleared out or depart from any place in any of the British possessions abroad, with any goods for the U. K. or for the Isle of Man, the master of such ship shall produce the manifest to the collector or comptroller of the customs, or other proper officer, who shall certify upon the same the date of the production thereof to him: provided always, that in all places within the territorial possessions of the East India Company the collector of sea customs or other proper officer shall authenticate the manifest as aforesaid.—§ 4.

*Manifest if wanting, or if Goods missing, Master to forfeit 100*l.**—If any goods be imported into the U. K. or into the Isle of Man in any British ship without such manifest, or if any goods contained in such manifest be not on board, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 5.

Manifest to be produced within Four Leagues.—The master of every ship required to have a manifest on board shall produce such manifest to any officer of the customs who shall come on board his ship after her arrival within 4 leagues of the coast of the U. K. or of the coast of the Isle of Man, and who shall demand the same, for his inspection; and such master shall also deliver to any such officer who shall be the first to demand it, a true copy of such manifest, signed by the master, and shall also deliver another copy to any other officer of the customs who shall be the first to demand the same within the limits of the port to which such ship is bound; and thereupon such officers respectively

shall notify on such manifest and on such copies the date of the production of such manifest and of the receipt of such copies, and shall transmit such copies to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such vessel is first bound, and shall return such manifest to the master; and if such master shall not in any case produce such manifest or deliver such copy, he shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 6.

REPORT.

Master within 24 Hours and before breaking Bulk shall report. — The master of every ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, whether laden or in ballast, shall within 24 hours after such arrival, and except where it be broken, make due report of such ship, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth of the same before the collector or comptroller of such port; and such report shall contain an account of the particular marks, numbers, and contents of all the different packages or parcels of goods on board such ship, and the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, to the best of his knowledge, and the general denomination of the contents of every package containing the following articles imported from any foreign place in Europe, namely, cambrics or lawns, leather gloves, manufactures of silk, tobacco, cigars, or snuff, and of the place or places where such goods were respectively taken on board, and of the burden of such ship, and of the country where such ship was built, or if British of the port of registry, and of the country of the people to whom such ship belongs, and of the name and country of the person who was master during the voyage, and of the number of the people by whom such ship was navigated, stating how many are subjects of the country to which such ship belongs, and how many are of some other country; and in such report it shall be further declared whether and in what cases such ship has broken bulk in the course of her voyage, and what part of her cargo, if any, is intended for importation at such port, and what part, if any, is intended for importation at another port in the U. K. or at another port in the Isle of Man respectively, and what part, if any, is to be imported except to be warehoused for exportation to some other port; and what part, if any, is intended for exportation in such ship to parts beyond the seas, and what surplus stores or stock remain on board such ship, and if a British ship, what foreign-made sails or cordage, not being standing or running rigging, are in use on board such ship; and the master of any ship who shall fail to make such report, or who shall make a false report, shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 7.

Bond to maintain Africans. — The master of every vessel coming from the coast of Africa, and having taken on board at any place in Africa any person or persons being or appearing to be natives of Africa, shall, in addition to all other matters, state in the report of his vessel how many such persons have been taken on board by him in Africa; and any such master falling herein shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; provided also, that the master or owner or owners of such vessel, or some or one of them, at the time of making such report, be required to enter into bond to H. M. in the sum of 100*l.*, conditioned to keep harmless any parish or any extra-parochial or other place maintaining its own poor against any penalty which such parish or other place may be put to in supporting any such person during their stay in the U. K.; and any such master, owner or owners, refusing or neglecting to enter into such bond, shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.* — § 8.

Packages reported "Contents unknown" may be opened and examined. — If the contents of any package so reported as aforesaid for exportation in the same ship to parts beyond the seas shall be reported by the master as being unknown to him, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to open and examine such package on board, or to bring the same to the Queen's warehouse for that purpose; and if there be found in such package any goods which may not be entered for home use, such goods shall be forfeited, or if the goods be such as may be entered for home use, the same shall be chargeable with the duties of importation, unless in either case the commissioners of customs, in consideration of the sort or quality of such goods, or the small rate of duty payable thereon, shall see fit to deliver the same for exportation. — § 9.

Master to deliver Manifest, &c. — The master of every ship shall at the time of making such report deliver to the collector or comptroller the manifest of the cargo of such ship, where a manifest is required, and, if required by the collector or comptroller, shall produce to him any bill or bills of lading, or a true copy thereof, for any and every part of the cargo laden on board, and shall answer all such questions relating to the ship and cargo, and crew and voyage, as shall be put to him by such collector or comptroller; and in case of failure or refusal to produce such manifest, or to answer such questions, or to answer them truly, or to produce such bill of lading or copy, or if such manifest or bill of lading or copy shall be false, or if any bill of lading be uttered or produced by any master, and the goods expressed therein shall not have been *bond fide* shipped on board such ship, or if any bill of lading uttered or produced by any master shall not have been signed by him, or any such copy shall not have been received or made by him previously to his leaving the place where the goods expressed in such bill of lading or copy were shipped, then and in every such case such master shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 10.

Part of Cargo reported for another Port. — If any part of the cargo of any ship for which a manifest is required be reported for importation at some other port in the U. K., or at some other port in the Isle of Man respectively, the collector and comptroller of the port at which some part of the cargo has been delivered shall notify such delivery on the manifest, and return the same to the master of such ship. — § 11.

Ship to come quickly to place of unloading, and bring to at Stations for boarding Officers. — Every ship shall come as quickly up to the proper place of mooring or unloading as the nature of the port will admit, and without touching at any other place, and in proceeding to such place shall bring to at stations appointed by the commissioners of H. M.'s customs for the boarding of ships by the officers of the customs, (see Table at end of this act); and after arrival at such place of mooring or unloading such ship shall not remove from such place, except directly to some other proper place, and with the knowledge of the proper officer of the customs, on penalty of 100*l.*, to be paid by the master of such ship; provided always, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to appoint places to be the proper places for the mooring or unloading of ships importing tobacco, and where such ships only shall be moored or unladen; and in case the place so appointed for the unloading of such ships shall not be within some dock surrounded with walls, if any such ship, after having been discharged, shall remain at such place, or if any ship not importing tobacco shall be moored at such place, the master shall in either case forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.* — § 12.

Goods unshipped from Vessel, or landed contrary to the Regulations of the Commissioners of Customs, forfeited. — No goods imported into the U. K. from parts beyond the seas shall be unshipped or carried from the importing vessel to any quay, wharf, or other place, previously to the examination thereof, except under such rules, regulations, and restrictions as the commissioners of customs may from time to time, with the approbation of the commissioners of H. M.'s treasury, direct and appoint; and all goods unshipped or carried contrary to such rules, regulations, or restrictions, or any of them, shall be forfeited together with the craft or other means used for the conveyance of any such goods; and every person knowingly concerned in the unshipping or carrying of such goods, or to whose hands and possession such goods shall knowingly come, contrary to such rules, regulations, and restrictions, shall forfeit and pay a sum of 100*l.*, or treble the value of such goods, at the election of the said commissioners of customs. — § 13.

Officers to board Ships. — It shall be lawful for the proper officers of the customs to board any ship arriving at any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, and freely to stay on board until all the goods laden therein shall have been duly delivered from the same; and such officers shall have free access to every part of the ship, with power to fasten down hatchways, and to mark any goods before landing, and to lock up, seal, mark, or otherwise secure any goods on board such ship; and if any place or any box or

chest be locked, and the keys be withheld, such officers, if they be of a degree superior to tidesmen or watermen, may open any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in their power; and if they be tidesmen or watermen, or only of that degree, they shall send for their superior officer, who may open or cause to be opened any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in his power; and if any goods be found concealed on board any such ship they shall be forfeited; and if the officers shall place any lock, mark, or seal on such goods, or on boxes, mark, or seal be wilfully opened, altered, or broken before due delivery of such goods, or if any of such goods be secretly conveyed away, or if the hatchways, after having been fastened down by the officer, be opened, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 14.

*Commissioned Ships having Goods on board, to deliver an Account, or forfeit 100*l.** — If any ship (having commission from H. M. or from any foreign prince or state) arriving as aforesaid at any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man shall have on board any goods laden in parts beyond the sea, the captain, master, purser, or other person having the charge of such ship or of such goods for that voyage shall, before any part of such goods be taken out of such ship, or when called upon so to do by any officer of the customs, deliver an account in writing under his hand to the best of his knowledge of the quality and quantity of every package or parcel of such goods, and of the marks and numbers thereon, and of the names of the respective shippers and consignees of the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration at the foot of such account declaring to the truth thereof, and shall also truly answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning such goods as shall be required of him, and on failure thereof such captain, master, purser, or other person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and all such ships shall be liable to such searches as merchant ships are liable to, and the officers of the customs may freely enter and go on board all such ships, and bring from thence on shore into the Queen's warehouse any goods found on board any such ship as aforesaid, subject nevertheless to such regulations in respect of ships of war belonging to H. M. as shall from time to time be directed in that respect by the commissioners of the treasury. — § 15.

ENTRY.

After 14 Days, Officer may land Goods not entered, and certain Goods before 14 Days. — Every importer of any goods shall, within 14 days after the arrival of the ship importing the same, make perfect entry inwards of such goods, or entry by bill of lading in manner herein-after provided, and shall within such time land the same; and in default of such entry and landing it shall be lawful for the officers of customs to convey such goods to the Queen's warehouse; and whenever the cargo of any ship shall have been discharged, with the exception only of a small quantity of goods, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such remaining goods and at any time to convey any small packages or parcels of goods to the Queen's warehouse, although such 14 days shall not have expired, there to be kept waiting the due entry thereof during the remainder of such 14 days; and if the duties due upon any goods so conveyed to the Queen's warehouse shall not be paid within 3 months after such 14 days shall have expired, together with all charges of removal and warehouse rent, the same shall be sold, and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods. — § 16.

If Goods remain on board a Vessel beyond Time allowed by Law, Vessel and Goods may be detained until Expence of guarding Goods be paid. — Whenever any officer of customs shall have been kept in charge of any goods beyond the time allowed by law for the same being entered and landed, it shall be lawful for such officer to detain the vessel in which such goods shall have been imported, provided the same are remaining on board the vessel, until the expences so incurred shall have been paid to such person as the commissioners of customs shall think fit to appoint to receive the same; and in all cases where the goods shall have been put out of the vessel the person or persons in whose names the same shall have been entered shall pay to the person so appointed as aforesaid all such expences as may have been so incurred by such officer, and such goods shall and may be detained until such expences shall have been paid, and if not paid within one month after demand made in writing of such person or persons by any officer of the customs, the same shall and may be sold, and the proceeds shall be applied, first, to the payment of the freight and charges, next of the duties, next of the expences of such officer, and of the charges attending the seizure and sale of such goods, and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods. — § 17.

Bill of Entry to be delivered. — The person entering any goods inwards (whether for payment of duty, or to be warehoused upon the first perfect entry thereof, or for payment of duty upon the taking out of the warehouse, or whether such goods be free of duty,) shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry of such goods, fairly written, or fairly printed in part and fairly printed in part, in words at length, expressing the name of the ship and of the master of the ship in which the goods were imported, and of the place from whence they were brought, and the description and situation of the warehouse, if they are to be warehoused, and the name of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantity and description of the goods, and the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the goods, and in the margin of such bill shall delineate the respective marks and numbers of such packages, and shall pay down any duties which may be payable upon the goods mentioned in such entry; and such person shall also deliver at the same time two or more duplicates, as the case may require, of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures; and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be written, or partly written and partly printed, and arranged in such form and manner, and the number of such duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such bill, being duly signed by the collector and comptroller, and transmitted to the landing water, shall be the warrant to him for the landing and delivering of such goods. — § 18.

Unauthorized Persons not permitted to make Entries. — *Proviso.* — Every person who shall make or cause to be made any such entry inwards of any goods, not being duly authorized thereto by the proprietor or consignee of such goods, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; provided always, that no such penalty shall extend or be deemed to extend to any person acting under the directions of the several dock companies or other corporate bodies authorized by law to pass entries. — § 19.

Not valid unless agreeing with Manifest, Report, and other Documents. — No entry, nor any warrant for the landing of any goods, or for the taking of any goods out of any warehouse, shall be deemed valid, unless the particulars of the goods and packages in such entry shall correspond with the particulars of the goods and packages purporting to be the same in the report of the ship, and in the manifest where a manifest is required, and in the certificate or other document where any is required, by which the importation or entry of such goods is authorized, nor unless the goods shall have been properly described in such entry by the denominations and with the characters and circumstances according to which such goods are charged with duty or may be imported, either to be used in the U. K. or to be warehoused for exportation only; and any goods taken or delivered out of any ship or out of any warehouse, or for the delivery of which, or for any order for the delivery of which, from any warehouse, demand shall have been made, not having been duly entered, shall be forfeited. — § 20.

Goods by Number, Measure, or Weight, &c. — If the goods in such entry be charged to p. duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, such number, measure, or weight shall be stated in the entry; and if the goods in such entry be charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be stated in the entry, and shall be affirmed by the declaration of the importer or his known agent written upon the entry, and attested by his signature; and if the goods in such entry be chargeable, at the option of the officers of customs, either according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, or according to the value thereof, then as well such number, measure, or weight, as also such value, shall

troller shall choose 2 indifferent merchants experienced in the nature and value of such goods, who shall examine the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration, stating in what proportion, according to their judgment, such goods are lessened in their value by reason of such damage, and thereupon the officers of customs may make an abatement of the duties according to the proportion of damage so declared by such merchants.— § 31.

No Abatement for certain Goods.— No abatement of duties shall be made on account of any damage received by any of the sorts of goods herein-after enumerated; (that is to say,)

Cambrides,	Guinea grains,	Oranges,	Seams,
Cocoas,	Peppercorns,	Peppers,	Stuffs,
Coculus Indicus,	Jalap,	Raisins,	Tees,
Coffee,	Lemons,	Harburs,	Tobacco,
Currants,	Opium,	Sanaparilla,	Wines.
Figs,			— § 32.

Returned Goods.— It shall be lawful to re-import into the U. K. from any place, in a ship of any country, any goods (except as herein-after excepted) which shall have been legally exported from the U. K., and to enter the same by bill of store, referring to the entry outwards, and exportation thereof, provided the property in such goods continue in the person by whom or on whose account the same have been exported, and that such re-importation take place within 6 years from the date of the exportation; and if the goods so returned be foreign goods, which had before been legally imported into the U. K., the same duties shall be payable thereon as would at the time of such re-importation be payable on the like goods under the same circumstances of importation as those under which such goods had been originally imported, or such goods may be warehoused as the like goods might be warehoused upon a first importation; and thereof provided always, that the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the table following shall not be re-imported into the U. K. for home use upon the ground that the same had been legally exported from thence, but that the same shall be deemed to be foreign goods, whether originally such or not, and shall also be deemed to be imported for the first time into the U. K.; (that is to say,)

Table of Goods above referred to.

Corn, grain, meal, flour, and malt;		All goods for which bill of store cannot be issued in manner herein-after directed, except such remnants of British goods by special permission of the commissioners of H. M.'s Customs, upon proof to their satisfaction that the same are British, and had not been sold;
Hops, tea;		
Goods for which any bounty or any drawback of excise had been received on exportation, unless by special permission of the commissioners of H. M.'s Customs, and on repayment of such bounty or such drawback;		

provided also, that tobacco re-imported by bill of store shall be subject to all the restrictions imposed by law upon tobacco imported into the U. K., and shall be liable to forfeiture if imported contrary to such restrictions.— § 33.

Bill of Store may be issued by Searcher.— The person in whose name any goods so re-imported were entered for exportation shall deliver to the searcher at the port of exportation an exact account, signed by him, of the particulars of such goods, referring to the entry and clearance outwards and to the return inwards of the same, with the marks and number of the packages, both inwards and outwards; and thereupon the searcher, finding that such goods had been legally exported, shall grant a bill of store for the same; and if the person in whose name such goods were entered for exportation was not the proprietor thereof, but his agent, he shall declare on such bill of store the name of the person by whom he was employed as such agent; and if the person to whom such returned goods are consigned shall not be such proprietor and exporter, he shall make and subscribe a declaration on such bill of store of the name of the person for whose use such goods have been consigned to him; and the real proprietor, ascertained to be such, shall make and subscribe a declaration upon such bill of store, to the identity of the goods so returned, and to be absent from the U. K. at the time of exportation and of re-importation, the proprietor of such goods, and that the same had not during such time been sold or disposed of to any other person; and such declaration shall be made before the collector or comptroller at the ports of exportation and of importation respectively; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall admit such goods to entry by bill of store, and grant their warrant accordingly; provided always, that where the real proprietor of any such goods shall be absent from the U. K. at the time of such re-importation, such goods, if legally entitled to be entered by bill of store, shall be permitted to be so entered upon production of a declaration subscribed by such real proprietor, setting forth the identity of the goods so exported and so returned, and that he was at the time of exportation from the U. K., and will be at the time of re-importation thereinto, the proprietor of such goods, and that the same have not during such time been sold or disposed of to any other person, such declaration to be made before a British consul, vice-consul, or other British authority residing in or near the place of residence of such real proprietor, and upon such further proof of the identity of the goods as the commissioners of customs shall require, and upon compliance with all the other regulations required by law on the entry of goods by bill of store.— § 34.

Surplus Stores subject as Goods.— The surplus stores of every ship arriving from parts beyond the sea in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man shall be subject to the same duties, and the same prohibitions, restrictions, and regulations as the like sorts of goods shall be subject to when imported by way of merchandise; but if it shall appear to the collector and comptroller that the quantity or description of such stores is not excessive or unsuitable, under all the circumstances of the voyage, it shall be lawful for them to permit such surplus stores to be entered for the private use of the master, purser, or owner of such ship, or of any passenger of such ship to whom any such surplus stores may belong, on payment of the proper duties, or to be warehoused for the future use of such ship, although the same could not be legally imported by way of merchandise.— § 35.

Goods from Possessions abroad.— No goods shall be entered as being of or from any British possessions abroad, (if any benefit attach to such distinction), except the territories subject to the government of the presidencies of Fort William in Bengal, Fort St. George, and Bombay respectively, unless the master of the ship importing the same shall have delivered to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, of the due clearance of such ship from thence, containing an account of such goods.— § 36.

Power to the Lords of the Treasury to require Certificates of Production.— It shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, or any 3 or more of them, by any order under their hands, to declare that a certificate of production shall be required upon the exportation of any goods from any British possession abroad or other place, or upon the importation of such goods into the U. K., and to frame such regulations respecting such certificates as they may think fit; and if any goods in respect of which such a certificate shall have been so required, or in respect of which a certificate of production, or any such certificate of clearance as aforesaid, shall be required by any law for the time being in force, shall be imported into the U. K. without such certificate respectively, the same shall be deemed and taken to be of foreign growth, produce, or manufacture; and all goods so deemed, and taken to be of foreign growth, produce, or manufacture, and all other goods whatsoever of the growth, produce, or manufacture of foreign countries, which shall henceforth be imported into the U. K. from any British possession abroad, shall be deemed and taken, so far as respects liability to duties, to have been imported from a foreign country; provided always, that all orders of the Lords of the Treasury made in pursuance hereof shall be duly published in the London and Dublin Gazettes 3 times at least within 3 months from the date of such orders respectively.— § 37.

Certificates of Growth of Sugar, Coffee, Cocoa, and Spirits.— Before any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits shall be entered as being the produce of some British possession in America, or the island of Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, testifying that proof had been made in manner required by law that such goods are of the produce of some British possession in America, stating the name of the place where such goods were produced, and the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same, and the name of the ship in which they are laden, and of the master thereof; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as is mentioned therein.— § 38.

Certificate of Sugar from Limits of E. I. Company's Charter.— Before any sugar shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand and seal of the proper officer at the place where such sugar was taken on board, testifying that a declaration in writing, the contents of which he believed to be true, had been made and signed before him by the skipper of such sugar, that the same was really and bona fide the produce of such British possession; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such sugar was taken on board, and that the sugar so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.— § 39.

East India Sugar warehoused at the Cape of Good Hope, and imported from thence.— If any sugar the produce of any British possession within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter shall have been imported into the Cape of Good Hope from the place of its production, accompanied by such a certificate of origin as would be sufficient for its admission in the U. K. at the rate of duty payable upon such sugar if imported direct from the place of its production, and shall have been warehoused at the Cape of Good Hope under the regulations there in force for the warehousing of goods, and shall have been exported from such warehouse accompanied by a certificate from the proper officer of the customs at the Cape of Good Hope, setting forth the particulars of the importation, and of the warehousing, and of the exportation of the same, and also setting forth the substance of the certificate of origin before mentioned, and if on the arrival in the U. K. of the ship importing such sugar the master of such ship shall deliver to the collector or comptroller at the port of importation such certificate from the officer of the customs at the Cape of Good Hope, and shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller that such certificate was received by him at the Cape of Good Hope, and that the sugar so imported is the same as is mentioned therein, then such sugar shall be admitted at such port of importation in the U. K. at the same rate of duty as would be payable if the same had been imported direct from the place of its production.— § 40.

Certificate of Wine, Produce of Cape of Good Hope.— Before any wine shall be entered as being the produce of the Cape of Good Hope the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer at the Cape of Good Hope, testifying that proof had been made in manner required by law that such wine is of the produce of the Cape of Good Hope or the dependencies thereof, stating the quantity and sort of such wine, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the Cape of Good Hope, and that the wine so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.— § 41.

Goods of Guernsey, Jersey, &c.— Any goods of the growth of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, and any goods manufactured in the said islands from materials of the growth of the said islands, or from materials not subject to duty in the U. K., or from materials upon which the duty has been paid in the U. K. and upon which no drawback has subsequently been granted, and any manufactures of linen or cotton made in and imported from the Isle of Man, may be imported into the U. K. from the said islands respectively, without payment of any duty; and such goods shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duties imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally from parts beyond the seas; provided always, that such goods may nevertheless be charged with any proportion of such duties as shall fairly counterbalance any duties of excise, or any coast duty, payable on the like goods the produce of the part of the U. K. into which they shall be imported, or payable upon any of the materials from which such goods are manufactured; provided also, that all goods manufactured in any of the said islands from any other materials than the materials aforesaid, except manufactures of linen and cotton made in and imported from the Isle of Man as aforesaid, shall be deemed and taken to be foreign goods.— § 42.

Master to deliver Certificate of Produce, and declare to Certificate.— Before any goods shall be entered as being the produce of the said islands (if any benefit attach to such distinction) the master of the ship or vessel importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the island from whence such goods were imported, that proof had been made, in manner required by law, that such goods were of the produce of such island, stating the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as are mentioned therein.— § 43.

Treasury may permit Produce of Colonial Fisheries to be imported from Guernsey.— It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury, when and so long as they shall see fit, to permit any goods the produce of the British possessions or fisheries in North America, which shall have been legally imported into the islands of Guernsey or Jersey direct from such possessions, to be imported into the U. K. for home use direct from those islands, under such regulations as the said commissioners shall direct, any thing in the law of navigation to the contrary notwithstanding.— § 44.

Vessels with Stone from Guernsey, &c. not to be piloted.— No vessel arriving on the coast of England from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, wholly laden with stone the produce thereof, shall be liable to be conducted or piloted by pilots appointed and licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strand, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.— § 45.

Fish, British taking and curing, and Lobsters, free of Duty on Importation.— Fresh fish of every kind, of British taking and imported in British ships, and fresh lobsters, however taken or in whatever ship imported, and every kind of British taking and curing, imported in British ships, shall be imported free of all duties, and shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duty imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally: provided always, that before any cured fish shall be entered free of duty, as being of such taking and curing, the master of the ship importing the same shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller that such fish was actually caught and taken in British ships, and cured by the crews of such ships, or by H. M.'s subjects.— § 46.

Certificate of Blubber, Train Oil, &c. British Colonial taking.— Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins shall be entered as being the produce of fish or erasures living in the sea, taken and caught wholly by H. M.'s subjects usually residing in some part of H. M.'s dominions, and imported from some British possession, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer of such British possession where such goods were taken on board, (or if no such officer be residing there, then a certificate under the hands of 2 principal inhabitants at the place of shipment,) notifying that a declaration had been

made before him or them by the shipper of such goods, that the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels owned and navigated according to law; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as mentioned therein; and the importer of such goods shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, at the time of entry, that to the best of his knowledge and belief the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels in manner aforesaid. — § 47.

Before Entry of Blubber, &c. of British Fishing, Master and Importer to make Declarations of the same. — Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, imported direct from the fishery shall be entered as being the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crews of British ships cleared out from the U. K., or from any British possession, the master of such ship importing such goods shall make and subscribe a declaration, and the importer of such goods (to the best of his knowledge and belief) shall make and subscribe a declaration, that the same are the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crew of such ship, or by the crew of some other British ship (naming the ship) cleared out from the U. K. or from any British possession (stating which of such possessions). — § 48.

Importations direct. — No goods shall be deemed to be imported from any particular place unless they be imported direct from such place, and shall have been there laden on board the importing ship, either as the first shipment of such goods, or after the same shall have been actually landed at such place. — § 49.

Goods the Property of the Crown sold after Importation charged with Duty. — All goods, wares, and merchandises, the property of the Crown, shall, in case of the sale thereof after importation into the U. K., be liable to and be charged with such and the same duties of customs as may be by law payable or charged on the like goods, wares, and merchandises not being the property of the Crown. — § 50.

Foreign Goods derelict, &c. and Droits of Admiralty, to be subject to the same Duties as on Importation. — All foreign goods, derelict, jetsam, flotsam, and wreck, brought or coming into the U. K. or into the Isle of Man, and all droits of admiralty sold in the U. K., shall as all times be subject to the same duties as goods of like kind imported into the U. K. or the Isle of Man respectively, as subject to the provisions aforesaid, that if, for ascertaining the proper amount of duty so payable, any question shall arise as to the origin of any such goods, the same shall be deemed to be of the growth, produce, or manufacture of such country or place as the commissioners of customs shall, upon investigation by them, determine. — § 51.

An Abatement of Duty to be made in respect of certain wrecked Goods damaged. — It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, or for the officers of customs acting under their directions, to inquire into and receive proof of the extent to which any such goods may have been damaged, and to make such abatement of the duties payable thereon as to them shall appear to bear a just proportion to the damage so ascertained: provided always, that no such abatement shall be made in respect of any of the goods following, viz. —

Cannibaries,	Guinea grains,	Oranges,	Spirits,
Cocoa,	Jamaica,	Pepper,	Sugar,
Coculus indicus,	Jalap,	Rubies,	Tea,
Coffee,	Leucostemona,	Rhinoceros,	Wine,
Currants,	Nux vomica,	Muscavada,	
Figs,	Opium,	Senna,	

§ 52.

Persons having such Goods in possession, without Notice, &c. liable to a Penalty of 100l. — If any person shall have possession of any foreign goods, derelict, jetsam, flotsam, or wreck, either on land or within any port in the U. K., and shall not give notice thereof to the proper officer of the customs within 72 hours after such possession, or shall not on demand pay the duties due thereon, or deliver the same into the custody of the proper officer of the customs, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100l.; and if any person shall remove or alter in quantity or quality any such goods, or shall open or alter any package containing any such goods, or shall cause any such act to be done, or assist therein, before such goods shall be deposited in a warehouse in the custody of an officer of the customs, every such person shall forfeit the sum of 100l.; and in default of the payment of the duties on such goods within six months from the time when the same were so deposited, the same may be sold in like manner and for the like purposes as goods imported may in such default be sold: provided always, that any lord of the manor having by law just claim to such goods, or if there be no such lord of the manor, then the person having possession of the same, shall be at liberty to retain the same in his own custody, giving bond, with 2 sufficient sureties, to be approved by the proper officer of the customs, in treble the value of such goods, for the payment of the duties thereon at the end of 1 year and 1 day, or to deliver such goods to the proper officer of the customs in the same state and condition as the same were in at the time of taking possession thereof. — § 53.

Goods reported to Customs as jetsam, &c., not claimed within 12 Months, to be deemed Droits of Admiralty. — Whereas such goods, if not claimed by the owner within the period limited by law, belong of right to H. M. and her office of Admiralty, but by reason of the smallness of their value would, if prosecuted to condemnation in the high court of admiralty in England and Ireland respectively, be wholly unproductive; be it therefore enacted, that whenever any such goods, whether picked up at sea or on the shore within the flow of the sea, shall be reported to the officers of the customs, notice thereof shall be forthwith given by them, if in Great Britain or the Isle of Man, to the receiver general of droits of admiralty, and if in Ireland to the Queen's proctor of admiralty; and all such goods shall be placed at their disposal respectively, as the case may be, subject, however, to the payment of the duties with which they shall be respectively chargeable; and in case the rightful owner thereof shall prove his claim thereto to the satisfaction of the said receiver general or Queen's proctor, as the case may be, within the period of 12 calendar months from the day on which they shall be so reported, such goods shall be restored to the owner, on payment of the duties and necessary charges attending the care of the same, and a reasonable compensation in the amount of one third of the net value (after abating the duties and charges aforesaid) to the salvors thereof; but if no such claim shall be established within the period aforesaid, then such goods shall be deemed and taken to be condemned to H. M. as droits of admiralty, and may be sold by the said receiver general or Queen's proctor, without any process from the high courts of admiralty respectively, and the net proceeds thereof, after payment of duties, salvage, and other charges as aforesaid, shall be disposed of by them respectively, and carried to the credit of the consolidated fund, in like manner as droits of admiralty are by an act passed in the 1st year of the reign of H. M. King William the Fourth, for the support of H. M.'s household, and the honour and dignity of the Crown, directed to be applied, any thing in any act or acts contained, or any law, statute, or usage, to the contrary thereof notwithstanding. — § 54.

Goods under Excise Permit Regulations. — Whereas it may be expedient to subject some sorts of goods imported into the U. K. to certain internal regulations and restraints after the full duties of customs have been paid thereon, and to place such regulations and restraints under the management of the commissioners of excise; be it therefore enacted, that no goods which are subject to any regulations of excise shall be taken or delivered out of the charge of the officers of customs (although the same may have been duly entered with them, and the full duties due thereon may have been paid,) until such goods shall also have been duly entered with the officers of excise, and permit, where such permit is by law required, granted by them for delivery of the same, nor unless such permit shall correspond in all particulars with the warrant of the officers of the customs: provided always, that such entry shall not be

received by the officers of the excise, nor such permit granted by them, until a certificate shall have been produced to them of the particulars of the goods, and of the warrant for the same, under the hand of the officers of the customs who shall have the charge of the goods; provided also, that if upon any occasion it shall appear necessary, it shall be lawful for the proper officers of excise to attend the delivery of such goods by the officers of the customs, and to require that such goods shall be delivered only in their presence; and it shall be lawful for such officers of excise to count, measure, gauge, or weigh any such goods, and fully to examine the same, and to proceed in all respects relating to such goods in such manner as they shall be authorised or required by any act for the time being in force relating to the excise. — § 58.

Commissioners of Customs may direct certain Goods to be stamped.—Whereas by the laws now in force certain articles subject to an inland duty of excise are required to be stamped, to denote the payment of such duty; and to prevent fraud in the evasion of such duty it is expedient that foreign articles of a similar description, when imported into the U. K., should be stamped with such mark or stamp as the commissioners of customs may deem necessary, in order to distinguish the foreign from the British article; be it therefore enacted, that it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised, after any goods have been entered at the custom-house, and before the same shall be discharged by the officers, and delivered into the custody of the importer or his agent, to mark or stamp such goods in such manner and form as they may deem fit and proper for the security of the revenue, and by such officer as they shall direct and appoint for that purpose. — § 56.

Orders for stamping Goods to be published.—Every order made by the said commissioners of customs in respect of marking or stamping any goods shall be published in the London Gazette and Dublin Gazette. — § 57.

Penalty on forging such Stamps, 200l.—If any person or persons shall at any time forge or counterfeit any mark or stamp to resemble any mark or stamp which shall be provided and used for the purposes of this act, or shall forge or counterfeit the impression of any such mark or stamp, or shall sell or expose to sale, or have in his, her, or their custody or possession, any goods with a counterfeit mark or stamp, knowing the same to be counterfeit, or shall use or affix any such mark or stamp to any other goods required to be stamped as aforesaid other than that to which the same was originally affixed, and any such offender or offenders, and his, her, or their aiders, abettors, and assistants, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 200l. — § 58.

Times and Places for landing Goods.—No goods whatever (except diamonds, bullion, fresh fish of British taking and imported in British ships, and lobsters,) shall be unshipped from any ship arriving from parts beyond the seas, or landed or put on shore, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the daytime. (that is to say) from the 1st day of September until the last day of March between sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the last day of March to the 1st day of September between the hours of 7 of the clock in the morning and 4 of the clock in the afternoon; nor shall any goods, except as aforesaid, be so unshipped or landed unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs; and such goods, except as aforesaid, shall be landed at 1 of the legal quays appointed for the landing of goods, or at some wharf, quay, or place appointed by the commissioners of customs for the landing of goods by sufferance; and that any goods, except as aforesaid, which have been unshipped, shall be transhipped, or after having been put into any boat or craft to be landed shall be removed into any other boat or craft previously to their being duly landed, without the permission or authority of the proper officer of the customs. — § 59.

Goods to be unshipped, &c. at the Expence of Importer.—The unshipping, carrying, and landing of all goods, and the bringing of the same to the proper place after landing, for examination or for weighing, and the putting the same into the scales, and the taking of the same out of and from the scales after weighing, shall be performed by or at the expence of the importer. — § 60.

Foreign Fish to be landed and entered under the Order of Commissioners of Customs.—The times, places, and manner of landing foreign fish imported into the U. K., and of reporting and entering the same, and of paying the duties due thereon, shall be subject to such regulations and directions as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time make respecting the same; and all foreign fish unladen from any vessel contrary to any such regulations and directions shall be forfeited. — § 61.

Timber to be piled at the Expence of the Importer so as to enable the Officer of Customs to measure it.—The importer or person entering timber or wood to be charged with duty by measurement shall, at his expence, sort, pile, frame or otherwise place the same in such manner as the commissioners of customs may deem necessary to enable the officers to measure and take a true and correct account thereof; and in all such cases, when the same is measured in bulk, the measurement shall be taken to the full extent of the pile, and no allowance shall be made by the officers on account of the interstices arising out of such process of sorting, piling, framing, or placing; provided always, that all battens, boards, deals, and planks exceeding 21 feet in length may be measured by the piece, and the account thereof taken separately. — § 62.

PROHIBITIONS AND RESTRICTIONS.

Prohibitions and Restrictions, absolute or modified.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the table following, denominated "A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Inwards," shall either be absolutely prohibited to be imported into the U. K., or shall be imported only under the restrictions mentioned in such table, according as the several sorts of such goods are respectively set forth therein; viz.

A TABLE OF PROHIBITIONS AND RESTRICTIONS INWARDS.

A List of Goods absolutely prohibited to be imported.

Arms, ammunition, and utensils of war, by way of merchandise, except by licence from H. M. for furnishing H. M.'s public stores only.	not having the name and place of abode of some foreign maker abroad visible and permanently engraved on the frame, and also on the face, or not being in a complete state, with all the parts properly fixed in the case.
Articles of foreign manufacture, and any packages of such articles, bearing any names, brands, or marks purporting to be the names, brands, or marks of manufacturers resident in the U. K.	Gold; viz. false money or counterfeit sterling silver, of the realm, or any money purporting to be such, not being of the established standard in weight or fineness.
Books, wherein the copyright shall be subsisting, first composed or written or printed in the U. K., and printed or re-printed in any other country, as to which the proprietor of such copyright or his agent shall have given to the commissioners of customs a notice in writing that such copyright subsists, such notice also stating when such copyright will expire.	Goods from the Isle of Man, except such as be of the growth, produce, or manufacture thereof, or of the U. K., and except corn, grain, meal, or flour.
Paper printed on in the English language.	Gunpowder, except by licence from H. M., such licence to be granted for furnishing H. M.'s stores only.
Clocks and watches of any metal, impressed with any mark or stamp, appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay, mark, or stamp, or purporting by any mark or appearance to be of the manufacture of the U. K.,	Malt. Snuff-work. Spirits from the Isle of Man. Tobacco stalks stripped from the leaf, whether manufactured or not. Tobacco stalk flour.

List of Goods subject to certain Restrictions on Importation.

Fish of foreign taking, and all train oil, blubber, spermaceti oil, hand-matter, skins, bones, and fins, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, except the shells of turbot and lobsters, unless in vessels which shall have been cleared out regularly with such fish on board from some foreign port.

Goods of places within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, unless into ports approved of by the lords of the treasury, and declared by order in council to be fit and proper for such importation.

Gloves of leather, unless in ships of 60 tons burden or upwards, and in packages each containing 100 dozen pairs of such gloves at least.

Hides, skins, horns, or hoofs, or any other part of cattle or beast, H. M. may by order in council prohibit, in order to prevent any contagious distemper.

Parts of articles: viz. any distinct or separate part of any article not accompanied by the other part or all the other parts of such article, so as to be complete and perfect, if such article be subject to duty according to the value thereof.

Silk; viz. manufactures of silk, being the manufactures of Europe, unless into the ports of London, Liverpool, Hull, or Southampton, or ports appointed by the commissioners of the treasury, or into the port of London direct from Bourdeaux, or into the port of Dover direct from Calais or Boulogne, and unless in ships of 60 tons burden or upwards.

Spirits, not being pertuned or medicinal spirits, unless in ships of 60 tons burden at least, also unless in casks or other vessels capable of containing liquids, each of such casks or other vessels being of the size or content of 20 gallons at the least, or in glass bottles or stone bottles not exceeding the size of quart bottles, and being really part of the cargo of the ship in which the same are imported, and included in the manifest or other papers enumerating the descriptive of the cargo of the ship.

Tea, unless from the Cape of Good Hope, or from places eastward of the same to the Straits of Magellan.

Tobacco and Snuff; viz. unless in ships of 120 tons burden or upwards:

also unless in hogheads, casks, chests, or cases containing 300 lbs. weight of tobacco or snuff each at least, not being separate or divided in any manner within the cask or package; except that tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire may be packed in inward bags or packages, or separated or divided in any manner, provided the outward package be a hoghead, cask, chest, or case containing at least 300 lbs. net weight of tobacco.

tobacco and snuff from the East Indies, unless in hogheads, casks, chests, or cases each of which shall contain at least 100 lbs. net weight of tobacco or snuff.

cigars, unless in packages containing 100 lbs. weight of cigars at least.

tobacco the produce of Mexico, or the produce of South America or the islands of St. Domingo or Cuba, imported direct from those places respectively, or from the warehouse in America, or some other British possession in America, unless in packages each containing at least 80 lbs. net weight of such tobacco.

Negroes tobacco the produce of and imported from the United States of America in packages each containing at least 150 lbs. net weight of such tobacco.

and unless into the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Cowes, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Leith, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford, or into some other port or ports which may hereafter be appointed for such purpose by the commissioners of the treasury; such appointments in Great Britain shall be published in the London Gazette, and such appointments in Ireland being published in the Dublin Gazette; but any ship wholly laden with tobacco may continue into the ports of Cowes, Falmouth to wait for orders, and there remain 14 days, provided due report of such ship be made by the master with the collector or comptroller of such port.

And if any goods shall be imported or brought into the U. K. contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 63.

But Goods may be warehoused for Exportation only, although prohibited.—Any goods, of whatsoever sort, may be imported into the U. K. to be warehoused under the regulations of any act in force for the time being for the warehousing of goods, without payment of duty at the time of the first entry thereof, or notwithstanding that such goods may be prohibited to be imported into the U. K. to be used therein, except the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in manner following; (that is to say,) goods prohibited on account of the package in which they are contained, or the tonnage of the ship in which they are laden; arms, ammunition, or utensils of war; gunpowder; infected hides, horns, hoofs, skins, or any other part of any cattle or beast; counterfeit coin or tokens; books, wherein the copyright will be subsisting, first composed or written or printed in the U. K., or printed or reprinted in any other country, as to which the proprietor of such copyright or his agent shall have given to the commissioners of customs a notice in writing that such copyright subsists, such notice also stating when such copyright will expire; copies of prints first engraved, etched, drawn or designed in the U. K.; copies of casts of sculptures or models first made in the U. K.; clocks or watches, being such as are prohibited to be imported for home use.—§ 64.

Certain Goods to be entered to be warehoused for Exportation only.—If by reason of the sort of any goods, or of the place from whence or the country or navigation of the ship in which any goods have been imported, they be such or be so imported as that they may not be used in the U. K., they shall not be entered except to be warehoused, and it shall be declared upon the entry of such goods that they are entered to be warehoused for exportation only.—§ 65.

ENTRY OUTWARDS.

Goods not to be shipped till Entry of Ship and Entry of Goods and Cocket granted, nor till cleared.—Whereas it is expedient that the officers of customs should have full cognizance of all ships departing from any port or place in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, and of all goods taken out of the U. K. or out of the Isle of Man; and it is therefore necessary to make regulations for the entering and clearing outwards of all such ships, and for the entering, clearing, and shipping of all such goods; be it therefore enacted, that no goods shall be shipped, or waterborne to be shipped on board any ship in any port or place in the U. K., or in the Isle of Man, to be carried to parts beyond the seas, before due entry outwards of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and cocket granted, nor before such goods shall have been duly cleared for shipment in manner hereinafter directed; and that no stores shall be shipped for the use of any such ship bound to parts beyond the seas, nor shall any goods be deemed or admitted to be such stores, except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill duly granted for such ship; and that no goods shall be so shipped, or waterborne to be so shipped, except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods and stores which shall be shipped, or be waterborne to be shipped, contrary hereto, shall be forfeited.—§ 66.

Ships to be cleared, or Master to forfeit 100l.—No ship on board of which any goods or stores shall have been shipped in any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas shall depart from such port until such ship shall have been duly cleared outwards for her intended voyage in manner herein-after directed, under forfeiture of the sum of 100l. by the master of such ship.—§ 67.

Victualling Bill for Stores.—The master of every ship which is to depart from any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas shall, upon due application made by him, receive from the searcher a victualling bill for the shipment of such stores as he shall require, and as shall be allowed

by the collector and comptroller, for the use of such ship, according to the voyage upon which she is about to depart; and no articles taken on board any ship shall be deemed to be stores except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill for the same.—§ 68.

Master to deliver Certificate of Clearance of last Voyage, and to make Entry Outwards.—The master of every ship in which any goods are to be exported from the U. K. or from the Isle of Man to parts beyond the seas shall, before any goods be taken on board, deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the proper officer at the clearance inwards or coastwise of such ship of her last voyage, specifying what goods, if any, have been reported inwards for exportation, and shall also deliver to the collector or comptroller an account, signed by the master or his agent, of the entry outwards of such ship for her intended voyage, setting forth the name and tonnage of the ship, the name of the place to which she belongs if a British ship, or of the country if a foreign ship, the name of the master, and the name or names of the place or places to which she is bound, if any goods are to be shipped for the same, and the name of the place in such port at which she is to take in her lading for such voyage; and if such ship shall have commenced her lading at some other port, the master shall state the name of any port at which any goods have been laden, and shall produce a certificate from the searcher that the cocketts for such goods have been delivered to him; and the particulars of such account shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such account shall be the entry outwards of such ship, and shall be entered in a book to be kept by the collector for the information of all parties interested; and if any goods be taken on board any ship before she shall have been entered outwards, the master shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided always, that where it shall become necessary to lade any heavy goods on board any ship before the whole of the inward cargo is discharged, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to issue a *Stiffening Order* for that purpose, previous to the entry outwards of the ship.—§ 69.

Bill of the Entry to be delivered. Particulars.—The person entering outwards any goods to be exported to parts beyond the seas from any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry thereof, fairly written, or fairly written in part and fairly printed in part, in words at length, expressing the name of the ship and of the master, and the place to which the goods are to be exported, and of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantities and proper denominations or descriptions of the several sorts of goods, and shall pay down any duties which may be due upon the exportation of any such goods; and such person shall also deliver at the same time one or more duplicates of such bill in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures; and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be arranged in such form and manner, and the number of such duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall cause a cocket to be written for such goods, making it known that such goods have been so entered; and every cocket shall be signed by such collector and comptroller, and be delivered to the person who shall have made such entry, and such person shall keep and be responsible for the proper use of the same.—§ 70.

Goods for Drawback or Bounty.—If any drawback or bounty be allowable upon the exportation of any such goods, or any duty be payable thereon, or any exemption from duty claimed, or if any such goods be exportable only according to some particular rule or regulation, or under some restriction or condition or for some particular purpose or destination, such goods shall be entered and cleared for shipment by such denominations or descriptions as are used, mentioned, or referred to in the granting of such drawback or bounty, or in the levying of such duty, or granting such exemption, or in the directing of such rules, regulations, restrictions, conditions, purpose, or destination.—§ 71.

Manner of Entry for Drawback, or from Warehouse.—The person intending to enter outwards any foreign goods for drawback, at any other port than that at which the duties inwards on such goods had been paid, shall first deliver to the collector or comptroller of the port where the duties on such goods were paid 2 or more bills, as the case may require, of the particulars of the importation of such goods, and of the entry outwards intended to be entered upon the collector or comptroller's bill; and such bills to agree with the entry inwards, shall write off such goods from the same, and shall issue a certificate of such entry, with such particulars thereof as shall be necessary for the computation of the drawback allowable on such goods, and setting forth in such certificate the destination of the goods, and the person in whose name they are to be entered for exportation, and also the name of such other port; and such certificate, together with 2 or more bills of the same, as the case may require, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, being delivered to the collector or comptroller of the port from which the goods are to be exported, shall be the entry outwards of such goods; and such collector and comptroller shall thereupon cause a cocket to be written and delivered for such goods, in manner herein-before directed.—§ 72.

No Drawback on Tobacco not properly manufactured.—No drawback shall be allowed on any tobacco which shall not have been wholly manufactured from tobacco on which the full duty on importation shall have been paid, nor on any tobacco which shall be mixed with dirt or rubbish or any other ingredients; and every person who shall enter or ship, or cause to be entered or shipped, or produce or cause to be produced to any officer of customs to be shipped, for exportation or for stores, any tobacco not entitled to drawback, with intent unduly to obtain any drawback thereon, or any greater drawback than he would otherwise be entitled to, shall, over and above all other penalties which he may thereby incur, forfeit treble the amount of the drawback sought to be obtained, or 2*l.*: at the election of the commissioners of customs; and all such tobacco shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of customs or excise.—§ 73.

Goods not entitled to Drawback if of less Value than claimed.—No drawback shall be allowed upon the exportation of any goods entered for drawback or as stores which shall be of less value than the amount of the drawback claimed, and all such goods so entered shall be forfeited, and the person who caused such goods to be entered shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*: or treble the amount of the drawback claimed in such case, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 74.

On Entry Outwards of Goods entitled to Drawback, Bond for due exporting shall be given.—Upon the entry outwards of any goods, except wine, upon which a drawback of the duties paid upon the importation thereof is allowed, and before a cocket is granted, the person in whose name the same are entered shall give security by bond in double the amount of such duties, with one sufficient surety, that such goods shall be duly shipped and exported to and shall be landed at the place for which they shall be entered outwards, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs, within a reasonable time, to be fixed by the said commissioners with reference to the place of exportation.—§ 75.

Stamp on Plate Bond produced.—All bonds given to prevent the relanding of plate in respect of which any drawback shall be allowed upon the exportation thereof shall be liable only to the same duties of stamps as any bonds given for or in respect of the duties of customs, or for preventing frauds or evasions thereof, are or shall be liable to under any act for the time being in force for granting duties of stamps.—§ 76.

Coals, Export Bond to British Possessions.—No cocket shall be granted for the exportation of any coals to any British possession in a foreign ship until the exporter thereof shall have given security by bond in a penal sum double the amount of the duty payable on the exportation of such coals, with condition that the same shall be landed at the place for which they shall be exported, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of the customs, and also with condition to produce, within such time as the said commissioners shall require, to be expressed in such bond, a certificate of the landing of such coals at such place, under the hand of the collector or comptroller or other proper officer at such place: provided always, that the bond so to be given in respect of coals shall not be liable to any duty of stamps.—§ 77.

CLEARANCE OF GOODS.

Packages to be endorsed on Cocket.—Before any part of the goods for which any cocket shall have been granted shall be shipped, or waterborne to be shipped, the same shall be duly cleared for shipment with the searcher; and the particulars of the goods for such clearance shall be endorsed on such cocket, together with the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the same; and in the margin of each such endorsement shall be delineated the respective marks and numbers of such packages; and to each such endorsement shall be subjoined in words at length an account of the total quantities of each sort of goods intended in such endorsement, and the total number of each sort of package in which such goods are contained, distinguishing such goods, if any, as are to be cleared for any bounty or drawback of excise or customs, and also such goods, if any, as are subject to any duty on exportation, or entitled to any exemption from such duty, and also such goods, if any, as can only be exported by virtue of some particular order or authority, or under some particular restriction or condition, or for some particular purpose or destination; and all goods shipped, or waterborne to be shipped, not being duly cleared as aforesaid, shall be forfeited.—§ 75.

Production of Cocket.—The person clearing such goods for shipment shall upon each occasion produce the cocket so endorsed to the searcher, and shall also deliver a shipping bill, or copy of such endorsement, referring by names and date to the cocket upon which such endorsement is made, and shall obtain the order of the searcher for the shipment of such goods; and the particulars to be contained in such endorsement and in such shipping bill shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 76.

Coals brought Coastwise may be exported without landing.—If any coals shall have been brought coastwise from one port of the U. K. to another, and the master shall be minded to proceed with such coals or any part of them to ports beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship and such coals outwards for the intended voyage without first landing the coals intended for exportation, provided the officers of the customs shall be satisfied that the quantity of coals left on board does not exceed the quantity so entered outwards.—§ 80.

Accounts of Value of Exports to be delivered to the Searcher.—Upon the clearance for shipment of any goods the produce or manufacture of the U. K. an account containing an accurate specification of the quantity, quality, and value of such goods, together with a declaration to the truth of the same, signed by the exporter or his known agent, shall be delivered to the searcher by the person clearing such goods; and if such declaration be false the person signing the same shall forfeit the sum of twenty pounds; and it shall be lawful for the searcher to call for the invoice bills of parcels, and such other documents relating to the goods as he may think necessary for ascertaining the true value of the same: provided always, that if such exporter or agent shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that the value of the goods cannot be ascertained in time for the shipment of the same, and such declaration shall be delivered to the searcher at the time of clearance, a further time of 3 months shall be allowed for the delivery of such separate shipping bill, on failure whereof such exporter or agent shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.*—§ 81.

Goods for Excise Drawback.—No drawback of excise shall be allowed upon any goods so cleared unless the person intending to claim such drawback shall have given due notice to the officer of excise, in form and manner required by any law in force relating to the excise, and shall have obtained and have produced to the searcher at the time of clearing such goods a proper document under the hand of the officer of excise, containing the necessary description of the goods for which such drawback is to be claimed; and the goods to be cleared and shipped under the care of the searcher shall, upon examination, be found to correspond to all respects with the particulars of the goods contained in such document, and such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, the searcher shall, if required, certify such shipment upon such document, and shall transmit the same to the officer of excise.—§ 82.

Officer of Excise may attend Examination.—It shall be lawful for the officer of excise, if he see fit, to attend and assist at such examination, and to mark or seal the packages, and to keep joint charge of the same, together with the searcher, until the same shall have been finally delivered by him into the sole charge of the searcher, to be shipped and exported under his care.—§ 83.

Goods for Duty, Bounty, or Drawback, &c. brought for Shipment.—If any goods which are subject to any duty or restriction in respect of exportation, or if any goods which are to be shipped for any drawback or bounty shall be brought to any quay, wharf, or other place, to be shipped for exportation, and such goods shall not agree with the endorsement on the cocket, or with the shipping bill, the same shall be forfeited; and if any goods prohibited to be exported be found in any package brought as aforesaid, such package and every thing contained therein shall be forfeited.—§ 84.

Searcher may open any Package, but if correct, must repackage.—It shall be lawful for the searcher to open all packages, and fully to examine all goods shipped or brought for shipment at any place in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man; and if the goods so examined shall be found to correspond in all respects with the cocket and clearance purporting to be for the same, such goods shall be repacked at the charge of such searcher, who may be allowed such charge by the commissioners of the customs, if they shall see fit so to do.—§ 85.

CLEARANCE OF SHIP.

Content to be delivered to Searcher.—Before any ship shall be cleared outwards at any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, with any goods shipped on board the same in such port, the master shall deliver a content of such ship to the searcher, setting forth the name and tonnage of such ship, and the place or places of her destination, and the name of the master, and also an account of the goods shipped on board, and of the packages containing such goods, and of the marks and numbers upon such packages, and a like account of the goods on board, if any, which had been reported inwards for exportation in such ship, so far as any of such particulars can be known by him; and also, before the clearance of such ship, the cockets, with the endorsements and clearances thereon for the goods shipped, shall be finally delivered by the respective shippers of such goods to the searcher, who shall file the same together, and shall attach with a seal a label to the file, showing the number of cockets contained in the file, and shall compare the particulars of the goods in the cockets with the particulars of the goods in such content, and shall attest the correctness thereof by his signature on the label and on the content; and the master of the ship shall make and sign a declaration before the collector or comptroller to the truth of such content, and shall also answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning the ship, the cargo, and the intended voyage as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear each ship for her intended voyage, and shall notify such clearance and the date thereof upon the content, and upon the label to the file of cockets, and upon the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries' outwards, for the information of all parties interested, and shall transmit the content and the cockets, and the victualling bill to the searcher; and the particulars to be contained in such content shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 86.

File of Cockets and Victualling Bill delivered to Master as the Clearance.—The file of cockets and the victualling bill shall thereupon be delivered by the searcher to the master of such ship, at such station within the port and in such manner as shall be appointed by the commissioners of customs for that purpose; and such file of cockets and victualling bill, so delivered, shall be kept by the master of such ship as the authority for departing from the port with the several parcels and packages of goods and of stores on board, so far as they shall agree with the particulars in the endorsements on such cockets or with such victualling bill.—§ 87.

In Ballast. Master to answer Questions.—If any ship is to depart in ballast from the U. K. or from

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the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, having no goods on board except the stores of such ship borne upon the victualling bill, or any goods reported inwards for exportation in such ship, the master of such ship shall, before her departure, or answer to the collector or comptroller such questions touching her departure and destination as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear such ship in ballast, and shall notify such clearance and the date thereof on the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries' outwards, for the information of all parties interested; and such victualling bill shall be kept by the master of such ship as the clearance of the same. — § 88.

Slate and Slates as Chalk to be deemed Ballast. — Slates and slates and chalk laden on board any ship bound to foreign parts shall be deemed to be ballast; and every such ship having on board slate and slates and chalk only, or either of them, shall be deemed to be a ship departing in ballast; and if on the return of any such ship any slate or slates or chalk shall be remaining on board, the same shall be deemed to be the ballast of such ship. — § 89.

Part of former Cargo reported for Exportation. — If there be on board any ship any goods of the inward cargo which were reported for exportation in the same, the master shall, before clearance outwards, of such ship from any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, deliver to the searcher a copy of the report inwards of such goods, certified by the collector and comptroller; and such copy, being found to correspond with the goods so remaining on board, shall be the authority to the searcher to pass such ship with such goods on board, and being signed by the searcher, and filed with the cocketts, shall be the clearance of the ship for those goods. — § 90.

If any Passengers, Master may enter Baggage in his Name. — If any passengers are to depart in any ship from the U. K. or from the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for the master of such ship to pass an entry and to receive a cocket in his name for the necessary personal baggage of all such passengers, and duly to clear such baggage for shipment in their behalf, stating in such clearances the particulars of the packages and the names of the respective passengers; and if such ship is to take no other goods than the necessary personal baggage of passengers actually going the voyage, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship outwards in ballast for passengers only; and if no other goods than such baggage duly entered and cleared be taken on board such ship, the same shall be deemed to be a ship in ballast, notwithstanding such baggage shall be described in the clearance, on the content and on the label to the cocket or cocketts, and on the victualling bill and in the book of ships' entries, as a ship cleared in ballast, except as to the necessary personal baggage of passengers going the voyage. — § 91.

In Ballast, Master may enter Goods for private Use of Self and Crew. — If the master and crew of any foreign ship which is to depart in ballast from the U. K. for parts beyond the seas shall be desirous to take on board chalk rubbish by way of ballast, or to take with them for their private use any small quantities of goods of British manufacture, it shall be lawful for such master, without entering such ship outwards, to pass an entry in his name, and receive a cocket free of any export duty for all such goods, under the general denomination of British manufactures not prohibited to be exported, being for the use and privilege of the master and crew, and not being of greater value than in the proportion of 20*l.* for the master, and 10*l.* for the mate, and 5*l.* for each of the crew, and stating that the ship is in ballast; and the master shall duly clear such goods for shipment on behalf of himself and crew, stating in such clearances the particulars of the goods and packages, and the names of the crew who shall jointly or severally take any of such goods under this privilege; and such ship shall be deemed to be a ship in ballast, and be cleared as such, and without a content, notwithstanding such goods or such cocket or cocketts; and such clearance shall be notified by the collector or comptroller on the label to the cocket or cocketts, and on the victualling bill, and in the book of ships' entries, as a clearance in ballast, except as to the privilege of the master and crew. — § 92.

Officers may board any Ship after Clearance. — It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to go on board any ship after clearance outwards, within the limits of any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, or within 4 leagues of the coast thereof, and to demand the file of cocketts and the victualling bill, and if there be any goods or stores on board not contained in the endorsements on the cocketts nor in the victualling bill, such goods or stores shall be forfeited; and if any goods contained in the endorsements be not on board, the master shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.* for every package or parcel of goods contained in such endorsements and not on board; and if any cocket be at any time falsified, the person who shall have falsified the same, or who shall have wilfully used the same, shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.* — § 93.

Ships to bring to at Stations. — Every ship departing from any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man shall bring to at such stations within the port as shall be appointed by the commissioners of H. M. Customs for the landing of officers from such ships, or for further examination previous to such departure. — § 94.

DEBENTURE GOODS.

Entry in Name of real Owner, or of the Commission Merchant. — No drawback or bounty shall be allowed upon the exportation from the U. K. of any goods unless such goods shall have been entered in the name of the person who was the real owner thereof at the time of entry and shipping, or of the person who had actually purchased and shipped the same, in his own name and at his own liability and risk, on commission, according to the practice of merchants, and who was and shall have continued to be entitled in his own right to such drawback or bounty, except in the cases herein-after provided for. — § 95.

Declaration as to Exportation, and to Property, and Right to Drawback or Bounty. — Such owner or commission merchant shall make and subscribe a declaration upon the debenture (that the goods mentioned therein have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed, and are not intended to be re-landed in any part of the U. K., nor in the Isle of Man, (unless entered for the Isle of Man,) nor in the Islands of Faro or Ferro, and that he was the real owner thereof at the time of entry and shipping, or that he had purchased and shipped the said goods in his own name and at his own liability and risk, on commission, as the case may be, and that he was and continued to be entitled to the drawback or bounty thereon in his own right; provided always, that if such owner or merchant shall not have purchased the right to such drawback or bounty he shall declare under his hand upon the entry and upon the debenture the person who is entitled thereto, and the name of such person shall be stated in the cocket and in the debenture; and the receipt of such person on the debenture shall be the discharge for such drawback or bounty. — § 96.

Agent may pass Entry and receive Drawback, and make the Declaration, and answer Questions for Owner not resident. — If such owner or merchant shall be resident in some part of the U. K. being more than 20 miles from the custom-house of the port of shipment, he may appoint any person to be his agent to make and pass his entry, and to clear and ship the goods, and to receive for him the drawback or bounty payable on his debenture, if payable to him, provided the name of such agent and the residence of such owner or merchant be subjoined to the name of such owner or merchant in the entry and in the cocket for such goods; and such agent, being duly informed, shall make declaration upon the entry, if any be necessary, and also upon the debenture, in behalf of such owner or merchant, to the effect before required of such owner or merchant, and shall answer such questions touching his knowledge of the exportation of such goods and the property thereof, and of the right to the drawback or bounty, as shall be demanded of him by the collector or comptroller; and if any such goods be exported by any corporation or company trading by a joint stock it shall be lawful for them to appoint any person to be their agent for the like purposes and with the like powers to act in their behalf. — § 97.

Property of Persons abroad consigned here to an Agent, and exported by him on account of Owner. — If any goods which are to be exported for drawback be the property of any person residing abroad, having been consigned by the owner thereof to some person as his agent residing in the U. K. or to some other through the same to parts beyond the seas, by such agent, upon account of such owner, it shall be lawful

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for such person (being the consignee by whom and in whose name the duties inwards on such goods had been paid, or his legal representative), in like manner, as agent for such owner, to enter, clear, and ship such goods for him, and upon like conditions to receive for him the drawback payable thereon. — § 98.

Shipment within Three Years, and Payment within Two Years. — No drawback shall be allowed upon the exportation of any goods unless such goods be shipped within 3 years after the payment of the duties inwards thereon, and no drawback or bounty allowed upon the exportation of any goods shall be paid after the expiration of 2 years from the date of the shipment of such goods. — § 99.

Taxing and passing Debenture. — For the purpose of computing and paying any drawback or bounty payable upon any goods duly entered, shipped, and exported, a debenture shall, in due time after such entry, be prepared by the collector and comptroller, certifying in the first instance the entry outwards of such goods; and as soon as the same shall have been duly exported, and a notice containing the particulars of the goods shall have been delivered by the exporter to the searcher, the shipment and exportation thereof shall be certified to the collector and comptroller, upon such debenture, by the searcher, and the debenture shall thereupon be computed and passed with all convenient dispatch, and be delivered to the person entitled to receive the same. — § 100.

Certificate of landing in Isle of Man. — No drawback or bounty shall be allowed for any goods carried by sea from the U. K. to the Isle of Man until a certificate shall be produced from the collector and comptroller of the customs of the Isle of Man of the due landing of such goods. — § 101.

Licensed Lighterman only to ship Debenture or warehoused Goods. — No goods cleared for drawback or bounty, or from the warehouse, shall be carried or waterborne to be put on board any ship for exportation from the U. K. by any person, unless such person shall be authorized for that purpose by licence under the hands of the commissioners of customs; and, before granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to require such security bond for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such person as they shall deem necessary; and after granting such licence it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to revoke the same, if the person to whom the same shall have been granted shall be convicted of any offence against the laws relating to the customs or excise: provided always, that all such licences which shall be in force at the time of the commencement of this act shall continue in force as if the same had been afterwards granted under the authority of this act. — § 102.

Warehouse or Debenture Goods not exported, or if re-landed, or carried to Guernsey, &c. without Entry, forfeited. — If any goods which have been taken from the warehouse to be exported from the same, or any goods which have been cleared to be exported for any drawback or bounty, shall not be duly exported to parts beyond the seas, or shall be re-landed in any part of the U. K., (such goods not having been duly re-landed or discharged as short-shipped under the care of the proper officers,) or shall be landed in the Islands of Faro or Ferro, or shall be carried to any of the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, (not having been duly entered, cleared, and shipped, to be exported or carried directly to such islands,) the same shall be forfeited, together with the ship from or by which the same had been so re-landed, landed, or carried, and any other ship, vessel, boat, or craft which may have been used in so re-landed, landing, or carrying such goods; and any person by whom or by whose orders or means such goods shall have been so taken or cleared, or so re-landed, landed, or carried, shall forfeit a sum equal to treble the value of such goods. — § 103.

Drawback of Duties on Wine allowed for Officers in the Navy. — A drawback of the whole of the duties of customs shall be allowed for wine intended for the consumption of officers of H. M.'s navy, on board such of H. M.'s ships as they are in actual service as they shall serve in, not exceeding the quantities of wine, in any one year, for the use of such officers, hereinafter respectively mentioned; viz.

	Gallons.		Gallons.
For every admiral	1,260	For every captain of an inferior rate	210
vice-admiral	1,050	lieutenant, and other commanding officers and for every marine officer	105
rear-admiral	840		
captain of the first and second rate	630		
captain of the third, fourth, and fifth rate	420		

Provided always, that such wine be shipped only at one of the ports herein-after mentioned; viz. London, Liverpool, Rochester, Deal, Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Yarmouth, Falmouth, Belfast, Dublin, Cork, Leith, or Glasgow. — § 104.

Person entering such Wine for Drawback to declare the Name and Rank of Officer claiming the same. — The person entering such wine, and claiming the drawback for the same, shall state in the entry and declare on the debenture the name of the officer for whose use such wine is intended, and of the ship in which he serves; and such wine shall be delivered into the charge of the officers of customs at the port of shipment, to be secured in the Queen's warehouse until the same shall be shipped under their care; and such officers having certified upon the debenture the receipt of the wine into their charge, the debenture shall be computed and passed, and be delivered to the person entitled to receive the same. — § 105.

Officers leaving the Service, &c., such Wine permitted to be transferred to others. — If any such officer shall leave the service, or be removed to another ship, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs, at any of the ports before mentioned, to permit the transfer of any such wine from one officer to another, as part of his proportion, whether on board the same ship or another, or the transhipment from one ship to another for the same officer, or the re-landing and warehousing for future re-shipment; and it shall also be lawful for the officers of customs at any port to receive back the duties for any of such wine, and deliver the same for home use: provided always, that if any of such wine be not laden on board the ship for which this same was intended, or be unladen from such ship without permission of the proper officer of the customs, the same shall be forfeited. — § 106.

Purser of Her Majesty's Ships of War may ship Tobacco for Use of Crew, free of Duty on giving Bond. — It shall be lawful for the purser of any of H. M.'s ships of war in actual service to enter and ship at the ports of Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, in the proportions herein-after mentioned, any tobacco there warehoused in his name, or transferred into his name, for the use of the ship in which he shall serve, provided such purser shall deliver to the collector or comptroller of such port a certificate from the captain of such ship, stating the name of the purser and the number of men belonging to the ship, and shall also give bond, with 1 sufficient surety, in treble the duties payable on the tobacco, that no part thereof shall be re-landed in the U. K. without leave of the officers of the customs, or be landed in either of the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man. — § 107.

Purser removed from One Ship to another may tranship tobacco, with Permission of Collector. — If any purser shall be removed from one ship to another it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ships shall be to permit the transhipment of the remains of any such tobacco for the use of such other ship, upon due entry of such tobacco by such purser, setting forth the time when and the port at which such tobacco was first shipped; and if any such ship shall be paid off it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of any port where such ship shall be paid off to permit the remains of any such tobacco to be landed, and to be entered by the purser of such ship, either for payment of duties or to be warehoused for the term of 6 months, for the supply of some other such ship, in like manner as any tobacco may be warehoused and supplied at either of the ports before mentioned, or for payment of all duties within such 6 months: provided always, that all tobacco warehoused for the purpose of supplying H. M.'s ships of war shall be subject to the provisions of any act in force relating to the warehousing of tobacco generally, as far as the same are applicable, and are not expressly altered by any of the provisions herein particularly made. — § 108.

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Limiting the Quantity of Tobacco.—No greater quantity of such tobacco shall be allowed to any ship of war than 2 pounds by the lunar month for each of the crew of such ship, nor shall any greater quantity be shipped at any one time than sufficient to serve the crew of such ship for 6 months after such rate of allowance; and the collector and comptroller of the port at or from which any such tobacco shall be supplied to any such ship, or landed from any such ship, or transferred from one such ship to another, shall transmit a particular account thereof to the commissioners of customs, in order that a general account may be kept of all the quantities supplied to and consumed on board of such ships under the allowances before granted.—§ 109.

Times and Places for shipping Goods.—No goods shall be put off from any wharf, quay, or other place, or shall be waterborne in order to be exported, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the daytime; (that is to say,) from the 1st day of September until the last day of March, being at sunrise and sun-setting, and from the last day of March until the 1st day of September between the hours of 7 of the clock in the morning and 4 of the clock in the afternoon; nor shall any such goods be then put off or waterborne for exportation unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs, nor except from a legal quay appointed by H. M. or at some wharf, quay, or place appointed by the commissioners of customs for shipping of such goods by sufferance.—§ 110.

Penalty for exporting Prohibited Goods.—If any goods liable to forfeiture for being shipped for exportation shall be shipped and exported without discovery by the officers of the customs, the person or persons who shall have caused such goods to be exported shall forfeit double the value of such goods.—§ 111.

PROHIBITIONS.

Prohibitions and Restrictions, absolute or modified.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the table following (denominated "A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Outwards") shall be either absolutely prohibited to be exported from the U. K., or shall be exported only under the restrictions mentioned in such table, according as the several sorts of such goods are respectively set forth therein: viz.

A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Outwards.

<p>Clocks and watches; viz. any outward or inward box, case, or dial plate, made of metal, without the movement in or with every such box, case, or dial plate, made up fit for use, with the clock or watch maker's name engraven thereon.</p> <p>Lace; viz. any metal inferior to silver which shall be spun, mixed, wrought, or set upon silk, or which shall be gilt, or drawn into wire, or flattened into plates, and spun or woven, or wrought into or upon, or mixed with lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons, made in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or set upon silk, or made into bullion, spangles, or pearls, or any other materials made in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or which shall imitate or be meant to imitate such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons; nor shall any person export any</p>	<p>copper, brass, or other metal which shall be altered or drawn into wire, or flattened into plate, or made into bullion, spangles, or pearls, or any other materials used in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or in imitation of such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons, or of any of the materials used in making the same, and which shall hold more or have a greater proportion than 3 dwts. of fine silver to the pound avoirdupois of such copper, brass, or other metal.</p> <p>any metal inferior in silver, whether gilt, silvered, stained, or coloured, or otherwise, which shall be worked up or mixed with gold or silver in any manufactory of lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons.</p>
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A List of Goods which may be prohibited to be exported by Proclamation or Order in Council.

<p>Arms, ammunition, and gunpowder.</p> <p>Alms, pot and pearl.</p> <p>Military stores and naval stores, and any articles, except copper, which H. M. shall judge capable of being con-</p>	<p>verted into or made useful in increasing the quantity of military or naval stores.</p> <p>Provisions of any sort of victual which may be used as food by sailors.</p>
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And if any goods shall be exported, or be waterborne to be exported, from the U. K., contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 112.

The clauses from 113 to 126, both inclusive, relate to the COASTING TRADE, and are given under that article.

CONSTRUCTION IN GENERAL.

Terms used in Acts.—In order to avoid the frequent use of numerous terms and expressions in this act, and in other acts relating to the customs, and to prevent any misconception of the terms and expressions used therein, be it enacted, that whenever the several terms or expressions following shall occur in this act, or in any other act relating to the customs or to trade and navigation, the same shall be construed respectively in the manner hereinafter directed; (that is to say,) the term "ship" shall be construed to mean ship or vessel generally, unless such term shall be used to distinguish a ship from sloop, brigantine, and other classes of vessels; that the term "master" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person having or taking the charge or command of such ship; that the term "owners" and the term "owner" of any ship shall be construed alike to mean one owner, if there be only one, and any or all the owners, if there be more than one; that the term "mate" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person next in command of such ship to the master thereof; that the term "seaman" shall be construed to mean alike seaman, mariner, sailor, or landsman, being one of the crew of any ship; that the term "British possession" shall be construed to mean colony, plantation, island, territory, or settlement belonging to her Majesty; that the term "her Majesty" shall be construed to mean her Majesty, her heirs and successors; that the term "limits of the East India Company's charter" shall be construed to mean the Cape of Good Hope, and all places and seas eastwards thereof to the Sixtys of Macellan; that the terms "collector and comptroller" shall be construed to mean the collector and comptroller of the customs of the port intended in the sentence; that whenever mention is made of any public officer the officer mentioned shall be deemed to be such officer for the time being; that the term "warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place, whether house, shed, yard, timber pond, or other place in which goods entered to be warehoused upon importation may be lodged, kept, and secured without payment of duty, or although provided to be used in the United Kingdom; that the term "Queen's warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place provided by the Crown for lodging goods therein for security of the customs.—§ 127.

Malta deemed to be in Europe.—The island of Malta and its dependencies shall be deemed to be in Europe.—§ 128.

GENERAL REGULATIONS.

Weights, Measures, &c.—All duties, bounties, and drawbacks of customs shall be paid and received in every part of the U. K. and of the Isle of Man in British currency, and according to imperial weights and measures; and in all cases where such duties, bounties, and drawbacks are imposed and allowed according to any specific quantity or any specific value, the same shall be deemed to apply in the same proportion to any greater or less quantity or value, and all such duties, bounties, and drawbacks shall be under the management of the commissioners of the customs.—§ 129.

Collector to take Bonds in respect of Goods relating to the Customs.—All bonds relating to the customs required to be given in respect of goods or ships, except bonds given for securing the due exportation of or payment of duty upon goods warehoused according to law, shall be taken by the collector and comptroller for the use of H. M.; and after the expiration of 3 years from the date thereof, or from the time,

If any, limited therein for the performance of the condition thereof, every such bond upon which no prosecution or action has been commenced shall be void and may be cancelled and destroyed. — § 120.

Bonds entered into with the Concurrence of Lords of the Treasury or Commissioners of the Customs for the due Performance of any thing relating to the Customs to be valid in Law. — Whereas it frequently occurs that certain indulgences are granted to merchants and others, by directions of the lords of the treasury and the commissioners of customs, on bond being given for the security of the revenue; and, as doubts may arise whether such bonds would in law be valid, be it therefore enacted, and declared, that in all cases where bonds shall be entered into, with the concurrence or by the direction of the lords of the treasury or the commissioners of customs, for the due performance of any order, matter, or thing relative to the customs, such bonds shall be valid in law, and upon breach of any of the conditions thereof may be sued and proceeded upon in like manner as any other bond entered into by virtue of any act relating to the customs. — § 121.

Mode of ascertaining Strength of Foreign Spirits. — The same instruments, and the same tables and scales of graduation, and the same rules and methods, as the officers of the excise shall by any law in force for the time being be directed to use, adopt, and employ in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits made within the U. K., for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of excise payable thereon, shall be used, adopted, and employed by the officers of customs in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits imported into the U. K., for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of customs payable thereon. — § 122.

Vinegar or Acetous Acid to be charged with Duty according to Strength. — To prevent vinegar or acetous acid of excessive strength being brought into consumption upon payment of duty as common vinegar or acetous acid, to the great injury of H. M.'s revenue, all such liquors as aforesaid, subject and liable to any duty of customs shall and may be tried and examined by any officer or officers of customs with such acetometer as shall and may be from time to time directed by the commissioners of customs, in order to ascertain the strength thereof; and whenever any such liquors shall upon any such trial be found by any officer or officers of customs to be above proof as denoted by such acetometer (proof of being such strength of acetous acid that 100 parts of the liquor by weight will saturate or neutralise 14 parts by weight of crystallized carbonate of soda) to a number of gallons of such liquors of which such trial is made shall be deemed and computed by such officer or officers to be such number as could be made from or with such liquors if diluted by water to the strength of proof denoted as aforesaid, and shall be chargeable and taken account of and charged by such officer with duty accordingly. — § 123.

Spirits, although mixed, to pay Duty as such. — Spirits of strong waters imported into the U. K. mixed with any ingredient, and although shortly coming under some other denomination, shall nevertheless be deemed to be spirits of strong waters, and be subject to duty as such. — § 124.

Officers of Customs to take Samples of Goods. — It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to take such samples of any goods as shall be necessary for ascertaining the amount of any duties payable on the same; and all such samples shall be disposed of and accounted for in such manner as the commissioners of customs shall direct. — § 125.

Time of an Importation and of an Exportation defined. — If upon the first levying or repealing of any duty, or upon the first granting or repealing of any drawback or bounty, or upon the first permitting or prohibiting of any importation or exportation, whether inwards, outwards, or conswage, in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, it shall become necessary to determine the precise time at which an importation or exportation of any goods made and completed, shall be deemed to have had effect, such time, in respect of importation or exportation of any goods made and completed, shall be deemed to be the time at which the ship importing such goods had actually come within the limits of the port at which such ship shall in due course be reported, and such goods be discharged; and such time, in respect of exportation, shall be deemed to be the time at which the goods had been shipped on board the ship in which they had been exported; and if such question shall arise upon the arrival or departure of any ship, in respect of any charge or allowance upon such ship, exclusive of any cargo, the time of such arrival shall be deemed to be the time at which the report of such ship shall have been or ought to have been made; and the time of such departure shall be deemed to be the time of the last clearance of such ship with the collector and comptroller for the voyage upon which she departed. — § 126.

Returns of Duty overpaid. — Although any duty of customs shall have been overpaid, or although after any duty of customs shall have been charged and paid, it shall appear or be judicially established that the same had been charged under an erroneous construction of the law, it shall not be lawful to return any such overcharge after the expiration of 3 years from the date of such payment. — § 127.

Tonnage or Burden of Ships how ascertained. — The tonnage or burden of every British ship within the meaning of this act shall be the tonnage set forth in the certificate of registry of such ship, and the tonnage or burden of every other ship shall, for the purposes of this act, be ascertained in the same manner as the tonnage of British ships is ascertained. — § 128.

Ships, when not liable to Tonnage Rate under 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 32. — Whereas by an act passed in the 4th and 5th years of the reign of H. M. King William IV., intitled, "An Act for reducing the Tonnage Rates payable in the Port of London," certain rates are imposed upon ships or other vessels entering inwards and clearing outwards in the port of London, and it is expedient to amend the same in respect of ships or other vessels reporting their cargoes for exportation, and ultimately leaving the port without breaking bulk; be it therefore enacted, that no tonnage rate shall be payable under the said act on ships or other vessels entering inwards or clearing outwards in the said port in cases where the cargoes are reported for exportation, and ultimately the ships or other vessels leave the port without breaking bulk, or taking in merchandise for the purpose of exportation. — § 129.

Officers may refuse Master of British Ship unless endorsed on Register. — It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at any port under British dominion where there shall be a collector and comptroller of the customs to refuse to admit any person to do any act at such port as master of any British ship, unless his name shall be inserted in or have been endorsed upon the certificate of registry of such ship as being the master thereof, or until his name shall have been so endorsed by such collector and comptroller. — § 130.

Falsifying Documents. — If any person shall counterfeit or falsify, or wilfully use when counterfeited or falsified, any entry, warrant, cocket, or tranche, or other document for the unloading, lading, entering, reporting, or clearing of any ship or vessel, or for the landing or shipping of any goods, stores, baggage, or article whatever, or shall by any false statement procure any writing or document to be made for any of such purposes, every person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 200*l.*; provided always, that the penalty shall not attach to any particular offence for which any other penalty shall be expressly imposed by any law in force for the time being. — § 131.

Authority of an Agent may be required. — Whenever any person shall make any application to any officer of the customs to transact any business on behalf of any other person, it shall be lawful for such officer to require of the person so applying to produce a written authority from the person on whose behalf such application shall be made, and in default of the production of such authority to refuse to transact such business. — § 132.

False Declaration. — If any declaration required to be made by this act, or by any other act relating to the customs or to trade or navigation, (except declarations to the value of goods,) or if any declaration made for the consideration of the commissioners of customs on any application presented to them, be untrue in any particular, or if any person required by this act, or by any other act relating to the customs or to trade or navigation, to answer questions put to him by the officers touching certain matters, shall not truly answer such questions, the person making such declaration or answering such question,

shall, over and above any other penalty to which he may become subject, forfeit the sum of 100*l.*— § 143.

Printed Lists of prohibited Books to be exposed at the Custom Houses.—The commissioners of customs shall cause to be made, and to be publicly exposed from time to time at the several ports in the U. K. and in H. M.'s possessions abroad, printed lists of all books wherein the copyright shall be subsisting, and as to which the proprietor of such copyright or his agent shall have given notice in writing to the said commissioners that such copyright subsists, such notice also stating when such copyright expires.— § 144.

So much of 9 G. 4. c. 99. as provides for taking the Prices of Sugar the Produce of British Possessions in America, &c. to apply to Sugar the Produce of British Possessions within the Limits of the East India Company's Charter.—Whereas by an act passed in the 9th year of H. M. King George IV., intituled "An Act to allow Sugar to be delivered out of the Warehouse to be refined," provisions are made for ascertaining and taking, in manner therein mentioned, the prices of brown or Muscovado sugar the produce of the British possessions in America; and whereas it is expedient that the said provisions should extend and be applicable to brown or Muscovado sugar the produce of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter: be it therefore enacted, that from and after the 1st day of August, 1842, so much of the said last-mentioned act as provides for the ascertaining and taking the prices of brown or Muscovado sugar the produce of the British possessions in America, and so much of the same act as requires the delivery of accounts of the sales and purchases of such sugar, and statements of the quantities and prices thereof, and other particulars therein mentioned, in relation thereto, and the computation and publication of the average prices thereof, and the registry of such accounts and prices, shall be held to extend, include, and apply to brown or Muscovado sugar the produce of the several British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter; and that the average price of sugar to be thenceforth published under the said last-mentioned act as hereby extended shall be the average price of brown or Muscovado sugar the produce of the British possessions in America but also of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter; and the several penalties of 50*l.* and of 5*l.* imposed by the said recited act for the offences therein mentioned in respect of sugar the produce of the British possessions in America shall extend and be applicable to the like offences in respect of sugar the produce of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter.— § 145.

Seizures. Ship to include Tackle, &c.—All goods, and all ships, vessels, and boats, which by this act or any act at any time in force relating to the customs shall be declared to be forfeited, shall and may be seized by any officer of the customs; and such forfeiture of any ship, vessel, or boat shall be deemed to include the guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture of the same; and such forfeiture of any goods shall be deemed to include the proper package in which the same are contained.— § 146.

Restoration of seized Goods, Ships, &c.—In case any goods, ships, vessels, or boats shall be seized as forfeited, or detained as under-valued, by virtue of any act of parliament relating to the customs, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to order the same to be restored in such manner and on such terms and conditions as they shall think fit to direct; and if the proprietor of the same shall accept the terms and conditions prescribed by the said commissioners, he shall not have or maintain any action for recompense or damage on account of such seizure or detention; and the person making such seizure shall not proceed in any manner for condemnation.— § 147.

Remission of Forfeitures and Penalties by Commissioners.—If any ship shall have become liable to forfeiture on account of any goods laden therein or unladen therefrom, or if the master of any ship shall have become liable to any penalties on account of any goods laden in such ship or unladen therefrom, and such goods shall be small in quantity or of trifling value, and it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that such goods had been laden or unladen contrary to the intention of the owners of such ship, or without the privy of the master thereof, as the case may be, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to remit such forfeiture, and also to remit or mitigate such penalty, as they shall see reason to acquit such master of all blame in respect of such offence, or more or less to attribute the commission of such offence to neglect of duty on his part as master of such ship; and every forfeiture and every penalty, or part thereof, so remitted, shall be null and void, and no suit or action shall be brought or maintained by any person whatever on account thereof.— § 148.

Ships not bringing to at Stations, Masters to forfeit 100*l.*—If any ship coming up or departing out of any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, shall not bring to at the proper stations in such port appointed by the commissioners of customs for the boarding or landing of officers of the customs, the master of such ship shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*— § 149.

Officers may be stationed in Ships in any Port.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and for the collector and comptroller of any port under their directions, to station officers on board any ship while within the limits of any port in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man; and the master of every ship on board of which any officer is so stationed shall provide every such officer sufficient room under the deck, in some part of the forecabin or stowage, for his bed or hammock, and in case of neglect or refusal so to do shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*— § 150.

Power to charge Rent in Queen's Warehouse.—Whenever any goods shall be taken to and secured in any of the Queen's warehouses in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, for security of the duties thereon, or to prevent the same from coming into home use, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs to charge and demand and receive warehouse rent for such goods for all such time as the same shall remain in such warehouse, at the same rate as may be payable for the like goods when warehoused in any warehouse in which such goods may be warehoused without payment of duty: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury, or the commissioners of customs, by warrant or order under their hands respectively, from time to time to fix the amount of rent which shall be payable for any goods secured in any of the Queen's warehouses as aforesaid.— § 151.

Power to sell Goods not cleared from Queen's Warehouse.—In case such goods shall not be duly cleared from the Queen's warehouse within 3 calendar months (unless sooner if they be of a perishable nature), it shall be lawful for the commissioners of H. M.'s customs to cause such goods to be publicly sold by auction, for home use or for exportation (as the case may be); and the produce of such sale shall be applied towards the payment of the duties, if sold for home use, and of the warehouse rent and all other charges; and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the person authorized to receive the same: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to cause any of such goods to be destroyed as cannot be sold for a sum sufficient to pay such duties and charges, if sold for home use, or sufficient to pay such charges, if sold for exportation: provided also, that if such goods shall have been landed by the officers of the customs, and the freight of the same shall not have been paid, the produce of such sale shall be first applied to the payment of such freight.— § 152.

Power for H. M. to appoint Ports and legal Quays.—It shall be lawful for H. M., by her commission out of the court of exchequer, from time to time to appoint any port, haven, or creek, in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, and to set out the limits thereof, and to appoint the proper places within the same to be legal quays for the lading and unloading of goods, and to declare that any place which had been set out as a legal quay by such authority shall be no longer a legal quay, and to appoint any new place within any port to be a legal quay for the lading and unloading of goods; provided always, that all ports, havens, and creeks, and the respective limits thereof, and all legal quays, appointed and set out and existing as such at the commencement of this act under any law then in force, shall continue to be such ports, havens, creeks, limits, and legal quays respectively as if the same had been appointed and set out under the authority of this act.— § 153.

Assessment of Offence.—In any information or other proceeding for any offence against any act made or

the sum of 100l.—

Commissioners of customs
in the U. K. shall be substituting
in writing to the
copyright expires.—

*With Possessions in
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— § 148.

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Commissioners of customs,
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and set out under

at any act made or

to be made relating to the customs the averment that such offence was committed within the limits of any port shall be sufficient, without proof of such limits, unless the contrary be proved. — § 150.
Commissioners of Customs and Excise. — It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs from time to time, by any order under their hands, to appoint places to be suzerance wharfs, for the lading and unlading of goods by suzerance, to be duly issued by them, or by the proper officers under their directions, in such manner and in such cases as they shall see fit. — § 155.

No Ships engaged in the Carriage of Letters to Import or Export Goods. — No ship or boat appointed and employed expressly for the carriage of letters shall import or export any goods without permission of the commissioners of customs, under the penalty of the forfeiture of 100l., to be paid by the master of such ship or boat. — § 156.

Fitters' Certificates. — No ship shall be cleared from any port of the U. K., either for a coasting or a foreign voyage, laden with coals or coal, or culm or cinders, which had not been previously brought coastwise into such port, until the fitter or coaler, or his agent, vending or shipping the same, shall have delivered to the collector or comptroller two certificates under his hand, expressing the total quantities of coals, culm, and cinders respectively shipped or intended to be shipped by him in such ship; and the collector or comptroller shall retain one of such certificates, and shall deliver the other, signed by him, to the master of the ship; and every fitter, coal owner, or agent who shall refuse to give such certificates, or shall give a false certificate, shall forfeit and pay the sum of 100l.; and the master of such ship shall keep such certificates, and produce the same to any officer of customs demanding such production, and shall before bulk be broken deliver such certificates to the collector or comptroller of any port in the U. K. to which such coals, culm, or cinders shall be carried in such ship. — § 157.

LICENSED AGENTS.

Persons entering or clearing Ships, &c. as Agents, to be licensed, and give Bond. — It shall not be lawful for any person to act as an agent for transacting business in the port of London which shall relate to the entry or clearance of any ship, or of any goods, or of any baggage, unless authorized so to do by licence of the commissioners of customs, who are hereby empowered to require bond to be given by every person to whom such licence shall be granted, with 1 sufficient surety, in the sum of 1000l., for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such person and of his clerks acting for him; provided always, that such bond shall not be required of any person who shall be 1 of the sworn brokers of the city of London; provided also, that all licences heretofore granted by the commissioners of customs to any persons to act as agents shall be valid and effectual, and all bonds taken for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such persons shall be and are hereby declared to be and remain in full force and effect; and if any person shall act as such agent, not being so licensed, or if any person shall be in partnership in such agency with any person not so licensed, such person shall, in either case, for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100l. — § 158.

Treasury may revoke Licence. — It shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury, by any order under their hands, to revoke any such licence, or any licence heretofore granted by the commissioners of customs to any person to act as an agent for transacting such business at the custom-house in the port of London, and that after a copy of such order shall have been delivered to such person or to his clerk, or left at his usual place of abode or business, such licence shall be void. — § 159.

Not to extend to Clerks or Servants of Individuals. — Nothing herein contained shall extend to prevent the clerk or servant of any person or of any persons in copartnership from transacting any such business, on account of such person or persons, without such licence, provided such clerk or servant shall not transact any such business as clerk, servant, or agent to any other person. — § 160.

Agents may appoint Clerks to act for him only. — It shall be lawful for any such agent or agents in copartnership to appoint any person without licence to be his or their clerk in transacting such agency; provided always, that no person shall be admitted to be such clerk to more than 1 agent or copartnership of agents, nor until his name and residence and the date of his appointment shall have been endorsed on the licence of every such agent, and signed by him, and witnessed by the signature of the collector and comptroller of the customs, unless such person shall have been appointed with consent of the commissioners of customs before the commencement of this act. — § 161.

Treasury may extend Regulations to other Ports. — It shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury, by their warrant, to be published in the London or Dublin Gazette, to extend the regulations herein before made relating to agents in the port of London to agents at any other port in Great Britain, or at any port in Ireland. — § 162.

The commissioners of customs, agreeably to the powers given them to that effect by the foregoing statute, 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86. s. 12., have appointed the undermentioned places, within the several ports of the U. K., at which vessels coming into or departing out of such ports shall bring to, for the boarding or landing of customs' officers. Every master of a vessel failing to comply with the provisions of said act in this respect forfeits 100l. — § 149.

ENGLAND.

Ports.	Stations for bringing to.
LONDON	Gravesend Reach, below the Custom-house.
ARESVYWITH	On the bar, or a little above the junction of the rivers Rhydal and Yawith.
Aberdury	A little to the westward of the town, in the river Dovey.
ALDBOROUGH	Orford haven, the entrance of the rivers Ore and Ald.
ASUNDEL	The pier on the eastern side of the river between the revenue watch-house and the Duke of Norfolk's quay, in the harbour of Littlehampton.
BARNTAPLE	Stern and watch-house, Appledore.
BEALHARRIS	Dunstone the town, at Fryar's Roads.
Bewick	Within the harbour.
Canvey	In the roadstead opposite the town.
Coramaroon	In the bay off the town, opposite the Bell Tower, and at Abermaroon.
Flintkely	At the entrance of the harbour, by the Glimber Rock.
Harmouth	In the harbour.
Holthead	In the harbour.
Harwick	At the entrance of the harbour, near the pier head.
HINSDON	Stern and watch-house, Appledore.
Histon	At the pier.
HOLDSWATER	Between Botestall Point, on the coast of the Bristol Channel, and Black Rock, a mile within the mouth of the river Parrott.
BRIDGINGTON	The bay or harbour.

Ports.	Stations for bringing to.
BARDPORT	The outer buoy, distant about 300 yards, abreast of the harbour.
BARTON	At Pill and Kingsroad.
CARDIFF	Penarth Kingsroad, a little to the eastward of the mouth of the river Taff.
CARDIGAR	At Fwlicem, a little inside the bar or harbour's mouth.
CARLEILA	Fisher's Cross.
CHEFFROW	At the entrance of the river Wy.
CHESTER	Downood, 5 miles from Holywell.
CHICHESTER	Chichester harbour.
CLAY	Blackney and Clay Harbour.
COLCHESTER	Old River off Mersea Borne, Mersea Island.
COWES (East)	Roadstead of Cowes, extending from east to west about 2 1/2 miles.
DARTMOUTH	Between the mouth of the harbour and Sandquay Point.
Salcombe	At the mouth of the harbour and Snape Point.
DIAL	In the Downs, in open roadstead.
DOVER	The outer harbour.
Falkstone	In the harbour.
FERRIS	At the Passage Way, Exmouth.
FOLKESTONE	At the Point.
FALMOUTH	In the harbour, off Kilm Quay and watch-house.
Faversham	Between the mouth of Faversham Creek and the Horse Sand in the East Straits.
Milton	At the mouth of Milton Creek in the Straits.
FOVAT	Near the Custom-house, not far from the entrance of the harbour.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Ports.	Routes for bringing-in.	Ports.	Routes for bringing-in.
Loughswilly	Greenacree, situated on the north side of Lough Foyle.	Raffin	Magna Road.
Newry	Warren Point Roads.	Killybegs	Killybegs Point.
Stranorlar	Hill-hury Bay or Audley's Town Bay.	New Ross	Rossacree.
Sligo	Usher Island.	Dungannon	The harbour.
Killybegs	Anchoorage of Killybegs.	Warrington	The anchorage ground at Annagh Head, in Cleve Bay.
Ballykennedy	In the river, abreast of Ward Town-house.	Warrington	South Bay, about 10 miles from Warrington.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, the articles imported into and exported from a country. We have explained in another article (**BALANCE OF TRADE**) the mode in which the value of the imports and exports is officially determined by the Custom-house, and have shown the fallacy of the common notions as to the advantage of the exports exceeding the imports. The scale of prices according to which the official value of the imports and exports is determined having been fixed so far back as 1698, the account is of no use as showing their true value; but it is of material importance as showing the fluctuations in their quantity. We were anxious, had the means existed, to have given accounts of the quantities of the various articles imported and exported at different periods during the last century, that the comparative increase or diminution of the trade in each might have been exhibited in one general view. Unfortunately, however, no means exist for completing such an account. The Tables published by Sir Charles Whitworth, Mr. Macpherson, and others, specify only the aggregate official value of the imports from and exports to particular countries, without specifying the articles or their values of which such imports and exports consisted. And in applying at the Custom-house, we found that the fire in 1814 had destroyed the records, so that there were no means of compiling any complete account of the value of the articles imported or exported previously to that period. We have, however, given in the first of the following tables, as complete a view of the general trade of Great Britain with all parts of the world from 1760 down to 1842, both inclusive, as can be derived from existing materials. And the subsequent tables, and those dispersed through the work, give a view of that trade in detail, that is, in particular articles, and with particular countries.

During the first half of last century, and previously, woollen goods formed the principal article of native produce exported from Great Britain; and next to it were hardware and cutlery, leather manufactures, linen, tin, and lead, copper and brass manufactures, coal, earthenware, provisions, soap, &c. Corn formed a considerable article in the list of exports down to 1770, since which period the balance of the corn trade has been, with a few exceptions, very decidedly on the side of importation. Cotton did not begin to be of any importance as an article of export till after 1770; but since then the extension and improvement of the cotton manufacture has been so astonishingly great, that the exports of cotton stuffs and yarn amount, at this moment, to about a *half* of the entire exports of British produce and manufactures. The export of woollen goods has been comparatively stationary. The principal articles of import during the last half century have consisted of sugar, tea, corn, timber and naval stores, cotton wool, sheep's wool, woods and drugs for dyeing, wine and spirits, tobacco, silk, tallow, hides and skins, coffee, spices, bullion, &c. Of the colonial and other foreign products imported into England, considerable quantities have always been re-exported.

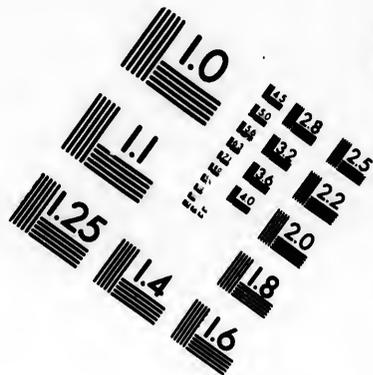
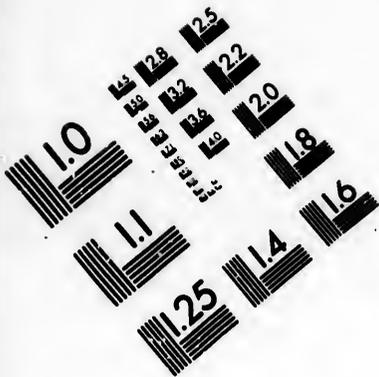
Trade of Great Britain with Foreign Countries, since 1760.

Years.	Imports.		Exports of British and Foreign and Colonial Produce.		Years.	Imports.		Exports of British and Foreign and Colonial Produce.	
	Official Value.		Official Value.			Official Value.		Official Value.	
1760	£10,683,595	£15,781,176	1772	£15,508,716	£17,720,169				
1761	10,291,511	16,038,913	1773	15,522,543	16,375,451				
1762	9,579,150	14,543,336	1774	14,477,876	17,289,406				
1763	12,366,297	15,578,913	1775	14,215,256	16,326,261				
1764	11,590,600	17,446,206	1776	12,133,433	14,755,704				
1765	11,814,114	15,765,658	1777	15,615,431	13,491,066				
1766	12,456,765	15,188,669	1778	11,033,894	12,265,490				
1767	13,097,153	15,800,001	1779	14,250,265	13,267,103				
1768	13,118,981	16,620,132	1780	11,714,966	13,690,178				
1769	13,134,091	15,001,892	1781	12,722,862	11,532,296				
1770	13,138,298	16,001,572	1782	10,311,923	13,000,429				
1771	14,208,325	19,018,191	1783	15,122,333	14,811,495				

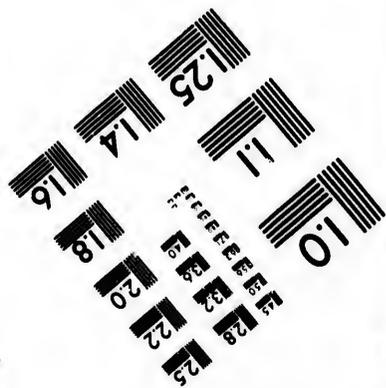
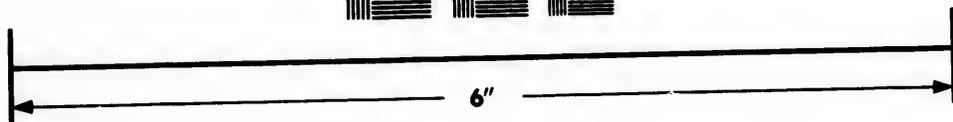
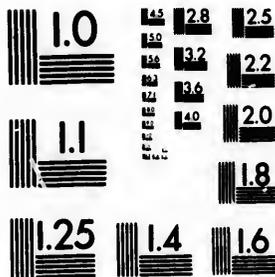
Years.	Imports.		Exports. — Official Value.		
	Official Value.		British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Exports.
1794	£15,279,877	£11,235,037	£3,516,434	£10,101,491	£15,101,491
1785	16,270,413	11,981,811	5,055,338	16,117,169	16,117,169
1786	15,786,073	11,630,125	4,470,536	16,300,731	16,300,731
1787	17,304,023	12,025,900	4,615,890	16,867,789	16,867,789
1788	16,674,170	12,774,700	4,747,519	17,472,238	17,472,238
1789	17,821,105	13,779,506	5,561,043	18,504,549	18,504,549
1790	18,303,986	14,394,084	5,199,037	20,120,181	20,120,181
1791	19,669,783	15,810,019	5,913,377	22,733,666	22,733,666
1792	19,659,328	16,336,851	6,368,249	24,005,200	24,005,200
1793	19,655,117	17,890,959	6,596,560	25,389,942	25,389,942
1794	22,476,916	16,725,403	6,748,684	27,478,964	27,478,964
1795	23,736,889	16,338,413	10,785,126	27,123,329	27,123,329
1796	25,187,393	19,105,283	11,141,668	30,256,914	30,256,914
1797	21,015,957	16,903,103	12,013,907	28,917,010	28,917,010

Years.	Imports.		Exports. — Official Value.			Face of Official Value of Exports of British Produce.	Face of Real over Official Value of Exports of British Produce.
	Official Value.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.	Total Exports.	Declared or Real Value.		
1798	£27,827,889	£19,672,503	£13,919,275	£33,591,778	£33,148,682	-	£13,476,179
1799	26,837,132	24,084,213	11,007,116	35,091,329	36,912,498	-	14,838,245
1800	30,570,605	21,301,291	14,817,736	45,152,020	39,471,203	-	15,166,919





**IMAGE EVALUATION
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Trade of Great Britain with Foreign Countries. — continued.

Years.	Imports.				Exports. — Official Value.			Exports of British Produce and Manufactures.	Excess of Official over Value of Exports of British Produce.	Excess of Real over Official Value of Exports of British Produce.
	Official Value.	British Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Produce.	Total Exports.	Declared or Real Value.					
1801	-	-	24,201,606	-	-	-	29,730,659	-	-	15,229,051
1802	-	-	23,195,895	-	-	-	45,108,330	-	-	19,906,427
1803	23,104,241	-	30,019,096	8,039,643	28,075,259	36,127,787	36,127,787	-	-	16,083,191
1804	26,434,281	-	29,136,267	8,938,741	31,071,108	27,138,746	-	-	-	15,003,279
1805	27,534,090	-	29,907,371	7,213,130	30,390,491	27,231,398	-	-	-	14,297,029
1806	25,254,478	-	33,896,244	7,717,236	33,994,101	29,746,581	-	-	-	14,400,053
1807	25,864,842	-	29,285,779	7,928,312	30,388,084	26,394,413	-	-	-	15,430,671
1808	25,060,833	-	24,179,254	6,776,777	29,226,079	26,806,265	-	-	-	15,226,633
1809	20,110,899	-	23,016,539	17,720,358	42,877,816	46,919,777	-	-	-	16,129,919
1810	27,615,294	-	23,299,408	5,237,485	42,856,443	47,000,996	-	-	-	18,701,518
1811	23,640,904	-	21,778,506	6,117,729	41,641,952	30,830,518	-	-	-	9,127,666
1812	24,923,292	-	22,447,912	9,535,065	37,980,977	39,324,623	-	-	-	10,886,614
1813	-	-	22,800,771	19,157,819	31,808,898	43,447,373	-	-	-	11,846,793
1814	31,822,033	-	41,712,009	12,706,425	57,420,457	49,653,245	-	-	-	7,941,543
1815	29,574,291	-	34,774,291	15,441,665	49,316,166	40,328,949	-	-	-	5,664,419
1817	29,919,479	-	29,919,479	12,790,529	42,709,733	40,549,895	-	-	-	11,115,768
1818	35,845,240	-	41,960,255	10,235,800	52,796,535	45,180,150	-	-	-	5,212,590
1819	39,641,640	-	39,965,889	10,592,093	42,669,825	34,432,221	-	-	-	1,968,992
1820	31,515,228	-	47,890,723	12,729,236	54,604,319	52,669,077	-	-	-	2,251,816
1821	29,769,123	-	40,194,681	10,009,090	50,196,771	35,823,127	-	-	-	4,271,554
1822	29,649,076	-	42,538,076	9,411,923	51,959,916	36,176,940	-	-	-	5,127,976
1823	31,891,264	-	43,165,039	9,265,996	51,157,260	37,629,629	-	-	-	5,772,629
1824	26,036,551	-	43,094,328	10,188,296	58,213,248	37,600,071	-	-	-	10,424,381
1825	45,660,354	-	43,545,024	9,150,303	54,695,327	39,277,230	-	-	-	9,475,097
1826	36,174,430	-	40,332,534	10,066,503	50,399,357	30,247,598	-	-	-	9,283,366
1827	45,489,248	-	31,979,109	9,906,543	61,485,445	26,394,817	-	-	-	14,681,285
1828	43,515,127	-	29,019,723	9,958,639	58,484,393	36,150,779	-	-	-	15,669,749
1829	49,311,649	-	59,465,722	10,606,441	69,978,184	35,214,873	-	-	-	20,226,350
1830	44,315,207	-	60,438,637	6,255,796	69,028,423	37,691,308	-	-	-	22,801,350
1831	49,161,661	-	60,060,183	10,490,066	79,651,729	36,639,678	-	-	-	32,437,419
1832	43,237,417	-	64,529,037	11,036,759	75,274,176	36,046,027	-	-	-	36,736,010
1833	44,329,397	-	69,633,454	9,820,586	79,453,440	39,305,513	-	-	-	30,228,341
1834	41,808,331	-	73,636,336	11,249,913	85,088,580	41,226,399	-	-	-	33,861,841
1835	47,463,210	-	77,938,418	12,793,809	90,257,019	46,329,570	-	-	-	31,008,446
1836	53,733,279	-	81,833,329	12,528,538	97,361,817	48,540,538	-	-	-	31,949,438
1837	59,329,874	-	79,512,207	11,252,321	90,582,195	41,266,205	-	-	-	30,516,002
1838	59,878,905	-	92,107,899	10,708,660	104,587,559	49,540,896	-	-	-	43,467,002
1839	60,246,628	-	89,629,178	10,295,176	100,140,979	49,791,509	-	-	-	44,683,613
1840	65,873,411	-	104,325,512	13,765,618	119,029,130	50,496,556	-	-	-	31,266,656
1841	69,641,487	-	101,790,733	14,714,635	116,456,128	51,217,658	-	-	-	50,383,095
1842	63,863,060	-	99,211,918	15,303,900	113,488,013	47,013,651	-	-	-	59,699,261
1843	68,433,090	-	117,574,563	13,947,313	131,328,079	51,373,056	-	-	-	65,943,507
1844	75,347,798	-	131,338,347	16,387,512	145,735,865	58,318,316	-	-	-	75,024,032
1845	83,760,629	-	145,788,932	16,529,182	160,289,814	63,637,890	-	-	-	74,448,378
1846	73,057,696	-	132,041,651	16,291,204	149,338,855	67,345,985	-	-	-	74,195,668

N.B. — The account of the declared or real value of the exports was first taken in 1798, having been introduced by the Convey Act of that year.

Decline in the Real Value of the Exports. — The increase in the official, and the decline in the real, value of the exports since 1815, has given rise to a great deal of irrelevant discussion. It has been looked upon as a proof that our commerce is daily becoming less prosperous, whereas, in point of fact, a precisely opposite conclusion should be drawn from it. We have already stated (ART. BALANCE OF TRADE) that the rates assigned to which the official values of the exports are determined were fixed so far back as 1696, so that they have long ceased to be of importance as affording any criterion of their actual value, their only use being to show the fluctuations in the quantities exported. To remedy this defect, a plan was formed in 1798 for keeping an account of the real value of the exports as ascertained by the declarations of the exporters. Those who believe that our trade is getting into a bad condition, contend that the great increase in the official value of the exports since 1815 shows that the quantity of the articles exported has been proportionally augmented; while the fall in their real value shows that we are selling this larger quantity of produce for a smaller price, — a result which, they affirm, is most injurious. But the circumstance of a manufacturer or merchant selling a large or a small quantity of produce at the same price, affords no criterion by which to judge as to the advantage or disadvantage of the sale; for if, in consequence of improvements in the arts or otherwise, a particular article may now be produced for half the expense that its production cost 10 or 20 years ago, it is obvious that double the quantity of it may be afforded for the same price, without injury to the producers. Now this is the case with some of the most important articles exported from England. Cotton and cotton yarn form a full half or more of our entire exports; and since 1814 there has been an extraordinary fall in the price of these articles, occasioned partly by cotton wool having fallen from about 1s. 6d. to about 3d. per lb., but more by improvements in the manufacture. For such an extent have these causes operated, that yarn No. 40, which cost, in 1812, 2s. 6d., cost, in 1843, 9d.; in 1812 No. 60, cost 3s. 6d., in 1843 it cost 1s. 0d.; in 1812 No. 80, cost 4s. 6d., in 1843 it cost 1s. 4d., and so on; and in the weaving department the reduction has been similar. Hence, while the official value in the cotton goods and yarn exported has increased from about 18,000,000, in 1814, to above 68,000,000, in 1842, their real or declared value has only increased from about 30,000,000, in 1814, to 31,675,300, in 1842. This, however, in itself, cannot be a proof of increasing prosperity: it shows that we can export and sell with a profit (or unless such were the case, does any one suppose the exportation would continue?) more than 3 times the quantity of cotton goods we exported in 1814, for not much more than the same price. In so far, therefore, as an abundant and cheap supply of cotton may be supposed to increase the comforts of society, it is plain they must be about trebled, not in this country only, but in all those countries with which we trade.

Owing to the fall that has taken place in the prime cost, and consequently in the price, of most of the principal articles of import, we obtain, at this moment, a much larger quantity of the produce of other countries in exchange for the articles we send abroad, than at any former period. The fall has been particularly sensible in the great articles of cotton and sherry, wool, corn, sugar, indigo, pepper, &c. The imports of all sorts of foreign merchandise have been increasing rapidly since 1815; and it is material to bear in mind, that we had no gold coin in circulation at that epoch, and that besides the greater quantities of other articles, we have increased in the interval, from 25,000,000, to 40,000,000, of gold and silver

for currency only. The truth is, therefore, that instead of the decline in the real value of our exports having been in any degree prejudicial, it has been, in all respects, distinctly and completely the reverse. It has insured for our goods a decided superiority in every market, while, as the cost of the goods has fallen in an equal degree, their production continues to be equally advantageous. It appears, too, that a similar fall has been going on in other countries; so that while we send more goods to the foreigner, we get back more of his in return. Instead of being an evidence of decline, increased facilities of production and increased cheapness are the most characteristic and least equivocal marks of commercial prosperity.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Account of the real or declared Value of the various Articles of the Manufacture and Produce of the U. Kingdom exported to Foreign Countries during each of the 6 Years ending with 1847; specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Value of those Annually shipped for each, and showing also the Average Amount of Exports during the said 6 Years to each Country, and to each of the 5 great Divisions of the Globe; and the Average Proportion exported to each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1000.

Country.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1842-47.	Average annual Exports to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1000.
EUROPE.								
Russia	1,885,855	1,833,310	2,188,998	2,125,491	1,723,148	1,844,543	1,838,930	247.25
Sweden	199,518	181,908	108,475	132,730	146,624	179,267	148,140	18.53
Norway	134,704	151,277	129,824	165,512	182,818	169,149	156,521	20.22
Denmark	194,348	260,176	286,870	286,558	340,511	255,701	265,221	34.75
Prussia	278,651	483,004	505,384	577,939	544,033	353,968	506,941	67.08
Germany	6,892,700	6,168,038	6,131,228	6,217,796	6,006,532	6,238,217	6,232,150	118.897
Holland	3,573,263	4,264,732	3,511,270	3,485,013	3,276,468	3,017,422	3,383,350	60.608
Belgium	1,099,490	994,650	1,471,851	1,478,038	1,108,034	1,039,456	1,209,627	21.648
France	5,133,939	6,334,898	6,666,238	5,781,258	5,713,953	5,554,323	5,741,097	69.096
Portugal Proper	291,525	1,029,134	1,123,847	860,380	969,157	898,511	1,003,848	180.17
Azores	89,862	45,803	26,879	50,338	57,149	49,980	48,293	6.870
Madeira	25,047	36,969	31,736	27,507	29,508	33,553	32,412	4.211
Spain and the Balearic Islands	829,614	876,013	509,807	676,636	769,727	770,729	670,826	10.224
Ionian Islands	43,534	41,754	36,223	43,721	45,815	50,732	45,289	5.918
Gibraltar	307,719	1,178,787	1,049,267	768,275	803,833	466,843	834,325	114.942
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,494,197	2,960,965	3,569,340	2,601,911	3,391,922	2,546,707	3,277,673	68.556
Malta	289,304	224,546	300,009	183,065	255,033	195,336	234,629	4.024
Ionian Islands	83,600	127,598	125,228	309,619	171,701	143,446	143,315	2.067
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	1,472,388	1,629,725	2,221,404	2,111,878	2,103,508	2,778,949	2,029,490	87.479
Morea and Greek Islands	17,338	30,022	28,401	35,577	35,000	33,913	30,947	4.338
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Men	364,530	285,267	389,760	279,934	414,567	543,191	412,228	7.389
Total	23,909,344	24,269,328	25,043,357	25,671,500	25,838,152	24,194,178	24,841,143	444.934
ASIA.								
Syria and Palestine	378,551	602,031	577,828	631,631	367,618	415,292	479,729	9.367
Arabia and Persia	5,092	9,224	11,023	18,007	45,457	50,732	15,168	2.026
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	5,169,898	6,404,219	7,835,668	6,705,778	6,434,486	5,470,101	6,513,066	113.775
China	363,381	1,456,189	2,025,513	2,299,837	1,540,313	1,203,969	1,736,029	31.110
Sumatra and Java	306,182	318,618	375,918	515,473	257,818	358,177	335,369	6.368
Philippine Isles	47,019	138,096	92,511	115,518	92,806	104,428	100,779	1.804
Total	6,873,063	8,842,265	11,059,555	10,377,291	8,989,724	7,864,446	9,297,739	161.160
AFRICA.								
Egypt	221,003	248,565	402,101	391,850	495,674	338,306	365,917	6.554
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	41,929	83,494	17,740	30,360	49,116	30,409	42,078	7.54
Western Coast of Africa	459,665	890,609	458,414	832,028	821,620	818,249	496,736	8.988
Cape of Good Hope	369,076	608,577	424,131	647,428	480,979	688,308	518,237	9.255
Eastern Coast of Africa	-	-	127	1,500	5,041	13,731	3,403	0.61
African Ports on the Red Sea	262	40	158	-	350	50	319	0.04
Ascension Islands	1,145	4,978	2,904	1,124	1,509	1,378	6,223	0.36
Cape de Verd Islands	1,480	1,577	1,067	1,257	2,305	4,145	2,158	0.39
St. Helena	11,350	25,838	21,026	29,000	27,000	30,000	24,885	4.66
Mauritius	244,922	238,014	285,520	345,059	310,231	223,265	277,307	4.979
Madagascar	-	-	1,998	250	2,580	-	805	0.14
Total	1,357,053	1,713,691	1,615,230	1,880,177	1,798,403	2,049,087	1,735,137	31.079
AMERICA.								
British North American Colonies	2,233,523	1,751,211	3,070,861	3,555,934	3,508,059	5,233,014	2,875,111	51.508
British West Indies	2,991,425	2,682,441	4,241,777	2,769,211	2,505,267	3,273,234	2,829,278	46.452
Havai	141,896	99,209	174,457	315,072	138,113	192,089	159,806	2.862
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	711,339	873,797	999,474	1,249,015	1,308,933	1,317,687	1,076,806	19.287
United States of America	3,532,381	5,019,544	7,941,083	7,147,668	6,898,960	10,374,161	6,919,816	133.337
Mexico	274,369	597,537	494,028	647,130	505,565	100,668	403,064	7.220
Guatemala	-	5,103	364,688	390,149	-	86,983	15,548	0.275
Columbia	231,711	376,521	364,688	390,149	473,107	327,825	354,176	6.164
Brazil	1,736,803	3,140,132	3,415,238	4,435,206	2,740,239	3,268,904	3,268,904	61.167
States of the Rio de la Plata	969,791	700,416	784,261	828,279	188,451	490,504	631,003	11.125
Chili	950,466	338,359	807,633	1,077,615	949,222	866,293	953,287	16.718
Peru	684,213	638,961	636,380	678,708	822,028	633,195	721,996	13.284
Falkland Islands	581	533	93	814	3,117	5,028	1,171	0.021
Foreign Settlements on the North West Coast of America	-	-	12,611	1,077	9,438	6,193	5,219	0.094
Total	14,282,604	16,047,165	20,073,856	20,937,993	19,668,162	23,065,154	19,013,486	340.536
AUSTRALIA.								
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, and New Zealand	946,164	1,261,815	771,483	1,221,076	1,471,640	1,644,170	1,222,224	21.901
South Sea Islands	19,803	25,247	20,519	25,045	22,724	25,368	21,723	0.390
Total	965,967	1,307,062	791,994	1,246,121	1,494,364	1,669,538	1,243,947	22.291
RECAPITULATION.								
Europe	23,909,344	24,269,328	25,043,357	25,671,500	25,838,152	24,194,178	24,841,143	444.834
Asia	6,873,063	8,842,265	11,059,555	10,377,291	8,989,724	7,864,446	9,297,739	161.160
Africa	1,357,053	1,713,691	1,615,230	1,880,177	1,798,403	2,049,087	1,735,137	31.079
America	14,282,604	16,047,165	20,073,856	20,937,993	19,668,162	23,065,154	19,013,486	340.536
Australia	965,967	1,307,062	791,994	1,246,121	1,494,364	1,669,538	1,243,947	22.291
Grand Total	47,388,031	52,279,609	58,584,392	60,111,082	57,787,802	66,848,377	53,831,033	1000.000

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Account of the different Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with the Net Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1841, 1842, 1843, and 1844.

Description of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Net Revenue.			
	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
Alumina	-	7,519	8,571	12,054	-	517	589	507	5,267	5,107	5,267	5,267	1,274	1,274	1,274	141
Asbestos	-	91,244	102,218	107,473	-	11,836	11,836	7,103	-	7,103	165,083	165,083	165,083	625	625	625
Bark, and other medicinal plants	692,549	643,145	837,539	628,502	6,139	11,836	1,450	7,103	71,054	106,219	145,083	161,083	6,674	6,674	6,674	486
Barytes	-	-	9,457	1,457	-	2,865	4,549	2,837	-	-	679	681	15,531	15,531	11,529	6,520
Bismuth	-	2,481	417	1,457	-	2,865	4,549	2,837	-	-	679	681	15,531	15,531	11,529	6,520
Boric acid	-	15,846	15,069	15,069	-	19,411	54,421	6,618	-	7,798	18,746	18,746	866	866	866	49
Borax	-	7,833	8,066	8,066	-	19,411	54,421	6,618	-	7,798	18,746	18,746	866	866	866	49
Bricks	185,751	1,733,329	2,079,435	3,132,300	76,071	57,411	40,941	76,594	378,446	2,724,585	6,246,086	11,935,555	3,193	3,193	3,193	472
China, &c.	-	1,755,249	1,733,329	2,079,435	69,072	57,411	40,941	76,594	1,679,435	1,712,558	1,586,086	1,586,086	3,193	3,193	3,193	472
Cocoa	2,913,115	2,409,095	1,501,045	3,119,714	129,299	71,534	71,534	53,509	1,993,310	2,845,739	2,546,045	2,546,045	3,193	3,193	3,193	472
Foreign productions	2,095,249	691,658	2,891,745	4,117,446	218,354	414,737	414,737	414,737	1,215,672	2,371,529	2,371,529	2,371,529	3,193	3,193	3,193	472
All sorts	5,014,661	3,172,861	3,793,581	5,731,255	671,699	653,155	664,670	1,087,134	1,998,847	2,845,739	2,546,045	2,546,045	10,206	10,206	10,206	15,179
Flax and shreds	593,178	899,274	676,772	779,008	67,909	9,937	9,937	15,346	448,278	839,526	593,178	593,178	15,179	15,179	15,179	15,179
Flax and cotton waste	1,265	1,265	1,265	1,265	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42	42
Coffee, &c.	17,001,991	26,081,680	13,577,406	36,113,830	308,940	69,837	115,384	184,702	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648	17,508,648
British productions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
In the limits of the East India Company's charter	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Foreign	30,465,708	30,989,759	30,664,316	32,409,359	7,318,041	9,498,777	12,557,679	6,150,279	10,853,569	11,819,720	9,549,774	11,819,720	697,567	697,567	697,567	697,567
Foreign	5,792,877	-	-	-	6,092,815	-	-	-	6,100	-	-	-	697,567	697,567	697,567	697,567
All sorts	45,517,709	41,444,414	39,591,699	46,253,156	13,274,698	9,500,624	12,655,415	6,305,589	20,370,037	20,369,548	20,379,404	21,501,282	705,134	705,134	705,134	705,134
Cork, unmanufactured	-	1,606	2,725	2,465	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cotton wool, from foreign	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
U. States of America	165,240,561	114,020,779	574,739,690	517,218,692	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rest of U. States	16,671,348	13,722,228	18,775,183	21,094,746	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain and Egypt	5,545,538	4,304,481	4,091,279	11,927,833	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other foreign countries	388,609,839	437,991,778	604,098,671	645,598,959	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total from foreign countries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Cotton wool, from British productions, &c. - 59,598,212 98,977,441 63,597,667 88,209,608
 East India and Mauritius -
 the growth of - - - - -

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imports & exported, retained, &c., continued.

Description of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for consumption.				Net Revenue.			
	1841.	1842.	1844.	1845.	1841.	1842.	1844.	1845.	1841.	1842.	1844.	1845.	1841.	1842.	1844.	1845.
	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units	Units
Hemp, unbleached, viz. —	15,502	18,438	55,622	1,514	862	16,000	16,000	16,000	16,000	16,000	24,071	24,071	24,071	24,071	24,071	24,071
Do, bleached, do.	2,481	1,215	1,196	45	112	108	108	108	1,061	1,839	5,125	5,125	5,125	5,125	5,125	5,125
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	2,191	854	87	2,169	306	72	31	31	54	139	87	87	87	87	87	87
Do, for shoes, caps, &c.	22,435	6,843	866	650	58	38	1,458	1,458	841	841	841	841	841	841	841	841
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	1,415	6,150	6,799	529	1,000	310	4,924	4,924	310	310	310	310	310	310	310	310
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	7	16	6	6	166	178	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	5,167	4,864	6,677	576	627	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	2,075	11,545	18,712	6,328	6,059	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918	1,918
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	699,165	585,905	735,745	80,145	10,404	11,625	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515	681,515
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	551,448	610,488	585,786	83,178	62,612	61,267	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412	43,412
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	205	290	945	185	208	71	16	16	78	174	91	91	91	91	91	91
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	110,840	378,254	608,900	96,035	103,266	125,084	1,039	1,039	131,214	167,009	253,274	253,274	253,274	253,274	253,274	253,274
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	554	530	81	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554	554
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	30,379	27,671	41,959	72	18	11,575	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488	15,488
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	28	57	51	28	18	18	18	18	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	1,615	2,241	2,297	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241	2,241
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	18,107	15,297	47,448	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578	19,578
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	25,251	18,107	15,297	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107	18,107
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	1,385	1,417	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385	1,385
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	1,741,528	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211	1,625,211
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	24,295	28,254	51,298	54,621	52	567	527	527	54,937	21,137	31,071	31,071	31,071	31,071	31,071	31,071
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214	5,214
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	6,086	18,299	20,199	16,107	1,868	42	1,325	1,325	16,209	26,074	13,255	13,255	13,255	13,255	13,255	13,255
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	81,690	5,712	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868	1,868
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	10,685	11,489	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566	566
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979	11,979
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	7,855	6,712	10,704	11,929	9,245	0	3,879	3,879	6,498	4,498	9,245	9,245	9,245	9,245	9,245	9,245
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	7,712	698	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	7,712	698	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277	9,277
Do, for hats, caps, &c.	14,000	5,018	4,713	560	560	560	560	560	6,900	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800	1,800

Net Revenue. 1841. 1842. 1844. 1845. 1841. 1842. 1844. 1845. 1841. 1842. 1844. 1845. 1841. 1842. 1844. 1845.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

721

Table exhibiting the different Countries to which Articles of the Produce or Manufacture of the U. Kingdom were exported during the 6 Years ending with 1847, arranged in the Order of the Magnitude of the Exports to them; and specifying the Average Annual Amount of the Exports to each during the said 6 Years, and the proportion of such Exports destined for each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1000.

Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports. 1842-47.	Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1000.	Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports. 1842-47.	Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1000.
United States of America	6,819,616	125-987	Mexico	403,094	7-320
Germany	4,229,153	113-931	Switzerland	365,017	6-564
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	-	-	Burma and Java	353,339	6-568
Norway	3,515,068	110-075	Colombia	291,175	5-156
Ireland	3,283,850	62-606	Manritia	177,807	4-378
British N. American Colonies	3,273,428	61-909	Denmark	165,893	4-748
France	2,741,097	48-026	Hain	124,638	4-034
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,737,675	48-356	Hays	120,808	3-862
British West Indies	2,548,278	48-128	Norway	105,301	3-428
Spain	2,483,434	47-107	Sweden	100,739	3-432
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	2,229,499	37-478	Ionian Islands	148,310	3-567
Netherlands	1,936,690	34-749	Philippine Isles	148,310	3-567
China	1,756,903	31-110	Algeria	46,595	1-219
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, and New Zealand	1,733,724	31-061	Cenary Islands	44,229	1-221
Belgium	1,406,807	21-948	Tunis, Barbary, and Morocco	43,078	1-211
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	1,076,218	19-467	Malta	39,418	1-081
Portugal	1,005,618	18-012	Norw and Greek Islands	30,007	1-038
Chile	933,387	18-718	St. Helena	29,939	1-046
Spain	874,918	16-148	South Sea Islands	19,743	0-890
Peru	781,596	14-348	Guatemala	15,348	0-743
States of the Rio de la Plata	691,003	12-133	Arabia and Persia	13,163	0-526
Spain and the Balearic Islands	670,000	10-144	Foreign Settlements on the N. W. Coast of America	5,310	0-494
Capo de Good Hope	616,907	9-295	Eastern Coast of Africa	4,408	0-61
France	505,411	9-278	Capo de Verd Islands	3,106	0-526
Western Coast of Africa	496,706	8-695	Maldivian Islands	1,171	0-491
Syria and Palestine	478,396	8-567	Madagascar	803	0-353
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	412,558	7-380	African Ports on the Red Sea	519	0-44
			Total	53,831,033	1000-

Account showing the Quantities of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce or Manufacture exported from Ireland in different Years, from 1801 to 1826, to all Countries; showing also the aggregate Official Value of such Exports, with the Portion thereof exported to Foreign Countries and to Great Britain.

Articles exported.	1801.	1805.	1809.	1813.	1817.	1821.	1825.
Corn and meal, viz.:							
Barley	17,923	85,585	194,193	645,050	59,116	78,838	154,928
Oats	189	263,374	806,329	1,776,640	1,159,294	1,305,934	2,035,934
Wheat	69,815	65,999	301,873	67,880	176,640	176,640	263,240
Other grain	1	5,508	3,023	5,854	2,011	7,897	23,439
Wheat flour	0	21,774	18,081	367,894	34,817	233,053	299,507
Distilled, &c.	3,294	24,497	80,948	108,247	24,862	66,068	204,617
Cattle and live stock							
Cows and oxen	No. 31,661	31,941	18,356	49,598	45,228	85,750	65,294
Sheep	9,891	10,988	7,596	7,890	89,478	25,334	79,191
Horses	1,968	4,383	4,713	14,911	94,413	104,556	63,919
Horses	818	4,186	5,451	4,004	879	4,509	5,140
Beacon and beams	81,181	85,073	167,193	234,606	181,025	266,929	269,276
Beef and pork	180,940	219,098	229,744	291,203	392,903	618,163	161,276
Lard	2,948	6,383	16,838	30,136	17,181	26,488	26,363
Butter	504,668	394,410	323,933	461,214	397,985	473,944	474,161
Soap and candles	15,532	17,713	26,810	46,610	25,381	18,454	14,793
Flax, undressed	1,639	878	6,507	69,191	44,739	64,791	24,896
Wool, Irish	Imp. gals. 119,695	819,970	60,437	113,516	37,884	207,697	69,229
Cotton manufactures	yards 1,436	8,556	24,998	99,141	549,361	961,071	10,867,458
Other descriptions	value £ 4,984	3,991	31,925	58,074	66,820	6,564	801
Linen manufactures	yards 37,911,609	44,683,333	37,166,399	39,093,087	26,390,076	49,231,328	25,114,618
Other articles the produce or manufacture of the U. K.	value £ 122,559	211,184	309,843	280,990	434,124	324,225	466,389
Agg. official value of prod. and manuf. of U. K. exported from Ireland to all parts	£ 3,778,146	4,670,847	4,999,870	6,797,964	6,447,494	7,705,070	9,101,956
Agg. official value of prod. and manuf. of U. K. exported from Ireland to foreign ports	£ 486,076	469,269	685,115	1,132,781	877,909	637,616	687,667
Agg. official value of prod. and manuf. of U. K. exported from Ireland to Great Britain	£ 2,309,089	4,201,078	4,267,425	5,161,483	5,569,466	7,067,259	8,404,289

Account of the real or declared Value of the various Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the U. Kingdom, exported to Foreign Parts in 1844, 1845, and 1846.

Articles.	1844.	1845.	1846.
GRAN BRITAIN.			
Alam	10,728	12,350	14,968
Apparel, slops, and negro clothing	531,283	746,081	727,754
Arms and ammunition	390,338	618,668	484,707
Bacon and hams	42,933	41,461	25,010
Beef and pork, salted	25,496	31,833	24,015
Beer and ale	498,471	481,529	327,807
Books, printed	174,255	146,298	174,861
Iron and copper manufactures	1,736,293	1,694,180	1,557,796
Bread and biscuit	3,713	3,883	3,713
Butter and cheese	128,043	120,690	143,341
Cabaret and upholstery wares	71,207	76,948	63,400

Account of the real or declared Value of the various Articles of the Produce, &c.—continued.

Articles.	1844.	1845.	1846.
GRASSY BARREN.			
Cooks and culms	675,000	971,108	807,188
Cordage	93,800	231,102	199,776
Corn, grain, meal, and flour	85,800	74,600	85,600
Cotton manufactures— yarn	19,811,438	19,185,793	17,710,068
Corns and seams	8,900,184	8,903,835	7,881,048
Earthenware of all sorts	5,370	1,000	89
Fish of all sorts	766,764	828,004	793,081
Glass of all sorts	813,831	848,646	830,090
Hazardous and millinery	390,650	806,149	305,153
Hardware and cutlery	839,208	816,294	874,565
Hats, beaver and felt of all other sorts	2,178,780	2,182,704	2,180,549
Hops	59,373	65,017	44,966
Horns	83,000	69,700	70,973
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	10,600	10,600	10,736
Lard	116,374	108,828	111,009
Lead and shot	3,189,458	3,496,078	4,174,814
Leathers, wrought and unwrought saddlery and harness	13,420	15,770	15,007
Linen manufactures— yarn	879,314	810,941	147,147
Machinery and millwork	264,708	349,449	307,310
Mathematical and optical instruments	96,887	109,600	106,487
Metals	2,010,919	2,091,595	2,774,675
Musical instruments	1,015,781	1,038,745	835,907
Oil, hempen, linseed, and rapeseed train, of Greenland fishery, &c.	776,823	901,854	1,117,170
Palmetto colours	59,710	30,710	37,555
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	59,368	49,338	46,811
Potatoes	497	1,098	130
Rail	66,404	74,011	78,304
Salt	123,494	104,817	106,449
Saltpetre, British refined	5,315	15,174	5,888
Seeds of all sorts	206,030	211,608	181,811
Silk manufactures	269,593	284,198	244,668
Soap and candles	5,708	38,396	13,415
Soda	218,063	213,817	208,684
Spirits	38,311	43,469	39,749
Stationery of all sorts	3,989	10,415	10,475
Sugar, refined	756,405	766,033	837,631
Tin, unwrought	286,163	191,756	191,839
Tin and pewter ware and tin plate	113,319	135,916	141,445
Tobacco (manufactured) and leaf	24,064	27,406	26,496
Tongues	269,737	280,074	278,515
Umbrellas and parasols	230,557	478,047	393,404
Walesbone	77,993	48,777	407,406
Wool, sheep's of other sorts	500,061	637,049	659,540
Woolen and worsted yarn	13,431	13,978	15,116
Woolen manufactures	3,098	3,607	3,318
All other articles	73,090	60,769	65,000
	8,289	1,938	3,069
	479,823	499,939	330,498
	39,176	37,297	18,785
	39,917	1,066,985	808,470
	6,203,427	7,099,087	6,334,132
	1,529,298	1,704,169	1,654,670
Total real or declared value of the Produce and manufactures of the U. Kingdom, exported from Great Britain to foreign parts	58,316,316	59,837,660	57,545,985
IRELAND.			
Total real or declared value of the produce and manufactures of the U. Kingdom, exported from Ireland to foreign parts	267,877	373,481	440,800
Total—United Kingdom.	58,584,193	60,211,141	57,986,785

Causes of the Magnitude of British Commerce.—The immediate cause of the rapid increase and vast magnitude of the commerce of Great Britain, is doubtless to be found in the extraordinary improvement, and consequent extension, of our manufactures since 1770. The cotton manufacture may be said to have grown up during the intervening period. It must also be borne in mind, that the effect of an improvement in the production of any article in considerable demand is not confined to that particular article, but extends itself to others. Those who produce it according to the old plan are undersold, unless they adopt the same or similar improvements; and the improved article, by coming into competition with others for which it may be substituted, infuses new energy into their producers, and impels every one to put forth all his powers, that he may either preserve his old or acquire new advantages. The cotton manufacture may be said to be the result of the stupendous inventions and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, and a few others; but we should greatly under-rate the importance of their inventions, if we supposed that their influence was limited to this single department. They imparted a powerful stimulus to every branch of industry. Their success, and that of Watt and Wedgwood, gave that confidence to genius so essential in all great undertakings. After machines had been invented for spinning and weaving cottons, whose fineness emulates the web of the gossamer, and steam-engines had been made "to engrave scales, and to lift a ship like a bauble in the air," every thing seemed possible—*nil arduum viduum est*. And the unceasing efforts of new aspirants to wealth and distinction, and the intimate connection of the various arts and sciences, have extended and perpetuated the impulse given by the invention of the spinning-frame and the steam-engine.

The immense accumulation of capital that has taken place since the close of the American war has been at once a cause and a consequence of our increased trade and manufactures. Those who reflect on the advantages which an increase of capital

confers on its possessors can have no difficulty in perceiving how it operates to extend trade. It enables them to buy cheaper, because they buy larger quantities of goods, and pay ready money; and, on the other hand, it gives them a decided superiority in foreign markets, where capital is scarce, and credit an object of primary importance with the native dealers. To the manufacturer, an increase of capital is of equal importance, by giving him the means of constructing his works in the best manner, and of carrying on the business on such a scale as to admit of the most proper distribution of whatever has to be done among different individuals. These effects have been strikingly evinced in the commercial history of Great Britain during the last half century; and thus it is, that capital, originally accumulated by means of trade, gives it, in its turn, nourishment, vigour, and enlarged growth.

The improvement that has taken place in the mode of living during the last half century has been partly the effect, and partly the cause, of the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of commerce. Had we been contented with the same accommodations as our ancestors, exertion and ingenuity would long since have been at an end, and routine have usurped the place of invention. Happily, however, the desires of man vary with the circumstances under which he is placed, extending with every extension of the means of gratifying them, till, in highly civilised countries, they become all but insatiable. This endless craving of the human mind, its inability to rest satisfied with previous acquisitions, combined with the constant increase of population, renders the demand for new inventions and discoveries as intense at one period as at another, and provides for the continued advancement of society. What is a luxury in one age, becomes a necessary in the next. The fact of Queen Elizabeth having worn a pair of silk stockings was reckoned deserving of notice by contemporary historians; while, at present, no gentleman, how humble soever his circumstances, can go to dinner without them. The lower classes are continually pressing upon the middle; and these, again, upon the higher; so that invention is racked, as well to vary the modes of enjoyment, as to increase the amount of wealth. That this competition should be, in all respects, advantageous, is not to be supposed. Emulation in show, though the most powerful incentive to industry, may be carried to excess; and has certainly been ruinous to many individuals, obliged sometimes, perhaps, by their situation, or seduced by example, to incur expenses beyond their means. But the abuse, even when most extended, as it probably is in England, is, after all, confined within comparatively narrow limits; while the beneficial influence resulting from the general diffusion of a taste for improved accommodations adds to the science, industry, wealth, and enjoyments of the whole community.

We are also inclined to think that the increase of taxation, during the late war, contributed to the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of trade. The gradually increasing pressure of the public burdens stimulated the industrious portion of the community to make corresponding efforts to preserve their place in society; and produced a spirit of invention and economy that we should have in vain attempted to excite by any less powerful means. Had taxation been very oppressive, it would not have had this effect; but it was not so high as to produce either dejection or despair, though it was, at the same time, sufficiently heavy to render a considerable increase of exertion and parsimony necessary, to prevent it from encroaching on the fortunes of individuals, or, at all events, from diminishing the rate at which they were previously accumulating. To the excitement afforded by the desire of rising in the world, the fear of falling superadded an additional and powerful stimulus; and the two together produced results that could not have been produced by the unassisted operation of either. We do not think that any evidence has been, or can be, produced to show that the capital of the country would have been materially greater than it is, had the tranquillity of Europe been maintained uninterrupted from 1793 to the present moment.

We do not state these circumstances to extenuate the evils of war, or of oppressive taxation; but merely to show the real influence of taxation on industry, when gradually augmented and kept within reasonable bounds. Under such circumstances, it has the same influence over a nation that an increase of his family, or of his unavoidable expenses, has over a private individual.

But after every fair allowance has been made for the influence of the causes above stated, and of others of a similar description, still it is abundantly certain that a liberal system of government, affording full scope for the expansion and cultivation of every mental and bodily power, and securing all the advantages of superior talent and address to their possessors, is the grand *sine qua non* of commercial and manufacturing prosperity. Where oppression and tyranny prevail, the inhabitants, though surrounded by all the means of civilisation and wealth, are invariably poor and miserable. In respect of soil, climate, and situation, Spain is, perhaps, superior, or, at all events, but little inferior to Great Britain; and yet, what a miserable contrast does the former present, when compared with the latter! The despotism and intolerance of her rulers, and the want of good order and tranquillity, have extinguished every germ of improvement in the Pen-

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insula, and sunk the inhabitants to the level of the Turks and Moors. Had a similar political system been established in England, we should have been equally depressed. Our superiority in science, arts, and arms, though promoted by subsidiary means, is, at bottom, the result of *freedom and security* — freedom to engage in every employment, and to pursue our own interest in our own way, coupled with an intimate conviction, derived from the nature of our institutions, and their opposition to every thing like arbitrary power, that acquisitions, when made, may be securely enjoyed or disposed of. These form the grand sources of our wealth and power. There have only been two countries — Holland and the United States — which have, in these respects, been placed under nearly the same circumstances as England; and, notwithstanding they inhabit a morass, defended only by artificial mounds from being deluged by the ocean, the Dutch have long been, and still continue to be, the most prosperous and opulent people of the Continent; while the Americans, whose situation is more favourable, are advancing in the career of improvement with a rapidity hitherto unknown. In Great Britain we have been exempted, for a lengthened period, from foreign aggression and intestine commotion; the pernicious influence of the feudal system has long been at an end; the same equal burdens have been laid on all classes; we have enjoyed the advantage of liberal institutions, without any material alloy of popular licentiousness or violence; our intercourse with foreign nations, though subjected to various restraints, has been comparatively free; full scope has been given to the competition of the home-producers; the highest offices have been open to deserving individuals; and, on the whole, the natural order of things has been less disturbed amongst us by artificial restraints than in most other countries. But without security, no degree of freedom would have been of material importance. Happily, however, every man has felt satisfied, not only of the temporary, but of the permanent tranquillity of the country, and of the stability of its institutions. The plans and combinations of capitalists have not been affected by misgivings as to what might take place in future. Monied fortunes have not been amassed in preference to others, because they might be more easily sent abroad in periods of confusion and disorder; but all individuals have unhesitatingly engaged, whenever an opportunity offered, in undertakings of which a remote posterity was alone to reap the benefit. No one can look at the immense sums expended upon the permanent improvement of the land, on docks, warehouses, canals, &c., or reflect for a moment on the settlements of property in the funds, and the extent of our system of life insurance, without being deeply impressed with the vast importance of that confidence which the public have placed in the security of property and the good faith of government. Had this confidence been imperfect, industry and invention would have been paralysed; and much of that capital which feeds and clothes the industrious classes would never have existed. The preservation of this security entire, both *in fact and in opinion*, is essential to the public welfare. If it be anywise impaired, the colossal fabric of our prosperity will crumble into dust; and the commerce of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, like that of Tyre, Carthage, and Palmyra, will, at no very remote period, be famous only in history. — (From the *Treatise on Commerce*, contributed by the author of this work to the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.)

Supposed Danger to our Trade from foreign Competition.—A great many statements have been circulated of late years respecting the rapid progress of manufactures in foreign countries, and many sinister auguries have at the same time been indulged in as to the decay of the manufactures and trade of this country. But though all branches of industry, and especially those dependent on foreign supply and demand, are necessarily exposed to vicissitudes which it is impossible to estimate *a priori*, or even to foresee; still we think there are no good grounds on which to anticipate that we are at all likely, within any reasonable period, to be outstripped in the career of industry by others. We have, it is true, something to fear from the spread of combinations and agitation at home; but, supposing domestic security and tranquillity to be preserved, we have little to fear from foreign competition. The previous tables show that our exports to France, Germany, and Italy, the only countries, or the channels to the only countries, that are at all likely to become our competitors, have, of late years, been rapidly increasing. Indeed, our exports to France in 1842 were twice as great as they had been in 1837; and were it not for the extraordinary fluctuations in the quantity and value of the currency of the U. States, — fluctuations which every now and then overspread every part of the Union with bankruptcy, and entail heavy losses on those foreigners who have the misfortune to supply her markets with goods, — we have no doubt that our exports to America would have increased in nearly the same ratio they have done to France. Much, no doubt, has been said about the progress of the cotton manufacture in the U. States; but, in point of fact, they are unable to export any description of cotton stuffs, except those coarse fabrics the value of which chiefly consists of that of the raw material. It is, indeed, an absurdity to suppose that a country like the U. States, where profits and wages are both high, should be able to come into anything like suc-

successful competition with a country like England, in the production of any description of articles requiring either a good deal of skill or of labour in their manufacture.

Although, however, we attach no weight to the statements that have been so long and so perseveringly circulated as to the decay of trade, we are not, certainly, of the number of those who think that no change should be made in the commercial policy of the country, or that it may not be very materially improved. Restrictive regulations and oppressive duties, though greatly diminished of late years, and especially by the tariff of 1842, still continue to exert a powerful and mischievous influence over many departments of industry; and are, indeed (supposing tranquillity to be preserved), the only thing from which it is at all reasonable to apprehend any serious injury. It is in all respects of the utmost importance that every practicable effort should be made for their modification and reduction. They not only diminish exportation, by diminishing the power to import or bring back equivalents, but inflict a grievous injury on the consumer, without producing any corresponding advantage to the producer or the revenue, to which, indeed they are decidedly hostile. Perhaps, however, their worst effect consists in the handle and pretence which they afford for all sorts of misrepresentation and abuse. This has been strikingly evinced in the more recent discussions as to the Corn Laws. All parties—manufacturers and agriculturists—seem generally to entertain the most erroneous notions as to the influence of these statutes. The truth is, that, in ordinary years, it is now (thanks to the spread of agricultural improvement) all but imperceptible. During the 14 years ending with 1842, the average price of wheat in Great Britain was 59s. 4d. a quarter; and we are bold to say, that not a tittle of evidence has been or can be produced, to show that this price would have been reduced 4s. a quarter had the ports been all the while open to unconditional importation from abroad under a fixed duty of only 5s. a quarter. Hence, were our manufactures really declining, or in a perilous state, which happily they are not, it is idle to suppose that this decline or danger could be obviated by the repeal of the Corn Laws. The influence of the latter is now little felt, except in unfavourable years, when the home crops are deficient; but then, certainly, it is extremely injurious. This arises not only from the restrictions which they lay on importation at the time, but also from the discouragement which they give to warehousing in ordinary years, and, consequently, forcing the required supply to be suddenly introduced, to the great derangement of the ordinary channels of trade and of the currency. Such a state of things should not be allowed to exist; and seeing that the agriculturists have really very little to fear from the opening of the ports, sound policy would suggest that foreign corn should be admitted at all times for home consumption, under a reasonable constant duty (5s. or 6s. on wheat, and other grain in proportion), such as the justice and exigencies of the case may seem to require. The exclusion of foreign sugar, and the regulations as to the timber trade, though the latter have been much modified, are productive of nothing but mischief, and have not, in fact, a single redeeming quality about them: they add very materially to the price of a most important necessary of life, and of our houses, ships, and machinery, and deprive the Treasury of at least 1,500,000*l.* a year of revenue. But were the corn laws and those relating to sugar and timber placed on a proper footing, and some of the more oppressive duties in our tariff, as those on tea, silks and gloves, brandy and hollands, adequately reduced, the foreign competition to which we might be exposed would be productive of nothing but advantage. Such competition is, in reality, the vivifying principle of industry, *curis acens mortalia corda*. It gives a new stimulus to the inventive powers, at the same time that it supplies new products and new modes of enjoyment to reward the labour of the industrious. It must ever be borne in mind, that the amount of the exports from a country always depends upon, and is, in fact, measured by, the amount of its imports; and while the magnitude of the latter continues to increase, and we freely open our ports to the products of all countries and climates, we may be sure that our exports will equally increase, and be found in every market.

IMPRESSMENT, the forcible taking away of seamen from their ordinary employment, and compelling them to serve, against their will, in her Majesty's ships.

1. *Regulations as to Impressment.*—This practice is not expressly sanctioned by any act of parliament; but it is so indirectly by the numerous statutes that have been passed, granting exemptions from it. According to Lord Mansfield, it is "a power founded upon immemorial usage," and is understood to make a part of the common law. All *sea-faring* men are liable to impressment, unless specially protected by custom or statute. Seamen executing particular services for government, not unfrequently get protections from the Admiralty, Navy Board, &c. Some are exempted by *local custom*; and *ferrymen* are every where privileged from impressment. The statutory exemptions are numerous.

1. Every ship in the coal trade has the following persons protected, viz. 2 white seamen (such as the master shall nominate) for every ship of 100 tons; and 1 for every 50 tons for every ship of 100 tons and upwards; and any officer who presumes to impress any of the above, shall forfeit, to the master or

owner of such vessel, 10*l.* for every man so impressed; and such officer shall be incapable of holding any place, office, or employment in any of his Majesty's ships of war.—*6 & 7 Will. 3. c. 18, sect. 19.*
2. No parish apprentice shall be compelled or permitted to

* In order that these men shall be thus protected, it is necessary for the master to name them, before they are impressed: this is to be done by going before the mayor or other chief magistrate of the place, who is to give the master a certificate, in which is contained the names of the particular men whom he thus nominates; and this certificate will be their protection.

enter into his Majesty's sea service till he arrives at the age of 18 years. — (14 & 3 Anne, c. 8, sect. 4.)

3. Persons voluntarily binding themselves apprentices to sea service, shall not be impressed for 5 years from the date of their indentures. But no person above 18 years of age shall have any exemption or privilege from his indentures if he has been at sea before they became apprentices. — (12 & 3 Anne, c. 6, sect. 10; 4 Anne, c. 19, sect. 17; and 18 Geo. 3, c. 17, sect. 5.)

4. *Apprentices.* — The act 5 & 6 Will. 4, c. 19, enacts some new regulations with respect to the number of apprentices that ships must have on board according to their tonnage; and the act 4 Geo. 4, c. 25, grants protection to such apprentices till they have attained the age of 21 years.

5. *Persons employed in the Fisheries.* — The act 50 Geo. 3, c. 108, grants the following exemptions from impressment, viz. —

1st. *Masters of fishing vessels or boats, who, either themselves or their owners, have, or within 6 months before applying for a protection shall have had, 1 apprentice or more under 18 years of age, bound for 3 years, and employed in the business of fishing.*

2dly. *All such apprentices, not exceeding eight in every master or owner of any fishing vessel of 50 tons or upwards; not exceeding seven to every vessel or boat of 20 tons and under 50; not exceeding six to every vessel of 30 tons and under 35 tons; and not exceeding four to every vessel or boat not exceeding 25 tons burden during the time of their apprenticeship, and till the age of 20 years; they continuing, for the time, in the business of fishing only.*

3dly. *One seaman, besides the master and apprentices, to every fishing vessel of 10 tons or upwards, employed on the coast, during his continuance in such service.*

5. *Policy of Impressment.* — This practice, so subversive of every principle of justice, is vindicated on the alleged ground of being absolutely necessary to the manning of the fleet. But this position, notwithstanding the confidence with which it has been taken up, is not quite so tenable as has been supposed. The difficulties experienced in procuring sailors for the fleet at the breaking out of a war, are not natural but artificial, and might be got rid of by a very simple arrangement. During peace, not more than a fourth or a fifth part of the seamen are retained in his Majesty's service that are commonly recruited during war. If peace continues for a few years, the number of seamen in the royal navy and the merchant service is limited to that which is merely adequate to supply the reduced demand of the former and the ordinary demand of the latter. When, therefore, war is declared, and 30,000 or 40,000 additional seamen are wanted for the fleet, they cannot be obtained, unless by withdrawing them from the merchant service, which has not more than its proper complement of hands. But to do this by offering the seamen higher wages would be next to impolitic; and would, supposing it were practicable, impose such a sacrifice upon the public as could hardly be borne. And hence, it is said, the necessity of impressment; a practice which every one admits can be justified on no other ground than that of its being absolutely essential to the public safety.

It is plain, however, that a necessity of this sort may be easily obviated. All, in fact, that is necessary for this purpose, is merely to keep such a number of sailors in his Majesty's service during peace as may suffice, with the ordinary proportion of landmen and boys, to man the fleet at the breaking out of a war. Were this done, there would not be a shadow of a pretence for resorting to impressment; and the practice, with the cruelty and injustice inseparable from it, might be entirely abolished.

But it is said that, though desirable in many respects, the expense of such a plan will always prevent it from being adopted. It admits, however, of demonstration, that instead of being dearer, this plan would be actually cheaper than that which is now followed. Not more than 1,000,000, or 1,200,000, a year would be required to be added to the navy estimates, and that would not be a real, but merely a nominal advance.

The violence and injustice to which the practice of impressment exposes sailors, operates at all times to raise their wages, by creating a disinclination on the part of many young men to enter the sea service; and this disinclination is vastly increased during war, when wages usually rise four or five times their previous amount, imposing a burden on the commerce of the country, exclusive of other equal & mischievous consequences, many times greater than the tax that would be required to keep up the peace establishment of the navy to its proper level. It is really, therefore, a vulgar error to suppose that impressment has the recommendation of cheapness in its favour; and, though it had, no reasonable man would contend that that is the only, or even the principal, circumstance to be attended to. In point of fact, however, it is as costly as it is oppressive and unjust. — (The reader is referred for a fuller discussion of this interesting question, to the note on *Impressment* in the edition of the *Wealth of Nations*, by the author of this work.)

INDEMNITY, is where one person secures another from responsibility against any particular event; thus, a policy of insurance is a contract of indemnity against any particular loss. Where one person also becomes bail for another, a bond of indemnity is frequently executed; and where a bond or bill of exchange has been lost or mislaid, the acceptor or obligee would not act prudently in paying it, without being secured by a bond of indemnity.

INDIAN RUBBER. See CAOUTCHOUC.

INDIGO (Fr. *Indigo*; Ger. *Indigo*; Sans. *Nili*; Arab. *Neel*; Malay, *Turoum*), the drug which yields the beautiful blue dye known by that name. It is obtained by the maceration in water of certain tropical plants; but the indigo of commerce is almost entirely obtained from leguminous plants of the genus *Indigofera*; that cultivated in India being the *Indigofera tinctoria*; and that in America the *Indigofera anil*. The Indian plant has pinnate leaves and a slender ligneous stem; and when successfully cultivated, rises to the height of 3, 5, and even 6 feet.

It appears pretty certain that the culture of the indigo plant, and the preparation of the drug, have been practised in India from a very remote epoch. It has been questioned, indeed, whether the *indicum* mentioned by Pliny (*Hist. Nat. lib. xxxv. c. 6.*) was indigo, but, as it would seem, without any good reason. Pliny states that it was brought from India; that when diluted it produced an admirable mixture of blue and purple colours (*in diluendo mixturam purpuree caeruleique mirabilem reddit*); and he gives tests by which the genuine drug might be discriminated with sufficient precision. It is true that Pliny is egregiously mistaken as to the mode in which the drug was pro-

4thly, *Any landmen above the age of 18, entering and employed on board each vessel, for 3 years from his first going to sea; and to the end of the voyage then engaged in, if he so long continues in such service.*

An affidavit sworn before a Justice of the peace, containing the names of such fishing vessel or boat, the names of the crew, which she belongs, the name and description of the master, the age of every apprentice, the term for which he is bound, and the date of his indenture, and the names, age, and description of every such mariner and landman respectively, and the time of each landman's first going to sea, to be transmitted to the Admiralty; who, upon finding the facts correctly stated, grant a separate protection to every individual. In case, however, of an actual invasion of these Kingdoms, or imminent danger thereof, such protected persons may be impressed; but except upon such an emergency, any officer or officers impressing such protected persons shall respectively forfeit 20*l.* to the party impressed, if not an apprentice, or to his master if he be an apprentice. — Sects. 5, 3, 4.

6. *General Exemptions.* — All persons 55 years of age and upwards, and under 18 years. Every person being a foreigner, who shall serve in any merchant ship, or other trading vessel, or privateer, belonging to a subject of the crown of Great Britain; and all persons, of what age soever, who shall use the sea; shall be protected for 7 years, to be computed from the time of their first using it. — (18 Geo. 3, c. 17.)

7. *Mariners, line runners, or boat steersmen, engaged in the southern whale fishery, are also protected.* — (18 Geo. 3, c. 20.)

8. *Mariners employed in the herring fishery are exempted while actually employed.* — (48 Geo. 3, c. 110.)

duced; but there are many examples in modern as well as ancient times, to prove that the possession of an article brought from a distance implies no accurate knowledge of its nature, or of the processes followed in its manufacture. Beckmann (*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Indigo*) and Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 241—252.) have each investigated this subject with great learning and sagacity; and agree in the conclusion that the *indicum* of Pliny was real indigo, and not, as has been supposed, a drug prepared from the *isatis* or woad. At all events, there can be no question that indigo was imported into modern Europe, by way of Alexandria, previously to the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. When first introduced, it was customary to mix a little of it with woad to heighten and improve the colour of the latter; but, by degrees, the quantity of indigo was increased; and woad was, at last, entirely superseded. It is worth while, however, to remark, that indigo did not make its way into general use without encountering much opposition. The growers of woad prevailed on several governments to prohibit the use of indigo! In Germany, an Imperial edict was published in 1654, prohibiting the use of indigo, or "*devil's dye*," and directing great care to be taken to prevent its clandestine importation, "because," says the edict, "the trade in woad is lessened, dyed articles injured, and money carried out of the country!" The magistrates of Nuremberg went further, and compelled the dyers of that city to take an oath once a year not to use indigo; which practice was continued down to a late period. In 1598, upon an urgent representation of the states of Languedoc, at the solicitation of the woad growers, the use of indigo was prohibited in that province; and it was not till 1737, that the dyers of France were left at liberty to dye with such articles, and in such a way, as they pleased. — (*Beckmann*, vol. iv. p. 142.) Let not those who may happen to throw their eyes over this paragraph, smile at the ignorance of our ancestors — *Mutato nomine, de te fabula narratur*. How much opposition is made at this moment to the importation of many important articles, for no better reasons than were alleged in the sixteenth century, against the importation of indigo!

Indigo is at present produced in Bengal, and the other provinces subject to the presidency of that name, from the 20th to the 30th degree of north latitude; in the province of Tinnevely, under the Madras government; in Java; in Lucoula, the principal of the Philippine islands; and in Guatemala, and the Caracacas, in Central America. Bengal is, however, the great mart for indigo; and the quantity produced in the other places is comparatively inconsiderable.

Haynal was of opinion that the culture of indigo had been introduced into America by the Spaniards; but this is undoubtedly an error. Several species of *indigofera* belong to the New World; and the Spaniards used it as a substitute for ink, very soon after the conquest. — (*Humboldt, Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. iii. p. 54. 2d ed.)

For the first 20 years after the English became masters of Bengal, the culture and manufacture of indigo, now of such importance, was unknown as a branch of British industry; and the exports were but trifling. The European markets were, at this period, principally supplied from America. In 1783, however, the attention of the English began to be directed to this business; and though the processes pursued by them be nearly the same with those followed by the natives, their greater skill, intelligence, and capital give them immense advantages. In their hands, the growth and preparation of indigo has become the most important employment, at least in a commercial point of view, carried on in the country. The indigo made by the natives supplies the internal demand; but a portion of that which is raised by them, with all that is raised by Europeans, is exported.

In the Delta of the Ganges, where the best and largest quantity of indigo is produced, the plant lasts only for a single season, being destroyed by the periodical inundation; but in the dry central and western provinces, one or two *ratoon* crops are obtained; and owing to this circumstance, the latter are enabled to furnish a large supply of seed to the former.

During the 9 years which preceded the opening of the trade with India, in 1814, the annual average produce of indigo in Bengal, for exportation, was nearly 5,000,000 lbs. But since the ports were opened, the indigo produced for exportation has increased fully a third; the exports during the 16 years ending with 1829-30, being above 7,400,000 lbs. a year. The following statement shows the rate of this increase, taking the average produce of each 4 years:—

1814	Lbs.	1818	Lbs.	1822	Lbs.	1826	Lbs.
1815	- - -	1819	- - -	1823	- - -	1827	- - -
1816	- - -	1820	- - -	1824	- - -	1828	- - -
1817	- - -	1821	- - -	1825	- - -	1829	- - -

and it has continued about the same since, as is evident from the following
Statement of the Quantity and Value of the Indigo shipped from Calcutta in 1830-31, 1840-41, and 1841-42.

	1830-31.		1840-41.		1841-42.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Great Britain - - - Fy. mds.	85,711	85,74,100	84,305	1,65,51,074	84,813	1,66,35,889
France - - - - -	23,151	23,15,100	20,260	40,86,265	26,691	52,94,921
North America	5,899	5,89,900	4,922	9,45,368	3,713	7,85,363
Arabian and Persia	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gulphs - - - - -	10,939	10,93,900	5,053	9,04,414	5,863	11,72,774
Bombay - - - - -	-	55,000	637	1,27,499	122	21,383
Sweden - - - - -	243	24,300	-	-	-	-
Hremen - - - - -	-	-	206	41,257	299	99,868
Elsewhere - - - - -	33	3,300	74	15,775	130	27,520
Total mds.	1,26,556	1,26,55,600	1,15,963	2,17,11,508	1,21,541	2,39,51,248
Being in lbs.	5,441,241		8,601,557		9,077,516	
- - - tons	4,215 3 63		3,839 12 69		4,059 9 27	
Quantity shipped for Great Britain only - - - tons	2,858 8 88		2,805 3 38		2,685 10 68	

It deserves to be remarked, that since the opening of the trade, Indian capitalists have betaken themselves to the manufacture of indigo on the European method, and that at present a considerable part of the whole annual produce is prepared by them.

The culture of indigo is very precarious, not only in so far as respects the growth of the plant from year to year, but also as regards the quantity and quality of the drug which the same amount of plants will afford even in the same season. Thus the produce of 1828-29 was 41,000 chests, while the produce of the following year was but 29,000 chests; the produce of 1827-28 was about 45,000 chests, and that of 1828-29 only 26,500 chests. The price of indigo in India increased, for a while, in a far greater ratio than the quantity. In 1812-14, the real value of that exported from Calcutta was 1,461,000*l.*, but in 1827-28, although the quantity had increased but 20 per cent., the value rose to 2,999,000*l.*, or was about doubled. There was no corresponding rise in the price in Europe, but, on the contrary, a decline; and the circumstance is to be accounted for by the restraint that were then placed on the investment of capital in the production of colonial articles suited to the European market, the consequent difficulty of making remittances from India, and an unnatural flow of capital to the only great article of Indian produce and export that was supposed capable of bearing its application.

The consumption of indigo has varied but little in this country during the last 10 years, having been, at an average of that period, about 5,600,000 lbs. a year. This stationary demand, notwithstanding the fall in the price of the drug and the increase of population, is principally to be ascribed to the decreasing use of blue cloth, in the dyeing of which it is principally made use of. Its consumption in France is about as great as in Britain. Besides the exports to Great Britain, France, and the United States, a good deal of Bengal indigo is exported to the ports on the Persian Gulph, whence it finds its way to southern Russia. It is singular that it is not used by the Chinese, with whom blue is a favourite colour.

The indigo of Bengal is divided into two classes, called, in commercial language, *Bengal and Oude*; the first being the produce of the southern provinces of Bengal and Bahar, and the last that of their northern provinces and of Benares. The first is, in point of quality, much superior to the other. This arose at one time, in a particular degree, from the process which prevailed in the northern provinces, of the European planter purchasing the wet fecula from the Ryot or native manufacturer, and completing the processes of curing and drying the drug. This is at present in a great measure discontinued; and the Oude indigo has, in consequence, considerably improved in quality. Its inferiority is probably more the result of soil and climate, than of any difference in the skill with which the manufacture is conducted.

In 1839-40, the produce of Bengal amounted to 1,333,808 lbs. Besides the exports from Madras, a small quantity is also exported from the French settlement of Pondicherry, of which, however, we have no detailed statement. In 1837, the export of indigo from Manilla amounted to about 250,000 lbs. avoirdupois; but it has not been nearly so great since; and we doubt whether the whole export from Guatemala and Central America exceeds at present 600,000 or 700,000 lbs. The export from Batavia in 1841 amounted to 913,593 lbs., and the production is rapidly increasing. According to the statement now given, the annual exports of Asiatic indigo are as follows:—Bengal, 9,000,000 lbs.; Madras, 1,334,000 lbs.; Manilla, 250,000 lbs.; Batavia, 950,000 lbs.; in all about 19,440,000 lbs.

According to M. Humboldt, the exportation of indigo from Guatemala, in 1828, amounted to 1,800,000 lbs. Indigo is also produced in some of the West India islands, but not in large quantities.

Good indigo is known by its lightness or small specific gravity, indicating the absence of earthy impurities; by the mass not readily parting with its colouring matter when tested by drawing a streak with it over a white surface; but above all, by the purity of the colour itself. The first quality, estimated by this last test, is called, in commercial language, *fine blue*; then *folly ordinary blue, fine purple, purple and violet, ordinary purple and violet, and blue inferior purple and violet, strong copper, and ordinary copper*. These distinctions refer to the Bengal indigo only, the Oude being distinguished only into *fine and ordinary*. The indigo of Madras, which is superior to that of Manilla, is about equal to ordinary Bengal indigo. The indigo of Java is superior to these.

We are indebted to Mr. Cook, than whom there can be no higher authority on such matters, for the following Table, which gives a very comprehensive view of the state of the crops of indigo in Bengal, and the imports, consumption, and prices of Bengal indigo, since 1811-12:—

Crops in Bengal.			Years.	Total Import from India into Great Britain	Total Deliveries for Export and Home Con.	Stock in Great Britain 31st of Dec.	Average Prices in London.													
Years.	Mounds.	Chests.					Chests.	Chests.	Yrs.	Fine Bengal.			Ord. Bengal.			Low Oude.				
							s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.					
1811-1812	70,000	=	19,500	1812	17,200	14,500	29,500	1812	8	0	10	6	4	0	5	3	3	0	2	3
1812-1813	78,000	=	22,000	1813	14,300	11,300	24,500	1813	10	0	14	0	6	3	8	3	4	6	6	0
1813-1814	74,500	=	21,300	1814	24,200	23,800	24,900	1814	10	0	14	0	6	3	8	3	4	6	6	0
1814-1815	102,500	=	27,000	1815	29,300	25,400	30,400	1815	8	0	11	0	5	0	7	0	3	0	4	6
1815-1816	115,000	=	29,000	1816	15,500	10,200	20,700	1816	6	0	10	0	3	9	5	6	2	8	3	3
1816-1817	87,000	=	23,500	1817	13,500	15,700	23,500	1817	7	0	10	0	5	6	7	6	4	0	6	0
1817-1818	72,800	=	19,000	1818	16,600	16,100	24,000	1818	8	0	9	0	6	0	8	0	5	0	6	0
1818-1819	68,000	=	17,000	1819	11,500	15,800	19,700	1819	7	0	9	0	5	0	6	0	3	3	4	3
1819-1820	72,000	=	19,000	1820	16,500	21,600	14,500	1820	7	0	9	0	5	6	6	6	3	3	4	6
1820-1821	107,000	=	25,000	1821	13,000	17,300	9,800	1821	7	0	9	0	5	6	7	0	4	0	5	0
1821-1822	72,400	=	19,500	1822	13,500	15,100	8,200	1822	11	0	12	0	6	8	6	10	3	4	9	0
1822-1823	90,000	=	24,000	1823	21,700	16,800	13,100	1823	9	0	11	0	5	9	8	6	3	6	4	6
1823-1824	113,000	=	28,000	1824	16,300	17,200	12,200	1824	12	0	13	0	8	0	10	6	8	0	6	3
1824-1825	79,000	=	22,000	1825	23,300	21,100	16,400	1825	18	0	16	0	8	8	6	10	6	4	3	5
1825-1826	144,000	=	41,000	1826	27,900	24,400	22,300	1826	8	0	9	0	6	4	6	7	0	2	3	9
1826-1827	90,000	=	25,000	1827	19,000	18,500	22,400	1827	11	0	13	0	6	7	0	9	6	3	0	4
1827-1828	149,000	=	42,000	1828	35,820	27,500	31,100	1828	8	0	10	0	5	3	7	2	2	0	2	9
1828-1829	98,000	=	26,000	1829	23,200	23,100	31,200	1829	7	0	8	0	8	3	9	0	6	6	3	0
1829-1830	141,000	=	40,000	1830	32,120	29,700	37,500	1830	6	0	7	0	6	3	3	4	6	2	0	3
1830-1831	116,000	=	33,000	1831	23,230	24,900	28,270	1831	6	0	6	0	6	3	4	4	3	0	2	6
1831-1832	122,000	=	35,000	1832	25,470	28,900	32,780	1832	5	0	6	0	6	3	3	4	4	2	3	2
1832-1833	122,000	=	35,000	1833	25,000	23,000	36,000	1833	7	0	7	0	5	0	6	0	3	0	4	0
1833-1834	93,000	=	26,800	1834	16,100	22,700	29,400	1834	7	0	7	0	5	8	3	6	3	3	4	3
1834-1835	106,000	=	30,000	1835	16,370	24,300	21,500	1835	6	0	7	0	3	4	0	8	3	21	13	9
1835-1836	110,000	=	31,000	1836	25,260	24,340	22,800	1836	7	0	8	0	3	0	0	6	3	3	4	0
1836-1837	110,000	=	31,000	1837	25,000	21,700	26,100	1837	8	0	8	0	5	0	6	0	9	3	6	6
1837-1838	112,500	=	32,000	1838	24,800	29,600	21,800	1838	0	0	8	0	5	6	3	7	6	4	0	5
1838-1839	89,500	=	24,700	1839	18,800	24,400	15,500	1839	9	0	9	0	5	9	7	0	3	1	4	6
1839-1840	119,900	=	32,100	1840	28,800	27,200	17,800	1840	9	0	9	0	5	0	6	0	3	2	6	3
1840-1841	121,700	=	33,600	1841	29,600	28,300	17,300	1841	0	0	7	0	6	3	3	4	6	3	2	2
1841-1842	162,000	=	44,700	1842	34,100	30,100	22,100	1842	7	0	8	0	6	5	0	8	3	6	4	3

Of 7,894,407 lbs. of indigo imported into Great Britain in 1841, 7,456,617 lbs. were from India, 104,190 lbs. from the British West Indies, 178,737 lbs. from Guatemala, 68,304 lbs. from Colombia, &c. Of the total quantity imported, 2,780,563 lbs. were retained for consumption.

Indigo of British possessions, not deemed their produce unless imported from thence. — (*Geo. A. c. 48.*) For further information as to indigo, see *Colebrooke's Husbandry of Bengal*, p. 184; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Wiltson's Commerce of Bengal*; *Wilson's Review of do.*; evidence of Gillian Macaluso, Esq., East India Committee, 1820-31, &c.

The fixed capital required in the manufacture of indigo consists of a few vats of common masonry for steeping the plant, and precipitating the colouring matter; a boiling and drying house; and a dwelling house for the planter. These, for a factory of 10 pair of vats, capable of producing, at an average, 12,000 lbs. of indigo, worth on the spot about 2,500*l.*, will not cost above 1,800*l.* sterling. The buildings and machinery necessary to produce an equal value in sugar and rum, would probably cost about 4,000*l.* This fact, therefore, without any reference to municipal regulations, affords a ready answer to the question which has been frequently put, why the British planters in India have seldom engaged in the manufacture of sugar.

INK (*Du. Inkh, Inkt, Fr. Encre; Ger. Dinte; It. Inchiastro; Lat. Atramentum; Rus. Tchernilo; Sp. Tinta; Sw. Blak.*)

Every liquor or pigment used for writing or printing is distinguished by the name of ink. Common practices know only black and red. Of black ink there are three principal kinds: 1. Indian ink; 2. Printers' ink; and 3. Writing ink. The Indian ink is used in China for writing with a brush, and for painting upon the soft flexible paper of Chinese manufacture. It is ascertained, as well from experiment as from information, that the cakes of this ink are made of lampblack and aise, or animal glue, with the addition of perfumes or other substances not essential to its quality as an ink. The fine soot from the flame of a lamp or candle received by holding a plate over it, mixed with clean aise from shreds of parchment or glove-leather not dyed, will make an ink equal to that imported. Good printers' ink is a black paint, smooth, and uniform in its composition, of a firm black colour, and possesses a singular aptitude to adhere to paper thoroughly impregnated with moisture.

Common ink for writing is made by adding an infusion or decoction of the nut-gall to sulphate of iron, dissolved in water. A very fine black precipitate is thrown down, the speedy subsidence of which is prevented by the addition of a proper quantity of gum Arabic. Lampblack is the common material to give the black colour, of which 2*l.* ounces are sufficient for 16 ounces of the varnish. Vermilion is a good red. They are ground together on a stone with a muller, in the same manner as oil-paints. Among the amusing experiments of the art of chemistry, the exhibition of sympathetic inks holds a distinguished place. With these the writing is invisible, until some reagent gives it opacity. These inks have been proposed as the instruments of secret correspondence. But they are of little use in this respect, because the properties change by a few days' remaining on the paper; most of them have more or less of a tinge when thoroughly dry; and none of them resist the test of heating the paper till it begins to be scorched. — (*Nicholson's Dictionary of Chemistry.*)

INKLE, a sort of broad linen tape, principally manufactured at Manchester and some other towns in Lancashire.

INSOLVENCY AND BANKRUPTCY. Insolvency is a term in mercantile law applied to designate the condition of all persons unable to pay their debts according to the ordinary usage of trade. A bankrupt is an insolvent; but persons may be in a state of insolvency without having committed any of the specific acts which bring them under the denomination of bankrupts.

We have, under the article BANKRUPTCY, explained the most important differences in the law as to insolvency and bankruptcy; and have also briefly stated in that article, and in the article CREDIT, some of the alterations which seem to be imperatively required to make these laws more in harmony, than they are at present, with the principles of justice, and more conducive to the interests of commerce and the public advantage. In the present article, therefore, we shall confine ourselves to a summary statement of the proceedings under the existing laws.

Under the bankrupt laws, the creditors have a compulsory authority to avail themselves of the entire possessions of the debtor; under the insolvent laws, the debtor himself may make a voluntary surrender of his property for the benefit of his creditors, or his creditors may, on his incarceration, secure his property. From this diversity in the initiative process results the greatest diversity in the ultimate operation of the bankrupt and insolvent acts. The proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy being instituted by the creditors, they lose all future power over the property and person of the debtor after he has obtained his certificate, except in some particular cases; but the proceedings under the Insolvent Act having been commenced, either by himself, as is generally the case, or by the creditors when the insolvent is in custody and enabled to take advantage of the insolvent laws, the insolvent's future property is liable at all times, his person alone being freed. There are exceptions even to the freedom of the insolvent's person from engagements contracted before his application for relief under the law. The modern law as applied to bankruptcy and insolvency has created no little confusion, and the distinction between the two systems seems objectionable, and should be the subject of legislation.

Until the passing of the act 5 & 6 Viet. c. 116., no one could claim the benefit of the laws passed for relief of insolvent debtors, unless he were at the time in gaol under execution. But by this act, where the debts of a party do not exceed 300*l.*, he may make a surrender of all his property, and claim protection against arrest; and this, whether he be a trader or not.

If a party owe a sum not exceeding 300*l.*, he may, on giving notice to one fourth in number and value of his creditors in the London Gazette, and in a local newspaper,

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petition the Court of Bankruptcy if he have resided 12 months in the London district, or the country commissioner in whose district he may have resided 12 months, for his protection against arrest. The petition must set forth all his debts and credits and property, and any proposal he may have to make for payment; and a protection may be given to his person and property until the party shall appear in court to be finally protected against any process against his person and goods. On the presentation of the petition the property vests in the official assignee of the court, the commissioner in rotation appoints a certain day to examine the party on oath, and if satisfied with the allegations of the petitioner, may make a final order for his protection; provided the debts were not contracted by fraud or breach of trust, or in any action for the breach of the revenue laws, or other causes mentioned in the act. The commissioner may postpone the examination and renew the protection, may order an allowance for the support of the party until the final order, and may punish him for false statements. On the final order, all the estate, present and future, vests in 2 assignees, one of whom is to be chosen by the creditors, the other being the official assignee. The judges and commissioners were empowered to make rules to carry the act into execution, and rules have accordingly been published containing full directions to any party seeking the benefit of the act.

We will now refer to the proceedings under the act for relief of insolvent debtors who are unable to claim the benefit of the act spoken of.

1. *Proceedings under the existing Insolvent Act.*—A special tribunal, called the "Court for Relief of Insolvent Debtors," exists for the purpose of receiving the surrender of property and effects for the benefit of the creditors of insolvents. It consists of a chief and two other commissioners, appointed by the Crown, and is a court of record, with powers similar to those of the superior courts at Westminster, but it cannot award costs, unless in particular cases. The court sits in Portugal-street, or elsewhere as the court may think fit; no fees are taken, except those established by the court. The commissioners also severally make circuits 3 times a year; and attend at the towns and places appointed for insolvents in the country to appear; their judicial powers in the provincial towns are the same as those exercised in the metropolis.

The first step is the insolvent's petition. Any person detained within the walls of any prison upon any process, may, within 14 days after the arrest, petition for discharge. The petition must state the particulars of the first arrest and cause of detainer, and the amount of debts; the prisoner must give notice of his intention to the gaoler, and state that he is willing to vest all his property in the assignee of the court, and pray to be discharged from all demands.

Under this act, any creditor may get the property of a party in custody vested in the provisional assignee by petition, although the prisoner may not himself have applied.

At the time of the petition either by the prisoner or creditor, the court may order all the prisoner's property (except wearing apparel, &c. to the value of 20*l.*) to be vested in the provisional assignee, until his final discharge; and the court may, before the final hearing, discharge the prisoner on bail. Until discharge, the court may order an allowance for the prisoner for his support out of his estate.

The filing of a petition is an act of bankruptcy if issued within 2 months, and the bankruptcy shall divest the property from the provisional assignee; but a bankruptcy is not to prevent the court proceeding under this act so as to get his future property, if the prisoner should under the bankruptcy obtain his certificate.

The voluntary preference of a creditor, by conveyance of money, goods, bills, or other property, after the imprisonment of the petitioner, or before his imprisonment being in insolvent circumstances, is void, provided it were not 3 months before the imprisonment or with a view to petition. No warrant of attorney or execution to be enforced against property after imprisonment.

2. *The Assignees.*—Any time after the filing of the petition, the court appoints assignees from among the creditors, to whom, on their acceptance of the appointment, an assignment is made of the effects of the prisoner. In case of any real estate, the same, within the space of 6 months, must be sold by public auction, in such manner and place as the major part in value of the creditors approve; but when any part of the property is so circumstanced that the immediate sale of it would be prejudicial to the interests of the prisoner, the court may direct the management of such property till it can be properly sold; and if the debts can be paid by mortgage in lieu of sale, the court may give directions for that purpose, and a dividend is to be declared as soon as may be.

Goods in possession and disposal of the insolvent, whereof he is reputed owner, are deemed his property; but this does not affect the assignment of any ship or vessel, duly registered according to the 6 Geo. 4. c. 110.

An account upon oath before an officer of the court, or justice of peace, must be made up by the assignees within every 3 months at the furthest; and in case of a balance in hand, a dividend must be forthwith made, of which dividend 30 days' previous notice must be given; and every creditor is allowed to share in the dividend, unless objected to by the prisoner, assignees, or other creditors, in which case the court decides.

The assignees may execute powers which the insolvent might have executed, as the granting of leases, taking lives, transferring public stock or annuities, but they cannot nominate to a vacant ecclesiastical benefice.

The assignees, with the consent of one commissioner, and the major part of the creditors in value, may compound for any debt due to the prisoner; or may submit differences connected with the estate of the insolvent to arbitration.

Dividends payable to creditors, unclaimed for 12 months, are to be paid into court to the credit of the estate of the insolvent: In default of payment of the dividends by the assignees, their goods may be distrained; or, if no distress, they may be imprisoned.

The assignees, in case the insolvent is a beneficed clergyman or curate, are not entitled to the income of the benefice or curacy; but they may obtain a sequestration of the profits for the benefit of creditors. Neither are the assignees entitled to the pay, half-pay, pension, or other emolument of any person who is or has been in the army, navy, or civil service of the government or East India Company; but the court may order, subject to the approval of the heads of public offices, a portion of such pay, half-pay, pension, or emoluments to be set aside towards the liquidation of the debts of the insolvent.

The court may inquire into the conduct of the assignees, on the complaint of the insolvent or any of his creditors; and, in case of malversation, award costs against them.

Assignees who willfully employ or retain any part of the proceeds of the insolvent's estate, may be charged with interest, at a rate not exceeding 20 *per cent.* per annum.

3. *Discharge of the Insolvent.*—After the vesting order, the prisoner is within 14 days to prepare a

schedule of all his estate, effects, and debts, with great particularity, and of his past expenditure, and deposit all his books and papers; the court then appoints a time for hearing, and notice of the vesting order is given to all creditors whose debts amount to 5*l*. At the time of the hearing the schedule is examined, and the commissioners examine the prisoner on oath; and any creditor, having given 3 days' notice of intention to do so, may oppose or examine the prisoner; the hearing may be adjourned; affidavits may be made against his discharge in certain cases; the schedules and accounts may be referred for an investigation to an examiner, who may examine on oath; and the expenses may be paid out of insolvent's estate; the prisoner may be at once discharged from custody, or where no cause to the contrary, in not less than 6 months from the filing the petition; but in case of improper dealing with his creditors, or other misdeeds mentioned in the act, he may be detained 3 or 2 years, or the discharge may be conditional on the prisoner performing some engagement. If creditors improperly oppose, the court may make them pay the prisoner's costs. The adjudication is final, unless improperly obtained. Before the prisoner's discharge, he must execute a warrant of attorney to enable creditors to take any future property, and the act contains provisions for enforcing the warrant of attorney at the discretion of the court; so that all his future property may be made available; or if the insolvent become entitled to property not seizable under an execution, the assignees may obtain the assistance of the court to realise it.

The discharge extends to sums payable by annuity; the annuitants being admitted as creditors to the estate of the insolvent, at a fair valuation of their interest.

But the discharge does not extend to any debts due to the Crown, nor for any offence against the revenue laws; nor at suit of any sheriff or other public officer, upon any bail-bond entered into for any person prosecuted for such offence; unless the Treasury certify consent to the discharge.

Insolvents under writ of *causam* or extent, must apply to the Barons of the Exchequer to be discharged. When the prisoner is not discharged, the court may, on application for that purpose, order the creditor at whose suit he is detained to pay any sum not exceeding 4*l*. weekly; and in default of payment, the prisoner to be liberated.

4. Future Liabilities of the Insolvents.—No person, after judgment entered up, is liable to imprisonment for any debt comprised in the schedule, unless the insolvent had entered into any covenant before the insolvency to pay any sum not then capable of valuation.

An insolvent, after his discharge, may, on the application of an assignee to the court, be again examined touching the effects set forth in the schedule; and if he refuse to appear or answer questions, he may be recommitted.

No uncertificated bankrupt, nor any person having had the benefit of the Insolvent Act, can have it a second time within *five years*, unless 3-4ths in number and value of the creditors consent thereto, or unless it appear to the court that the insolvent, since his bankruptcy or discharge, has done his utmost to pay all just demands; and that the debts subsequently incurred have been unavoidable, from inability otherwise to acquire subsistence for himself and family.

Married women are entitled to the benefit of the insolvent act, and may petition the court on executing a special assignment.

The act 1st & 2nd Victoria, prohibits any proceedings under what is called the Lord's Act, 23 G. 2. c. 28.

Statement of the Number of Petitions filed in the Court for Relief of Insolvent Debtors, and of Adjudications made by that Court, during each of the Seven Years ending with 1840.

Years.	Petitions filed.			Adjudications made.			
	From the Prisons in London, Aldersand, and Surrey.	From the other Prisons in England and Wales.	Total.	By the Court in London.	By Justices.	By Commissioners on Circuit.	Total.
1834	2,145	2,912	5,057	1,653	127	2,495	4,275
1835	1,919	2,705	4,624	1,613	49	2,438	3,800
1836	1,942	2,780	4,722	1,622	1	2,589	4,211
1837	2,127	2,978	5,105	1,648	-	2,601	4,247
1838	1,961	2,863	4,824	1,561	-	2,561	4,122
1839	1,613	2,031	3,644	1,397	-	1,686	3,083
1840	1,779	2,488	4,267	1,325	2	2,484	3,811

Our next object will be to present a brief exposition of the **BANKRUPT LAWS.**

BANKRUPTCY.—Blackstone defines a bankrupt—"A trader who secretes himself, or does certain other acts tending to defraud his creditors." But an intention to defraud is not now held to be essential to constitute a bankrupt; who may be either simply an insolvent, or a person who is guilty of certain acts tending to defraud his creditors.

There are, as already observed, some important distinctions between the bankrupt and insolvent laws, not only in their application to different descriptions of individuals, but also in the powers they exercise over the estates of persons subsequently to their being brought under their adjudication. The benefits of the Insolvent Act extend without distinction to every class of persons actually in prison for debt, and in cases before noticed of a debtor not owing 500*l*. to persons not in custody, whereas the benefits of the Bankrupt Act extend to traders only. But persons relieved under a commission of bankruptcy for the first time are for ever discharged from all debts proveable against them, that is to say, from all debts capable of being valued, (though repeated instances have occurred where settlements have been made, or covenants entered into, from the effect of which a bankrupt is not discharged,) and their property from any future liability; whereas, if relieved under the Insolvent Act, their persons only are protected from arrest, while any property they may subsequently acquire continues liable to their creditors till the whole amount of their debts be paid in full. It follows that the Insolvent Act affords, more immediately, personal relief only; while the Bankrupt Act discharges both person and property at once, and even returns the bankrupt a certain allowance out of the produce of his assets, proportioned to good behaviour, and the amount of his dividend.

Having already treated of insolvency, we now proceed to describe the proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy, as regulated by the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 16., 1 & 2

W. 4. c. 56., 2 & 3 W. 4. c. 114., 5 & 6 W. 4. c. 29., 6 & 7 W. 4. c. 27., 1 & 2 Vict. c. 110., 2 & 3 Vict. c. 29., and 5 & 6 Vict. c. 122.; which are the last general acts on the subject, and by which former statutes have been consolidated, and several important improvements introduced; leaving, however, untouched, many radical defects inherent in this branch of the law. The chief points to be considered, are—1. The persons who may become bankrupt; 2. Acts constituting bankruptcy; 3. Proceedings of petitioning creditor; 4. Courts of Bankruptcy; 5. Debts provable under the commission; 6. Official assignees; 7. Assignees chosen by creditors; 8. Property under bankruptcy; 9. Examination and liabilities of bankrupt; 10. Payment of a dividend; 11. Certificate and allowance to bankrupt.

1. *Who may become Bankrupt.*—Generally all persons in trade, capable of making binding contracts, whether natural-born subjects, aliens, or denizens, are within the jurisdiction of the bankruptcy laws; but the statute expressly includes, builders, bankers, brokers, packers, carpenters, scilicet, ship insurers, warehousemen, wharfingers, shipwrights, victuallers; keeper of inns, taverns, hotels, and coffee-houses, dyers, printers, bleachers, fullers, calenderers, cattle or sheep salesmen, factors, agents, livery stable keepers, coach proprietors, carriers, shipowners, auctioneers, apothecaries, market gardeners, cow-keepers, brickmakers, alum makers, lime burners, millers, and all persons who use the trade of merchandise by bargaining, bartering, commission, consignment, and otherwise, and also all persons who seek their living by buying and selling, letting for hire, or by the manufacturing of goods and commodities. Persons who cannot become bankrupt, are graziers, farmers, workmen for hire, labourers, receivers general of taxes, and subscribers to any commercial or trading company established by charter or act of parliament.

A clergyman, unless a trader, cannot be made a bankrupt; nor an attorney, in the common course of his profession; nor an infant, nor a lunatic, nor a married woman, except in those cases where she may be sued and taken in execution for her debts.—(8 T. R. 845.)

A single act of buying or selling is not sufficient to make a trader; as a schoolmaster selling books to his scholars only, or a keeper of hounds buying dead horses and selling the skin and bones.—(6 Moore, 36.) But the quantity of dealing is immaterial, where an intention to deal generally may be inferred.—(1 Rose, 84.) A buyer or seller of land, or any interest in land, is not a trader within the act; and on this principle it has been decided, that a brickmaker selling bricks made in his own field, or the owner of a mine selling minerals from his own quarry, is not liable, because such business is carried on only as a mode of enjoying the profits of a real estate.—(2 Wils. 169.)

Traders having privilege of parliament, are subject to the bankruptcy laws, and may be proceeded against as other traders; but such persons cannot be arrested or imprisoned, except in cases made felony by the statute.

2. *Acts constituting Bankruptcy.*—In general, any act which is intended to delay or defraud creditors, is an act of bankruptcy; such as a trader concealing himself from his creditors, leaving the country, causing himself to be arrested or his goods taken in execution, or making any fraudulent conveyance, gift, or delivery of his property. A trader keeping house commits an act of bankruptcy, if he give a general order to be denied. So in closing the door, and not admitting persons till ascertained who they are from window, though no actual denial.—(1 Bar. & Cres. 54.) But it is no act of bankruptcy if the denial be on Sunday, or at an unreasonable hour of the night, or to prevent interruption at dinner time.

Traders held in prison for any really subsisting debt for the period of 21 days, or who, being arrested, make their escape out of prison or custody, commit acts of bankruptcy. A penalty due to the Crown is a sufficient debt, and the time is computed from the first arrest, where the party lies in prison immediately, and the day of arrest is included, and the whole of the last day.

Filing a petition, in order to take the benefit of the Insolvent Act, is an act of bankruptcy, and a fiat may be issued any time before the petition is heard by the Insolvent Court, or within 2 calendar months.

A trader may make a declaration of his insolvency, signed and attested by an attorney or solicitor, and afterwards to be filed in the Bankrupt Office; and the secretary signing a memorandum thereof, is authority for advertising it in the *Gazette*. Upon this act of bankruptcy no commission can issue, if not within 2 calendar months after such advertisement, and unless such advertisement be within 8 days after filing declaration; and no docket can be struck till 4 days after advertisement, if the commission is to be executed in London, and 8 if in the country. Such declaration of insolvency being concerted between bankrupt and creditor, does not invalidate the commission. A party may subject himself to the bankruptcy laws, by refusing to pay, compound, or give security for a debt when summoned, as will be afterwards noticed.

The execution by a trader of any conveyance by deed, of all his estate and effects for the benefit of all his creditors, is not an act of bankruptcy, unless a commission be sued out within 6 months after, provided the deed be attested by an attorney or solicitor, and executed within 15 days after, and notice thereof within 2 months be given in the *Gazette*, and 2 daily newspapers; or, if the trader reside more than 80 miles from London, notice may be given in the *Gazette*, and nearest country newspaper.

3. *Proceedings of Petitioning Creditors.*—A person being a trader, and having committed an act of bankruptcy, the next step in the proceeding is to petition the Lord Chancellor to issue his fiat. No fiat is issued, unless the petitioning creditor's debt, if 1 person or 1 firm, amounts to 50*l.*, two creditors 75*l.*, and 3 or more creditors 100*l.*, and any person who has a security from a bankrupt for a sum not actually due, may, nevertheless, petition for a fiat. The petitioning creditor must make an affidavit before a Master in Chancery, of the truth of his debt, and give bond, if required by the Lord Chancellor, to prove his debt, the trading, and act of bankruptcy.

If a trader have committed no act of bankruptcy, a creditor may summon him before a commissioner in the manner pointed out by the act of 5 & 6 Victoria, cap 122., and compel him to admit the debt and pay or give security to defend an action, or in case of refusal the creditor may treat him as a bankrupt, and make this refusal a ground for a fiat; or if the trader sign an admission of the debt, and shall not within 14 days pay or give security, the same proceeding may be taken; or if a party disobey any order of any court of law or equity in bankruptcy or lunacy for payment of money, the refusal may be made the ground for a fiat. If the debt prove insufficient to support a fiat, the Lord Chancellor, upon the application of another creditor who has proved a sufficient debt, contracted posterior to that of the petitioning creditor, may order the bankruptcy to be proceeded in.

The petitioning creditor proceeds at his own cost until the choice of assignees, when his expenses are paid out of the first money received under the bankruptcy.

Creditors entitled to sue out a fiat against all the partners in a firm, may elect to petition only against 1 or more of such partners; and the commission may be superseded as to 1 or more partners, without affecting its validity as to the other partners.

Creditors who have sued out a fiat compounding with the bankrupt, or receiving more in the pound than other creditors, forfeit the whole of their debt, and whatever gratuity they received, for the benefit of the other creditors, and the Lord Chancellor may either order the commission to be proceeded in or superseded.

4. *Courts of Bankruptcy.*—The courts of bankruptcy now consist of a Court of Review in London, consisting of one judge only, who combines the duties of a vice-chancellor in equity and a judge in bankruptcy. The Court of Review controls all the proceedings of minor courts, and adjudicates on all matters of bankruptcy. There is a court in London consisting of 5 commissioners, where the practical business of bankruptcy is performed; these commissioners conduct all the judicial business, and control all the operations of the bankruptcy from the time of the opening of the winding up of the estate. Their district embraces London and the eastern and southern parts of England. There are 7 other commissioners having courts at Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Bristol, Exeter, and Newcastle upon Tyne, and these districts comprehend within the jurisdiction of the commissioners the greater part of the northern and western parts of England. The commissioners have official assignees and registrars attached to each district court.

Let us now proceed with the powers and duties of the commissioners.

Commissioners are empowered to summon persons, examine them on oath, and call for any deeds or documents, necessary to establish the trading and act of bankruptcy; and upon full proof thereof, to adjudge the debtor a bankrupt. Notice of such adjudication must be given in the *Gazette*, and 3 public meetings appointed for the bankrupt to surrender; the last of which meetings to be the 42d day after. A bankrupt refusing to attend at the appointed time may be apprehended; and on refusing to answer any question touching his business or property, may be committed to prison.

By warrant of the commissioners, persons may break open any house, premises, door, chest, or trunk of any bankrupt, and seize on his body or property; and if the bankrupt be in prison or custody, they may seize any property (necessaries wearing apparel excepted) in the possession of such bankrupt, or any other person. Authorised by a justice's warrant, premises may be searched for property not belonging to the bankrupt, on suspicion of property being concealed there; and persons suspected to have any of the bankrupt's property in their possession, refusing to obey the summons of commissioners, or refusing to answer interrogatories, or to surrender documents, without lawful excuse, may be imprisoned. The wife of the bankrupt may be examined, or, on refusal, committed, and the person against whom a fiat is issued on proof of probable cause, for believing that he is about to leave England, may be arrested.

Persons summoned are entitled to their expenses; and those attending, whether summoned or not, to assist the commissioners in their inquiries, are protected from arrest on any civil suit.

5. *Debts provable under Commission.*—At the 3 meetings appointed by the commissioners, and at every other meeting appointed by them for proof of debts, every creditor may prove his debt by affidavit or by his own oath; incorporated bodies by an agent authorised for the purpose; and one partner may prove on behalf of the firm. Persons living at a distance may prove by affidavit before a Master in Chancery, or if resident abroad, before a magistrate where residing, attested by a public notary, or British minister or consul.

Clerks and servants, to whom the bankrupt is indebted for wages, are entitled to be paid 3 months' wages, and not exceeding 20*l.*, and for the residue they may prove under the commission.

Indentures of apprenticeship are discharged by bankruptcy; but in case a premium has been received, the commissioners may direct a portion of it to be repaid for the use of the apprentice, proportioned to the term of apprenticeship unexpired.

Debts upon bill, bond, note, or other negotiable security, or where credit has been given upon valuable consideration, though not due at the time the act of bankruptcy was committed, are provable under the commission. Sureties, persons liable for the debts of, or bail for the bankrupt, may prove after having paid such debts, if they have contracted the liability without notice of any act of bankruptcy. Obligee in bottomry or respondentia bonds, and assured in policy of insurance, are admitted to claim; and after loss, to prove as if the loss or contingency had happened before commission had issued against the obligor or insurer. Annuity creditors may prove for the value of their annuities, regard being had to the original cost of such annuities. Persons having securities may have them valued, and prove for the difference. Plaintiffs in any action, having obtained judgment against the bankrupt, may prove for their costs.

When there are mutual debts between the bankrupt and a creditor, they may be set off against each other, and the balance, if in favour of the creditor, is provable against the bankrupt's estate. Interest may be proved on all bills of exchange and promissory notes over-due at the time of issuing commission, up to the date of the exchange.

Proving a debt under the commission bars the right to proceed against the bankrupt by action; and in case the bankrupt be in prison at the suit of a creditor, he cannot prove his debt without first discharging the bankrupt from confinement; but the creditor is not liable for the costs of the action so relinquished by him.

No debt barred by the statute of limitations is provable under the commission.

6. *Official Assignees.*—An important alteration introduced by Lord Brougham's act, particularly to commercial men, is the appointment of official assignees. They are 12 in number, merchants and traders, resident in the metropolis or vicinity, and there are 4 in each country district except at Exeter, where there are only 2, and at Newcastle upon Tyne 1, and are selected by the Lord Chancellor. They are to act with the assignees chosen by the creditors. All the real and personal estates of the bankrupt, all the monies, stock in the public funds, securities and proceeds of sale, are transferred and vested in the official assignee, subject to the rules, orders, and direction of the Lord Chancellor, or a member of the Court of Bankruptcy. The official assignee gives security for the trust reposed in him; and is required to deposit all monies, securities, &c. in the Bank of England.

The official assignee is neither remunerated by a percentage nor a fixed salary, but a sum is paid to him for his trouble, at the discretion of the commissioners, and proportioned to the estates of the bankrupt and the duties discharged.

7. *Appointment of Assignees by Creditors.*—The official assignee is empowered to act as the sole assignee of the bankrupt's estates and effects until others are chosen by creditors, which must be at the 3d meetings. Every creditor to the amount of 10*l.* who has proved his debt, is eligible to vote; persons may be authorised by letters of attorney to vote, and the choice is made by the major part in value of the creditors; but the commissioners may reject any person they deem unfit; upon which a new choice must be made.

When only 1 or more partners of a firm are bankrupt, a creditor to the whole firm is entitled to vote, and to assent to or dissent from the certificate; but such creditor, unless a petitioning creditor, cannot receive any dividend out of the separate estate, until all the other creditors are paid in full.

Assignees may, with consent of creditors declared at any meeting duly summoned, compound or submit disputes to arbitration, and such reference be made a rule of the Court of Bankruptcy, or they may, with such consent of the creditors, commence suits in equity; but if 1-3d in value of creditors do not attend such meeting, the same powers are granted to assignees, with the consent, in writing, of commissioners.

Assignees to keep a book of account, where shall be entered a statement of all receipts and payments relating to bankrupt's estate, and which may be inspected by any creditor who has proved, and 14 days before any dividend shall be declared, the official assignee shall furnish a debtor and creditor account to the official assignee. Commissioners may summon assignees, with their books and papers, before them; and if they refuse to attend, may cause them to be committed till they obey the summons, and the official assignees may be removed at any time by the Lord Chancellor.

An assignee retaining or employing the money of the bankrupt, to the amount of 100*l.* or upwards, for his own advantage, may be charged 20*l.* per cent. interest.

The court is authorised, at the sitting for the last examination, or whenever after it shall think fit, to audit the assignee's accounts, of which audit 21 days' notice must be given in the *Gazette*; which accounts must be delivered on oath, and the commissioners may examine the assignee touching the truth thereof.

8. *Property under Bankruptcy.*—The official assignee is vested with all the real and personal estate of the bankrupt, and with all such property as may be devised to him, or come into his possession, till the time he obtain his certificate. The commissioners may sell any real property of which the bankrupt is seized, or any estate tail in possession, reversion, or remainder; and the sale is good against the bankrupt, the issue of his body, and against all persons claiming under him after he became bankrupt, or whom he can cut off from any future interest. All property which the bankrupt has in right of his wife passes to the assignee, except such as is settled for her own sole benefit. Any property pledged, or securities deposited, may be redeemed for the benefit of the creditors.

If a bankrupt, being at the time insolvent, convey his land or goods to his children or others (except upon their marriage, or for a valuable consideration), or deliver securities, or transfer debts into other names, such transactions are void, but this does not extend to a *bona fide* sale or conveyance; a purchaser is there protected in a transaction with the bankrupt, if he have no notice of an act of bankruptcy.

A landlord after or out of bankruptcy cannot distrain for more than *one year's rent*; but he may prove under the commission for the residue.

The assignee may accept any lease to which the bankrupt is entitled, and his acceptance exonerates the bankrupt from all future liability for rent; or if the assignee decline the lease, and the bankrupt, within 14 days after, deliver the lease to the lessor, he is not liable for rent.

In general, all power which the bankrupt might lawfully execute in the sale and disposition of his property for the benefit of himself, may be executed by the assignee for the benefit of creditors, and the assignee are entitled to all or nearly all the benefits which the bankrupt could have; even a contract to employ a party has been held in pass to his assignee.

The circumstance of a commission appearing in the *Gazette*, and a fair presumption that the person to be affected thereby may have seen the same, is deemed sufficient legal notice of an act of bankruptcy having been committed.

9. *Examination and Liabilities of Bankrupts.*—A bankrupt having, after an act of bankruptcy or in contemplation of bankruptcy, obtained goods on credit, false pretences, is guilty of a misdemeanor, and a bankrupt not surrendering to the commissioners before 3 o'clock upon notice, or not making discovery of his estate and effects, not delivering up goods, books, papers, &c., or removing or embezzling to the value of 10*l.*, is guilty of *felony*, and liable to a discretionary punishment from imprisonment to transportation for life. The period for surrendering may be enlarged by the Lord Chancellor; and the commissioners, or assignee with approval of commissioners, may grant an allowance for support of the bankrupt and his family till he has passed his last examination. If his attendance on commissioners, the bankrupt is protected from arrest.

The bankrupt is required to deliver up his books of account to the assignees upon oath, and to attend them on reasonable notice; he may inspect his accounts, assisted by other persons, in presence of assignees. After certificate is allowed, he is required to attend assignees, in settling accounts, at 5*s.* per day; and may be committed for non-attendance.

A penalty of 100*l.* is imposed on persons concealing bankrupt's effects, and double the value of the property so concealed; and an allowance of 5*s.* per cent. to persons discovering such concealment, with such further reward as the major part of the creditors may think fit to grant.

The bankrupt, or any other person, wilfully swearing falsely, is liable to the penalties of perjury.

If the bankrupt shall not, if in the U. Kingdom at the time of adjudication, within 21 days after advertisement in the *Gazette*, or within 3 months after advertisement if in any other part of Europe at the date of the adjudication, or if elsewhere at this date, within 12 months after advertisement, dispute the fiat, the fiat is to be conclusive.

At any meeting of creditors, after the last examination, the bankrupt or his friends may tender a composition, which, if accepted by 9-10ths in number and value of the creditors, at 2 separate meetings, the Lord Chancellor may supersede the commission. In deciding on such offer, creditors under 20*l.* are not entitled to vote; but their debts are computed in value. Persons residing out of England may vote by letter of attorney, properly attested; and the bankrupt may be required to make oath that no unfair means have been employed to obtain the assent of any creditor to such arrangement.

10. *Payment of a Dividend.*—The court, acting in the prosecution of any fiat, may declare a dividend at any time after the time for the last examination of the bankrupt, but 21 days' notice of the meeting to declare it must be regularly advertised; at which meeting, creditors who have not proved may prove their debts; and at such meeting commissioners may order the net produce of bankrupt's estate to be shared among the creditors that have proved, in proportion to their debts; but no dividend to be declared unless the accounts of the assignees have been first audited and delivered in as before described.

If the estate is not wholly divided upon a first dividend, a second meeting must be called, not later than 18 months from the date of commission; and the dividend declared at such second meeting to be final, unless some suit at law be pending, or some part of bankrupt's property afterwards accrue to the assignee; in which case it must be shared among the creditors within 3 months after it is converted into money; but this may be controlled by the court.

Assignees having unclaimed dividends to the amount of 20*l.*, who do not within 3 calendar months from the expiration of a year from the order of payment of such dividends, either pay them to the creditors entitled thereto, or cause a certificate thereof to be filed in the Bankrupt Office, with the names, &c. of the parties to whom due, shall be charged with legal interest from the time the certificate ought to have been filed, and such further sum, not exceeding 20*s.* per cent. per annum, as the commissioners think fit. The Lord Chancellor may order the investment of unclaimed dividends in the funds; and the unclaimed dividends now are resorted to for the payment of salaries and expenses of the court. Any creditor claiming dividend during the application for publication, but unless the dividend be considerable, the expense of the application is too great to render the attempt to obtain it prudent.

No action can be brought against assignees for any dividend; the remedy being by petition to the Lord Chancellor.

11. *Certificate and Allowance to Bankrupt.*—The bankrupt who has surrendered, and conformed in all things to the provisions of the bankrupt laws, is discharged by the certificate from all debts and demands provable under the commission; but this does not discharge his partner, or one jointly bound, or in joint contract with him, nor does it debar a debt due to the Crown.

The creditors now do not sign the bankrupt's certificate; the mode of obtaining it is for the bankrupt to apply to the court acting in the fiat, to appoint a sitting for the allowance of the certificate, of which 21 days' notice shall be advertised in the *Gazette*, and at this sitting the creditors may be heard against the allowance; and the court, having regard to the conduct of the bankrupt before and after the bankruptcy, may either allow, or refuse, or suspend the allowance of the certificate. The allowance is to be of no force, if the court under hand and seal don't certify to the Court of Review that the bankrupt has conformed to the law, and made a full discovery of his estate and effects, and that there appears no reason to doubt the truth of such discovery, and unless the bankrupt swear that the certificate was obtained fairly, and unless the allowance be confirmed by the Court of Review.

A bankrupt, after obtaining his certificate, cannot be arrested for any debt provable under the com-

mission; nor is he liable to satisfy any debt from which he is discharged, upon any promise, contract, or agreement, unless made in writing.

In case a person has been bankrupt before, or compounded with his creditors, or taken benefit of Insolvent Act, unless the estate produced 10s. in the pound, the certificate only protects the person of bankrupt from arrest; and any future property he acquires may be seized by assignees for benefit of creditors.

If the produce of bankrupt's estate does not amount to 10s. in the pound, he is only allowed out of the assets, so much as assignees think fit, not exceeding 3 per cent., or 300l. in the whole; if it produces 10s., 5 per cent., not exceeding 600l.; if 12s. 6d. is paid in the pound, 7 per cent., not exceeding 800l.; if 15s. in the pound and upwards, 10 per cent., and not exceeding 600l. One partner may receive his allowance, if entitled, from the joint and his separate estate, though the others are not entitled.

A bankrupt is not entitled to certificate or allowance, if he has lost by gaming or wagering, in 1 day, 20s., or within 1 year next preceding his bankruptcy, 300l.; or 200l. by stock-jobbing in the same period; or, in contemplation of bankruptcy, has destroyed or falsified his books, or concealed his property; or, if any person having proved a false debt under the commission, such bankrupt being privy thereto, or afterwards knowing the same, has not disclosed it to his assignees within 1 month after such knowledge.

Lastly, upon request by the bankrupt, the official assignee is required to declare to him how he has disposed of his property, and account to him for the surplus, if any; but before any surplus can be admitted, interest must be paid, first, on all debts proved that carry interest, at the rate payable thereon; and next, upon all other debts at the rate of 4l. per cent., to be calculated from the date of the commission.

Account of the Number and Description of Persons who became Bankrupt, in England and Wales, between the 1st of November, 1841, and the 1st of November, 1842.

Apothecaries, 3.	Confectioners, 3.	Junkeers, 45.	Ship brokers, 8.
Army agents, 1.	Coppersmiths, 1.	Iron and steel merchants, 5.	Ship owners, 2.
Auctioneers, 4.	Corn merchants, 39.	Ironmongers, 19.	Shipwrights, 11.
Bakers, 7.	Cotton dealers and manufacturers, 36.	Jewellers, 4.	Silk manufacturers and dealers, 14.
Banks, 18.	Carriers, 5.	Leather sellers, 5.	Sisters, 3.
Bill brokers, 4.	Carpenters, 5.	Line merchants, 4.	Soap boilers, 2.
Blacksmiths, 3.	Butchers, 5.	Linen drapers, 34.	Solicitors, 1.
Bookbinders, 3.	Dealers, 41.	Livery stable keepers, 5.	Stationers, 10.
Booksellers, 15.	Drapers, 47.	Making-house keepers, 3.	Stock brokers, 2.
Boot and shoe makers, 12.	Drysalers, 2.	Malsters, 17.	Stone masons, 3.
Bread bakers, 1.	Dyers, 5.	Mercers, 20.	Stone merchants, 3.
Brewers, 41.	Earthenware manufacturers, 5.	Merchants, 66.	Sugar manufacturer, 1.
Brick makers, 7.	Engineers, 11.	Millers, 20.	Surgons, 2.
Brush makers, 3.	Farriers, 3.	Milliners, 5.	Tailors, 25.
Builders, 47.	Farmers, 11.	Money scrievers, 15.	Tallow chandlers, 5.
Butchers, 5.	Fish merchant, 1.	Musical instrument makers, 3.	Tanners, 2.
Canvas manufacturer, 1.	Fishmongers and salesmen, 6.	Oil cloth manufacturers, 1.	Tobacco manufacturers, 2.
Carpenters, &c., 33.	Flax spinners, 2.	Opticians, 1.	Toy manufacturers, 4.
Carters, 1.	Flour dealers, 3.	Painters and glaziers, &c., 10.	Upholsters, 18.
Cashiers, 1.	Furriers, 2.	Paper manufacturers, 7.	Victuallers, 41.
Cattle dealers, 8.	Gas manufacturer, 1.	Paper stationers, 1.	Vinegar manufacturer, 1.
Chain manufacturers, 1.	Glass merchants, 6.	Pawnbrokers, 3.	Warehouse men, 11.
Cheese mongers, 4.	Glove maker, 1.	Picture dealers, 5.	Watchmakers, 4.
Chemists and druggists, 23.	Grocers, 67.	Printers, 9.	Wharfingers, 5.
China and glass dealers, 2.	Hat makers, 17.	Road contractors, 1.	Wheelwrights, 3.
Cider merchant, 1.	Hatters, 13.	Shoe makers, 4.	Wine and spirit merchants, 47.
Clothiers, 13.	Hop merchant, 1.	Sail makers, 2.	Wire workers, 2.
Coach makers, 5.	Horse dealers, 5.	Salt merchants, 3.	Woolen manufacturers and dealers, 50.
Coach hire smith, 1.	Holders, 7.	Schoolmistress, 1.	Wool merchants, 11.
Coal merchants and dealers, 24.	India rubber manufacturer, 1.		Various 41.
Commission agents, 31.			

Total bankrupts in England and Wales, 1873.

INSURANCE, a contract of indemnity, by which one party engages, for a stipulated sum, to insure another against a risk to which he is exposed. The party who takes upon him the risk, is called the *Insurer, Assurer, or Underwriter*; and the party protected by the insurance is called the *Insured, or Assured*; the sum paid is called the *Premium*; and the instrument containing the contract is called the *Policy*.

- I. INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).
- II. INSURANCE (MARINE).
- III. INSURANCE (FIRE).
- IV. INSURANCE (LIFE).

I. INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF).

It is the duty of government to assist, by every means in its power, the efforts of individuals to protect their property. Losses do not always arise from accidental circumstances, but are frequently occasioned by the crimes and misconduct of individuals; and there are no means so effectual for their prevention, when they arise from this source, as the establishment of a vigilant system of police, and of such an administration of the law as may be calculated to afford those who are injured a ready and cheap method of obtaining every practicable redress; and, as far as possible, of insuring the punishment of culprits. But, in despite of all that may be done by government, and of the utmost vigilance on the part of individuals, property must always be exposed to a variety of casualties from fire, shipwreck, and other unforeseen disasters. And hence the importance of inquiring how such unavoidable losses, when they do occur, may be rendered least injurious.

The loss of a ship, or the conflagration of a cotton mill, is a calamity that would press heavily even on the richest individual. But were it distributed among several individuals, each would feel it proportionally less; and provided the number of those among

whom it was distributed were very considerable, it would hardly occasion any sensible inconvenience to any one in particular. Hence the advantage of combining to lessen the injury arising from the accidental destruction of property; and it is the diffusion of the risk of loss over a wide surface, and its valuation, that forms the employment of those engaged in insurance.

Though it be impossible to trace the circumstances which occasion those events that are, on that account, termed accidental, they are, notwithstanding, found to obey certain laws. The number of births, marriages, and deaths; the proportions of male to female, and of legitimate to illegitimate births; the ships cast away; the houses burned; and a vast variety of other apparently accidental events; are yet, when our experience embraces a sufficiently wide field, found to be nearly equal in equal periods of time; and it is easy, from observations made upon them, to estimate the sum which an individual should pay, either to guarantee his property from risk, or to secure a certain sum for his heirs at his death.

It must, however, be carefully observed, that no confidence can be placed in such estimates, unless they are deduced from a very wide induction. Suppose, for example, it happens that during the present year one house is accidentally burned, in a town containing 1,000 houses; this would afford very little ground for presuming that the average probability of fire in that town was 1 to 1,000. For it might be found that not a single house had been burned during the previous 10 years, or that 10 were burned during each of these years. But supposing it were ascertained, that, at an average of 10 years, 1 house had been annually burned, the presumption that 1 to 1,000 was the real ratio of the probability of fire would be very much strengthened; and if it were found to obtain for 20 or 30 years together, it might be held, for all practical purposes at least, as indicating the precise degree of probability.

Besides its being necessary, in order to obtain the true measure of the probability of any event, that the series of events, of which it is one, should be observed for a rather lengthened period, it is necessary also that the events should be numerous, or of pretty frequent occurrence. Suppose it were found, by observing the births and deaths of 1,000,000 individuals taken indiscriminately from among the whole population, that the mean duration of human life was 40 years; we should have but very slender grounds for concluding that this ratio would hold in the case of the next 10, 20, or 50 individuals that are born. Such a number is so small as hardly to admit of the operation of what is called the law of average. When a large number of lives is taken, those that exceed the medium term are balanced by those that fall short of it; but when the number is small, there is comparatively little room for the principle of compensation, and the result cannot, therefore, be depended upon.

It is found, by the experience of all countries in which censuses of the population have been taken with considerable accuracy, that the number of male children born is to that of female children in the proportion nearly of 22 to 21. But unless the observations be made on a very large scale, this result will not be obtained. If we look at particular families, they sometimes consist wholly of boys, and sometimes wholly of girls; and it is not possible that the boys can be to the girls of a single family in the ratio of 22 to 21. But when, instead of confining our observations to particular families, or even parishes, we extend them so as to embrace a population of 500,000, these discrepancies disappear, and we find that there is invariably a small excess in the number of males born over the females.

The false inferences that have been drawn from the doctrine of chances, have uniformly, almost, proceeded from generalising too rapidly, or from deducing a rate of probability from such a number of instances as do not give a fair average. But when the instances on which we found our conclusions are sufficiently numerous, it is seen that the most anomalous events, such as suicides, deaths by accidents, the number of letters put into the post-office without any address, &c., form pretty regular series, and consequently admit of being estimated *a priori*.

The business of insurance is founded upon the principles thus briefly stated. Suppose it has been remarked that of forty ships, of the ordinary degree of sea-worthiness, employed in a given trade, 1 is annually cast away, the probability of loss will plainly be equal to one fortieth. And if an individual wish to insure a ship, or the cargo on board a ship, engaged in this trade, he ought to pay a premium equal to the 1-40th part of the sum he insures, exclusive of such an additional sum as may be required to indemnify the insurer for his trouble, and to leave him a fair profit. If the premium exceed this sum, the insurer is overpaid; and if it fall below it, he is underpaid.

Insurances are effected sometimes by societies, and sometimes by individuals, the risk being in either case diffused amongst a number of persons. Companies formed for carrying on the business have generally a large subscribed capital, or such a number of proprietors as enables them to raise, without difficulty, whatever sums may at any time be required to make good losses. Societies of this sort do not limit their risks to small

sums; that is, they do not often refuse to insure a large sum upon a ship, a house, a life, &c. The magnitude of their capitals affords them the means of easily defraying a heavy loss; and their premiums being proportioned to their risks, their profit is, at an average, independent of such contingencies.

Individuals, it is plain, could not act in this way, unless they were possessed of very large capitals; and besides, the taking of large risks would render the business so hazardous, that few would be disposed to engage in it. Instead, therefore, of insuring a large sum, as 20,000*l.*, upon a single ship, a private underwriter or insurer may not, probably, in ordinary cases, take a greater risk than 20*o.* or 500*o.*; so that, though his engagements may, when added together, amount to 20,000*l.*, they will be diffused over from 40 to 100 ships; and supposing 1 or 2 ships to be lost, the loss would not impair his capital, and would only lessen his profits. Hence it is, that while one transaction only may be required in getting a ship insured by a company, 10 or 20 separate transactions may be required in getting the same thing done at Lloyd's, or by private individuals. When conducted in this cautious manner, the business of insurance is as safe a line of speculation as any in which individuals can engage.

To establish a policy of insurance on a fair foundation, or in such a way that the premiums paid by the insured shall exactly balance the risks incurred by the insurers, and the various necessary expenses to which they are put, including, of course, their profit, it is necessary, as previously remarked, that the experience of the risks should be pretty extensive. It is not, however, at all necessary, that either party should inquire into the circumstances that lead to those events that are most commonly made the subject of insurance. Such a research would, indeed, be entirely fruitless; we are, and must necessarily continue to be, wholly ignorant of the causes of their occurrence.

It appears, from the accounts given by Mr. Scoresby, in his valuable work on the Arctic Regions, that of 586 ships which sailed from the various ports of Great Britain for the northern whale fishery, during the 4 years ending with 1817, 8 were lost — (vol. ii. p. 131.), — being at the rate of about 1 ship out of every 73 of those employed. Now, supposing this to be about the average loss, it follows that the premium required to insure against it should be 1*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* per cent., exclusive, as already observed, of the expenses and profits of the insurer. Both the insurer and the insured would gain by entering into a transaction founded on this fair principle. When the operations of the insurer are extensive, and his risks spread over a considerable number of ships, his profit does not depend upon chance, but is as steady, and may be as fairly calculated upon, as that of a manufacturer or a merchant; while, on the other hand, the individuals who have insured their property have exempted it from any chance of loss, and placed it, as it were, in a state of absolute security.

It is easy, from the brief statement now made, to perceive the immense advantage resulting to navigation and commerce from the practice of marine insurance. Without the aid that it affords, comparatively few individuals would be found disposed to expose their property to the risk of long and hazardous voyages; but by its means insecurity is changed for security, and the capital of the merchant, whose ships are dispersed over every sea, and exposed to all the perils of the ocean, is as secure as that of the agriculturist. He can combine his measures and arrange his plans as if they could no longer be affected by accident. The chances of shipwreck, or of loss by unforeseen occurrences, enter not into his calculations. He has purchased an exemption from the effects of such casualties; and applies himself to the prosecution of his business with that confidence and energy which nothing but a feeling of security can inspire. "*Les chances de la navigation entravaient le commerce. Le système des assurances a paru; il a consulté les saisons; il a porté ses regards sur la mer; il a interrogé ce terrible élément; il en a jugé l'inconstance; il en a pressenti les orages; il a épié la politique; il a reconnu les ports et les côtes des deux mondes; il a tout soumis à des calculs savans, à des théories approximatives; et il a dit au commerçant habile, au navigateur intrépide: certes, il y a des désastres sur lesquels l'humanité ne peut que gémir; mais quant à votre fortune, allez, franchissez les mers, déployez votre activité et votre industrie; je me charge de vos risques. Alors, Messieurs, s'il est permis de le dire, les quatre parties du monde se sont rapprochées.*" — (*Code de Commerce, Exposé des Motifs*, liv. ii.)

Besides insuring against the perils of the sea, and losses arising from accidents caused by the operation of natural causes, it is common to insure against enemies, pirates, thieves, and even the fraud, or, as it is technically termed, *barratry*, of the master. The risk arising from these sources of casualty being extremely fluctuating and various, it is not easy to estimate it with any considerable degree of accuracy; and nothing more than a rough average can, in most cases, be looked for. In time of war, the fluctuations in the rates of insurance are particularly great: and the intelligence that an enemy's squadron, or even a single privateer, is cruising in the course which the ships bound to, or returning from any given port usually follow, causes an instantaneous rise in the premium. The appointment of convoys for the protection of trade during war, necessarily tends, by

lessening the chances of capture, to lessen the premium on insurance. Still, however, the risk in such periods is, in most cases, very considerable; and as it is liable to change very suddenly, great caution is required on the part of the underwriters.

Provision may also be made, by means of insurance, against loss by fire, and almost all the casualties to which property on land is subject.

But, notwithstanding what has now been stated, it must be admitted, that the advantages derived from the practice of insuring against losses by sea and land are not altogether unmixed with evil. The security which it affords tends to relax that vigilant attention to the protection of property which the fear of its loss is sure otherwise to excite. This, however, is not its worst effect. The records of our courts, and the experience of all who are largely engaged in the business of insurance, too clearly prove that ships have been repeatedly sunk, and houses burned, in order to defraud the insurers. In despite, however, of the temptation to inattention and fraud which is thus afforded, there can be no doubt that, on the whole, the practice is, in a public as well as private point of view, decidedly beneficial. The frauds that are occasionally committed raise, in some degree, the rate of insurance. Still it is exceedingly moderate; and it is most probable, that the precautions adopted by the insurance offices for the prevention of fire, especially in great towns, where it is most destructive, outweigh the chances of increased conflagration arising from the greater tendency to carelessness and crime.

The business of life insurance has been carried to a far greater extent in Great Britain than in any other country, and has been productive of the most beneficial effects. Life insurances are of various kinds. Individuals without any very near connections, and possessing only a limited fortune, are sometimes desirous, or are sometimes, from the necessity of their situation, obliged, annually to encroach on their capitals. But should the life of such persons be extended beyond the ordinary term of existence, they might be totally unprovided for in old age; and to secure themselves against this contingency, they pay to an insurance company the whole or a part of their capital, on condition of its guaranteeing them, as long as they live, a certain annuity, proportioned partly, of course, to the amount of the sum paid, and partly to their age when they buy the annuity.

But though sometimes serviceable to individuals, it may be questioned whether insurances of this sort are, in a public point of view, really advantageous. So far as their influence extends, its obvious tendency is to weaken the principle of accumulation; to stimulate individuals to consume their capitals during their own life, without thinking or caring about the interest of their successors. Were such a practice to become general, it would be productive of the most extensively ruinous consequences. The interest which most men take in the welfare of their families and friends affords, indeed, a pretty strong security against its becoming injuriously prevalent. There can, however, be little doubt that this selfish practice may be strengthened by adventitious means; such, for example, as the opening of government loans in the shape of life annuities, or in the still more objectionable form of tontines. But when no extrinsic stimulus of this sort is given to it, there do not seem to be any very good grounds for thinking that the sale of annuities by private individuals or associations can materially weaken the principle of accumulation.

Luckily, however, the species of insurance now referred to is but inconsiderable compared with that which has accumulation for its object. All professional persons, or those living on salaries or wages, such as lawyers, physicians, military and naval officers, clerks in public or private offices, &c., whose incomes must, of course, terminate with their lives, and a host of others, who are either not possessed of capital, or cannot dispose of their capital at pleasure, must naturally be desirous of providing, so far as they may be able, for the comfortable subsistence of their families in the event of their death. Take, for example, a physician or lawyer, without fortune, but making, perhaps, 1,000*l.* or 2,000*l.* a year by his business; and suppose that he marries and has a family: if this individual attain to the average duration of human life, he may accumulate such a fortune as will provide for the adequate support of his family at his death. But who can presume to say that such will be the case? — that he will not be one of the many exceptions to the general rule? — And suppose that he were hurried into an untimely grave, his family would necessarily be destitute. Now, it is against such calamitous contingencies that life insurance is intended chiefly to provide. An individual possessed of an income terminating at his death, agrees to pay a certain sum annually to an insurance office; and this office binds itself to pay to his family, at his death, a sum equivalent, under deduction of the expenses of management and the profits of the insurers, to what these annual contributions, accumulated at compound interest, would amount to, supposing the insured to reach the common and average term of human life. Though he were to die the day after the insurance has been effected, his family would be amply provided for as it is likely they would be by his accumulations were his life of the ordinary duration. In all cases, indeed, in which those insured die before attaining to an average age, their gain is obvious. But even in those cases in which their lives

are prolonged beyond the ordinary term, they are not losers — they then merely pay for a security which they must otherwise have been without. During the whole period, from the time when they effect their insurances, down to the time when they arrive at the mean duration of human life, they are protected against the risk of dying without leaving their families sufficiently provided for; and the sum which they pay after having passed this mean term is nothing more than a fair compensation for the security they previously enjoyed. Of those who insure houses against fire, a very small proportion only have occasion to claim an indemnity for losses actually sustained; but the possession of a security against loss in the event of accident, is a sufficient motive to induce every prudent individual to insure his property. The case of life insurance is in no respect different. When established on a proper footing, the extra sums which those pay whose lives exceed the estimated duration is but the value of the previous security.

In order so to adjust the terms of an insurance that the party insuring may neither pay too much nor too little, it is necessary that the probability of his life failing in each subsequent year should be determined with as much accuracy as possible.

To ascertain this probability, various observations have been made in different countries and periods, showing, out of a given number of persons born in a particular country or place, how many complete each subsequent year and how many die in it, till the whole be extinct. The result of such observations, when collected and arranged in a tabular form, are called Tables of Mortality; being entitled, of course, to more or less confidence, according to the number and species of lives observed; the period when, and the care with which, the observations were made, &c. But, supposing these Tables to be formed with sufficient accuracy, the expectation of life at any age, or its mean duration after such age, may be readily learned from them; and hence, also, the value of an annuity, or an assurance on a life of any age. Thus, in the Table of Mortality for Carlisle, framed by Mr. Milne, of the Sun Life Office, and which is believed to represent the average law of mortality in England with very considerable accuracy, out of 10,000 persons, born together, 4,000 complete their 56th year; and it further appears, that the number of such persons who die in their 66th year is 124; so that the probability that a life now 56 years of age will terminate in the 10th year hence is $\frac{124}{4,000}$. But reckoning interest at 4 per cent., it appears (Table II. INTEREST AND ANNUITIES), that the present value of 100l. to be received 10 years hence is 67.556l.; consequently, if its receipt be made to depend upon the probability that a life now 56 years of age will fail in the 66th year, its present value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{124 \times 67.556}{4,000} = 2.094l.$, or 2l. 1s. 10½d. The present value of 100l. receivable upon the life of a party now 56 years of age terminating in the 57th or any subsequent year of his life, up to its extreme limit (which, according to the Carlisle Table, is the 105th year), being calculated in this way, the sum of the whole will be the present value of 100l. receivable whenever the life may fail, that is, of 100l. insured upon it, supposing no additions were made to it for the profits and expenses of the insurers.

More expeditious processes are resorted to for calculating Tables of insurances at all ages; but the above statement sufficiently illustrates the principle on which they all depend. In practice, a life insurance is seldom made by the payment of a single sum when it is effected, but almost always by the payment of an *annual premium* during its continuance, the first being paid down at the commencement of the insurance.* If the Table of Mortality adopted by the insurers fairly represent the law of mortality prevailing among the insured, it follows that when a party insured does not attain to the average age according to the Table, the insurers will either lose by him, or realise less than their ordinary profit; and when, on the other hand, the life of an insured party is prolonged beyond the tabular average, the profits of the insurers are proportionally increased. But if their business be so extensive as to enable the law of average fully to apply, what they lose by premature death will be balanced by the payments received from those whose lives are prolonged beyond the mean duration of life for the ages at which they were respectively insured; so that the profits of the society will be wholly independent of chance.

The relief from anxiety afforded by life insurance very frequently contributes to prolong the life of the insured, at the same time that it materially augments the comfort and well-being of those dependent on him. It has, also, an obvious tendency to strengthen habits of accumulation. An individual who has insured a sum on his life, would forfeit all the advantages of the insurance, were he not to continue regularly to make his annual payments. It is not, therefore, optional with him to save a sum from his ordinary expenditure adequate for this purpose. He is compelled, under a heavy penalty, to do so; and having thus been led to contract a habit of saving to a certain extent, it is most probable that the habit will acquire additional strength, and that he will either insure an additional sum, or privately accumulate.

* For the method of calculating these annual premiums, see *post*, INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

The practice of marine insurance, no doubt from the extraordinary hazard to which property at sea is exposed, seems to have long preceded insurances against fire and upon lives. We are ignorant of the precise period when it began to be introduced; but it appears most probable that it dates from the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century. It has, however, been contended by Loccenius (*De Jure Maritimo*, lib. ii. c. 1.), Puffendorf (*Droit de la Nature et des Gens*, lib. v. c. 9.), and others, that the practice of marine insurance is of much higher antiquity, and that traces of it may be found in the history of the Punic wars. Livy mentions, that during the second of these contests, the contractors employed by the Romans to transport ammunition and provisions to Spain, stipulated that government should indemnify them against such losses as might be occasioned by the enemy, or by tempests, in the course of the voyage. — (*Impetratum fuit, ut quæ navibus imponerentur ad exercitum Hispaniensem deferenda, ab hostium tempestatisque vi, publico periculo essent.* — Hist. lib. xxiii. c. 49.) Malynes (*Lex Mercatoria*, 3d ed. p. 105.), founding on a passage in Suetonius ascribes the first introduction of insurance to the emperor Claudius, who, in a period of scarcity at Rome, to encourage the importation of corn, took upon himself all the loss or damage it might sustain in the voyage thither by storms and tempests. — (*Negotiatoribus certa lucra propositis, suscepto in se damno, si cui quid per tempestates accidisset, et naves mercatorum causa, fabricantibus, magna commoda constituit.* — c. 18.) It is curious to observe that this stipulation gave occasion to the commission of acts of fraud, similar to those so frequent in modern times. Shipwrecks were pretended to have happened, that never took place; old shattered vessels, freighted with articles of little value, were purposely sunk, and the crew saved in boats: large sums being then demanded as a recompense for the loss. Some years after, the fraud was discovered, and some of the contractors were prosecuted and punished. — (Lib. xxv. c. 3.) But none of these passages, nor a similar one in Cicero's letters — (*Ad Fam. lib. ii. c. 17.*), warrant the inferences that Loccenius, Malynes, and others have attempted to draw from them. Insurance is a contract between two parties; one of whom, on receiving a certain premium (*pretium periculi*), agrees to take upon himself the risk of any loss that may happen to the property of the other. In ancient no less than in modern times, every one must have been desirous to be exonerated from the chance of loss arising from the exposure of property to the perils of the sea. But though, in the cases referred to, the carriers were exempted from this chance, they were not exempted by a contract *propter aversionem periculi*, or by an insurance; but by their employers taking the risk upon themselves. And it is abundantly obvious that the object of the latter in doing this was not to profit, like an insurer, by dealing in risks, but to induce individuals the more readily to undertake the performance of an urgent public duty.

But with the exception of the instances now mentioned, nothing bearing the remotest resemblance to an insurance is to be met with till a comparatively recent period. If we might rely on a passage in one of the Flemish chroniclers, quoted by the learned M. Pardessus — (see his excellent work, *Collection des Loix Maritimes*, tome i. p. 356.), we should be warranted in concluding that insurances had been effected at Bruges so early as the end of the thirteenth century: for the chronicler states that, in 1311, the Earl of Flanders consented, on a requisition from the inhabitants, to establish a chamber of insurance at Bruges. M. Pardessus is not, however, inclined to think that this statement should be regarded as decisive. It is evident, from the manner in which the subject is mentioned, that the chronicler was not a contemporary; and no trace can be found, either in the archives of Bruges, or in any authentic publication, of any thing like the circumstance alluded to. The earliest extant Flemish law as to insurance is dated in 1537; and none of the early maritime codes of the North so much as alludes to this interesting subject.

Beckmann seems to have thought that the practice of insurance originated in Italy in the latter part of the fifteenth or the early part of the sixteenth century. — (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. art. *Insurance*.) But the learned Spanish antiquary, Don Antonio de Capmany, has given, in his very valuable publication on the History and Commerce of Barcelona (*Memorias Historicas sobre la Marina, &c. de Barcelona*, tomo ii. p. 383.), an ordinance relative to insurance, issued by the magistrates of that city in 1435; whereas the earliest Italian law on the subject is nearly a century later, being dated in 1523. It is, however, exceedingly unlikely, had insurance been as early practised in Italy as in Catalonia, that the former should have been so much behind the latter in subjecting it to any fixed rules; and it is still more unlikely that the practice should have escaped, as is the case, all mention by any previous Italian writer. We, therefore, agree entirely in Capmany's opinion, that, until some authentic evidence to the contrary be produced, Barcelona should be regarded as the birthplace of this most useful and beautiful application of the doctrine of chances. — (Tom. i. p. 237.)

A knowledge of the principles and practice of insurance was early brought into England. According to Malynes — (*Lex Mercat.* p. 105.), it was first practised amongst

us by the Lombards, who were established in London from a very remote epoch. It is probable it was introduced some time about the beginning of the sixteenth century; for it is mentioned in the statute 43 Eliz. c. 12., in which its utility is very clearly set forth, that it had been an *immemorial usage* among merchants, both English and foreign, when they made any great adventure, to procure insurance to be made on the ships or goods adventured. From this it may reasonably be supposed that insurance had been in use in England for at least a century previous. It appears from the same statute, that it had originally been usual to refer all disputes that arose with respect to insurances to the decision of "grave and discreet" merchants appointed by the Lord Mayor. But abuses having grown out of this practice, the statute authorised the Lord Chancellor to appoint a commission for the trial of insurance cases; and in the reign of Charles II. the powers of the commissioners were enlarged. But this court soon after fell into disuse; and, what is singular, no trace can now be discovered of any of its proceedings. — (*Marshall on Insurance*, Prelim. Disc. p. 26.)

Few questions as to insurance seem to have come before the courts at Westminster till after the middle of last century. The decisions of Lord Mansfield may, indeed, be said to have fixed, and in a considerable degree formed, the law upon this subject. His judgments were not bottomed on narrow views, or on the municipal regulations of England; but on those great principles of public justice and convenience which had been sanctioned and approved by universal experience. His deep and extensive information was acquired by consulting the most intelligent merchants, and the works of distinguished foreign jurists; and by carefully studying the famous French ordinance of 1681, the most admirably digested body of maritime law of which any country has ever had to boast. Hence the comprehensiveness and excellence of his Lordship's decisions, and the respect they have justly commanded in all countries.* In his hands the law of insurance became, in a far greater degree than any other department of English law, a branch of that national or public law, of which Cicero has beautifully said, "*Non erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis, alia nunc, alia posthac, sed et omnes gentes et omni tempore una lex et sempiterna, et immortalis continebit, unusque erit communis quasi magister et imperator omnium Deus.*" — (*Fragm. lib. iii. de Republicâ.*)

Insurance against fire and upon lives is of much later origin than insurance against the perils of the sea. The former, however, has been known and carried on amongst us, to some extent at least, for nearly a century and a half. The Amicable Society, for insurance upon lives, was established by charter of Queen Anne, in 1706; the Royal Exchange and London Assurance Companies began to make insurances upon lives in the reign of George I.; and the Equitable Society was established in 1762. But the advantages of life insurance, and the principles on which the business should be conducted, were then very ill understood; and the practice can hardly be said to have obtained any firm footing amongst us, till the Equitable Society, by adopting the judicious suggestions of Dr. Price, began its career of prosperity about 1775. Notwithstanding the example of England, life insurance has made comparatively little progress on the Continent. It was, indeed, expressly forbidden by the French ordinance of 1681 (liv. iii. tit. 6. art. 10.); by the regulations as to insurance issued at Amsterdam in 1612 (art. 24.); and it is doubtful whether the practice be not inconsistent with the 334th art. of the *Code de Commerce*, though it be now extensively carried on in France. But we are inclined to think that the want of security, more than any positive regulations, has been the principal cause of the little progress of life insurance on the Continent. Of whatever disadvantages our large public debt may be productive, it is not to be doubted that the facilities it has afforded for making investments, and the punctuality with which the national engagements have been fulfilled, have been the principal causes of the extraordinary extent to which the business of life and even fire insurance has been carried in this country.

II. INSURANCE (MARINE).

There are few persons who are not acquainted, in some degree, with fire and life insurances. The security which they afford to individuals and families is a luxury which nobody, in tolerably comfortable circumstances, is willing to be without. Hence the great increase, in our days, of companies professing to afford this security; and hence the knowledge, on the part of the public generally, of the nature and principles of the engagements into which these companies enter. But marine insurance is a subject which is of immediate interest only to merchants and ship owners; unless, indeed, we should refer to that small portion of the community, who have occasion to transport themselves beyond seas with capital and effects for purposes of colonisation, or to fill some official situation. Hence the comparative indifference, on the part of the public, as to this subject. The general principles, however, of all insurances are the same; and in treating of marine insurance, it will be necessary to notice little beyond such topics as are peculiar to that branch of the business.

Individual Insurers or Underwriters. — The first circumstance that cannot fail to strike the general inquirer into the practice of marine insurance in this country, is that, while all fire and life insurances are made at the risk of companies, which include within themselves the desirable requisites of security, wealth, and numbers, a large proportion of marine insurances is made at the risk of individuals.

Prohibition of Companies. — Till 1824, all firms and companies, with the exception of the 2 chartered

* See Emerigon's famous *Traité des Assurances*, tome ii. p. 67.

companies, the Royal Exchange and London, were prohibited by law from taking marine insurances. Towards the latter end of that year, the prohibition was removed, and the business of marine insurance was placed on the same legal footing as other descriptions of business. While the restriction lasted, the chartered companies did so liberally, that marine insurance might, in fact, be said to be wholly in the hands of individuals. These companies were so much higher in their premiums, and so much more exclusive in the risks they were willing to undertake, than their individual competitors, that even those merchants and ship owners, who would cheerfully have paid some trifling consideration to obtain the greater security of a company, were obliged to resort to individuals. And it was only when the repeal of this absurd restriction was proposed, that the companies showed, by defending it, that they set any value upon their privilege. The underwriters at Lloyd's joined them in this opposition; and pamphlets were written and speeches made, to demonstrate how much merchants and ship owners would suffer, were the law to allow them the free use of their discretion in insuring their property; and how much more conducive to their interests it was, that they should be forced up to Lloyd's, to pay premiums to individuals rather than companies. But these pamphlets and speeches are forgotten; and we should be sorry to wound the feelings of their authors, or to trespass on the patience of our readers, by referring to them more particularly.

Formation of Companies.—There are at present 7 marine insurance companies in London; viz., the two old chartered companies, the *Royal Exchange* and *London*; two established immediately upon the passing of the act of the year 1824, the *Alliance* and the *Indemnity Mutual*; the *Marine*, established in 1836; and the *General Maritime* and *Neptune*, established in 1839. These companies number among their proprietors or shareholders some of the most eminent merchants and ship owners of the city of London, who have united for the double purpose of providing a more perfect security for their property, and of ascertaining whether the insurance business might not be made to yield a fair return to the capital employed in it.

It may be computed that these 7 companies draw to themselves more than half the marine insurance business effected in London; and as several similar companies have also been formed since 1824 in different parts of the kingdom, it may be inferred, when due allowance is made for the difficulties to be combated in breaking through established modes and habits of doing business, that the tendency in the public is practically to confine what might otherwise be a very extensive trade, to a few companies, who must necessarily hold out better security, and greater liberality and punctuality in the settlement of claims, are capable of transacting a given amount of business with a saving both of labour and expense.

Mode of conducting Business.—We shall now give an account of the existing arrangements for conducting the business of marine insurance, as well by individuals as the companies in London.

Lloyd's.—In an individual underwriter meets in a subscription room at Lloyd's. The joint affairs of the subscribers to these rooms are managed by a committee chosen by the subscribers. Agents (who are commonly styled Lloyd's agents) are appointed in all the principal ports of the world, who forward, regularly, to Lloyd's, accounts of the departures from and arrivals at their ports, as well as of losses and other casualties; and, in general, all such information as may be supposed of importance towards guiding the judgments of the underwriters. These accounts are regularly filed, and are accessible to all the subscribers. The principal arrivals and losses are, besides, posted in 2 books, placed in 2 conspicuous parts of the room; and also in another book, which is placed in an adjoining room, for the use of the public at large.

The rooms are open from 10 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the afternoon, but the most considerable part of the business is transacted between 1 and 4. Those merchants and ship owners who manage their own insurance business, procure blank policies at the government office, or of their stations, which they fill up so as to meet the particular object in view, and submit them to those underwriters with whom they are connected; by whom they are subscribed or rejected. Each policy is handed about in this way until the amount required is complete. The form of the policy and of a subscription is objected to in this article.

The premium is not paid to the underwriter in ready money, but is passed to account. Nor does the underwriter debit the account of the person to whom he subscribes a policy with the whole amount of the premium, but with the premium less 5 per cent. Whenever losses occur which more than absorb the premiums on any one account, the underwriter is called upon to pay the balance. But should the underwriter's account be what is called good, that is should the premiums exceed the claims, he sends round, during the spring and summer, to collect from his various debtors either the balance of his last year's account, or money on account, according to his judgment; but, upon what he receives, he makes an allowance of 12 per cent. An underwriter, if prudent, therefore, before he consents to receive, will not only look to the goodness of his account, but to the probability of its continuing so.

Insurance Brokers.—Many merchants and shipowners do not transact their own insurance business. They give their orders for insurance to others, who undertake it for them, and are responsible for its proper management. These latter persons are called insurance brokers; and some of them manage the business of a number of principals. To them, likewise, are transmitted the orders for insurance from the outports and manufacturing towns. They charge the whole premium to their principals, and their profit consists in 5 per cent. upon the premium, 12 per cent. upon the money that they pay to the underwriters, and 4 per cent. that they deduct from all the claims which they recover from the underwriters. It is proper to remark, that this is the established or regular profit; but competition has occasioned numerous deviations from it by the brokers, many of whom consent to divide this profit with the principals who employ them. The insurance brokers are not unfrequently underwriters also; and as some insurances are considered far more lucrative than others to underwriters, and as the brokers have particular facilities, in some respects, of judging of the goodness of their own risks, so likewise have they an inducement to play into one another's hands, and they do so accordingly. — (See *LIACXAS*.)

It will at once be seen, that the trouble of effecting insurances at Lloyd's is considerable; and that a good deal of time must be consumed; and that merchants and ship owners, therefore, have great inducement to consign their insurance business to brokers. But where the business is transacted in this manner, this inducement, if not destroyed altogether, is, at all events, very much diminished. Any party having property to insure, has merely to go to the manager of the company, and state the particulars of the risk to be insured; the premium being agreed upon, the manager writes out a memorandum for the policy, which the party signs, and he is thus effectually insured. The companies procure the stamp and write out the policy, which is ready for delivery in 4 or 5 days. The companies, like the underwriters, charge the premium less 5 per cent. In other respects they vary. They allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premiums with credit till March or June (or 10 per cent. for prompt payment).

Payment of Losses.—Losses are paid at all the offices promptly, and without deduction. A month's credit is allowed to the underwriters; and another month, and sometimes 2 months, are given to the broker, to collect from the underwriters, and pay over to his principals.

Clubs.—Beside the individual underwriters and companies above noticed, there are clubs or associations formed by ship owners, who agree each entering his ships for a certain amount, to divide among themselves one another's losses. These clubs are institutions of long standing; but, since the alteration of the law in 1824, appear to be on the decline. Their formation originated in a twofold reason: 1st, that the underwriters charged premiums more than commensurate with the risk; and, 2dly, that they did not afford adequate protection. To avoid the first of these two evils, instead of paying a fixed premium, they pay among themselves the actual losses of their several members as they occur; and to avoid the second, they lay down certain principles of settlement in accordance with their views of indemnity. Each member of one of these clubs gives his power of attorney to the selected manager; and this manager

issues a policy for each ship, which policy is subscribed by him as attorney for all the members, the premium inserted in the policy being understood to be nominal. These clubs are open to the leading objections that apply to individual underwriters; for the members are not collectively, but only individually, liable to those of their number who happen to sustain a loss; and the delay of settlement is such, that more than 12 months have been known to elapse before the payment of a loss has been obtained from all the members.

Rate of Premiums.—But little need be said upon the circumstances that influence the rate of premium demanded by the insurers. It must be self-evident that premiums will vary according to the reasons, the quality of the vessel, the known character of the captain, the nature of the commodity, and the state of our political relations. All these, of course, are matters upon which each individual must exercise his own discretion, partly from general experience, and partly from particular information; exaggeration of risk, and consequent exorbitance of premium for any length of time, being out of the question, where so many individual underwriters, in addition to the companies, are in competition with one another, and where the merchants have the means at hand of effecting their insurances abroad. We have already taken notice of the intelligence of which Lloyd's is the focus. In addition to this, there is a subscription register book for shipping maintained by the principal merchants, ship owners, and underwriters. This book professes to give an account of the tonnage, build, age, repairs, and quality of almost all the vessels that frequent our ports; and, although exceedingly defective in many respects, is a material assistance to the insurers, who have no means of ascertaining by their own observation the particulars of 1 in 100 of the ships they are called upon to insure.

CONTRACT OF INSURANCE.

Having thus given a general outline of the mode of transacting business between the insurers and insured, and the means used to enable both parties to come, as near as possible, to a due estimate of the risk to be insured against, our next step will be to explain the nature of the contract, and the bearing of its more important clauses.

It is unnecessary to state that the object of those who are engaged in commerce, or in moving articles of merchandise, from one part of the globe to another, is to pay at such a price that after deducting the expenses of transport, the safe price may leave them a surplus in the shape of profit. If there were no such contrivance as insurance, merchants would be obliged to calculate upon the probability of the occasional loss of their property, and to regulate their transactions accordingly; but it must be obvious that enterprise, under such circumstances, would be very much crippled. Now, insurance, in as far as it approaches perfection, in guaranteeing the merchant against all loss, except that the market substitutes a fixed charge for uncertain and contingent loss, and enables him to confine his attention exclusively to price and quality, and to charges of transport; in which latter, of course, the premium of insurance is included. As, however, in practice, insurance is by no means a perfect protection, either to the merchant or ship owner, against all loss that may occur in transitu, there is, even after insurance, some contingencies remaining to be taken into consideration; and we do not know that we can do better, by way of explaining the contract of insurance, than state, as briefly and succinctly as possible, what are the losses against which the merchant and ship owner are not protected by an insurance effected in this country.

1. **Acts of our own Government.**—All losses arising from the acts of our own government. Thus, if an embargo were laid on vessels about to sail for a particular quarter, and the merchant obliged to unload his goods; or if his goods were condemned to be destroyed in quarantine; or purposely destroyed at sea by some of our cruisers; no part of his loss would be made good by the insurer. The insurer in this country, although liable for the acts of foreign powers, is not liable for such acts directed against the property of their own subjects. Thus, if French property, insured in this country, were confiscated by the French government, the owner would have no remedy against his insurer.

2. **Breach of the Revenue Laws.**—All losses arising from a breach of the revenue laws. It may be observed, that if the owner of the ship, by his act, expose the goods of the merchant to loss, the merchant so injured, although he cannot recover from his insurers, may claim from him. It may also be observed, that if the captain of the vessel, by his act, to which neither the owner of the ship nor the merchant is a party, expose the ship and cargo to loss, the insurers, in such case, are bound to make good the loss; the insurers being liable for all damage arising from illegal acts of the captain and crew, supposing the owner of the ship not to be necessary. The illegal acts of the captain and crew, contrary to the instructions and without the consent of the owners, are termed "barratry" in the policy.—(See BARRATRY.)

3. **Breach of the Law of Nations.**—All losses arising from a breach of the law of nations. Thus, if any port is declared by a foreign power to be in a state of blockade, and such blockade is acknowledged by our government; and if a ship, in defiance of that notification, attempt to break the blockade, and is taken in the attempt; the insurer is not liable to the loss. It will often happen, when a port is under blockade, that the profit is so great upon goods introduced in defiance of the blockade, as to tempt adventurers to break it, and to enable them to afford a very high premium to insure against the risk. But as policies for such an object are not acknowledged in our courts of law, when effected, they are understood to be policies of honour. The same kind of policy is adopted by the underwriters, to protect foreign merchants who prefer insuring in this country against British capture.

4. **Consequences of Deviation.**—All losses subsequent to any deviation from the terms of the policy. Thus, if a merchant, in a policy on produce from the West Indies to London, warrant the ship to sail on or before the 1st of August, and the ship sail after that day and be lost, the insurer is exonerated. Or, if a merchant insure from London to Lisbon, and the ship call at Havre and be afterwards lost, the insurer is not liable. It will be understood, of course, that the owner of the ship is liable to the merchant for any breach of contract on his part, as well as that the insurer is liable for the barratry of the master; a deviation on the part of the master, not intended for the benefit of the owner, and contrary to his instructions, being considered barratry. Should the owner of the goods neglect to describe accurately the voyage for which he wishes to be insured, a loss would be a consequence of his own negligence.

There is a doctrine connected with barratry which it will here be proper to notice. A captain, owner or part owner of the ship in which he sails, cannot commit an act of barratry. In other words, the insurers are not, in such a case, liable for an act of his which would otherwise be barratrous. The equity of this doctrine, as far as regards the interests of the captain himself, cannot be called in question; but it is difficult to understand why the merchant who ships goods on board such a captain's vessel should not be permitted to insure, among other risks, against the captain's illegal acts. We have heard that a clause has occasionally been introduced into policies to protect merchants against captain-owned, and we do not suppose that our courts of law would refuse to enforce such a clause. Indeed, we cannot discover any reason why every party, saving the captain, should not have the power of insuring against the consequences of illegal acts of the captain. We believe, that among the life officers which protect themselves from loss by suicide and the kinds of justice, there are some which make a distinction in favour of those who merely hold policies on the lives of others as a collateral security. The propriety of such a distinction must strike every body.

5. **Unseaworthiness.**—All losses arising from unseaworthiness. Unseaworthiness may be caused in various ways, such as want of repair, want of stores, want of provisions, want of nautical instruments, insufficiency of hands to navigate the vessel, or incompetency of the master. It might be supposed, at first sight, that insurance affords a much less perfect security than it really does, seeing on how many plans it is possible for the insurer to dispute his liability; but when it is considered that the proof of unseaworthiness is thrown upon the defendant, and that the leniency of the courts is almost always in favour of the insured, it will be easy to suppose that no respectable insurers would ever plead unseaworthiness,

unless they could make out a case of more than ordinary strength and clearness. The degree of uneasiness felt by merchants and ship owners at their liability to be involved in loss by cases of unseaworthiness, may be guessed from the fact that although the Indemnity Assurance Company at one time precluded themselves from pleading unseaworthiness by a special clause in their policy, not only did they obtain no additional premium in consequence thereof, but they did not even obtain a preference over other companies and individuals at the same premium. At least, this fact must either be admitted as a proof of the absence of uneasiness on this head, or of that inveteracy of habit which seems to lead the great bulk of mankind always, if possible, to continue undeviatingly in those courses to which they are accustomed, even where the benefits to be derived from a deviation are undeniable.

6. *Protraction of the Voyage.*—All loss arising from unusual protraction of the voyage. Thus, if a ship meet with an accident in the Baltic, and the repairs detain the vessel till the close of the season, when the passage home is rendered impracticable by the ice till the opening of the ensuing season, no payment is made to the merchant, in mitigation of his loss from interest of money, loss of market (if the market fall), or deterioration in the quality of his goods (unless arising from actual sea damage); nor to the ship owner, in mitigation of his loss from the extra wages and maintenance of his crew. In most foreign countries the ship owner is remunerated by the insurers for the wages and maintenance of his crew while his ship is detained in consequence of any loss for the making good of which they are liable.

7. *Liability for doing Damage to other Vessels.*—All loss to which the ship owner is liable when his vessel does damage to others. According to our laws, the owner of every ship not in charge of a pilot, that does damage, by negligence of the master and crew, to any description of craft or vessel, is liable to make good the same to the extent of the value of his own ship and freight: for beyond this he is not liable. The common policy in use among the underwriters at Lloyd's and the companies does not protect the ship owner from this loss. But the clubs or associations before mentioned almost universally take this risk. Indeed, this is one of the purposes which gave rise to their formation. But even they limit their liability to the amount of the policy; so that if a ship insured with them were to run down another, and to sink herself in the concussion, the owner would only receive the value of his own vessel from the club, and still be liable to the owner of the other vessel. The Indemnity and Marine Companies, by a clause in their policies, make themselves liable for 3-4ths of the loss which the owner of the vessel insured with them sustains from damage done by his vessel to those of others. If even a case of the one just supposed should occur under their policy, the insured would receive the value of his own vessel and 3-4ths of the loss to be made good by him to the owner of the other vessel. The policies of these Companies approach in this respect the nearest of any to perfect protection to the ship owner. But the loss from running down other vessels, although serious, may sometimes ruinous, seldom occurs; and many ship owners trust so confidently that it will never fall upon them, that they are as well satisfied to be without as with this protection.

8. *Average Clause.*—The next description of loss of which we shall treat, against which the insured are not protected, is described in the following clause of the policy:—"Corn, fish, salt, seed, flour, and fruit, are warranted free from average, unless general, or the ship be stranded; sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins are warranted free from average under 3 per cent, unless general, or the ship be stranded; and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average under 3 per cent., unless general, or the ship be stranded."

The language employed in this clause, being technical, requires explanation, to render it intelligible to the general reader. Average is a name applied to certain descriptions of loss, to which the merchant and ship owner are liable. There are two kinds of average, general and particular.

General Average comprehends all loss arising out of a voluntary sacrifice of a part of either vessel or cargo, made by the captain for the benefit of the whole. Thus, if a captain throw part of his cargo overboard, cut from an anchor and cable, or cut away his masts; the loss so sustained, being voluntarily submitted to for the benefit of the whole, is distributed over the value of the whole ship and cargo, and is called "general average."

Particular Average comprehends all loss occasioned to ship, freight, and cargo, which is not of so serious a nature as to debar them from reaching their port of destination, and when the damage to the ship is not so extensive as to render her unworthy of repair. Losses where the goods are saved, but in such a state as to be unfit for forward to their port of destination, and where the ship is rendered unfit to repair, are called "partial or salvage loss." The leading distinction between particular average and salvage loss is, that, in the first, the property insured remains the property of the assured—the damage sustained, or part thereof, as the case may be, and as will be hereafter explained, being made good by the insurer; and in the second, the property insured is abandoned to the insurer, and the value insured claimed from him, he retaining the property so abandoned, or its value.

Particular Average on Goods.—A few cases illustrative of the method of stating a claim for particular average will best explain the nature of this description of loss, and will at the same time show the reader what the practical distinction is between particular average and salvage loss.

The property insured we shall suppose to be a ton of hemp, the cost of which at Petersburg is 30*l.*, for which sum it is insured from Petersburg to London, and that the duty, freight, and charges to which the merchant is subject on landing at London are 10*l.* We shall likewise suppose that the hemp, on its arrival, is so damaged as not to be worth more than half what it would have fetched had it been sound. The insurer would then be called upon to make good to the insured 15*l.*, or 50 per cent. upon the sum insured. But it does not follow that this payment of 15*l.* would indemnify the merchant, or that it would not more than indemnify him, for the loss sustained.

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It will be observed that the merchant's loss by the damage of his goods varies with the state of the market. It may also be observed, that in general the merchant will not receive from the insurer the whole amount of the loss that he sustains. Whenever his market is a profitable one (and that it must usually be so will be obvious to every body), whenever, indeed, his market is not a decidedly losing one, his policy does not afford him a complete protection.

The argument in favour of this mode of settling claims for particular average—and it should be observed that the subject has been discussed, and the principle acknowledged in the courts of law—is, that the insurer's liability is to be guided by the amount upon which he has received a premium or consideration; that he is not to be affected by the rise or fall of markets; but that the gross market price of the *sound*, and the gross market price of the *damaged* goods, are to be the test by which the rate of damage upon the amount insured is to be adjusted, the insurer being liable, besides, for all the extra charges arising out of the damage.

In the first case stated, the merchant's loss by damage is 2M upon 40L., or 5 per cent. In the second, 10L. upon 10L. or 100 per cent. In the third, 15M. upon 20L. or 75 per cent. If the duty, freight, and charges were diminished in proportion to the diminished value of the goods, the loss in each case would be 50 per cent. upon the net price, as it is 50 per cent. upon the gross price. As far as the duty is concerned, government, upon its proportion to the diminution in the value of the goods; and if the freight were reduced in a similar manner, the merchant would always be indemnified for his loss by the insurer. But the practice with regard to freight in this country admits of no such arrangement; freight being paid according to the quantity delivered.

To make the principle upon which claims for particular average are adjusted, and its bearing, still clearer, we shall illustrate it by a few more cases. Suppose two packages to be insured at cost price—a cask of rice and a cask of sugar—each weighing 10 cwt.; the cost of each at the port of shipment 10L., the freight of each 10s. per cwt. at the port of delivery, both articles free from duty, and to arrive at a market where no more than the cost price is realised; assuming that both packages are damaged 50 per cent.—the rice by loss of quality, the sugar by loss of weight—the statement will be as follows:—

10 cwt. of rice, had it arrived sound, would have produced	£ s.	10 0	10 cwt. of sugar, if sound, would have produced	£ s.	10 0
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0		Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0	
But being damaged, did only produce	7 10		The barrel, being damaged, did only weigh 5 cwt., and produce	2 10	
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0		Less freight on 5 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	2 10	
	2 10			5 0	
Merchant's loss	£ 7 10		Merchant's loss	£ 5 0	

In each case the merchant is entitled to recover from his insurer M., or 50 per cent., upon 10L., the sum insured, which, although an indemnity to him for his loss on the sugar, is far from being so for his loss upon the rice. If the merchant would contrive so to shape his contract with the ship owner for freight, as to reduce the freight in proportion to the depreciation in the value of the damaged commodity, he would be completely protected. The ship owner might on his side protect himself by insurance from loss by reduction of quality, as he now does from loss by reduction of quantity. But we have already more than once adverted to the difficulty of breaking in upon established practices. The merchants go on from year to year complaining of the losses to which they are subjected from this awkward contrivance, while no steps are taken to improve it. To show that the principle is equitable as between the merchant and his insurer, we subjoin one more statement, where the damage is taken at 100 per cent.

10 cwt. of rice, if sound, would have produced	£ s.	15 0	10 cwt. of sugar, if sound, would have produced	£ s.	15 0
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0		Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0	
Being totally spoiled, did produce nothing. The merchant being still liable for the freight	5 0		The barrel being washed out produces nothing. The merchant, however, not being liable to pay freight	5 0	
Making his loss	£ 15 0		His loss is only	£ 10 0	
He receives 10L. only from the insurer.			Which he recovers from the insurer.		

When whole cargoes, or parcels of goods of considerable value, are insured, the clause in the policy which protects the insurer from particular average under a certain percentage is often partially set aside. Thus, if a cargo of 600 hogsheads of sugar, valued at 10,000L. were damaged to the extent of 40L., the merchant, supposing the protecting clause to remain in force, would recover nothing from the insurer, the loss not amounting to 5 per cent. The additional written clause, by which it is the practice to modify the printed clause, is as follows:—"Particular average, payable upon each 10 hds. sugar, 10 casks and 50 bags coffee, and 10 bags cotton, following numbers, and upon each package of manufactured goods, chest of indigo, bag of wool or silk, the same as if separately insured." Such clauses may be, and are, introduced *ad libitum* by mutual consent of insurer and insured, the premium or consideration being arranged accordingly.

The protecting clause is considered, on the other hand, by the insurers, exceedingly unsatisfactory in some respects; and they, as occasion requires, insist upon additional protection. Thus, saltpetre, hides, cocoa, and tin plates, are generally warranted free from particular average, unless the ship be stranded; and upon tobacco, it is customary for the insurers to make themselves liable only to such part of the particular average as exceeds 5 per cent., throwing 5 per cent. upon the merchant.

Particular Average on Freight.—The clause, as far as it affects "freight," calls for no particular comment. Particular average upon freight can only arise, according to prevailing practice, from loss of weight; and whenever the loss of weight amounts to 3 per cent. or upwards, the ship owner is entitled to recover from his insurer. The ship owner, upon the arrival of the ship at its port of destination, is entitled to hold the goods as securely until the freight is paid. If the owner of the goods should be insolvent, and the goods should be entirely spoiled by sea damage during the voyage, and the ship owner thus lose his freight, he has no claim upon the insurer; because, although his collateral security is destroyed by a peril of the sea, his right to receive freight remains unimpaired, and it is against the loss or impairing of this right that the insurer protects him.

Particular Average on Ships.—Particular average upon ships is a subject somewhat more beset with difficulties. There is scarcely a ship that makes a voyage of any length, that does not sustain some damage. The clause in the policy warranting the ship free from particular average under 3 per cent., unless stranded, protects the insurer from the constant recurrence of petty claims; but in addition to this, it is the practice to class the damage that a ship sustains in the prosecution of her voyage under two heads: ordinary damage, or wear and tear; and extraordinary damage, or particular average. The splitting of sails, the breaking of anchors and cables, the upsetting of windlasses, are losses that come under the first head. The carrying away of masts and bulwarks, damage to the copper sheathing and hull from striking on rocks, come under the second.

When a ship sustains damage, if she be on her first voyage, the whole expense of the repairs is made good by the insurers. But if she be not on her first voyage, it is the established custom that the insurer pays no more than 2-3ds of the repairs, the owner of the vessel having, as it is thought, an equivalent for the 1-3d which falls upon him, in the substitution of new work for old. Where the nature of the damage is such as to require that the copper should be stripped off the ship's bottom, the insurer pays the difference between the price of the old and the new copper on the weight of the old copper stripped

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off; the excess in weight of the new over the old copper is paid for by the ship owner; and the labour of stripping and replacing the copper is paid for on the principle already mentioned. In any general rule of this kind, it must be obvious that the ship owner will sometimes gain and sometimes lose by an accident. As soon as the ship owner, or his captain, learns that his vessel has met with an accident, or as soon after as possible, he summons regular surveyors to examine his vessel and report all defects, discriminating between those defects that have arisen from perils of the sea, and those from wear and tear. The first only are made good by the insurer, together with all charges, such as surveyors' fees, dock dues, &c., caused by the necessity of undergoing repair. It has been already observed, that when a ship is obliged, in the progress of her voyage, to put into port for the purpose of repair, although the owner of the ship be subjected to great expense for the wages and maintenance of his crew during the detention, he can recover out of the expense from the insurer; the doctrine being, that the owner of the ship is bound to navigate his vessel, and that the insurer does not undertake to guarantee that the voyage shall be completed within any specific time. Such is the doctrine, at least, in this country, and the practice is founded upon it; but in all other countries the doctrine and practice are the reverse. For in them allowance is made to the ship owner for the wages and maintenance of the crew during the whole period that the ship is under repair. Where a vessel sustains damage and undergoes repair in the progress of her voyage, and is subsequently lost, the insurer is liable both for the particular average and a total loss. Or the owner of the ship may, if he please, insure the amount expended in repair; and then, in the event of subsequent loss, the insurer is liable for the total loss only; but in the event of subsequent safe arrival, the average is augmented by the charge of insurance.

The operation of the clause warranting the ship free from average under 3 per cent., unless general, or the ship be stranded, may now be clearly seen. If a ship be insured and valued at 10,000*l.*, and the repairs of the vessel do not, after all the deductions above referred to, amount to 3 per cent., there is no claim upon the insurer, unless the vessel shall have been stranded. — (See AVERAGE.)

Stranding.—The term stranded is not well chosen, admitting of more than one construction; and the clause of which it forms a part is imperfect. And in settlements of accidents, when differences arise, the parties who discuss them are more apt to strive for that interpretation of terms and clauses which is favourable to their interests, than for that which is best adapted for general purposes. It is commonly understood that merely striking the ground and coming off is not a stranding; it being necessary, in order to fall within that term, that the ship should remain on the ground or rock, as it may happen, and that efforts should be made to get her off. Striking on an anchor and leaving the vessel not a stranding. We shall only adduce two illustrations, for the purpose of showing how ill adapted this clause is as a means to an end. Corn and other such articles are warranted free from particular average, unless the ship be stranded, because the insurers, considering these articles to be peculiarly susceptible of damage, will not consent to take that risk, except on some extraordinary occasion. A ship, laden with corn, makes a very stormy passage from the Baltic to London, and damages the whole of her cargo. Upon arrival off our coast she is stranded, but got off without straining or sustaining any damage. The insurer is held to be liable for the damage to the corn, under the clause of the policy. On another occasion, after a very favourable passage to our coast, a ship strikes upon a shoal, but is not stranded, sustaining, however, so much damage that she arrives at London with 6 feet water in her hold, and her cargo almost wholly spoiled. The insurer is held not to be liable under the clause of the policy.

General Average.—The insurer is bound to make good all general average without exception, however trifling the account. General average is treated as though altogether unconnected with particular average; and damage to the goods not amounting to 3 per cent. is not payable by the insurer, although there may be also a general average, and the general and particular average together may amount to more than 3 or 5 per cent. General average is a charge which must be paid by the merchant and ship owner, even if uninsured; although, when insured, he transfers, as it were, in virtue of his insurance, the charge from himself to his insurer. All the elements that can by possibility enter into general average may be classed under four heads:—1. Sacrifice of part of the ship and stores; 2. Sacrifice of part of the cargo and freight; 3. Remuneration of services required for general preservation; 4. Expense of raising money to replace what has been sacrificed, and to remunerate services.

1. When any part of the ship is sacrificed for the general benefit, the owner is entitled to receive (deducting, of course, his share of contribution) the amount of his outlay in the replacing of such sacrifice; allowance being made, on the principle stated above, where old works and materials are replaced with new. The deduction of 1-3*d.*, however, does not invariably apply. For instance, 1-6*th* only is taken off the price of an iron cable that is slipped from for the general benefit, because iron cables are calculated to last for a great number of years; and no reduction is ever made from the price of anchors. The charge of replacing the loss may amount to considerably more than the value lost, computing the value at the place where the ship was originally fitted. Thus, the cost of replacing an anchor and cable slipped from in the Downs, is frequently double the value of the anchor and cable at London. But whatever the charge may be, such charge forms the basis of settlement.

2. Sacrifice of the cargo and freight takes place in jettison, or where part of the cargo is flung overboard to lighten the vessel. Upon arrival in port, after such jettison, the owner of the goods jettisoned is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) what the goods would have produced nett to him, supposing them to have arrived sound; and the owner of the ship is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) the freight to which he would have been entitled upon the safe delivery of the goods.

3. Remuneration of services and other charges. When a ship loses her anchors and cables, very large sums are frequently awarded to boatmen who venture off to her with new ones at the imminent hazard of their lives. A ship disabled at sea is towed into port by another, and remuneration for such service is awarded according to the value saved, the detention occasioned, and the loss sustained. The ship rendering the service may be laden with fish or fruit, that may be totally spoiled by the detention, or may be in ballast. A ship captured by the enemy may be recaptured by a man of war or armed merchant vessel; here, again, salvage is awarded according to the circumstances of the case. All these charges are general average; that is to say, must be distributed over ship, freight, and cargo. When a ship, with her cargo, is driven on shore, the expense of attempting to get her off is general average. If she cannot be got off without discharging, the expense of discharging is general average; but the expense of getting the ship off after the cargo has been taken out falls exclusively upon the ship. The warehousing of the cargo, and other expenses incurred for its preservation, are charges exclusively upon the cargo. The expense of re-loading is borne by the freight. When a ship puts into port in distress, the pilotage inwards is general average; the pilotage outwards is a charge upon the freight. This distribution of charges has settled into a tolerably well-established practice; and upon this principle claims are settled at the offices, and at Lloyd's.

4. The money required to meet the above charges is sometimes attainable without expense. If the accident happen near home, and the ship owner be respectable, he advances the money and recovers from the various parties concerned so soon as the accounts can be made up; or if the accident happen in a foreign port, where the owner of the ship is well known, the captain's bill upon him will sometimes be received in payment of the charges incurred. But where such facilities do not exist, the captain is empowered to pledge his ship, freight, and cargo, as security to any one he may prevail upon to supply the necessary funds. This pledge is termed a bottomry bond. By it the captain admits the receipt of the money; consents to the payment of a premium (which varies with the distance of the port of destination, the risk of the voyage, the respectability of the owner, and the necessities of the captain); and assigns the ship, freight, and cargo, as security for the repayment of the money advanced and the stipulated

premium. Should the captain consider the bottomry premium demanded of him exorbitant, or should he deem it preferable in other respects, he may sell a portion of the cargo for the purpose of raising such money as he may stand in need of towards the prosecution of his voyage. The expense of raising the requisite funds, whether by commission, by bottomry premium, or by loss on the sale of the cargo, is charged to those parties for whose interest the money is required. Thus, if a ship having struck a rock, puts into port in distress, and is obliged to unload or repair; supposing the particular average upon the ship to amount to 500*l.*; the general average, consisting of assistance into port and use of unloading, 200*l.*; particular charges on freight, consisting of expense of reloading and piloting outwards, 100*l.*; and particular charges on cargo, consisting of warehouse rent and repair of packing, 200*l.*; and the expense of raising the money required, 30 per cent. — these sums would be severally increased by this addition, and would be raised to 600*l.*, 240*l.*, 120*l.*, and 240*l.* — (See *BOTTOMRY*).

It still remains to be inquired in what proportion the general average is to be paid by the different owners of the cargo, and the owner of ship and freight. Almost all general averages are adjusted at the ship's port of destination, and the values of the ship and cargo are taken at what they would produce in their actual state upon arrival, and the freight according to what is actually receivable, less the wages of the captain and crew; the general average being distributed in proportion to these values. Should the cargo be altogether worthless, it cannot be made to contribute; and should the wages of the crew exceed the freight, then the freight is not liable to contribute. In case of jettison, the party whose property has been sacrificed for the general benefit, receives indemnity on the same principle; the value to which he is entitled being what his property would have produced *net*, supposing it to have been sold on the arrival of the vessel — the same value serving for the basis of his proportion of contribution. Some few cases occur where the general average is adjusted at the port of departure. Thus, if a ship, outward bound to the British colonies, cut from an anchor and cable in the Downs, or near other general average on our own coast, the insurances being principally effected in this country, it is the custom to adjust it on the spot, by which means the cargo and freight are avoided. On these occasions, the value of the cargo and freight are taken as the basis of contribution. A total loss, subsequently to a general average, does not exonerate the insurer from his prior liability; and although it is customary with the ship owner, or his agent, specifically to insure the money expended in average, for the purpose of protecting the insurer against any greater liability, than 100 per cent., he is not absolutely obliged to do so. When the average funds are raised by bottomry, the insurer advances them for the ship, freight, and cargo, as security, and charges a premium to cover the risk of the ship's non-arrival at her port of destination. And thus, on such an occasion, a subsequent total loss relieves the insurer from all liability to average.

The laws and customs by which averages are adjusted vary in different countries; but the insurer in this country is only liable for the averages adjusted according to our laws. The merchant, however, whose goods arrive at a foreign port, is obliged to submit to the laws of that port. He may thus be a considerable loser; paying general average according to one law, and receiving from his insurer according to another. And he never can be a gainer, because, before he is entitled to recover from his insurer, he must prove that he has paid to the owner of the ship. This is one of the many inconveniences to which mercantile men are exposed, which cannot be removed without, what it may be hoped will gradually take place, an assimilation of the commercial laws of different countries.

Proof of Loss. — The policy of insurance is the instrument under which the merchant and ship owner claim indemnification for all losses that are not specially excepted. The proof that the loss has been sustained must also be exhibited; such as the title to the vessel and cargo, and the evidence of the captain and crew to establish the circumstances out of which the claim arises. If A. were to insure his vessel for the space of 12 months, and at the expiration of 6 months were to sell his ship to B.; A.'s interest in the vessel having ceased, so also does his insurer's liability; and B., if he wish to be protected, must make a new insurance. Proof of ownership, therefore, is an essential preliminary to the recovery of a claim. In general practice, no difficulty arises from this, because the fact of ownership is sufficiently notorious. The bill of lading is, in most cases, satisfactory proof that the cargo was on board, as well as of the amount of freight.

Valued and open Policies. — If an insurance for 2,000*l.* be effected upon 100 hhds. of sugar, valued at 20*l.* per hhd., the bill of lading, showing that the vessel had 100 hhds. on board, establishes the interest at 2,000*l.*, and the policy is termed a valued policy. But if an insurance for 2,000*l.* be effected on 100 hhds. of sugar, and nothing be expressed as to value, the bill of lading only establishes that 100 hhds. are on board, without establishing the amount of interest. The production of the invoice, showing the cost of the goods, is necessary to that end, the policy being termed an open one.

Return of Premium for short Interest. — In a valued policy, when the whole of the property insured does not appear to have been shipped, the difference between the quantity insured and the quantity shipped is termed short interest. Thus, if 2,000*l.* be insured upon 100 hhds. of sugar, valued at 20*l.* per hhd., and 80 hhds. only be shipped; as the insurer's liability does not extend beyond 1,600*l.*, so he is obliged to return the premium upon 400*l.* to which no risk attaches. This return of premium is called a return for short interest.

For Over-Insurance. — In an open policy, where the value shipped is not equal to the value insured, the difference is termed over-insurance. If a merchant, A., make an insurance for 5,000*l.* upon goods, without specifying any value, from Calcutta to London, the premium being 5*l.* and the stamp duty 5*l.* per cent., the amount of interest that attaches to the policy is so fixed, that he is neither to gain nor lose by the transaction in the event of the vessel's loss, supposing his insurance to be sufficient. To entitle him to recover a profit, the profit to be insured must be stipulated in the policy. The expense of insurance upon 100*l.* being 3*l.*, it is clear that every 100*l.* insurance covers 9*l.* 15*s.* original cost; that is to say, protects the merchant from loss to that extent in case of the loss of the vessel. If, then, we assume the invoice of the goods shipped to be 4,000 rupees, or, at the exchange of 2*s.* per rupee, 4,000*l.*, the interest attaching to the policy is ascertained as follows: — If 9*l.* 15*s.* cost is insured by 100*l.* insurance, what will 4,000*l.* cost be insured by? Answer, 4,135*l.* Under such circumstances, although a policy exists for 5000*l.*, the insured is not able to prove interest for more than 4,135*l.*; and consequently, the insured being entitled to recover no more than that sum in case of loss, the insurer is called upon to make a return of premium for over-insurance upon 865*l.*

Although we have treated separately of returns for short interest and over-insurance, we should observe that these terms in practice are used indiscriminately; and, indeed, we cannot say that we perceive much advantage in making the distinction, or preserving the distinctive appellations.

It sometimes happens that the property expected in a vessel is not all insured at one time or in one policy. But this makes no difference in the principle of settlement according to our law; although, according to the laws of most other countries, the policies take precedence of one another according to their dates, the whole short interest falling upon the policy or policies last effected. The foreign law, in this instance, appears to us the more equitable and reasonable of the two; and that our reason for thinking so may be intelligible, and thus gain assent or meet with refutation, we shall state a case of short interest upon a number of policies, such as is not unfrequently appears. A merchant, A., orders his correspondent at Calcutta to ship for him a quantity of sugar, not exceeding 1,000 tons, at a price not exceeding 20*l.* per ton. In due time he receives a letter from his correspondent acknowledging the receipt of his order, and expressing confident hopes of being able to purchase the quantity, or the greater part of it, at the limits prescribed, and promising to advise as he proceeds. A., on receipt of this letter, says on the 1st of January, makes a provisional insurance for 5,000*l.* upon sugar valued at 20*l.* per ton. Continuing without further orders, and feeling that his correspondent's letter should have miscarried, and that the cargo had have property afloat uninsured, on the 1st of February, 1st of March, and 1st of April, he effects similar

insurances, thus covering the whole 1,000 tons. He subsequently receives advice that his correspondent had not been able to purchase more than half the quantity ordered, at his limit, and he recovers from his insurers half the premium upon each policy. Now, it was not at all improbable that he might have received advice from his correspondent, as he expected, sooner. And if he had received such advice in the middle of February, of the shipment of 800 tons, and that the ship which contained them was totally lost in the river Hooghly, the insurers upon the two first policies would have been liable for a total loss. And it appears to us a defective arrangement, by which a party, who is at one time exposed to a total loss, should at another be compelled to return half his premium. It is true that the merchant may, if he please, insert in his policies a clause by which the policies shall be made to succeed one another; but we should say that the law, in insurance cases, as in the disposal of the property of deceased persons, ought to be the best general disposition, leaving to individuals the right of modification according to particular circumstances.

Returns for Double Insurance.— Besides returns for short interest and over-insurance, there are returns for double insurance. They are, in fact, to all intents and purposes, the same thing. Double insurance exists where the party, through forgetfulness, makes an insurance upon his property twice over; or where the shippers and consignees of goods, when uncertain of one another's intentions, effect each an insurance upon them; or where the captain of a vessel in foreign parts, fearing lest his advices should not reach his owners, effects an insurance upon it, and the owner at the same time, acting with equal caution, effects one also. The observations already made upon returns for short interest, and upon the difference between our laws and those of other countries, apply with equal force here.

We have now gone over all the principal topics connected with marine insurance. Those whom peruse this article with ordinary attention will, we hope, gain a tolerably clear insight into the principles and practice of the business. But a perfectly familiar acquaintance with it can only be acquired by those who are daily conversant with its details.

Duty on Policies of Marine Insurance.— This is regulated by the act of 1844, 7 Vict. c. 21.

For every policy of assurance or insurance, or other instrument, whereby any insurance shall be made upon any vessel, or upon goods, or other property on board any vessel, or upon the freight of any vessel, or upon any other interest relating to any vessel which may lawfully be insured for any voyage whatever, the following duties, where the whole sum insured shall not exceed 100*l.*, and where the whole sum insured shall exceed 100*l.*, then for every 100*l.*, and also for any fractional part of 100*l.*, whereof the same shall contain a

Where the premium or consideration for such insurance shall not exceed the rate of 1 <i>l.</i> per cent on the sum insured -	0	0	3
And where the same shall exceed 10 <i>l.</i> per cent, and not exceed 2 <i>l.</i> -	0	0	6
2 <i>l.</i> , and not exceeding 3 <i>l.</i> -	0	1	0
3 <i>l.</i> , and not exceeding 4 <i>l.</i> -	0	1	6
4 <i>l.</i> , and not exceeding 5 <i>l.</i> -	1	3	0
5 <i>l.</i> -	1	3	6

But if the separate interests of 2 or more persons be insured by one policy or instrument, then the said respective duties, as the case may require, shall be charged thereon in respect of each fractional part of 100*l.*, as well as in respect of every full sum of 100*l.*, which shall be thereby insured upon any separate and distinct interests.

And for every policy of assurance or insurance, or other instrument, whereby any such insurance shall be made for any certain term or period of time, the following rates for every 100*l.*, and also for any fractional part of 100*l.*, whereof the same shall contain, viz.—

Where any such insurance shall be made for any period not exceeding 6 calendar months -	0	6	6
Exceeding 6 calendar months -	0	4	0

And for every policy of assurance or insurance, or other instrument, whereby any insurance, commonly called a *mutual insurance*, shall be made, or whereby three persons shall insure or agree to insure one another without any premium or pecuniary consideration from any loss, damage, or misfortune that may happen to any vessel, or any goods, or property

This duty was reduced in 1833, and again in 1844, and is now less than half what it was formerly. This reduction must, of course, be beneficial. But the tax is altogether wrong in principle, and should be repealed altogether. Its obvious tendency is to discourage the coasting trade, by imposing a duty on goods carried by sea, from which those carried by land and canals are exempted. But the influence of the tax on vessels engaged in the foreign or colonial trade is still more objectionable. It is immaterial to a merchant sending a ship to sea, whether he insure her in London, Amsterdam, or Hamburg; and as policies executed in the last two cities are either wholly exempted from duties, or subject to such as are merely nominal, the effect of the duty is to transfer to the Continent a considerable part of the business of marine insurance, that would otherwise be transacted in London. It is plain, therefore, that this duty operates to drive a valuable branch of business from amongst us; and though it had no such effect, still it is sufficiently clear that a tax on prudence, or on the endeavour to guarantee the safety of property at sea, is not one that ought to exist in any country, and least of all in so commercial a country as England.*

Form of a Policy of Insurance executed at Lloyd's.

S. G. *Is* *the* *Name* *of* *the* *Insured*, *Ames*, *Charles* *Brown* *and* *Co.*, *as* *well* *in* *their* *own* *names* *as* *for* *and* *in* *the* *name* *and* *names* *of* *all* *and* *every* *other* *person* *or* *persons* *to* *whom* *the* *same* *doth*, *may*, *or* *shall* *hereafter*, *in* *part* *or* *in* *all*, *doth* *take* *assurance*, *and* *cause* *themselves* *and* *them* *and* *every* *of* *them* *to* *be* *insured*, *lost* *or* *not*, *in* *all*, *both* *risks* *assurance*, *and* *sure* *to* *any* *port* *or* *ports* *in* *the* *United* *Kingdom*, *upon* *any* *kind* *of* *goods* *and* *merchandise*, *and* *also* *upon* *the* *body*, *tackle*, *apparel*, *ordnance*, *muniti-*
on, *artillery*, *boat*, *and* *other* *furniture*, *of* *and* *in* *the* *good* *ship* *or* *vessel* *called* *the* *Swift*, *whereof* *S. G.* *is* *master*, *and* *in* *charge*, *for* *this* *present* *voyage*, *and* *whenever* *else* *shall* *go* *for* *matter* *in* *the* *said* *ship*, *or* *by* *whichever* *other* *name* *or* *names* *the* *said* *ship*, *or* *the* *master* *thereof*, *is* *or* *shall* *be* *named* *or* *called*; *beginning* *the* *adventure* *upon* *the* *said* *goods* *and*

party on board of any vessel, or the freight of any vessel, or any other interest relating to any vessel which may lawfully be insured upon, and for whatever, and not for any period of time.

For every 100*l.*, and also for each fractional part of 100*l.*, thereby insured to any person or persons - 0 0 6

If any person shall become an insurer upon any insurance, or shall receive or take credit in account for any such premium or consideration, or any sum of money for any such premium or consideration, as aforesaid, or shall wilfully or knowingly, six months upon himself any risk, or tender himself liable to pay, or shall pay, or allow or agree to pay, or allow in account or otherwise, any sum of money upon any loss, peril, or contingency relating to any such insurance, unless such shall be written in a bill, parchment, or paper duly stamped, or if any person be concerned in any fraudulent contrivance or device, or shall be guilty of any wilful act, neglect, or omission with intent to evade the duties payable under this act on policies of insurance, or whereby any such duties shall be evaded, every person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit 100*l.*; provided, that nothing herein shall extend to exempt any member, officer, or servant of the London Assurance or Royal Exchange Assurance Corporation respectively to any of the penalties by this act imposed, for his making any agreement to insure any label, bill, or memorandum in writing upon unstamped paper; provided, that in every such case the day on which such agreement shall be made shall be truly expressed in words at length on such label, slip, or memorandum, and a policy of insurance according to such agreement shall be made out in due form on vellum, parchment, or paper duly stamped, and which shall be duly executed within 3 office days from the time of making such agreement.

merchandise from the loading thereof on board the said ship, and so shall continue and endure during her abode there upon the said ship, &c. And further, until the said ship, with all her ordnance, tackle, apparel, &c. and all her merchandises whatsoever, shall be arrived at her final port of discharge (as aforesaid), upon the said ship, &c., until she hath moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good safety; and upon the goods and merchandises, until the same be there discharged and safely landed. And it shall be lawful for the said ship, &c. in this voyage, to proceed and sail to, and touch, and stay at any ports or places whatsoever, without prejudice to this insurance, and the said ship, &c. goods and merchandises, &c. for so much as con-

* This very valuable article (on Marine Insurance) has been, as the reader will easily perceive, furnished by a gentleman thoroughly conversant with the principles and details of the business.

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cerns the assured, by agreement between the assured and insurers in this policy, and shall be valued at eight hundred pounds, being on the captain's one fourth share of said cargo, and on the fourth share valued at that sum. Touching the adventures and perils which we the insurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this vessel: they are of the seas, men-of-war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, privateers, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrests, restraints, and detentions of all kings, princes, and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever; barratry of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of any part thereof: offences against the revenue of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, or Ireland, committed by the assured, their factors, servants, and assigns, to sue, labour, and travel for, in, and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the said goods and merchandise and ship, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to this insurance; to the charges whereof we the insurers will contribute, each one according to the rate and quantity of his sum herein assured. And it is agreed by us, the insurers, that this writing, or policy of insurance,

shall be of as much force and effect as the original writing or policy of insurance hereof made in Lombard Street, or in the Royal Exchange, or elsewhere in London. And so we the insurers are contented, and do hereby promise and bind ourselves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods to the assured, their executors, administrators, and assigns, for the true performance of the premises: confiding ourselves paid the consideration due unto us for this assurance by the assured, at and after the rate of five guineas per cent, to return one pound per cent. if the voyage end on the east coast of England.
In Witness whereof, we the insurers, have subscribed our names and seals assured in London.
N. B. — Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seeds, are warranted free from average, unless general, and the ship be stranded.—Sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins are warranted free from average under five pounds per cent. and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average under three pounds per cent, unless general, or the ship be stranded.
J. M. Joseph White, Five hundred pounds. 1st of Sept. 1843.
J. M. Thomas Black by George Green, Three hundred pounds. 1st of Sept. 1843.

Policy by the Indemnity Mutual Marine Assurance Company. Established 1824.

£5,000.

WHEREAS William Grey hath represented to us whose hands and seals are hereunto subscribed and affixed, and who are two of the directors of the INDIGNITY MUTUAL MARINE ASSURANCE COMPANY, that he is interested in, or duly authorized as owner, agent, or otherwise, to make the assurance hereinafter mentioned and described, with the INDIGNITY MUTUAL MARINE ASSURANCE COMPANY, and hath covenanted or otherwise obliged himself to pay forthwith for the use of the said Company, at the office of the said Company, the sum of sixty-two pounds ten shillings as a premium or consideration, at and after the rate of twenty-five shillings per cent. for such assurance. NOW THIS POLICY OF ASSURANCE WITNESSETH, that in consideration of the premises and of the receipt of the said sixty-two pounds ten shillings, We do, for ourselves and each of us, covenant and agree with the said William Grey, his executors, administrators, and assigns, that the capital stock and funds of the said Company, shall, according to the provisions of the deed of settlement of the said Company, and the resolutions entered into at two extraordinary general courts of the said Company held on the twenty-ninth day of August, and the thirtieth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven, be subject and liable to pay and make good, and shall be applied to pay and make good all such losses and damages hereinafter expressed as may happen to the subject matter of this assurance, and may attach to this policy in respect of the sum of five thousand pounds hereby assured, which assurance is hereby declared to be upon

Stamp
26. 5s.



1/250. 250 hds. of sugar valued at 20l. each, average payable upon each 10 hds. following landing numbers, the same as if separately insured, laden or to be laden on board the ship or vessel called the Nelly, whereof Turner is at present master, or whoever shall go for master of the said ship or vessel, lost or not lost, at and from Grenada to London, including the risk of craft to and from the vessel, warranted to sail on or before the 1st of August, 1842. AND We do covenant and agree, that the assurance aforesaid shall commence upon the said ship, at and from Grenada, and until she hath moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good safety; and upon the freight and goods or merchandise on board thereof, from the loading of the said goods or merchandise on board the said ship or vessel at London, and until the said goods or merchandise be discharged and safely landed at. AND that it shall be lawful for the said ship or vessel to proceed and sail to, and anchor, and stay at any ports or places whatsoever, in the course of her said voyage, for all necessary purposes, without prejudice to this assurance. AND touching the adventures and perils which the capital stock and funds of the said Company are made liable unto, or are intended to be made liable unto, by this assurance, they are, of the seas, men-of-war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrests, restraints, and detentions of all kings, princes, and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever; barratry of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the aforesaid subject matter of this assurance, or any part thereof. AND in case of any loss or misfortune, it shall be lawful to the assured, their factors, servants, and assigns, to sue, labour, and travel for, in, and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the aforesaid subject matter of this assurance, or any part thereof, without prejudice to this assurance, the charges whereof the capital stock and funds of the said Company shall bear in proportion to the sum hereby assured. AND it is declared and agreed, that corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour and seed, shall be and are warranted free from average unless general, or the ship be stranded; and that sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, shall be and are warranted free from average under five pounds per centum; that all other goods, also the ship and freight, shall be and are warranted free from average under three pounds per centum, unless general, or the ship be stranded. PROVIDED NEVERTHELESS, that the capital stock and funds of the said Company shall alone be liable, according to the provisions of the deed of settlement, and the resolutions aforesaid, to answer and make good all claims and demands whatsoever, under or by virtue of this policy; and that no proprietor of the said Company, his or her heir, executors or administrators, shall be in anywise subject or liable to any claims or demands, nor be in anywise charged by reason of this policy beyond the amount of his or her share or shares in the capital stock of the said Company, it being one of the original or fundamental principles of the said Company, that the responsibility of the individual proprietors shall, in all cases, be limited to their respective shares in the said capital stock.

IN WITNESS whereof, We have hereunto set our hands and seals in London, the tenth day of January, 1843.
Sealed and delivered } A. B. (L. S.)
in the presence of } C. D. (L. S.)
E. F.

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III. INSURANCE (FIRE).

Insurance against fire is a contract of indemnity, by which the insurer, in consideration of a certain premium received by him, either in a gross sum or by annual payments, undertakes to indemnify the insured against all loss or damage he may sustain in his houses or other buildings, stock, goods, and merchandise, by fire, during a specified period.

Insurances against fire are hardly ever made by individuals, but almost always by joint stock companies, of which there are several in all the considerable towns throughout the empire. Of these, the *Sun, Phoenix, &c.* insure at their own risk and for their own profit; but there are others, which are called mutual insurance offices, such as the Norwich Union, County, Westminster, &c. in which every person insured becomes a member or proprietor, and participates in the profit or loss of the concern.

The conditions on which the different offices insure are contained in their proposals, which are printed on the back of every policy; and it is in most instances expressly conditioned, that they undertake to pay the loss, not exceeding the sum insured, "according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals."

Nothing can be recovered from the insurers, in the event of loss, unless the party insuring had an interest or property in the thing insured at the time when the insurance was effected, and when the loss happened. It often occurs that no one office will insure to the full amount required by an individual who has a large property; and in such a case the party, to cover his whole interest, is obliged to insure at different offices. But, in order to prevent the frauds that might be practised by insuring the full value in various offices, there is, in the proposals issued by all the companies, an article which declares, that persons insuring must give notice of any other insurance made elsewhere upon the same houses or goods, that the same may be specified and allowed by indorsement on the policy, in order that each office may bear its rateable proportion of any loss that may happen; and unless such notice be given of each insurance to the office where another insurance is made on the same effects, the insurance made without such notice will be void.

Any trustee, mortgagee, reverser, factor, or agent, has sufficient interest in the goods under his custody, to effect a policy of insurance, provided the nature of such interest be distinctly specified at the time of executing such policy.

Most of the offices stipulate in their proposals against making good any loss occasioned by "Invasion," "foreign enemy," "civil commotion," &c.; and under this condition the Sun Fire Office was exonerated from the loss occasioned by the unsuccessful proceedings of the mob in 1780.

One of the principal conditions in the proposals has reference to the proof of loss. The Sun Fire Office — (see post), and most other offices, make it a condition, that the individual claiming shall "procure a certificate, under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish or place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured or claiming; and do know, or verily believe, that he, she, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, to the value therein mentioned." This condition has given rise to a great deal of discussion in the courts; but it has been finally decided, that the procuring of the certificate is a condition precedent to the payment of any loss, and that its being *wrongfully refused will not excuse the want of it.*

The risk commences in general from the signing of the policy, unless there be some other time specified. Policies of insurance may be annual, or for a term of years at an annual premium; and it is usual for the office, by way of indulgence, to allow fifteen days after each year for the payment of the premium for the next year in succession; and provided the premium be paid within that time, the insured is considered as within the protection of the office.

A policy of insurance is not in its nature assignable, nor can it be transferred without the express consent of the office. When, however, any person dies, his interest remains in his executors or administrators respectively, who succeed or become entitled to the property, provided such representatives respectively procure their right to be indorsed on the policy.

(For further details, see *Marshall on Insurance*, book 1v. c. 23.)

Insurances are generally divided into *common, hazardous, and doubly hazardous.* The distinguishing characteristics of these may be learned from the subjoined proposals of the Sun Fire Office. The charge for insuring property of the first description is now usually 1s. 6d. per cent., the second 2s. 6d., and the third 4s. 6d. These charges are exclusive of the duty payable to government, of 1s. on the policy, and 3s. per cent. on the sum in the policy.

We subjoin a copy of a policy of insurance on a house valued at 1,000*l.* and furniture, plate, books, &c. in the same, valued also at 1,000*l.*, executed by the Sun Fire Office, and of the proposals indorsed on the same. The latter correspond in most particulars with those issued by the other offices.

SUN FIRE ASSURANCE OFFICE.

Received, for the Insurance of
the property underindorsed,
from Michs. 1842 to Michs. 1843.

Policy	-	-	0	0	0
Annual Premium	-	1	0	3	
Odd Time	-	-	0	0	0

SUN FIRE OFFICE.

Annual Duty	-	-	1	8	6
Odd Time	-	-	0	0	0
Total present payment	£	2	8	9	

No. —

WHEREAS A. B. Esq. of No. — Street, has paid the sum stated in the margin of this policy to the Society of the Sun Fire Office in London, and has agreed to pay, or cause to be paid to them, at their said office, the sum of one pound and three pence on the 26th of September yearly, during the continuance of this policy, for insurance from loss, or damage by fire, on his own household goods, wearing apparel, printed books, and plate in his now dwelling-house only, situate as aforesaid, brick, seven hundred and forty pounds; musical instruments therein only, forty pounds; pictures and prints therein only, sixty pounds; china and glass therein only, one hundred and ten pounds.

Now, KNOW YE, that from the date of these presents, and so long as the said assured shall duly pay, or cause to be paid, the said sum at the times and place aforesaid; and the trustees or acting members of the said Society for the time being, shall agree to accept the same; and the stock and fund of the said Society shall be subject and liable to pay to the said assured, his executors, administrators, and assigns, all such damage and loss which the said assured shall suffer by fire, not exceeding upon each head of insurance, the sum or sums above-mentioned, amounting in the whole to no more than nine hundred and fifty pounds, according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals, endorsed on this policy, and of an act of parliament of the 55th of George the Third, for charging a duty on persons whose property shall be insured against loss by fire. IN WITNESS whereof, we (three of the trustees or acting members for the said Society) have hereunto set our hands and seals, the 1st day of November, 1842.

Signed and sealed (being stamped
according to act of parliament)
in the presence of
G. H.

A. B.
C. D.
E. F.

INSURANCE (FIRE).

751

N. B. — The interest in this policy may be transferred by indorsement, made and entered at the office if the trustees or acting members approve thereof, but not otherwise.

(INDORSEMENT ON THE POLICY.) SUN FIRE OFFICE.

This office insures against loss or damage by fire, in (Great Britain and Ireland, and also in foreign countries, all descriptions of buildings, including mills and manufactories, and goods, wares, and merchandise, in the same; ships in harbour, or in dock; craft on navigable rivers and canals; and the goods laden on the same; wagons travelling the roads, and their contents; and farming stock of all descriptions, upon the following terms and conditions:—

Common Insurances.

1. Buildings covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and built in all styles with brick or stone, or separated by party-walls of brick or stone, and wherein no hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on, or hazardous goods deposited.
2. Houses in buildings as above described, such as household goods, plate, jewels in private use, apparel, and printed books; figures in private use, merchandise, stock and utensils in trade, not hazardous.

At 1s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Hazardous Insurances.

1. Buildings of timber or plaster, or wholly separated by partition-walls of brick or stone, or not covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and thatched barns and out-houses having no chimney, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney; and buildings falling under the description of common insurances, but in which hazardous goods are deposited or some hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on.
2. Ships and craft, and with their contents (hull barges, with their contents, alone excepted).

At 2s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Doubtful Hazardous Insurances.

1. Buildings.—All thatched buildings having chimneys, or communicating with, or adjoining to buildings having one, although no hazardous trade shall be carried on, nor hazardous goods deposited therein, and no hazardous trades in which hazardous goods are deposited, or hazardous trades carried on.
2. Houses.—All hazardous goods deposited in hazardous buildings, and in thatched buildings having no chimney, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney.

At 3s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions. Agricultural produce, farm-stocks, and implements and utensils of husbandry, on any farm may be insured, without the average clause, at 2s. per cent. exempt from duty, provided it is insured to a fair average value. This office will not be subject to loss by explosion of any kind, nor for loss on goods or utensils damaged or destroyed whilst undergoing any process in which the application of fire-heat is necessary, nor will the office be liable for loss on hay, corn, seeds, or other property, occasioned by its own natural heating, but the loss on any property in consequence, (except that which, by its own natural heating, has been the cause of the fire), will be made good; as well as losses from lightning, where the buildings, or other effects insured, have been actually set on fire thereby.

Insurances may also be made by special agreement on the following risks, and on others of a similar description, not mentioned under the 1st and 2d heads of insurance, viz. on mills of all kinds, and the stock and utensils therein; also on buildings, containing kiln, steam-engine, stove, or oven, used in the process of any manufacture; and the stock therein; sugar refiners, sea biscuit bakers, distillers, varnish makers, chemists' laboratories, theatres, coach painters, colour manufacturers, varnishers, musical instrument makers, refiners of saltpetre, spermaceti, wax, and oil, barge and boat builders, carpenters, cabinet makers, coach makers, coopers, cork burners, floor-slab painters, Japanese, lampblack makers, letter-press printers, machine makers, melters of tallow and of rough fat, candle makers, cart-grease makers, oilmen, soap-boilers, rope and sail makers, ship chandlers, henn and flax dressers, oil leather dressers, metals, curiosities, pictures, prints, drawings, statuary work, splinters of cotton, flax, lint, and wool, throughout all the operations attending the manufacturing of these materials, from the raw state into thread for the weaver, and such other risks as, by reason of the nature of the trade, the narrowness of the situation, or other dangerous circumstances, may increase the hazard thereof; all which special hazards must be inserted in the policy, to render the same valid and in force.

N. B. — Gunpowder, and buildings in which it is made, cannot be insured on any terms; neither does this office insure bills, or any other securities for money.

N. B. — By an act of the 55th of His M. a duty of 3s. per annum is to be levied on every 100*l.* of property insured against fire; but by an act of the 3d & 4th Will. 4, agricultural produce, farming stock, and implements and utensils of husbandry, are exempt from duty.

N. B. — Persons may insure for more years than one, and in such cases there will be a discount allowed of 5 per cent. per annum, compound interest, on the premium and duty for every year except the first.

N. B. — Rent may be insured by special agreement for a term

Insurance of Mills, Factories, &c. — The principal insurance offices agreed, in 1842, upon certain rates for the insurance of cotton, woollen, flax, and other mills and factories. We subjoin a table of the rates for cotton mills; but the others are too voluminous, and embrace too many particulars to be given in this place. The rates for woollen mills may, however, be considered as varying from 5*l.* to 7*l.* 6*d.* per cent.; and those for flax mills are not materially different.

not exceeding 1 year, the amount being specified in the policy. Persons insured in this office are not liable for any calls to make good losses.

Conditions.

Art. I. — Any person desirous of effecting insurances upon buildings or goods must furnish the office, or its agents, with a particular description thereof, and of the process of manufacture carried on (if any) and if there be any omission or misrepresentation in describing the building or goods, or process of manufacture, whereby the same may be charged at a different rate of premium than they otherwise would be, this office will not be responsible in case of any loss or damage. And if any alteration be made in the state of the building or goods, or process of manufacture, after such insurance shall have been effected, then the insured shall give due notice thereof, in writing, to the office or its agents, or in default of such notice, such insurance shall become void, and no benefit be derived therefrom.

Art. II. — All policies shall be signed and sealed by three or more trustees or acting members; and no receipts are to be taken for any premium of insurance, but such as are printed and issued from the office, and witnessed by one of its clerks or agents.

Art. III. — Houses, buildings, and goods in trust, and merchandise as commission (except as aforesaid), may be insured, provided the same are declared in the policy to be in trust or on commission, but not otherwise.

Art. IV. — On re-paying policies, all persons shall pay the premium for the next quarter day, and from thence for every year more at least, or shall make a deposit for the same, and shall, as long as the managers agree to accept the same, and all future payments annually at the said office, within fifteen days after the day limited by their respective policies, upon forfeiture of the benefit thereof.

Art. V. — Any number of houses and out-houses, and household goods, printed books, wearing apparel, plate, prints, jewels, and trinkets in private use, stock in trade, goods in trust, or on commission, may be insured in one policy.

Art. VI. — Persons insured by this office shall receive no benefit from their policies, if the same houses or goods are insured in any other office, unless such insurance, and the amount thereof, be first specified and allowed by the Indorsement on the policy, in which case this office will pay its rateable proportion on any loss or damage.

Art. VII. — When any person dies, the policy and interest therein shall continue to the heir, executor, or administrator; respectively, to whom the right of the property insured shall belong, provided, before any new payment is made, such heir, executor, or administrator do procure his or her rights to be indorsed on the policy at the said office, or the premium to be paid in the name of the said heir, executor, or administrator.

Art. VIII. — Persons changing their habitations or warehouses may preserve the benefit of their policies, if the nature and circumstance of such policy be not altered; but such insurance will be of no force till such removal or alteration is allowed at the office, by indorsement on the policy.

Art. IX. — No loss or damage will be paid on fire happening by any invasion, foreign enemy, civil commotion, or any military or usurped power whatsoever.

Art. X. — Persons insured sustaining any loss or damage by fire are forthwith to give notice thereof at the office; and, as soon as possible afterwards, deliver in as particular an account of their loss or damage as the nature of the case will admit of, and make proof of the same by their oath or affirmation, according to the form prescribed in the said office, and by their books of accounts, or such other proper vouchers as shall be reasonably required, and procure a certificate under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish or place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured or claiming; and do know, or verily believe, that he, she, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, to the value therein mentioned. And till the affidavit and certificate of such the insured's loss shall be made and produced, the loss money shall not be payable. And, if there appear any fraud or false swearing, or if the fire shall have happened by the procurement, or wilful act, means, or contribution of the insured or claimants, he, she, or they shall be excluded from all benefit from their policies. And in case any difference shall arise between the officers of the insured, touching any loss or damage, such difference shall be submitted to the judgment and determination of arbitrators indifferently chosen, whose award in writing shall be conclusive and binding on all parties.

N. B. — In every case of loss the Company reserves the right of re-claiming in preference to the payment of claims, if it should judge the former course to be more expedient; but when any loss is settled and adjusted, as insured, or when immediate payment for the same, without any deduction or discount; and will not be liable to any covenants or calls for contribution to make good losses.

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Scale of Premiums for Cotton Mills.

Description of Mills.	Fire-proof. A separate sum on each Floor, or subject to average.	Not Fire-proof.		
		Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.
		Not spinning lower than 50%.	Not spinning lower than 50%.	Spinning lower than 50%.
<i>Cotton Mills conforming to the following Description, viz.</i>				
1. Built of brick or stone, and covered with slate, tile, or metal	-	-	-	-
2. In one tenure only	-	-	-	-
3. Heated by steam	-	-	-	-
4. The boiler and fire-place being outside the mill	-	-	-	-
5. Lighted by gas	-	-	-	-
6. No internal communication by hoists, spouts, well-holes, or otherwise through the floors	-	-	-	-
7. Working single time only	-	-	-	-
8. All the processes previous to carding being performed in a building having an incombustible roof, which, whether detached from the mill or adjoining to it, shall not have any direct communication therewith, other than by an external fire-proof passage, of not less than 10 ft. in length, with a wrought-iron door at each end thereof, and by openings for the shaft and steam pipes (not exceeding 3 in. each in diameter). If detached, not having any opening in the wall of the blowing-house opposite to that of the mill, except the doorway before mentioned; and if adjoining, not having any windows in the mill overlooking the same, or any windows in the blowing-house walls, so as to endanger the mill	10s. 6d.	12s.	14s.	16s.
9. Not spinning waste, other than that produced by the occupier of the mill	-	-	-	-
10. Not containing more than 6 floors in height, including basement and attics	-	-	-	-
* In fire-proof mills, the floors occupied for any process previous to spinning, or otherwise subject to extra charge, will be rated as mills of ordinary construction.				
<i>Mills not conforming to the above Description will be charged in addition to the above, viz.</i>				
As to No. 1. If in occupation of two tenants	-	5s.	6s.	5s. special
As to No. 2. If heated otherwise than by steam	-	2s.	3s.	2s.
As to No. 4. If the boiler or fire-place is within the mill	-	2s.	3s.	2s.
As to No. 5. If lighted otherwise than by gas	-	2s.	3s.	2s.
As to No. 6. If having therein any hoist, wall-hole, spout, or other communication through the floors of the mill	-	2s.	3s.	2s.
As to No. 7. If working more than single time	-	2s.	3s.	2s.
As to No. 8. If any of the processes previous to carding be performed in a fire-proof building adjoining to the mill, and communicating with it by a stone staircase, having wrought-iron doors only, set in stone or metal, and by apertures for shaft and steam-pipe as aforesaid	-	2s.	4s.	6s.
As to No. 8. If any of the processes previous to carding be performed in a fire-proof building adjoining to the mill, and communicating by wrought-iron doors as above, and by apertures for shaft and steam-pipe as aforesaid	-	3s.	6s.	7s.
As to No. 8. If any of the processes previous to carding be performed in a fire-proof room within the mill, communicating by wrought-iron doors, and apertures for shaft and steam-pipe as aforesaid	-	3s.	6s.	7s.
As to No. 9. If spinning bought flyings or strippings	-	1s.	2s.	2s.
As to No. 10. If containing more than 6 floors in height, including basement and attics	-	1s. special	2s. special	2s. special

N. B. — In fire proof mills with a sum issued on each floor, the extra charge for height will only apply to the stories above six.

Blowing-houses, &c. — Buildings in which any process preparatory to carding is carried on, to be charged the maximum rate according to the number of bales to the pound to be spun from the cotton prepared in them.

Mills any denominating fire-proof in the construction of which no timber is used, except in the roof. If any part of the mill has a wooden flooring, that story is to be charged at the rate of mill of ordinary construction.

Cotton mills having more than two tenants, or otherwise not included in the above several classifications, will be considered special.

The above rates are to be applied to all existing insurances as they become due, as well as to new orders.

And as it is the intention of the company not to exceed the sum of £ upon any one mill and its contents, col-

lectively, the agent will be careful not to exceed that sum, whether by one or more policies, without special authority.

To carry these regulations into effect with existing insurances, it will be expedient that, instead of renewing old policies, the agent should give timely notice that existing policies are not to be renewed, and that the 15 days grace do not attach thereto, and he should send up instructions for new ones, in conformity herewith; receiving from the assured a proper deposit, to protect him in the mean time.

Power-loom factories. — Detached, brick-built and tiled or slated, heated by steam, in single tenure, 7s. 6d. per cent. per annum.

If adjoining to, but not communicating with, a cotton mill, it will be subject to three quarters of the rate of the adjoining mill.

If communicating with a cotton mill, it will be subject to the same rate as the mill.

Amount of Property Insured. Duty. — Insurance against fire, though practised in France, Holland, and some other countries, is not general any where except in Great Britain. It has been known amongst us for a century and a half, and is now very widely extended. It appears from the official accounts, that the gross duty received on policies of insurance against fire in the United Kingdom, in 1842, amounted to 966,480l., which, taking the duty, including hazardous insurances, at 3s. 6d. per cent., shows that the property insured was valued at the immense sum of 863,668,571l. But notwithstanding the magnitude of this sum, it is still true that most buildings are not insured up to their full value; even in towns, many are not insured at all; and in the country it is far from being customary to insure farm buildings or barn-yards. It is difficult to imagine that this can be owing to any thing other than the exorbitance of the duty. On common risks the duty is no less than 200 per cent. upon the premium; or, in other words, if a person pay to an insurance office 10s. for insuring 1,000l. worth of property, he must at the same time pay a duty of 30s. to government! On hazardous and doubly hazardous risks, the duty varies from about 120 to 75 and 80 per cent. upon the premium. Such a duty is in the last degree oppressive and impolitic. There cannot, in fact, be the slightest doubt that, were it reduced, as it ought to be, to one third its present amount, the business of insurance would be very much extended; and as it could not be extended without an increase of security and without lessening the injurious consequences arising from the casualties to which property is exposed, the reduction of the duty would be productive of the best consequences in a public point of view; while the increase of business would prevent the revenue from being materially diminished.

During the session of 1833, the duty on the insurance of farming stock was repealed. But the relief thence arising is immaterial; and the repeal is, besides, highly objectionable in point of principle, inasmuch as there is no ground whatever for exempting farming stock from duty in preference to any other description of stock. A duty on insurance is not, in itself, objectionable. We do not wish to see it repealed, but to have it effectually reduced. Were it fixed at 1s. per cent., it would hardly be felt as a burden; while the revenue would suffer little or nothing from the measure.

INSURANCE (LIFE).

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Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances paid by the different London Offices, during each of the Nine Years ending with 1842.

Offices.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Alliance	21,034	22,008	24,146	25,797	25,064	25,519	26,213	26,731	25,391
Atlas	21,308	22,008	25,468	27,000	26,090	25,191	25,697	26,731	25,774
Benovolent (discon.)	-	-	-	-	12	52	11	11*	-
British (discon.)	16,428	17,475	17,940	17,446	16,319	16,548	16,477	15,375	16,147
Church of England	40,471	42,817	44,407	44,301	46,268	46,099	45,481	46,160	45,465
English and Scotch Farmers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	538	1,567
Globe	27,355	28,268	29,525	29,810	31,037	32,380	32,446	33,205	32,497
Guarantee	22,114	22,276	22,924	22,689	22,640	24,316	25,218	25,214	27,181
Hand-in-Hand	20,950	11,166	11,178	10,617	10,591	10,293	11,018	11,063	11,982
Imperial	27,020	27,379	27,483	27,708	28,500	28,291	28,109	28,208	28,620
Independent and West Middlesex (discon.)	-	-	87	809	1,789	2,071	1,239	-	6,269
Licensed Victuallers	-	-	1,499	3,339	3,061	5,809	5,061	6,394	7,291
London	9,490	10,173	11,158	11,430	12,810	13,258	14,433	14,902	16,132
Phoenix	72,821	75,187	107,957	141,451	125,848	130,149	133,534	132,029	129,649
Protector (discon.)	56,070	54,306	19,456	-	-	-	-	-	-
Protestant Dissenters	-	-	-	8,141	8,829	6,594	6,550	6,550	7,256
Royal Exchange	55,266	57,973	61,197	61,653	63,180	68,872	70,153	71,141	71,281
Sun	127,444	129,119	143,335	143,851	151,650	158,688	169,109	165,513	165,683
Union	16,570	17,334	17,009	18,247	17,960	18,111	19,854	19,633	20,930
Westminster	16,531	16,313	17,070	16,936	17,489	18,663	18,659	20,280	20,770
Total	550,394	569,303	580,974	588,908	617,071	640,506	657,513	669,977	677,840
	* 1 Quarter.	† 2 Quarters.	‡ 3 Quarters.	§ 4 Quarters.	5 Quarters.				

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances paid by the following Country Offices, during each of the Five Years ending with 1842.

Offices.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
English offices.					
Bath Sun (discon.)	1,128*	-	-	-	-
Birmingham	7,893	8,275	8,649	9,245	9,694
Birmingham District	2,687	3,171	2,663	4,400	4,943
Bristol (discon.)	5,428	4,407	6,929	-	-
Bristol (Union)	2,613	9,749	3,131	5,151	5,275
Coventry and Warwick (discon.)	489	507	-	-	-
Essex Economic	2,950	3,072	3,137	3,180	3,228
Essex and Suffolk	6,356	6,698	5,784	6,233	6,349
Hants, Sussex, and Dorset	5,614	5,614	4,415	7,37	7,544
Leeds	11,348	11,413	11,638	11,738	11,782
Leeds and Yorkshire	10,861	11,609	12,208	12,289	12,590
Leicester and Leicester	1,412	1,490	1,587	1,628	1,653
Liverpool	5,853	6,270	7,016	7,271	7,481
Manchester	19,727	20,467	20,881	20,753	20,330
Newcastle and North of England (discon.)	784	-	-	-	-
Newcastle-upon-Tyne	2,605	2,496	5,084	6,128	6,206
Navv Norwich Equitable	1,508	1,512	1,760	1,984	1,919
Norwich Union	63,407	62,373	67,664	67,928	66,648
Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire	1,921	2,280	2,505	2,665	2,601
Reading (discon.)	418	427	954	-	-
Salop	513	5,059	2,130	3,269	3,208
Sheffield	2,268	2,600	2,773	2,783	2,857
Shropshire and North Wales	1,067	1,354	1,484	1,619	1,634
Suffolk (East and West) united	11,324	11,296	11,526	11,280	11,409
West of England	20,209	22,422	22,745	23,384	23,430
Yorkshire	10,151	11,334	12,355	12,929	13,535
York and London (discon.)	12,349	11,283	11,796	10,671	6,405
Scottish offices.					
Scottish Union	20,178	20,500	20,333	21,278	19,752
North British	7,869	8,183	8,210	9,343	10,613
Caledonian	5,743	5,195	6,529	6,267	7,037
Insurance Company of Scotland	6,712	6,838	6,831	6,729	5,994
Hercules	5,786	5,223	5,815	6,628	6,628
Friendly	2,905	4,089	2,757	5,045	4,747
Glasgow (discon.)	418	1,428	1,238	953	-
West of Scotland, now Metellus (discon.)	5,281	-	-	-	-
Forfarshire and Perthshire	1,265	1,629	1,847	1,911	1,941
County and City of Perth	791	784	698	724	756
Aberdeen	2,572	2,745	3,106	3,486	3,737
North of Scotland	1,516	1,786	1,945	2,079	2,205
National	-	-	-	845	5,300
Irish offices.					
Hibernian (discon.)	1,328	-	-	-	-
National	4,911	5,155	6,456	5,419	5,420
Patriotic	2,781	2,975	3,015	2,228	2,268
Total	294,275	296,210	304,461	314,178	315,900
	* 5 Quarters.	† 1 Quarter.	‡ 2 Quarters.	§ 3 Quarters.	4 Quarters.

The Hope, Eagle, Albion, Beacon, British Commercial, Palladium, Surrey Sussex and Southwark, Brighton, Old Bath, Gloucestershire, Canterbury, Berks, Gloucester and Provincial, Hertford, Cambridge and Country, Salamander, Protector, North and South Shields, Newcastle and North of England, Bath Sun, Bristol, Bristol Crown, Metellus, Hibernian, Coventry and Warwickshire, Independent and West Middlesex, Glasgow, York and London, English and Scotch Law, and the British, (in all 40 offices, chiefly those lately established) have discontinued their fire insurance business.

IV. INSURANCE (LIFE).

That part of the business of life insurance which consists of granting annuities upon lives, is treated of under **INTEREST AND ANNUITIES**, so that we have only to treat, in this place, of the insurance of sums payable at the death of the insurers or their nominees.

Suppose an individual of a given age wishes to insure 100*l.* payable at his death, the single premium, or the series of annual premiums, he ought to pay an office for such insurance, must plainly depend on the expectation of life of such individual, and on the rate of interest or net profit which the insurers may make by investing the premiums.

With respect to the first of these conditions, or the *expectation of life*, it is usual in estimating it to have recourse to Tables framed from the mortality observed to take place in particular cities or districts, as in Northampton, Carlisle, &c. — (See **INTEREST AND ANNUITIES**.) But though the actual decrement and expectation of life among an average population, at every year of their lives, were accurately

determined, it is doubted whether it would form a fair basis for an insurance office to proceed upon. The general opinion seems to be, that insured lives are decidedly above the average; for insurance offices invariably profess to act on the principle of rejecting bad lives or of making them pay a proportional increase of premium; and it may, besides, be fairly presumed that persons insuring their lives are of a superior class, and are not, generally speaking, engaged in those manual and laborious occupations that are esteemed most injurious to health. But, on the other hand, the friends of parties whose lives are supposed to be bad, and the parties themselves, are most anxious they should be insured. It is also far from being an uncommon practice, for certain individuals to prevail on persons whom they happen to know, or believe to be bad lives, to insure; and then to get a legal assignment of the policy in their favour, on their giving the "men of straw" a bonus for their share in the fraud. At all events, there can be no question that large numbers of such lives are perpetually offered for insurance; and every individual conversant with the business knows that, in despite of all precautions, policies are very frequently effected upon them. Mr. Milne, on whose judgment every reliance may be placed, states distinctly that "all the caution and selection which the offices in general can exercise, is necessary to keep the lives insured up to the average goodness of the bulk of the population."—(*Ency. Brit.* new ed. art. *Assurances*.) Since the competition among the different offices became so very keen as it has been of late years, there are but few lives so bad that they will not be taken by one office or another; and we doubt, were the results of their experience made public, whether it would be found that there is much foundation for the opinion as to the superiority of insured lives.

With respect to the second condition in valuing an insurance, or the rate at which the interest of money may be estimated, it is impossible to arrive at anything like accurate conclusions. At an average, perhaps, transactions in life insurance may extend over a period of 30 years from the time when they are entered into; and in such a length of term the greatest changes may take place in the rate of profit and the rate of interest. Mr. Finlaison, of the National Debt Office, appears to think that 4½ per cent. may be taken as the true average rate in this country; and that 4½ is a rate at which no loss need be apprehended.—(*Parl. Paper No. 284. Sess. 1829.*) But this is not a point on which (as Mr. Finlaison seems to suppose) previous experience can be safely depended upon in forming engagements for the future; and even in the proper place or ending upon such discussions, we think we could scarcely find pretty solid grounds for concluding that no institution, intended to last for the next half century, would be warranted in reckoning upon realising more than 3 per cent. upon its investments. We should look upon this as the *maximum*, and of course could expect nothing but ruin to fall upon any institution founded upon the hypothesis of realising 4½ per cent. of interest. At the same time, we would not be understood as laying any undue stress upon this opinion; and are ready to admit that there must always be more of conjecture than of certainty in such conclusions.

Security being the principal object to be aimed at by every insurance office established on sound principles, they would not act wisely, if they did not calculate their premiums considerably higher than may appear necessary to those who look only at what has taken place during the last 30 or 40 years. Societies contracting prospective engagements that may extend for half a century or more, are exposed to innumerable unforeseen contingencies; and they would be highly censurable, and altogether unworthy of the public confidence, were they so to conduct their affairs, that they might be liable to serious embarrassments from fluctuations in the rate of interest, or an increase of sickness, or any other cause. The success that has hitherto attended the Equitable, and some of the long-established offices, must not be taken as any criterion of what may befall them and others during the next 100 years. Mr. Morgan, the late able secretary of the Equitable, in his account of the rise and progress of that institution, published in 1828, has satisfactorily shown that its peculiar prosperity has been in a very great degree owing to circumstances which cannot possibly occur again. The premium, for example, charged by the Society, so late as 1771, for insuring 100*l.* on the life of a person aged 30, was 4*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.*, whereas it is now only 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; and there was a corresponding difference in the premiums for the other ages.—(p. 36.) But the excessive magnitude of the premium was not the only extraordinary source of profit enjoyed by this Society in the earlier part of its career. We learn from the same unquestionable authority, that *half the insurances made during the first twenty-five years of the Society's existence were abandoned by the insurers*. In many cases, after the premiums upon them had been paid for a considerable number of years, *without any valuable consideration being given for them by the Society*—(p. 38.) So copious a source of profit was alone adequate to enrich any society; but such things rarely occur now,—people are become too familiar with life insurance, and sales of policies are of too frequent occurrence, to allow any office to realize any thing considerable in this way. Now, we ask, can any one who takes these facts into view, and couples them with the frugal and cautious management which has hitherto always distinguished the Equitable Society, be surprised at its success? and can any thing be more absurd than to appeal to its experience in casting the horoscope of the societies that must spring into existence within the last few years? But, independently of these considerations, there are other circumstances sufficient to account for the great success of some of the old offices. Since the close of the American war, a very decided diminution has taken place in the rate of mortality; the public tranquillity has neither been disturbed by foreign invasion nor intestine commotion; we have not been once visited by any epidemic disorder; and the investments in the funds, during the war made at from 50 to 60, may now be realised at from 80 to 90. We do not presume to say that circumstances may not be even more advantageous for the insurance offices during the next half century; but we should not, certainly, think very highly of the prudence of those who proceeded to insure on such an assumption. Security, we take leave again to repeat, is, in life insurance, the paramount consideration. It is, we believe, admitted on all hands, that the premiums were at one time too high; but we doubt whether the tendency at present be not to sink them too low. A great relaxation has taken place, even in the most respectable offices, as to the selection of lives. And the advertisements daily appearing in the newspapers, and the practices known to be resorted to in different quarters to procure business, ought to make every prudent individual consider well what he is about before he decides upon the office with which he is to insure. Attractive statements, unless where they emanate from individuals of unquestionable character and science, ought not to go for much. Life insurance is one of the most deceptive of businesses; and offices may for a long time have all the appearance of prosperity, which are, notwithstanding, established on a very insecure foundation. If a man insure a house or a ship with a society, or an individual, of whose credit he gets doubtful, he will forthwith insure somewhere else. But life insurance is quite a different affair. The bargain is one that is not to be finally concluded for, perhaps, 50 years; and any inability on the part of an establishment in extensive business to make good its engagements, would be productive of a degree of misery not easy to be imagined.

Life insurance companies are divided into three classes. The first class consists of joint stock companies, who undertake to pay fixed sums upon the death of the individuals insuring with them; the profits made by such companies being wholly divided among the proprietors. Of this class are the Royal Exchange, Globe, &c. The second class are also joint stock companies, with proprietary bodies; but instead of underwriting, like the former, to pay certain specified sums upon the death of the insured, they allow the latter to participate to a certain extent, along with the proprietors, in the profits made by the business. The mode in which this sort of mixed companies allot the profits granted to the insured is not the same in all; and in some, the principle on which the allotment is made is not disclosed. The Rock, Sun, Alliance, Guardian, Atlas, &c. belong to this mixed class. The third species of company is that which is formed on the basis of mutual insurance. In this sort of company there is no proprietary body distinct from the insured; the latter share among themselves the whole profits of the concern, after

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The advantage to a person insuring in any one office as compared with another, must plainly depend on a comparison between the premiums demanded, the conditions of the policy, and, above all, the security which it holds out. It may appear, on a superficial view, as if the mutual insurance companies would be in all respects the most eligible to deal with, inasmuch as they have no proprietors to draw away any share of the profits from the insured. It is doubtful, however, whether this advantage be not more than balanced by disadvantages incident to such establishments. Every one being a partner in the concern, has not only his own life insured, but is part insurer of the lives of all the other members; and may, in this capacity, should the affairs of the society get into disorder, incur some very serious responsibility. The management, too, of such societies, is very apt to get into the hands of a junto; and to be conducted without the greater number of those interested knowing any thing of the matter. There is, also, considerable difficulty, in constituting such societies, in distinguishing clearly between the rights of old and new members; for supposing a society to be prosperous, it is but reasonable that those who have belonged to it while it has accumulated a large fund, should object to new entrants participating in this advantage. But the affairs of a society conducted in this way, or making distinctions in the rights of the members during a long series of years, could hardly fall of becoming at last exceedingly complicated: nor is it, indeed, at all improbable that the conflicting claims of the parties in some of the societies of this sort now in existence, may ultimately have to be adjusted in the courts of law, or by an act of the legislature.

Supposing the premiums demanded by the societies which retain the whole profits to themselves, to be fairly proportioned to the values insured, we should be inclined to think that they are, on the whole, the most advisable to insure in. The subscribed capital of such associations as the Royal Exchange, Sun, Globe, Scottish Union, &c. and the wealth of the partners (which is all feeble, except in the case of the chartered companies, to the claims of the insured), afford unquestionable security. Individuals dealing with them know the precise premium to be paid, and the exact amount of the sum that will be paid to their assignees in the event of their death. They incur no responsibility of any kind whatever. For, unless some very unprecedented and unlooked-for change should take place in the condition of the country, they may reckon with certainty on the terms of the policy being fulfilled to the letter.

But as already observed, every thing depends, in matters of this sort, on a comparison of the premium with the advantages to be realised. And where the premiums are believed, either through carelessness, or intentionally, in order to provide for the safety of the establishment, to be a little too high, it may be more expedient, perhaps, to deal with a mixed company. The subscribed capital and fortunes of the proprietary body afford a guarantee on which the public may depend in dealing with any respectable company of this sort; while by revealing a share of the profits, the insured gain by the fluctuating condition of the association, and it is of less consequence to them though the premiums should be too high.

It should, however, be borne in mind, that an individual insuring with a mixed company, on condition of his getting a proportion of the profits, becomes a partner of such company; and being so, incurs responsibilities. In dealing with such associations as the Alliance, the Rock, and a few others, this responsibility can hardly be said to amount to any thing. They know the precise premium to be paid, and are holding out very tempting baits to the unwary, those insured in which may find, at some future period, that this responsibility is by no means a light matter.

A highly respectable company of this mixed class, with a large subscribed capital, — the Guardian, — inserts in all its policies the following condition, viz. — "That the responsibility of the individual members shall, in all cases, be limited to their respective shares." It may be doubted whether this condition be good in law; but if it be, it materially affects the security afforded by the company, which otherwise would justly claim a place in the very first class of offices. As no one attempts to secure himself against a contingency which he is satisfied cannot happen, the existence of a condition of this sort implies a doubt, on the part of the proprietary body, of the perfect solidity of the establishment. Such a doubt may be, and we believe really is, very ill-founded; but the public will, most likely, be inclined to think that the proprietors ought to know better than any one else. The Albion Fire and Life Insurance Company also inserts in its policies a condition to the same effect.

The allotment of profit to the insured made by the mixed companies, is sometimes effected by a diminution of the premiums, and sometimes by increasing the sum in the policy; and individuals should, in dealing with such societies, select, other things being equal, the association with which to insure, according as they wish to insure a larger sum, or to get the premiums reduced.

We subjoin, from Mr. Babbage's work on *Life Assurance*, the following statement of the terms of the various mixed companies, as to the division of profits with the insured. They are, for the most part, exceedingly vague. We also subjoin an account of the conditions, in respect of profits, under which new entrants are admitted into the Equitable.

Alliance. — At the period of participation of the Company in the profits of its concerns, every policy for the whole term of life, which shall have paid 5 annuities, shall, if the allowance be made in reduction of annual premium, be entitled to such reduction from the original charge as shall then, and from time to time, be declared; but if the allowance be in addition to the amount assured, that addition shall also be continually declared from time to time.

Persons assuring their own lives have the option of declaring, at the time of effecting the assurance, whether they will participate in the profits by an addition to their policy, or by a reduction of premium.

Allas. — Persons assuring for the whole term of life for 100l. and upwards, in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, will be entitled, at the end of every 7th year, to participate in the surplus premium, to be then ascertained by actual valuation.

Amicable. — The directors have power to divide such portions of the profits quinquennially as may not imprudently check the growth of the funds intended for the benefit of the assured.

Common. — Two thirds of such profits as shall periodically be declared shall be made good to the claimants on the whole term of life, and only be applied to the reduction of the future annual premiums, or to the increase of the sum assured, as may be desired.

Rock. — At present 3-4ths of the savings and profits divided amongst the assured entitled to participate therein, by additions to their policies, proportioned to their respective contributions, and in order to afford them the immediate benefit of such additions, interest thereon applied annually in reduction of their premiums.

Equitable. — That in case any prospective addition shall hereafter be ordered to be made on the claims of any policy in assurance in this Society, such order shall not take effect with

respect to any policy granted after the 31st of December, 1816, until the assurance existing in the Society prior in number and date to such policy, and if of the same date, prior in its number thereof, shall be reduced to 5,000l. but as soon as such reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, the said policy shall be within the effect and operation of the order for such addition, as to the payments made thereon subsequent to such ascertained reduction; so that if such order should be made to take effect generally from the 1st of January, 1820, for the space of 10 years then next following, a policy effected in the year 1817 shall not be within the operation of such order, until the assurance existing prior to the number and date of the policy, as aforesaid, shall have been reduced to 5,000l. and such policy shall be within the operation thereof from the time when the reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, as to the payments made thereon subsequent to such ascertained reduction. And the like as to other cases. And this by-law shall be considered as a part of every such order, and shall be virtually incorporated therein, although the same may not be thereby expressly referred to.

That in case any retrospective addition shall hereafter be ordered to be made to claims upon policies of assurance in this Society, such order shall not take effect with respect to any policy granted after the 31st of December, 1816, until the assurance existing in the Society prior in number and date, and if of the same date, prior in the number thereof, shall be reduced to 5,000l. but when the said reduction shall have been ascertained in manner hereinafter mentioned, such policy shall be within the effect and operation, and entitled to the benefit of such order, with respect to every payment made thereon subsequent to such ascertained reduction; so that if such order should be made to take effect generally from the 1st of January, 1820, before the 1st of January, 1816, a policy effected in the year

* This work of Mr. Babbage contains a good deal of useful information, intermixed, however, with not a few errors and mis-statements. It was most ably reviewed in the 90th Number of the *Edinburgh Review*.

1817 shall not be within the effect and operation thereof, unless the life assured shall have the premium continuing on the policy, until the assurance existing in the Society prior to the number and date of the policy, as aforesaid, shall be reduced to 5,000; but as soon as a reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, such policy shall be within the effect and operation of such order for the several payments made thereon as aforesaid. And the order as to other cases. And this by-law shall be considered as a part of every such order, and be actually incorporated therein, although the same may not be thereby expressly referred to.

That an inquiry be made on the 1st of April in every year, in order to ascertain the number of assurances made and existing in the Society; and when it shall have been ascertained by such inquiry that the assurances existing prior to the 1st of January, 1817, were, on the 31st of December immediately preceding such inquiry, reduced below the number of 5,000, the actuary do report the same to the court of directors, who shall communicate such report to the quarterly general court to be holden in the June following; and that as many of such policies as had been made subsequent to the 31st of December, 1816, and which were existing in the Society on the 31st of December immediately preceding such inquiry, be added, according to the priority in their dates and numbers, and if of the same date, according to the priority in their numbers, to those above mentioned, as shall be sufficient to complete the number to 5,000; and that the persons holding the policies so added shall be considered thereafter as entitled to such additions as shall be thereafter made in respect of all the payments made subsequent to such ascertained reduction, and under the same restrictions, to the same privileges of attending at the general courts, and of being eligible in the office of director.

That after the vacant numbers in the assurances existing in the Society on the 1st of January, 1817, shall have been filled up according to the foregoing order, the actuary, on the 1st of April in every succeeding year, do ascertain the vacancies which have taken place in the preceding year in the policies constituting the 5,000 mentioned in the 50th resolution, and report the same to the court of directors, who shall communicate such report to the quarterly general court in the month of June following; and that as many policies shall be added, according to the priority in their dates and numbers, and if of the same date, according to the priority in their numbers, as shall be sufficient to complete the number to 5,000; and that the persons holding these policies shall therefore be considered as entitled to such additions as shall be thereafter made in respect of all payments made subsequent to the 31st of the preceding December, and under the same restrictions, to the same privileges of attending the general courts, and being eligible in the office of director.

Provided that nothing hereby ordered shall be construed to authorise an addition to the sum assured by any policy, upon which policy the number of payments required in that respect by the present by-laws of the Society shall not have been made.

Art. 2.—Those by-laws require that 6 annual payments at the least shall have been made before any addition to a claim can take place; and when such payments shall have been made, the party will be qualified to be received, in this form, into the number of persons entitled to additions as aforesaid.

Expense.—The profits derived by this Company are distributed among the several persons connected with the establishment, according to the contingency or certainty of their contract.

Life Insurers derive an immediate benefit by the reduction of the premiums generally taken, with the prospect of a liberal addition to their policy, or of a further reduction of the premium, in 10 years.

Guarantee.—Persons assured for the whole term of life will be entitled at the end of every 7 years to participate in the profits of the Company, after a deduction of such sum per annum, for the guaranty of the capital, as the directors may think reasonable; the extent of which is, however, limited by the deed of settlement.

The share of the profits to be so allowed to the insured may either be added to the amount of their respective policies, or the value thereof be applied in reduction of the premiums hereafter to be payable on such policies, provided such option be declared in writing within 3 calendar months next after the dividend shall have been declared; but if such option be not

In order to hinder the growth of gambling transactions upon life insurance, it was judiciously enacted, by stat. 14 Geo. 3. c. 48., that

No insurance shall be made by any person or persons, bodies politic or corporate, on the life or lives of any person or persons, or any other event or events whatsoever, where the interest of the person or persons, for whose use or benefit, or on whose account, such policy or policies shall be made, shall be no interest, or any gain or advantage; and that every insurance made contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, shall be null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—*sect. 1.*

It shall not be lawful to make any policy or policies on the

A creditor has an insurable interest in the life of his debtor; but it was decided, in a case which arose out of a policy on the life of the late Mr. Pitt, that if, after the death of a debtor whose life is insured by a creditor, and before any action is brought on the policy,

All insurance offices either insert in their policies or refer to them to a declaration signed by the insured, setting forth his age, or the age of the party upon whom he is making an insurance; whether he has or has not had the small-pox, gout, &c.; "that he is not afflicted with any disorder that tends to the shortening of life;" that this declaration is to be the basis of the contract between him and the society; and that, if there be any untrue statement in it, all the monies paid to the society upon account of the insurance shall be forfeited to them.—(*See Form, post.*)

The condition as to the party not being afflicted with any disorder that tends to the shortening of life is vague, and has given rise to a good deal of discussion. But it is now settled that this condition is sufficiently complied with, if the insured be in a reasonably good state of health; and although he may be afflicted with some disease, yet if it can be shown that this disease does not tend to shorten life, and was not, in fact, the cause of the party's death, the insurer will not be exonerated: "Such a warranty," said Lord Mansfield, "can never mean, that a man has not in him the seeds of some disorder. We are all born with the seeds of mortality in us. The only question is, whether the insured was in a reasonably

declared, such share of profits will be added to the amount he

Hope.—Every person effecting a policy of assurance at this office, is entitled to a participation in the profits equally with the proprietors of the Company, after a deduction for the guaranty and the expenses of management.

Beneficial.—Upon every policy effected for the whole term of life, the assured will participate in the profits of the Company, by having periodical additions made to the sum insured to the amount of 5-25 parts of each clear gain of profits, as ascertained, in stated periods, the surplus of the fund arising from the premiums of assurance, and their accumulation beyond what may be thought necessary to answer the expected claims upon the Society, will be ascertained; and as large a portion of the savings as may be deemed consistent with the security of the institution, will be divided between the proprietors and the assured in the following manner:—1-5th will be transferred to the proprietors' guaranty fund; and 4-5ths will be added to the policies of those who shall have been 3 years assured for the whole term of life.

London Life Association.—The distinguishing principle of this Society is, that the benefits resulting from its transactions shall be enjoyed by the members during life, so as to render life assurance as easy to the assured, as a debt regard to security will admit.

General and Clerical.—Persons assured for the whole term of life will be entitled to share with the original proprietors the general profits of the business, in proportion to the amount of their respective assurances.

Normal Income.—The whole of the surplus premiums is added at stated periods in equal parts to the policies of the proprietors to the sums they have respectively contributed.

Reversion.—A general reversion of the affairs of the Society, in the event of the death of any one of the declared profits of the life department will be appropriated by way of bonus or addition, to be placed to the credit of the person then in force of the whole term of life, upon any equitable principles of division.

Stock.—That the said bonus shall be short of the actual surplus profits at the time of making the same, by the sum of 5,000, at least.

That the bonus so declared shall be divided into 3 equal parts.

That one of the said parts shall be added to and consolidated with the subscribers' capital stock. (This is the proprietors' fund.)

That the remaining 2-3ds be allotted to the policies in the manner to be specified in the deed.

That the sum to which any person assured by the Company may become entitled under any such distribution, shall be paid by the Company without interest the time when the sum assured by the policy shall become payable, and not before.

Union.—Those who assure with this Company will participate with the proprietors in the profits of the establishment, which will be added every 7 years to the respective policies.

United Kingdom.—Persons effecting assurances for the whole continuance of life will, at the end of the first 3 years, and of every subsequent 3 years, be entitled to participate in whatever surplus profits may be declared by the directors and applied to policy.

That the aforesaid profits will be divided amongst the said assured, in proportion to the premiums they may respectively have paid, and will, at the end of every 7 years, be added to the amount of their policies, or applied in reduction of their future premiums.

Interest.—It is intended that the capital advanced shall be repaid in the shareholder, with a bonus of 1000 per cent, 1-10th of the profits, when ascertained by a valuation of all existing risks, will every 3 years be applied to form a fund for that purpose.

The profit or bonus to be so allowed to the insured may either be added to the amount of their respective policies, or the value thereof be applied in reduction of the premiums hereafter to be payable on such policies, provided such option be declared in writing within 3 calendar months next after the dividend shall have been declared; but if such option be not

Administration.—By a regulation taking effect from the 9th of May, 1834, this Society makes a positive addition of 10 per cent, every 10th year in all sums insured on single lives, for the whole term of life, by policies issued after that date.

life or lives of any person or persons, or other event or events, without inserting in such policy or policies, the name or names of the person or persons interested therein, or for what use, benefit, or on whose account, such policy is so made or underwritten.

In all cases where the insured has an interest in such life or event or events, no greater sum shall be recovered or returned from the insurer or insurers, than the amount or value of the interest of the insured in such life or lives, or other event or events.—*sect. 3.*

And it is hereby further agreed, that the assurance by this policy shall be extended during peace, to the risk of the above-named A. B. Esq. dying upon the sea in passing between any one part of Europe to any other part of Europe.

PROVIDED NEVERTHELESS, that should the said assured depart beyond the limits of Europe, die upon the sea (except as above stated), or engage in any military or naval service whatsoever, within the term for which this policy is granted; or should the assurance have been obtained through any misrepresentation of the age, state of health, or description of the said assured; or should the said assured die by duelling, suicide, or the hands of justice; then this policy, and every thing appertaining thereto, shall cease, be void, and of none effect, so far as respects the said assured, but in case the said assured die by accident, duelling, or the hands of justice, this policy shall remain in force so far as any other person or persons shall then have a *bona fide* interest therein, acquired three months previously to such decease by assignment, or by legal or equitable lien, upon due proof of the extent of such interest being made to the satisfaction of the managers. And if the said assured shall have been so for at least five years, and shall die by his own hands, and not *facto de se*, the managers shall be at liberty, if they shall think proper, to pay for the benefit of his family, any sum not exceeding what the society would have paid for the purchase of his interest in the policy if he had been surrendered to the society the day previous to his decease, provided such interest shall then be in the assured, or in any trustee or trustees for him.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, we, three of the managers for the said Society, have hereunto set our hands and seals, this twentieth day of January, 1843.

Signed, sealed, and delivered,
being first duly stamped.

J. K.

C. D. (L. S.)
E. F. (L. S.)
G. H. (L. S.)

The following are the premiums demanded by the Sun Life Assurance Society, for insurances on joint lives and survivorships.

Joint Lives. — A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid as soon as either of The two shall drop.

Age next Birth-day	Age next Birth-day	Annual Premium.	Age next Birth-day	Age next Birth-day	Annual Premium.	Age next Birth-day	Age next Birth-day	Annual Premium.					
10	10	£ 2 7 5	20	35	£ 3 17 3	35	45	£ 5 7 5					
	15	2 11 0		40	4 6 1		50	6 1 11					
	20	2 14 6		45	4 16 1		55	7 6 5					
	25	2 19 4		50	5 11 7		60	9 0 6					
	30	3 5 3		55	6 16 8		40	40	5 5 8				
	35	3 11 11		60	8 11 1			45	5 13 10				
	40	4 1 1		25	25			3 9 6	50	6 7 9			
	45	4 11 5			30			3 14 10	55	7 11 8			
	50	5 7 2			35			4 0 11	60	9 5 5			
	55	6 12 3			40			4 9 6	45	45	6 1 10		
60	6 6 11	45	4 19 3		50	6 13 11							
15	15	2 14 5	50		5 14 7	55		7 16 11					
	20	2 17 9	55		6 19 7	60		9 9 6					
	25	3 2 5	60		8 13 11	50		50		7 5 6			
	30	3 8 3	30		30		3 19 10	55		8 7 4			
	35	3 14 9			35		4 5 6	60		9 18 11			
	40	4 3 10		40	4 13 10		55	55		9 8 2			
	45	4 14 0		45	5 3 2			60		10 18 11			
	50	5 9 8		50	5 18 3			60		60	12 8 10		
	55	6 14 11		55	7 3 1				35	35	4 10 9		
	60	8 9 6		60	8 17 5					40	4 18 6		
20	20	3 0 11		35	35					4 10 9	60	60	12 8 10
	25	3 5 4			40					40		4 18 6	
	30	3 10 11											

Survivorship. — A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid at the Decease of One Person, A., provided another, B. be then living.

Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.	Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.	Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium.
10	10	£ 1 3 9	30	10	£ 2 2 5	50	10	£ 4 7 2
	20	1 4 7		20	2 2 1		20	4 7 0
	30	1 10 10		30	1 10 11		30	4 3 3
	40	1 1 8		40	1 18 6		40	4 1 7
	50	1 0 0		50	1 15 0		50	3 12 9
	60	0 18 5		60	1 12 2		60	3 1 5
	70	0 16 11		70	1 9 10		70	2 11 4
	80	0 15 7		80	1 7 4		80	2 3 3
	20	10		1 9 11	40		10	2 19 7
20		1 10 6	20	2 19 6		20	7 8 5	
30		1 8 10	30	2 15 4		30	7 3 5	
40		1 6 7	40	2 12 10		40	6 11 11	
50		1 4 7	50	2 6 2		50	6 17 5	
60		1 2 8	60	2 0 6		60	6 4 5	
70		1 0 9	70	1 16 3		70	5 8 8	
80		0 19 3	80	1 13 6		80	4 14 4	

From the specimens of premiums in the two preceding Tables, the reader will easily judge of the proportional premiums for any combination of two ages not inserted in them.

Instead of a gross sum payable at the decease of A., provided B. be then living, a reversionary annuity on the remainder of the life of B. after the decease of A. may be insured by the payment of an annual premium during the joint continuance of the two lives; which annual premium may be learnt by application at the office.

INSURANCE (LIFE).

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TABLE OF PREMIUMS.
The following tabular statement shows the premiums demanded by the principal Life Insurance Societies for insuring 100*l.* at every different age from 15 to 60, for the whole term of life.

Age.	Alliance and Sun.			Amicable.			Arljun.			British Commercial.			Crown.			Economic.			Equitabls.			Egls.		European.			Guardian.						
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	Male.	Female.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
15	1	14	8	1	15	8	1	10	0	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	1	15	8	1	1	14	8	1	15	8
16	1	14	8	1	15	8	1	10	0	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	1	15	8	1	1	14	8	1	15	8
17	1	14	8	1	15	8	1	10	0	0	0	1	10	0	0	1	10	0	1	10	0	1	10	1	15	8	1	1	14	8	1	15	8
18	1	15	1	1	16	1	1	11	1	1	1	1	11	1	1	1	11	1	1	11	1	1	11	1	16	1	1	1	15	1	1	16	1
19	1	16	4	1	17	4	1	12	4	1	1	1	12	4	1	1	12	4	1	12	4	1	12	1	17	4	1	1	16	4	1	17	4
20	1	16	11	1	17	11	1	13	11	1	1	1	13	11	1	1	13	11	1	13	11	1	13	1	18	11	1	1	17	11	1	18	11
21	1	17	11	1	18	11	1	14	11	1	1	1	14	11	1	1	14	11	1	14	11	1	14	1	19	11	1	1	18	11	1	19	11
22	1	18	11	1	19	11	1	15	11	1	1	1	15	11	1	1	15	11	1	15	11	1	15	1	20	11	1	1	19	11	1	20	11
23	1	18	11	1	19	11	1	15	11	1	1	1	15	11	1	1	15	11	1	15	11	1	15	1	20	11	1	1	19	11	1	20	11
24	1	19	11	1	20	11	1	16	11	1	1	1	16	11	1	1	16	11	1	16	11	1	16	1	21	11	1	1	20	11	1	21	11
25	1	19	11	1	20	11	1	16	11	1	1	1	16	11	1	1	16	11	1	16	11	1	16	1	21	11	1	1	20	11	1	21	11
26	1	20	11	1	21	11	1	17	11	1	1	1	17	11	1	1	17	11	1	17	11	1	17	1	22	11	1	1	21	11	1	22	11
27	1	20	11	1	21	11	1	17	11	1	1	1	17	11	1	1	17	11	1	17	11	1	17	1	22	11	1	1	21	11	1	22	11
28	1	21	11	1	22	11	1	18	11	1	1	1	18	11	1	1	18	11	1	18	11	1	18	1	23	11	1	1	22	11	1	23	11
29	1	21	11	1	22	11	1	18	11	1	1	1	18	11	1	1	18	11	1	18	11	1	18	1	23	11	1	1	22	11	1	23	11
30	1	22	11	1	23	11	1	19	11	1	1	1	19	11	1	1	19	11	1	19	11	1	19	1	24	11	1	1	23	11	1	24	11
31	1	22	11	1	23	11	1	19	11	1	1	1	19	11	1	1	19	11	1	19	11	1	19	1	24	11	1	1	23	11	1	24	11
32	1	23	11	1	24	11	1	20	11	1	1	1	20	11	1	1	20	11	1	20	11	1	20	1	25	11	1	1	24	11	1	25	11
33	1	23	11	1	24	11	1	20	11	1	1	1	20	11	1	1	20	11	1	20	11	1	20	1	25	11	1	1	24	11	1	25	11
34	1	24	11	1	25	11	1	21	11	1	1	1	21	11	1	1	21	11	1	21	11	1	21	1	26	11	1	1	25	11	1	26	11
35	1	24	11	1	25	11	1	21	11	1	1	1	21	11	1	1	21	11	1	21	11	1	21	1	26	11	1	1	25	11	1	26	11
36	1	25	11	1	26	11	1	22	11	1	1	1	22	11	1	1	22	11	1	22	11	1	22	1	27	11	1	1	26	11	1	27	11
37	1	25	11	1	26	11	1	22	11	1	1	1	22	11	1	1	22	11	1	22	11	1	22	1	27	11	1	1	26	11	1	27	11
38	1	26	11	1	27	11	1	23	11	1	1	1	23	11	1	1	23	11	1	23	11	1	23	1	28	11	1	1	27	11	1	28	11
39	1	26	11	1	27	11	1	23	11	1	1	1	23	11	1	1	23	11	1	23	11	1	23	1	28	11	1	1	27	11	1	28	11
40	1	27	11	1	28	11	1	24	11	1	1	1	24	11	1	1	24	11	1	24	11	1	24	1	29	11	1	1	28	11	1	29	11
41	1	27	11	1	28	11	1	24	11	1	1	1	24	11	1	1	24	11	1	24	11	1	24	1	29	11	1	1	28	11	1	29	11
42	1	28	11	1	29	11	1	25	11	1	1	1	25	11	1	1	25	11	1	25	11	1	25	1	30	11	1	1	29	11	1	30	11
43	1	28	11	1	29	11	1	25	11	1	1	1	25	11	1	1	25	11	1	25	11	1	25	1	30	11	1	1	29	11	1	30	11
44	1	29	11	1	30	11	1	26	11	1	1	1	26	11	1	1	26	11	1	26	11	1	26	1	31	11	1	1	30	11	1	31	11
45	1	29	11	1	30	11	1	26	11	1	1	1	26	11	1	1	26	11	1	26	11	1	26	1	31	11	1	1	30	11	1	31	11
46	1	30	11	1	31	11	1	27	11	1	1	1	27	11	1	1	27	11	1	27	11	1	27	1	32	11	1	1	31	11	1	32	11
47	1	30	11	1	31	11	1	27	11	1	1	1	27	11	1	1	27	11	1	27	11	1	27	1	32	11	1	1	31	11	1	32	11
48	1	31	11	1	32	11	1	28	11	1	1	1	28	11	1	1	28	11	1	28	11	1	28	1	33	11	1	1	32	11	1	33	11
49	1	31	11	1	32	11	1	28	11	1	1	1	28	11	1	1	28	11	1	28	11	1	28	1	33	11	1	1	32	11	1	33	11
50	1	32	11	1	33	11	1	29	11	1	1	1	29	11	1	1	29	11	1	29	11	1	29	1	34	11	1	1	33	11	1	34	11
51	1	32	11	1	33	11	1	29	11	1	1	1	29	11	1	1	29	11	1	29	11	1	29	1	34	11	1	1	33	11	1	34	11
52	1	33	11	1	34	11	1	30	11	1	1	1	30	11	1	1	30	11	1	30	11	1	30	1	35	11	1	1	34	11	1	35	11
53	1	33	11	1	34	11	1	30	11	1	1	1	30	11	1	1	30	11	1	30	11	1	30	1	35	11	1	1	34	11	1	35	11
54	1	34	11	1	35	11	1	31	11	1	1	1	31	11	1	1	31	11	1	31	11	1	31	1	36	11	1	1	35	11	1	36	11
55	1	34	11	1	35	11	1	31	11	1	1	1	31	11	1	1	31	11	1	31	11	1	31	1	36	11	1	1	35	11	1	36	11
56	1	35	11	1	36	11	1	32	11	1	1	1	32	11	1	1	32	11	1	32	11	1	32	1	37	11	1	1	36	11	1	37	11
57	1	35	11	1	36	11	1	32	11	1	1	1	32	11	1	1	32	11	1	32	11	1	32	1	37	11	1	1	36	11	1	37	11
58	1	36	11	1	37	11	1	33	11	1	1	1	33	11	1	1	33	11	1	33	11	1	33	1	38	11	1	1	37	11	1	38	11
59	1	36	11	1	37	11	1	33	11	1	1	1	33	11	1	1	33	11	1	33	11	1	33	1	38	11	1	1	37	11	1	38	11
60	1	37	11	1	38	11	1	34	11	1	1	1	34	11	1	1	34	11	1	34	11	1	34	1	39	11	1	1	38	11	1	39	11

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(L. S.)

Society, for

to Lives, for

Annual
Premium.

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7 0 6
9 0 8

5 5 8
5 13 10
6 7 9
7 11 8
9 5 5

6 1 0
6 13 11
7 16 11
9 0 8

7 5 6
8 7 4
9 18 11

9 8 2
10 18 11
12 8 10

of Two Lives,
and another, B.

Annual
Premium.

£ s. d.
4 7 0
4 7 0
3 3 3
4 1 7
3 12 9
3 1 6
2 11 4
2 3 3

7 8 6
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5 8 8
4 14 4

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Equitable Assurance Society.—The following is the Declaration required to be made and signed in the Office, by or on the behalf of a Person who proposes to make an Assurance on his or her own Life.

I, being desirous of becoming a member of the Society for Equitable Assurances on Lives and Survivorships, and intending to make Assurances on the Sum of _____ upon and for the continuance of my own life, and having perused and considered that a clause of the deed of settlement of the said Society which requires a declaration in writing of the age, state of health, and

other circumstances attending the person whose life shall be proposed to be assured, do hereby declare and set forth, That my age does not exceed _____ that I have _____ had the small-pox) _____ had the pox; and that I am not afflicted with any disorder which tends to the shortening of life; and I do hereby agree that this declaration be the basis of the contract between the said Society and me, and that if any untrue averment is contained in this declaration, all monies which shall have been paid to the Society upon account of the assurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited. Dated the _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord _____

* The Clause which is referred to in the Declaration. That every person desirous of making assurance with the Society, shall sign or execute a declaration in writing (in the presence of one credible witness, who shall attest the same), setting forth the age, state of health, profession, occupation, and other circumstances attending the person or persons whose life or lives shall be proposed to be assured; which declaration shall be the basis of the contract between the said Society and the person desiring to make assurance with them; in which declaration if any artful, false, or fraudulent representation shall be used, and the same shall at any time thereafter be discovered, from thenceforth the sums which shall have been paid to the Society on account of any assurance so fraudulently obtained, shall be forfeited to the use of the Society; and all claims to be made on that behalf shall cease, determine, and be void, to all intents and purposes whatsoever.

Form of a Proposal to be presented to a Weekly Court of Directors. Name and profession of the life to be assured. Place and date of birth. Term of residence. Sum. Term. Age. By whom made. To give reference to two persons of good repute, (one, if possible, of the medical profession), to ascertain the present and general state of health of the life to be assured. If had the small-pox. If vaccinated. If afflicted with the pox. If ever ruptured.

A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Continuance of Two Joint Lives for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid when either of the Lives shall drop.

Age.	Age.	£ s. d.												
10	10	2 17 1	15	35	4 3 1	20	67	9 13 9	30	60	7 15 0	45	45	6 7 4
15	3	1 1 1	40	4	10 4	25	25	4 0 10	35	67	9 18 1	50	60	6 17 9
20	3	5 7	45	4	19 5	30	4	5 0 0	40	35	4 19 0	55	7	11 0
25	3	9 3	50	5	11 3	35	4	10 3	50	30	5 5 6	60	8	9 6
30	3	13 9	55	6	5 1	40	4	17 4	55	20	5 18 10	65	10	11 1
35	3	19 6	60	7	6 0	45	5	6 2	60	10	6 5 0	70	8	7 8
40	4	6 10	67	9	9 5	50	5	17 10	65	5	6 19 2	75	5	8 0 3
45	4	10 11	70	3	13 11	55	6	12 6	70	6	7 18 6	80	6	8 18 2
50	5	7 10	75	3	17 5	60	7	12 5	75	10	1 2	85	6	10 18 10
55	6	2 8	80	4	1 9	67	9	15 9	80	4	5 11 9	90	5	8 12 2
60	7	2 9	85	3	4 7 3	70	3	4 11 1	85	4	5 19 9	95	6	9 9 0
67	9	6 3	90	4	14 6	75	4	14 1	90	6	10 8	100	7	11 8 5
70	15	3 5 0	95	5	3 6	80	5	0 11	95	7	4 5	105	6	10 4 9
75	20	3 9 6	100	5	15 4	85	5	9 6	100	8	3 4	110	6	12 2 1
80	25	3 12 1	105	6	10 2	90	6	1 0	105	10	5 6	115	6	13 15 8
85	30	3 17 6	110	7	10 2	95	6	15 5	110	10	5 6	120	6	13 15 8

An addition of 22 per cent. computed upon the premium, is charged upon military persons; and an addition of eleven per cent. on officers on half-pay, officers in the militia, fencibles, and the like levies; also on persons not having had the small-pox, or having had the pox.

Persons preferring the payment of a gross sum or single premium upon an assurance for any certain term, are chargeable in a due proportion to the annual premium for such term.

Every person making any assurance with the Society, pays 5s. in the name of entrance money; and if the sum assured exceeds 100l., the entrance money is charged after the rate of 5s. for every 100l. But if the person upon whose life an assurance is proposed, does not appear before the directors, the entrance money is charged after the rate of 1l. for every 100l.

The following are the premiums demanded by the Equitable Society for Insuring 100l., or an equivalent annuity on the contingency of one life's surviving the other:—

Life to be assured.			Annuity equivalent to 100l. to be paid from the death of the Life assured, during the Remainder of the other Life.		Life to be assured.			Annuity equivalent to 100l. to be paid from the death of the Life assured, during the Remainder of the other Life.		
Age.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Premium.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Age.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Premium.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
10	10	1 8 6	5 14 6		40	50	2 12 10	9 16 6		
	20	1 9 1	6 14 10			60	2 9 4	12 14 3		
	30	1 8 3	7 14 11			70	2 5 11	18 5 6		
	40	1 7 8	9 5 6			80	2 1 10	29 19 10		
	50	1 6 11	11 13 0							
	60	1 6 0	15 13 5							
20	10	1 16 6	5 6 11		50	10	4 0 11	5 1 4		
	20	1 17 0	6 4 1			20	4 1 10	5 16 2		
	30	1 15 9	7 0 6			30	4 0 1	6 12 2		
	40	1 14 8	8 4 11			40	3 17 10	7 16 9		
	50	1 13 6	10 1 1			50	3 13 10	9 12 8		
	60	1 12 1	13 0 7			60	3 7 7	12 6 8		
30	10	1 16 6	5 6 11		60	10	5 16 9	4 19 3		
	20	1 15 9	7 0 6			20	5 18 1	5 12 10		
	30	1 15 9	7 0 6			30	5 16 3	6 7 7		
	40	1 14 8	8 4 11			40	5 14 0	7 10 10		
	50	1 13 6	10 1 1			50	5 10 7	9 17 0		
	60	1 12 1	13 0 7			60	5 2 4	12 5 6		
40	10	1 16 6	5 6 11		70	10	4 9 10	17 5 8		
	20	1 15 9	7 0 6			20	3 17 11	27 19 10		
	30	1 15 9	7 0 6							
	40	1 14 8	8 4 11							
	50	1 13 6	10 1 1							
	60	1 12 1	13 0 7							
50	10	2 5 5	5 5 8		80	10	8 1 0	4 17 8		
	20	2 6 0	6 2 9			20	8 2 9	5 10 5		
	30	2 4 6	6 19 6			30	8 0 10	6 4 0		
	40	2 2 9	8 3 8			40	7 18 7	7 5 5		
	50	2 0 11	10 0 6			50	7 15 6	9 0 6		
	60	1 18 10	13 0 0			60	7 8 8	12 0 0		
60	10	2 19 2	5 5 3		90	10	6 15 8	11 10 8		
	20	2 18 10	6 15 8			20	6 15 8	11 10 8		
	30	2 18 2	6 15 8			30	6 15 8	11 10 8		
	40	2 15 11	8 1 0			40	5 8 9	27 5 11		
	50	2 15 11	8 1 0							
	60	2 15 11	8 1 0							

It is stated by Mr. Morgan, in his Account of the Equitable Society already referred to, that the number of insurances in that institution for terms of years does not much exceed the *one hundredth part* of those for the whole period of life; and that the business of the office at present is almost wholly confined to the assurance of persons on *their own lives*—those on the lives of *others*, whether for terms or for continuance, being, in consequence of the commission money allowed to agents and attorneys, engrossed by the new offices. — (*Account of the Equitable Society*, p. 63.)

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES. Interest is the sum paid by the borrower of a sum of money, or of any sort of valuable produce, to the lender, for its use.

The rate of interest, supposing the security for and facility of re-possessing the principal, or sum lent, to be equal, must obviously depend on what may be made by the employment of capital in industrious undertakings, or on the rate of profit. Where profits are high, as in the United States, interest is also high; and where they are comparatively low, as in Holland and England, interest is proportionally low. In fact, the rate of interest is nothing more than the *net* profit on capital; whatever returns are obtained by the borrower, beyond the interest he has agreed to pay, really accrue to him on account of risk, trouble, or skill, or of advantages of situation and connection.

But besides fluctuations in the rate of interest caused by the varying productiveness of industry, the rate of interest on each particular loan must, of course, vary according to the supposed solvency of the borrowers, or the degree of risk supposed to be incurred by the lender, of either not recovering payment at all, or not recovering it at the stipulated term. No person of sound mind would lend on the personal security of an individual of doubtful character and solvency, and on mortgage over a valuable estate, at the same rate of interest. Wherever there is risk, it must be compensated to the lender by a higher premium or interest.

And yet, obvious as this principle may appear, all governments have interfered with the adjustment of the terms of loans: some to prohibit interest altogether, and others to fix certain rates which it should be deemed legal to charge, and illegal to exceed. The prejudice against taking interest seems to have principally originated in a mistaken view of some enactments of the Mosaic law—(see *Michaëlis on the Laws of Moses*, vol. ii. pp. 327—353. Eng. ed.), and a statement of Aristotle, to the effect that, as money did not produce money, no return could be equitably claimed by the lender! But whatever may have been the origin of this prejudice, it was formerly universal in Christendom; and is still supported by law in all Mohammedan countries. The famous reformer, Calvin, was one of the first who saw and exposed the absurdity of such notions—(see an extract from one of his epistles in *Principles of Political Economy*, by the author of this work, 3d ed. p. 320.); and the abuses caused by the prohibition, and the growing conviction of its impolicy, soon after led to its relaxation. In 1554, a statute was passed authorising lenders to charge 10 per cent. interest. In 1624, the legal rate was reduced to 8 per cent.; and in the reign of Queen Anne it was further reduced to 5 per cent., at which it still continues. It is enacted, by the statute (12 Ann. c. 16.) making this reduction, that “all persons who shall receive, by means of any corrupt bargain, loan, exchange, cheivance, or interest of any wares, merchandise, or other thing whatever, or by any deceitful way or means, or by any covin, engine, or deceitful conveyance for the forbearing or giving day of payment, for one whole year for their money or other thing, above the sum of *5l.* for 100*l.* for a year, shall forfeit for every such offence, the *treble* value of the monies, or other things, so lent, bargained,” &c.

It is needless to waste the reader's time by entering into any lengthened arguments to show the inexpediency and mischievous effect of such interferences. This has been done over and over again. It is plainly in no respect more desirable to limit the rate of interest, than it would be to limit the rate of insurance, or the prices of commodities. And though it were desirable, it cannot be accomplished. The real effect of all legislative enactments having such an object in view, is to increase, not diminish, the rate of interest. When the rate fixed by law is less than the market or customary rate, lenders and borrowers are obliged to resort to circuitous devices to evade the law; and as these devices are always attended with more or less trouble and risk, the rate of interest is proportionally enhanced. During the late war it was not uncommon for a person to be paying 10 or 12 per cent. for a loan, which, had there been no usury laws, he might have got for 6 or 7 per cent. Neither was it by any means uncommon, when the rate fixed by law was more than the market rate, for borrowers to be obliged to pay more than they really stipulated for. It is singular that an enactment which contradicted the most obvious principles, and had been repeatedly condemned by committees of the legislature, should have been allowed to preserve a place in the statute book, for so long a period; but at length it was substantially repealed by the act 2 & 3 Victoria, c. 37., which exempts bills of exchange not having more than 12 months to run, and contracts for loans of money above 10*l.*, from its operation.

Distinction of Simple and Compound Interest.—When a loan is made, it is usual to stipulate that the interest upon it should be regularly paid at the end of every year, half year, &c. A loan of this sort is said to be at simple interest. It is of the essence of such loan, that no part of the interest accruing upon it should be added to the principal to form a new principal; and though payment of the interest were not made when it becomes due, the lender would not be entitled to charge interest upon such unpaid interest. Thus, suppose 100*l.* were lent at simple interest at 5 per cent., payable at the end of each year;

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and being added to the original principal, makes the principal upon which interest is to be calculated for the second year or term; and the second year's or term's interest being added to this last principal, makes that upon which interest is to be calculated for the third year or term; and so on for any number of years.

But when the number of years is considerable, this process becomes exceedingly cumbersome and tedious, and to facilitate it Tables have been constructed, which are subjoined to this article.

The first of these tables (No. 1.) represents the amount of 1*l.* accumulating at compound interest, at 3, 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. every year, from 1 year to 70 years, in pounds and decimals of a pound. Now, suppose that we wish to know how much 50*l.* will amount to in 7 years at 4 per cent. In the column marked 4 per cent. and opposite to 7 years, we find 1-315,932, which shows that 1*l.* will, if invested at 4 per cent. compound interest amount to 1-315,932 in 7 years; and consequently, 50*l.* will, in the same time, and at the same rate, amount to 500 x 1-315,932, or 657-966*l.*; that is 657*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*

For the same purpose of facilitating calculation, the present value of 1*l.* due any number of years hence, not exceeding 70, at 3, 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. compound interest, is given in the subjoined Table, No. 11. The use of this Table is precisely similar to the one below. Let 1*l.*, for example, be required to find the present worth of 50*l.* due 7 years hence, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent. Opposite to 7 years, and under 4 per cent., we find -75291,781*l.*, the present worth of 1*l.* due at the end of 7 years; and multiplying this sum by 50*l.*, the product, being 3764559, or 376*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*, is the answer required.

Table for ascertaining the Number of Days from any one Day in the Year to any other Day.

Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1	31	60	91	121	150	180	210	240	270	300	330
2	30	59	90	120	149	179	209	239	269	299	329
3	29	58	89	119	148	178	208	238	268	298	328
4	28	57	88	118	147	177	207	237	267	297	327
5	27	56	87	117	146	176	206	236	266	296	326
6	26	55	86	116	145	175	205	235	265	295	325
7	25	54	85	115	144	174	204	234	264	294	324
8	24	53	84	114	143	173	203	233	263	293	323
9	23	52	83	113	142	172	202	232	262	292	322
10	22	51	82	112	141	171	201	231	261	291	321
11	21	50	81	111	140	170	200	230	260	290	320
12	20	49	80	110	139	169	199	229	259	289	319
13	19	48	79	109	138	168	198	228	258	288	318
14	18	47	78	108	137	167	197	227	257	287	317
15	17	46	77	107	136	166	196	226	256	286	316
16	16	45	76	106	135	165	195	225	255	285	315
17	15	44	75	105	134	164	194	224	254	284	314
18	14	43	74	104	133	163	193	223	253	283	313
19	13	42	73	103	132	162	192	222	252	282	312
20	12	41	72	102	131	161	191	221	251	281	311
21	11	40	71	101	130	160	190	220	250	280	310
22	10	39	70	100	129	159	189	219	249	279	309
23	9	38	69	99	128	158	188	218	248	278	308
24	8	37	68	98	127	157	187	217	247	277	307
25	7	36	67	97	126	156	186	216	246	276	306
26	6	35	66	96	125	155	185	215	245	275	305
27	5	34	65	95	124	154	184	214	244	274	304
28	4	33	64	94	123	153	183	213	243	273	303
29	3	32	63	93	122	152	182	212	242	272	302
30	2	31	62	92	121	151	181	211	241	271	301
31	1	30	61	91	120	150	180	210	240	270	300

ANNUITIES.

1. *Annuities certain.*—When a sum of money is to be paid yearly for a certain number of years, it is called an annuity. The annuities usually met with are either for a given number of years, which are called *annuities certain*; or they are to be paid so long as one or more individuals shall live, and are thence called *contingent annuities*.

By the amount of an annuity at any given time, is meant the sum to which it will then amount, supposing it to have been regularly improved at compound interest during the intervening period.

The present value of an annuity for any given period, is the sum of the present values of all the payments of that annuity.

Numbers III. and IV. of the subjoined Tables represent the amount and present value of an annuity of 1*l.* reckoning compound interest at 3, 3½, 4, 4½, and 6 per cent. from 1 year in 70. They, as well as Nos. 1. and 11. are taken from "Tables of Interest, Discount, and Annuities, by John Smart, Gent. 4to. London." (1726.) They are carried to 8 decimal places, and enjoy the highest character, both here and on the Continent, for accuracy and completeness. The original work is now become very scarce.

The uses of these Tables are numerous; and they are easily applied. Suppose, for example, it were required to tell the amount of an annuity of 50*l.* a year for 17 years at 4 per cent. compound interest.

Opposite to 17 (Table III.) in the column of years, and under 4 per cent., is 23-65751,229, being the amount of an annuity of 1*l.* for the given time at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 1183-28756195, or 1,184*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*, the amount required.

Suppose, now, that it is required what sum one must pay down to receive an annuity of 50*l.* to continue for 17 years, compound interest at 4 per cent.?

Opposite to 17 years (Table IV.) and under 4 per cent. is 12-16566,886, the present value of an annuity of 1*l.* for the given time and at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 608-283443, or 608*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.*, the present value required.

When it is required to find the time which must elapse, in order that a given sum improved at a specified rate of compound interest may increase to some other given sum, divide the latter sum by the former, and look for the quotient, or the number nearest to it, in Table No. 1. under the given rate per cent., and the years opposite to it are the answer.—Thus,

In what time will 523*l.* amount to 1,067*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* at 5 per cent. compound interest?

Divide 1067-2794, &c. by 523, and the quotient will be 2-0789, &c., which under 5 per cent. in Table I. is opposite to 15 years, the time required.

If it had been required to find the time in which a given annuity, improved at a certain rate of compound interest, would have increased to some given sum, the question would have been answered by dividing, as above, the given sum by the annuity; and looking for the quotient (not in Table No. 1., but in Table No. III., under the given rate per cent., it would be found on a line with the time required. Thus,

A man owes 1,000*l.* and resolves to appropriate 10*l.* a year of his income to its discharge: in what time will the debt be extinguished, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent.?

1,000 divided by 10 gives 100, the number in Table No. III. under 4 per cent., and nearest to this quotient is 99 8/26, &c. opposite to 41 years, the required time. Had the rate of interest been 5 per cent., the debt would have been discharged in somewhat less than 37 years. This example is given by Dr. Price (*Annuities*, 6th ed. vol. II. p. 269.) ; and on this principle the whole fabric of the sinking fund was constructed. Of the abstract truth of the principle there cannot, indeed, be a doubt. But every thing depends on the increasing sums annually produced being immediately invested on the same terms ; and this, when the sum is large, and the period long, is altogether impracticable.

Let it next be required to find an annuity which, being increased at a given rate of compound interest during a given time, will amount to a specified sum : in this case we divide the specified sum by the amount of 1*l.* for the time and rate given, as found in Table III., and the quotient is the answer. — Thus,

What annuity will amount to 1,097*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* in 15 years at 5 per cent. compound interest ?
Opposite to 15 years in Table III., and under 5 per cent., is 21.578*s.* &c., the amount of 1*l.* for the given time and rate ; and dividing 1097.2794, &c. by this sum, the quotient 50*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.*, is the annuity required.

Deferred annuities are those which do not commence till after a certain number of years ; and *reversionary annuities*, such as depend upon the occurrence of some uncertain event, as the death of an individual, &c.

The present value of a deferred annuity is found by deducting, from the value of an annuity for the whole period, the value of an annuity to the term at which the reversionary annuity is to commence.

— Thus,
What is the present value of an annuity of 50*l.* to continue for 25 years, commencing at 7 years from the present time, interest at 4 per cent. ?

According to Table No. IV., the value of an annuity of 1*l.* for 25 years at 4 per cent. is 15.62207,95*s.*, and that of 1*l.* for 7 years is 6.00263,467, which being deducted from the other, leaves 9.62002,298, which multiplied by 50 gives 481*l.*, the answer required.

Supposing the annuity, instead of being for 25 years, had been a perpetuity, it would have been worth 1,250*l.*, from which deducting 300*l.* 2*s.*, the value of an annuity for 7 years at 4 per cent., there remains 949*l.* 18*s.*, the value of the reversion.

For a selection of problems that may be solved by Tables of annuities certain, see *Smart's Tables*, pp. 92—100.

2. *Life Annuities.* — After what has been stated in the article on *INSURANCE (GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF)*, respecting Tables of mortality, it will be easy to see how the value of a life annuity is calculated. Supposing — to revert to the example given before (p. 710.) — that it were required to find the present value of 1*l.*, the receipt of which is dependent on the contingency of a person, now 56 years of age, being alive 10 years hence, taking the Carlisle Table of mortality, and interest at 4 per cent. : Now, according to that Table, of 10,000 persons born together, 4,000 attain to 56, and 2,894 to 66 years of age. The probability that a person, now 56 years, will be alive 10 years hence, is, consequently, $\frac{2,894}{4,000}$; and the present value of 1*l.*, to be received certain 10 years

hence being 0.675564*l.*, it follows, that if its receipt be made to depend on a life 56 years of age, attaining to 66, its value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{2,894 \times 0.675564}{4,000} = 0.488771$, or 9*s.* 9½*d.* If, then, we had to find the present value

of an annuity of 1*l.* secured on the life of a person now 56, we should calculate in this way the present value of each of the 48 payments, which, according to the Carlisle Table, he might receive, and their sum would, of course, be the present value of the annuity.

This statement is enough to show the principle on which all calculations of annuities depend ; and this also was, in fact, the method according to which they were calculated, till Mr. Simpson and M. Euler invented a shorter and easier process, deriving from the value of an annuity at any age, that of an annuity at the next younger age. There is a considerable discrepancy in the sums at which different authors, and different insurance offices, estimate the present value of life annuities payable to persons of the same age. This does not arise from any difference in the mode of calculating the annuities, but from differences in the Tables of mortality employed. These can only be accurate when they are deduced from multiplied and careful observations made, during a long series of years, on a large body of persons ; or when the average numbers of the whole population, and of the deaths at every age, for a lengthened period, have been determined with the necessary care. It is to be regretted, that governments, who alone have the means of ascertaining the rate of mortality by observations made on a sufficiently large scale, have been singularly inattentive to their duty in this respect. And until a very few years since, when Mr. Finlison was employed to calculate Tables of the value of annuities from the ages of the nominees in public townies, and of individuals on whose lives government had granted annuities, all that had been done in this country to lay a solid foundation on which to construct the vast fabric of life insurance had been the work of a few private persons, who had, of course, but a limited number of observations to work upon.

The celebrated mathematician, Dr. Halley, was the first who calculated a Table of mortality, which he deduced from observations made at Breslaw, in Silesia. In 1724, M. De Moivre published the first edition of his tract on *Annuities on Lives*. In order to facilitate the calculation of their values, M. De Moivre assumed the annual decrements of life to be equal ; that is, he supposed that out of 86 (the utmost limit of life on his hypothesis) persons born together, one would die every year till the whole were extinct. This assumption agreed pretty well with the true values between 30 and 70

years of age, as given in Dr. Holey's Table; but was very remote from the truth in the earlier and later periods. Mr. Thomas Simpson, in his work on *Annuities and Reversions*, originally published in 1742, gave a Table of mortality deduced from the London bills, and Tables founded upon it of the values of annuities. But at the period when this Table was calculated, the mortality in London was so much higher than in the rest of the country, that the values of the annuities given in it were far too small for general use. In 1746, M. Deparcieux published, in his *Essai sur les Probabilités de la Durée de la Vie Humaine* — a work distinguished by its perspicuity and neatness — Tables of mortality deduced from observations made on the mortuary registers of several religious houses, and on lists of the nominees in several tontines. In this work, separate Tables were first constructed for males and females, and the greater longevity of the latter rendered apparent. M. Deparcieux's Tables were a very great acquisition to the science; and are decidedly superior to some that are still extensively used. Dr. Price's famous work on *Annuities*, the first edition of which was published in 1770, contributed powerfully to direct the public attention to inquiries of this sort; and was, in this respect, of very great utility. Of the more recent works, the best are those of Mr. Baily and Mr. Milne, which, indeed, are both excellent. The latter, besides all that was previously known as to the history, theory, or practice of the science, contains much new and valuable matter; and to it we beg to refer such of our readers as wish to enter fully into the subject.

The Table on which Dr. Price laid the greatest stress, was calculated from the burial registers kept in the parish of All Saints in Northampton, containing little more than half the population of the town. There can be no doubt, however, as well from original defects in the construction of the Table, as from the improvement that has since taken place in the healthiness of the public, that the mortality represented in the Northampton Table is, and has long been, decidedly above the average rate of mortality in England. Mr. Morgan, indeed, the late learned actuary of the Equitable Society, contended that this is not the case, and that the Society's experience shows that the Northampton Table is still remarkably accurate. But the facts Mr. Morgan disclosed in his *View of the Rise and Progress of the Equitable Society* (p. 42.), published in 1828, are quite at variance with this opinion: for he there states, that the deaths of persons insured in the Equitable Society, from 50 to 60 years of age, during the 12 years previously to 1828, were 339; whereas, according to the Northampton Table, they should have been 545! And Mr. Milne has endeavoured to show (*Art. Annuities*, new ed. of *Ency. Brit.*) that the discrepancy is really much greater.

The only other Table used to any extent in England for the calculation of life annuities, is that framed by Mr. Milne from observations made by Dr. Heysham on the rate of mortality at Carlisle. It gives a decidedly lower rate of mortality than the Northampton Table; and there are good grounds for thinking that the mortality which it represents is not very different from the actual rate throughout most parts of England; though it cannot be supposed that a Table founded on so narrow a basis should give a perfectly fair view of the average mortality of the entire kingdom.

In life insurance, the first annual premium is always paid at the commencement of the assurance, and the others at the termination of each year so long as the party assured survives. Hence, at the beginning of the assurance, the whole of the annual premiums payable for it exceed the value of an equal annuity on the life by one year's purchase. And, therefore, when the value of an assurance in present money is given, to find the equivalent annual premium during the life, the whole present value must be divided by the number of years' purchase an annuity on the life is worth, increased by 1. Thus, for an assurance of 100*l.* on a life 40 years of age, an office, calculating by the Carlisle Table of mortality, and at 4 per cent. interest, requires 53·446*l.* in present money. Now, according to that Table and rate of interest, an annuity on a life just 40 years of age is worth 15·074 years' purchase, so that the equivalent annual premium is $\frac{53 \cdot 446}{15 \cdot 074 + 1} = 3 \cdot 325*l.*$

or 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* The annual premium may, however, be derived directly from the value of an annuity on the life, without first calculating the total present value of the assurance. — (See Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, or the art. *Annuities* in the new edition of the *Ency. Britannica*.)

In order to exhibit the foundations on which Tables of life annuities and insurance have been founded in this and other countries, we have given, in No. V. of the following Tables, the rate of mortality that has been observed to take place among 1,000 children born together, or the numbers alive at the end of each year, till the whole become extinct, in England, France, Sweden, &c., according to the most celebrated authorities.* The rate of mortality at Carlisle, represented in this Table, is less than that observed any

* The greater part of this Table was originally published by Dr. Hutton in his *Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *Life Annuities*. Mr. Baily inserted it with additions in his work on *Annuities*; and it was published, with the column for Carlisle added, in the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies*.

where else: the rates which approach nearest to it are those deduced from the observations already referred to, of M. Deparcieux, and those of M. Kerseboom, on the nominees of life annuities in Holland.

In order to calculate from this Table the chance which a person of any given age has of attaining to any higher age, we have only to divide the number of persons alive at such higher age, given in that column of the Table selected to decide the question, by the number of persons alive at the given age, and the fraction resulting is the chance.

We have added, by way of supplement to this Table, Mr. Finlaison's Table (No. VI.) of the rate of mortality among 1,000 children born together, according to the decrement of life observed to take place among the nominees in government tontines and life annuities in this country, distinguishing males from females. The rate of mortality which this Table exhibits is decidedly less than that given in the Carlisle Table; but the lives in the latter are the average of the population, while those in the former are all picked. The nominees in tontines are uniformly chosen among the healthiest individuals; and none but those who consider their lives as good ever buy an annuity. Still, however, the Table is very curious; and it sets the superiority of female life in a very striking point of view.

Tables VII. and VIII. give the *expectation of life*, according to the mortality observed at Northampton and Carlisle; the former by Dr. Price, and the latter by Mr. Milne.

The next Table, No. IX., extracted from the *Second Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies*, gives a comparative view of the results of some of the most celebrated Tables of mortality, in relation to the rate of mortality, the expectation of life, the value of an annuity, &c. The coincidence between the results deduced from M. Deparcieux's Table, and that for Carlisle, is very striking. And to render the information on these subjects laid before the reader as complete as the nature of this work will admit, we have given Tables (Nos. X.—XV.) of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a single life, at every age, and at 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent., according to the Northampton and Carlisle Tables; we have also given Tables of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 equal lives, and 2 lives differing by 5 years, at 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent., according to the same Tables. It is but seldom, therefore, that our readers will require to resort to any other work for the means of solving the questions that usually occur in practice with regard to annuities; and there are not many works in which they will find so good a collection of Tables. — We subjoin one or two examples of the mode of using the Tables of life annuities.

Suppose it were required, what ought a person, aged 45, to give, to secure an annuity of 50*l.* a year for life, interest at 4 per cent., according to the Carlisle Table?

In Table No. XI., under 4 per cent., and opposite 45, is 14*l.* 10*s.*, the value of an annuity of 1*l.*, which being multiplied by 50, gives 705*l.* 2*s.*, or 705*l.* 4*s.*, the value required. According to the Northampton Table, the annuity would only have been worth 614*l.* 3*s.*

The value of an annuity on 2 lives of the same age, or on 2 lives differing by 5 years, may be found in precisely the same way.

Some questions in *reversionary* life annuities admit of an equally easy solution. Thus, suppose it is required to find the present value of A.'s interest in an estate worth 100*l.* a year, falling to him at the death of B., aged 40, interest 4 per cent. according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of the perpetuity of 100*l.* a year, interest 4 per cent., is 2,500*l.*; and the value of an annuity of 100*l.* on a person aged 40, interest at 4 per cent., is 1,507*l.* 8*s.*, which deducted from 2,500*l.* leaves 992*l.* 12*s.*, the present value required.

A person, aged 30, wishes to purchase an annuity of 50*l.* for his wife, aged 25, provided she survive him; what ought he to pay for it, interest at 4 per cent. according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a life aged 30 is 16*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.*; from which subtracting the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 joint lives of 25 and 30, 14*l.* 3*s.* 3*d.*, the difference, 2*l.* 5*s.* 50*d.* = 125*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.*, or 125*l.* 13*s.*, the sum required.

For the solution of the more complex cases of survivorship, which do not often occur in practice, recourse may be had to the directions in Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, and other works of that description. To attempt explaining them here would lead us into details quite inconsistent with the objects of this work.

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

TABLES OF INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

I. Table showing the Amount of £1 Improved at Compound Interest, at 2, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent., at the End of every Year, from 1 to 70.

Year.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1.02500,000	1.03000,000	1.03500,000	1.04000,000	1.04500,000	1.05000,000	1.06000,000
2	1.05062,500	1.06090,000	1.07122,500	1.08160,000	1.09202,500	1.10250,000	1.12360,000
3	1.07686,069	1.09272,700	1.10871,787	1.12486,403	1.14116,612	1.15762,500	1.19101,600
4	1.10381,289	1.12550,881	1.14732,300	1.16925,856	1.19231,860	1.21650,626	1.26247,896
5	1.13140,821	1.15827,407	1.18768,931	1.21665,290	1.24618,194	1.27682,156	1.33622,558
6	1.15978,242	1.19426,230	1.22925,533	1.26331,502	1.29226,012	1.34009,864	1.41851,911
7	1.18,68,875	1.22987,387	1.27327,926	1.31093,178	1.36096,183	1.40710,043	1.50303,026
8	1.21440,250	1.26677,008	1.31680,904	1.36856,905	1.42120,081	1.47445,644	1.58384,807
9	1.24286,297	1.30477,318	1.36289,735	1.42331,181	1.48609,614	1.55139,822	1.68947,896
10	1.28008,484	1.34391,638	1.41089,876	1.48024,428	1.55296,942	1.62899,463	1.75064,770
11	1.31908,666	1.38423,387	1.45996,972	1.53945,406	1.62285,205	1.71033,536	1.80829,856
12	1.34488,862	1.42676,089	1.51106,866	1.60103,222	1.69888,143	1.79885,633	1.91219,647
13	1.37851,104	1.48853,271	1.56595,606	1.66507,351	1.77729,610	1.88664,914	1.93224,826
14	1.41297,382	1.51286,972	1.61893,452	1.73167,645	1.85194,492	1.97699,160	2.06650,896
15	1.44839,817	1.53979,142	1.67039,851	1.80034,351	1.93226,944	2.07024,564	2.20685,464
16	1.48480,662	1.60470,644	1.73398,602	1.87298,125	2.02237,015	2.18227,459	2.40035,168
17	1.52161,826	1.65284,763	1.79467,555	1.94790,050	2.11337,681	2.29201,832	2.62277,379
18	1.55955,872	1.70423,306	1.85748,920	2.02581,659	2.20847,877	2.40661,922	2.85433,915
19	1.59865,019	1.75300,608	1.92280,132	2.10884,918	2.30706,081	2.52696,200	3.02539,390
20	1.63961,644	1.80611,123	1.98978,996	2.19119,214	2.41171,462	2.65329,771	3.20713,647
21	1.67988,185	1.86229,457	2.05943,147	2.27876,807	2.52024,116	2.78596,269	3.39550,360
22	1.72157,140	1.91610,341	2.13151,158	2.36991,879	2.63266,202	2.92628,572	3.60833,742
23	1.76461,068	1.97358,651	2.20611,448	2.46471,565	2.74916,635	3.07153,876	3.81974,566
24	1.80972,595	2.03379,411	2.28339,840	2.56333,417	2.87021,383	3.22309,994	4.04893,464
25	1.85693,410	2.09777,703	2.36324,403	2.66583,633	3.00000,000	3.38053,494	4.29187,072
26	1.90729,270	2.16569,137	2.44595,856	2.77246,979	3.14067,201	3.55367,269	4.54328,296
27	1.94780,002	2.22728,901	2.53166,711	2.88336,856	3.29200,956	3.73445,632	4.82224,944
28	1.99449,502	2.29279,768	2.62117,686	2.99870,333	3.45699,999	3.92191,914	5.11168,670
29	2.04640,739	2.36265,581	2.71371,798	3.11865,145	3.64603,649	4.11913,565	5.41838,570
30	2.09776,758	2.43726,247	2.80679,370	3.24339,751	3.84331,818	4.33194,238	5.74349,117
31	2.15000,677	2.50000,035	2.90503,148	3.37313,311	4.01386,745	4.53903,949	6.08810,064
32	2.20375,624	2.57308,270	3.00670,759	3.50803,375	4.08696,104	4.76404,147	6.43338,638
33	2.26000,086	2.65233,524	3.11194,233	3.64808,110	4.27403,019	5.00318,854	6.80458,928
34	2.31812,213	2.73190,630	3.22066,035	3.79431,634	4.46636,154	5.25333,737	7.20102,998
35	2.37820,519	2.81386,245	3.33359,045	3.94608,890	4.66734,781	5.51601,537	7.62668,679
36	2.44023,532	2.89827,833	3.45026,611	4.10399,395	4.87737,846	5.79181,614	8.07425,200
37	2.49334,870	2.98522,608	3.57102,543	4.26804,986	5.09636,049	6.08146,684	8.54608,712
38	2.55069,242	3.07478,348	3.69601,132	4.43851,345	5.32621,921	6.38547,729	9.14425,325
39	2.61157,448	3.16702,698	3.82537,171	4.61636,599	5.56898,908	6.70477,116	9.70350,749
40	2.68506,384	3.26203,779	3.96225,972	4.80102,063	5.81636,454	7.03999,671	10.28571,794
41	2.75119,043	3.35989,893	4.09808,323	4.99306,104	6.07810,094	7.39108,813	10.90286,101
42	2.82029,520	3.46069,589	4.24125,709	5.19278,301	6.35161,548	7.76158,735	11.54703,267
43	2.89192,008	3.56451,677	4.39070,202	5.40049,597	6.63743,818	8.14966,693	12.20445,463
44	2.96382,808	3.67145,227	4.54334,160	5.61651,500	6.93612,290	8.55175,128	12.98458,191
45	3.03790,328	3.78150,584	4.70235,855	5.84117,568	7.24824,843	8.96600,779	13.78461,093
46	3.11385,086	3.89394,373	4.86834,110	6.07493,271	7.57441,961	9.40423,818	14.60048,748
47	3.19169,713	4.01181,503	5.04238,404	6.31781,562	7.91926,849	9.86937,116	15.44591,673
48	3.27148,956	4.13225,188	5.21258,898	6.57085,294	8.27145,657	10.41265,965	16.32387,173
49	3.35327,680	4.26621,944	5.39066,459	6.83334,937	8.64367,107	10.92133,318	17.37750,540
50	3.43710,872	4.38390,602	5.58492,696	7.10668,335	9.03633,627	11.46739,978	18.42015,427
51	3.52303,644	4.51442,320	5.78039,930	7.39005,068	9.43910,490	12.04076,977	19.52536,333
52	3.61111,233	4.65088,590	5.98271,327	7.68684,811	9.85386,463	12.64280,896	20.69098,534
53	3.70139,018	4.79041,247	6.19210,824	7.99405,226	10.20773,853	13.27494,808	21.98809,846
54	3.79392,491	4.93212,485	6.40883,202	8.31381,435	10.57158,677	13.94069,611	23.26502,037
55	3.88877,303	5.08214,859	6.63814,114	8.64636,989	11.06080,817	14.63662,059	24.66322,159
56	3.98599,326	5.24041,308	6.88030,106	8.99221,160	11.57994,204	15.36741,246	26.12634,080
57	4.08564,217	5.39165,144	7.10558,662	9.35119,046	12.29216,993	16.13578,308	27.67110,134
58	4.18774,322	5.55430,098	7.38429,215	9.72658,698	12.84531,768	16.94267,224	29.38922,742
59	4.29247,780	5.72000,301	7.61198,203	10.11802,693	13.42335,637	17.78970,085	31.19046,307
60	4.39978,975	5.89160,310	7.87809,000	10.51962,741	14.02740,793	18.67198,869	33.98769,066
61	4.50978,419	6.06835,120	8.15382,408	10.9401,251	14.65864,129	19.61231,619	34.96620,230
62	4.62252,910	6.25040,173	8.43920,738	11.37802,501	15.31826,014	20.59360,245	37.06406,944
63	4.73809,233	6.43791,379	8.73458,020	11.83115,017	16.00760,275	21.62344,257	39.28886,761
64	4.85654,464	6.63105,120	9.04029,081	12.30647,817	16.72794,487	22.70466,720	41.64619,967
65	4.97836,896	6.82998,373	9.36370,068	12.80873,822	17.48700,339	23.85090,066	44.14437,163
66	5.10240,721	7.03488,222	9.68418,520	13.31078,463	18.21073,000	25.03189,529	46.79366,994
67	5.22959,739	7.24592,868	10.02213,168	13.8311,301	19.08936,403	26.28349,036	49.60120,214
68	5.36071,658	7.46330,654	10.37394,129	14.36983,849	19.94838,541	27.60766,488	52.57736,755
69	5.49473,449	7.68720,574	10.73702,926	14.92720,995	20.89460,278	29.07764,513	55.78200,960
70	5.63110,286	7.91783,191	11.11289,284	15.51611,533	31.78413,553	30.48647,503	59.07693,018

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

II. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE of £1 receivable at the End of any given Year, from 1 to 70 reckoning Compound Interest at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Year.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0·97569,976	0·97087,879	0·96618,357	0·96153,846	0·95693,790	0·95238,008	0·94336,628
2	·95181,440	·94230,591	·93351,070	·92455,621	·91572,995	·90709,948	·88909,644
3	·92859,941	·91514,166	·90194,270	·88909,636	·87629,660	·86383,760	·83061,928
4	·90695,064	·88848,705	·87144,223	·85480,410	·83856,134	·82270,247	·78209,366
5	·88388,429	·86260,878	·84197,317	·82192,711	·80245,105	·78352,616	·74726,817
6	·86229,687	·83749,425	·81350,064	·79031,453	·76789,374	·74621,540	·70450,034
7	·84126,524	·81303,151	·78599,096	·76001,781	·73482,846	·71048,133	·66506,711
8	·82074,657	·78940,923	·75941,156	·73069,020	·70318,513	·67683,936	·62741,237
9	·80072,836	·76541,673	·73373,097	·70258,674	·67290,443	·64460,892	·59189,846
10	·78119,860	·74409,391	·70981,891	·67556,417	·64392,768	·61391,325	·55839,478
11	·76314,478	·72242,126	·68404,871	·64958,003	·61619,874	·58467,929	·52678,753
12	·74555,569	·70137,988	·66178,330	·62459,705	·59066,386	·55983,742	·49936,386
13	·72842,038	·68053,134	·63940,415	·60037,400	·56427,164	·53323,135	·46883,902
14	·71172,720	·66111,791	·61778,179	·58177,568	·54397,286	·50906,795	·44230,096
15	·69546,556	·64186,195	·59689,062	·55926,450	·51872,044	·48101,710	·41285,506
16	·67962,493	·62316,634	·57670,801	·53830,818	·49446,332	·45181,159	·38084,628
17	·66419,567	·60501,455	·55720,378	·51837,325	·47137,639	·42669,662	·35316,442
18	·64916,594	·58739,461	·53836,114	·49872,812	·45280,037	·40552,065	·33024,379
19	·63452,772	·57028,603	·52016,569	·47954,242	·43330,129	·38357,396	·30801,301
20	·62027,694	·55367,375	·50266,386	·46088,026	·41464,286	·36198,949	·28110,473
21	·60638,029	·53754,928	·48537,090	·44383,360	·39678,743	·34584,226	·26415,540
22	·59266,724	·52189,250	·46915,063	·42735,539	·37970,089	·32814,987	·24750,610
23	·57919,657	·50669,175	·45328,563	·40972,633	·36335,513	·31257,131	·23179,726
24	·56592,535	·49193,374	·43795,713	·39021,147	·34770,347	·29807,855	·21697,835
25	·55281,959	·47760,556	·42314,695	·37111,690	·33273,090	·28390,277	·20299,463
26	·53992,432	·46369,473	·40883,767	·36068,923	·31840,248	·27124,073	·19181,003
27	·52721,973	·45018,906	·39501,224	·34681,657	·30469,137	·25874,812	·20736,795
28	·51477,685	·43707,675	·38165,434	·33347,747	·29137,069	·24590,364	·19663,014
29	·50256,125	·42434,636	·36874,815	·32065,141	·27901,502	·23429,632	·18455,674
30	·49062,669	·41199,676	·35627,941	·30831,967	·26760,001	·22337,745	·17411,013
31	·47891,481	·39998,714	·34425,035	·29616,026	·25550,241	·22035,947	·16425,484
32	·46737,055	·38833,703	·33258,971	·28505,794	·24419,991	·20986,617	·15495,740
33	·45597,298	·37702,626	·32134,271	·27409,417	·23397,121	·19987,264	·14618,622
34	·44470,534	·36604,490	·31047,605	·26335,269	·22390,959	·19038,480	·13791,153
35	·43354,377	·35538,340	·29992,683	·25281,847	·21428,444	·18129,890	·12999,329
36	·42248,372	·34503,243	·28983,372	·24256,872	·20502,817	·17265,741	·12247,077
37	·41151,705	·33498,294	·28003,161	·23249,685	·19619,921	·16443,563	·11529,318
38	·40064,829	·32522,615	·27056,194	·22268,543	·18775,044	·15669,560	·10823,885
39	·38987,139	·31575,355	·26141,280	·21302,061	·17966,845	·14914,797	·10195,652
40	·37924,069	·30656,684	·25257,347	·20358,594	·17192,870	·14204,568	·9637,219
41	·36874,605	·29762,800	·24403,137	·19432,792	·16452,507	·13528,160	·9117,005
42	·35838,483	·28895,922	·23577,910	·18527,493	·15744,026	·12883,562	·8632,740
43	·34816,976	·28054,294	·22780,990	·17636,820	·15066,054	·12270,440	·8182,962
44	·33810,376	·27237,178	·22010,281	·16766,635	·14421,276	·11680,133	·7764,304
45	·32817,440	·26443,892	·21265,924	·15919,841	·13796,437	·11128,651	·7365,061
46	·31837,226	·25673,632	·20546,787	·15094,386	·13192,339	·10609,668	·6983,787
47	·30868,516	·24925,477	·19851,968	·14288,296	·12633,810	·10094,521	·6635,831
48	·29910,116	·24199,880	·19180,645	·13509,476	·12099,771	·9614,211	·6309,940
49	·28961,576	·23495,029	·18532,024	·12763,112	·11590,158	·9165,301	·5994,366
50	·28024,221	·22810,708	·17906,337	·12047,362	·11070,965	·8720,373	·5698,836
51	·26344,606	·22146,318	·17299,843	·11350,059	·10594,225	·8300,117	·5421,644
52	·27929,298	·21501,390	·16714,824	·10699,672	·10138,014	·7900,635	·5161,645
53	·27016,476	·20875,029	·16149,399	·10080,300	·9701,449	·7520,296	·4918,116
54	·26137,929	·20267,019	·15603,467	·9498,173	·9283,683	·7174,272	·4689,047
55	·25287,052	·19676,717	·15075,814	·8941,551	·8883,907	·6852,640	·4466,742
56	·24457,855	·19103,609	·14566,004	·8411,202	·8501,347	·6567,276	·4257,115
57	·23647,557	·18547,193	·14073,433	·7903,079	·8135,260	·6307,406	·4061,046
58	·22857,592	·18006,394	·13597,530	·7412,733	·7784,638	·6069,291	·3876,119
59	·22086,959	·17482,908	·13137,701	·6938,629	·7449,490	·5846,329	·3701,820
60	·21328,359	·16973,309	·12693,431	·6486,600	·7128,901	·5633,552	·3538,434
61	·20589,000	·16478,941	·12264,184	·6046,423	·6821,915	·5430,421	·3386,843
62	·19859,179	·15999,372	·11843,453	·5618,868	·6528,148	·5236,830	·3246,365
63	·19138,541	·15532,983	·11448,747	·5203,833	·6246,033	·5052,890	·3116,290
64	·18426,771	·15080,565	·11061,991	·4801,125	·5976,021	·4878,381	·2996,179
65	·17724,567	·14641,325	·10687,528	·4410,373	·5726,204	·4714,644	·2886,264
66	·17031,593	·14214,879	·10326,114	·4031,260	·5484,753	·4560,903	·2786,017
67	·16347,379	·13800,803	·9977,622	·3673,609	·5258,519	·4417,670	·2695,077
68	·15672,228	·13399,487	·9650,536	·3327,970	·5046,123	·4284,499	·2613,959
69	·15016,242	·13008,638	·9343,063	·2994,819	·4847,910	·4160,948	·2541,361
70	·17158,108	·12629,736	·9058,012	·2672,940	·4659,497	·4046,617	·2477,737

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

III. Table showing the AMOUNT OF AN ANNUITY OF 1% per Annum, Improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent., at the end of each Year, from 1 to 70.

1 to 70

Cent.

Y.ears.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1.00000,000	1.00000,000	1.00000,000	1.00000,000	1.00000,000	1.00000,000	1.00000,000
2	2.09500,500	2.08000,000	2.05500,000	2.04500,000	2.04000,000	2.03500,000	2.03000,000
3	3.07652,500	3.05900,000	3.03250,000	3.02100,000	3.01600,000	3.01200,000	3.00800,000
4	4.15251,562	4.13250,000	4.10494,247	4.09446,400	4.09112,2	4.08788,2	4.08464,2
5	5.32632,615	5.30313,581	5.26246,588	5.24632,256	5.24070,973	5.23563,125	5.23056,296
6	6.59775,652	6.56949,588	6.52015,215	6.49237,546	6.48499,156	6.47761,156	6.47023,156
7	7.95743,015	7.92466,218	7.87040,751	7.83929,448	7.83119,179	7.82309,845	7.81499,511
8	9.40511,580	9.36733,605	9.30516,677	9.26922,448	9.26112,423	9.25302,398	9.24492,373
9	10.95284,177	10.91010,613	10.83649,581	10.79275,531	10.78465,506	10.77655,481	10.76845,456
10	12.60258,880	12.55487,381	12.46519,316	12.41145,266	12.40335,241	12.39525,216	12.38715,191
11	14.35531,631	14.29279,569	14.18199,192	14.12825,141	14.12015,116	14.11205,091	14.10395,066
12	16.21955,297	16.15202,964	16.03016,164	15.97642,114	15.96832,089	15.96022,064	15.95212,039
13	18.19479,045	18.12226,711	17.99040,361	17.93666,311	17.92856,286	17.92046,261	17.91236,236
14	20.28002,792	20.20250,458	20.06064,568	20.00690,518	20.00000,493	19.99310,468	19.98620,443
15	22.47526,539	22.39274,205	22.24088,768	22.18714,718	22.17904,693	22.17094,668	22.16284,643
16	24.78050,286	24.69298,033	24.53112,968	24.47738,918	24.46928,893	24.46118,868	24.45308,843
17	27.19574,033	27.09322,780	26.92137,168	26.86763,118	26.85953,093	26.85143,068	26.84333,043
18	29.72100,780	29.60348,527	29.42163,368	29.36789,318	29.35979,293	29.35169,268	29.34359,243
19	32.35626,527	32.22374,274	32.03189,568	31.97815,518	31.97005,493	31.96195,468	31.95385,443
20	35.10152,274	34.95400,021	34.75215,768	34.70000,718	34.69190,693	34.68380,668	34.67570,643
21	37.95678,021	37.79426,768	37.58241,968	37.53026,918	37.52216,893	37.51406,868	37.50596,843
22	40.93203,768	40.75451,515	40.53266,768	40.48051,718	40.47241,693	40.46431,668	40.45621,643
23	44.02729,515	43.83477,262	43.59292,568	43.54077,518	43.53267,493	43.52457,468	43.51647,443
24	47.24255,262	46.93902,009	46.67717,368	46.62502,318	46.61692,293	46.60882,268	46.60072,243
25	50.57780,009	50.36506,756	50.10321,968	50.05106,918	50.04296,893	50.03486,868	50.02676,843
26	54.03305,756	53.78031,503	53.48846,768	53.43631,718	53.42821,693	53.42011,668	53.41201,643
27	57.60831,503	57.36556,250	57.03371,568	57.00000,518	56.99190,493	56.98380,468	56.97570,443
28	61.30357,250	60.93081,997	60.56900,368	60.51685,318	60.50875,293	60.50065,268	60.49255,243
29	65.11882,997	64.64606,744	64.25421,168	64.20206,118	64.19396,093	64.18586,068	64.17776,043
30	69.05408,744	68.48131,491	68.05946,468	68.00731,418	68.00000,393	67.99290,368	67.98580,343
31	73.11934,491	72.42658,238	71.97473,268	71.92258,218	71.91548,193	71.90838,168	71.90128,143
32	77.31460,238	76.58183,985	76.00000,000	75.94785,950	75.94075,925	75.93365,900	75.92655,875
33	81.64086,985	80.65708,732	80.00000,000	79.94785,950	79.94075,925	79.93365,900	79.92655,875
34	86.10812,732	84.98434,479	84.25000,000	84.19270,900	84.18560,875	84.17850,850	84.17140,825
35	90.71638,479	89.43260,226	88.58000,000	88.52245,850	88.51535,825	88.50825,800	88.50115,775
36	95.46664,226	94.00086,973	93.00000,000	92.94290,800	92.93580,775	92.92870,750	92.92160,725
37	100.35890,973	98.69912,720	97.50000,000	97.44335,750	97.43625,725	97.42915,700	97.42205,675
38	105.39316,720	103.52738,467	102.25000,000	102.19070,700	102.18360,675	102.17650,650	102.16940,625
39	110.57042,467	108.49564,214	107.00000,000	106.94060,650	106.93350,625	106.92640,600	106.91930,575
40	115.89268,214	113.60390,961	111.75000,000	111.69050,600	111.68340,575	111.67630,550	111.66920,525
41	121.36094,961	118.85216,708	116.50000,000	116.44050,550	116.43340,525	116.42630,500	116.41920,475
42	126.97520,708	124.24042,455	121.25000,000	121.19090,500	121.18380,475	121.17670,450	121.16960,425
43	132.73546,455	129.76868,202	126.00000,000	125.94140,450	125.93430,425	125.92720,400	125.92010,375
44	138.64272,202	135.43694,949	130.75000,000	130.68230,400	130.67520,375	130.66810,350	130.66100,325
45	144.69798,949	141.24520,696	135.50000,000	135.43270,350	135.42560,325	135.41850,300	135.41140,275
46	150.90224,696	147.19346,443	140.25000,000	140.17310,300	140.16600,275	140.15890,250	140.15180,225
47	157.25750,443	153.28172,190	145.00000,000	144.90250,250	144.89540,225	144.88830,200	144.88120,175
48	163.76476,190	159.51098,937	149.75000,000	149.71290,200	149.70580,175	149.69870,150	149.69160,125
49	170.42402,937	165.88024,684	154.50000,000	154.62230,150	154.61520,125	154.60810,100	154.60100,75
50	177.23628,684	172.39850,431	159.25000,000	159.33270,100	159.32560,75	159.31850,50	159.31140,25
51	184.20254,431	179.06676,178	164.00000,000	164.43260,75	164.42550,50	164.41840,25	164.41130,00
52	191.32280,178	185.88502,925	168.75000,000	168.84290,50	168.83580,25	168.82870,00	168.82160,75
53	198.59706,925	192.85328,672	173.50000,000	173.75320,25	173.74610,00	173.73900,75	173.73190,50
54	206.02532,672	199.97154,419	178.25000,000	178.26350,00	178.25640,75	178.24930,50	178.24220,25
55	213.60758,419	207.24080,166	183.00000,000	183.07380,75	183.06670,50	183.05960,25	183.05250,00
56	221.34484,166	214.66006,913	187.75000,000	187.78430,50	187.77720,25	187.77010,00	187.76300,75
57	229.23710,913	222.23932,660	192.50000,000	192.80480,25	192.79770,00	192.79060,75	192.78350,50
58	237.28436,660	230.07858,407	197.25000,000	197.83630,00	197.82920,75	197.82210,50	197.81500,25
59	245.48662,407	238.17684,154	202.00000,000	202.86780,75	202.86070,50	202.85360,25	202.84650,00
60	253.84488,154	246.43510,901	206.75000,000	206.89930,50	206.89220,25	206.88510,00	206.87800,75
61	262.35914,901	254.85336,648	211.50000,000	211.93080,25	211.92370,00	211.91660,75	211.90950,50
62	271.02940,648	263.43162,395	216.25000,000	216.96230,00	216.95520,75	216.94810,50	216.94100,25
63	279.85566,395	272.17088,142	221.00000,000	221.99380,75	221.98670,50	221.97960,25	221.97250,00
64	288.83792,142	281.07013,889	225.75000,000	226.02530,50	226.01820,25	226.01110,00	226.00400,75
65	297.97618,889	290.12839,636	230.50000,000	230.05680,25	230.04970,00	230.04260,75	230.03550,50
66	307.27044,636	299.34665,383	235.25000,000	235.08830,00	235.08120,75	235.07410,50	235.06700,25
67	316.72070,383	308.72491,130	240.00000,000	240.11980,75	240.11270,50	240.10560,25	240.09850,00
68	326.32796,130	318.26316,877	244.75000,000	244.15130,50	244.14420,25	244.13710,00	244.13000,75
69	336.09222,877	327.96142,624	249.50000,000	249.18280,25	249.17570,00	249.16860,75	249.16150,50
70	346.01448,624	337.81968,371	254.25000,000	254.21430,00	254.20720,75	254.20010,50	254.19300,25

IV. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE OF AN ANNUITY OF 1% per Annum, to continue for any given Number of Years, from 1 to 70, reckoning Compound Interest at 2, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Years.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0.97560,978	0.97067,379	0.96618,357	0.96203,846	0.95809,780	0.95436,095	0.95083,623
2	1.92742,415	1.91346,969	1.89969,427	1.88609,467	1.87269,775	1.85941,043	1.84623,267
3	2.85692,356	2.82861,135	2.80163,698	2.77601,103	2.75169,435	2.72849,803	2.70631,195
4	3.76197,471	3.71705,840	3.67307,091	3.62985,323	3.58732,370	3.54545,800	3.50420,861
5	4.64889,849	4.57970,719	4.51166,237	4.44461,233	4.37857,174	4.31347,637	4.24926,378
6	5.50812,536	5.41179,144	5.32655,302	5.24213,646	5.15847,234	5.07539,207	4.99282,432
7	6.34599,060	6.23028,295	6.11454,304	6.00005,407	5.88670,004	5.77437,340	5.66288,144
8	7.17013,717	7.01969,219	6.87395,853	6.73274,488	6.59485,667	6.45911,276	6.32539,381
9	7.97986,553	7.78010,829	7.60768,651	7.43853,111	7.27209,049	7.10823,167	6.94653,227
10	8.75206,303	8.58200,284	8.41650,532	8.25489,578	8.09459,718	7.93737,493	7.78316,008
11	9.51420,871	9.28262,410	9.05155,103	8.76047,671	8.58201,692	8.40641,422	7.86667,457
12	10.25770,460	9.95400,398	9.65333,433	9.38607,376	9.18888,678	8.98328,164	8.78034,393
13	10.98218,497	10.63495,532	10.30273,848	9.98504,785	9.76285,242	9.53817,299	9.32058,206
14	11.69091,217	11.29367,312	10.93932,927	10.56114,933	10.32282,328	10.08664,694	9.85498,392
15	12.38137,773	11.93793,507	10.51741,089	11.11838,744	10.73004,573	10.37665,804	9.71234,898
16	13.05500,266	12.56110,201	12.09411,881	11.65229,211	11.23401,805	10.83778,956	10.10589,268
17	13.71219,772	13.16611,845	12.61132,058	12.16561,886	11.70719,143	11.27406,628	10.47725,966
18	14.35336,323	13.75351,396	13.18958,172	12.65929,598	12.18599,180	11.69858,690	10.82707,347
19	14.97888,134	14.32379,905	13.75863,741	13.13393,660	12.63839,393	12.08839,066	11.18811,648
20	15.58916,228	14.87747,484	14.31400,330	13.59343,635	13.07938,645	12.44921,034	11.46692,121
21	16.18454,857	15.41502,412	14.86797,420	14.02918,995	13.40472,388	12.69118,271	11.76407,661
22	16.76483,824	15.93691,652	15.40712,483	14.45111,534	13.78442,476	13.03008,258	12.04188,171
23	17.33211,048	16.44369,837	15.92841,047	14.85884,107	14.14777,480	13.48497,368	12.36037,497
24	17.88498,583	16.93554,210	16.43536,700	15.24696,314	14.49847,437	13.79864,179	12.58835,354
25	18.42437,614	17.41314,766	16.94181,459	15.62207,915	14.82820,860	14.09394,447	12.78335,615
26	18.95061,112	17.87694,239	17.43903,226	15.98276,518	15.14061,145	14.27818,530	12.90016,618
27	19.46401,087	18.32708,145	17.92836,450	16.32908,575	15.43510,282	14.44808,292	12.91083,413
28	19.96488,134	18.76419,820	18.40101,884	16.65308,392	15.70487,351	14.60518,388	12.91618,036
29	20.45334,991	19.18845,456	18.85764,700	16.95714,364	16.02188,843	14.81007,258	12.90709,101
30	20.93029,259	19.60044,132	19.30204,541	17.29208,330	16.28868,604	15.07246,103	12.76483,115
31	21.39540,741	20.00042,847	19.73627,676	17.58849,356	16.54439,696	15.29281,050	12.92908,699
32	21.84917,796	20.38876,550	20.16866,547	17.87373,150	16.78803,085	15.48037,667	13.08404,339
33	22.29188,093	20.76571,173	20.59050,817	18.14794,637	17.02366,377	15.64574,617	13.22261,061
34	22.72378,738	21.13183,665	20.99668,423	18.41119,774	17.24675,796	15.79200,401	13.34614,114
35	23.14515,174	21.48722,004	20.00086,109	18.66461,323	17.46101,240	15.92419,420	13.45628,336
36	23.55625,107	21.83225,247	20.29699,381	18.90828,100	17.66694,038	16.04688,171	13.55206,731
37	23.95781,811	22.16723,541	20.57059,542	19.14287,889	17.86229,979	16.17128,734	13.73676,013
38	24.34980,304	22.49245,136	20.84108,736	19.36770,434	18.04999,033	16.28789,271	13.84601,916
39	24.73034,443	22.80821,510	21.10449,087	19.58448,484	18.22658,572	17.01704,667	14.94907,468
40	25.10277,005	23.11477,198	21.35507,224	19.79277,389	18.40158,442	17.18998,636	15.04629,887
41	25.46612,200	23.41239,595	21.59910,371	19.99305,181	18.56610,949	17.26436,796	15.18801,861
42	25.82050,683	23.70135,917	21.83488,974	20.18692,674	18.72204,076	17.42320,738	15.22454,331
43	26.16644,969	23.98190,211	22.06298,470	20.37071,494	18.87421,099	17.54691,198	15.30617,294
44	26.50394,545	24.25427,389	22.28279,102	20.54884,129	19.01838,262	17.66277,331	15.38318,202
45	26.83302,386	24.51871,231	22.49545,026	20.72008,070	19.16534,742	17.77406,922	15.45583,209
46	27.15416,962	24.77544,904	22.70091,812	20.88466,396	19.28637,074	17.88006,650	15.52436,990
47	27.46749,255	25.02470,780	22.89943,780	21.04208,612	19.41470,844	17.98101,371	15.58902,821
48	27.77315,371	25.26700,660	23.09134,425	21.19113,088	19.53830,455	18.07218,782	15.65002,017
49	28.07136,543	25.50165,689	23.27656,449	21.34147,300	19.65819,813	18.16872,173	15.70737,227
50	28.36281,168	25.72976,397	23.45811,787	21.48218,402	19.76200,778	18.25952,546	15.76186,063
51	28.64615,744	25.95122,716	23.62861,630	21.61748,521	19.85795,999	18.33897,663	15.81397,697
52	28.92308,072	26.16623,066	23.78776,404	21.74778,103	19.94639,117	18.41807,298	15.86139,252
53	29.19324,248	26.37499,026	23.93726,043	21.87267,413	20.02634,360	18.48740,244	15.90597,474
54	29.45682,877	26.57766,043	24.11329,510	21.99295,617	20.10018,149	18.56151,556	15.94897,854
55	29.71397,928	26.77424,261	24.26408,323	22.10861,218	20.24863,057	18.63347,196	15.99094,296
56	29.96485,784	26.96540,370	24.40971,327	22.21018,940	20.38318,404	18.69884,473	16.02981,412
57	30.20961,740	27.15065,568	24.55084,760	22.30874,843	20.50488,664	18.76103,879	16.06601,808
58	30.44840,722	27.33100,546	24.68642,281	22.40551,676	20.62354,502	18.81954,170	16.09989,017
59	30.68137,650	27.50683,055	24.81779,981	22.52842,967	20.56673,363	18.87575,400	16.13111,336
60	30.90865,549	27.67856,364	24.94473,412	22.62348,907	20.63802,203	18.92928,053	16.16142,270
61	31.13090,657	27.84638,304	25.06737,896	22.71480,421	20.70634,119	18.98097,874	16.19095,613
62	31.34772,835	28.00034,276	25.18587,040	22.80274,280	20.77132,267	19.02988,404	16.31704,708
63	31.55778,178	28.15067,258	25.30035,796	22.88723,124	20.83396,204	19.07600,005	16.34248,829
64	31.76089,344	28.30647,828	25.41097,388	22.96854,027	20.89377,319	19.11912,384	16.36647,008
65	31.96547,706	28.45899,140	25.51784,916	23.04698,109	20.95097,513	19.16107,033	16.38912,272
66	32.16066,298	28.60894,028	25.62111,030	23.12180,169	21.00573,169	19.20191,386	16.31049,313
67	32.35720,876	28.75634,581	25.72087,941	23.19404,768	21.05810,985	19.24095,606	16.33055,200
68	32.53381,059	28.89708,708	25.81727,489	23.26350,739	21.10823,032	19.27830,101	16.34867,349
69	32.72030,341	29.03122,396	25.91041,063	23.33029,805	21.15620,061	19.30961,048	16.36761,650
70	32.90785,694	29.15242,132	26.00030,664	23.39461,407	21.20211,187	19.34267,668	16.38454,387

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

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V. Table of MORTALITY 1 showing the Number of Persons alive at the End of every Year, from 1 to 100 Years of Age, out of 1,000 born together, in the different Places, and according to the Authorities un-dermentioned.

Age.	England.				France.			Sweden.	Vienna.	Berlin.	Switzer-land.	Silesia.	Holland.
	Sheve- n. Lon- don.	Price, Northampton.	Epou- v. Car- diffe.	Depencez, Amnians, &c.	Bruffe, Part Popula- tion.	Parifid, Whole Popula- tion.	W. gene- ra. Whole Popula- tion.	Saaslich.	Saaslich.	Neuf, Pays de Vaud.	Salz- burg. Rein- de.	Krassow. Lif. Annu- ities.	
0	680	748	846	745	731	768	746	542	633	811	769	804	
1	648	625	778	709	632	672	730	471	628	765	638	768	
2	492	582	725	682	591	625	695	430	485	735	614	736	
3	452	553	700	662	557	599	671	400	434	715	605	709	
4	426	536	686	647	530	583	656	377	413	701	593	689	
5	410	521	668	634	523	573	644	357	387	683	546	676	
6	397	509	659	624	511	569	634	344	376	677	532	664	
7	388	499	654	615	501	560	625	337	367	667	523	652	
8	386	492	649	607	494	556	618	331	361	657	515	646	
9	373	487	646	600	489	551	611	327	356	651	508	639	
10	367	483	643	595	486	547	605	322	353	648	502	633	
11	361	478	640	590	482	543	603	318	350	643	497	627	
12	356	474	637	585	479	539	597	314	347	639	492	621	
13	351	470	634	581	476	534	594	310	344	635	488	616	
14	347	465	630	578	474	529	590	306	341	631	483	611	
15	343	461	626	574	468	524	586	302	338	626	479	606	
16	338	457	622	570	464	519	582	299	335	622	474	601	
17	334	452	618	565	459	514	578	295	332	618	470	596	
18	329	448	613	561	455	508	574	291	328	614	465	590	
19	325	443	608	556	449	503	570	288	324	610	461	584	
20	321	438	603	551	445	496	565	284	320	606	456	577	
21	316	434	601	545	438	490	560	280	315	602	451	571	
22	310	421	590	540	432	484	555	276	310	597	446	566	
23	306	415	582	534	430	478	551	273	305	592	441	559	
24	301	409	578	529	419	471	546	269	307	587	436	551	
25	294	402	564	523	414	465	541	265	293	582	431	543	
26	286	396	579	517	408	458	535	261	287	577	426	535	
27	283	390	575	512	402	452	530	256	281	572	421	526	
28	278	383	570	506	398	445	525	251	275	567	416	517	
29	272	376	564	500	398	438	519	247	269	563	409	508	
30	267	370	559	495	394	432	513	243	264	558	403	499	
31	260	364	553	490	377	425	507	239	259	553	397	490	
32	254	357	547	484	371	418	501	235	254	548	391	482	
33	248	351	542	479	366	411	495	231	249	544	384	474	
34	242	344	536	474	356	404	488	226	243	539	377	467	
35	236	338	531	469	359	397	482	221	237	533	370	460	
36	230	331	525	464	341	390	477	216	230	527	363	453	
37	224	325	519	459	334	383	471	211	223	520	356	446	
38	218	318	514	454	330	376	465	206	216	513	349	439	
39	212	312	508	449	314	369	469	199	209	506	342	432	
40	207	305	501	444	310	362	463	194	203	500	335	425	
41	201	299	499	439	302	355	445	189	197	494	328	419	
42	194	292	497	434	297	348	437	185	192	489	321	413	
43	187	285	490	429	292	341	430	181	187	482	314	407	
44	180	279	473	424	279	334	422	178	182	476	307	400	
45	174	272	466	419	273	327	414	171	177	469	299	393	
46	167	265	459	413	269	320	407	165	172	461	291	386	
47	160	259	452	408	262	312	400	159	167	451	283	378	
48	153	252	456	402	258	305	392	153	162	441	275	370	
49	147	245	440	396	242	297	385	147	157	431	267	362	
50	141	238	434	390	239	289	376	142	152	422	259	354	
51	135	231	428	384	233	282	367	137	147	414	250	345	
52	130	224	421	378	229	274	358	133	142	406	241	336	
53	125	217	414	371	224	265	349	128	137	397	232	327	
54	120	210	407	363	212	258	340	123	132	388	224	318	
55	116	203	400	355	207	249	331	117	127	377	216	309	
56	110	196	392	346	202	242	322	111	121	368	208	300	
57	106	189	384	338	194	232	312	106	115	348	201	291	
58	101	182	375	329	190	223	303	101	109	331	193	282	
59	96	176	364	319	182	214	293	96	103	314	186	273	
60	92	169	352	309	165	204	282	91	97	299	178	264	
61	87	162	340	299	157	195	271	86	92	286	170	255	
62	83	154	327	288	150	186	259	82	88	274	162	245	
63	78	147	314	278	144	176	247	77	84	262	155	235	
64	74	140	302	267	135	166	235	72	80	250	147	226	
65	70	133	289	256	126	157	224	67	75	236	140	215	
66	65	126	277	245	117	147	212	62	70	220	132	205	
67	61	119	265	233	106	137	200	57	65	209	124	195	
68	56	113	251	222	96	129	187	52	60	184	117	185	
69	52	106	240	211	90	118	175	48	55	168	109	175	
70	47	99	228	199	86	108	162	44	51	153	101	165	
71	43	92	214	187	75	99	149	40	47	140	93	155	
72	39	85	200	173	69	89	135	36	43	129	85	145	
73	35	78	184	162	63	80	121	33	39	119	77	135	
74	32	71	168	148	52	72	108	30	35	109	69	125	

VIII. Table showing the EXPECTATION OF LIFE at every Age, according to the Observations made at Carlisle.

Age.	Expect.										
0	38-73	18	42-87	36	30-23	53	18-97	70	9-19	87	3-71
1	44-08	19	42-17	37	29-64	54	18-28	71	8-56	88	3-59
2	47-65	20	41-48	38	28-98	55	17-58	72	8-16	89	3-47
3	49-82	21	40-75	39	28-36	56	16-89	73	7-79	90	3-38
4	50-76	22	40-04	40	27-61	57	16-21	74	7-38	91	3-26
5	51-25	23	39-31	41	26-97	58	15-58	75	7-01	92	3-27
6	51-17	24	38-59	42	26-24	59	14-92	76	6-69	93	3-48
7	50-60	25	37-86	43	25-71	60	14-24	77	6-40	94	3-53
8	50-24	26	37-14	44	25-09	61	13-59	78	6-12	95	3-53
9	49-57	27	36-41	45	24-45	62	13-21	79	5-80	96	3-45
10	48-82	28	35-69	46	23-82	63	12-81	80	5-51	97	3-26
11	48-04	29	35-00	47	23-17	64	12-30	81	5-21	98	3-07
12	47-27	30	34-34	48	22-50	65	11-79	82	4-93	99	3-77
13	46-51	31	33-68	49	21-81	66	11-27	83	4-65	100	3-58
14	45-75	32	33-08	50	21-11	67	10-75	84	4-39	101	1-79
15	45-00	33	32-36	51	20-29	68	10-23	85	4-12	102	1-20
16	44-24	34	31-68	52	19-68	69	9-70	86	3-90	103	0-83
17		35	31-00								

IX. Table giving a COMPARATIVE VIEW of the Results of the undermentioned Tables of Mortality, in relation to the following Particulars.

	By Dr. Price's Table, founded on the Register of Births and Burials at Northampton.	By the First Swedish Tables, as published by Dr. Price for both Sexes.	By Mr. De-Parcieux's Table, founded on the Mortality in the French Tonnes, prior to 1745.	By Mr. Milne's Table, founded on the Mortality observed at Carlisle.	By Mr. Griffiths's Table, founded on the Experience of the Equitable Life Insurance Office.	By Mr. Finlaison's Table, founded on the Experience of the Government Life Annuities.	
	According to his first Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1825.	According to his second Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1827.	Mean of both Sexes.	Mean of both Sexes.			
Of 100,000 persons aged 25 there would be alive at the age of 65 -	34,266	43,137	51,033	51,335	49,330	53,470	53,950
Of 100,000 persons aged 65 there would be alive at the age of 80 -	28,738	23,704	29,837	31,577	37,267	38,655	37,355
Expectation of life at the age of 25 - years	30-65	34-58	37-17	37-86	37-45	36-35	36-52
Expectation of life at the age of 65 - years	10-88	10-10	11-25	11-79	12-35	12-81	12-50
Value of an annuity on a life aged 25, interest being at 4 per cent.	£15-438	£16-839	£17-420	£17-645	£17-494	£17-534	£17-634
Value of an annuity on a life aged 65, interest being at 4 per cent.	£7-761	£7-928	£8-089	£8-307	£8-635	£8-896	£8-751
Value of a deferred annuity commencing at 65, to a life now aged 25, interest at 4 per cent.	£0-55424	£0-65842	£0-65452	£0-68823	£0-68723	£0-99078	£0-98334

Note. — In all the Tables above mentioned, it is to be observed that the mortality is deduced from an equal, or nearly equal, number of each sex; with the single exception of Mr. Davies's Table, founded on the experience of the Equitable, in which office, from the practical objects of life insurance, it is evident the male sex must have composed the vast majority of lives subjected to mortality. But as it is agreed on all hands that the duration of life among females exceeds that of males, it follows that the results of Mr. Davies's Table fall materially short of what they would have been, if the facts on which he has reasoned had comprehended an equal number of each sex. The Tables have not, in all cases, been computed at 4½ per cent., the rate allowed by government.

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

XII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Ages.		3	4	5	Ages.		3	4	5	Ages.		3	4	5
		Cent.	Cent.	Cent.			Cent.	Cent.	Cent.			Cent.	Cent.	Cent.
1 & 1	9-480	9-252	7-287	33 & 33	12-079	10-902	9-919	85 & 85	5-471	5-201	4-960			
2 - 2	12-749	11-107	7-733	34 - 34	11-901	10-776	9-806	86 - 86	5-231	4-960	4-749			
3 - 3	14-191	12-325	10-862	35 - 35	11-722	10-612	9-680	87 - 87	4-980	4-760	4-555			
4 - 4	15-181	13-185	11-621	36 - 36	11-539	10-462	9-555	88 - 88	4-747	4-537	4-348			
5 - 5	15-638	13-501	11-984	37 - 37	11-351	10-307	9-428	89 - 89	4-504	4-312	4-140			
6 - 6	16-059	14-0-5	12-358	38 - 38	11-160	10-149	9-294	70 - 70	4-261	4-067	3-930			
7 - 7	16-375	14-224	12-596	39 - 39	10-964	9-986	9-158	71 - 71	4-020	3-822	3-719			
8 - 8	16-510	14-369	12-731	40 - 40	10-764	9-820	9-016	72 - 72	3-781	3-589	3-510			
9 - 9	16-483	14-396	12-744	41 - 41	10-565	9-654	8-876	73 - 73	3-548	3-421	3-304			
10 - 10	16-339	14-277	12-669	42 - 42	10-369	9-491	8-737	74 - 74	3-394	3-211	3-105			
11 - 11	16-143	14-133	12-546	43 - 43	10-175	9-326	8-599	75 - 75	3-114	3-015	2-917			
12 - 12	15-926	13-966	12-411	44 - 44	9-977	9-161	8-457	76 - 76	2-926	2-833	2-750			
13 - 13	15-703	13-789	12-268	45 - 45	9-778	8-990	8-312	77 - 77	2-741	2-656	2-583			
14 - 14	15-470	13-604	12-118	46 - 46	9-571	8-815	8-162	78 - 78	2-550	2-470	2-410			
15 - 15	15-229	13-411	11-960	47 - 47	9-362	8-637	8-008	79 - 79	2-338	2-271	2-217			
16 - 16	14-979	13-212	11-793	48 - 48	9-149	8-453	7-849	80 - 80	2-122	2-068	2-019			
17 - 17	14-737	13-019	11-630	49 - 49	8-930	8-265	7-686	81 - 81	1-917	1-869	1-827			
18 - 18	14-516	12-841	11-483	50 - 50	8-714	8-080	7-522	82 - 82	1-719	1-681	1-642			
19 - 19	14-318	12-679	11-351	51 - 51	8-507	7-900	7-366	83 - 83	1-538	1-510	1-473			
20 - 20	14-133	12-535	11-232	52 - 52	8-304	7-723	7-213	84 - 84	1-418	1-387	1-357			
21 - 21	13-974	12-409	11-131	53 - 53	8-098	7-544	7-066	85 - 85	1-309	1-289	1-266			
22 - 22	13-830	12-293	11-042	54 - 54	7-891	7-362	6-907	86 - 86	1-215	1-195	1-171			
23 - 23	13-683	12-179	10-951	55 - 55	7-681	7-179	6-735	87 - 87	1-141	1-124	1-106			
24 - 24	13-544	12-069	10-856	56 - 56	7-470	6-993	6-571	88 - 88	1-103	1-090	1-063			
25 - 25	13-383	11-944	10-764	57 - 57	7-256	6-805	6-404	89 - 89	1-038	1-015	1-001			
26 - 26	13-230	11-822	10-667	58 - 58	7-041	6-614	6-234	90 - 90	0-938	0-923	0-909			
27 - 27	13-074	11-699	10-574	59 - 59	6-826	6-426	6-061	91 - 91	0-763	0-753	0-744			
28 - 28	12-928	11-573	10-466	60 - 60	6-606	6-238	5-888	92 - 92	0-691	0-683	0-676			
29 - 29	12-754	11-445	10-362	61 - 61	6-386	6-030	5-712	93 - 93	0-369	0-365	0-361			
30 - 30	12-589	11-313	10-255	62 - 62	6-166	5-831	5-533	94 - 94	0-203	0-201	0-199			
31 - 31	12-423	11-179	10-146	63 - 63	5-938	5-626	5-347	95 - 95	0-060	0-060	0-060			
32 - 32	12-222	11-042	10-034	64 - 64	5-709	5-417	5-168	96 - 96	0-000	0-000	0-000			

XIII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Ages.		3	4	5	Ages.		3	4	5	Ages.		3	4	5
		Cent.	Cent.	Cent.			Cent.	Cent.	Cent.			Cent.	Cent.	Cent.
1 & 1	14-079	11-924	10-299	36 & 36	14-477	12-919	11-627	70 & 70	4-556	4-367	4-191			
2 - 2	16-155	13-671	11-753	37 - 37	14-251	12-724	11-479	71 - 71	4-217	4-060	3-893			
3 - 3	18-030	15-260	13-062	38 - 38	13-961	12-525	11-302	72 - 72	3-904	3-753	3-615			
4 - 4	19-063	16-147	13-932	39 - 39	13-727	12-322	11-144	73 - 73	3-631	3-497	3-371			
5 - 5	19-815	16-801	14-507	40 - 40	13-481	12-125	10-994	74 - 74	3-400	3-279	3-165			
6 - 6	20-156	17-112	14-789	41 - 41	13-264	11-945	10-839	75 - 75	3-231	3-119	3-015			
7 - 7	20-280	17-242	14-917	42 - 42	13-036	11-772	10-701	76 - 76	3-068	2-966	2-870			
8 - 8	20-261	17-251	14-942	43 - 43	12-822	11-603	10-565	77 - 77	2-927	2-833	2-744			
9 - 9	20-146	17-179	14-808	44 - 44	12-620	11-426	10-425	78 - 78	2-784	2-698	2-617			
10 - 10	19-963	17-049	14-603	45 - 45	12-371	11-243	10-278	79 - 79	2-610	2-533	2-460			
11 - 11	19-748	16-891	14-684	46 - 46	12-128	11-047	10-119	80 - 80	2-459	2-390	2-324			
12 - 12	19-538	16-737	14-568	47 - 47	11-870	10-837	9-947	81 - 81	2-283	2-222	2-163			
13 - 13	19-327	16-582	14-450	48 - 48	11-591	10-607	9-755	82 - 82	2-135	2-079	2-027			
14 - 14	19-115	16-425	14-331	49 - 49	11-279	10-345	9-533	83 - 83	1-974	1-928	1-889			
15 - 15	18-908	16-272	14-215	50 - 50	10-942	10-059	9-291	84 - 84	1-825	1-782	1-741			
16 - 16	18-719	16-134	14-112	51 - 51	10-579	9-748	9-023	85 - 85	1-657	1-619	1-583			
17 - 17	18-543	16-007	14-018	52 - 52	10-215	9-434	8-751	86 - 86	1-509	1-476	1-444			
18 - 18	18-365	15-880	13-923	53 - 53	9-849	9-117	8-474	87 - 87	1-369	1-359	1-351			
19 - 19	18-182	15-748	13-827	54 - 54	9-480	8-795	8-192	88 - 88	1-229	1-231	1-225			
20 - 20	17-993	15-610	13-724	55 - 55	9-103	8-465	7-900	89 - 89	1-088	1-223	1-190			
21 - 21	17-777	15-466	13-616	56 - 56	8-721	8-128	7-600	90 - 90	1-088	1-066	1-045			
22 - 22	17-588	15-310	13-497	57 - 57	8-334	7-793	7-293	91 - 91	1-050	1-028	1-007			
23 - 23	17-372	15-148	13-372	58 - 58	7-954	7-444	6-988	92 - 92	1-120	1-096	1-073			
24 - 24	17-148	14-978	13-240	59 - 59	7-565	7-131	6-705	93 - 93	1-226	1-199	1-173			
25 - 25	16-916	14-800	13-101	60 - 60	7-265	6-854	6-456	94 - 94	1-302	1-273	1-245			
26 - 26	16-681	14-620	12-960	61 - 61	7-044	6-600	6-257	95 - 95	1-363	1-333	1-304			
27 - 27	16-437	14-431	12-811	62 - 62	6-804	6-417	6-067	96 - 96	1-424	1-394	1-364			
28 - 28	16-166	14-244	12-663	63 - 63	6-583	6-202	5-875	97 - 97	1-395	1-366	1-336			
29 - 29	15-976	14-075	12-506	64 - 64	6-308	5-974	5-659	98 - 98	1-355	1-340	1-323			
30 - 30	15-784	13-930	12-419	65 - 65	6-147	5-738	5-456	99 - 99	1-294	1-272	1-251			
31 - 31	15-591	13-784	12-308	66 - 66	5-774	5-490	5-230	100 - 100	0-991	0-978	0-962			
32 - 32	15-392	13-632	12-191	67 - 67	5-486	5-228	4-990	101 - 101	0-687	0-679	0-670			
33 - 33	15-180	13-469	12-064	68 - 68	5-1-8	4-954	4-737	102 - 102	0-387	0-383	0-379			
34 - 34	14-954	13-294	11-926	69 - 69	4-877	4-666	4-471	103 - 103	0-108	0-107	0-106			
35 - 35	14-720	13-111	11-780											

XIV. Table showing the VALUE of an ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE of AGE is FIVE YEARS, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.	Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.	Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.
1 & 6	12-346	10-741	9-479	22 & 27	11-775	10-659	9-716	62 & 67	5-608	5-265	4-988
2 - 7	14-461	12-861	11-100	23 - 28	11-591	10-506	9-561	63 - 68	5-565	5-017	4-788
3 - 8	15-300	13-319	11-755	24 - 29	11-404	10-354	9-463	64 - 69	5-525	4-759	4-585
4 - 9	15-849	13-775	12-155	25 - 30	11-215	10-196	9-381	65 - 70	5-478	4-573	4-378
5 - 10	15-974	13-533	12-318	26 - 31	11-021	10-037	9-198	66 - 71	5-440	4-549	4-347
6 - 11	15-110	14-068	12-447	27 - 32	10-828	9-877	9-022	67 - 72	5-408	4-124	3-950
7 - 12	15-137	14-111	12-498	28 - 33	10-634	9-716	8-927	68 - 73	5-369	3-901	3-752
8 - 13	15-049	14-069	12-492	29 - 34	10-437	9-550	8-787	69 - 74	5-325	3-683	3-547
9 - 14	14-957	13-992	12-421	30 - 35	10-245	9-381	8-643	70 - 75	5-269	3-471	3-347
10 - 15	14-762	13-841	12-302	31 - 36	10-058	9-210	8-497	71 - 76	5-205	3-270	3-159
11 - 16	14-558	13-654	12-158	32 - 37	9-879	9-037	8-350	72 - 77	5-175	3-070	2-971
12 - 17	14-308	13-480	12-009	33 - 38	9-693	8-868	8-200	73 - 78	5-163	2-969	2-760
13 - 18	14-066	13-303	11-864	34 - 39	9-514	8-693	8-048	74 - 79	5-143	2-959	2-580
14 - 19	14-870	13-130	11-723	35 - 40	9-304	8-508	7-901	75 - 80	5-095	2-948	2-381
15 - 20	14-660	12-950	11-586	36 - 41	9-128	8-328	7-747	76 - 81	5-023	2-928	2-195
16 - 21	14-457	12-759	11-462	37 - 42	8-970	8-147	7-582	77 - 82	4-931	2-877	2-012
17 - 22	14-265	12-546	11-327	38 - 43	8-879	7-965	7-424	78 - 83	4-847	1-999	1-838
18 - 23	14-082	12-300	11-209	39 - 44	8-866	7-780	7-262	79 - 84	4-762	1-751	1-750
19 - 24	13-908	12-361	11-096	40 - 45	8-851	7-593	7-098	80 - 85	4-685	1-608	1-673
20 - 25	13-741	12-223	10-986	41 - 46	8-831	7-409	6-936	81 - 86	4-611	1-471	1-447
21 - 26	13-584	12-106	10-890	42 - 47	8-807	7-225	6-774	82 - 87	4-548	1-346	1-329
22 - 27	13-433	11-987	10-796	43 - 48	8-781	7-039	6-609	83 - 88	4-484	1-259	1-253
23 - 28	13-280	11-866	10-669	44 - 49	8-754	6-850	6-442	84 - 89	4-417	1-104	1-145
24 - 29	13-124	11-748	10-600	45 - 50	8-708	6-659	6-272	85 - 90	4-304	1-074	1-038
25 - 30	12-965	11-618	10-489	46 - 51	8-670	6-468	6-100	86 - 91	4-221	903	8-829
26 - 31	12-805	11-489	10-396	47 - 52	8-651	6-270	5-925	87 - 92	4-155	0-738	0-734
27 - 32	12-641	11-359	10-269	48 - 53	8-627	6-070	5-748	88 - 93	4-061	0-554	0-547
28 - 33	12-474	11-226	10-181	49 - 54	8-601	5-867	5-561	89 - 94	3-977	0-373	0-369
29 - 34	12-304	11-088	10-069	50 - 55	8-570	5-658	5-373	90 - 95	3-879	0-177	0-175
30 - 35	12-131	10-948	9-954	51 - 56	8-537	5-447	5-180	91 - 96	0-000	0-000	0-000
31 - 36	11-953	10-803	9-857								

XV. Table showing the VALUE of an ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE of AGE is FIVE YEARS, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.	Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.	Age.	3 Cent.	4 Cent.	5 Cent.
1 & 6	16-898	14-269	12-331	34 & 39	14-200	12-773	11-508	67 & 72	4-580	4-386	4-207
2 - 7	18-067	15-341	13-238	35 - 40	14-048	12-581	11-354	68 - 73	4-507	4-123	3-961
3 - 8	19-100	16-214	14-018	36 - 41	13-912	12-394	11-204	69 - 74	4-435	4-078	3-731
4 - 9	19-984	16-644	14-402	37 - 42	13-795	12-209	11-066	70 - 75	4-364	3-951	3-589
5 - 10	19-974	16-913	14-649	38 - 43	13-346	12-024	10-907	71 - 76	4-308	3-439	3-219
6 - 11	19-335	16-989	14-731	39 - 44	13-107	11-833	10-753	72 - 77	4-253	3-257	3-127
7 - 12	19-989	16-975	14-736	40 - 45	12-868	11-641	10-598	73 - 78	4-192	3-047	2-949
8 - 13	19-771	16-903	14-689	41 - 46	12-650	11-450	10-444	74 - 79	4-135	2-857	2-757
9 - 14	19-606	16-785	14-606	42 - 47	12-398	11-256	10-287	75 - 80	4-079	2-704	2-623
10 - 15	19-410	16-648	14-500	43 - 48	12-128	11-053	10-121	76 - 81	4-018	2-540	2-467
11 - 16	19-208	16-495	14-389	44 - 49	11-868	10-830	9-937	77 - 82	3-947	2-400	2-333
12 - 17	19-014	16-334	14-284	45 - 50	11-580	10-591	9-737	78 - 83	3-878	2-258	2-194
13 - 18	18-820	16-213	14-178	46 - 51	11-271	10-333	9-519	79 - 84	3-799	2-098	2-045
14 - 19	18-622	16-088	14-069	47 - 52	10-995	10-065	9-285	80 - 85	3-703	1-943	1-895
15 - 20	18-423	15-922	13-959	48 - 53	10-628	9-787	9-054	81 - 86	3-604	1-790	1-747
16 - 21	18-220	15-781	13-853	49 - 54	10-284	9-493	8-799	82 - 87	3-494	1-654	1-626
17 - 22	18-036	15-639	13-746	50 - 55	9-954	9-181	8-528	83 - 88	3-366	1-509	1-535
18 - 23	17-838	15-493	13-631	51 - 56	9-550	8-855	8-242	84 - 89	3-196	1-404	1-433
19 - 24	17-633	15-341	13-520	52 - 57	9-178	8-524	7-950	85 - 90	3-035	1-307	1-279
20 - 25	17-421	15-182	13-398	53 - 58	8-797	8-194	7-657	86 - 91	2-855	1-229	1-208
21 - 26	17-204	15-019	13-272	54 - 59	8-438	7-876	7-375	87 - 92	2-643	1-128	1-128
22 - 27	16-977	14-846	13-137	55 - 60	8-098	7-574	7-106	88 - 93	2-472	1-045	1-045
23 - 28	16-747	14-670	13-000	56 - 61	7-788	7-289	6-860	89 - 94	2-266	1-040	1-040
24 - 29	16-504	14-500	12-867	57 - 62	7-480	7-025	6-615	90 - 95	2-117	1-011	1-011
25 - 30	16-311	14-339	12-742	58 - 63	7-175	6-752	6-370	91 - 96	1-910	1-018	1-018
26 - 31	16-097	14-176	12-615	59 - 64	6-875	6-482	6-127	92 - 97	1-720	1-005	1-011
27 - 32	15-875	14-006	12-482	60 - 65	6-589	6-225	5-89	93 - 96	1-562	1-038	1-015
28 - 33	15-648	13-830	12-344	61 - 66	6-323	5-966	5-678	94 - 99	1-324	1-121	1-121
29 - 34	15-424	13-557	12-206	62 - 67	6-054	5-743	5-458	95 - 100	1-073	1-055	1-058
30 - 35	15-229	13-401	12-071	63 - 68	5-793	5-483	5-230	96 - 101	0-839	1-039	1-039
31 - 36	14-969	13-221	11-944	64 - 69	5-490	5-229	4-988	97 - 102	0-568	0-762	0-762
32 - 37	14-754	13-146	11-806	65 - 70	5-193	4-986	4-737	98 - 103	0-254	0-252	0-249
33 - 38	14-531	12-964	11-661	66 - 71	4-882	4-667	4-469				

The Northampton Table (No. VII.), by under-rating the duration of life, was a very advantageous guide for the Insurance offices to go by in insuring lives; but to whatever extent it might be beneficial to them in this respect, it became equally injurious when they adopted it as a guide in selling annuities. And yet, singular as it may seem, some of the insurance offices granted annuities on the same terms that they insured lives; not perceiving that, if they gained by the latter transaction, they must obviously lose by the former. Government also continued for a lengthened period to sell annuities according to the Northampton Table, and without making any distinction between male and female lives! A glance at the Tables of M. Deparcleux ought to have satisfied them that they were proceeding on entirely false principles. But, in despite even of the admonitions of some of the most skillful mathematicians, this system was persevered in till within these few years! We understand that the loss then arising to the public may be moderately estimated at 2,000,000 sterling. Nor will this appear a large sum to those who recollect that, supposing interest to be 4 per cent., there is a difference of no less than 911. 1s. in the value of an annuity of 50*l.* for life, to a person aged 45, between the Northampton and Carlisle Tables.

INVOICE, an account of goods or merchandise sent by merchants to their correspondents at home or abroad, in which the peculiar marks of each package, with other particulars, are set forth. — (See example, *anté*, p. 143.)

IONIAN ISLANDS, the name given to the islands of Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, Cerigo, and their dependent islets. With the exception of Cerigo, which lies opposite to the south-eastern extremity of the Morea, the rest lie pretty contiguous, along the western coasts of Epirus and Greece; the most northerly point of Corfu being in lat. 39° 48' 15" N., and the most southerly point of Zante (Cape Kieri, on which there is a light-house) being in lat. 37° 38' 35" N. Kapsali, the port of Cerigo, is in lat. 36° 7' 30" N., lon. 23° E.

The area and population of the different islands may be estimated as follows: —

Islands.	Area in Square Miles 15 to a degree.	Population in 1856.
Corfu	10-78	68,067
Cephalonia	16-70	63,197
Zante	8-60	35,548
Santa Maura	4-85	17,183
Ithaca and Calamos	8-39	9,844
Cerigo and Cerigois	4-00	8,707
Paxo and Antipaxo	1-90	9,084
Totals	47-12*	204,512

* This is equal to 1001-3 English square miles of 69-15 to the degree.

Soil and Climate. — These are very various — Zante is the most fruitful. It consists principally of an extensive plain, occupied by plantations of currants, and having an air of luxuriant fertility and richness. Its climate is comparatively equal and fine, but it is very subject to earthquakes. Corfu and Cephalonia are more rugged and less fruitful than Zante; and the former, from its vicinity to the snowy mountains of Epirus, and the latter from the Black Mountain (the Mount *Enos* of antiquity) in its interior, are exposed in winter to great and sudden variations of temperature. In January, 1833, the cold was more rigorous than usual, the frost damaging to a great extent the oranges and vines of these islands, and those of Santa Maura. The latter is, in the hot season, exceedingly unhealthy, — a consequence of the vapours arising from the marshes and the shallow seas to the N. E. Cerigo is rocky and sterile; it is subject to continued gales, and the currents seldom permit its waters to remain unruined.

History, Government, &c. — These islands have undergone many vicissitudes. Corfu, the ancient *Corycra*, was famous in antiquity for its naval power, and for the contest between it and its mother state Corinth, which eventually terminated in the Peloponnesian war. Ithaca, the kingdom of *Ulysses*; Cephalonia, sometimes called *Dulichium*, from the name of one of its cities; Zante, or *Zacynthos*; and Santa Maura, known to the ancients by the names of *Leuca* or *Leucadia*, celebrated for its promontory, surmounted by a temple of *Apollo*, whence *Sappho* precipitated herself into the ocean; and *Cerigo*, or *Cythera*, the birth-place of *Heleen*, and sacred to *Venus*, — have all acquired an immortality of renown. But, on comparing their present with their former state, we may well exclaim, —

Hec quantum hæc Niobe, Niobe distabat illi!

After innumerable revolutions, they fell, about 350 years ago, under the dominion of *Venice*. Since the downfall of that republic, they have had several protectors, or rather masters, being successively under the dominion of the *Russians*, the *French*, and the *English*. By the treaty of *Paris*, in 1815, they were formed into a sort of semi-independent state. They enjoy an internal government of their own, under the protection of Great Britain; a Lord High Commissioner, appointed by the king of England, having charge of the foreign relations, and of the internal, maritime, and sanitary police. His Majesty's commander-in-chief has the custody of the fortresses, and the disposal of the forces. It is stipulated in the treaty of *Paris*, that the islands may be called upon for the pay and subsistence of 3,000 men, as well as for the repair of their fortresses occupied by the British troops. The executive government is vested in a president nominated by the commissioner, and a senate of 9 members (1 for each of the larger islands of *Corfu*, *Cephalonia*, *Zante*, and *Santa Maura*, and 1 representing collectively the smaller ones of *Ithaca*, *Cerigo*, and *Paxo*, by each of which he is elected in rotation). The senators are elected at the commencement of every quinquennial parliament (subject to a negative from the commissioner) from a legislative chamber of 40 members, themselves elected by the constituencies of the different islands, for 5 years. The senate and legislative assembly, together with the commissioner, are thus the supreme authority; they are, when united, termed the *Parliament*, and, as such, pass, amend, and repeal laws, in the mode prescribed by the constitution of 1817. Besides the general government, there is in each island a local administration, composed of a regent, named by the senate, and from 2 to 5 municipal officers elected by their fellow citizens.

The State of Society in these islands is far from being good, and was formerly the most depraved imaginable. The people, when they were placed under the aegis of England, were at once lazy, ignorant, superstitious, cowardly, and bloodthirsty. Their vices may, we believe, be, in a great degree, ascribed to the government and religion established amongst them. The latter consisted of little more than a series of fasts and puerile observances; while the former was both weak and corrupt. The *Venetians* appointed to situations of power and emolument belonged mostly to noble but decayed families, and looked upon their offices merely as a means by which they might repair their shattered fortunes. Hence the gross corruption pervaded every department. There was no crime for which impunity might not be purchased. Justice, in fact, was openly bought and sold; and suits were decided, not according to the principles of law or equity, but by the irresistible influence of faction or of gold. In consequence, the islands became a prey to all the vices that afflict and degrade a corrupt and semi-barbarous society. *Sandy*, one of the best English travellers who ever visited the Levant, having touched at Zante in 1610, expresses himself with respect to the inhabitants as follows: — "In habits they imitate the *Italians*, but transcend them in their revenges, and infinitely less civil. They will threaten to kill a merchant that will not buy their commodities; and make more conscience to breake a fast than commit a murder. He is weary of his life that hath a difference with any of them, and will walke abroad after daylight. But cowardice is joined with their cruelty, who dare doe nothing but socially upon advantage; and are ever privately armed. They are encouraged to villanies by the remissness of their laws. The labourers do go into the fields with swords and partisans, as if in an enemies' country; bringing home their oils and wines in hogskins, the inside turned out." — (p. 7. ed. 1637.)

If the Zantioles did not deteriorate during the next 2 centuries, which, indeed, was hardly possible, they certainly did not improve. *Dr. Holland*, by whom they were visited in 1812, tells us that he heard, "on sure authority, that the number of assassinations in Zante has been more than 1 for each day of the year, though the population was only 40,000!" — (*Travels in the Ionian Isles*, &c. 4to ed. p. 23.)

the Div-

5	Cent.
4-988	
4-796	
4-585	
4-378	
4-169	
3-960	
3-752	
3-547	
3-347	
3-150	
2-971	
2-780	
2-580	
2-381	
2-195	
2-013	
1-836	
1-750	
1-573	
1-447	
1-329	
1-255	
1-136	
1-089	
0-998	
0-734	
0-547	
0-365	
0-219	
0-000	

the Div-

5	Cent.
4-907	
3-961	
3-731	
3-528	
3-319	
3-127	
2-946	
2-767	
2-623	
2-467	
2-333	
2-194	
2-045	
1-895	
1-747	
1-626	
1-535	
1-433	
1-279	
1-203	
1-192	
1-019	
1-314	
1-167	
1-161	
1-181	
1-215	
1-191	
1-038	
0-928	
0-855	
0-249	

advantageous be beneficial g annuities. e terms that piously lose rding to the A glance at ntirely false editions, this arising to the to those who . in the value ables.

Matters were, if not quite so bad, very little better in the other islands. In Cephalonia, the inhabitants were divided into factions, entertaining the most implacable animosities, and waging a war of extermination against each other. A little support on the part of their rulers would have served to suppress these murderous contests. But this was not an object they wished to attain; on the contrary, their selfish and crooked policy made them seek to strengthen their own power by fomenting the dissensions that prevailed amongst their subjects. — (*Bellin, Description du Golfe de Venise*, p. 165.) Considering the state of society at home, we need not wonder that the Cephalonians, who were distinguished among the islanders for activity and enterprise, were much addicted to smuggling. The Venetians themselves, in their intolerance; but, as they neglected the only means by which it could be prevented, — the establishment of security and good order at home, — their efforts were wholly unsuccessful.

The islanders did not, however, satisfy themselves with attempting to steal and prey upon each other. They were much addicted to piracy, particularly the inhabitants of Santa Maura and Corfu; and it has been alleged that the Venetian government participated in the profits of this public robbery, which, at all events, they took little pains to suppress.

A long series of years will be required to eradicate vices so deeply rooted, and to effect that thorough change in the habits and morals of the people that is so indispensable. The power and influence of the British government has already, however, had a very decided effect; assassination has become comparatively unknown; piracy has been suppressed; and a spirit of industry, sincerity, and fair dealing is beginning to manifest itself. The present generation of nobles possess a superior degree of information, and a knowledge of the true interests of their country, which, if not all that could be wished, was, at least, unknown to their fathers. It is not easy to exaggerate the difficulties with which Sir Thomas Maitland had to struggle during the first years of the British government. He was opposed by every means that feudal rancour, corruption, and duplicity could throw in his way. Those accustomed to the treachery, shuffling, and jobbing of the Venetian and Russo-Turkish governments, and the intrigues of the French, could neither appreciate nor understand the plain, straightforward course natural to British officers. These difficulties have, however, materially diminished; and it is to be hoped that the influence of our example, and of that education now pretty generally diffused, will gradually accomplish the regeneration of the islanders.

Manufactures, &c. — These islands possess few manufactures properly so termed. The wiles of the villan, or peasant, spin and weave a coarse kind of woollen cloth, sufficient in great part for the use of their families. A little soap is made at Corfu and Zante. The latter manufactures a considerable quantity of silk, gross-de-Naples and handkerchiefs; the art of dyeing is, however, too little studied, and the establishments are on too small a scale. The peasantry, in general, are lazy, vain, delighting in idleness, and very superstitious. Those of Zante and Cephalonia are more industrious than the Corfiotes; in the first, particularly, their superior condition is probably to be ascribed, in part at least, to the nobles residing more on their estates in the country, and contributing, by their example, to stimulate industry. In Corfu, the taste for the city life, which prevailed in the time of the Venetian government, still operates to a great degree. The Corfiote proprietor resides but little in his villa; his land is neglected, while he continues in the practice of his forefathers, who preferred watching opportunities at the seat of a corrupt government, to improving their fortunes by the more legitimate means of honourable exertion and attention to their patrimony. In this respect, however, a material change for the better has taken place during the last 20 years.

Imports of Grain, &c. — Great part of the land is held under short tenures, on the *metayer* system, the tenant paying half the produce to the landlord. Owing to the nature of the soil, and the superior attention given to the culture of olives and currants, the staple products of the islands, most part of the grain and cattle required for their consumption is imported. The hard wheat of Odesa is preferred, and large sums are annually sent to the Black Sea in payment. The parliament, in March, 1833, repealed the duties on the introduction of corn; and the grain monopoly of Corfu, which had been established in favour of government, in order to provide against the possibility of a general or partial scarcity, was then also suffered to expire. These 2 sources of revenue, while they existed, did not probably produce less than 20,000*l.* annually.

Cattle. — They are similarly dependent upon Greece and Turkey for supplies of butcher's meat; a small number only of sheep and goats being bred in the islands. Oxen, whether for agriculture or the slaughter-house, are principally brought from Turkey. The best eaten by the troops is 6 weeks or 2 months walking down from the Danube, and the provinces that skirt it, to the shores of Epirus, where they remain in pasture until fit for the table.

Exports. — The staple exports from these islands are oil, currants, valonia, wine, soap, and salt. The first is produced in great abundance in Corfu and Paxos, and in a less quantity in Zante, Santa Maura, and Cephalonia. Corfu has, in fact, the appearance of a continuous olive wood; a consequence, partly, of the extraordinary encouragement formerly given to the culture of the plant by the Venetians. Although there is a harvest every year, the great crop is properly biennial; the tree generally reposing for a year after its effort. (In France and Piedmont the period of inactivity is 2 and 3 years.) During 5 or 6 months, from October till April, the country, particularly in Corfu, presents an animated appearance, persons of all ages being busily employed in picking up the fruit. The average price may be about 1*l.* 1*s.* per barrel. Under the old Venetian system, the oil could only be carried to Trieste. It is charged with an *ad valorem* duty of 15*l.* per cent., payable on the export. The quality might be much improved by a little more care in the manufacture, the trees being generally finer than in any other country.

Currants, originally introduced from the Morea, are grown in Zante, Cephalonia, and Ithaca, but principally in the first. The plant is a vine of small size and delicate nature, the cultivation of which requires much care. Six or 7 years elapse after a plantation has been made, before it yields a crop. In the beginning of October, the earth about the roots of the plant is loosened, and gathered up in small heaps, away from the vine, which is pruned in March; after which the ground is again laid down smooth around the plant, which grows low, and is supported by sticks. The crops are liable to injury in spring from the blight called the "bit," and rainy weather in harvest produces great mischief. The currants are gathered towards September, and after being carefully picked, are thrown singly upon a stone floor, exposed to the sun in the open air. The drying process may occupy a fortnight or longer, if the weather be not favourable. A heavy shower or thunder storm (no infrequent occurrence at that season) not only interrupts it, but sometimes causes fermentation. The fruit is then only fit to be given to animals. Should it escape these risks, it is deposited in magazines called "seraglio," until a purchaser casts up. The "seraglio," or warehouse keeper, delivers to the depositor a paper acknowledging the quantity and the quantity delivered, which passes currently in exchange from hand to hand till the time of export. Under the old Venetian government, the liberty of traffic in this produce was exceedingly restricted. In Zante 5 persons chosen out of the council of nobles assembled in presence of the *proveditore*, regulated what should be the price; and those who wished to purchase were under the necessity of describing to the government the quantity they required. This system was called the "collegio." The export duty on the fruit consisted of an original duty of 5 per cent. *ad valorem*; a *dazio fisso*, or fixed duty of about 4*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.; and afterwards of a *novissimo*, or most recent duty, of 2*s.* 2*d.* per cwt. This latter was remitted in favour of vessels bringing salt fish, &c. from the northern ports (chiefly English, Danish, and Dutch); it was afterwards relaxed in favour of Russian vessels from Odesa, and abandoned altogether as vexatious and unproductive. The *proveditore* received in addition 2 per cent., and each of his 5 Venetian counsellors 1 per cent.; so that the fruit, the original cost of which was about 5*s.* the cwt., stood the exporter in little less than 1*l.* or 19*s.* Even under British protection, the fruit, which some years before had fetched as much as 30*s.* and 32*s.* the cwt., but had declined in 1832 to 8*s.* the cwt., was burdened with the *dazio fisso* of 4*s.* 4*d.*

and a duty of 8 per cent. *ad valorem*, being equivalent together, at that price, to an *ad valorem* duty of nearly 60 per cent. In the mean time the British parliament had, in 1830, raised the import duties payable in England to the enormous amount of 44s. 4d. the cwt., which, at the same low price, made an *ad valorem* duty of 800 per cent. The consequences were rapidly visible; a decline took place in the culture of the plant, as well as in the circumstances and in the *affections* of the proprietors, whose staple export and means of existence were almost annihilated. As the prices fell, and the distress became greater, the industrious grower was obliged to borrow money at ruinous interest from foreign merchants, or from the Jews, who were, consequently, able to dictate the price at which they would take his produce. A legislative enactment on a scale commensurate with the difficulties which it had to grapple with, was, after much deliberation, matured and adopted by the 4th parliament in its session of 1833. By it the whole of the duties upon currants were commuted for an *ad valorem* tax of 1½ per cent., being the same as that laid upon oil. The same act increased, in a small degree, the duties previously paid on the importation of coffee, tea, and sugar, and upon foreign wines, silks, and gloves, articles which, being chiefly consumed by the affluent, were more appropriately subjected to an increase of duty, to supply in part the serious defalcation of revenue consequent to the reduction of the current duty. The duties thus increased upon objects of luxury may now amount to from 20 to 25 per cent., which is far from exorbitant. The good effects of this enactment were manifested by an almost instantaneous rise in the price of the fruit which had remained on hand of the crop of 1832. The average export of currants during the 3 years ending with 1839, has been 17,747,000 lbs. a year. The duty on currants imported into England was reduced in 1834 to 22s. 2d. a cwt.

Still may be obtained in considerable quantities in Corfu, Zante, and Santa Maura, for exportation; the latter island alone produced it until the late act of parliament, which provided that government should let the salt pans in all the islands to those bidders who should offer, by sealed tenders, to supply it at the lowest rate to the consumer, paying at the same time the highest price to government. No export duty is charged upon it.

It is apparent from these statements, that heavy duties are levied upon the exportation of the staple products of the islands.—an objectionable system, and one which, if it is to be excused at all, can only be so by the peculiar circumstances under which they are placed. There is no land tax or impost on property in the Ionian Islands, such as exists in many other rude countries; and, supposing it were desirable to introduce such a tax, the complicated state of property in them, the feudal tenures under which it is held, and the variety of usages with respect to it, oppose all but insurmountable obstacles to its imposition on equal principles. At the same time, too, a large amount of revenue is required to meet the expenses of the general and local governments, to maintain an efficient police, and to prevent smuggling and piracy. However, we cannot help thinking that some very material retrenchments might be made from the expenditure; and it is to this source, more, perhaps, than to any other, that the inhabitants must look for any real or effectual relief from their burdens.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Exports from the Ionian Islands, in 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
Produce, olive oil - - - (barrel of 10 imperial galls.)	31,537	43,485	49,890	87,399	25,873	31,468
currants - - - - - lbs.	23,147,793	256,368	14,313,484	185,713	2,582,668	215,918
wine - - - - - barrels	9,515	2,399	9,319	4,968	1,408	1,408
spirits - - - - - "	593	604	538	748	100	67
walnuts - - - - - lbs.	28,000	71	297,082	1,011	150,197	478
salt - - - - - bushels	23,000	471	24,683	1,400	24,368	219
wheat - - - - - "	10	2	1	1	-	-
all other produce - - - "	-	1,718	-	1	3,148	3,550
Native manufactures of all sorts - - - "	-	29,253	-	23,878	-	29,178
Foreign - - - - - "	-	8,353	-	8,443	-	6,951
Total - - - - -	-	347,236	-	311,898	-	358,914
Value of merchandise in transit - - - - -	-	114,864	-	109,566	-	96,725

Revenue and Expenditure. — In 1837, the revenue and expenditure were as follows:—

Revenue.		Expenditure.	
Customs - - - - -	54,593	General government - - - - -	21,507
Transit duty - - - - -	493	Local do. on the separate islands - - - - -	28,516
Port on oil - - - - -	9,514	Contingencies of police and courts of justice - - - - -	7,521
Do. on currants - - - - -	43,481	Education - - - - -	11,530
Do. on wines and spirits - - - - -	2,891	Bents of public offices - - - - -	3,043
Do. on tobacco - - - - -	2,263	Public works, roads, &c. - - - - -	16,800
Do. on cattle - - - - -	2,088	Public buildings and salaries - - - - -	4,983
Stamp duties - - - - -	13,738	Salaries - - - - -	6,838
Port duties - - - - -	3,044	Hospitals and other contingencies - - - - -	5,515
Monopoly of salt and amporator - - - - -	2,510	Collection of revenue - - - - -	1,682
Bents of public property - - - - -	11,308	Packet service - - - - -	7,122
Rates for roads, &c. - - - - -	9,271	Military protection - - - - -	29,914
Sanitary and post-office surplus - - - - -	4,003		
Miscellaneous - - - - -	7,178		169,211
Total - - - - -	147,597		

Shipping. — Account of the Tonnage of the Shipping that entered inwards and cleared out from the Ionian Islands, in 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Flags.	1837.		1838.		1839.	
	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.
Ionian - - - - -	125,930	134,667	129,702	127,455	127,358	127,661
British - - - - -	22,154	30,850	27,034	27,729	25,087	25,396
Australian - - - - -	35,079	37,419	42,067	35,761	35,358	34,194
Russian - - - - -	14,508	11,594	11,032	14,410	19,225	20,074
French - - - - -	104	104	203	203	930	1,025
Swampish - - - - -	5,691	5,138	5,135	4,718	4,310	5,280
Papal - - - - -	1,105	1,269	383	348	354	437
Sardinian - - - - -	4,939	5,904	4,720	4,287	4,100	3,776
Greek - - - - -	43,163	48,844	45,421	45,800	46,558	44,113
Turkish - - - - -	5,838	5,617	5,032	4,667	4,269	4,837
All other countries - - - - -	1,816	4,106	3,715	3,686	3,428	3,512
Total - - - - -	229,542	273,001	272,030	267,474	265,253	265,499

Account of the Quantities and Values of the various Articles imported into the Ionian Islands, in 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
Treadles, sugar	1,268,449	35,535	1,218,896	35,148	1,268,098	36,875
do. coffee	367,997	9,504	508,848	11,373	459,413	10,325
do. dyestuffs, gums, medicines, dyeing materials, &c.		11,000		10,539		7,837
Manufactures of all sorts		194,078		177,713		105,649
Raw silk	6,238	1,915	4,430	665	1,327	1,831
Raw cotton	66,230	2,236	90,371	3,246	54,631	1,831
Wool	16,239	206	37,750	555	9,226	445
Hemp and flax	10,007	2,081	19,774	6,037	26,261	8,218
Staves for lumps coals	877,501	0,908	237,804	2,444	270,737	4,168
Hoops for do.	825,287	1,996	637,051	2,385	881,577	1,105
Iron	365,664	26,277	304,748	24,288	161,906	17,194
Timber		17,764		16,396		17,194
Firewood		7,126		5,565		13,440
Wheat	874,540	168,770	1,301,639	214,680	1,079,271	225,484
Indian corn	165,100	19,631	211,895	24,721	244,329	45,078
Barley and oats	1,075,661	10,770	1,043,449	5,118	102,681	9,250
Rice and other pulse		28,286		18,244		15,833
Potatoes	1,029,164	21,106	1,097,904	4,095	1,307,577	26,538
Beans	114,268	10,770	105,314	5,118	894,281	4,454
Peas	134,054	1,533	108,247	1,028	44,194	432
Flour	119,951	587	65,989	215	17,173	699
Biscuits	42,109	999	32,243	181	34,434	900
Cheese	905,948	13,154	941,264	18,201	678,707	8,721
Butter	94,848	8,008	75,885	3,283	87,493	5,118
Salt meat	39,287	1,008	25,941	587	25,008	583
Stock fish, and baccaia	1,005,408	7,370	870,339	4,227	745,421	9,990
Carpasse and Caviana	114,268	8,746	128,375	5,118	154,548	4,454
Sardines and anchovies	1,665,644	18,086	1,781,770	19,784	1,857,397	14,818
Onions and garlic	7,569,859	1,634	10,560,019	2,563	6,718,165	1,434
Dried fruits		6,448		4,017		4,101
Peas	22,535	1,288	19,288	1,127	22,614	1,422
Wheat, foreign	1,058	5,566	947	4,444	5,433	4,433
Barley	1,190	2,780	1,145	2,719	832	5,500
Horned cattle	6,041	22,605	6,013	22,011	9,688	24,446
Horses, mules, and asses	443	3,448	472	3,288	578	4,182
Sheep, goats, and pigs	66,948	29, 01	60,658	25,043	66,146	23,668
Tobacco	267,506	5,139	308,437	5,944	237,857	5,084
All other articles		17,526		25,124		18,750
Total		669,479		690,750		612,899
Value of merchandise in transit		91,639		108,470		84,08

Ports.—The principal ports in the Ionian republic are Corfu and Zante, in the islands of the same name, and Argostoli in Cephalonia. The city and port of Corfu lie on the east side of the island, on the canal or channel between it and the opposite continent, which is here about 5 miles wide. The citadel, which projects into the sea, is furnished with a light-house, 240 feet high; the latter being in lat. 39° 37' N., lon. 19° 56' E. The town is but indifferently built. Population about 17,000, exclusive of the military. The fortifications are very strong; both towards the sea and the land. The canal has deep water throughout; its navigation, which is a little difficult, has been much facilitated by the erection of a light-house on the rock of Tigoso in the northern entrance; where the channel is less than a mile in width; and by the mooring of a floating light off Point Leschimo, in the southern entrance. Ships anchor between the small but well fortified island of Vido and the city, in from 12 to 17 fathoms water.

The port, or rather gulph, of Argostoli in Cephalonia, lies on the south-west side of the island. Cape Aji, forming its south-western extremity, is in lat 38° 40' N., lon. 20° 22' 30" E. Cape San Nicolo, forming the other extremity, is about 4½ miles from Cape Aji; and between them, within about 1½ mile of the latter, is the small inlet of Guardiani, on which is a light-house. From this island the gulph stretches N. & W., from 7 to 8 miles inland. The town of Argostoli lies on the west side of a bay on the east side of the gulph formed by Point Statira. The situation is low and rather unhealthy. When visited by Dr. Holland, its population did not exceed 4,000. Its appearance and police, particularly the latter, have been much improved since its occupation by the English. There is deep water and good anchorage ground almost parts of the gulph. The best entrance is between Cape San Nicolo and Guardiani, keeping rather more than a mile to the eastward of the latter, on account of a reef that extends N.E. and S.W. from it nearly that distance.

The port and city of Zante are situated on the eastern side of the island, in lat. 37° 47' N. lon. 20° 54' 42" E. The city, the largest in the Ionian Islands, extends along the shore for nearly 1½ mile, but it is no where above 200 yards in breadth, except where it ascends the hill on which the citadel is erected. The style of building is chiefly Italian; and the interior of the city displays every where great neatness, and even a certain degree of magnificence. Population estimated by Dr. Burgess at about 30,000. It has a mole or jetty of considerable utility, at the extremity of which a light-house is erected; and a harbour, situated a little to the south-west. The harbour is capacious. Ships anchor opposite the town at from 500 to 1,000 yards' distance, in from 12 to 15 fathoms, availing themselves of the protection of the mole when the wind is from the N. E. When our troops took possession of Zante, in 1810, the fortifications were found to be in very bad repair; but immense sums have since been expended upon their improvement and extension.

Trade with England.—This is but of very limited extent. During the year 1840 we imported from the Ionian islands 133,243 cwt. currants, 56,319 gallons olive oil, 2,000 cwt. walnuts, and 1,177 gallons wine. The real or declared value of the articles of British produce and manufacture exported to them during the same year, amounted to only 87,304*l*.

The total value of the imports from all countries in 1839 is estimated at 611,755*l*. and that of the exports at 338,915*l*. But a considerable part of the imports is not destined for the consumption of the islands, but is sent thither merely as a convenient *entrepôt*, being intended for the supply of the contiguous provinces of Greece and Turkey. The amount of exports depends materially on the circumstance whether the year be one in which there is, or is not, a crop of olives.

Money.—Accounts are kept in sterling money, or in Spanish dollars and cents, 100 cents being = 1 doll. = 4*s*. 4*d*. = 1 doblon = 1 dollar. (See *Table*.)

Weights.—English weights and measures are sometimes made use of, in such weight (Italian dimensions); but the following are generally used.

The *peso* = *peso grosso*, or great weight of 12 oz. = 7,584 grains; and 1 *peso* = 100 *libras*.
The *peso* = *peso sottile*, or small weight used for precious metals and drugs, is 1-3*d* lighter than the foregoing; 12 oz. *peso sottile* corresponding to 5 oz. *peso grosso*.

The *oka*, used in the southern islands, weighs about 16,000 grains Troy, or 27 1/10 *libras*. The *levant* can, or quintal, should contain 44 *okas*.

The *metraglio* (1,000 *libras*), for currants, in Zante, is 1 per cent. lighter than the other articles.

Measures of Length.—The Venetian foot of 13 *unces* = 13 1/2 inches English.

The *passo* = 5 Venetian feet.

Bimble, for cloths, &c. = 27 3/16 inches English.

Do. for silks = 33 3/8

Land is measured by the *milera* or 1/10 of a *metraglio*, or *bastia*;

400 square paces being 1 masure, or bacile, about 5/10 of an acre English.
 Vineyards are measured by the *sappada*; 3 *sappada* (a computed day's work) being 1 masure, usually, however, only 2 feet thick, this depending on the quality of the wood. Stone is measured by the *peso cubo*.
Measures of Capacity.—
Cava.—Corfu and Paxo: *Moggio* of 6 misure, about 5 Winchester bushels.
Cephalonia: *Bacila* should contain 20 lbs. *peso grosso*, best quality wheat.
Santa Maura: *Cado*, of 6 *civelli*, 4 = 3 *mog.*; 1 *cado* = 3½ bushels English.
Ithaca: 5 *Bacilli* = 1 *moggio*.
 English: Child's, the measure of Constantinople, = 1 bushel.
Wine.—Corfu and Paxo: 39 *quartucci* = 1 jar, and 4 jars = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.
Cephalonia and *Ithaca*: 5 *quartucci* = 1 *boccale*; 18 *boccale* = 1 *scotino*; 6 *scotino* = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.
Zante: 15 1/2 *quartucci* = 1 line; 40 *quartucci* = 1 jar; 3 jars = 1 barrel = 17 5/8 English wine gallons.
Santa Maura: 22 *quartucci* = 1 *stamno*; 6 *stamni* = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Corfu: 2 *quartucci* = 1 *boccale*; 30 *boccale* = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.
Oil.—Corfu and Paxo: 4 *quartucci* = 1 *mitro*; 6 *mitro* = 1 jar; 4 jars = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.
Cephalonia: 9 *pagliacci* = 1 barrel = 18 Eng. wine galls.
Zante: 5 lire, or 3 jars of 65 qu. each = 1 barrel = 17 5/8 English wine gallons.
Santa Maura: 7 *stamni* = 1 barrel = 18 Eng. wine galls.
Ithaca: 15 *pagliacci* = 1 — = 18 —
Corfu: 24 *tonno* = 1 — = 18 9/5 —
Salt.—Constantia, about 4,000 lbs. Venetian *peso grosso*.
Lease.—Corfu, measure of 4 English cubic feet.
 In compiling this article, we have consulted, besides the works referred to above, the *Voyage Historique, Philosophique, &c.*, by Saint Sauveur, a divine but valuable work. The account of Zante, in the last volume (tome iii. pp. 101 — 175), is particularly good. We have also looked into the *Voyage en Grèce de Sordani*, 3 tomes, Paris, 1801; the *Archives de Commerce*; and the *Papers laid before the Finance Committee, &c.* But the most important part of the information we have been able to lay before the reader was derived from manuscript notes obligingly communicated by Earl Lovelace, who (when Lord King) was secretary to the British government in those islands.

IPEACUANHA (Fr. *Ipeacuanha*; Ger. *Amerikanische brechwurzel*; It. *Ipeacacanna*; Port. *Cipo de camaras, Ipeacuanha*; Sp. *Ipeacauana, Raiz de oro*), the root of a perennial plant (*Cephaelis ipeacuanha*) growing in Brazil and other parts of South America. It is, from its colour, usually denominated *white, grey, or ash-coloured, and brown*. Little of the first variety is found in the shops. The grey and brown varieties are brought to this country in bales from Rio Janeiro. Both are in short, wrinkled, variously bent and contorted pieces, which break with a resinous fracture. The grey is about the thickness of a small quill, full of knots and deep circular fissures, that nearly reach down to a white, woody, vascular cord that runs through the heart of each piece; the external part is compact, brittle, and looks smooth: the brown is smaller, more wrinkled, of a blackish brown colour on the outside, and whitish within: the white is woody, and has no wrinkles. The entire root is inodorous; but the powder has a faint disagreeable odour. The taste is bitter, sub-acrid, and extremely nauseous. In choosing *ipeacuanha*, the larger roots, which are compact and break with a resinous fracture, having a whitish grey, somewhat semi-transparent, appearance in the outside of the cortical part, with a pale straw-coloured medullary fibre, are to be preferred. When pounded, *ipeacuanha* forms the mildest and safest emetic in the whole materia medica. Though probably employed in America from time immemorial, it was not introduced into Europe till the time of Louis XIV., when one Grenier, a French merchant, brought 150 lbs. of it from Spain, with which trials were made at the Hôtel Dieu. Helvetius first made known its use in dysentery, for which Louis XIV. munificently rewarded him by a doucement of 1,000. sterling.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

IRON (Dan. *Jern*; Du. *Yzer*; Fr. *Fer*; Ger. *Eisen*; It. *Ferro*; Lat. *Ferrum, Mars*; Pol. *Zelazo*; Por. *Ferro*; Rus. *Scheleso*; Sp. *Hierro*; Sw. *Jern*; Gr. *Σίδηρος*; Sans. *Loha*; Arab. *Hedeed*; Pers. *Ahwa*), the most abundant and most useful of all the metals. It is of a bluish white colour; and, when polished, has a great deal of brilliancy. It has a styptic taste, and emits a smell when rubbed. Its hardness exceeds that of most other metals; and it may be rendered harder than most bodies by being converted into steel. Its specific gravity varies from 7·6 to 7·8. It is attracted by the magnet or loadstone, and is itself the substance which constitutes the loadstone. But when iron is perfectly pure, it retains the magnetic virtue for a very short time. It is malleable in every temperature, and its malleability increases in proportion as the temperature augments; but it cannot be hammered out nearly as thin as gold or silver, or even as copper. Its ductility is, however, more perfect; for it may be drawn out into wire as fine at least as a human hair. Its tenacity is such, that an iron wire 0·078 of an inch in diameter, is capable of supporting 549·25 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking.

Historical Notice.—Iron, though the most common, is the most difficult of all the metals to obtain in a state fit for use; and the discovery of the method of working it seems to have been posterior to the use of gold, silver, and copper. We are wholly ignorant of the steps by which men were led to practise the processes required to fuse it and render it malleable. It is certain, however, that it was prepared in ancient Egypt, and some other countries, at a very remote epoch; but it was very little used in Greece till after the Trojan war.—(See the admirable work of M. Gouquet on the *Origin of Lavoisier, Aris, &c.*, vol. i. p. 140.)

Species of Iron.—There are many varieties of iron, which artists distinguish by particular names; but all of them may be reduced under one or other of the 3 following classes: *cast or pig iron, wrought or soft iron, and steel*.
 1. **Cast or pig iron** is the name given to this metal when first extracted from its ores. The ores from which iron is usually obtained are composed of oxide of iron and clay. The object of the manufacturer is to reduce the oxide to the metallic state, and to separate all the clay with which it is combined. This is effected by a peculiar process; and the iron, being exposed to a strong heat in furnaces, and melted, runs out into moulds prepared for its reception, and obtains the name of cast or pig iron.
 The cast iron thus obtained is distinguished by manufacturers into different varieties, from its colour and other qualities. Of these the following are the most remarkable:—
 a. **White cast iron**, which is extremely hard and brittle, and appears to be composed of a congeries of small crystals. It can neither be filed, bored, nor bent, and is very apt to break when suddenly heated or cooled.

1837,
 value.
 \$ 773
 10,283
 7,927
 00,649
 488
 1,851
 145
 2,016
 6,158
 1,103
 17,194
 4,265
 30,354
 65,078
 7,330
 5,419
 2,639
 8,454
 432
 999
 919
 8,721
 2,110
 563
 5,990
 1,611
 14,618
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b. *Grey or mottled cast iron*, so called from the inequality of its colour. Its texture is granulated. It is much softer and less brittle than the last variety; and may be cut, bored, and turned on the lathe. Cannons are made of it.

c. *Black cast iron* is the most unequal in its texture, the most fusible, and least cohesive, of the three.

2. Wrought or soft iron is prepared from cast iron by a process termed a refinement or finery. The wrought iron manufactured in Sweden is reckoned the finest in the world.

3. Steel consists of pieces of wrought iron hardened by a peculiar process. The Swedish iron imported into this country is mostly used in the manufacture of steel. — (See STEEL.) — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Uses of iron. — To enumerate the various uses of iron would require a lengthened dissertation. No one who reflects for a moment on the subject, can doubt that its discovery and employment in the shape of tools and engines has been of the utmost importance to man; and has done more, perhaps, than any thing else, to accelerate his advance in the career of improvement. Locke has the following striking observations on this subject: — "Of what consequence the discovery of one natural body, and its properties, may be to human life, the whole great continent of America is a convincing instance: whose ignorance in useful arts, and want of the greatest part of the conveniences of life, in a country that abounded with all sorts of natural plenty, I think may be attributed to their ignorance of what was to be found in a very ordinary despicable stone — I mean the mineral of iron. And whatever we think of our parts or improvements in this part of the world, where knowledge and plenty seem to vie with each other, yet, to any one that will seriously reflect upon it, I suppose it will appear past doubt, that, were the use of iron lost among us, we should in a few ages be unavoidably reduced to the wants and ignorance of the ancient savage Americans, whose natural endowments and provisions came no way short of those of the most flourishing and polite nations; so that he who first made use of that one contemptible mineral, may be truly stiled the father of arts and author of plenty." — (*Essay on the Understanding*, book iv. c. 12.)

Manufacture of Iron in Great Britain. — We are ignorant of the period when iron began to be made in England, but there is authentic evidence to show that iron works were established by the Romans in the Forest of Dean, in Gloucestershire, and in other parts of the kingdom. — (*Pennant's Wales*, ed. 1810, vol. i. p. 89.) They were also established, at an early period, in Kent and Sussex; these counties being well supplied, not only with iron ore, but (which was at the time of still more importance) with timber, the only species of fuel that was then used in the furnaces. It is to this latter circumstance that the slow increase in the production of iron in England, during a lengthened period, is to be ascribed. Complaints were very early made of the destruction of timber by the iron works; and in the reign of Elizabeth, when an unusual demand for timber for the navy, and for merchant vessels also, took place, the decrease of timber excited a great deal of attention. At length, in 1581, an act was passed prohibiting the manufacturers of iron from using any but small wood, and from establishing any new works any where within 22 miles of the city of London, and 14 miles of the river Thames, and in several parts of Sussex specified in the act. Soon after this, Edward, Lord Dudley, invented a process for smelting iron ore with pit-coal instead of timber; and it is difficult to point out many inventions that have been so advantageous. The patent which his lordship obtained in 1619, was exempted from the operation of the act of 1623 (21 James I. c. 23.), setting aside monopolies; but though, in its consequences, it has proved of immense value to the country, the works of the inventor were destroyed by an ignorant rabble, and he was well nigh ruined by his efforts to introduce and perfect his process. — (*Report of Committee of House of Commons on Patents*, p. 168, &c.) The invention seems, in consequence, to have been for many years almost forgotten. The complaints of the destruction of timber continued; so much so, that, in 1637, the exportation of iron without licence was prohibited, and fresh restrictions were laid on the felling of timber. But the evil could not be abated by such means; and, in the early part of last century, complaints of the destruction of timber by the iron works became more prevalent than ever, and their total suppression began to be contemplated as a lesser evil than the continued decrease of the stock of timber. At this period more than two thirds of the iron made use of was imported, and the condition of the manufacture was most unprosperous. But the growing scarcity and high price of timber, coupled with the increasing demand for iron, at last succeeded in drawing the attention of some ingenious persons to Lord Dudley's process; and, about 1740, iron was made at Colebrook Dale, and one or two other places, by means of pit-coal, of about as good a quality as that made with timber. From this period the business steadily increased; at first, however, its progress was comparatively slow, and the furnaces of Kent and Sussex were not wholly relinquished for more than 30 years after iron began to be largely produced by means of pit-coal. The great demand for iron occasioned by the late war, and the obstacles which it threw in the way of supplies from abroad, gave the first extraordinary stimulus to the manufacture, which has now become of vast importance and great value. In 1740 the quantity of pig-iron made in England and Wales amounted to about 17,000 tons, produced by 59 furnaces. Since this epoch the increase is believed to have been nearly as follows; viz: — in 1750, 22,000 tons; in 1788, 68,000 tons, produced by 85 furnaces; in 1796, 125,000 tons, produced by 121 furnaces; in 1806, 250,000 tons, produced by 169 furnaces; and in 1820, about 400,000 tons, were produced, but their is no account of the number of furnaces. From extensive inquiries made by government and others connected with the iron trade, the following statements have been deduced, which exhibit the districts in which iron is made, the number of furnaces, and the total quantity produced in 1823, 1830, and 1840.

Account of the Number of Furnaces, and of the Quantities of Iron produced, in 1825, 1830, and 1840.

Districts.	Number of Furnaces.									Tons of Iron produced.				Tons of Coal consumed in the Production of Iron.
	1825.			1830.			1840.			1825.	1830.	1840.	1840.	
	In Blast.	Out.	Total.	Total.	In Blast.	Out.	Total.	Total.	Total.	Total.	Total.			
South Wales	80	27	107	113	132	31	163	230,412	277,643	505,000	1,435,000			
Staffordshire	80	27	107	125	125	38	151	188,156	214,801	427,650	1,685,000			
Shropshire	36	13	49	48	34	7	31	89,596	73,418	82,750	408,000			
Yorkshire	22	12	34	27	25	7	32	39,104	27,928	56,000	308,500			
Derbyshire	14	5	19	18	15	5	18	22,872	17,999	31,000	129,000			
North Wales	9	6	14	13	9	3	12	17,756	26,000	26,000	110,000			
Forest of Dean	-	5	5	20	4	4	4	-	-	15,500	60,000			
Scotland	17	8	25	27	64	3	70	33,510	37,500	241,000	725,000			
Ireland	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
Various (including Northumberland)	-	-	-	-	5	1	6	-	5,397	11,000	38,500			
Totals	259	103	362	376	402	68	490	618,236	677,417	1,396,400	4,877,000			

The increase of production, as shown in this table, is to be matched only by the progress of the cotton manufacture, after the inventions of Arkwright and others; and, extraordinary as it may appear, the increase in the course of the 6 years ending with 1846 has been little, if at all, inferior. The make of iron in Scotland, in July, last year (1846), was ascertained to be at the rate of 529,500 tons a-year; and sundry new furnaces being then in the course of being erected, the make of this year (1847), will not be under, if it do not exceed, 600,000 tons! Estimating the make in England at 1,150,000 tons, the total make in the United Kingdom, in 1847, will be 1,750,000 tons!

This astonishing increase has been owing to a great variety of causes, among the more prominent of which may be specified the greater cheapness of iron, and its consequent application to a great many purposes, including the construction of various descriptions of agricultural implements, pipes for the conveyance of water, and even the building of ships, for which it was not formerly supposed to be applicable. Unquestionably, however, the unprecedented demand for iron for railways in this country, and in the United States and the Continent, has, within the last three or four years, given the most powerful stimulus to the manufacture; and, if only half the railway projects now (1847) on foot be executed, the production of iron, vast as it at present is, will be quite inadequate to supply the demand.

It will, however, readily occur to the reader that a demand for iron for railways, depending as the formation of the latter does on so many varying circumstances, must necessarily be both capricious and fluctuating; and hence it is not really possible to infer from the state of the iron trade at any given period what may be its state a few months after. Even so late as 1842 and 1843 the price of pig iron had sunk to from 2*l.* to 3*l.* per ton, and the manufacturers in the least favoured districts were involved in the greatest difficulties. But within the last three years the price of iron has doubled or trebled; and larger fortunes have been made in this than in any other department of industry. Similar mutations will, doubtless, take place in future. On the whole, however, the fair presumption seems to be that the manufacture will go on increasing for an indefinite period. The uses to which iron may be applied seem to be all but infinite; and every fall of its price always introduces it into new channels. Most probably, indeed, the works situated in the least favoured districts, or those where iron is produced at the greatest expense, will, in the course of time, have to be abandoned. This, however, is merely a local and accidental grievance, and can in no wise affect the general well-being of the business.

The employment of the hot-blast, or of air heated to a high temperature, instead of common atmospheric air, in the working of furnaces, has been one of the greatest improvements in the manufacture, and has at once reduced the cost of iron and increased its quantity. It was first used in Lanarkshire, in Scotland, and has been one of the principal causes of the extraordinary extension of the trade in that part of the empire, where it is now universally made use of.

Taking the annual produce of pig-iron in the United Kingdom at 1,750,000 tons, and supposing that about 9½ tons of coal are required for the production of each ton of iron, the consumption of coal in this branch of the iron trade will, on this hypothesis, amount to 6,125,000 tons a-year; and adding to this quantity 3,000,000 tons for the coal required for the conversion of pig-iron into bar-iron, it follows that a supply of no fewer than 9,125,000 tons of coal will be annually required in this single department of industry! And hence, also, the fact that the consumption of coal in the production of iron is about three times as great as its consumption in the metropolis!

About three-fourths of the total quantity of iron produced is used in the state of pig, or cast iron, and is consumed principally in Great Britain and Ireland; the exports of pig-iron amount, however, to nearly 80,000 tons, sent principally to the United States, Holland, and France. The other seven-tenths are converted into wrought-iron, being

formed into bars, bolts, rods, &c. The exports of bar-iron amounted, in 1845, to nearly 154,000 tons, and the exports of all sorts of iron are probably at present (1847), not under 400,000 tons; which, at 10*l.* a-ton, would be worth 4,000,000*l.* Their declared value did in fact amount, in 1845, to 3,501,895*l.*, and, in 1846, to 4,174,558*l.*

Supposing the total quantity of pig-iron produced in Great Britain to amount to 1,750,000 tons a year, and to be worth at an average, 6*l.* a ton, its total value will be 10,500,000*l.*; and the additional labour expended in forming the pig-iron into bar-iron, that is, into bars, bolts, rods, &c., may, probably, add about 3,500,000*l.* more to its value; making it worth in all about 14,000,000*l.* And if we recollect that wrought-iron is to the hardware manufacture what malt is to the manufacture of beer, or leather to that of shoes, we shall be satisfied alike of its paramount importance in the arts, and as a most prolific source of employment and of public wealth.

Previously to 1845, the imports of foreign iron usually varied from 20,000 to 25,000 tons a year. But at that epoch the duties on foreign iron (amounting to 20*s.* a ton on iron in bars) were repealed; and there has since been a considerable increase in the imports of Swedish bar-iron, which is especially well fitted for being made into steel. The imports of all sorts of foreign iron amounted, in 1845, to above 40,000 tons.

Account of the different Descriptions of Iron (including unwrought Steel) exported from the U. Kingdom during 1845, specifying the Quantities sent to the different Countries.

Countries to which exported.	Pig Iron.	Bar Iron.	Bolt and Rod Iron.	Cast Iron.	Iron Wire.	Wrought Iron, viz.				Old Iron for re-manufacture.	Unwrought Steel.
						Anchors, Trunnels, &c.	Hoops.	Nails.	Of all other Sorts (except Ordnance).		
Russia	Tons. cwt. 2,925 3	Tons. cwt. 14,983 11	Tons. cwt. 26 0	Tons. cwt. 207 18	Tons. cwt. 210 1	Tons. cwt. 101 18	Tons. cwt. 811 2	Tons. cwt. 5 3	Tons. cwt. 905 15	Tons. cwt. -	Tons. cwt. 659 7
Sweden	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Prussia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Holland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Belgium	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain and the Canaries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gibraltar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Italy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Malta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ionian Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mores and Greek Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Syria and Palestine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Egypt	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Algeria and Morocco	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Western coast of Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cape of Good Hope	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Eastern coast of Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cape Verde Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
St. Helena and Ascension Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Arabia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
British territories in the East Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sumatra, Java, and Islands in Indian Sea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Philippine Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
China	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
British Australia and New Zealand	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Sea Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
British North American colonies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
British West Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Foreign West Indies	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
United States of America	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mexico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
New Granada, Venezuela and Ecuador	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Brazil	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
States of the Rio de la Plata	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chili	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Peru	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Falkland Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Channel Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	77,561 17	155,612 19	10,806 16	16,209 0	1,949 4	8,974 17	11,758 19	6,463 11	56,164 17	8,250 12	7,013 1

N.B. — Quarters of a ton and lbs. are omitted in this table, but they are allowed for in the summing up. Total quantity of iron exported in 1845, 351,979 tons.

Perhaps in nothing has the fall of price, consequent to the diminution of the cost of production, that has taken place since the peace of 1815, been more conspicuous than

in hardware. At an average, articles of hardware are at present (1847) full 50 per cent. lower than in 1820. And it may be safely affirmed that there are very few descriptions of articles in which a fall of price would have been so advantageous.

We still import a small quantity, from 15,000 to 18,000 tons, of Swedish iron, for conversion into steel, for which purpose it is better fitted than British iron.

IRON-WOOD (Ger. *Eisenholz*; Du. *Yserhout*; Fr. *Bois de fer*; It. *Legno di ferro*; Sp. *Plo hierro*; Lat. *Sideroxylon*, *Lignum ferreum*), a species of wood of a reddish cast, so called on account of its corroding as that metal does, and its being remarkably hard and ponderous, — even more so than ebony. The tree which produces it grows principally in the West India islands, and is likewise very common in South America, and in some parts of Asia, especially about Siam.

ISINGLASS (Ger. *Hausenblase*, *Haustblase*; Fr. *Colle de poisson*, *Carlock*; It. *Cola di pesce*; Rus. *Klei rubii*, *Karluk*), one of the purest and finest of the animal glues. It is a product the preparation of which is almost peculiar to Russia. It is made of the air-bladders and sounds of different kinds of fish which are found in the large rivers that fall into the North Sea and the Caspian. That prepared from the sturgeon is generally esteemed the best; next to that, the beluga; but isinglass is also prepared from sterlets, shad, and harbel, though not so good. The best is usually rolled in little ringlets; the second sort is laid together like the leaves of a book; and the common sort is dried without any care. When fine, it is of a white colour, semi-transparent, and dry. It dissolves readily in boiling water, and is used extensively in cookery. It is also used for stiffening silk, making sticking plaster, &c. The duty of 47s. 6d. a cwt. on isinglass produced, in 1840, 3,722l. showing that 1,567½ cwt. had been entered for consumption. The price varies from 5s. to 14s. 6d. per lb. — (See *Thomson's Chemistry*; *Tooke's View of Russia*, 2d ed. iii. 343, &c.)

ISLE OF MAN. See MAN, ISLE OF.

JUICE OF LEMONS, LIMES, OR ORANGES. The 9th section of the act G Geo. 4. c. 111, is as follows: — "For ascertaining the degrees of specific gravity or strength, according to which the duty on the juice of lemons, limes, and oranges shall be paid, it is enacted, that the degrees of such specific gravity or strength shall be ascertained by a glass citrometer, which shall be graduated in degrees in such manner, that distilled water being assumed as unity at the temperature of 60° by Fahrenheit's thermometer, every degree of the scale of such citrometer shall be denoted by a variation of $\frac{1}{100}$ parts of the specific gravity of such water."

JUNIPER BERRIES. See BERRIES.

IVORY, the name given to the teeth or tusks of the elephant, and of the walrus or sea-horse. Each male elephant come to maturity has 2 tusks. These are hollow at the root, tapering, and of various sizes, depending principally on the age of the animal. Colour externally yellowish, brownish, and sometimes dark, internally white. The best are large, straight, and light-coloured, without flaws; not very hollow in the stump, but solid and thick. The most esteemed come from Africa, being of a closer texture, and less liable to turn yellow, than those from the East Indies.

The trade in London thus divide them: —

First sort, weighing 70 lbs. or upwards; second sort, weighing 56 lbs. to 60 lbs.; third sort, weighing 38 lbs. to 46 lbs.; fourth sort, weighing 28 lbs. to 37 lbs.; fifth sort, weighing 18 lbs. to 27 lbs.

All under 18 lbs. are called *scrivellers*, and are of the least value. In purchasing elephants' teeth, those that are very crooked, hollow, and broken at the ends, or cracked and decayed in the inside, should be rejected; and care taken that lead or any other substance has not been poured into the hollow. The freight is rated at 10 cwt. to the ton. — (*Milburn's Orient. com.*)

Supply of Ivory. — The imports of elephants' teeth, in 1840 and 1841, were, at an average, 5556 cwt., of which 4520 cwt. were retained for consumption. The medium weight of a tusk may be taken at about 60 lbs.; so that the yearly imports of 1840 and 1841 may be taken at 10,372 tusks; a fact which supposes the destruction of at least 5186 male elephants! But, supposing the tusks could only be obtained by killing the animal, the destruction would really be a good deal greater, and would most probably, indeed, amount to about 7,000 elephants. Occasionally, however, tusks are accidentally broken, one lost in this way being replaced by a new one; and a good many are, also, obtained from elephants that have died in the natural way. Still it is sufficiently obvious, that the supply from the sources now alluded to cannot be very large; and if to the quantity of ivory required for Great Britain, we add that required for the other countries of Europe, America, and Asia, the slaughter of elephants must, after every reasonable deduction is made, appear immense; and it may well excite surprise, that the breed of this noble animal has not been more diminished. The western and eastern coasts of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, India, and the countries to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, are the great marts whence supplies of ivory are derived. The imports from Western Africa into Great Britain, in 1840, amounted to 1,933 cwt.; the Cape furnished only 97 cwt. The imports during the same year from India, Ceylon, and other Eastern countries, were 2,418 cwt.

The Chinese market is principally supplied with ivory from Malacca, Siam, and Sundastra.

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	Old Iron for re- manufac- ture.	Un- wrought Steel.	Tons, cwt.
all sorts (ex- clud- ing)			
1835			258 7
1836			273 9
1837			280 2
1838			291 15
1839			279 14
1840	264 19	133 17	398 15
1841		254 15	254 15
1842		481 9	481 9
1843		386 15	386 15
1844		118 15	118 15
1845	51 0		51 0
1846		5 18	5 18
1847		18 4	18 4
1848		0 5	0 5
1849	111 10	157 15	268 25
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The chief consumption of ivory in England is in the manufacture of handles for knives; but it is also extensively used in the manufacture of musical and mathematical instruments, chess-men, billiard-balls, plates for miniatures, toys, &c. Ivory articles are said to be manufactured to a greater extent, and with better success, at Dieppe, than in any other place in Europe. But the preparation of this beautiful material is much better understood by the Chinese than by any other people. No European artist has hitherto succeeded in cutting concentric balls after the manner of the Chinese: and their boxes, chess-men, and other ivory articles, are all far superior to any that are to be met with any where else.

Historical Notice. — It is a curious fact, that the people of all Asiatic countries in which the elephant is found, have always had the art of taming the animal and applying it to useful purposes, but that no such art has ever been possessed by any native African nation. Is this owing to any difference between the Asiatic and African elephants, or to the inferior sagacity of the African people? We incline to think that the latter is the true hypothesis. Alexander the Great is believed to have been the first European who employed elephants in war. It appears pretty certain, that the elephants made use of by the Carthaginians were mostly, if not wholly, brought from India; and that they were managed by Indian leaders. Some of the latter were captured by the Romans, in the great victory gained by Metellus over Asdrubal. — (See, on this curious subject, two very learned and valuable notes in the *Ancient Universal History*, 8vo. ed. vol. xvii. p. 529. and p. 549. *Buffon's Article on the Elephant* is a splendid piece of composition.)

The price per cwt., duty (1*l.* per cwt.) included, of elephants' teeth in the London market, in June, 1843, was —

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.				
1st, 79 to 90 lbs.	-	-	25	0	0	31	0	0	5th, 18 to 27 lbs.	-	-	19	0	0	21	0	0
2d, 56 — 60 —	-	-	23	0	0	27	0	0	Scirvelloes	-	-	10	0	0	35	0	0
3d, 38 — 55 —	-	-	21	0	0	24	0	0	Sea horse teeth, per lb.	-	-	0	5	0	15	0	0
4th, 28 — 37 —	-	-	20	0	0	22	0	0									

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KELP. A substance composed of different materials, of which the fossil or mineral alkali, or, as it is commonly termed, soda, is the chief. This ingredient renders it useful in the composition of soap, in the manufacture of alum, and in the formation of crown and bottle glass. It is formed of marine plants, which, being cut from the rocks with a hook, are collected and dried on the beach to a certain extent; they are afterwards put into kilns prepared for the purpose, the heat of which is sufficient to bring the plants into a state of semi-fusion. They are then strongly stirred with iron rakes; and when cool, condense into a dark blue or whitish mass, very hard and solid. Plants about 3 years old yield the largest quantity of kelp. The best kelp has an acrid caustic taste, a sulphurous odour, is compact, and of a dark blue greenish colour. It yields about 5 per cent. of its weight of soda. — (*Barry's Orkney Islands*, p. 377.; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The manufacture of kelp is, or rather was, principally carried on in the Western Islands, and on the western shores of Scotland, where it was introduced from Ireland, about the middle of last century. Towards the end of the late war, the kelp shores of the island of North Uist let for 7,000*l.* a year. It has been calculated that the quantity of kelp annually manufactured in the Hebrides only, exclusive of the mainland, and of the Orkney and Shetland Isles, amounted, at the period referred to, to about 6,000 tons a year; and that the total quantity made in Scotland and its adjacent Isles amounted to about 20,000 tons. At some periods during the war, it sold for 20*l.* a ton; but at an average of the 23 years ending with 1822, the price was 10*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.* — (*Art. Scotland, Edinburgh Encyclopædia*.)

Unluckily, however, the foundations on which this manufacture rested were altogether factitious. Its existence depended on the maintenance of the high duties on barilla and salt. Inasmuch, however, as kelp could not be substituted, without undergoing a very expensive process, for barilla, in a great many departments of industry in which the use of mineral alkali is indispensable, it became necessary materially to reduce the high duty laid on barilla during the war. The ruin of the kelp manufacture has been ascribed to this reduction; but though barilla had been altogether excluded from our markets, which could not have been done without great injury to many most important manufactures, the result would have been perfectly the same, in so far as kelp is concerned, unless the high duty on salt had also been maintained. It was the repeal of the latter that gave the kelp manufacture the *coup de grace*. The purification of kelp, so as to render it fit for soap-making, is a much more troublesome and expensive process than the decomposition of salt; and the greatest quantity of alkali used, is now obtained by the latter method. Had the duty on salt not been repealed, kelp might still have been manufactured, notwithstanding the reduction of duty on barilla.

The manufacture is now almost extinct. Shores that formerly yielded the proprietors a rent of 200*l.* to 500*l.* a year, are now worth next to nothing. The price of kelp since 1822 has not been, at an average, above 4*l.* a ton; and the article will, most probably, soon cease to be produced.

This result, though injurious to the proprietors of kelp shores, and productive of temporary distress to the labourers employed in the manufacture, is not to be regretted. It could not have been obviated, without keeping up the price of some of the most important necessaries of life at a forced and unnatural elevation. The high price of kelp was occasioned by the exigencies of the late war, which, besides obstructing the supply of barilla, forced government to lay high duties on it and on salt. The proprietors had not the vestige of a ground for considering that such a state of things would be permanent; they did right in profiting by it while it lasted; but they could not expect that government was to subject the country, during peace, to some of the severest privations occasioned by the war, merely that they might continue to enjoy an accidental advantage.

KENTLEDGE, the name sometimes given to the iron pigs cast in a particular form for ballasting ships, and employed for that purpose.

KERMES (Ger. *Scharlachbeeren*; Du. *Grein Scharlachbeeren*; It. *Grana, Chermes, Cremese, Cocchi*; Sp. *Grana Kermes, Grana de la cococja*), an insect (*Coccus ilicis* Lin.) of the same species as the true Mexican cochineal, found upon the *quercus illex*, a species of oak growing in Spain, France, the Levant, &c. Before the discovery of America, kermes was the most esteemed drug for dyeing scarlet, and had been used for that purpose from a very remote period. Beckmann inclines to think that it was employed by the Phœnicians, and that it excelled even the famous Tyrian purple. — *Hist. of Invent.* vol. ii. p. 197. Eng. ed.) From the name of *coccum* or *coccus*, cloth dyed with kermes was called *coccinum*, and persons wearing this cloth were said by the Romans to be *coccinati*. — (*Mart.* lib. i. epig. 97. lin. 6.) It is singular, however, notwithstanding its extensive use in antiquity, that the ancients had the most incorrect notions with respect to the nature of kermes; many of them supposing that it was the grains (*grana*) or fruit of the *illex*. This was Pliny's opinion; others, after him, considered it in the same light, or as an excrescence formed by the puncture of a particular kind of fly, like the gall nut. It was not till the early part of last century that it was finally and satisfactorily established that the kermes is really nothing but an insect, assuming the appearance of a berry in the process of drying. The term kermes is of Persian origin. The Arabians had been acquainted with this production from the earliest periods in Africa; and having found it in Spain, they cultivated it extensively as an article of commerce, as well as a dye drug for their own use. But since the introduction of cochineal, it has become an object of comparatively trifling importance. It is still, however, prepared in some parts of Spain. Cloths dyed with kermes are of a deep red colour; and though much inferior in brilliancy to the scarlet cloths dyed with real Mexican cochineal, they retain the colour better, and are less liable to stain. The old tapestries of Brussels, and other places in Flanders, which have scarcely lost any thing of their original vivacity, though 200 years old, were all dyed with kermes. The history of this production has been treated with great learning by Beckmann (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. pp. 171—191. 1st ed. trans.); and by Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 393—409.)

KINO (Fr. *Gomme de Kino*; Ger. *Kinoharz*; It. *Chino*), a gum, the produce of trees that grow in the East and West Indies, Africa, Botany Bay, &c. The kino now found in the shops is said by Dr. A. T. Thomson to come from India, and to be the produce of the *nauclea gambir*. The branches and twigs are bruised and boiled in water. The decoction is then evaporated until it acquires the consistence of an extract, which is kino. It is imported in chests containing from 1 to 2 cwt.; and on the inside of the lid of each chest is a paper, inscribed with the name of John Brown, the month and year of its importation, and stating that it is the produce of Amboyna. It is odorless, very rough, and slightly bitter when first taken into the mouth; but it afterwards impresses a degree of sweetness on the palate. It is in small, uniform, deep brown, shining, brittle fragments, which appear like portions of a dried extract broken down; being perfectly uniform in their appearance. It is easily pulverised, affording a powder of a lighter brown colour than the fragments. But it may be doubted whether the inspissated juice of the *nauclea gambir* ought to be considered as kino. Dr. Ainslie says that Botany Bay kino is the only kind he had seen in an Indian bazaar. The tree which yields it grows to a great height: it flows from incisions made into the wood of the trunk. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Materia Indica*.)

KNIVES. (Ger. *Messer*; Du. *Messen*; Fr. *Couteaux*; It. *Coltelli*; Sp. *Cuchillos*; Rus. *Nozhi*) well known utensils made of iron and steel, and employed to cut with: they are principally manufactured in London and Sheffield. Knives are made for a variety of purposes, as their different denominations imply; such as table knives, penknives, oyster knives, pruning knives, &c. Although England at present excels every part of the world in the manufacture of knives, as in most branches of cutlery, the finer kinds were imported until the reign of Elizabeth. It is stated by Mr. Macpherson (*Annals of Com.*, Anno 1563), that knives were not made for use in England till 1563; but there can be no doubt that this is an error. They had been made, though probably of a rude and clumsy pattern, for centuries before, in the district called Hallamshire, of which Sheffield is the centre; and the cutlers of London were formed into a corporation in 1417. — (*Manufactures in Metal*, vol. ii. c. 1., in *Lardner's Cyclopaedia*.)

KÖNIGSBERG, the capital of East Prussia, in lat. 54° 42' 11" N., lon. 20° 29' 15" E. Population, in 1838, 68,000.

Port. &c. — Königsberg is situated on the Pregel, which flows into the Frische Hafl, or Fresh Bay, a large lake having from 10 to 14 feet water. The bar at the mouth of the Pregel has only from 5 to 6 feet water, so that none but flat-bottomed boats can ascend to the city. Pillau, in lat. 54° 33' 29" N., lon. 19° 19' 30" E., on the north side of the entrance from the Baltic to the Frische Hafl, is properly the port of Königsberg. Within these few years, a light-house has been erected on a rising ground, a little to the

south of Pillau, the lantern of which is elevated 103 feet above the level of the sea. The light is fixed and brilliant. The entrance to the harbour is marked by buoys; those on the larboard side being surmounted by small flags. A Gothic building, 120 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected to serve for a land-mark; at a distance it looks like a three-masted ship under sail. There is usually from 15 to 16 feet water between the buoys on entering the harbour; but particular winds occasion material differences in this respect.

Trade of Königsberg.— Being situated on a navigable river of considerable importance, Königsberg has a large command of internal navigation, and is the principal emporium of a large extent of country. Wheat, rye, and other species of grain are the chief articles of export. The wheat is somewhat similar to that of Dantzic, but of inferior quality, being larger in the berry, and thicker skinned. The rye is thin, and also the barley, with few exceptions, and light. Peas are of a remarkably large quality. Oats are common feed, with a slight admixture of tares; but as these last answer in some degree the purpose of beans, the value of the oats is rather enhanced than otherwise by the circumstance. More tares are shipped here than from any other port in the Baltic. The prices of all sorts of grain are usually lower at Königsberg than at the neighbouring Prussian ports. Linseed, hemp, flax, lemons, bristles, and oil cake are largely exported; with smaller quantities of bones, mats, ashes, feathers, wax, hides and skins, &c. The bristles are the best in the Baltic. Timber, deals, and staves are as good as at Memel, but are rather scarce. The imports are coffee, sugar, herrings, iron and steel, wines, tin and tin plates, dye woods, spices, coals, &c. Salt is a government monopoly; any person being allowed to import it, but he must either sell it to government at a price fixed by them, or export it again.

Money, Weights, and Measures, same as at DANTZIC; which see.

Account of the Products exported from Königsberg by Sea in 1842, specifying the Quantities exported to the U. Kingdom and other Foreign Countries, with their estimated Values.

Articles.	To the U. Kingdom.	To all other Countries.	Total Quantity.	Amt. in Sterling.	Articles.	To the U. Kingdom.	To all other Countries.	Total Quantity.	Amt. in Sterling.	
Wheat {lasts of 10 imp. qrs. or 102 Winchester.}	4,942	1,788	6,730	133,292	Feathers and (stones 66) quills (to a too)	-	1,080	1,080	5,617	
Rye	-	9,913	9,913	98,119	Hides and skins	574	456	1,030	1,505	
Barley	560	1,710	2,270	17,416	Linen	-	15,807	15,807	23,472	
Oats	355	486	841	4,580	Oil cakes	149,037	903	149,940	7,372	
Peas	-	1,745	2,930	34,912	Tallow	-	703	753	559	
Beans	-	24	621	4,538	Molasses	-	5,267	5,267	1,384	
Tares	-	567	148	715	6,372	Horses and bone dust	1,315	174	1,489	7,062
Linseed and rape-seed	2,354	5,297	5,161	91,978	Mats - bundles of 2 p.	-	11,070	11,070	966	
Clover and Timothy seed	30	950	980	1,868	Mats - 1 do.	-	150	150	525	
Flax - {stones 66 cwt. to a ton}	75,040	737	75,777	35,741	Salted beef and pork	11,925	847	11,825	893	
Hemp	21,235	84	21,319	4,305	Alms - last	-	846	846	7,024	
Hemp codilla	1,660	997	14,437	8,690	Brandy - hhd.	-	-	-	4,764	
Hemp codilla	-	5,717	5,717	1,275	Sundry exports of various descriptions	-	-	-	7,496	
Bristles	43	4,507	4,560	14,868	Total	-	-	-	525,757	

Account of the Products imported into Königsberg by Sea in the Year 1842, specifying the Quantities imported from the U. Kingdom, and elsewhere, with their estimated Values.

Articles.	From the U. Kingdom.	From all other Countries.	Total Quantity.	Amt. in Sterling.	Articles.	From the U. Kingdom.	From all other Countries.	Total Quantity.	Amt. in Sterling.
Arrack {cwt. Prussian} rum and equal to 113½ brandy {lb. English}	592	4,108	4,424	11,169	Molasses {cwt. Prussian} equal to 315½ {lb. English}	238	492	780	1,042
Coffee	908	375	1,454	4,586	Mustard	-	29	29	149
Cotton yarn	91	472	565	5,044	Frain oil	-	1,152	1,152	1,515
Cotton wool	11,190	11,191	22,382	72,272	Rice	600	3,115	3,615	5,266
Chesses	-	250	255	284	Salt	97,614	14,377	111,991	1,000
Coppers	5,220	79	4,929	1,018	Seed oil	17	347	364	541
Cocoa	91,611	5,498	97,611	4,585	Spices of all kinds	-	1,061	1,042	2,203
Dye-wood	91	5,498	5,619	4,031	Sugar, refined	-	163	163	507
Drugs	3,577	4,278	6,253	19,337	Sugar, raw and crushed, humps	35,575	32,929	68,927	150,147
Glass and glass-ware	19	94	106	567	Southern fruit	-	3,019	3,049	9,856
Hops	87	100	127	1,011	Tea	766	406	1,172	14,009
Herrings	180	64,161	64,361	76,469	Tin	39	329	368	1,000
Indigo {cwt. Prussian} equal to 115½ {lb. English}	304	35	339	15,101	Tin plate	920	1,901	2,821	15,022
Iron and steel	-	-	-	-	Tobacco, manufactured	-	1,041	1,041	11,751
Iron and steel, raw	118	3,023	3,740	36,128	Tobacco leaves	-	969	969	2,878
Iron and steel, raw	10,994	1,142	12,136	16,221	China and earthen-ware	99	76	115	619
Iron and steel, raw	11,545	20,140	31,685	51,779	Wine	43	7,213	7,256	43,105
Lead	2,185	424	3,609	3,487	Far -	539	19,734	20,273	2,841
White lead	270	225	495	956	Files and bricks	-	133	133	402
Malt liquors	2,449	48	2,497	3,250	Sundry imports of various descriptions	-	-	-	22,277
Mill and grindstones	295	213	510	6,000	Total	-	-	-	609,630

Account of the Exports of Cora from Königsberg during each of the Six Years ending with 1848.

Species of Grain.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Wheat	20,515	12,485	114,691	71,190	71,708	70,669
Rye	100,716	74,755	309,092	169,561	37,253	104,083
Barley	91,011	11,098	39,214	93,370	6,779	93,453
Oats	38,250	19,337	67,137	23,530	-	8,330
Peas	19,485	6,683	59,415	11,698	18,116	30,758
Beans	1,877	915	15,810	10,590	15,611	6,410
Tares	3,394	1,610	3,190	6,539	13,765	7,310
Linnseed	31,980	69,011	43,787	6,612	99,988	54,100
Total	295,641	293,958	515,342	368,710	329,958	306,190

L.

LAC, or GUM LAC (Ger. *Lack*, *Gummilack*; Fr. *Lacque*, *Gomme laque*; It. *Lacca*, *Gommalacca*; Sp. *Goma laca*; Rus. *Laka*, *Gummilak*; Arab. *Lak*; Hind. *Lakkā*; Sais. *Lākshā*), a substance, which has been improperly called a gum, produced in Bengal, Assam, Pegu, Siam, &c. on the leaves and branches of certain trees, by an insect (*chermes lacca*). The trees selected by the insect on which to deposit its eggs are known by the names of the bihar tree (*Croton laciferum* Lin.), the pepel (*Butea frondosa*), bott, and coosim trees, &c. After being deposited, the egg is covered by the insect with a quantity of this peculiar substance, or lac, evidently intended to serve, in the economy of nature, as a nidus and protection to the ovum and insect in its first stage, and as food for the maggot in its more advanced stage. It is formed into cells, finished with as much art as a honeycomb, but differently arranged. Lac yields a fine red dye, which, though not so bright as the true Mexican cochineal, is said to be more permanent; and the resinous part is extensively used in the manufacture of sealing wax and hats, and as a varnish.

Lac, when in its natural state, encrusting leaves and twigs, is called *stick lac*: it is collected twice a year; and the only trouble in procuring it is in breaking down the leaves and branches, and carrying them to market. When the twigs or sticks are large, or only partially covered, the lac is frequently separated from them, as it always ought to be when shipped for Europe, to lessen the expense of freight. The best stick lac is of a deep red colour. When held against the light, it should look bright, and when broken should appear in diamond-like points. If it be not gathered till the insects have left their cells, it becomes pale, and pierced at the top; and is of little use as a dye, though probably better for a varnish.

Lac dye, *lac lake*, or *cake lac*, consists of the colouring matter extracted from the stick lac. Various processes have been adopted for this purpose. It is formed into small square cakes or pieces, like those of indigo. It should, when broken, look dark-coloured, shining, smooth, and compact; when scraped or powdered, it should be of a bright red colour, approaching to that of carmine. That which is sandy, light-coloured, and spongy, and which, when scraped, is of a dull brickdust colour, should be rejected.

Notwithstanding the continued fall in the price of cochineal, the use of lac dye has been extending in this country. The annual consumption may at present amount to about 700,000 lbs., having more than trebled since 1818. The finest qualities of lac dye are seldom met with for sale in Calcutta, being generally manufactured under contract for the European market.

When stick lac has been separated from the twigs to which it naturally adheres, and coarsely powdered, the native silk and cotton dyers extract the colour as far as it conveniently can be done by water. The yellowish, hard, resinous powder which remains, having somewhat of the appearance of mustard seed, is called *seed lac*. When liquefied by fire, it is formed into cakes, and denominated *tump lac*. The natives use the latter in making bangles, or ornaments in the form of rings, for the arms of the lower class of females; the best *shellac* being used in manufacturing these ornaments for the superior classes.

Shellac is produced from seed lac, by putting the latter into bags of cotton cloth, and holding it over a charcoal fire, when the lac melts, and being strained through the bag, the resinous part, which is the most liquefiable, is obtained in a considerable degree of purity; it is formed into thin sheets or plates. Thin, transparent, or amber-coloured shellac is best; avoid that which is thick, dark, or speckled; it should always, when broken, be amber-coloured on the edge; that which has a dark brown fracture, however thin, should be rejected. When held on a hot iron, shellac, if pure, will instantly catch fire, and burn with a strong but not disagreeable smell; it is used to be principally employed in this country in the manufacture of sealing wax, and as a varnish; but it is now very extensively used in the manufacture of hats: the entries for consumption in 1842 amounted to 1,082,670 lbs.

In Bengal, lac is chiefly produced in the forests of Sylhet and Burdwan. The finest dye is said to be obtained from the stick lac of Siam and Pegu; but the shellac or resinous part obtained from the latter is inferior to that produced from Sylhet stick lac. It may be obtained in almost any quantity.

Account of the Quantities of Lac Dye and of Shellac Imported into the U. Kingdom from the East India Company's Territories and Ceylon, and of the Quantities entered for home Consumption during each of the Twelve Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Lac Dye.		Shellac		Years.	Lac Dye.		Shellac.	
	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.		Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>		<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1831	755,452	450,948	1,144,329	517,500	1839	1,166,562	535,078	3,176,167	798,749
1832	459,279	606,408	1,095,116	37,632	1840	1,254,037	615,082	5,828,332	682,809
1833	299,608	493,308	1,701,514	408,537	1841	1,221,508	769,187	5,944,358	608,987
1834	696,239	388,745	941,179	409,619	1842	748,959	634,692	1,863,788	1,082,379
1835	328,491	580,440	1,179,899	578,219	Total	9,738,559	6,853,795	22,945,284	7,606,663
1836	547,053	79,348	1,372,319	680,360	Average of 12 years.	811,547	571,149	1,853,774	641,560
1837	990,260	396,197	2,194,938	576,634					
1838	1,095,179	624,081	3,659,827	827,564					

The finest lace dye is distinguished by the mark D. I., the 5d by D. T.; the 5d by J. Mc. R., G. R., &c. In July 1842 and 1843, the prices of the different species of lace in bond in the London market were as follows:—

	July, 1842.		July, 1843.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Lace dye, diamond, I.	per lb. 4 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2
D. T.	—	1 1/2 to 1 9/16	2 1/2	2 1/2
J. Mc. R.	—	1 1/2 to 1 9/16	2 1/2	2 1/2
Other marks	—	0 1/2 to 1 1/8	0 1/2	1 1/2
Lace lake	—	0 1 to 0 7/8	0 1	1 0
	July, 1845.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Shelias, liver, per cwt.	—	2 6	0 to 2 15	0

Shelias, black	per cwt.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
—	—	3 17	6 to 2	0	0
—	—	3 17	0 to 3	15	0
—	—	3 17	0 to 3	15	0

In 1845, D. T. lace dye was as high as 5s. 6d. and 5s. 6d. per lb. The duties used to be 5 per cent. on the dye, and 5 per cent. on the lace; and 30 per cent. on shelias; but it was obvious should be charged shelias, which, as already seen, is prepared from the refuse of lace dye, with four times the duty laid upon the latter. This ridiculous distinction has, however, been for some years at an end. In 1845, the duties were reduced to 1s. a cwt.—(Abstract on Permanent Culture, vol. II. pp. 1-60, 1 Animal's Meat, and 1 Millburn's Origin, Com.; and private information.)

LACE (Du. *Kanten*; Fr. *Dentelle*; Ger. *Spitzen*; It. *Merletti, Pizzi*; Rus. *Krushewo*; Sp. *Encajes*), a plain or ornamented net-work, tastefully composed of many fine threads of gold, silver, silk, flax, or cotton, interwoven, from *Lacinia* (Lat.), the guard hem or fringe of a garment.

The origin of this delicate and beautiful fabric is involved in considerable obscurity; but there is no doubt it lays claim to high antiquity. In Mr. Hope's Costumes of the Ancients, many beautiful lace patterns are portrayed on the borders of the dresses of Grecian females; and from the derivation of the word "lace," it is probable it was not unknown to the Romans. It is supposed that Mary de' Medici was the first who brought lace into France, from Venice, where, and in the neighbouring states of Italy, it is understood to have been long previously worn; but we find that in England, so early as 1483, "laces of thread, and laces of gold, and silk and gold," were enumerated among the articles prohibited to be imported.—(1 Rich. 3. c. 10.) It is, therefore, fair to presume that this manufacture had begun in England prior to that period, as this and many subsequent acts were passed—(19 Hen. 7. c. 21.; 5 Elis. c. 7.; 13 & 14 Car. 2. c. 13.; 4 & 5 W. & M. c. 10., &c.)—for the encouragement and protection of our home manufacture; but it may equally be concluded, that as *pins* (which are indispensable in the process of lace making) were not used in England till 1543, the manufacture of lace must have been vulgar in fabric, and circumscribed in its extent. Tradition says that the lace manufacture was introduced into this country by some refugees from Flanders, who settled at or near Cranfield, now a scattered village on the west side of Bedfordshire, and adjoining Bucks; but there is no certain evidence that we are indebted to the Flemings for the introduction of this beautiful art, though we undoubtedly owe to them most part of our manufactures of articles of dress; we have also imitated many of their lace fabrics, and greatly improved our manufacture, by profiting by the superior taste which they have displayed in the production of this article. In 1626, Sir Henry Borlase founded and endowed the free school at Great Marlow, for 24 boys, to read, write, and cast accounts; and for 24 girls, to knit, spin, and make bone lace—(Lewis's Typography); so that there is reason to suppose that at this time the manufacture had commenced in Buckinghamshire, which by degrees extended to the adjoining counties of Bedford and Northampton. In 1640, the lace trade was a flourishing interest in Buckinghamshire—(Fulcr's Worthies, and different Itineraries); and so greatly had it advanced in England, that by a royal ordinance in France, passed in 1660, a mark was established upon the thread lace imported from this country and from Flanders, and upon the point lace from Genoa, Venice, and other foreign countries, in order to secure payment of the customs duties.—(Universal Dictionary.)

Pillow Lace—the original manufacture—is worked upon a hard stuffed pillow, with silk, flax, or cotton threads, according to a parchment pattern placed upon it, by means of pins, bobbins, and spindles, which are placed and displaced, twisting, and interweaving the threads, so as to imitate the pattern designed. This manufacture has been long pursued in almost every town and village in the midland counties, particularly in Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Northamptonshire, besides at Honiton, in Devon, and various other places in the west of England. The principal places where it is made in the Netherlands are Antwerp, Brussels, Mechlin, Louvaine, Ghent, Valenciennes, and Lisle. It is also made at Chantilly near Paris (celebrated for veils), Charleville, Sedan, Le Compté de Bourgoigne, Liege, Dieppe, Havre, Harfleur, Pont l'Évesque, Gosors, Fecamp, Caen, Arras, Bapaume, &c. in France; and at various places in Spain, Portugal, and Italy. In England and Ireland, besides the laws passed at different times to encourage and protect the manufacture, associations were formed in various places, with the view of exciting a spirit of emulation and improvement, by holding out premiums for the production of the best pieces of bone lace; and although smuggling of foreign lace was carried on to a great extent, (in 1772, 72,000 ells of French lace were seized in the port of Leigh, and lodged in the king's warehouse there, besides numerous other seizures,) the British manufacture advanced in an unparalleled degree.—(Gentleman's Mag. 1751, vol. xxi. p. 520.; vol. xlii. p. 434.) It is imagined that the first lace ever made in this country was of the sort called *Brussels point*, the net work made by bone bobbins on the pillow, and the pattern and sprigs worked with the needle. Such

appears to have been the kind worn by the nobility and people of high rank, as is evident by the different portraits now in existence, painted by Vandyke, in the time of Charles I., and afterwards by Sir Peter Lely and Sir Godfrey Kneller, in the succeeding reigns of Charles II., Queen Anne, and George I. About a century since, the grounds in use were the old Meehlin, and what the trade termed the *wire ground*, which was very similar, if not identical, with the *modern Meehlin*, the principal article in the present French manufacture. The laces made in these grounds were singularly rich and durable; the designs of the *old Meehlin* resembled the figures commonly introduced in ornamental carving. Between 70 and 80 years ago, a great deterioration was occasioned by the introduction of the *Troly ground*, which was exceedingly coarse and vulgar, the figures angular, and altogether in the worst taste conceivable. An improvement, however, took place about the year 1770, when the ground, which is probably the most ancient known, was re-introduced; this was no other than the one still in partial use, and denominated the *old French ground*. About 1777, or 1778, quite a new ground was attempted by the inhabitants of Buckingham and its neighbourhood, which quickly superseded all the others; this was the *point ground*, which had (as is supposed) been imported from the Netherlands. From the first appearance of this ground may be dated the origin of the modern pillow lace trade; but it was not until the beginning of the present century that the most striking improvements were made; for during the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the article, though certainly much more light and elegant from the construction of the ground, was miserably poor and spiritless in the design. Soon after the year 1800, a freer and bolder style was adopted; and from that time to 1812, the improvement and consequent success were astonishing and unprecedented. At Honiton, in Devon, the manufacture had arrived at that perfection, was so tasteful in the design, and so delicate and beautiful in the workmanship, as not to be excelled even by the best specimens of Brussels lace. During the late war, veils of this lace were sold in London at from 20 to 100 guineas; they are now sold from 8 to 15 guineas. The effects of the competition of machinery, however, were about this time felt; and in 1815, the broad laces began to be superseded by the new manufacture. The pillow lace trade has since been gradually dwindling into insignificance, compared with its condition 30 years back. It is difficult to form an estimate of the number of persons employed in pillow lace making during its prosperity; but in a petition from the makers in Buckingham and the neighbourhood, presented to her present Majesty in 1830, it was stated that 120,000 persons were dependent on the trade; but this number has since been very greatly diminished.

Nottingham Lace.—A frame-work knitter of Nottingham, named Hammond, about the year 1768, was the first who made lace by machinery. Dissipated in habits, and destitute of money, employment, or credit, the idea struck him, while looking at the broad lace on his wife's cap, that he could fabricate a similar article by means of his stocking frame.—(*Graveyard Henson on Hosiery, Lace, &c.* p. 295.) He tried, and succeeded. The first machine ostensibly for lace (introduced at Nottingham about the same period, by A. Else and Harvey of London) was called a pin machine, for making single press *point net* in imitation of the Brussels ground. This machine, although lost here, is still used in France in manufacturing the net called *tulle*. This was the rage of experiments; and workmen at their leisure hours employed themselves in forming new meshes on the hand, in the hope of perfecting a complete hexagon, which had hitherto eluded all their efforts to discover. In 1782, the warp frame was introduced, which is still in use for making *warp lace*; and in 1799 it was first attempted to make *bobbin net* by machinery; but this was not found to answer. During the succeeding 10 years many alterations were made in the construction of the machines, with no better success, until at length, in 1809, Mr. Heathcoat of Tiverton succeeded in discovering the correct principle of the bobbin net frame, and obtained a patent for 14 years for his invention.* Steam power was first introduced by Mr. John Lindley, in 1815-16; but did not come into active operation till 1820. It became general in 1822-23; and a great stimulus was at this period given to the trade, owing to the expiration of Mr. Heathcoat's patent, the increased application of power, and the perfection to which the different hand frames had by this time been brought. A temporary prosperity shone on the trade; and numerous individuals—clergymen, lawyers, doctors, and others—readily embarked capital in so tempting a speculation. Prices fell in

* Since this article was printed in our first edition, Mr. Heathcoat was pointed out to us as the original inventor of the bobbin net machine, and that, prior to his patent being obtained, bobbin net by machinery was unknown, although numerous attempts had been made to produce it by its means. Mr. Brunel, engineer, who was examined, as a witness, in the action *Boville v. Moore*, tried before Sir Vicary Gibbs, in March, 1816, stated, in reference to this machine, that when Mr. Heathcoat had separated one half of the threads, and placed them on a beam as warp threads, and made the bobbin which carried the other half of the threads act between those warp threads, so as to produce Buckinghamshire or pillow lace, the lace machine was invented. Relying upon the authenticity of this statement, we feel it due to Mr. Heathcoat to give this explanation.

proportion as production increased; but the demand was immense, and the Nottingham lace frame became the organ of general supply,—rivaling and superseding, in plain nets, the most finished productions of France and the Netherlands.

The contrast is so remarkable between the production of former times and the results of the present day, through the employment of machinery, in spinning and doubling the yarn, and in the fabrication of the net itself, that it presents a subject of much interest. In 1812, the price of No. 300. yarn was 40s. per lb.; in 1833, it was only 12s.; while a square yard of middle quality bobbin net, which in 1812 sold for about 40s. per yard, could be purchased in 1835 at 10s. A pillow lace maker even of the present day (1843) can only fabricate from 4 to 5 meshes per minute; the earliest machines accomplished 1,000 meshes per minute; but at present not less than 30,000 meshes per minute are made by the machines!

Since the publication of our last edition, this trade has experienced great fluctuations. Mr. Felkin, of Nottingham, who has devoted great attention to the statistics of the manufacture, and is favourably known as the author of different periodical statements respecting it, estimated that in 1831 the quantity produced was 23,400,000 square yards, worth 1,891,875s.; in 1833, 30,771,000 square yards, worth 1,560,850s.; and in 1835, 28,740,674 square yards, value 1,363,930s. At present (1843) the whole number of machines in the bobbin net trade is about 2,200, and of these about 2,600 are in full work (1,400 power, and 1,200 hand machines), and others which have been discontinued are coming into employment. About 2,000 of these machines are situated in Nottingham and the neighbourhood, and the remainder in Leicester-shire, Derbyshire, the west of England, and the Isle of Wight. It is considered that the produce of this branch of trade for 1843, may be estimated thus—

Weight of raw silk used, 123,600 lbs. } weight when prepared, 100,000 lbs., value	£100,000
Weight of Sea Island cotton, costing 140,000s., 2,300,000 lbs. } weight when prepared, 1,400,000 lbs., value	402,000
Total value of material	£502,000

This amount of yarn is calculated to have produced—

Plain quiltings and Brussels nets	£330,000
Fancy and platt nets	800,000
Silk ditto	300,000
	1,430,000
Value of embroidery	440,000
Interest of capital, rent, wages, profits, &c.	530,000

Total value of bobbin net trade, which may be divided into plain finished goods, 750,000s.; and fancy and embroidered articles, 1,640,000s.; of which sum not less than 1,100,000s. has been paid for labour, divided amongst 73,000 men, women, and children — £2,350,000

The business is in the hands of about 100 establishments.

Warp lace trade (a separate branch), employing about 800 machines, almost entirely worked by hand, is estimated thus—

Weight of raw silk used, 40,000 lbs. } when prepared, 30,000 lbs., value	£40,000
Weight of cotton wool, cost 25,000s., 600,000 lbs. } when prepared, 450,000 lbs., value	65,000
Total value of material	£105,000

Calculated to have produced—Silk lace, value	150,000
Cotton lace, value	200,000

350,000

This branch is estimated to employ 4,000 hands, receiving 165,000s. in wages; and the produce is disposed of by about 15 houses in Nottingham and the neighbourhood.

Estimated total value of bobbin net and warp lace trade — £2,740,000

It is believed that more than half this amount is used for home consumption, of which the larger part is sold by London houses: the remainder is exported chiefly to Hamburg, the Leipzig and Frankfurt fairs, Antwerp and the rest of Belgium, France (contraband), Italy, Sicily, North and South America, and to our colonies in the East and West Indies and Australia.

This manufacture would now seem to be recovering from the depression which it has suffered for some years past. Its improvement has been chiefly effected by the adaptation of machinery to the production of lace in imitation of the best specimens of the pillow lace of former times. This has been accomplished by means of the "Jacquard" apparatus being successfully applied to the machines under various modifications (for which patents have been taken by Mr. Fisher, Mr. Yickers, Mr. Heathcoat and others), their object being to introduce patterns, either of cloth work, or open work, or a combination of both; and to such perfection have these improvements in machinery arrived, that the lace now produced by the frame bears so close a resemblance to the ancient and most elaborate of the foreign grounds, viz. Priest's lace, Valenciennes, Mechlin, and Brussels, as to deceive even a practised eye; and so remarkable has the difference in value become to the trade itself, that while a single yard of 12-stitch *gaze* net may be bought for one shilling, platt lace of first-rate design in pattern may bring even from 5s. to 10s. per yard. To produce the former, the cost of a machine might amount to 200s., while the improved machinery, required to produce the latter, would incur an outlay of perhaps 1,000s. By the application of the "Jacquard" to the bobbin net frame (by far the most intricate, delicate, and expensive of all looms), a triumph of a most important kind has been achieved for the English manufacture, as it has been attended with a solidity and certainty, both with respect to capital and labour, which was formerly unknown in the trade, when confined to the production of plain nets alone; the character of the manufacture has been elevated, and this has been further promoted by the establishment of government schools of design, where youths are assiduously studying the art of pattern-drawing, and the taste of the court and the higher classes has again been attracted to this most delicate of all our fabrics. Machines of greater width and speed have superseded the narrow frames formerly used; while numbers of the old machines have acquired an enhanced value by their adaptation to the modern improvements. The greater skill required in working the Jacquard mountings, as well as greater power necessary for the wider frames, now being introduced, has called for a larger amount of adult labour than was used with the narrow machines, and has materially improved the condition of the workmen from an increased rate of wages. On the other hand, not less than 850 small owners of machines have disappeared from the list of manufacturers since 1835-'36; (at least 800 of the narrow machines formerly in use have been sold as old iron;) and the number of embroiderers, formerly employed to a great extent on plain nets, but

now chiefly engaged on the most tasteless description of work, may have been reduced from 100,000 women and children, in 1833, to perhaps 50,000 at present, and even these, unless in the highest branches, only derive a precarious employment.

The condition of the workpeople is generally improving (except in the case of those engaged on plain common goods) their net wages may vary from 12s. to 20s. a week, or may average 31s. Women, 1s. to 12s. or average 7s., and children, 1s. to 6s., or average, 2s. 6d. In the superior departments of the trade employment is on the increase. But the working of machinery by night, and the long hours in which women and children are engaged in labour, deserve the most serious attention, and should, if possible, be restricted. It is right, however, to state that the health of the power machine workman is on the whole understood to be good; the factories are neither hot nor confined; and the hands have only to superintend, not work the machines. Hand machine labour is much heavier, but as it is the custom to work by "shifts" the men are seldom more than 6 hours a day at the frame. The embroidery frame is perhaps the most injurious to health; the workers in general commence at a tender age, and from constantly leaning over the frame while their bodies remain in a state of inactivity, they are frequently distorted in their persons, and become the victims of pulmonary disease. Notwithstanding the sedentary habits of the pillow lace workers, their general health is understood to be better than that of the lace embroiderers, but in both these employments, the hours of labour are much too long for children. They are, however, purely domestic employments under the superintendence of parents; and as the existence of the latter depends in a great measure on the quantity of labour they can bring into operation, their necessities too frequently overbalance their affections, and it is not easy for the legislature to interfere in such cases.

A considerable increase within the last few years has also taken place in bobbin net machinery on the Continent, particularly at Calais, where, in 1823, there were not 35 machines, and perhaps not 100 on the Continent altogether. Mr Felkin stated the number of frames employed there in 1835, as under—

Calais	-	600	5-4ths 11 point hand circular quil-
			lings.
Do.	-	60	7-4ths 11 point hand levers.
Do.	-	45	various widths) old machines.
			pusher, traverse, &c.
Boulogne	-	30	hand circular; chiefly 4-4ths quil-
			lings.
Nt. Omer	-	30	hand machines; plain net.
Clonay	-	145	port power, part hand machines;
			plain net.
Lille	-	120	chiefly 5-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths,
			power; plain net.
Chent	-	35	power, 12-4ths.
St. Quentin	-	80	chiefly hand; plain net.
Do.	-	80	5-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths, power;
			plain net chiefly.

Caen	-	85	hand; quiltings chiefly.
Paris	-	10	hand machines chiefly.
do.	-	40	do.
Villages in the north of France)		310	do. do.
Netherlands	-	40	nearly all hand machines.
Saxony	-	70	do. do.
Russia	-	60	power and hand do.
Austria and Prussia	-	30	probably both hand and power.
		Total	1,830

N. B.—The last mentioned countries, judging from their efforts to obtain model machines, were preparing to manufacture very extensively.

The produce of these machines was estimated at 5,824,000 square yards of net of the value of 670,250*l.* but they have since increased perhaps 1,000 in number. It was stated in an address presented to the Chamber of Deputies, in March 1833, that bobbin net to the value of 1,000,000*l.* sterling was annually used in France, formed of equal moieties of French and English manufacture. Since that period, the machines have increased from 1,650 to about 2,600, at least 100 having been imported since 1835, besides about 200 additional "machines," which are the most difficult in construction. Any important improvements which have been made in the machinery have been wholly effected by English mechanics; but these improvements have been speedily copied, and applied on the Continent. Notwithstanding the advantages derived by the lace manufacturer from the acquisition of English machines, a movement is at this time making in France to prevent the importation of English machinery. It is, however, an important fact in reference to the lace trade, that the bobbin net now produced on the Continent, is fully as large as in England. Hitherto the French manufacturers have confined themselves to medium qualities and prices; but they have acquired some advantage over us by the greater taste they display in getting up the goods for the market, and the effects of this competition, which we are now feeling, in the American and other markets, will, no doubt, put our manufacturers on the alert to meet it. French lace is said to be smuggled into this country at from 5 to 10 per cent.; but so superior is the French Custom-house superintendance, that for several years past the smugglers' charge on English lace has been not less than 50 per cent. premium.

The most celebrated foreign laces are—

1. *Brasils*, the most valuable. There are 2 kinds: *Brasils ground*, having a hexagon mesh, formed by plaiting and twisting 4 threads of silk to a perpendicular line of mesh; *Brasils wire ground*, made of silk—meshes partly straight and partly arched. The pattern is worked separately, and set on by the needle.
2. *Moskito* is a hexagon mesh formed of 3 flat threads twisted and plaited to a perpendicular line or pillar. The pattern is worked in the net.
3. *Valencienais* an irregular hexagonal formed of 2 threads, partly twisted and plaited at the top of the mesh. The pattern is worked in the net similar to Mechlin lace.
4. *Lille* is a diamond mesh, formed of 2 threads plaited to a pillar.
5. *Alicon* (called *hond*) hexagon of 3 threads, twisted similar to Buckingham lace) considered the most inferior of any made on the cushion.
6. *Alicon Petit* formed of 2 threads to a pillar, with octagon and square meshes alternately.

The French nets made by machinery are—

1. *Single Praspinis*, called, when not ornamented, *tulle* and when ornamented, *dentelle*; made of silk; is an inferior net, but is attractive from the beautiful manner in which it is stiffened.
2. *Trice Berlin*; so called from being invented at Berlin, and the stitch being removed 3 needles from its place of looping; is fanciful and unornamented in appearance, but not in demand in England.
3. *Fleur de Tulis*, made from the warp lace machine; mesh of 2 descriptions, which gives a shaded appearance to the net.
4. *Tulle Anglaise* is double pressed point lace.
5. *Bobbis net*, principally made by English emigrants, who call it *Warp net*, is set in France.

* * * We are indebted for this learned and very excellent article to Mr. Robert Slater, of Fore Street, London.

LACK, a word used in the East Indies to denote the sum of 100,000 rupees, which, supposing them standards, or siccas, at 2*s.* 6*d.*, amounts to 12,500*l.* sterling.

LADING, BILL OF. See BILL OF LADING.

LAGAN. See FLOTSAM.

LA GUAYRA, the principal sea-port of the republic of Venezuela, in the province of Caracas, on the Caribbean Sea, lat. 10° 36' 19" N., lon. 67° 6' 45" W. Population 8,000? In 1810, the population is believed to have amounted to 13,000; the reduction being a consequence of the loss of life caused by the tremendous earthquake of 1812, and the massacres and proscriptions incident to the revolutionary war. The population of the city of Caracas, of which La Guayra may be considered as the port, fell off, from the same causes, from 43,000 in 1810, to 23,000 in 1830; but they are now both increasing.

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Port. — There is neither quay nor mole at La Guayra. Ships moor E. N. E. and W. S. W., with their heads to the north, at from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from the land, in from 9 to 18 fathoms. The holding ground is good; and notwithstanding the openness of the road, vessels properly fixed in anchors and cables run very little risk of being driven from their moorings.

Trade. — The principal articles of export are coffee, cocoa, indigo, hides, sarsaparilla, &c. La Guayra shares the trade of Venezuela with the ports of Cumana, Puerto Cabello, Maracaibo, &c., having about a half of its entire amount. The imports and exports of Venezuela in 1838-54 were as follows:—

Imports.			Exports.		
		Value.			Value.
		Dollars.	Lbs.		Dollars.
Cotton goods	-	1,063,337	Coffee	-	11,692,634
Linens ditto	-	615,879	Cacao	-	5,364,816
Woolens ditto	-	75,457	Indigo	-	491,698
Milk	-	86,912	Dye-woods	-	17,607,382
Flour	-	140,770	Tobacco, cinchona bark, balsam, hides, &c.	-	79,245
Pork	-	123,447			816,837
Other imports	-	1,181,048			
Total	-	3,296,411	Total	-	3,394,483

We subjoin a statement of the principal exports from La Guayra during each of the 5 years ending the 5th October, 1847.

Years ending 5th October.	Coffee.	Cocoa.	Cotton.	Sugar.	Indigo.	Hides.
	Quintals.	Fanegas.	Quintals.	Quintals.	Quintals.	Number.
1845	147,474	29,624	510	3,274	1,074	31,684
1844	132,066	29,739	525	3,258	792	43,948
1843	129,912	29,478	767	5,153	429	41,773
1846	111,273	28,411	1,190	4,461	621	33,569
1847	126,312	37,876	1,128	7,940	621	49,773

Duties received at Custom-House, La Guayra, 1842-3, 831,848 doll.; 1843-44, 722,115 do.; 1844-45, 795,631 do.; 1845-46, 891,502 do.

	National.	Foreign (not privileged).		National.	Foreign (not privileged).
Tonnage duty	\$ crs. 37 30	150 0	Municipal bill of health	\$ crs. 2 0	2 0
Entrance fee	4 0	6 0	Permit to load and stamp	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$
Anchorage	12 0	16 0	Certificate of sea-worthiness from captain of port, prior to loading, and stamp	2 0	2 0
Captain of port's fee	3 0	6 0		108 75	232 25
Interpreter's fee and translating manifest	2 0	4 0			
Permit to discharge and stamp	1 12 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 12 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Health officer's fee	4 0	4 0			
Municipal charge for water	40 0	40 0			
			Value in sterling money	£17 15 10	£38 14 2

N.B. — A ship introducing a cargo, and sailing in ballast, would be liable to all the above charges, with the exception of the last two.

The charge for water is levied without regard to tonnage; viz. sloops and schooners, 20 dollars each, brigs 30, and ships 40.

Port Regulations. — On casting anchor, a visit is paid by the collector of customs, or his agent, accompanied by other officers, who take from the master his register, manifest, and muster-roll, and an officer is left on board until the cargo is discharged. The master must swear to his manifest within 24 hours after his arrival, when the permit to discharge is granted, and within 3 days all invoices must be presented. The discharge completed, the same officers repair on board to examine the vessel, and all being found in order, the officer is withdrawn. The clearing of a vessel outwards (that has entered with cargo) in ballast is then completed by paying the port charges; proof whereof being produced, the permission to sail is signed by the governor and harbour master. If the vessel take cargo on board, then the same formality, as to visiting, is pursued, as on the entry of a vessel.

Credit. — Goods imported are almost invariably sold upon credit; those exported are, on the other hand, always sold for ready money. The terms of credit vary from 2 to 6 months, or more. Bankruptcy is very rare.

Commission, Brokerage, &c. — Any one who pleases may undertake the functions of broker, factor, or merchant in Venezuela. The only obligation is the paying the patent or licence, that must be taken out by every one exercising such trades. This varies, according to the business, from about 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 6*g.* 1*s.* 4*d.* a year, and falls on natives as well as foreigners. The rates of commission are as follows:—

On sales of goods imported	-	-	5 per cent.	But when monies are collected, and remittance is ordered in bills of exchange, including guarantee of the same	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
On sales of produce	-	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	Negotiating and indorsing bills	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
On shipping produce, as returns for goods imported, or upon orders where credit is provided for the purchase	-	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	On money remitted as return for goods sold, including guarantee thereof, as may be agreed	-	1 to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
But upon orders where the amount has to be drawn for, or when provision is made in bills of exchange	-	-	5	Advancing money upon letters of credit and drawing for the same	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Collecting monies, and remitting the same	-	-	1	Collecting or procuring freight for vessels	-	5

Insurance. — There are no establishments for conducting the business of insurance in Venezuela.

Money, Weights, and Measures. — The currency of the country consists of silver money, known by the name of *macucos*, divided into dollars of 8 reals, $\frac{1}{2}$ do. of 4 reals, besides reals, $\frac{1}{2}$ reals, and *quintillas* or $\frac{1}{4}$ reals. This money is of very unequal weight and purity, the coins issued since the commencement of the revolutionary war having been often a good deal defaced. The real should be worth 6*d.* sterling.

Weights and measures same as those of Spain.

Tares. — Real tare is taken both at the Custom-house and by the merchant.

Commercial Prospects. — The commerce and industry of Venezuela suffered severely from the revolutionary struggle of which she was the theatre. But the country has been for some time past comparatively tranquil. As the riches of Venezuela consist entirely of the products of her agriculture, the legis-

ature has wisely exerted itself to give it encouragement, by abolishing tithes, the tobacco monopoly, &c. But the want of a supply of efficient labour, arising out of the measures in progress for the abolition of slavery, is the grand obstacle to the progress of industry. The English consul at Puerto Cabello, in alluding to the deficiency of labour, in a communication dated June, 1843, says that an able-bodied man can earn enough in a day's labour to keep himself for a week; and such being the case, can any one expect industry to flourish, unless some sort of system for the supply of compulsory labour be resorted to? Indeed, the consul, though a warm advocate for the abolition of slavery, is, though not very consistently, alive to the necessity of what he calls "a mild compulsory system!" The truth is, that in countries like this, freedom and idleness are synonymous.

We have derived these details partly from *Consular Returns*, and partly from *private information*.

LAMAR, formerly COBILA, a sea-port of the republic of Bolivia, the ci-devant Upper Peru, on the west coast of South America, lat. 22° 39' 30" S., long. 70° 12' W. Population, 5,000. ?

In 1833 Lamar was declared a free port, and in it centres almost the whole foreign trade of the republic. Its situation is, however, very unfavourable. It labours under a great want of fresh water; and is obliged to import all its provisions by sea, either from Valpa; also, on the one hand, or from Arica on the other. The desert of Atacama lies between it and the internal and populous parts of the country, where the towns of Potosi, Cochabamba, Charcas, &c. are situated. The produce imported at Lamar is conveyed across the desert on the backs of mules to the interior; the gold and silver of the mines being brought in the same way to the port to be shipped. These, with copper, saltpetre, chinchilli skins, and wool, form the principal articles of export. Saltpetre is found in large quantities in the desert; the copper is found near the coast, and, owing to the scarcity of fuel, most part of it is exported in the shape of ore.

Peru possesses a long narrow slip of land, stretching along the coast of the Pacific from Arequipa to the Bay of Pica, which ought naturally to belong to Bolivia, being, in fact, the *hinterland* of the latter. The Bolivian government has set on foot various negotiations to obtain the cession of this tract, which, besides greatly improving the frontier of the republic, would, at the same time, render her mistress of Arica, which is, in all respects, much better fitted than Lamar for becoming the entrepôt of her trade. Hitherto, however, these negotiations have proved abortive, so that, as already stated, Lamar at present engrosses most part of the foreign trade of the state.

We subjoin the decree constituting Lamar a free port:—

1. From and after the 1st of July of this present year, 1835, Port Lamar shall be absolutely free and open.
2. Vessels of every nation may enter this port and remain as long as they please, without being subjected to any tax whatever, either on entrance, or during their stay, or on their departure.
3. They shall be free from all duties of anchorage, tonnage, shifting, unloading, or reloading of cargo, deposit, storage, or any other of whatever denomination.
4. Goods may be deposited in private warehouses, without any intervention on the part of the government.
5. The Custom-house of Port Lamar is suppressed. In its stead will be a commissioner's office, for the purpose of distributing permits for the transportation of goods into the interior.
6. Whenever goods are to be sent into the interior, they must first be submitted to the commissioner, together with the invoice corresponding.
7. The commissioner will register them in a book, together with their valuation made by two merchants of the place, and the names of their owners, of the person to whom, and the place where they are to be sent. This is to be signed by the person entering the goods, who at the same time binds himself to have them transported direct to the Custom-house for which they are destined, without opening any of the cases, bags, or other envelopes, each of which shall be sealed, marked, and numbered before departure. These points are to be expressed in the permit.
8. The commissioner shall by the earliest post send a notice to the collector of the Custom-house for which any merchandise is destined, specifying the numbers, characters, quantities, and qualities of the several articles.
9. The goods must not be carried by any unaccustomed roads, but only through Calema and the public thoroughfares; and whenever they pass through any place at which a guard or commissioner is stationed, the permits must be exhibited, in order that their arrival with their seals unbroken may be ascertained.
10. Merchants, either in person or by a representative, must produce to the commissioner of the port a certificate of the delivery of the goods at the Custom-house for which they are destined within 6 months from the day of their entry; in case they do not, they must at the end of that period pay the whole of the duties on them.
11. From and after the 1st of July, 1835, all goods entered at Port Lamar shall pay a duty of only 1/2 per cent. over and above that of half per cent. to the consular.
12. The duty of 5 per cent. shall be paid thus: at the port, 2 per cent. on the valuation made as aforesaid; and the other 3 at the Custom-house in the interior for which the goods are destined. In each case one half at the end of 3, the other half at the end of 5 months.
13. All goods carried from Port Lamar by land to any of the adjoining republics shall only pay a transit duty of 2 per cent.
14. A duty of 2 per cent. shall be paid on three fourths of all gold and silver money entered at any of the custom-houses in the interior for exportation through Port Lamar.
15. It is absolutely prohibited to export gold or silver, in bullion or plate, except in small quantities for the use of the person carrying it out. It will be seized wherever it is found on this side the districts of San Antonio, San Vicente, Ataca, A. gus, de Castilla, Lequeupie, or the line of the canal.
16. All hardware for agriculture and mining, machinery, instruments of science or the arts, iron, steel, quicksilver, and moral books, may be introduced free of duty into the republic, and productions of Bolivia may be exported likewise free.
17. A premium of 2 per cent. on their value shall be allowed on the exportation through Port Lamar, of cascarilla, wool, tin, cocoa, and coffee, in the shape of remission from duties to the amount on goods carried into the interior from the same port. The remaining articles of the Decree are of a purely local nature.

Account of the Quantity and Value free on board of the Bolivian, Peruvian, and Argentine Products, exported from Lamar, in 1840.

Products.	Quantity.	Price per Weight or Quantity.	Value in		Country of Production.
			Dollars.	£ sterling.	
Hark, Calisaya	quintals.	\$ 40 0 = \$ 4 0	5,600 0	791 0	Bolivia.
Copper	4,420	1 5 = 0 7 0	7,735 0	1,517 0	Bolivia (mines of Lamar or Colija).
Widened money	-	-	1,533,185 6	306,097 2	Bolivia (Potosi).
Widened	-	-	57,400 0	11,460 0	Argentine Republic.
Fine silver	marcas oz.	8 0 = 1 12 0	25,606 0	5,124 4	Bolivian and Peruvian Republics.
Wool, Vlenia's	3,200 6 quint. llv.	12 0 = 2 8 0	715 2	143 1	Bolivian Province of Chichas.
Wool, sheep's	218 10	10 0 = 2 0 0	3,181 0	696 4	Ditto.
Total	-	-	1,631,823 1	326,364 12	-

N.B.—As this return has been prepared from one published by the Bolivian authorities, we have not altered the prices; but it must be observed that the average value of fine silver free on board in a port of Bolivia, Peru, or Chili, is \$9 4 = 17. 18s., and bar silver \$10 0 = 2l. a marc; and the price of Vicuña wool is about 6 rials = 3s. the pound, or \$75 = 15l. the quintal.

Inasmuch, however, as the greater part of the foreign products for the consumption of Bolivia are imported via Arica, we subjoin an

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La Guayra having about 1817 —

Value.
Dollars.
1,233,653
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Account of the Value of the Principal Foreign Articles Imported into the Peruvian Port of Arica in Transit for Bolivia, in 1840, specifying the Countries under whose Flags the Articles were Imported, and the Quantity Imported under each Exchange, &c. per dollar.

Articles.	Flags under which the Articles were imported.									Total Value.		Amount of Duties.				
	Britain.	France.	U. S.	Sardin.	Hamb.	Spain.	Peru	Chili.	Equat.	Dollars.	£ sterling.	Dollars.	£ sterling.			
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£							
Cottons	40,778	9,789	1,197	418	-	-	-	-	-	52,183	10,436	12	2,458	1	49	6
Linen	2,256	17,992	383	59	-	-	-	778	-	5,430	1,096	2	245	1	49	6
Silks	5,491	42,706	-	1,782	-	-	-	2,240	-	57,531	11,466	18	5,092	4	418	10
Woolens	85,415	17,186	921	195	451	3,143	-	2,481	-	106,681	21,338	6	4,992	0	992	8
Wine and spirits	-	2,151	1,026	319	-	-	-	-	-	4,475	895	2	374	5	74	17
Iron & other wares	30,335	29,779	4,534	9,923	925	2,514	950	2,007	3,272	101,222	16,844	18	4,681	6	938	19
Totals	164,276	105,405	8,264	12,651	1,376	6,643	930	7,507	3,272	310,520	62,065	12	10,415	0	2,863	0

Note. — Quicksilver, bar iron, scientific instruments, books, and other articles, the importation of which is free, are excluded from the account. — (Consular Returns and private information from Peru.)

LAMB-SKINS (Ger. *Lammfelle*; Fr. *Peaux d'agneaux*; It. *Pelli agnelli*; Sp. *Pielles de corderos*). The value of lamb-skins varies according to the fineness, brilliancy, and colour of the wool. Black lamb-skins are more generally esteemed than those of any other colour. English lamb-skins are seldom to be met with perfectly black; but since the introduction of Merino sheep into this country, many of the white fleeces have, in point of quality, arrived at a pitch of perfection which justly entitles them to be ranked with some of the best fleeces in Spain. The importation of lamb-skins is immense. Eight tenths of the whole quantity are supplied by Italy. They are mostly used in the glove manufacture.

LAMP (Ger. *Lampe*; Fr. *Lampe*; It. *Lucerna*; Sp. *Lampara*; Rus. *Lampadu*), an instrument used for the combustion of liquid inflammable bodies, for the purpose of producing artificial light.

It is unnecessary to give any description of instruments that are so well known. We may, however, remark that the discovery of Sir H. Davy, who, by covering the flame with wire gauze, succeeded in producing a lamp that may be securely used in coal mines charged with inflammable gas, is one of the most ingenious and valuable that has ever been made. The following extracts from a communication of the late Mr. Buddle, an able and well-informed coal engineer, evince the great importance of Sir Humphry Davy's invention.

"Besides the facilities afforded by this invention to the working of coal mines abounding in fire damp, it has enabled the directors and superintendents to ascertain, with the utmost precision and expedition, both the presence, the quantity, and correct situation of the gas. Instead of creeping lurch by lurch with a candle, as is usual, along the galleries of a mine suspected to contain fire damp, in order to ascertain its presence, we walk firmly on with the safe lamps, and, with the utmost confidence, prove the actual state of the mine. By observing attentively the several appearances upon the flame of the lamp, in an examination of this kind, the cause of accidents which happened to the most experienced and cautious miners is completely developed; and this has hitherto been in a great measure matter of mere conjecture.

"It is not necessary that I should enlarge upon the national advantages which must necessarily result from an invention calculated to prolong our supply of mineral coal, because I think them obvious to every reflecting mind; but I cannot conclude without expressing my highest sentiments of admiration for those talents which have developed the properties, and controlled the power, of one of the most dangerous elements which human enterprise has hitherto had to encounter."

LAMP-BLACK (Ger. *Kienruss*; Fr. *Noir de fumée*; *Nero di fumo*, *Negro-fumo*; *Negro de humo*). "The finest lamp-black is produced by collecting the smoke from a lamp with a long wick, which supplies more oil than can be perfectly consumed, or by suffering the flame to play against a metalline cover, which impedes the combustion, not only by conducting off part of the heat, but by obstructing the current of air. Lamp-black, however, is prepared in a much cheaper way for the demands of trade. The dregs which remain after the eliquation of pitch, or else small pieces of fir wood, are burned in furnaces of a peculiar construction, the smoke of which is made to pass through a long horizontal flue, terminating in a close boarded chamber. The roof of this chamber is made of coarse cloth, through which the current of air escapes, while the soot remains."—(*Ure's Dictionary of Chemistry*.)

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Custom-house, whose duty it is, upon landing any merchandise, to taste, weigh, measure, or otherwise examine the various articles, &c., and to take an account of the same. They are likewise styled searchers, and are attended, and join with, the patent searchers, in execution of all cockets for the shipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts; and, in cases where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent searchers, are to certify the shipping thereof on the debentures.

LAPIS LAZULI. See **ULTRAMARINE**.

LAST, an uncertain quantity, varying in different countries, and with respect to different articles. Generally, however, a last is estimated at 4,000 lbs.; but there are great discrepancies.

The following quantities of different articles make a last, viz. — 14 barrels of pitch, tar, or ashes; 12 dozen of hides or skins; 12 barrels of cod-fish, potato, or meal; 20 casks, each of 1,000 herrings; every 1,000 ten hundred, and every 100 five score; 104 quarters of cole-seed; 10 quarters of corn or rape-seed;

In some parts of England, 21 quarters of corn go to a last; 12 sacks of wool; 20 dickers (every dicker 12 skins) of leather; 18 barrels of unpacked herrings; 10,000 pilchards; 24 barrels (each barrel containing 100 lbs.) of gunpowder; 1,700 lbs. of feathers or flax.
Last is sometimes used to signify the burden or lade of a ship.

LATH, LATHS (Du. *Latten*; Fr. *Lattes*; Ger. *Latten*; It. *Correnti*; Rus. *Slegü*), long, thin, and narrow slips of wood, nailed to the rafters of a roof or ceiling, in order to sustain the covering. Laths are distinguished into various sorts, according to the different kinds of wood of which they are made, and the different purposes to which they are to be applied. They are also distinguished, according to their length, into 5, 4, and 3 feet laths. Their ordinary breadth is about an inch, and their thickness $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch. Laths are sold by the bundle, which is generally called a hundred: but 7 score, or 140, are computed in the hundred for 3 feet laths; 6 score, or 120, in such as are 4 feet; and for those which are denominated 5 feet the common hundred, or 5 score.

LATTEN, a name sometimes given to tin plates; that is, to thin plates of iron, tinned over. — (See *TIN*.)

LAWN (Ger. and Fr. *Linon*; It. *Linone*, *Rensa*; Sp. *Cambray clarin*), a sort of clear or open worked cambric, which, till of late years, was exclusively manufactured in France and Flanders. At present, the lawn manufacture is established in Scotland, and in the north of Ireland, where articles of this kind are brought to such a degree of perfection, as nearly to rival the productions of the French and Flemish manufactories. In the manufacture of lawns, finer flaxen thread is used than in that of cambric.

LAZARETTO. See *QUARANTINE*.

LEAD (Ger. *Bley*, *Blei*; Du. *Lood*, *Loot*; Fr. *Plomb*; It. *Piombo*; Sp. *Plomo*; Rus. *Svinez*; Pol. *Ołow*; Lat. *Plumbum*; Arab. *Anuk*; Hind. *Sisa*; Pers. *Surb*), one of the most useful metals. It is of a bluish white colour, and when newly melted is very bright, but it soon becomes tarnished by exposure to the air. It has scarcely any taste, but emits, on friction, a peculiar smell. It stains paper or the fingers of a bluish colour. When taken internally, it acts as a poison. It is one of the heaviest of the metals; its specific gravity is 11.35. It is very malleable, and may be reduced to thin plates by the hammer; it may also be drawn out into wire, but its ductility is not very great. Its tenacity is so small, that a lead wire $\frac{1}{16}$ inch diameter is capable of supporting only 18.4 lbs. without breaking. It melts at 612°. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Lead is a metal of much importance, as, from its durability, it is extensively used in the construction of water-pipes and cisterns, as a covering for flat surfaces or tops of buildings, &c. &c. Its salts, which are poisonous, are used in medicine to form sedative external applications; and frequently not a little, by the disreputable wine merchant, to stop the progress of acetous fermentation. Wine thus poisoned, may, however, be readily distinguished; a small quantity of the bicarbonate of potass producing a white precipitate, and sulphureted hydrogen a black ore. Pure wine will not be affected by either of these tests. "The oxide of lead enters into the composition of white glass, which it renders clearer and more fusible: it is also used in glazing common earthen vessels; hence the reason that pickles kept in common red pans become poisonous. Lead, with tin, and a small quantity of some of the other metals, forms pewter; with antimony, it forms the alloy of which printing types are made." — *Joyce's Chem. (Mineralogy)*.

Mines of this valuable mineral have been wrought in England from the era of the Romans. It does not, however, appear that it was obtained any where except in Derbyshire, till 1289, when it was discovered in Wales; and the fact that silver was found intermixed with the Welsh ores having transpired, gave a new stimulus to the business; but in other respects the discovery of silver was of no use; the quantity obtained being insufficient to defray the cost of its separation from the lead. At present, the most productive English lead mines are situated in Airedale, and other western parts of Northumberland; at Aldstone Moor, &c., in Cumberland; in the western parts of Durham, in Swaledale, Arkendale, and other parts of Yorkshire; in the hundred of Ethen Peak in Derbyshire, in Salep, and in Cornwall. The Welsh mines are principally situated in the counties of Flint, Cardigan, and Montgomery; those of Scotland in Ayr, Kirkcubright, and Lanark; and those of Ireland, in Wicklow, Waterford, and Down. Lead mines are also wrought to considerable advantage in the Isle of Man. We subjoin an abstract deduced from the accounts furnished by the Museum of Economical Geology, of the

Quantities of Lead Ore and Lead produced in the U. Kingdom in 1847.

	Lead Ore.	Lead.
England	59,614	39,507
Wales	16,147	12,254
Ireland	2,251	1,380
Scotland	1,159	823
Isle of Man	2,575	1,699
Totals	83,747	55,703

The foreign lead imported is mostly all re-exported; so that the supply of lead from our own mines is adequate, not only to furnish an annual export of from 16,000 to 20,000 tons a year, but to supply the

home consumption. The price of lead declined considerably after 1820, a result principally to be ascribed to the increased supplies of lead from Adra and other mines in Granada, and to the comparatively cheap rate at which they were furnished. Latterly, however, the supplies from the Spanish mines have fallen off, and prices have again risen; pig lead, which in 1825 was worth only 13*l.* a ton, being now (1848) worth 15*l.* per do. A considerable quantity of silver is now obtained from lead; the expense of its extraction having been materially diminished by the invention of improved processes. It is believed that of 55,000 tons of lead raised in Great Britain, about 25,000 yield 8 oz. per ton of silver. Supposing this estimate to be correct, the entire produce of silver will be 200,000 oz.; which, at 5*s.* per oz., will be 50,000*l.* a year.

An Account of British Lead and Lead Ore exported from the United Kingdom from the 5th of January, 1842, to the 5th of January, 1843; distinguishing the Countries to which it was sent.—(Quarters and Pounds omitted in the Columns, but allowed for in the summing up.)

Countries to which exported.	British Lead and Lead Ore.							Foreign Lead.	
	Pig and rolled Lead and Shot	Litharge.	Red Lead.	White Lead.	Lead Ore.	Total of British Lead and Lead Ore.	Pig Lead.	White Lead.	
	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	
Russia	5,109 1	240 9	4 11	8 4	-	5,262 6	521 19	-	
Sweden	81 0	0 1	0 19	19 10	-	220 0	-	-	
Norway	84 10	1 8	1 1	36 12	-	84 1	-	-	
Denmark	200 15	11 2	11 0	125 11	-	248 7	-	-	
Prussia	520 17	37 6	5 5	19 10	-	622 18	157 6	-	
Germany	708 15	119 6	70 17	150 6	0 9	1,057 6	65 4	-	
Holland	5,283 11	10 8	169 18	30 14	144 0	5,671 13	420 19	-	
Belgium	598 9	33 8	19 14	8 12	-	659 7	350 5	-	
France	5,282 9	9 14	1 19	4 7	0 5	5,296 14	48 5	-	
Portugal, Azores and Madeira	140 0	21 3	40 8	137 14	-	319 4	-	-	
Spain and the Canaries	1 5	9 11	0 0	5 12	-	33 12	-	-	
Gibraltar	12 1	-	2 0	1 5	-	16 4	-	-	
Italy	773 4	20 0	81 17	-	-	895 1	10 0	-	
Malta	19 1	0 1	1 10	-	-	20 12	-	-	
Ionian Islands	12	-	0 10	-	-	12 18	-	-	
Mores and Greek Islands	11 10	-	-	-	-	11 10	-	-	
Turkey and Constantinople	75 18	1 6	8 2	1 2	-	86 9	-	-	
Greece	-	-	0 10	0 1	6 0	6 11	-	-	
Syria and Palestine	-	-	0 10	0 1	-	0 11	-	-	
East Indies and China	2,557 0	-	70 4	62 15	-	2,629 5	618 16	3 15	
Australian settlements	377 15	0 2	0 17	33 18	-	418 13	-	-	
New Zealand	-	-	-	4 6	-	4 6	-	-	
Cape of Good Hope	120 15	-	4 11	10 18	2 0	137 3	-	-	
Other parts of Africa	267 2	-	1 9	20 6	108 10	397 7	-	-	
British North American colonies	295 2	1 0	27 5	76 16	-	399 4	-	-	
British West Indies	262 0	0 2	1 14	74 19	-	337 6	-	-	
Foreign West Indies	86 0	-	-	8 12	-	94 12	-	-	
United States of America	-	-	-	37 5	-	37 5	-	-	
Texas	2 8	-	-	-	-	2 8	-	-	
Mexico	1 4	-	-	-	-	1 4	-	-	
Columbia	16 16	-	-	-	-	16 16	-	-	
Brazil	435 18	0 3	22 14	28 6	-	486 9	-	-	
States of the Rio de la Plata	41 13	-	0 13	7 7	-	49 15	3 10	-	
Chili	26 7	-	0 8	0 10	-	27 15	-	-	
Peru	2 4	0 6	-	-	-	3 10	-	-	
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	165 16	0 10	-	53 1	-	189 7	-	-	
Total	20,205 8	544 12	576 17	1,066 0	290 17	22,682 16	1,835 13	3 15	

The consumption of lead in France is rapidly increasing. It is nearly all imported; and the importations have increased from 6,211,500 kilogrammes, at an average of the 4 years ending with 1822, to 15,742,192 kilogrammes, at an average of the 2 years ending with 1830. The imports are almost entirely from Spain; and their increase is, no doubt, principally a consequence of the fall of prices.—(*Journal des Mines, Troisième Série*, iii. 517.)

Lead Mines of the United States.—These have recently become of very considerable value and importance. They are principally situated in Illinois and the Wisconsin territory on the Upper Mississippi. We subjoin an account, derived from an authentic source, of the produce of these mines in 1841 and 1842.

Statement of Lead shipped from Galena, Illinois, including Dubuque in Wisconsin, and all other Points on the Upper Mississippi, in 1841 and 1842.

Pigs	-	-	1841.	1842.
Shipped by the lakes	-	-	452,214	447,859
884 boxes our lead	-	-	-	25,000
2,314 kegs shot	-	-	2,750	-
Small bar lead	-	-	7,240	-
	-	-	-	840
Totals	-	-	463,404	473,699
Estimated value, in 1841, of 452,214 pigs of 70 lbs. at 3 cents, is	-	-	-	\$980,930 40
2,750 do. small bar, at 10 cents, is	-	-	-	6,312 50
7,240 do. in shot, at 4 cents, is	-	-	-	24,696 00
	463,404	\$2,438,800	-	\$982,243 90
In 1842—				
447,859 pigs at 3 cents, is	31,330,180 lbs. at 2.274 cents, is	-	-	\$744,595 58
840 do. small bar at 3 cents, is	56,800 lbs. at 3 cents, is	-	-	1,764 00
	448,699 pigs.	-	-	\$746,359 58

LEAD, BLACK, or PLUMBAGO. See BLACK LEAD.

LEAD, RED, or MINIMUM. See MINIMUM.

LEAGUE, a measure of length, containing more or fewer geometrical paces, according to the customs of different countries.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

LEAKAGE, in commerce, an allowance in the customs, granted to importers of

wine, for the waste and damage the goods are supposed to receive by keeping. — (See *Warehousing Act*, in art. *WAREHOUSING SYSTEM*.)

LEATHER (Ger. *Leder*; Du. *Leder, Leër*; Da. *Læder*; Sw. *Läder*; Fr. *Cuir*; It. *Cuoja*; Sp. *Cuero*; Rus. *Kosha*; Lat. *Corium*), the skins of various quadrupeds, dressed in a particular manner for the use of manufacturers, whose business it is to make them up, according to their different employments.

The leather manufacture of Great Britain is of very great importance, and ranks either third or fourth on the list; being inferior only in point of value and extent to those of cotton, wool, and iron, if it be not superior to the latter. Sir F. M. Eden, in his work on *Insurance*, estimated the value of the different articles manufactured of leather, in 1803, at 12,000,000*l.*; and there is reason to think that this statement was not very wide of the mark. The total quantity of all sorts of leather tanned, tawed, dressed, and curried, in Great Britain, may at present be estimated at about 60,000,000 lbs.; which, at 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb., gives 4,500,000*l.* as the value of the leather only. Now, supposing, as is sometimes done, the value of the leather to amount to one third part of the value of the finished articles produced from it, that would show the value of the manufacture to be about 13,500,000*l.*; but if, as others contend, the value of the leather does not exceed one fourth part of the value of the finished articles, then the value of the manufacture must exceed 18,000,000*l.* We, however, are inclined to think that we shall be nearer the truth, if we take the smaller sum, and estimate the value of the manufacture at 13,500,000*l.* To get the number of persons employed, we have first to deduct from this sum, 4,500,000*l.* for the material, which leaves 9,000,000*l.* as the aggregate amount of profits, wages, &c. And setting aside 25 per cent. as profit, rent of workshops, compensation for capital wasted, &c., we have a sum of 6,750,000*l.* remaining as wages; and supposing those employed as shoemakers, saddlers, glovers, &c. to make at an average 50*l.* a year each, the entire number of such persons will amount to 225,000.

This, however, does not give the total number of persons employed in the leather trade, inasmuch as it excludes the tanners, curriers, &c. employed in dressing and preparing the leather. But if, from the value of the prepared leather, 4,500,000*l.*, we deduct 1,500,000*l.* for the value of the hides, and 2,000,000*l.* for tanners' and curriers' profits, including the expense of lime, bark, pits, &c., we shall have 1,000,000*l.* left as wages. Now, as the wages of tanners, curriers, leather dressers, &c. may, we believe, be taken at 35*l.* a year at an average, we shall have 28,300 as the number employed in these departments. And adding these to the persons employed in manufacturing the leather, we have a grand total of 253,300 persons employed in the various departments of the business.

Those who may be inclined to suspect these estimates of exaggeration, would do well to reflect on the value of the shoes annually manufactured. It is generally supposed that the expenditure upon shoes may be taken, at an average of the whole population, at 10*s.* each individual, young and old; which, supposing the population to amount to 18,500,000*l.* would give 9,250,000*l.* for the value of shoes only; but taking the value of the shoes at only 8*s.* each individual, it gives 7,400,000*l.* for the amount. Mr. Stevenson (art. *England*, *Edin. Ency.*) supposes that the value of the saddlery, harness, gloves, &c. may be assumed to be at least equal to that of the shoes; but we believe this is too high, and have taken it at 1,300,000*l.* below the value of the shoes. In estimating the value of the entire manufacture at 13,500,000*l.*, we incline to think that we are as near the mark as it is easy to come in such investigations.

In speaking of the leather manufacture, Dr. Campbell has the following striking observations: — "If we look abroad on the instruments of husbandry, on the implements used in most mechanic trades, on the structure of a multitude of engines and machines; or if we contemplate at home the necessary parts of our clothing — breeches, shoes, boots, gloves — or the furniture of our houses, the books on our shelves, the harness of our horses, and even the substance of our carriages; what do we see but instances of human industry exerted upon leather? What an aptitude has this single material in a variety of circumstances for the relief of our necessities, and supplying conveniences in every state and stage of life? Without it, or even without it in the plenty we have it, to what difficulties should we be exposed?" — (*Political State of Great Britain*, vol. ii. p. 176.)

Leather was long subject to a duty; the manufacture being, in consequence, necessarily conducted under the *surveillance* of the excise. In 1812, the duty, which had previously amounted to 1*d.* per lb., was doubled; and continued at 3*d.* per lb. till July, 1822, when it was again reduced to 1*d.* per lb. The reduced duty produced a net revenue of about 360,000*l.* It is clear, however, that either the duty ought not to have been reduced in 1822, or that it ought to have been totally repealed. The continuance of any part of the duty rendered it necessary to continue all the vexatious regulations required to insure the collection of the revenue, while the reduction of 1*d.* in the cost of preparing a pound of leather was so trifling as hardly to be sensible. It is, however, unnecessary to enter into any discussion to show the extreme inexpediency of laying any duty on an article so indispensable to the labouring class, and to the prosecution of many branches of industry, as leather; and still less to show the inexpediency of subjecting so very important and valuable a manufacture to a vexatious system of revenue laws, for the sake of only 360,000*l.* a year. Luckily, however, these have become matters of history. The leather duties were totally abolished in 1830; and as the manufacture has since been relieved from every sort of trammel and re-

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\$744,595	58
1,764	00
\$746,359	58

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straint, it has rapidly increased. It is to be hoped that no future necessity may arise to occasion the reimposition of the leather duty.

Account of the Number of Pounds Weight of Leather charged with Duties of Excise in England, in 1824—1829.

1824	-	53,429,639		1826	-	44,927,216		1828	-	50,233,689
1825	-	52,274,957		1827	-	47,616,316		1829	-	46,900,843

The quantity annually charged with duty in Scotland during the same period was, at an average, about 6,000,000 lbs.

The quantity of wrought and unwrought leather exported in 1840, amounted to 2,464,067 lbs., of the declared value of 320,912*l.* The value of the saddlery and harness exported during the same year was 96,162*l.* Above two thirds of the leather exported is sent, principally in the shape of shoes, to the British West Indian, North American, and Australian colonies.

LEDGER, the principal book of accounts kept by merchants and tradesmen, wherein every person's account is placed by itself, after being extracted from the Journal. — (See **BOOK-KEEPING**.)

LEECH FISHERY. The demand for the medicinal leech (*Hirudo medicinalis*) is so great as to afford employment to a considerable number of persons in catching and selling the animal. It is common throughout Europe, America, and India, inhabiting lakes and pools. Norfolk supplies the greater part of the leeches brought to the London market; but some are taken in Kent, Suffolk, Essex, and Wales; and large quantities are imported from Bordeaux and Lisbon. They are caught in spring and autumn, by people who wade into the pools and allow them to fasten on their limbs; or more generally the catchers beat, as they wade in, the surface of the water with poles, which sets the leeches in motion, and brings them to the surface; when they are taken with the hand and put into bags. As they come to the surface just before a thunder storm, this is regarded a good time for collecting them. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

We extract from the *Gazette des Hopitaux* the following interesting account of the fishery of leeches at La Brenne, in France:—

"The country about La Brenne is, perhaps, the most uninteresting in France. The people are miserable looking, the cattle wretched, the fish just as bad—but the leeches are admirable.

"If ever you pass through La Brenne you will see a man, pale and straight haired, with a woollen cap on his head, and his legs and arms naked; he walks along the borders of a marsh, among the spots left dry by the surrounding waters, but particularly wherever the vegetation seems to preserve the subjacent soil undisturbed: this man is a leech fisher. To see him from a distance,—his woe-begone aspect—his hollow eyes—his livid lips—his singular gestures,—you would take him for a patient who had left his sick bed in a fit of delirium. If you observe him every now and then raising his legs, and examining them one after the other, you might suppose him a fool; but he is an intelligent leech fisher. The leeches attach themselves to his legs and feet, as he moves among their haunts; he feels their presence from their bite, and gathers them as they cluster about the roots of the bullrushes and sea weeds, or beneath the stones covered with green and gluey moss. Some repose on the mud, while others swim about; but so slowly, that they are easily gathered with the hand. In a favourable season, it is possible, in the course of 3 or 4 hours, to stow 10 or 12 dozen of them in the little bag which the gatherer carries on his shoulder. Sometimes you will see the leech fisher armed with a kind of spear or harpoon; with this he deposits pieces of decayed animal matter in places frequented by the leeches; they soon gather round the prey, and are presently themselves gathered into a little vessel half full of water. Such is the leech fishery in spring.

"In summer, the leech retires into deep water: and the fishers have then to strip themselves naked, and walk immersed up to the chin. Some of them have little rafts to go upon; these rafts are made of twigs and rushes, and it is no easy matter to propel them among the weeds and aquatic plants. At this season, too, the supply in the pools is scanty; the fisher can only take the few that swim within his reach, or those that get entangled in the structure of his raft.

"It is a horrid trade, in whatever way it is carried on. The leech gatherer is constantly more or less in the water, breathing fog and mist and fetid odours from the marsh; he is often attacked with ague, catarrhs, and rheumatism. Some indulge in strong liquors, to keep off the noxious influence, but they pay for it in the end by disorders of other kinds. But, with all its forbidding peculiarities, the leech fishery gives employment to many hands: if it be pernicious, it is also lucrative. Besides supplying all the neighbouring *pharaciens*, great quantities are exported, and there are regular traders engaged for the purpose. Henri Chartier is one of those persons; and an important personage he is when he comes to Marseilles, or its vicinity; his arrival makes quite a fête—all are eager to greet him.

"Among the interesting particulars which I gathered in La Brenne relative to the leech trade, I may mention the following:—One of the traders—what with his own fishing and that of his children, and what with his acquisitions from the carriers, who sell quantitie *second-hand*—was enabled to hoard up 17,500 leeches in the course of a few months; he kept them deposited in a place where, in one night, they all became frozen *en masse*. But the frost does not immediately kill them; they may generally be thawed into life again. They can be, indeed, longer very hard usage. I am told by one of the carriers, that he can pack them as closely as he wishes in the moist sack which he ties behind his saddle; and sometimes he stows his cloths and boots on top of the sack. The trader buys the leeches *à la volée*, big and little, green and black—and the same; but he afterwards sorts them for the market. Those are generally considered the best which are of a green ground, with a few yellow stripes along the body."

LEGHORN, a city and sea-port of Italy, in Tuscany, lat. 43° 33' 3" N., lon. 10° 16' E. Population, in 1836, 76,397.

Harbour, Road, &c.—Leghorn has an outer harbour, protected by a fine mole, running in a N. N. W. direction upwards of $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile into the sea, and a smaller inner harbour or basin. The water in the harbour is rather shallow, varying from 8 feet in the inner basin to 18 or 19 feet at the end of the mole. The rise of the tide is about 14 inches. Ships lie within the mole with their sterns made fast to it by a cable, and an anchor out ahead. The light-house is built on a rock a little to the S. W. of the mole. It is a conspicuous object, being about 170 feet above the level of the sea. The roadstead lies W. N. W. of the harbour, between it and the Melora bank. The latter is a sand, lying N. and S., 4 miles in length by 2 in breadth, the side nearest the shore being about 4 miles from it. It consists, for the most part, of sand and mud, and has from 3 fathoms to 4 do. water over it; but towards its southern extremity it is rocky; and there, on some of the points which project above the water, the Melora tower has been constructed to serve as a mark; it bears from the light-house W. $\frac{1}{2}$ N., distant about 4 miles. The best course for

entering the roads is to keep to the northward of the Melora bank at about a mile from it, and then, having doubled it, to stand on for the light-house about 2 1/2 miles, anchoring in from 7 to 9 fathoms, the light-house bearing S.S.E. 1/2 E. 4 miles off. The entrance by the channel to the south of the Melora bank is also quite safe; but it is not so suitable for large ships as that by the north. During southerly winds there is sometimes a heavy sea in the roads, but the holding ground is good; and with sufficient anchors and cables, and ordinary precaution, there is no danger. The lazaretto lies to the south, about 1 mile from the tower, and is said to be one of the best in Europe.

Trade, &c. — The comparative security and freedom which foreigners have long enjoyed in Tuscany, still more than its advantageous situation, render Leghorn the greatest commercial city of Italy. Its exports are similar to those from the other Italian ports; consisting principally of raw and manufactured silks, olive oil, borax, fruits, shumac, valonia, wines, rags, brimstone, cheese, marble, argol, anchovies, manna, juniper berries, hemp, skins, cork, &c. Leghorn plating for straw hats is the finest in the world; and large quantities are imported into Britain. — (See **HATS, STRAW.**) Besides the above, all sorts of articles the produce of the Levant may be had at Leghorn. Recently, however, this trade has fallen off; the English and other nations who used to import Levant produce at second hand from Italy, preferring now, at least for the most part, to bring it direct from Smyrna, Alexandria, &c. The imports are exceedingly numerous and valuable, comprising all sorts of commodities, with the exception of those produced by Italy. Sugar, coffee, and all sorts of colonial produce; cotton stuffs, yarn, and wool; corn, woollen stuffs, spices, dried fish, indigo, dye woods, rice, iron, tin, hides, &c.; are among the most prominent articles. Ships with corn on board may unload within the limits of the lazaretto, without being detained to perform quarantine; a circumstance which has contributed to make Leghorn one of the principal *depts* for the wheat of the Black Sea. Hard wheat, particularly from Taganrog, is in high estimation here and in the other Italian ports. It is particularly well fitted for making vermicelli, macaroni, &c. The government do not publish any official account of the imports and exports of Leghorn; and no mercantile circulars that we have been fortunate enough to fall in with, supply the deficiency.

Peas. — Down in 1837 accounts were principally kept in *peas 40s 6d retail* (or dollars of 3 real), the peas being divided into 50 soldi or 240 denari; but this money has been discontinued since the above date, and accounts are now kept in *lire Tosane*. The lira of 100 centesimi is worth 7/92d., so that the par of exchange with London is 50/69 lire per lb. The lira is divided in 20 soldi or lire each of 5 centesimi. — (*Dict. de Cambist.* p. 37.)

Weights and Measures. — The pound by which gold and silver and all sorts of merchandise are weighed is divided into 12 ounces, 96 drachms, 888 denari, and 6,912 grani. It is = 539.242 French grains, or 3,240 English grains. Hence 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 7,864 lbs. avoirdupois; but in mercantile calculations it is usual to reckon 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 77 lbs. avoirdupois, this perhaps has arisen from mixing the tares and other allowances, as to which there is a good deal of uncertainty, late account. Thus it is found that the English cwt. seldom renders more than 140 or 142 lbs. at Leghorn, though it is = 150 lbs.; in the instances of logwood, tobacco, and a few others, it does not render more than 135 lbs. The quintal, or cantinajo = 100 lbs. The cantaro is generally 150 lbs.; but a cantaro of sugar = 151 lbs.; that of oil = 88 lbs.; of brandy = 120 lbs.; of stock-fish, and some other articles = 160 lbs. The ratino = 2 lbs.

Corn is sold by the sacco or sack, = 2.0739 Winchester bushels; hence 4 sacks = 1 In serial quarter very nearly.

The liquid measures are —
 3 Mezette = 1 Boccale.
 2 Boccali = 1 Flasco.
 40 Flasci = 1 Barile = 15 English wine gallons.

The barile of oil is 16 finchi; of two boccali each = 8 1/2 wine gallons; it weighs about 66 lbs. avoirdupois. A large jar of oil contains 26 gallons; a small one 13; and a box with 30 bottles = 4 gallons.

The long measure is the braccio, which is divided into 20 soldi, 60 quattrini, or 240 denari; it contains 22 1/2 English inches. 155 braccio = 100 English yards. The canna of 4 braccio = 92 English inches.

Credit, Charges, &c. — Goods in general are bought and sold for silver money; between which, and the money in which bills of exchange are bought, there is a difference of 7 per cent. (agio) against silver; i. e. 107 dollars in silver are equal to 100 in gold.

On goods bought or sold (unless it be in effective money, where there is no discount) there is, generally speaking, a discount of 3 per cent.; on all cotton manufactures, 4 per cent. Charges on sales, including commission, are generally from 6 to 8 per cent.; on fish, 8 or 10 per cent.

In 1836 a joint-stock bank was established in Leghorn, with a capital of 2,000,000 lire (66,666l. sterling, taking the lira at 8d.) in shares of 1,000 lire each. The whole of the capital is paid up, and the responsibility is limited to the capital. The managers have the power of issuing promissory notes to the extent of 6,000,000 lire. These notes, though received by the government, are not legal tender. The operations of the Bank are confined to the discounting bills of exchange not having more than four months to run, and to the purchase and sale of foreign coins. The rate of discount is fixed at 5 per cent. The superintendence is vested in a director and eight regents, nominated by the shareholders; and the government appoints a commissary and 3 censors (from among the shareholders), who exercise the highest authority, to secure obedience to the statutes. An annual report and balance sheet is produced, and is accessible to all shareholders. The maximum amount for which notes are issued is 2,000 lire = 66l. 13s. 4d. sterling, the lowest, 200 lire = 6l. 13s. 4d. sterling. It is a profitable establishment; its shares are at a considerable premium, and it has every prospect of success.

Account of the Imports of some of the leading Articles into Leghorn during each of the Seven Years ending with 1842.

Articles.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	Lbs.						
Sugar, 11sannah	3,624,200	1,644,900	1,471,700	2,487,200	2,062,000	1,588,000	1,778,000
crushed	4,107,000	2,619,000	7,025,000	6,827,000	6,523,000	9,315,000	7,322,000
loaf	150,500	105,430	112,000	163,000	163,000	325,000	31,000
Brazil	940,700	14,600	132,000	286,100	445,000	376,000	80,400
St. I. and Santos	3,115,500	3,605,700	658,700	235,500	2,241,000	940,000	416,000
Coffee	2,670,000	2,205,400	1,428,500	1,799,000	4,025,000	1,450,000	1,065,000
Cotton	1,781,700	2,316,000	906,700	1,864,000	478,000	374,000	401,000
Paper	1,519,500	1,334,400	965,000	1,266,000	756,000	641,000	502,000
Indigo	291	183	109	82	200	134	207
seroons	46	76	107	71	101	94	66

Account of the Principal Articles of Export from Leghorn, with their Prices, free on board, in Italian and English Money, on 1st January 1843.—(From the Circular of Grants, Balfour, & Co., Leghorn.)

Articles.	Prices in Italian Money.		Prices in English Money.		English Weights and Measures.	Articles.	Prices in Italian Money.		Prices in English Money.		English Weights and Measures.
	li.	s.	£	s.			li.	s.	£	s.	
Anchovies, Gorgona - dbls bar.	30	0	0	18	3	Temp.—Bologna, &c.— lb. 100	31	36	63	16	6
Argal, via:—						— 3d and 6d —	30	—	52	16	5
Bologna, white in boxes, lb. 100	44	—	0	6	6	Ferrara - - - - - B. lb. 100	40	—	52	16	5
Flavours, red in casks, gribled	48	—	43	2	5	Juniper berries - - - - - B. lb. 100	40	—	52	16	5
Borsic acid - - - - - lb. 100	88	—	67	3	10	Liquorice paste, Calabria, lb. 100	30	—	48	0	0
Borra - - - - -	88	—	67	3	10	Madder root, Smyrna - - - - -	30	—	48	0	0
Brimstone, via:—						Syrice - - - - -	30	—	48	0	0
Scilly, rough - - - - -	6	—	0	6	11	Manna, in flakes - - - - - lb.	41	—	64	0	11
Tuscan, do. - - - - -	7	—	0	7	13	in sorts - - - - -	41	—	64	0	11
Rolls - - - - -	10	—	11	18	2	Oil, via:—	14	—	0	1	5
Bark, via:—						Tuscan, in jars, 21 old gal. jar	14	—	0	18	2
coke tree, sun-dried - lb. 1000	90	—	0	9	13	— 3d flask - - - - - & cobs	18	—	0	15	4
like tree - - - - -	38	—	0	4	3	— with ribbons - - - - -	20	—	0	14	9
Candles, tallow - - - - - lb. 100	48	—	0	2	6	Fancy flasks, large size - - - - - B. lb. 88	30	—	48	0	18
Cotton, Mako - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0	in pipes - - - - -	30	—	48	0	18
Creosin of tartar - - - - -	61	—	0	5	0	Naples, Spain, Barbary, and Levant - - - - - B. lb. 68	0	—	0	0	0
Essence of lemon - - - - - lb.	5	—	5	5	0	basket of 12 bottles of 2 lbs.	16	—	17	0	12
bergamot - - - - -	9	—	10	9	10	Opium, Turkey - - - - - lb.	9	—	10	9	10
Flax, Egyptian - - - - - lb. 100	34	—	36	37	1	Egyptian - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0
Galls in sorts - - - - -	45	—	46	2	7	Paper, Florento - - - - - bale	10	—	10	0	0
Beans and green - - - - -	53	—	53	5	0	Al Muson, 3d and 1st - - - - -	100	—	115	0	4
blus - - - - -	65	—	68	3	10	Wrapping - - - - -	33	—	17	0	3
Gum Arabic, picked - - - - -	110	—	160	8	6	Potash - - - - - lb. 100	38	—	28	1	9
in sorts - - - - -	85	—	67	5	9	Raps, linen, 1st - - - - -	18	—	0	1	0
Grain, via:—						— 3d - - - - -	18	—	0	1	0
Wheat, Tuscan white - sack	15	—	16	2	5	Shumar, Sicily - - - - -	7	—	0	16	2
Met - - - - -	12	—	14	1	8	Soap, white - - - - -	31	—	36	2	11
Roman - - - - -	12	—	12	1	15	marbled - - - - -	31	—	38	1	11
Barletta - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0	Tallow, Tuscan - - - - -	38	—	38	1	3
Marian and Berdianka - - - - -	12	—	0	1	3	Valonea, & causta and camela, - - - - - lb. 1000	140	—	150	1	10
Messa - - - - -	11	—	12	1	5	Smyrna, large - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0
Polish - - - - -	14	—	0	1	3	Noren, and Islands, large - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0
Tanganrog - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0	Wools, via:—					
Yambe - - - - -	10	—	10	1	7	Bistosa and matricina of Crete, - - - - - lb. 100	78	—	85	0	0
Bennet - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0	Matricina and bistosa of Marone, - - - - - lb. 100	75	—	84	0	0
hard Taganrog - - - - -	12	—	11	1	9	Yamb - - - - -	70	—	0	0	7
Marianopol - - - - -	10	—	12	0	5	Marinos, Roman - - - - -	157	—	142	0	1
Messa - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0	Mastod - - - - -	128	—	150	0	1
Meschigie - - - - -	9	—	10	1	7	Vissone and sopravissone - - - - -	105	—	110	0	1
beans, Italian - - - - -	8	—	8	1	4	Lamb - - - - -	80	—	108	0	10
Egyptian - - - - -	61	—	5	0	17	Taganrog, washed - - - - -	58	—	60	0	0
Barley - - - - -	55	—	0	6	4	Tunis - - - - -	38	—	39	0	0
Orzo - - - - -	5	—	0	0	0	Bengal, Derna, & Tripoli - - - - -	21	—	20	0	0
Indian corn, Tuscan - - - - -	6	—	6	0	19						
Naples - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0						
Black Sea - - - - -	0	—	0	0	0						
Linnseed, Italian - - - - -	16	—	0	2	6						
Egyptian and Black Sea - - - - -	14	—	13	2	8						
Temp, via:—											
Bologna, Londrina, Florenta, - - - - - lb. 100	47	—	48	50	15						
— 3d and 1st - - - - -	41	—	42	44	6						
— cordage, 1st - - - - -	35	—	30	37	19						

Return of the British Shipping at the Port of Leghorn during the Year ending 31st December, 1841.

Arrivals.		Departures.	
From the United Kingdom, —		For the United Kingdom, —	
with general cargoes - - - - -	74	with wheat - - - - -	61
herring - - - - -	15	benita - - - - -	46
iron - - - - -	9	benita - - - - -	13
coal - - - - -	1	timber - - - - -	9
Newfoundland, with codfish - - - - -	1	benita - - - - -	9
Halifax, Nova Scotia, with general cargo - - - - -	1	general cargo - - - - -	85
Malta, with general cargoes - - - - -	15	— - - - -	5
Genoa, with general cargoes - - - - -	3	Gibraltar, with general cargoes - - - - -	1
Constantinople - - - - -	5	Naples, with general cargoes (partly loaded) - - - - -	5
Odessa and Taganrog, with grain - - - - -	5	Odessa, with general cargoes - - - - -	1
Alexandria, with beans - - - - -	2	Uopenhagen, with general cargoes - - - - -	1
St. Domingo and Cuba, with coffee - - - - -	3	Venice, with general cargoes - - - - -	1
Messina and Adria, with lead - - - - -	2	Alders, with hay - - - - -	1
Vera, with iron - - - - -	1		
Total with cargo - - - - -	186	Total with cargo - - - - -	166
Malta, in ballast - - - - -	8	In ballast for different ports - - - - -	19
Genoa, in ballast - - - - -	9	Total departures - - - - -	185
Palermo, Messina, Naples, &c., in ballast - - - - -	50	Total tonnage - - - - -	27,900
Total arrivals - - - - -	233		
Total of crews - - - - -	2,031		
Total tonnage - - - - -	36,696		

Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise exported from the U. Kingdom to Italy and the Italian Islands during each of the seven Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Cassa lignea - - - - - lb.	391,485	80,695	83,766	103,543	166,609	111,590	260,437
Cinnamon - - - - -	23,590	71,983	88,076	49,179	49,795	48,379	68,937
Cloves - - - - -	109,532	1,491	—	3,401	976	29,655	5,267
Cochineal - - - - -	15,923	30,849	19,652	49,077	54,589	70,556	28,198
Cocoa - - - - -	435,982	35,167	28,913	21,516	82,881	—	7,635
Coffee - - - - -	1,735,103	2,060,916	1,093,759	2,308,822	595,342	675,354	641,793
Correa Peruviana, or Jesuit's bark - - - - -	82,977	9,150	15,768	701	10,046	58,747	115,561
Gum, shellac - - - - -	181,529	251,227	146,066	511,737	349,516	442,536	286,444
Indigo - - - - -	886,083	295,457	329,186	540,846	401,271	426,246	434,738
Pepper - - - - -	7,223	317,112	1,475,698	297,203	1,498,499	456,982	682,586
Pimento - - - - -	185,294	204,390	43,150	53,515	49,073	208,263	116,291
Spirits, rum - - - - - proof galls.	47,827	47,827	48,528	107,164	103,515	710,675	28,818
Tobacco, unmanufactured - - - - - lb.	1,230,469	4,391,056	1,741,811	1,424,883	755,191	1,055,867	682,532
Wool, cotton - - - - -	3,601,702	2,971,182	2,274,311	2,920,756	3,644,207	6,539,560	1,745,396

had at about 11d. sterling per ton; and beef, bread, and fuel are all reasonably cheap. There are companies for the insurance of ships, but not of lives or houses. — We have gleaned these particulars from *Kelly's Compendium*; *Neibauer's Neues Universal*; *Circular Statement of Grant and Co.*, Leghorn, 3d of January, 1843; *Macgregor's Italian Turf*, &c. A plan of the road of Leghoro is given in Captain Smyth's *General Chart of the Mediterranean*.

LEMONS (Ger. *Limonen*; Du. *Limoenen*; Fr. *Limons, Citrons*; It. *Limoni*; Sp. *Limonas*; Port. *Limões*; Rus. *Limonii*; Arab. *Lēmān*), the fruit of the lemon tree (*Citrus medica*, var. *B. C.*) It is a native of Assyria and Persia, whence it was brought into Europe; first to Greece, and afterwards to Italy. It is now cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France, and is not uncommon in our greenhouses. Lemons are brought to England from Spain, Portugal, and the Azores, packed in chests, each lemon being separately rolled in paper. The Spanish lemons are most esteemed. — (For an account of the imports, see **ORANGES**.)

LEMON JUICE, or **CITRIC ACID** (Ger. *Zitronensaft*; Fr. *Jus de limon*; It. *Agro o Sugo de limone*; Sp. *Jugo de limon*), the liquor contained in the lemon. It may be preserved in bottles for a considerable time by covering it with a thin stratum of oil; thus secured, great quantities of the juice are exported from Italy to different parts of the world; from Turkey, also, where abundance of lemons are grown, it is a considerable article of export, particularly to Odessa. The discovery of the antiscorbutic influence of lemon juice is one of the most valuable that has ever been made. The scurvy, formerly so fatal in ships making long voyages, is now almost wholly unknown; a result that is entirely to be ascribed to the regular allowance of lemon juice served out to the men. The juice is also frequently administered as a medicine, and is extensively used in the manufacture of punch.

LEMON PEEL (Ger. *Zitronenshalen, Limonschellen*; Fr. *Lames d'écorce de citron*, It. *Scorze de limone*; Sp. *Courtezas de citra*). The outward rind of lemons is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter, — qualities depending on the essential oil it contains. It is turned to many uses; and when well candied, constitutes a very good preserve. In Barbadoes, a *liqueur*, known under the name of *Eau de Barbade*, is manufactured from lemon peel, which the inhabitants have the art of preserving in a manner peculiar to themselves. Both the liqueur and the conserve used to be in high repute, especially in France.

LETTER. (See **POST OFFICE**.)

LETTER OF CREDIT, a letter written by one merchant or correspondent to another, requesting him to credit the bearer with a certain sum of money. Advice by post should always follow the granting of a letter of credit; a duplicate of it accompanying such advice. It is prudent, also, in giving advice, to describe the bearer of the letter, with as many particulars as possible, lest it fall improperly into other hands.

LETTERS OF MARQUE AND REPRISAL, "are grantable by the law of nations, whenever the subjects of one state are oppressed and injured by those of another, and justice is denied by that state to which the oppressor belongs." — *Chitty's Com. Law*, vol. iii. p. 604.) Before granting letters of marque, government is directed by the 5 Hen. 5. c. 7., to require that satisfaction be made to the party aggrieved; and in the event of such satisfaction not being made within a reasonable period, letters of marque and reprisal may be issued, authorising the aggrieved party to attack and seize the property of the aggressor nation, without hazard of being condemned as a robber or pirate. Such letters are now only issued to the owners or captains of privateers during war, or when war has been determined upon. They may be revoked at the pleasure of the sovereign; and when hostilities terminate, they cease to have any effect.

LICENCES, in commercial navigation. The rules and regulations to be observed in the granting of licences to ships are embodied in the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 87., and are as follow: —

Vessels requiring a Licence. — All vessels belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, not being square-rigged or propelled by steam, and all vessels belonging as aforesaid, whether propelled by steam or otherwise, being of the burden of 170 tons or less, of which the length is to the breadth in a greater proportion than 3 feet 6 inches to 1 foot, and all such last-mentioned vessels carrying arms for resistance, and all vessels of the burden of 170 tons or more, belonging as aforesaid, armed with more than 2 carriage guns of a calibre exceeding 4 lbs., and with more than 2 muskets for every 10 men, and all boats, belonging as aforesaid, which shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the U. K., shall be forfeited, unless the owners thereof shall have obtained a licence from the commissioners of H. M.'s customs in the manner hereinafter described. — § 16.

Manning of Vessels and Boats. — Every vessel or boat belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, or whereof one half of the persons on board shall be subjects of H. M., (not being a lugger, and at the time fitted and rigged as such,) which shall be navigated by a greater number of men (officers and boys included) than in the following proportions, viz. If of 30 tons or under, and above 5 tons, 4 men; If of 60 tons or under, and above 30 tons, 5 men; If of 80 tons or under, and above 60 tons, 6 men; If of 100 tons or under, and above 80 tons, 7 men; and above that tonnage, 1 man for every 15 tons of such additional tonnage; or If a lugger, then in the following proportions, viz. If of 30 tons or under, 8 men; If of 50 tons or under, and above 30 tons, 9 men; If of 60 tons or under, and above 50 tons, 10 men; If of 80 tons or under, and above 60 tons, 11 men; If of 100 tons or under, and above 80 tons, 12 men; and If above 100 tons, 1 man for every 10 tons of such additional tonnage; which shall

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Grant and Co., Loughorn,
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muskets for every 10 men, and
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whole or in part to H. M.'s sub-
M.. (not being a lugger, and
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e tonnage, 1 man for every 15
portions, viz. if of 30 tons or
60 tons or under, and above
100 tons or under, and above
ditional tonnage; which shall

be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, shall be forfeited, unless such vessel, boat, or lugger shall be especially licensed for that purpose by the commissioners of customs. — § 17.

Certain Particulars to be inserted in Licences. — Every licence granted by the commissioners of customs for any vessel or boat requiring licence under this Act shall contain the proper description of such vessel or boat, the name or names of the owner or owners, with his or their place or places of abode, and the manner and the limits in which the same is to be employed, and, if armed, the numbers and descriptions of arms, and the quantity of ammunition, together with any other particulars which the said commissioners may require and direct, and that it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to restrict the granting of a licence for any vessel or boat in any way that they may deem expedient for the security of the revenue. — § 18.

The Owner to give Security by Bond. — Before any such licence shall be issued or delivered, or shall have effect for the use of such vessel or boat, the owner or owners of every such vessel or boat shall give security by bond in the single value of such vessel or boat, with condition as follows; viz. that the vessel or boat shall not be employed in the importation, landing, or removing of any prohibited or uncustomed goods contrary to the true intent and meaning of this Act, or any other Act relating to the customs or excise, nor in the exportation of any goods which are or may be prohibited to be exported, nor in the re-landing of any goods contrary to law, nor shall receive or take on board or be found at sea or in port with any goods subject to forfeiture, nor shall do any act contrary to this Act, or any Act hereafter to be made relating to the customs or excise, or for the protection of the trade and commerce of the U. K., nor shall be employed otherwise than mentioned in the licence, and within the limits therein mentioned; and in case of loss, breaking up, or disposal of the vessel or boat, that the licence shall be delivered up within 6 months from the date of such loss, breaking up, or disposal of such vessel or boat to the collector or principal officer of customs at the port at which such vessel or boat shall belong, and that no such bond given in respect of any boat shall be liable to any stamp duty. — § 19.

*Penalty of Bond not to exceed 1000*l.** — Nothing herein contained shall authorise the requiring any bond in any higher sum than 1000*l.*, although the single value of the vessel or boat for which such licence is to be issued may be more than 1000*l.* — § 20.

Licence Bonds given by Minors to be valid. — All bonds given by persons under the age of 21 years, in pursuance of the directions herein contained, shall be as valid and effectual to all intents and purposes, any thing in any Act, or any law or custom to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding. — § 21.

Vessels not to be used in any manner not mentioned in the Licence. — When any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been used or employed in any manner or in any limits other than such as shall be specified in the licence hereby required, or if such licence shall not be on board such vessel or boat, or shall not at any time be produced and delivered for examination to any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marine, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise demanding the same, then and in every such case such vessel or boat, and all the goods laden on board, shall be forfeited. — § 22.

Certain Vessels, Boats, and Luggers not required to be licensed. — Nothing herein contained shall extend, or be deemed or taken to extend, to any vessel, boat, or lugger belonging to any of the royal family, or being in the service of the navy, victualling, ordnance, customs, excise, or post-office, nor to any whale-boat or boat solely employed in the fisheries, nor to any boat belonging to any square-rigged vessel in the merchant service, nor to any life-boat, nor to any tow-boat belonging to any licensed wharf used in towing vessels, nor to any boat used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any boats solely used in fishing on the coast of Ireland or Scotland. — § 23.

Penalty for falsifying Licences. — If any person or persons shall counterfeit, erase, alter, or falsify, or cause to be counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, any licence so to be granted as aforesaid, or shall knowingly make use of any licence so counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, such person or persons shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 500*l.* — § 24.

How long Bonds are to be in force. — No bond given on account of the licence of any vessel or boat under this or any other Act for the prevention of smuggling shall be cancelled until the space of 12 months after the licence for which such bond had been entered into shall have been delivered up to the proper officer of the customs; and such bond shall remain in full force and effect for 12 months after the delivering up of the licence as aforesaid. — § 25.

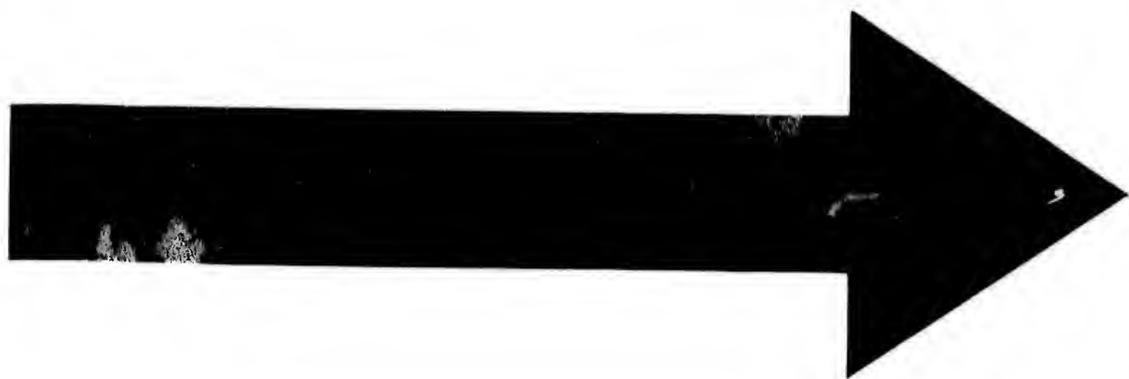
Licences and Bonds granted previous to this Act to continue valid. — § 26.

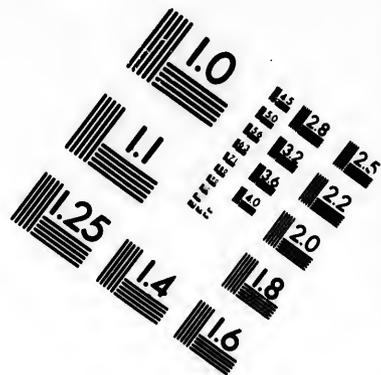
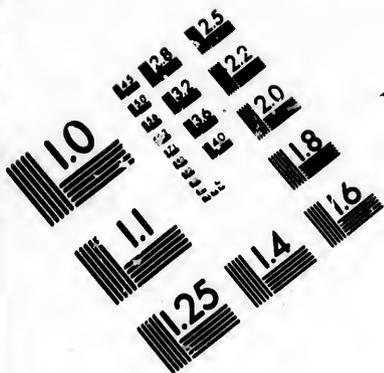
Provisions as to Licences to extend to Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man. — § 27.

LICENCES, in the excise, are required in order that individuals may engage in certain businesses. — Subjoined is

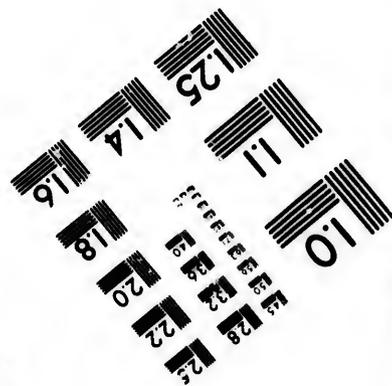
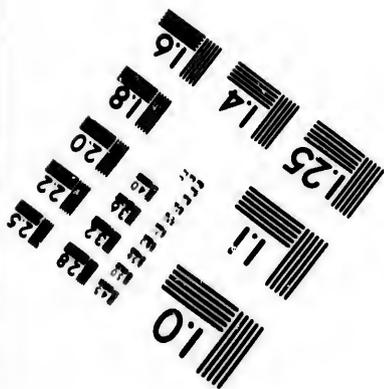
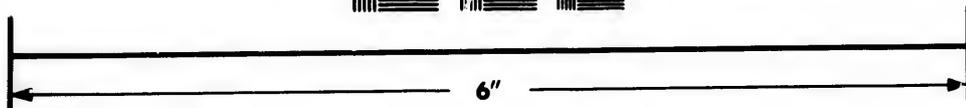
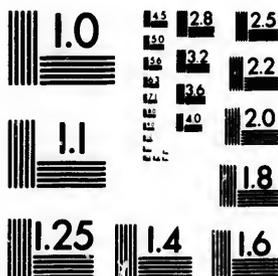
An Account of the Businesses that cannot be carried on in Great Britain without Excise Licences; of the Sums charged for such Licences; of the Number of Licences granted for carrying on each Business, in the Year ended the 5th of January, 1843; and of the total Amount of Revenue derived therefrom, — (Obtained from the Excise.)

Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.	Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.
Auctions —	4 s. d.		Beer—continued.	4 s. d.	
Auctioneers —	5 5 0	3,680	Retailers of beer, cider, or perry, whose premises are rated at a rent under 20 <i>l.</i> per annum —	1 2 0	33,865
Beer —			at 20 <i>l.</i> per annum or upwards —	3 6 12	19,305
Drillers of strong beer, not exceeding 30 hls.	0 10 8	6,111	Retailers of beer, cider, or perry, under the provisions of the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 61. to be drunk on the premises —	5 6 11	31,307
Exceeding 30 —	1 1 0	6,832	Drillers of coffee —	1 2 0	4,372
— 100 —	1 11 6	9,710	Dealers in coffee, cocoa nuts, chocolate, tea, or pepper —	0 11 6	96,265
— 200 —	1 11 6	15,774	Glass —		
— 3,000 —	2 3 0	668	Glass makers, for every glass house —	21 0 0	121
— 5,000 —	2 17 6	557	Malt —		
— 7,500 —	11 16 3	138	Malsters or makers of malt, not exceeding 50 grs. —	0 7 10	1,972
— 10,000 —	15 15 0	76	Exceeding 50 —	1 0 0	1,154
— 20,000 —	15 16 0	72	— 100 —	1 5 0	1,374
— 30,000 —	17 5 0	75	— 150 —	2 0 0	1,116
— 40,000 —	17 5 0	6	— 200 —	2 5 0	1,119
— 50,000 —	17 5 0	20	— 250 —	3 0 0	731
Drillers of table beer, not exceeding 30 hls.	0 10 8	124			
Exceeding 30 —	1 1 0	17			
— 100 —	1 1 6	11			
— 200 —	2 3 0	37			
Retail brewers of strong beer only, under the act 4. c. 64. —	5 10 3	37			
Sellers of strong beer only, not being brewers —	3 6 12	1,015			





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



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23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

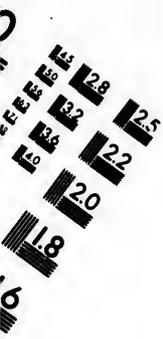


Table of Licences — continued.

Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.	Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.
Maltsters or makers of malt.	£ s. d.	450	Sweets—	£ s. d.	3,093
Exceeding 500 and not exceeding 850 qrs.	4 13 18	450	Retailers of sweets or made wines	1 3 0	
— 500 —	4 0 0	3 3 0	Tobacco—		
— 400 —	4 0 0	3 10 10	not exceeding 20,000 lbs.		
— 350 —	4 0 0	3 18 9	Manufacturers of tobacco and snuff.	5 5 0	273
— 500 —	4 6 7	3 0 1	Exceeding 20,000 —	40 0 0	62
not exceeding 550 —	4 18 9	1,519	— 40,000 —	60 0 0	36
— 550 —	4 8 7	751	— 60,000 —	81 0 0	23
not exceeding 5 —	3 0 0	13	— 80,000 —	100 0 0	19
Roadsters of mail —	30 0 0	15	— exceeding 100,000 —	81 10 0	21
Dealers in roasted malt —	10 0 0	15	Dealers in tobacco and snuff	0 5 3	172,540
Paper—			Vinager—		
Makers of paper, or pasteboard	4 4 0	408	Makers of vinegar or acetous acid	5 5 0	55
Postmasters—			Wine—		
Licences to let horses for hire	0 7 6	11,423	Dealers in foreign wine, not having a licence for retailing spirits, and a licence for retailing beer	10 10 0	1,708
Soap—			Retailers of foreign wine, having a licence to retail beer, but not having a licence to retail spirits	4 5 3	81
Soap makers	4 4 0	179	Retailers having a licence to retail beer and spirits	2 4 1	24,933
Distillers —	10 10 0	189	Passage vessels—		
Rectifiers —	10 10 0	3,198	Vessels on board which liquors and tobacco are sold.	0 7 6	248
Dealers in spirits, not being retailers	10 10 0	3,198			
Retailers of spirits whose premises are rated under 10 <i>l.</i> per annum	3 4 1	25,146			
at 10 <i>l.</i> and under 20 —	4 0 0	23,766			
20 —	5 18 9	5,711			
30 —	7 14 6	2,530			
40 —	8 19 4	3,508			
50 —	9 18 6	4,096			
60 per annum or upwards	11 0 0	6,452			
Makers of stills, "Scotland only"	0 10 6	9			
Persons not being distillers or rectifiers, using stills, "Scotland only"	0 10 0	43			
			Total amount of revenue derived from licences,		292,145 9 <i>s.</i> 8 <i>d.</i>

LICENCES, in the stamps, are required by those engaged in the professions and businesses mentioned below:—

	Per Annum.	Per Annum.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Pawnbrokers, in London and Westminster, or within 5 penny post limits	15 0 0	and under 2 ounces, or any quantity of silver exceeding 5 pennyweights and under 20 ounces, in 1 piece	2 5 0
In any other place	7 10 0	Do. of greater weight, and every pawnbroker taking in or delivering out pawns of such plate, and every refiner of gold or silver	5 15 0
Appraisers (not being auctioneers)	0 10 0	Gold or silver lace is not deemed plate.	
Bankers	30 0 0		
Physic, to exercise the faculty of	15 0 0		
All persons trading in gold or silver plate, in which any quantity of gold exceeding 3 pennyweights,			

LIGHT-HOUSE, a tower situated on a promontory, or headland, on the sea coast, or on rocks or buildings in the sea, for the reception of a light for the guidance of ships at night. There are also floating lights, or lights placed on board vessels moored in certain stations, and intended for the same purposes as those on shore.

Historical Notices.—The lightin^r fires for the direction of ships at night is of such obvious utility, that we need not wonder at the practice having originated at a very remote æra. The early history of light-houses is, however, involved in much obscurity; but it is reasonable to suppose that no long period would elapse after fires were lighted for the premonition and guidance of mariners, till towers would begin to be constructed for their reception. The most celebrated of all the ancient light-houses was that erected by Ptolemy Soter, on the small island of Pharos, opposite to Alexandria, — *nocturnis ignibus cursum navium regens.* — (*Plin. lib. v. cap. 31.*) It was of great height, and is said to have cost 800 talents.† Its celebrity was such, that Pharos rapidly became, and still continues to be in many countries, a generic term equivalent to light-house. In the ancient world, there were light-houses at Ostia, Ravenna, Puteoli, Caprea, Rhodes, on the Thracian Bosphorus, &c. — (*See Suetonii Opera, ed. Pittacii, tom. i. p. 755.*; and the *Ancient Universal History, ix. 366. 8vo ed.*)

The *Tour de Cordouan*, at the entrance of the Gironde, the Eddystone light-house, opposite to Plymouth Sound, and that more recently constructed on the Bell Rock, opposite to the Frith of Tay, are the most celebrated modern light-houses. The *Tour de Cordouan* was begun in 1584, by order of Henry IV., and was completed in 1611. It was at first 169 feet (Fr.) high; but in 1727 it was enlarged, by the addition of an iron lantern, to the height of 175 French, or 186½ English feet. It used to be lighted by a coal fire, but it is now a revolving dioptric light of the first order. It is altogether a splendid structure; and is, besides, remarkable for being the first light-house on which a revolving light was exhibited. — (*See BORDAUX.*)

The first light-house erected on the Eddystone rocks only stood about 7 years, having been blown down in the dreadful storm of the 27th of November, 1703; a second, erected in 1708, was burnt down in 1755. The present light-house, constructed by the celebrated engineer Smeaton, was completed in 1759. It is regarded as a masterpiece of its kind; and bids fair to be little less lasting than the rocks on which it stands.

* *Uvus ejus, nocturno navium curru ignes ostendens, ad præmonitianda vada, portusque introitum.* — (*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. cap. 13.*)

† Dr. Gillies tells us (*Hist. of Alexander's Successors, vol. ii. p. 138. 8vo ed.*) that the tower was 450 feet in height; that each side of its square base measured 600 feet, and that its "beaming summit" was seen at the distance of 100 miles. It is almost needless to add, that there is no authority for such statements which, indeed, carry absurdity on their face.

The Bell Rock light-house was built by Mr. Stevenson on the model of the Eddystone. Numerous light-houses, marking the most dangerous points and the entrance to the principal harbours, are now erected in most civilised maritime countries. They are particularly abundant in the Baltic and in the Sound, and have contributed, in no ordinary degree, to render their navigation comparatively safe. Within these few years several new ones have been erected on the British coasts, and on those of France, the United States, &c.

Precautions as to Light-houses.—Many fatal accidents have arisen from ships mistaking one light for another; and hence the importance of those on the same coast being made to differ distinctly from each other, and of their position and appearance being accurately laid down and described. The modern inventions of revolving, intermitting, and coloured lights, afford facilities for varying the appearance of each light unknown to our ancestors, and have been, in that respect, of the greatest importance.

Chart of Light-houses, &c.—A good descriptive work on light-houses, beacons, &c. is a desideratum. That of Coullier, *Guide des Marins pendant la Navigation nocturne*, Paris, 1829, is perhaps the best. It must not be judged by its preface, which is as bad as possible; consisting of scraps from the most fantastical parts of Bryant's Mythology, and of attacks on us for our conduct in relation to Parga, and the alleged ill-treatment of the crew of a vessel wrecked on the island of Alderney! The book is really pretty good, with the exception of such a commencement. The reader will find the existing English and Irish light-houses, and the greater number of those belonging to Scotland, laid down in the chart attached to the article CANALS in this work. Its accuracy may be depended upon; as it has been copied from the chart of the light-houses on the British and contiguous coasts recently published by the Trinity House; the corporation having readily and obligingly granted permission to that effect.

Law as to British Light-houses.—The 8 ELL. c. 13. empowers the corporation of the Trinity House to erect beacons, &c. to prevent accidents to ships; and though the act does not expressly mention light-houses, it has been held to extend to them; and on its authority, and the privileges attached to the office of buoyage and beaconage conferred on the Trinity House in 1694, the corporation erects light-houses. The tolls for their maintenance are generally collected under the authority of letters patent from the Crown; those for the support of the Eddystone light, and some others in different parts of the kingdom, being, however, established by act of parliament. The first light-house erected by the Trinity Corporation was in 1675; but several had been previously erected by private parties in virtue of letters patent. Customs' officers are prohibited from making out any cocket or other discharge, or taking any report outwards for any ship, until the light duties are paid, and the master shall have produced a light-bill testifying the receipt thereof. It is lawful for persons authorised by the Trinity House to go on board any British or foreign ship to receive the duties, and for non-payment to detain the tackle of the ship; and in case of delay of payment for 3 days after distress, the collectors of the said duties are empowered to be appraised by two persons, and proceed to sell the distress.—(6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. § 64.)

All the light-houses, floating lights, and buoys, on the coast of the British Islands, on the coast of Northumberland, round by Beachy Head and the Land's End, to the coast of Lancashire, have always belonged to the Trinity House, with the exception of about a dozen lights, viz. Tynemouth, Spurn (shore), Winterton and Orford, Harwich, Dungeness, Skerries, &c. These lights have been partly public and partly private property; but they have latterly been all acquired by the Trinity House.—(See below.) The duties on their account have been, for the most part, always payable to the Trinity collectors.

Trinity Lights.—The rules and regulations as to lights may be altered by the Trinity House, with consent of the privy council. We subjoin a copy of the existing instructions issued by the Corporation to their collectors.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON.

Instructions to the collector of light duties, &c. at the port of _____ and the creeks and members thereunto belonging.

In the fulfilment of your duty as collector of light duties payable to this corporation, to the commissioners for northern lights, Edinburgh, and to the corporation for improving the port of Dublin, your particular attention is directed to the respective tables of duties with which you are herewith furnished, to the observance of the regulations as therein set forth, under which the same are leviable as they respectively apply to British overseas traders and foreign privileged vessels, to foreign vessels not privileged, and to vessels in the coasting trade; also of the following in addition thereto, viz.—

- 1st. You are to demand and receive from the master, owner, or agent of every vessel (not being vessels bona fide belonging to her Majesty, or otherwise exempt) the amount of tolls or duties, according to the rate per ton, and per vessel, specified in the said tables, for the particular voyage on which the vessel shall be destined, or from which she may have arrived, subject to the regulation contained in article 6. Loaded vessels bound to or coming from ports overseas, but intermediately touching at any port in the U. Kingdom, are to be charged with the rate in the overseas table, for any lights which they may pass over and above those in the direct course from her first port of departure, or last of arrival, unless such deviation shall be occasioned by stress of weather.
- 2d. You are to take care to rate all vessels belonging to the U. Kingdom, of every class or description, to the full amount of their register tonnage; and foreign vessels are to be charged to the full amount of their tonnage, as ascertained by the proper officer of her Majesty's customs.
- 3d. You are to observe, in relation to vessels belonging to the U. Kingdom, not foreign vessels, are to be charged with the duties on account of a voyage which may have taken place, or may be therewith contemplated, being from one foreign port to another foreign port, unless, in the prosecution of such voyages, they shall actually arrive or touch at a port or roadstead in the U. Kingdom.
- 4th. On receipt of any light duties, you are to give a certificate of payment, signed by yourself, to the master, owner, or agent of every ship or vessel for which payment is made, expressing plainly and fully the name of the vessel, the master's name, and the place to which she belongs, her voyage and tonnage, the amount paid, and other particulars specified in the forms provided for your use. Books, containing forms of these certificates, will be regularly supplied to you when re-

quired. Each form of certificate is furnished with a counterpart, the blanks whereof are to be filled up with great accuracy, and the counterparts carefully preserved in order to their transmission to this house, with your other accounts, at the periods hereinafter prescribed; and when any circumstance requires variation from the full charge laid down in the tables, you are to note the cause of such variation, both on the certificate and on its counterpart. In numbering the receipts and counterparts you are to commence each quarter with No. 1, numbering continuously to its termination; and you are to prefix to the entry in your account the number of the certificate and counterpart to which the charge refers at the termination of each quarter you are to make a return on the quarterly abstracts (afterwards mentioned) of the number of certificates sent to you, expended, and remaining on hand. You are further to take special care that none of the blank certificates fall into improper hands, or are wasted, as a complete register of the number sent from this house is kept, and you are considered answerable for each. In the event of the duties being of such an amount as to require a stamped receipt, you are to affix one to the light certificate, expressing therein that the same is "for amount of light duties, &c., as per annexed certificate," and charge the cost of the stamp to the account of this corporation.

5th. In order the more effectually to secure payment of the duties, and to prevent evasion thereof, you are to call the attention of the proper officer of customs at any port to the provisions of the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. s. 65., and require him, conforming therewith, not to receive any entry, or receipt, or cocket, or other discharge, or clearance inwards or outwards, for any vessel liable to any of the duties specified in the tables before referred to, until the owner, master, or agent of such vessel, shall show to such officer of the customs, the certificate of payment thereof, fully signed by yourself, for the voyage from which the vessel may have arrived, or on which she may be about to depart; observing, nevertheless, that the duties for vessels in the coasting trade (including colliers coastways) are to be paid at the port at which they deliver their cargoes, and not at the port of loading; and that the duties on all British coastwise voyages, and on foreign vessels, are to be kept distinct to clearing outwards for an outward voyage, and inwards for a homeward voyage. In the execution of this article, you are to observe, that your duty, as collector, extends to all

the crews, members, and trade within the limits of your port, and you are to take all possible means to secure payment of the duties for vessels subject thereto, although not liable to take custom-house clearance.

6th. You are to keep true and correct accounts of your collection of light duties on the forms supplied you for that purpose, numbered 1, 2, and 3, setting forth, in order, the numbers of the certificates, and dates of payment; the vessels and masters' names; to what coast (if British) or country (if foreign) belonging; the voyage, tonnage, rate per ton and per vessel, and the amount received; distinguishing the tonnage of foreign vessels from that of vessels belonging to the U. K. class; and also setting forth at what port the duties were last paid, with such other remarks as you may consider useful. The accounts of your collection on the forms before referred to, made up quarterly, to the 31st March, 30th June, 30th September, and 31st December, inclusive, in each year, are to be regularly transmitted to the secretary at this house, at any time not exceeding 31 days from the termination of each quarter, together with abstract statements or accounts current, on the printed forms with which you will be from time to time furnished. The general statements to be verified by declaration before a magistrate, and in the printed form annexed thereto. You are to give due advice by letter to the secretary, of the transmission of these accounts, enclosing in each letter a remittance for the balance due thereon.

In the application of the tables of duties to foreign vessels, you are to observe, that vessels belonging to the following States are to be considered and treated as British vessels, until further orders, subject, nevertheless, to the limitations expressed in the note at the foot hereof: viz. America (U. States), Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Bremen, Columbia, Denmark, France, Frankfurt, Hamburg, Hanover, Labeck, Mecklenburg, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Oldenburg, Prussia, Venezuela, Monte Video, Portugal, Prussia, Rio de la Plata, Russia, Sweden, Sardinia, Peru, Bolivian confederacy, Uruguay.

For your services in collecting these duties, you will be allowed a commission of 5 per cent, besides the necessary expenses which you may incur in making the collection; and you are authorised to take credit for these allowances, in your quarterly accounts.

By command of the Corporation of Trinity House.
(Signed) J. HERBERT, Secretary.

Fees on account of Light-houses.— A wish to keep the charges on native ships as low as possible, and to insure them a preference, seems to have given rise to the practice that has long existed, of exacting comparatively high duties from the foreign shipping entering our ports. But whatever may have been the motives for making this distinction, its policy seems more than questionable. It is quite right that the foreign ships coming to our shores for commercial purposes should be made to pay the same light and harbour duties as British vessels; but the imposition of comparatively high duties on them is decidedly injurious, inasmuch as it provokes retaliatory measures on the part of other states, obstructs the resort of foreigners to our markets, and, consequently, checks the growth of commerce.

This system was very properly condemned in a report by a committee of the House of Commons, in 1822. There is, in the evidence annexed to that report, some well-authenticated instances of foreign ships having been totally lost, from the disinclination of the captains to enter a British port, while it was in their power, on account of the heavy charges to which they would have been exposed for lights, &c. I Down, indeed, to 1835, all ships, whether native or foreign, coming into any British port by stress of weather, were charged with full light duties; but this inhospitable regulation was repealed by an order in council of the 7th of February that year, issued on the recommendation of the Trinity House, which exempted such vessels from all charges on account of lights. Our whole policy as to light duties, port charges, &c. has, within these few years, been materially improved, and is now the very reverse of liberal. It is true that the discriminating duties on foreign ships are still kept up; but in consequence of the general establishment of reciprocity treaties, the distinction has become nominal rather than real, and affects comparatively few of the ships using our seas.

We are glad, also, to have to announce, that very large deductions have been, in most instances, made from the light-house duties. It is, indeed, quite essential to their utility that these should be moderate. They have the same influence upon the intercourse carried on by sea, that tolls have upon that carried on by land; and it is needless to add, that oppressive tolls are amongst the most effectual of all the engines by which rapacious ignorance has contrived to injure a country.*

Charges on account of Collection, &c.— The charges under this head for the lights under the control of the Trinity House amounted, in 1840, to 7,848*l.*, the expenses of maintenance (including payments on account of works at different lights, about 35,000*l.*) for the same year being 118,594*l.*, leaving a net surplus of 57,705*l.* It is plain, therefore, that the light-house revenue is, at this moment, very much greater than is necessary for keeping the establishment in the most perfect state of efficiency. The surplus revenue is, we believe, in so far at least as the Trinity House is concerned, very judiciously expended in maintaining decayed seamen, and other useful purposes. But, considering the vast importance of low shipping charges, it is probable, perhaps, that such persons might be provided for in some less onerous way, and that the light duties might be still further reduced. It has been proposed to reduce them to such a rate of charge as may be required to keep the lights in the most perfect state. Originally they seem to have been imposed only in this view; but circumstances are now so very different, that it might be inexpedient or impracticable to reduce them to that level, though no one can doubt the advantage of their being reduced to the lowest point, all things considered, that the exigencies of the public service will admit. Instead of reducing the charges generally on all lights, it has been proposed to make some of the more important lights duty free, as by this means the expense of collection would be saved, and business materially facilitated. This, however, would in effect impose a proportionally heavy charge on the ships belonging to the less frequented ports; so that, on the whole, the general reduction of the rates would seem to be the better plan.

* There is nothing new in this statement:— "*Aears manus portus claudis; et cum digitos contrahit, nonnulli simul vela concludit; merito enim illa mercatores cuncti refugiant que sibi dispensia esse cognoscunt.*"— (Cassiodorus, lib. vii. cap. varia, 9.)

Form of Declaration to be made in verification of your Quarterly Abstract Statement.

I (or we) do solemnly and sincerely declare that the prefixed is a just and true account of my (or us) collection of light duties, for the period within mentioned. And that the (or the) survey (or surveys) for me (or us) as collector of these duties, is (or are) alive, and to the best of my (or our) knowledge and belief, is (or are) in good and solvent circumstances; and I (or we) make this solemn declaration conscientiously believing the same to be true, and by virtue of the provisions of an act made and passed in the fifth and sixth year of the reign of His late Majesty, intitled "An Act to repeal an Act of the present Session of Parliament, intitled "An Act for the more effectual Abolition of Oaths and Affirmations taken and made in various Departments of the State, and to substitute Declarations in lieu thereof; and for the more entire Suppression of voluntary and extra-judicial Oaths and Affidavits;" and to make other Provisions for the Abolition of unnecessary Oaths."

Declared before me
this day of 18 .

Collector [or Collectors].

Limitations above referred to.

Vessels belonging to Oldenburg, by order in council, 19th October, 1840, those of Mecklenburg, by order in council, 14th June, 1842, and those of Columbia and Mexico, by order in council, 2d September, 1837, are privileged inwards, only when coming direct from ports in their respective countries; outwards, under all circumstances.

Vessels belonging to Rio de la Plata, by order in council, 2d September, 1837, under 160 tons, are not privileged.

Vessels belonging to France, by order in council, 29th January, 1835, and those of the Netherlands, by order in council, 11th December, 1837, are privileged only when coming from or departing for ports in their respective countries; but if in ballast, they are privileged under any circumstances.

Account specifying the various Light-houses and Floating Lights under the Management of the Corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond; the Rates of Charge on the British and Foreign Ships passing such Lights; with the Amount of Duties collected on account of each Light, during 1841. — (Published by Trinity House.)

Names of Lights.	Rate of Charge.			Nett Revenue, 1841.	
	British and Foreign Privileged Vessels, per ton.	Foreign unprivileged Vessels, per Ton.	Coasting Vessels.		
HART COAST.					
Fern - - - - -	5 light-houses - -	5 farthings - -	3 farthings - -	5 farthings - -	5,468 8 3d
Tynemouth - - -	1 light-house - -	4th of a penny, and 1 shilling per vessel.	1 farthing per ton, and 2s. per vessel.	1 shilling per vessel.	4,437 4 7d
Fiambro - - - -	1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	5,022 7 7
Fourm Shore - -	2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 halfpenny - -	15,177 14 8d
Polpoen - - - -	1 floating light - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	2,198 2 3d
Foulness - - - -	1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	4,765 6 2d
Leas and Over - -	1 floating light - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 penny - -	4,251 2 3d
Halbore Sand (N. and S.)	2 floating lights - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	4,735 6 7d
Winterston and Orford	2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 halfpenny - -	11,576 10 2d
Halbore and Newarp	2 light-houses - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	6,735 11 0d
St. Nicholas Galt	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	2,411 10 8d
Ditto, Buoy - - -	- 1 light-house - -	4th of a penny - -	4th of a penny - -	4th of a penny - -	4,823 16 0d
Lewesston - - -	- 5 light-houses, and 1 floating light.	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	5,899 10 3d
N. E. Shipwash -	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	11,216 18 6d
Harwich - - - -	- 2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 halfpenny - -	6,825 5 1d
Bunk and Galloper	- 2 floating lights and buoys	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 halfpenny - -	1,495 17 11d
Kantiah Knook - -	- 1 floating light - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	3,863 10 11d
ENGLAND CHANNEL.					
Forelands - - - -	- 2 light-houses - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	6,463 0 12d
Goodwin and Gull	- 2 floating lights	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	3,924 7 10
Broom - - - - -	- 1 floating light - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	4th of a penny - -	6,396 12 2d
South Sand Head	- 1 floating light - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 shilling per vessel	4,504 0 3d
Dungeness - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	4,628 15 11d
Beachy Head - -	- 2 floating lights	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	4,576 10 0d
Owers and Bembridge	- 2 light-houses, 2 light-houses at Hurst, and 1 light-house at Katherines Point.	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	4,361 13 2d
Needles - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	6 pence per vessel	3,410 13 2d
Portland - - - -	- 2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	5,066 5 5
Caskets - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	2 shillings per vessel	4,977 9 6d
Start - - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	7,948 16 6d
Eddystone - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	3,445 7 1d
Lizard - - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	4ths of a penny - -	595 5 6d
Longships - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 shilling per vessel	1,835 9 7d
Scilly - - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	1,629 14 11d
Seven Stones ^a - -	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	3 farthings - -	4th of a penny, or 1 farthing	1,694 15 5
DARTMOUTH AND ST. GEORGE'S CHANNELS.					
Lundy - - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	1,835 9 7d
Nash - - - - -	- 2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 farthing - -	1,629 14 11d
Fishholm - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	3 farthings - -	2 farthings - -	1 farthing - -	1,694 15 5
Bristol Channel -	- buoys, beacons, and 1 light-house.	4th of a penny, or 1 farthing	1 farthing, or 1 halfpenny	4th of a penny, or 1 farthing	14,023 19 7
Smalls - - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 penny - -	2 pence - -	1 halfpenny - -	6,139 17 4d
Milford - - - -	- 2 light-houses - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 shilling per vessel	457 19 13d
South Bishop - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	4,337 5 0d
Bardsey - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	1 farthing - -	4,113 19 8
South Stack - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	5,566 13 7
Skerrett - - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 penny - -	2 pence - -	1 penny - -	227 16 10d
East Coast lights payable only for certain voyages.					
Coquet (payable by all coasters). †	- 1 light-house	1 halfpenny - -	1 penny - -	1 halfpenny, or 1 farthing	5,145 10 0d
Sparrow (payable by all coasters). †	- 1 floating light	1 farthing - -	1 halfpenny - -	1 farthing - -	2,010 18 5d
Heligoland - - -	- 1 light-house - -	1 penny - -	2 pence - -	1 farthing - -	1,891 8 2d
Wierin Middia - -	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	1,647 18 4d
Maplin - - - - -	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	1,647 18 4d
Mouse - - - - -	- 1 floating light - -	4th of a penny - -	1 farthing - -	4th of a penny - -	200,975 2 4d

^a Revenue from 1st September, 1841. † Revenue from 1st of October, 1841. ‡ Revenue from 1st of October, 1841.

Private Light-houses. — Private individuals erecting light-houses have generally obtained a lease of the same from the Crown for a definite number of years, with authority to charge certain fees on shipping. Owing to the great increase of navigation, some of these light-houses became very valuable properties. The most valuable were—

The Sherries, on a small islet or rock, to the north-west of the island of Anglesey was granted to the ancestor of its late proprietor, to be for ever holden by him, his heirs and assignees, by the act 3 Geo. 2. c. 36., which also gave the proprietor power to charge certain rates on all vessels passing the light. Previously to its purchase by the Trinity House, this light produced a net revenue of about 20,000 a year.

Harwich Lights, were held by General Rebow, under lease from the Crown, for 22 years from the 5th of January, 1827, paying to the Crown 3-6ths of the nett duty collected.

Dungeness Light, was held under lease from the Crown by the Earl of Leicester for 30 years from Midsummer, 1823. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and the lessee. The duties were reduced at the renewal of the lease from 1d. to 4d. per ton; and it was provided, that at its termination the light-houses and buildings connected therewith, and the ground on which they are erected, should become the property of the Crown.

Winterbones and Orfordness Lights, were held by Lord Braybrooke under a lease from the Crown, which would have expired on the 1st of June, 1840. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and his lordship. The duties were reduced at the last renewal of the lease in 1828, from 1d. to 4d. per ton. At the expiration of the lease, the light-houses, grounds, &c. were to become the property of the Crown.

Hunstanton Cliff Light, was held by S. Lane, Esq. under a lease from the Crown, which would have

expired in 1840. From the 10th of October, 1837, 4-18th parts of the net produce would have gone to the Crown, and the light-houses, &c. would have become, at the expiration of the lease, the property of the Crown, as in the case of the Dungeness and Winterton lights.

The small light-house in St. George's Channel belonged originally to the Trinity Corporation; but having been leased by that body to private individuals, it became, in consequence of the great increase of navigation, a most valuable property. In proof of this it is only necessary to state that the Trinity House having, in 1822, proposed to purchase the reversion of the lease, which had then 54 years to run, the lessee demanded for it no less than 148,400*l.* The Trinity House subsequently effected the purchase; but, owing to the increase of commerce in the interim, they had to pay a larger sum, notwithstanding the diminished length of the lease! This fact affords a striking illustration of the extreme inexpediency of the practice of leasing light-houses to private parties. Wherever they are necessary, they ought to be raised at the public expense, and the fees kept as low as possible. There cannot, in fact, be any greater improvidence or abuse, than to make over to a private individual or association a power to levy, for a long series of years, a certain amount of toll on the ships passing particular lights. The revenue mentioned above are, however, the last transactions of the sort that are ever likely to occur; for by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, the whole right and property in the Harwich, Dungeness, Winterton and Orford, and Hunstanton lights was vested in the Trinity House, subject to the existing leases; and the corporation has, also, acquired, under the powers conveyed to them in the same act, the property of the Skerries light-house, and of the Spurn and other lights. Hence, all the light-houses on the coast, with the exception of those belonging to other boards, are now subject to the same management and regulations; and it is also enacted by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, that no light-house shall be erected on the Scotch or Irish coasts, without the approval of the Trinity House, and that the officers of the latter shall at all times have power to enter upon and examine such lights.

The Scotch or Northern Lights are under the management of a set of parliamentary commissioners. The act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, s. 40, enacts, that from the 1st of January, 1837, all British and foreign privileged vessels, not wholly in ballast, which shall pass any Scotch light-house, or derive any benefit therefrom, shall pay *½d.* per ton for each time of passing every such light-house, except that on the Bell Rock, for which they are to pay *1d.* per ton each time of passing. Foreign vessels, not privileged, pay double these rates.

Irish Lights.—It appears from the *Parl. Paper No. 331, Sess. 1842*, that the gross sum collected for Irish light duties during 1841, amounted to 49,999*l.*, of which 37,964*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.* was collected in Great Britain. The rates of charge are as follows:—

Foreign vessel, *½d.* per ton for each light passed; except harbour lights, which are only chargeable to vessels entering the ports within which they are situated.

The Scotch or Northern Lights are under the management of a set of parliamentary commissioners. With a duty of *3s.* on every entry, cocket, or warrant, when from foreign ports, but not otherwise.

Compensation to Private Parties.—The authority acquired by certain individuals and public bodies, under letters patent, acts of parliament, and otherwise, of levying certain duties on account of lights, beacons, pilotage, harbour dues, &c. entitled them, for the most part, to demand higher fees from foreign than from British shipping. When, therefore, we entered into reciprocity treaties with foreign powers, government had to compensate the parties in question for the diminution that consequently took place in their charges on foreign ships. But this payment has now ceased, the Trinity Corporation having long since relinquished their claim to compensation; and the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79, having forbidden such compensation being made to them, the Commissioners of Northern Lights, and the commissioners for managing the Irish Lights.—(For some account of the Trinity Corporation, the reader is referred to that article; and for accounts of the charges on account of Beaconage, Ballastage, Pilotage, &c. see these titles.)

The following account of the principal British and Irish Light-houses and Floating Lights has been taken from the official statement published by the Admiralty, corrected to 1846.

I. ENGLISH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Those marked * are what are called first-class lights.

Name of Light.	Place.	N. Latitude.	W. Longitude.	Height of Light.	Fixed, Intermitting, or Revolving.	Interval of Revolution or Flash.	Miles seen in clear weather.	Colour, or any Peculiarity of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Building.	Total Height in Feet.
Scilly.*	Summit of St. Agnes Island.	49 53 37	6 20 39	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	16	White.	138	53	1680
Bishop Rock.	On the rock.	50 2	6 7	2	Fixed.	" "	10	Red; carries a ball as each mast head.	F. 20.	"	1841
Strom Light-veed.	W. side of the rock.	50 2	6 7	2	Fixed.	" "	10	White.	M. 28.	"	1841
Langships.*	Langships Rock, off Lord's Head.	50 4 4	5 44 44	1	Fixed.	" "	14	White.	88	56	1798
Pennance Pier.	Pier head.	50 7	5 31	1	Fixed.	" "	5	White.	89	29	1817
Lizard.*	Lizard Cliff.	49 57 40	5 19 6	2	Fixed.	" "	20	White.	E. 211.	Both	1751
Palmouth.	St. Anthony Point.	50 5	5 1	1	Revolving.	Every 30 seconds.	12	White.	W. 224.	63	1835
Eddystone.*	Eddystone Rock.	50 10 54	4 15 53	1	Fixed.	" "	13	White.	73	73	1739
Plymouth Break-waters.	On West end.	50 30	4 9	1	Fixed.	" "	9	Stone.	65	"	1841
Plymouth Har.	W. Barbican pier-head.	50 52	4 7	1	Fixed.	" "	6	"	29	30	1822
Start Point.*	140 yards inside of the S. E. extreme of the Point.	50 15 22	3 57 43	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	19	White.	204	94	1836
Dartmouth.	St. Peter's Point, W. side of entrance.	50 30	5 33	1	Fixed.	" "	7	"	49	58	1837
Brisham.	Pier head.	50 34	5 30	1	Fixed.	" "	"	On an iron stand.	20	"	1839
Tetymouth.*	S. W. end of the Dorn.	50 33	3 32	1	Fixed.	" "	9	Limestone Tower.	31	"	1845
Caesars.*	Highest of the Caesars Rocks.	49 43 22	2 22 10	3	Revolving.	Every quarter minute.	16	White.	61 each.	One 15, others 20	1743
Gouerny.*	St. Pierre, Pier head, South side of entrance.	49 37	2 33	1	Fixed.	" "	11	White.	40	20	1832
Portland.*	Bill of Portland.	50 31 22	2 36 49	3	Fixed.	" "	19	White.	108	25	1716
Weymouth.	South Pier head.	50 37	2 26	1	Fixed.	" "	16	White.	131	70	1789

Name of
Hurst.
Needles.*
Calshot Light-ve.
Southampt. Southampt. St. Catharine. Hamble. Nab. H. sal.
Owers, vessel.
Shobrohan.
Brighton.
Newhaven.
Beachy Hill.
Beacham.
Hastings.
Rye Harb.
Dungeness.
Folkestone.
Dover.
South For.
South Head.
Goodwin Bank.
Ramegate North For.
Margate.
Nore, light.
Morse, vessel.
Gull.
Swin light-ve.
Kerish light-ve.
Galloper vessel.
Sunk, light.
Harwich.
Cork, light.
Shipway vessel.
Orford.
Pakefield.
Lowestoft.
Stansfeld vessel.
St. Nicholas light-ve.
Cochin, vessel.
Wintert Newarp vessel.

LIGHT-HOUSES.

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English Light-Houses — continued.

Name of Light.	Place.	N. Lat. and E. Long.	W. Longitude.	Height in Feet of Light-house.	Interval of Revolution of Flash.	Interval of Revolution of Flash.	Miles seen in clear Weather.	Colour, or any Part, of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Building.	Year erected.
Hurst.	Hurst Beach.	50 42 23	1 32 50	2	Fixed.	-	12	Red.	66	60	1812
Needles.*	Needles Cliff, Isle of Wight.	50 39 03	1 33 53	1	Fixed.	-	27	White.	450	46	1786
Calshot Light- vessel.	Off Calshot Castle.	50 48	1 18	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	9	Red; carries a ball.	58	-	1842
Southampton. South.	Royal Pier.	50 04	1 24	2	Fixed.	-	-	-	-	-	1841
St. Catherine. Beaumaris, or Nab, light- vessel.	Southern Castle. St. Catherine's Point, near the Nab Rock.	50 47 50 35 54	1 5 1 18 0	1 2	Fixed. Fixed.	- -	10 9	Stone. Red; carries a ball.	31 175	108	1822 1819
Owers light- vessel.	E. end of the Owers Shoals.	50 41	0 40	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	55	-	1788
Shorham.	Opposite the entrance of Shorham harbour.	50 50	0 15	2	Fixed.	-	10	White.	42	38	1886
Brighton.	Chain pier head.	50 50	0 2	1	Fixed.	-	10	-	55	22	1866
Newhaven.	West Pier.	50 47	0 4	2	Fixed.	-	8	-	28	-	-
Beachy Head.*	Balestout Cliff.	50 44	0 13	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	23	White.	17 288	30	1823
Eastbourne. Hastings.	Upper light in the town; lower on the beach.	50 52	0 58	2	Fixed. Fixed.	- -	13 9	- -	60 20	Lower	-
Rye Harbour.	Camber, north side of entrance.	50 57	0 44	2	Fixed.	-	10	White.	38	30	-
Dungeness.* Folkstone.	Extrême point. West pier head. (South pier.)	50 54 58 51 7	0 58 1 15	1 2	Fixed. Fixed.	- -	14 9	Red. White.	32 36	58 36	1799 1816
Dover.	North pier.	51 7	1 15	2	Fixed.	-	12	White.	60	12	-
South Foreland.*	South Foreland.	51 8 25	1 22 22	2	Fixed.	-	25	White.	312	41	1823
South Foreland.*	Off South end of the Goodwin Sands.	51 10	1 28	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	257 38	32	1790 1821
Goodwin Sands.*	Off North end of the Goodwin Sands.	51 19	1 30	3	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball at each mast head.	Fore 39; Main 49; Mizen 25.	-	1796
Goodwin Sands.*	Near western edge of the Goodwin Sands.	51 17	1 30	2	Fixed.	-	7	Red; carries a ball.	14	-	1809
Goodwin Sands.*	Off North end of the Goodwin Sands.	51 19	1 30	3	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball at each mast head.	Fore 39; Main 49; Mizen 25.	-	1796
Ramsgate.	South pier head.	51 20	1 28	1	Fixed.	-	6	Granite.	37	-	-
North Foreland.*	North Foreland.	51 22 29	1 28 47	1	Fixed.	-	24	White.	184	70	1790
Margate.	West end of the Pier.	51 24	1 23	1	Fixed.	-	10	Stone column.	85	70	1829
Norw. light- vessel.	East end of the Norw. Sands.	51 29	0 48	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	33	-	1754
Morse light- vessel.	On W. end of Morse Sand.	51 28	1 0	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	38	-	1838
Maplin.	S. E. part of Maplin Sand.	51 35	1 3	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; on Pile.	30	-	1841
Swin Middle light- vessel.	West end of Swin Middle Sand.	51 39	1 7	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	10	Red; carries a ball.	58	-	1837
Kentish Knock light- vessel.	East side of Kentish Knock Sand.	51 40	1 59	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	10	Red; carries 2 balls, vertical.	58	-	1840
Galloper light- vessel.	S. W. part of the Galloper Shoal.	51 43	1 56	2	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball at each masthead.	38	-	1803
Sunk light- vessel.	East end of the Sunk Sand off Harwich.	51 47	1 28	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	38	-	1802
Harwich.	At entrance of Har- low, S. W. of the town.	51 56 39	1 17 23	2	Fixed.	-	19	White.	69 29	69 25	1818
Cork light- vessel.	Near the Cork Lodge.	51 57	1 23	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	9	Red; carries a ball.	28	-	1844
Shipwash light- vessel.	Off North end of Shipwash Sand.	52 2	1 38	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	38	-	1837
Orford.*	Orfordness.	52 4 50	1 34 15	2	Fixed.	-	12	White.	-	83	1799
Fakenfield.*	South part of Fakenfield Cliff.	52 9	1 44	1	Fixed.	-	8	White.	68	23	1839
Lowestoft.*	Lowestoft.	52 29 10	1 45 14	2	Fixed.	-	16	White.	119	55	1609
Starford light- vessel.	Near North end of Newcome Sand, off Lowestoft.	52 30	1 47	2	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	38 33	-	1802
St. Nicholas Gt. light- vessel.	S. E. point of Kettle Bottom Sand.	52 34	1 47	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red; carries a ball.	-	-	1837
Cockle light- vessel.	N. entrance, East- ern side.	52 42	1 47	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	-	Red; carries a ball.	38	-	1843
Winterton light- vessel.	Winterton Point, near North end of the Newarp Sand.	52 43 52 45	1 41 1 53	1 3	Fixed. Fixed.	- -	14 10	White. Red; carries a ball at each masthead.	-	52	1790 1791

Height in Feet of Building.	Year erected.
35	1860
-	1841
56	1795
92	1817
42	1751
40	1835
72	1759
-	1811
30	1822
94	1836
52	1837
-	1839
-	1845
One 15, others 20	1723
30	1832
25	1716
20	1789

English Light-Houses—continued.

Name of Light.	Place.	N. Latitudes.	E. Longitudes.	Height of Light.	Kind of Light.	Interval of Revolving or Flashing.	Miles seen in clear Weather.	Colour or any Particularity of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Balloon.	Height in Feet of Beacon.
Hasborough Light-veed.	Near North end of Hasborough Sand.	55 58	1 36	3	Fixed.	-	10	Red ; carries a ball.	36	-	1831
Hasborough.*	Near Hasborough.	55 49	1 33	3	Fixed.	-	12	White.	137	77	1791
Cramer.	On Cramer Cliff.	55 56	1 13	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	23	White.	374	56	1719
Hampston. or Champ.*	Hampston Point.	55 56 04	0 28 50	1	Fixed.	-	13	White.	115	49	1660
Lymington Light-veed.	Off the Head of the Long Sand, Lymington.	55 1 40	0 55	2	Fixed.	-	10	Red ; carries a ball.	35	-	1833
Loman and Over Light-veed.	Loman and Over Sands.	55 2 30	2 1 30	2	High revolving, low fixed.	Every minute.	10	Carries a Red ball 20 each mast head.	22	37	1840
Dudgson Light-veed.	Dudgson Shoal.	55 15	0 56	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red ; carries a ball.	32	-	1736
Spurn Light-veed.	Off Spurn Point, River Humber.	55 54	0 13	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	9	Red ; carries a ball.	38	-	1830
Spurn.*	Spurn Point.	55 54 44	0 7 9	2	Fixed.	-	11	Red.	100	80	1775
Bull Sand Light-veed.	S. E. end of Bull Sand.	55 54	0 5	1	Fixed.	-	10	Red ; carries a ball.	48	33	1839
	West side of Bull Sand.	55 54	0 12	2	Fixed.	-	11	White.	77	20	1836
	On Paull Cliff, S. side of Hoobles Channel.	55 43	0 15	1	Fixed.	-	7	White. Red ; carries a ball.	36	50	1930
Killingholme Light-veed.	S. Killingholme.	55 39	0 12	2	Fixed.	-	5	White.	13	-	-
	On Paull Cliff, S. side of Hoobles Channel.	55 44	0 16	1	Fixed.	-	5	White. Red ; carries a ball.	13	-	-
Flamborough.*	Flamborough Head.	54 7	0 3	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	13	White.	214	73	1806
Scarborough Whilby.	Vincent pier head.	54 17	0 23	1	Fixed.	-	15	White.	58	48	1702
	West pier head.	54 30	0 37	1	Fixed.	-	15	Yellowish Stone.	85	60	1831
Beam Sand.	West part of Beam Sand.	54 28	1 12	2	Fixed.	-	-	Stone.	53	60	1839
	High light 1 mile inland, and low light on the shore near Longness Rocks.	54 40	1 12	2	Fixed.	-	13	Stone.	59	70	1839
Care Sand Light-veed.	Off S. part of N. Care Sand, W. side of entrance.	54 3	1 13	1	Fixed.	-	7	Red ; carries a ball.	20	-	1836
	Pier head.	54 41	1 11	1	Fixed.	-	-	Stone.	64	70	1836
Hartwood.	On the Hoogh.	54 41 51	1 10 10	2	Fixed.	-	15	Stone.	60	70	1847
Seaham.	Red Acre Point.	-	-	2	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	14	Stone.	94	58	1843
	North and South Piers.	54 53	1 22	2	Fixed.	-	13	Yellow.	49	64	1809
Tyne.	Front of Dockway Square, near Clifford Fore Yard.	55 0	1 36	2	Fixed.	-	10	White.	73	23	1780
Tynemouth.*	Tynemouth Castle Yard.	55 1	1 33	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	17	Stone.	123	49	1809
Blyth.	South end of the town.	55 7	1 30	2	Fixed.	-	11	White.	48	41	1783
Coquet.	S.W. part of Coquet Island.	55 30	1 22	1	Fixed.	-	7	White tower, with tierced parapet. Painted red.	35	35	1810
Longstone.*	Longstone Rock.	55 29	1 37	1	Fixed.	-	11	Stone.	44	43	1841
Farn.*	Highest near S.W. point of Farn Island ; lowest near its N.W. point.	55 37	1 39	2	Intermittent. Highest Intermittent ; Lowest fixed.	Every 2 minutes. Every 2 minutes.	15	White.	75	71	1827
	Revolving.	55 37	1 39	2	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	14	White.	36	31	1810
Berwick.	East end of the pier.	55 45	1 52	2	Fixed.	-	11	Stone.	44	43	1841
Skinburness, or Coit.	In Skiloth Bay.	54 53	2 23	1	Fixed.	-	8	Stone.	55	-	1841
Lee Scar.	On Lee Scar Rocks.	54 52	2 25	1	Fixed.	-	-	Stone.	25	-	1811
Solway Light-veed.	Robin Rigg Chan. net.	54 48	2 22	1	Fixed.	-	-	Stone.	25	-	1841
Marport Har- bour.	South Pier.	54 43	2 30	1	Fixed.	-	10	Brown.	51	17	1796
Warkington.	End of St. John and W. Coedon Piers.	54 39	2 36	2	Fixed.	-	11	Stone.	53	23	1825
Harrington Har- bour.	Pier head.	54 37	2 34	1	Fixed.	-	11	On a mast.	44	36	1797
Whitbaven.	New quay.	54 33	2 36	2	One revolving ; one fixed.	Every 2 minutes.	11	White.	47	37	1821
St. Bees.*	St. Bees Head.	54 30 30	2 36 7	1	Fixed.	-	23	White.	333	33	1712
	South point of Wal- sey Island.	54 28	2 30 28	2	One revolving ; one fixed.	Every minute.	13	Stone.	70	60	1790
Leas River.	Cockerham Promontory and on Plover Scar Rock, N.E. side of North Wharf Head.	-	-	2	Fixed.	-	9	H. Wood. L. Stone.	51	30	1847
Wyre River.	N.E. side of North Wharf Head.	53 57	2 3	1	Fixed.	-	10	On pier.	30	-	1810
Flotwood.	High light in the town ; low light on the spithead.	53 53 36	2 1	2	Fixed.	-	-	Upper red ; lower same color.	30	30	1841
Lytham.	N. side of entrance to River Ribbles.	53 45	2 37	-	Only lighted when ships are entering.	-	-	-	-	-	-

II. SCOTCH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Name of Light.	Place.	N. Latitude.	W. Longitude.	Height in Feet.	Kind of Light.	Interval of Revolving, or Flashing.	Miles seen in clear Weather.	Colour or any Peculiarity of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Building.	Year of Commencement.
Inchkeith.*	Summit of Inchkeith Island.	56 2	3 9	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	18	White.	280	45	1804
Fisharrow.	Pier head.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	8	Lamp-post.	90	-	1858
Loth.	Eastern pier.	55 59	3 10	2	Fixed.	-	7	White.	32	18	1758
Newhaven.	On the pier.	55 59	3 11	1	Fixed.	-	8	White.	15	11	1859
Granton.	On the pier head.	55 59	3 12	1	Fixed.	-	8	Stone.	35	40	1845
Barrisdale.	Eastern pier.	56 4	3 14	1	Fixed.	-	8	White.	18	50	1845
Orangemouth.	Entrance of River Carron, end of S. embankment.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	10	White.	53	50	1847
Kirkcaldy.	N. E. side of entry.	56 7	3 9	1	Fixed.	-	8	-	29	-	-
Isle of May.*	Summit of the Isle.	56 11 6	3 23 20	1	Fixed.	-	11	Stone.	249	27	1816
Beil Rock.*	Centre of the Rock.	56 26 8	3 23 8	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	14	White.	90	100	1811
St. Andrews.	Pier head.	56 30	2 47	2	Fixed.	-	8	Black, with white top.	50	18	1835
Fort-on-Craig.	South side of the ferry.	56 27	2 48	2	Fixed.	-	19	White.	65	53	1820
Newport.	On the western ferry pier.	56 26	2 57	2	Fixed.	-	7	White.	10	10	-
Dundas Harbour.	Middle and eastern piers.	56 28	2 58	2	Fixed.	-	7	Green post grey tower.	16	12	1827
Buddonnes, or Tay Light.*	Buddonnes.	56 28	2 45	2	Fixed.	-	14	White.	85	70	1820
Arbroath.	Northern pier.	56 35	2 55	1	Fixed.	-	12	Grey stone.	65	50	1826
Montrose.	North side of the ferry.	56 48	2 27	2	Fixed.	-	10	White.	90	54	1818
Stonehaven.	On the pier.	56 48	2 19	2	Fixed.	-	12	-	18	18	1859
Girdleness.*	Girdleness.	57 8	2 5	2	Fixed.	-	19	-	84	-	-
Aberdeen.	North pier head, 1 mile up harbour on South shore.	57 0	2 4	2	Fixed.	-	8	On a mast.	40	-	1848
Buchanness.*	Buchanness.	57 28	1 46	1	Revolving.	Every 5 seconds.	16	Stone.	150	100	1827
Peterhead.	Pier head, south harbour.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	5	-	21	-	1854
Kinnaird.*	Kinnaird Head.	57 42	2 0	1	Fixed.	-	15	Stone.	120	57	1787
Blackoff.	Blackoff.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	8	-	25	-	1828
Benff.	On Brno Head.	57 40	2 31	1	Fixed.	-	12	Stone.	80	14	1832
Covezza Sherris.	Point of Craig Head.	57 43	2 30	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	18	-	100	-	1846
Chanery Point.	On the Point.	57 35	4 5	1	Fixed.	-	11	-	40	-	1848
Cromarty Point.	On the Point.	57 41	4 8	1	Fixed.	-	9	-	37	-	1848
Tarbert.*	Tarbert.	57 51	3 48	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	16	Stone.	175	120	1850
Wick or Pultneytown.	South pier head.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	3	Black pillar.	25	11	1857
Fraserburgh.	Pier head.	57 48	2 0	2	Fixed.	-	8	Two pillars.	24	29	1841
New Head.	On the Head.	58 00	3 0	-	Building.	-	23	Stone.	248	45	1851
Dunroth.*	Dunroth Head.	58 40 29	3 21 15	1	Fixed.	-	11	White.	20	16	1838
Kirkwall.	Pier head.	58 0	3 58	1	Fixed.	-	18	Stone.	170	90	1794
Penland Sherris.*	On Penland Sherris Island.	58 41 10	3 55 3	1	Fixed.	-	16	-	140	10	-
Start.*	Start Point, Monday I., Orkney.	59 16 37	2 22 9	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	15	Stone.	100	80	1806
Sumburgh.*	Sumburgh Head, S. point of the Shet Islands.	59 51	1 16	1	Fixed.	-	25	Stone.	300	33	1812
Cape Wrath.*	Cape Wrath, N.W. point of Rossland.	58 57	5 0	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	25	White.	400	50	1822
Stornoway.	Stornoway Harbour, Lewis Isle.	58 11	6 25	1	Fixed.	-	18	Stone.	120	90	1789
Glas.*	N. E. point of Island of Glas, Harris Isles.	57 52	6 33	1	Fixed.	-	18	Stone.	120	90	1789
Bara Head.*	Highest part of Baranera I.; southern point of Hebrides.	56 48	7 58	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	53	-	680	-	1853
Sherryvore.	Sherryvore Rock.	56 19 29	7 6 28	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	18	-	150	-	1844
Ardnamurchan.	Ardnamurchan Point.	56 45	8 30	-	Building.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lismore.*	Mousale I., Arryl.	56 50	5 28	1	Fixed.	-	15	-	103	-	1853
Fort Eilam.	State Quarry Point, at entrance of the Harbour.	-	-	1	Fixed.	-	11	Square tower.	50	60	1853
Rhine of Ilay.*	Overay I., off S. W. point of Ilay.	55 41	6 28	1	Revolving.	Every 5 seconds.	17	Stone.	150	80	1825
Kintyre.*	S. W. headland of Mull of Kintyre.	55 19	5 40	1	Fixed.	-	22	Stone.	297	28	1787
Campbeltown, or Kilkerran.	Mull of Kintyre.	55 24	5 41	1	Fixed.	-	9	White.	35	30	1824
Fladda.*	Fladda I., off S. E. point of Arran I.	55 25 54	5 7 9	2	Fixed.	-	16	Stone.	130	80	1790
Cumbary.*	Western side of Isle of Cumbary I.	55 45 15	4 58	1	Fixed.	-	15	White.	115	58	1757
Toward.*	Toward Point.	58 51 45	4 59 48	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	11	White.	57	50	1812
Greenock.	Custom-house Pier.	55 57	4 45	-	Fixed.	-	-	White.	40	30	1854
Fort Glasgow.	On the West Quay.	55 57	4 41	1	Fixed.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bowling Bay.	Entrance of Firth of Clyde Canal.	-	-	-	Fixed.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cloch.*	Cloch Point.	55 56 56	4 02 40	1	Fixed.	-	13	White.	76	70	1797
Ardrasan.	N. end of Break-S. end of Quay.	55 58 27	4 09 29	2	Fixed.	-	4	White.	24	20	1840
Saltoona.	Pier head.	55 57 52	4 47 21	1	Fixed.	-	6	A spire.	35	18	1810

LIGHT-HOUSES.

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Scotch Light-Houses—continued.

Height in Feet of Building.	Name of Light.	Place.	N. Latitude.	W. Longitude.	Lighted	Fixed, Intermittent, or Revolving.	Interval of Revolution or Flash.	Miles seen in clear Weather.	Colour or any Peculiarity of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Building.	Year
65	1804	Trean Harbour.	55 23	4 41	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	9	White.	35	-	1827
19	1859	Ayr Harbour.	55 28 17	6 28 36	3	Fixed.	-	7 1/2, the others 10.	White.	18 to 25	-	1790 1859
19	1798	Loch Ryan.	54 48	5 2	1	Fixed.	-	10	-	20	-	1817
11	1829	Conowall.*	53 0 29	5 9 28	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	15	Stone.	118	22	1817
40	1848	Fort Patrick.	54 50	3 7	1	Fixed.	-	9	White.	37	-	1793
30	1845	North Point.	54 58 9	4 43 30	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	23	Stone.	325	70	1830
30	1847	New Island.	54 46	6 5	1	Revolving.	Every 5 seconds.	11	-	178	-	1845
27	1812	Southernness.*	54 53	5 35	1	Fixed.	-	18	White square tower.	50	-	1805

III. ISLE OF MAN LIGHT-HOUSES.

Point of Ayr.*	Point of Ayr.	54 24 26	4 21 59	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	15	Stone.	108	80	1818
Peel Harbour.	S. side of entrance.	54 13	4 42	1	Fixed.	-	2	White.	21	18	1811
Gulf of Man.*	N.W. side of Gulf.	54 3	6 49	3	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	28	Stone.	324	50	1818
Fort St. Mary.	S. side of entrance.	54 4	4 45	1	Fixed.	-	8	White.	305	35	1818
Castletown Harbour.	S. side of entrance.	54 3	4 38	1	Fixed.	-	8	White.	25	17	1818
Durby Haven.	Entrance of the harbour.	54 5	4 8	1	Fixed.	-	11	White.	42	16	1765
Douglas.*	Douglas Head.	54 9	4 33	1	Fixed.	-	15	Brown Stone.	66	31	1850
Douglas Harbour.	North Pier Head.	54 10	4 39	1	Fixed.	-	10	Buff.	101	81	1839
Ranney Harbour.	S. side of entrance.	54 20	4 23	1	Fixed.	-	10	White.	28	27	1796
Bahama Bank, light-vessel.	S. E. part of shoal.	54 21	6 11	2	Fixed.	-	10	White. Red; carries a ball at each mast head.	53	29	1840
									F. 20	-	1846
									M. 35	-	

IV. IRISH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Cape Clear.*	Cape Clear Island.	51 28 3	9 29 30	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	27	White.	455	43	1817
Kinsale.*	Old Head of Kinsale.	51 56 45	8 28 18	1	Fixed.	-	23 <td>White.</td> <td>274</td> <td>43</td> <td>1803</td>	White.	274	43	1803
Kinsale Harbour.	Fort Charles, east side of the harbour.	51 41 48	8 29 50	1	Fixed.	-	14 <td>White.</td> <td>96</td> <td>38</td> <td>1804</td>	White.	96	38	1804
Cork Harbour.*	Roche Point, east side of entrance.	51 47 33	8 15 14	1	Fixed.	-	16 <td>White.</td> <td>92</td> <td>26</td> <td>1817</td>	White.	92	26	1817
Cable Island, Dunmore Harbour.	Pier Head, west side of entrance to Waterford.	52 9	6 50	1	Fixed.	-	11 <td>White.</td> <td>64</td> <td>26</td> <td>1826</td>	White.	64	26	1826
Duncannon.*	Duncannon Fort, east side of Channel to Waterford.	52 13	6 56	2	Fixed.	-	10 <td>White.</td> <td>61</td> <td>25</td> <td>1803</td>	White.	61	25	1803
Hook Tower.*	Hook Head, east side of entrance to Waterford.	52 7 28	6 55 58	1	Fixed.	-	16 <td>White.</td> <td>115</td> <td>-</td> <td>1835</td>	White.	115	-	1835
Saltee, light vessel.*	Off Coningbeg Rock, the southernmost of the Saltee Is.	52 2	6 40	2	Fixed.	-	9	Carries a flag.	139	110	1701
Coningbeg Rock, Tuskar.*	Tuskar Rock.	52 12 9	6 12 21	1	Building. Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	15 <td>White.</td> <td>23</td> <td>-</td> <td>1824</td>	White.	23	-	1824
Arklow, light vessel.*	South end of Arklow Bank.	52 48	6 0	1	-	-	9	Carries a flag.	101	81	1815
Wicklow.	Wicklow Head.	52 48	6 0	2	Fixed.	-	21 <td>White.</td> <td>23</td> <td>-</td> <td>1824</td>	White.	23	-	1824
Kilsh, light vessel.*	Off N. point of Kilsh Bank.	53 19	5 56	3	Fixed.	-	18 <td>Carries a flag.</td> <td>350</td> <td>56</td> <td>1818</td>	Carries a flag.	350	56	1818
Kingstown.	East pier of Kingstown Harbour, Dublin Bay.	53 18	6 8	1	Revolving.	Every 1/2 minute.	9	Brown.	121	29	1811
Poolbeg.*	W. Pier, off N. wall, at the entrance to the river of Dublin.	53 20 50	6 9	2	Fixed.	-	9 <td>White.</td> <td>25</td> <td>-</td> <td>1811</td>	White.	25	-	1811
North Wall.	East Pier Head, N. quay of Dublin.	53 21	6 14	1	Fixed.	-	10 <td>White.</td> <td>54</td> <td>19</td> <td>1823</td>	White.	54	19	1823
Bally.*	Bally Point, of Howth Peninsula in Dublin Bay.	53 21 40	6 5 3	1	Fixed.	-	15 <td>White.</td> <td>124</td> <td>43</td> <td>1815</td>	White.	124	43	1815
Howth Harbour.	East Pier Head.	53 24	6 4	1	Fixed.	-	11 <td>White.</td> <td>43</td> <td>27</td> <td>1818</td>	White.	43	27	1818
Balbriggan Harbour.	Pier, south side of entrance.	53 26 45	6 11	1	Fixed.	-	10 <td>White.</td> <td>20</td> <td>25</td> <td>1789</td>	White.	20	25	1789
Drogheda.	Bankilla, S. side of River Boyne.	53 43	6 16	3	Fixed.	-	-	On timber framings.	50	-	1842
Carlingford.*	Headbowline Rock.	54 1	6 5	2	Fixed.	-	15 <td>White.</td> <td>40</td> <td>28</td> <td>1812</td>	White.	40	28	1812
Carlingford Lough.	Greenore Point.	54 1 53	6 7 28	1	Revolving.	Every 45 seconds.	9 <td>White.</td> <td>101</td> <td>111</td> <td>1823</td>	White.	101	111	1823
Dundrum Bay.	St. John's Point.	54 13	5 40	1	Revolving.	One minute.	-	White with red belt.	29	26	1830
Arkham Harbour.	Inner shore of Harbour.	54 15	5 56	1	Fixed.	-	11 <td>-</td> <td>62</td> <td>-</td> <td>1844</td>	-	62	-	1844
South Rock.*	South Rock.	54 23 53	5 25 51	1	Revolving.	Every minute and half.	12 <td>White.</td> <td>18</td> <td>-</td> <td>1810</td>	White.	18	-	1810

Irish Light-Houses—continued.

Name of Light.	Place.	N. Latitude.	W. Longitude.	Y or W of Coast.	Fixed, Intermittent, or Revolving.	Interval of Revolution or Flash.	Miles seen in clear Weather.	Colour or any Peculiarities of Light-house.	Height in Feet of Lantern, above High Water.	Height in Feet of Building.	Year of Construction.
Donegaladee Har- bour.	S. M. Pier Head.	54 39	8 39 1	1	Fixed.	- -	12	Grey.	56	55	1836
Malinbeg, Loch.	Hollywood Bank.	54 59	8 53	-	Fixed.	- -	-	On screw piles.	-	-	1836
Capelead, S.	Small Capelead I.	54 41 44	8 38	1	Fixed.	- -	16	White.	181	58	1766
Lough Larne, Widdow's	Malin Point.	54 51	8 48	1	Fixed.	- -	11	White.	48	48	1836
	Malin Rocks, N. and South.	54 55 47	8 45	9	Fixed.	- -	13	Red and white.	86	60	1838
Inishowen, Point of Malin	Malin Point.	55 16	8 56	9	Fixed.	- -	12	White.	67	56	1837
	Point of Malin I.	55 35 53	7 14	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	16	White.	167	96	1819
Lough Swilly, " Long Island"	Malin Point, North West Point of Island.	55 18 53	7 34	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	60	58	1816
	Malin Point, North West Point of Island.	55 18 53	7 14	1	Fixed.	- -	16	White. Some.	155	63	1819
Malin o' Herne, Killybegs	St. John's Point.	51 40	8 30	-	Building.	- -	-	-	-	-	-
Killybegs Harbour	St. John's Point, W. side Malin I.	54 34	8 38	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	104	41	1831
	Black Rock, in Malin Bay.	54 37	8 37	1	Fixed.	- -	13	White.	47	-	1838
	Black Rock, in Malin Bay.	54 18	8 37	1	Fixed.	- -	15	-	74	-	1835
Sligo.	Oyster Island.	54 10	8 33	9	Fixed.	- -	11	White.	37	-	1837
	Oyster Island.	54 7	10 8	9	Fixed.	- -	20	-	47	90	-
Clare Island.	N. Point of Clare I. in Clew Bay.	53 50	9 59	1	Fixed.	- -	27	White.	349	38	1806
Inisort.	Inisort I. in Clew Bay.	53 49	9 41	1	Fixed.	- -	30	White.	36	96	1827
Wynne Head.	On the outermost point, off Wynne Head.	53 53 51	10 12 34	9	One revol- ving; one fixed.	Every 3 minutes. 5 sec.	13	White lower.	101	73	1836
Arara.	Remnant of Great Arara I. in Gal- way Bay.	53 7 38	9 42 22	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	28	White.	498	37	1817
Mutton Island.	Mutton I., off the Town of Galway.	53 15 14	9 3 30	1	Fixed.	- -	19	White.	85	96	1817
Loophood.	Loophood, N. side of entrance to River Shannon.	52 33 29	9 08	1	Fixed.	- -	22	White.	269	49	1809
Kilcranda.	Kilcranda Point, in River Shannon.	52 31 47	9 43 54	1	Fixed.	- -	19	White.	133	26	1821
Tarbert.	On Tarbert Rock, in River Shannon.	52 36	9 22	1	Fixed.	- -	13	White.	58	74	1834
Valentia Shoal.	Point of Valentia, On the N. side, 7 miles off shore.	51 06	10 18	1	Fixed.	- -	19	White.	56	56	1841
Roanarrig I.	On the island.	51 48	10 33	9	Fixed.	- -	25	White.	374	26	1846
	On the island.	51 39	9 45	1	Fixed.	- -	12	White, with red bet.	173	96	1847
Greenhaven.	Rock Island Point, North side of en- trance.	51 28 55	9 48 31	1	Fixed.	- -	13	-	87	-	1843

LIMA, the capital of Peru, on the west coast of South America, lat. $12^{\circ} 2' 42''$ S, lon. $77^{\circ} 7' 13''$ W. Population variously estimated; but may probably amount to from 50,000 to 60,000.

Callao, the port of Lima, is about 6 miles W. from the latter. The harbour lies to the north of a projecting point of land, in the angle formed by the small uninhabited island of San Lorenzo. Previously to the emancipation of Peru, and the other *ci-devant* Spanish provinces in the New World, Lima was the grand *entrepôt* for the trade of all the west coast of South America: but a considerable portion of the foreign trade of Peru is now carried on through Buenos Ayres, and the former is also in the habit of importing European goods at second hand from Valparaiso and other ports in Chili. The exports from Lima consist principally of silver, which is by far the most important article, copper ore, bark, soap, Alpaca wool, &c. Guano is found in large quantities on some parts of the coast of Peru, but is principally imported from some small islands, opposite to Pisco, where it is found in vast quantities. The great value of guano as a manure is now generally recognised, and it is hardly of less importance as an article of commerce, no fewer than 80,000 tons having been imported in 1847. It was partly, however, brought from Chili and other parts as well as from Peru; but that from the latter is decidedly the best. The imports consist principally of cotton stuffs, linens, woollens, and hardware, principally from England; silks, brandy, wine, and quinquina from Spain and France; stock-fish and flour from the United States, indigo from Mexico, Paraguay herb from Paraguay, spices, dye-stuffs, &c. Timber for the construction of ships and houses is brought from Guayaquil. The declared value of the different articles of British produce and manufacture exported to Peru in 1846, amounted to 820,535*l*.

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ.

Account of the different Articles exported from Peru in 1836 and 1839, with their Values.

Articles.	Value of Exports in 1836.		Value of Exports in 1839.		Articles.	Value of Exports in 1836.		Value of Exports in 1839.	
	Dollars.	£ sterling.	Dollars.	£ sterling.		Dollars.	£ sterling.	Dollars.	£ sterling.
Bark	165,270 0	35,874 0	20,207 4	10,065 10	Saltpetre, nitrous	259,990 0	51,944 0	599,125 0	56,830 0
Bullion and specie	8,547,069 0	1,206,118 0	6,504,111 0	1,310,038 4	of soda	28,150 0	10,430 0	54,160 0	16,430 0
Chinchilla skins	10,000 0	2,103 18	11,016 0	2,303 4	Sugar	75,218 4	15,668 10	81,507 0	16,273 1
Copper ore, bullion	106,657 0	21,751 8	9,089 0	18,217 16	The	-	-	748 8	150 0
Copper in bars	-	-	14,537 0	5,987 8	Wool, Vicuña	-	-	-	-
Cotton	260,115 0	75,048 10	371,800 3	74,500 1	Sheep's	328,608 4	70,520 10	328,608 0	50,408 0
Hides, ox and cow	18,318 8	5,648 10	6,556 0	1,071 16	Alpaca	114,528 0	29,968 0	297,650 0	74,630 0
Horns, cow	-	-	283 0	54 0	Total	1,061,508 8	1,819,210 10	2,184,348 0	1,898,669 10
Real silver	-	-	256 4	111 8					

LIME (Ger. *Kalk*; Fr. *Chaux*; It. *Calcina*, *Calce*; Sp. *Cal*; Rus. *Issove*), an earthy substance of a white colour, moderately hard, but which is easily reduced to powder, either by sprinkling it with water or by trituration. It has a hot burning taste, and in some measure corrodes and destroys the texture of those animal bodies to which it is applied. Specific gravity, 2.3. Calcium, the metallic basis of lime, was discovered by Sir H. Davy.

There are few parts of the world in which lime does not exist. It is found purest in limestone, marble, and chalk. None of these substances is, however, strictly speaking, lime; but they are all easily converted into it by a well-known process; that is, by placing them in kilns or furnaces constructed for the purpose, and keeping them for some time in a white heat,—a process called the burning of lime.—(Thomson's *Chemistry*.)

The use of lime as mortar in building, has prevailed from the earliest antiquity, and is nearly universal. It is also very extensively used in this country, and in an inferior degree in some parts of the Continent and of North America, as a manure for fertile land. But it is a curious fact that the use of lime as a manure is entirely a European practice; and that its employment in that way has never been so much as dreamed of in any part of Asia or Africa. Lime is of much importance to the arts, as a flux in the smelting of metals, in the shape of chloride in bleaching, in tanning, &c. Lime and limestone may be carried and landed coastwise without any customs document whatever. Its consumption in this country is very great.

LIME (Fr. *Citronier*; Ger. *Citron*; Hind. *Neembo*), a species of lemon (*Citrus medica*, var. δ C.), which grows in abundance in most of the West India islands, and is also to be met with in some parts of France, in Spain, Portugal, and throughout India, &c. The lime is smaller than the lemon, its rind is usually thinner, and its colour, when the fruit arrives at a perfect state of maturity, is a fine bright yellow. It is uncommonly juicy, and its flavour is esteemed superior to that of the lemon; it is, besides, more acid than the latter, and to a certain degree acrid.

LINEN (Ger. *Linnen*, *Leinwand*; Du. *Lynwaat*; Fr. *Toile*; It. *Tela*, *Panno*, *lino*; Sp. *Lienzo*, *Tela de lino*; Rus. *Polotno*), a species of cloth made of thread of flax or hemp. The linen manufacture has been prosecuted in England for a very long period; but though its progress has been considerable, particularly of late years, it has not been so great as might have been anticipated. This is partly, perhaps, to be ascribed to the efforts that have been made to bolster up and encourage the manufacture in Ireland and Scotland, and partly to the rapid growth of the cotton manufacture—fabrics of cotton having to a considerable extent supplanted those of linen.

In 1698, both houses of parliament addressed his Majesty (William III.), representing that the progress of the woollen manufacture of Ireland was such as to prejudice that of this country; and that it would be for the public advantage, were the former discouraged, and the linen manufacture established in its stead. His Majesty replied,—“I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and encourage the linen manufacture, and to promote the trade of England!” We may remark, by the way, that nothing can be more strikingly characteristic of the illiberal and erroneous notions that were then entertained with respect to the plainest principles of public economy, than this address and the answer to it. But whatever the people of Ireland might think of their sovereign deliberately avowing his determination to exert himself to crush a manufacture in which they had begun to make some progress, government had no difficulty in prevailing upon the legislature of that country to second their views, by prohibiting the exportation of all woollen goods from Ireland, except to England, where prohibitory duties were already laid on their importation! It is but justice, however, to the parliament and government of England, to state that they have never discovered any backwardness to promote the linen trade of Ireland; which, from the reign of William III. downwards, has been the object of regulation and encouragement. It may, indeed, be doubted whether the regulations have been always the most judicious that might have been devised, and whether Ireland has really gained any thing by the forced extension of the manufacture. Mr. Young and Mr. Wakfield, two of the highest authorities as to all matters connected with Ireland, contend that the spread of the linen

LINEN.

manufacture has not really been advantageous. And it seems to be sufficiently established, that though the manufacture might not have been so widely diffused, it would have been in a sounder and healthier state, had it been less interfered with.

Bounties. — Besides premiums and encouragements of various kinds, bounties were granted on the exportation of linen for a very long period previously to 1830. In 1829, for example, notwithstanding it had then been very much reduced, the bounty amounted to about 300,000*l.*, or to nearly *one seventh* part of the entire real or declared value of the linen exported that year! It is not easy to imagine a greater abuse. A bounty of this sort, instead of promoting the manufacture, rendered those engaged in it comparatively indifferent to improvements; and though it had been otherwise, what is to be thought of the policy of persisting for more than a century in supplying the foreigner with linens for less than they cost? We have not the least doubt that were the various sums expended in well-meant but useless attempts to force this manufacture, added together, with their accumulations at simple interest, they would be found sufficient to yield an annual revenue, little, if at all, inferior to the entire value of the linens we now send abroad. And after all, the business never began to do any real good, or to take firm root, till the manufacture ceased to be a domestic one, and was carried on principally in mills, and by the aid of machinery, a change which the old forcing system tended to counteract. The only real and effectual legislative encouragement the manufacture has ever met with, has been the reduction and repeal of the duties on flax and hemp, and the relinquishing of the absurd attempts to force their growth at home.

Spinning by the hand is now nearly unknown in Ireland, and the manufacture has disappeared from several parts of the country, where it had been largely introduced, leaving those who were partially dependent on it for subsistence, in a very depressed state. On the whole, however, there can be no doubt that the introduction of the factory system will be, in the end, most advantageous. Belfast has long been the great seat of the manufacture in Ireland, and there it is carried on in large factories furnished with the best machinery, and conducted on the most approved principle. In 1841, there were in the town and its immediate vicinity, 25 steam mills for spinning linen yarn, one of which employed 800 hands. In 1835, the exports of linen goods from Belfast, amounted to 53,881,000 yards of the value of 2,694,000*l.* According to the official returns, there were in Ireland, in 1838, 40 flax-mills employing in all, 9,017 hands.

The total average export of linens from Ireland during the 3 years ending with 1825, was 51,947,413 yards, of which 49,031,073 came to this country; the exports to all other parts being only 2,916,340. Since 1825, the trade between Ireland and Great Britain has been placed on the footing of a coasting trade; and linens being exported and imported without any specific entry at the Custom-house, no account is kept of their quantity and value.

Scotch Linen Manufacture. — In 1727, a Board of Trustees was established in Scotland for the superintendence and improvement of the linen manufacture. It is not easy to suppose that the institution of this Board could of itself have been of any material service; but considerable bounties and premiums being at the same time given on the production and exportation of linen, the manufacture went on increasing. Still, however, it did not increase so fast as cotton and some others, which have not received any adventitious support, until machinery began to be extensively employed in the manufacture; so that it is very doubtful whether the influence of the bounty has been so great as it would at first sight appear to have been. The regulations as to the manufacture, after having been long objected to by those concerned, were abolished in 1822; and the bounties have now ceased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linen Cloth manufactured and stamped for Sale in Scotland during the Ten Years ending with 1822, being the latest Period to which it can be made up.

Years.	Yards.	Value.		Average Price per Yard.	Years.	Yards.	Value.		Average Price per Yard.
		£.	d.				£.	d.	
1813	32,799,146	977,382	1 7 1/2	11-8	1818	31,223,100	1,255,528	4 0 1/2	9-8
1814	25,136,690	1,255,574	16 10 1/2	11-5	1819	29,354,492	1,137,923	4 11	9-4
1815	31,066,012	1,408,766	16 9	10-5	1820	26,329,013	1,038,708	18 2 1/2	9-4
1816	26,119,043	1,095,474	1 11 1/2	9-4	1821	30,473,461	1,432,036	15 6 1/2	9-7
1817	25,724,967	1,092,488	2 2 1/2	9-1	1822	36,268,550	1,386,910	19 11 1/2	9-9

This account is not, however, of much use. The stamp was only affixed to linen on which a bounty was paid, that is, on linen intended for exportation. Linen manufactured for home use, or intended for private sale, was not stamped. — (*Headrick's Survey of Forfar*, p. 506.)

Dundee is the grand seat of the Scotch linen manufacture; and its progress there during the last few years has been so extraordinary, that the following details in respect to it may not be unacceptable. The manufacture appears to have been introduced into Dundee some time towards the beginning of last century; but, for a lengthened period, its progress was comparatively

slow. In 1745 only 74 tons of flax were imported, without any hemp; the shipments of linen cloth during the same year being estimated at about 1,000,000 yards, no mention being made either of sail-cloth or bagging. In 1791, the imports of flax amounted to 2,444 tons, and those of hemp to 299 tons; the exports that year being 7,842,000 yards linen, 280,000 yards sail-cloth, and 65,000 do. bagging. From this period the trade began to extend itself gradually, though not rapidly. Previously to the peace of 1815, no great quantity of machinery was employed in spinning; but about this period, in consequence, partly and principally, of the improvement of machinery, and its extensive introduction into the manufacture, and partly of the greater regularity with which supplies of the raw material were obtained from the Northern powers, the trade began rapidly to increase. Its progress has, indeed, been quite astonishing; the imports of flax and hemp having increased from about 3,000 tons in 1814 to 15,000 tons in 1830, and 40,000 tons in 1845, of which about 30,000 tons were spun by the mills in the town, the rest being spun in the vicinity. The value of the exports of manufactured goods and yarn, from Dundee, amounts at present (1847) to from 1,600,000*l.* to 1,700,000*l.* a year. We beg to subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of the different Varieties of Linen Goods exported from Dundee during each of the Four Years ending with 1845.

Linens.	1831.	1835.	1844.	1845.
	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>	<i>Pieces.</i>
Osaburgs - - - - -	96,957	139,459	78,818	77,689
Sheetings - - - - -	131,660	185,959	208,735	221,504
Coarse bagging - - - -	63,298	80,158	10,234	858
Strandies - - - - -	7,393	12,911	16,009	28,288
Sail-cloth - - - - -	74,368	103,010	118,264	160,461
Rucking - - - - -	46,833	57,177	174,759	139,317
Dowls - - - - -	40,915	46,733	82,987	78,131
Strandies - - - - -	21,550	15,709	84,867	29,230
Totals - - - - -	474,230	618,707	774,591	784,910

For some farther details as to the late extraordinary progress made by Dundee, the reader is referred to the art. *Docks.*

It is not easy to give any satisfactory explanation of the wonderful progress of the linen manufacture at Dundee. Something must be ascribed to the convenient situation of the port for obtaining supplies of the raw material; and more, perhaps, to the manufacture having been long established in the towns and villages of Strathmore, the Carse of Gowrie, and the northern parts of Fife, of which Dundee is the emporium. But these circumstances do not seem adequate to explain the superiority to which she has recently attained in this department; and, however unphilosophical it may seem, we do not really know that we can ascribe it to any thing else than a concurrence of fortunate accidents. Nothing, in fact, is so difficult to explain as the superiority to which certain towns frequently attain in particular departments of industry, without apparently possessing any peculiar facilities for carrying them on. But from whatever causes their pre-eminence may arise in the first instance, it is very difficult, when once they have attained it, for others to come into competition with them. They have, on their side, established connections, workmen of superior skill and dexterity in manipulation, improved machinery, &c. Recently, indeed, the advantages in favour of old establishments have been, to a considerable extent, neutralised by the prevalence of combinations amongst their workmen; but it is to be hoped that means may be devised for obviating this formidable evil.

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.— There are no means by which to form an accurate estimate of the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland. Dr. Colquhoun estimated it at 15,000,000*l.*; but there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that this estimate was, at the time, absurdly exaggerated. In the last edition of this work we estimated the annual value of the manufacture at 7,500,000*l.** But it has increased very rapidly in the interval, principally through the great extension of the exports to France, and its value is at present (1847) certainly not under, if it do not exceed, 10,000,000*l.* or 12,000,000*l.* But taking it at the former amount, and setting aside a third part of this sum for the value of the raw material, and another third for profits, wages of superintendence, wear and tear of capital, coal, &c., we have 3,333,000*l.* to be divided as wages among those employed in the manufacture. And supposing each individual to earn, at an average, 24*l.* a year, the total number employed would be about 133,000. It may be thought, perhaps, that 24*l.* is too low an estimate for wages; and such, no doubt, would be the case, were not Ireland taken into the average. But as many persons are there employed in the manufacture at very low wages, we believe that 24*l.* is not very far from the mean rate.†

* Sir F. M. Eden estimated the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain, in 1800, at 2,000,000*l.*—(*Venue on Insurance*, p. 76.)

† A great number of persons in Ireland are only partly employed in the manufacture; but the above estimate supposes that the 133,000 individuals are wholly employed in it.

LINEN.

The rapid increase in the exports of linen goods and yarn, especially the latter, to France (see, for an account of this increase, the art. HAVRE), though latterly they have declined, is wholly a consequence of their comparative cheapness in this country; occasioned by our superior and cheaper machinery. And if the French really wish to rival us in this department of industry, they should endeavour, by reducing or repealing the oppressive duties on iron and machinery imported into France (which would, of course, proportionally reduce the cost of spinning mills and power-loom factories), to place their manufacturers and spinners on something like the same footing as ours. In this way they might, perhaps, have some chance of rivaling us; but the attempts that have recently been made to bolster up the manufacture by means of duties, must necessarily fail; and will have no effect but to perpetuate exploded practices and to promote the trade of smuggling.

Our exports of linen goods are also increasing to most other countries, as well as to France; and we are gaining on the Germans in most markets that are equally accessible to both. Hence the decrease of late years in the export of linens from Hamburg. — (See HAMBURG.)

The improvement in the manufacture of damasks and table linen generally, which is principally carried on in Dunfermline and Kirkcaldy, has been quite as striking as in the other departments of the trade, especially since the introduction of the Jacquard mounting. In fact, table linen is now shipped from this country for Germany; so that the duty of 10 per cent. on the importation of German damasks and such like fabrics might be reduced or repealed without the measure having any injurious influence over the manufacture.

Consumption of Foreign Linens. — It will be seen from the returns of the imports and entries of foreign linens for the 4 years ending with 1844, given on page 688., that the consumption of foreign linens in this country is quite inconsiderable; the real or declared value of those entered for home consumption, in 1844, could hardly amount to 40,000*l*.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Linen Manufactures and Linen Yarn exported from U. Kingdom in 1845, specifying the Countries to which the same were exported, and the Quantities and Values of those sent to each.

Countries to which exported.	Linen entered by the Yard.		Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.	Linen Yarn.		Total Declared Value.
	Quantity.	Declared Value.		Quantity.	Declared Value.	
	Yards.	£	£	£	£	£
	12,355	671	3,180	4,786	513	4,364
	1,637	85	85	7,665	583	734
	165,411	6,116	2,042	7,465	395	8,465
Russia	11,189	294	125	21,636	961	1,066
Sweden	9,433	278	125	15,040	568	698
Norway	2,199	115	15	13,944	578	155
Denmark	3,604	89,438	85,091	3,834,677	221,916	360,850
Hanover	2,309,633	19,293	11,232	4,196,236	129,461	160,993
Duchy of Oldenburg	536,296	6,419	6,383	1,035,990	50,605	63,690
Hanseatic Towns	117,978	102,444	409	2,135,188	414,350	517,199
Holland	2,266,298	16,910	15	4,347	296	17,221
Belgium	791,342	361	10	822
France	6,202	812	10	3,628,608	171,987	272,371
Portugal Proper	22,733	99,237	1,067	..	30	6,927
Azores	2,411,846	177,047	5	1,056	..	47,173
Madeira	735,309	23,875	1,138	297,051	22,172	125,382
Spain and the Balearic Islands	1,634,217	80,189	2,237	890,644	32,625	72,921
Canaries	149,738	7,201	105	3,660	100	1,539
Gibraltar	18,728	960	459	318	55	658
Italy and the Italian Islands	5,883	14,705	469	7,883	584	10,561
Malta	468,668	198	1	790
Ionian Islands	5,883	719	1	155
Greece and Greek Islands	15,128	130	85	2,268
Turkey	6,710	1,428	325	21,848
Syria and Palestine	65,971	2,127	1,428	80
Egypt	88,784	10,280	633
Algers and Morocco	1,115	80	10	6,731
Western Coast of Africa	15,171	543	10	1,268	95	61,158
Cape of Good Hope	180,606	5,721
Cain Verde Islands	1,990,982	69,838	1,227	6,529
St. Helena and Ascension Islands	1,470
Mauritius	..	5,451	78	12,427
British Territories in the East Indies	206,875	1,470	252	5,742
Sumatra, Java, and other Islands of the Indian Sea	30,064	11,075	..	530	82	1,571
Philippine Islands	259,291	10,127	1,463	332,827
China	1,674,598	80	..	366	59	1,637
British Settlements in Australia	180,370	8,197	19,757	2,462
South Sea Islands	4,351,516	135,545	3,266	187	17	515,662
British North American Colonies	9,653,648	329,565	405	916,561
British West Indies	2,468,921	50,627	6,078	200	3,342	170,908
Hayti	10,037,986	301,273	46,204	54,369	197	66,320
Cuba and other Foreign West Indian Colonies	28,137,990	868,015	4,024	215,004
United States of America	8,299,496	170,380	415	125,731
Mexico	2,440,504	65,008	412	49,460
New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador	7,085,506	309,456	3,448	69,400
Brazil	1,098,284	34,782	1,021	80,798
States of the Rio de la Plata	1,173,505	43,227	373
Chili	1,266,404	61,280	240
Peru and Bolivia	454,206	20,478
The Channel Islands
Total	68,401,670	2,850,784	205,286	23,955,725	1,060,266	4,706,636

Regulations as to the Linen Manufacture. — Any person, native or foreigner, may, without paying any thing, set up in any place, privileged or not, corporate or not, any branch of the linen manufacture; and foreigners practising the same shall, not taking the oath of allegiance, &c., be entitled to all the privileges of natural born subjects. — (15 Geo. 2. c. 15.)

Persons affixing stamps to foreign linens in imitation of the stamps affixed to those of Scotland or

Ireland, shall forfeit 5*l.* for each offence; and persons exposing to sale or packing up any foreign linens as the manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, shall forfeit the same and 5*l.* for each piece of linen so exposed to sale or packed up. — (17 Geo. 2. c. 30.)

Any person stealing to the value of 10*l.* any linen, woollen, silk, or cotton goods, whilist exposed during any stage of the manufacture in any building, field, or other place, shall, upon conviction, be liable at the discretion of the court to be transported beyond seas for life, or for any term not less than 7 years, or to be imprisoned for any term not exceeding 4 years, and, if a male, to be once, twice, or thrice publicly or privately whipped, as the court shall think fit. — (7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 29. § 14.)

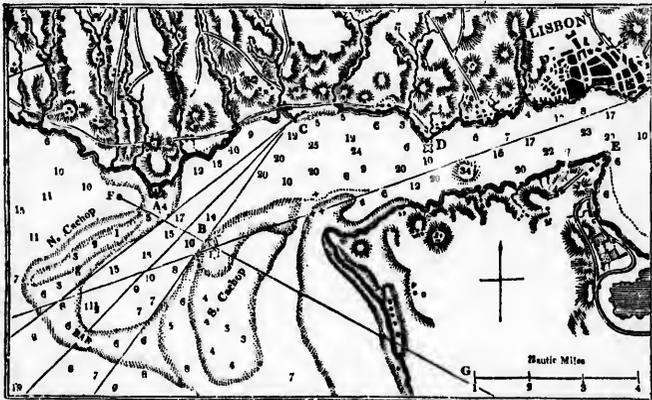
LIQUORICE (Ger. *Sussholz*; Fr. *Régilisse, Racine douce*; It. *Regolizia, Logorizia, Liquirizia*; Sp. *Regalíz Orozuz*), a perennial plant (*Glycyrrhiza glabra*), a native of the south of Europe, but cultivated to some extent in England, particularly at Mitcham in Surrey. Its root, which is its only valuable part, is long, slender, fibrous, of a yellow colour, and when fresh very juicy. The liquorice grown in England is fit for use at the end of 3 years; the roots, when taken up, are either immediately sold to the brewers' druggists, or to common druggists, by whom they are applied to different purposes, or they are packed in sand, like carrots or potatoes, till wanted.

LIQUORICE JUICE (*Succus Liquoritiæ*), popularly *black sugar*, the inspissated juice of the roots just mentioned. Very little of this extract is prepared in Britain, by far the larger part of our supply being imported from Spain and Sicily. The juice obtained by crushing the roots in a mill, and subjecting them to the press, is slowly boiled till it becomes of a proper consistency, when it is formed into rolls of a considerable thickness, which are usually covered with hay leaves. This is the state in which we import it. Most part of it is afterwards redissolved, purified, and cast into small cylindrical rolls of about the thickness of a goose quill, when it is called *refined liquorice*. It is then of a glossy black colour, brittle, having a sweet mucilaginous taste. It is used in the *materia medica*, particularly in coughs, colds, &c. — (*Thomson's Chemistry; Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

The imports in 1840 and 1841 amounted, at an average, to 7,123 cwt. a year. The oppressive duty of 3*l.* 15*s.* a cwt., with which it was loaded down to 1842, was reduced in the course of that year to 27*s.* 6*d.* (See **TARIFF.**)

LISBON, the capital of Portugal, situated on the north bank of the river Tagus, the observatory of the fort being in lat. 38° 42' 24" N., lon. 9° 5' 50" W. Population about 240,000.

Port. — The harbour, or rather road, of Lisbon is one of the finest in the world, and the quays are at once convenient and beautiful. Fort St. Julian marks the northern entrance of the Tagus. It is built on a steep projecting rock. There is a light-house in the centre, 120 feet above the level of the sea. At the mouth of the Tagus are two large banks, called the North and South *Cachops*. There are two channels for entering the river; the north or little, and the south or great channel, exhibited in the subjoined plan. On the middle of the South Cachop, about 1½ mile from Fort St. Julian, is the Bugio fort and light-house, the latter being 66 feet in height. The least depth of water in the north channel on the bar is 4 fathoms, and in the south, 6. The only danger in entering the port arises from the strength of the tide; the ebb running down at the rate of 7 miles an hour; and after heavy rains, when there is a great deal of fresh water in the river, the difficulty of entering is considerably augmented. When, at such periods, there is a strong wind from the sea, there is a complete break all over the bar; vessels moor up and down the river with open haws to the southward. In some parts they may come within 200 yards of the shore, being guided by the depth of water, which, from nearly 20 fathoms in mid-channel, shoals gradually to the edge.



References to Plan. — A. Fort St. Julian and light-house. B. Bugio fort and light-house. C. Barcevens look-out house. D. Belem Castle. E. Point Cassilhas. F, G, Bugio Fort and Sugar Loaf Hill in one, mark the north channel.

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Quantities

	Total Declared Value.
2	4,364
	734
	8,482
	1,862
	1,068
	695
	390,850
	190,345
	63,690
	217,199
	17,221
	461
	822
	272,271
	6,297
	47,179
	145,282
	7,321
	1,539
	433
	15,561
	189
	790
	153
	2,288
	21,819
	50
	633
	5,721
	81,138
	8,599
	1,470
	16,227
	51,742
	8,247
	155,271
	238,627
	11,060
	513,663
	915,561
	170,999
	26,620
	213,004
	35,731
	49,560
	68,200
	20,708
4,061,566	4,996,836

without paying any
manufacture; and
to all the privileges
of Scotland or

Trade, &c. — Lisbon is one of the best situated commercial cities of Europe. But notwithstanding this circumstance, the excellence of the port, and the command of the navigation of the Tagus, her commerce is comparatively trifling. The despotism, intolerance, and imbecility of the government have weighed down all the energies of the nation. The law and police being alike bad, there is no adequate security. Assassination is very frequent. Industry of all sorts is, in consequence, paralysed; and since the emancipation of Brazil, commerce has rapidly declined. Formerly Lisbon had about 400 ships, of from 300 to 600 tons burden, employed in the trade with South America. But at present there are not above 50 ships belonging to the port engaged in foreign trade; and, of these, the average burden does not exceed 150 tons! The produce of Portugal sent to foreign countries, is almost entirely conveyed to its destination in foreign ships. The trade between Lisbon and Cork is, we believe, the only exception to this; it being principally carried on in Portuguese vessels, which take salt from St. Ubes, and bring back butter in return. About 200 small craft belong to the city, which are exclusively employed in the coasting trade.

There are neither price currents, shipping lists, nor official returns of any kind, published in Lisbon. The principal exports are lemons and oranges — which, however, are very inferior to those of Spain; wine, particularly Lisbon and Calcevela; wool, oil, tanned hides, woollen caps, vinegar, salt, cork, &c. Besides colonial produce, the principal imports consist of cotton, woollen, and linen goods; hardware, earthenware, dried fish, butter, corn, cheese, timber and deals, hemp, &c.

Money. — Accounts are kept in rees, 1,000 of which = 1 milree. In the separate accounts, the milrees are separated from the rees by a crossed cypher (ç), and 10 milrees from the milloons by a colon: thus, Re. 2700 ç 60 = 2,700 milrees and 600 rees.

The cruado de exchange, or old cruado, = 400 rees; the new cruado = 480 rees (the testoon = 100 rees) and the vinton or vintem = 30 rees.

The gold piece of 640 rees = 35s. 11d. sterling; the gold cruado = 2s. 3d.; and the milree, valued in gold, = 67½d. sterling. It appears, however, from assays made at the London mint, in 1816, on modern cruados, that the average value of the milree in silver may be estimated at 60d. or 5s. sterling.

Weights and Measures. — The commercial weights are, 5 ounces = 1 marc; 2 marcs = 1 pound or arreal; 12 pounds = 1 arroba; 4 arrobas = 1 quintal = 100 lbs. or arreal of Portugal = 101.19 lbs. avoirdupois = 45.935 kilos, = 94.761 lbs. of Hamburg = 92.918 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The principal measure for corn, salt, &c. is the moyo, divided into 15 fanegas, 80 almarites, 240 quartas, 480 selenias, &c. The moyo = 2343 Winchester bushels.

The principal liquid measures is the almeida, divided into 5 pots, 12 canadas, or 48 quartillos; 15 almeidas = 1 baril; 36 almeidas = 1 pipe; 28 almeidas = 1 tonnelada. The almeida = 4.27 English wine gallons; and the tonnelada = 123 ditto.

A pipe of Lisbon is estimated by the Custom-house (British) at 140 gallons; and this pipe is supposed to be 31 almeidas.

Bank of Lisbon. — This establishment was founded in 1822. Its capital consists of about 700,000s. sterling, divided into 7,000 shares. The shareholders are not liable beyond the amount of their shares. The bank discounts bills not having more than 3 months to run, at 5 per cent. Its dividends, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, were about 6 per cent. It enjoys the singular but valuable privilege of having its claims on all estates paid off in full, provided the estate amounts to so much; other creditors being obliged to content themselves with a division of the residue, if there be any.

Port Regulations. — All vessels entering the Tagus are obliged to come to anchor off Belem Castle, where there is an office at which they must be entered, their cargoes declared, from whence they come, and whether the cargo be intended to be landed in Lisbon or not; if not, the master applies for "franchise," that is, for leave to remain 5 days in the port for the purpose of disposing of the cargo or of departing with it. Two Custom-house officers are then sent on board, and if the cargo is to be discharged at Lisbon, the vessel proceeds to the Custom-house, when the master makes entry, delivering the manifest and bills of lading attached to the certificate of the Portuguese consul, at the port of lading, in order to identify the cargo. The officers put on board at Belem are then relieved by 2 others, who remain until the vessel be discharged and visited by the Custom-house searcher. The port dues have to be paid in the Custom-house offices; but the vessel is not subject to any other charges.

All goods sent on board for exportation must be accompanied by a permit from the Custom-house. When the clearances are obtained, the papers are presented by the master, or the ship's agent, to the authorities at Belem, who deliver the signal the vessel is to hold when going to sea.

There is no regular warehousing and bonding system at Lisbon. All imported dry goods are allowed to remain in the Custom-house stores 3 years, and liquids 6 months, without being charged warehouse rent, provided they are intended for consumption, and pay the duties accordingly. But if, after that period, they are taken out to be exported, they are charged 2 per cent. duty.

Port Charges. — on a foreign ship of 300 tons entering the port

A pipe of port is 168 gallons, divided into 31 almeidas of Operto.

Of measures of length, 2 pes = 3 palmos = 1 covado, or cubit; 12 covados = 1 vara; 4 varas = 1 braza. The pe or foot = 14.944 English inches; 100 feet of Portugal = 107.8 English feet; the vara = 45.4 English inches.

For freight a last is reckoned at 3 pipes of oil or wine, 4 casks of sugar, 6,000 lbs. of tobacco, 5,000 lbs. of alumina.

But from one place in Portugal to another, a tonnelada is reckoned at 32 almeidas of liquids, or 64 almeidas of dry goods. Coffee is sold per arroba; cotton, indigo, and pepper, per lb.; oil, per almeida; wine, per pipe; corn, per almeida; salt, per moyo.

Grain, seed, &c., wool, and timber are sold on board.

Weights and long measures are the same throughout Portugal; but there is a great discrepancy in the measure of capacity. The almeida and almarite, at the principal places, are in English measures as follows:—

Lisbon	Almeida	= 5.37	gall. Eng. wine measure
	Almeida	= 8.07	— Winch. measure
Operto	Almeida	= 8	— wine measure
Faro	Almeida	= 5.4	— Winch. measure
	Almeida	= 4	— wine measure
Faro	Almeida	= 3	— Winch. measure
Agulera	Almeida	= 5	— wine measure
	Almeida	= 3	— Winch. measure
Vianna	Almeida	= 6	— wine measure
	Almeida	= 5	— Winch. measure.

of Lisbon, with a general or mixed cargo, and clearing out with the same:—

	Revs.
Royal passport	7,900
Port expenses on entering at the Custom-house, about	700
Anchorage	600
Ballast clearance	400
Tonnage, 110 rees per ton	30,040
Lights, 50 rees per ton	15,000
Contribution to Board of Trade	1,500
Port charges	750
Bill of health	840
	Rs. 56,960 = 117. 6s. 6d. sterl.

Vessels coming with a cargo, or in ballast, and departing in ballast, pay 300 rees per ton lights, or 4 times as much as if they sailed with cargoes. Vessels coming with a cargo, and sailing with the same cargo, pay no tonnage duty.

Commission. — The ordinary rate of commission are, on the sale of goods, 4½ per cent.; del credere, 8½ per cent.; on the value of goods landed from a vessel putting in to effect repairs, 1 per cent.; on ship's effects insurances, 6 per cent. Assurance are effected to a trifling amount. There is a national company for effecting insurances; but it enjoys little credit.

Tare are not regulated by any certain rule. Those allowed are generally those invoiced or marked on the package. — (See *Assurances de Commerce*, &c. *Maritime*, p. 254.) *Kelly's Compend; Consul's Answers to Circular Queries*, &c.)

LITERARY PROPERTY. See Books.

LITHARGE (Ger. *Glätte, Glätte*; Du. *Gelit*; Fr. *Litharge*; It. *Litargirio*; Sp. *Amarataga, Litargirio*; Rus. *Glet*; Lat. *Lithargyrium*), an oxide of lead in an imperfect state of vitrification. Most of the lead met with in commerce contains silver, from a few grains to 20 ounces or more in the fudder: when the quantity is sufficient to pay the expense of separation, it is *refined*; that is, the metal is exposed to a high heat,

passing at the same time a current of air over the surface: the lead is thus oxidised and converted into *litharge*, while the silver, remaining unchanged, is collected at the end of the process. — (*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*) *Litharge* is used for various purposes in the arts, by potters, glass makers, painters, &c.

LOADSTONE (Ger. *Magnet*; Du. *Magneet*; Fr. *Aimant*; It. *Calamita*; Sp. *Iman*; Rus. *Mugnit*; Lat. *Magnes*). M. Haiiy observes, that the ores in which the iron contains the least oxygen without being engaged in other combinations, form natural magnets; and he calls the *loadstones* of commerce, which are found in considerable masses in Germany, Sweden, Norway, Spain, Italy, China, Siam, the Philippine Isles, Corsica, and Ethiopia, *oxidulated iron*. The loadstone is characterised by the following properties: — A very strong action on the magnetic needle. Specific gravity 4.2457. Not ductile. Of a dark grey colour, with a metallic lustre. — Primitive form, the regular octahedron. Insoluble in nitric acid. This singular substance was known to the ancients; and they had remarked its peculiar property of attracting iron; but it does not appear that they were acquainted with the wonderful property which it also has, of turning to the pole when suspended, and left at liberty to move freely. Upon this remarkable circumstance the mariner's compass depends, — an instrument which gives us such infinite advantages over the ancients. It is this which enables the mariner to conduct his vessel through vast oceans out of the sight of land, in any given direction; and this directive property also guides the miner in subterranean excavations, and the traveller through deserts otherwise impassable. The natural loadstone has also the quality of communicating its properties to iron and steel; and when pieces of steel properly prepared are touched, as it is called, by the loadstone, they are denominated artificial magnets. — (See COMPASS.)

LOBSTER (Fr. *Ecrevisse*; Lat. *Cancer*), a fish of the crab species, of which vast quantities are consumed in London.

The minimum size of lobsters offered for sale is fixed by 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 24., at eight inches from the tip of the nose to the end of the middle fin of the tail. No lobsters are to be taken on the coasts of Scotland between the 1st of June and the 1st of September, under a penalty of 5*l*. The Scilly Islands and the Land's End abound in lobsters, as well as several places on the Scotch shores, particularly about Montrose. But the principal lobster fishery is on the coast of Norway; whence it is believed about 1,000,000 lobsters are annually imported into London. Those of Helligoland are, however, esteemed the best; they are of a deeper black colour, and their flesh is firmer than those brought from Norway. Foreign caught turbot and lobsters may be imported either in British or foreign vessels free of duty.

LOCK, LOCKS (Ger. *Schlösser*; Du. *Sloten*; Fr. *Serrures*; It. *Serrature*; Sp. *Cerraduras*, *Cerrujos*; Rus. *Samki*), a well known instrument, of which there are infinite varieties. A great deal of art and delicacy is sometimes displayed in contriving and varying the wards, springs, bolts, &c., and adjusting them to the places where they are to be used, and to the occasions of using them. From the various structure of locks, accommodated to their different intentions, they acquire various names, as stock locks, spring locks, padlocks, &c. Wolverhampton was, at a very early period, famous for the superior skill and ingenuity of its locksmiths; but the best locks are now made in London and Birmingham. The grand difficulty to be overcome in making a lock is to construct it so that it may not be opened by any key except its own, nor admit of being picked; it should also be possessed of sufficient strength and durability, and not be too complex. Many ingenious contrivances have been proposed for the attainment of the desired security, — several of which are possessed of considerable merit. We believe, however, that there is none that combines all the principal requisites of a lock in so eminent a degree as "Chubb's Detector-Lock," so called from the inventor, Mr. Chubb, of Portsea. Common door-locks are now usually inserted in the wood, instead of being, as formerly, screwed to it; and when so placed are called *mortise locks*.

LOGWOOD (Fr. *Bois de Campêche*; Ger. *Kampescholz*; Du. *Campescheout*; Sp. *Palo de Campeche*), the wood of a tree (*Hæmatoxylon Campechianum* Lin.), a native of America, and which attains the greatest perfection at Campeachy, and in the West Indies. It thrives best in a wet soil, with a large proportion of clay. The logwood tree is like the white thorn, but a great deal larger. The wood is hard, compact, heavy, and of a deep red colour internally, which it gives out both to water and alcohol. It is an article of great commercial importance, being extensively used as a dye wood. It is imported in logs, that are afterwards chipped. — (The logwood tree, and the adventures of those that were formerly engaged in cutting it, are described by Dampier; see his *Voyages*, vol. ii. part 2. p. 56. ed. 1729.)

The entries for home consumption, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, amounted to 18,713 tons a year. The old duty of 4*z*. 6*z*. a ton on foreign logwood, and of 3*z*. on that from a British plantation, produced, in 1841, 4,409*l*. 19*z*. 6*z*.; but it was reduced in the following year to 2*z*. a ton. Of 27,054 tons of logwood imported in 1840, 13,594 were from the British West Indies, 9,601 from Mexico, and the remainder principally from Hayti and the U. States. Its price in the London market in June, 1843, was — Jamaica, 6*z*. per ton; Honduras, 5*z*. 5*z*.; Campeachy, 8*z*. 8*z*.

We borrow from the learned and able work of Dr. Bancroft, the following curious

details with respect to the use of logwood in this country: — "Logwood seems to have been first brought to England soon after the accession of Queen Elizabeth; but the various and beautiful colours dyed from it proved so fugacious, that a general outcry against its use was soon raised; and an act of parliament was passed in the 23d year of her reign, which prohibited its use as a dye under severe penalties, and not only authorised but directed the *burning* of it, in whatever hands it might be found within the realm; and though this wood was afterwards sometimes clandestinely used (under the feigned name of blackwood), it continued subject to this prohibition for nearly 100 years, or until the passing of the act 13 & 14 Chas. 2.; the preamble of which declares, that the ingenious industry of modern times hath taught the dyers of England the art of fixing colours made of logwood, *alias* blackwood, so as that, by experience, they are found as lasting as the colours made with any other sort of dyeing wood whatever; and on this ground it repeals so much of the statute of Elizabeth as related to logwood, and gives permission to import and use it for dyeing. Probably the solicitude of the dyers to obtain this permission, induced them to pretend that their industry had done much more than it really had, in fixing the colours of logwood; most of which, even at this time, are notoriously deficient in regard to their durability." — (*On Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. p. 340.)

LOUIS D'OR, a French gold coin, first struck in 1640. It was subsequently made by the French mint regulations equal to 24 livres, or 1*l.* sterling. This, however, was under-rating it in respect of silver; and hence, as every one preferred paying his debts in the over-valued coin, silver became the principal currency of France, the gold coins being either sent to the melting-pot or exported. In Britain, the process was reversed. Gold having been, for a lengthened period, over-valued by our mint in respect to silver, it became the principal currency of the country. — (See *anté*, p. 304.)

M.

MACAO, a sea-port and settlement belonging to the Portuguese, on the island of the same name, at the mouth of the Canton river in China, in lat. 22° 12' 45" N., lon. 113° 35' E. The situation of Macao strikingly resembles that of Cadiz. It is built near the extremity of a peninsula projecting from the south-west corner of the island of Macao, to which it is joined by a long narrow neck. Across this isthmus, which is not more than 100 yards wide, a wall is erected, with a gate and guard-house in the middle for the Chinese soldiers. The greatest length of the peninsula belonging to the Portuguese, from N. E. to S. W., is under 3 miles, and its breadth under $\frac{1}{2}$ mile. The broadest part, to the north of the town, is flat, and of a light sandy soil; but is well cultivated, principally by Chinese, and produces all sorts of Asiatic and European culinary vegetables. Provisions are obtained from the Chinese part of the island or from the main land; and whenever the Portuguese do any thing to offend the Chinese authorities, the provisions are cut off till they are obliged quietly to submit. They are seldom allowed to pass beyond the narrow precincts of the territory assigned to them. The population of the peninsula may amount to from 12,000 to 13,000, of whom considerably more than half are Chinese. The functionaries belonging to the East India Company's factory at Canton resided here during the whole of the dead season.

The Portuguese obtained possession of Macao in 1586. It was for a considerable period the seat of a great trade, carried on not only with China, but with Japan, Siam, Cochin-China, the Philippine Islands, &c.; but for these many years past it has been of comparatively little importance, though it is probable, that if it belonged to a more enterprising and active people, it might still recover most part of its former prosperity. The public administration is vested in a senate composed of the bishop, the judge, and a few of the principal inhabitants; but all real authority is in the hands of the Chinese mandarin resident in the town.

The Harbour is on the west side of the town, between it and Priest's Island; but the water in it not being sufficiently deep to admit large ships, they generally anchor in the roads on the other side of the peninsula, from 5 to 10 miles E. S. E. from the town. All vessels coming into the roads send their boats to the Portuguese Custom-house on the south side of the town.

When a ship arrives among the islands, she is generally boarded by a pilot, who carries her into Macao roads. As soon as she is anchored, the pilot proceeds to Macao to inform the mandarin of the nation she belongs to. If there be any women on board, application must be made to the bishop and senate, for leave to send them on shore, as they will not be permitted to proceed to Whampoa in the ship. As soon as the mandarin has made the necessary inquiries, he orders off a river pilot, who brings with him a *chop* or licence to pass the Bocca Tigris, or mouth of the Canton river, and carries the ship to Whampoa.

Trade of Macao. — The Chinese regulations do not permit any vessels, except such as belong to Portuguese or Spaniards, of which there are very few, to trade at Macao. But the Portuguese inhabitants lend their names, for a trifling consideration, to such foreigners as wish to be associated with them for the purpose of trading from the port. Independently, however, of this, vessels of other nations usually experience no difficulty in obtaining the connivance of the Chinese officers in the landing or receiving of goods in the roads, by means of Portuguese boats. At intervals, indeed, the prohibitory regulation is strictly enforced; but we believe that there has been no instance of this for the last 3 years.

Vessels of other nations, if in distress, and not engaged in the contraband trade, are admitted into the harbour for repairs, on application to the senate.

Port Charges.—The measurement duty paid by Spanish and Portuguese vessels is moderate. When a vessel has once paid the full amount, and is admitted on the list of registered ships belonging to the port (limited by the Chinese to 35), she is liable only to a third of the ordinary charges, on every subsequent occasion of her entering, so long as she continues on the register. Portuguese vessels from Europe do not possess this privilege, unless they be registered as belonging to a morador of Macao.

The rates of measurement duty, which vary, as at Canton, (which see), on three classes of vessels, are the following:—

Tons.	Rate per covid.
Up to 150	5-7 1/2
From 150 to 180	4

These rates are nearly the same as those levied on Canton junks, trading with foreign countries, and ought, in fact, to be entirely so. The dimensions are taken and calculated in the manner formerly practiced at Canton; but the Chinese, at both places, speak not of the covid, but of the shang of 10 covids. However, as this is only a decimal increase, it makes no difference in the method of calculation.

The following additional charges, to be calculated on the amount of measurement duty, are the same on every class of vessels, viz.

For different in weight by the treasury scales.	10
For loss in masting.	17
For making styes.	17

Also the sum of 70 taels for the "public purse," or hoppo's treasury.

In addition to these, the following are the charges levied by the hoppo (collector of customs), or his deputy:—

On a 1st class vessel from Europe, 350 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manila, 50 taels.

On a 2d class vessel from Europe, 240 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manila, 60 taels.

On a 3d class vessel from Europe, 170 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manila, 90 taels.

Ships importing rice are exempt from the measurement duty, and pay only 50 dollars, as fees to the procurador of Macao and the officers of his department.

Portuguese vessels from Europe, in addition to the measurement duty, have to pay to the Canton hong merchants a charge, termed by the Portuguese, *lanisagem*, or *Consoo* charge, which is usually a matter of speculation, varying from about 500 dollars on a vessel of 500 tons, to 1,500 dollars and upwards on those of 500 tons, and of larger sizes.

The charges on goods carried by the inner passage, between Canton and Macao, being generally less than those paid on goods to and from Whampoa; and the duties levied by the Portuguese, on articles of merchandise imported by vessels belonging to Macao, being very moderate; the Chinese are often led to engage in speculations on board the Macao vessels, the risk being so much less than in native junks. If the ship owners could manage their expenses so as to be satisfied with only the same freight as is charged by English vessels, it would probably induce many more Chinese to make remittances in this way.

Opium.—The trade in opium is prohibited at Macao by the Chinese government, as well as throughout the rest of the empire. It was, nevertheless, formerly carried on to a great extent by the Portuguese merchants, or citizens, to the exclusion of all others, even Portuguese who were not citizens. But this restriction having occasioned the decline of the trade, it was abolished in 1825, when the senate passed a regulation throwing open the trade to all, without distinction, whether Portuguese or foreigners; securing to the latter, "hospitality and the utmost freedom in their speculations." At present, however, very little opium is imported, in consequence, it is

said, of the heavy bribes demanded by the Chinese officers, to insure their connivance. The trade is now principally carried on at Lintin, about 50 miles from Macao.

Imports.—Goods imported pay at the Portuguese Custom-house a duty of 5 per cent; on a fixed valuation, besides some fees, and coolie hire. The following are a few articles extracted from the tariff:—

Goods.	Valuation, Duty, 7 taels.	Taels.
Cotton	per picul	1-800
Broad cloth, middling	do	1-800
do	covid	0-098
do	better than ordinary	0-900
do	ordinary or coarse	0-480
Camlets	do	1-250
Red net	do	1-900
Blue net	do	0-900
Birds' nests, 1st sort	do	32-400
Rattans	do	1-200
Saltpetre, Bengal	do	0-075
Pepper	coast of Goa	1-600
Opium imported in Portuguese ships, pays per chest, dr.	105	
do	foreign	150

Gold and silver, whether in coin, in bullion, or manufactured, pay on importation, 2 per cent; except in Spanish vessels from Manila, when this charge is 1 1/2 per cent.

Exports.—No duty is levied by the Portuguese on goods exported from Macao; nor does the Custom-house take any cognizance of them.

Duties and Charges on Goods landed at Macao.—Macao is a place without any manufacture or commerce of its own.

Prices are, in consequence, generally dependent on those of Canton. Money is usually paid at 7 1/2 taels per 100 dollars.

It is a point of some interest to ascertain the internal duties and expenses to which goods landed at Macao are liable, as coming into the Chinese purchaser's hands at Canton. But the subject is so involved in mystery and uncertainty, the charges varying according to the quantity of goods laden in one boat, &c., that it is scarcely possible to arrive at any accurate information respecting it. We believe, however, that the following may be considered as a pretty close approximation to the real amount of charges incurred on cotton landed at Macao:—

Portuguese duty, fees, &c.	mao, 4-8 per picul.
Duties and charges on conveyance to Canton	6-5
Custom charges, difference of weight, brokerage on sale, &c.	8-0
Total, about taels, 3-6-9	

The duties and charges on conveyances from Macao to Canton are, for pepper, per picul — maco, 3-0
Rattans — do — 4-5
Red net — do — 4-5

The hoppo's examiner charges 90 taels per boat of 1,000 piculs, the largest quantity allowed to be conveyed by a single boat; but the same charge of 90 taels is levied, although the boat should only contain 100 piculs.

The duty on exporting goods from Canton to Macao is in some cases less, in other cases greater, than the Whampoa duty. This, we think to Macao pay 2 dollars per 100 less than to Whampoa. Most descriptions of silk piece goods also pay less duty. On the other hand, tea, paper, China ware, &c. pay a higher duty to Macao than to Whampoa.

For details as to the *Wrights, Messurs*, &c. used at Macao, see *Canton*.

For further particulars, see *Hemilton's East India Gazetteer*, art. *Macao*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; and the *Anglo-Chinese Calendar and Compendium to the Almanac*, Macao, 1854.

MACCARONI, a species of wheat paste formed into long, slender, hollow tubes, used amongst us dressed with cheese, and in soups, broths, &c.

Maccaroni is the same substance as vermicelli; the only difference between them being that the latter is made into smaller tubes. Both of them are prepared in the greatest perfection in Naples, where they form the favourite dish of all classes, and the principal food of the bulk of the population. The flour of the hard wheat (*grano duro*) imported from the Black Sea is the best suited for the manufacture of maccaroni. Being mixed with water, it is kneaded by means of heavy wooden blocks wrought by levers, till it acquires a sufficient degree of tenacity; it is then forced, by simple pressure, through a number of holes, so contrived that it is formed into hollow cylinders. The name given to the tubes depends on their diameter; those of the largest size being maccaroni, the next to them vermicelli, and the smallest fedelini. At Genoa, and some other places, the paste is coloured by an admixture of saffron; but at Naples, where its preparation is best understood, nothing is used except flour and water; the best being made of the flour of hard wheat, and the inferior sorts of the flour of soft wheat. When properly prepared and boiled to a nicety, Neapolitan maccaroni assumes a greenish tinge. It is then taken out of the caldron, drained of the water, and being saturated with concentrated meat gravy, and sprinkled with finely grated cheese, it forms a dish of which all classes, from the prince to the beggar, are passionately fond. But the maccaroni used by the poor is merely boiled in plain water, and is rarely eaten with any condiment whatever. The maccaroni usually served up in England is said, by those familiar with that of Naples, to be a disgrace to the name it bears. When properly prepared, maccaroni is nutritious and easy of digestion. The lazzaroni pique themselves on the dexterity with which they swallow long strings of maccaroni and

vermicelli without breaking them. (We are principally indebted for these details to an article on macerani in the *Frany Magazine* for the 10th of August, 1833.)

MACE (Ger. *Macis*, *Muskatbluthe*; Du. *Foetie*, *Foely*, *Muscaatbloom*; Fr. *Macis*, *Fleur de muscade*; It. *Mace*; Sp. *Macio*; Port. *Mascis*, *Flor de noz muscada*; Lat. *Macis*), a thin, flat, membranous substance, enveloping the nutmeg; of a lively, reddish yellow colour, a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. Mace should be chosen fresh, tough, oleaginous, of an extremely fragrant smell, and a bright colour — the brighter the better. The smaller pieces are esteemed the best. The preferable mode of packing is in bales, pressed down close and firm, which preserves its fragrance and consistence.

Account of the Quantity of Mace retained for Home Consumption, and of the Total Revenue derived therefrom, in each of the 3 Years ending with 1842.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	s.	d.
16,906	16,796	19,010	2,118	17	9
			2,118	17	9
			2,485	16	8

The duty on mace is 2s. 6d. per lb.

A production is met with on the coast of Malabar, so like mace, that at first it is not easy to be distinguished; but it has not the least flavour of spiciness, and when chewed has a kind of resinous taste. Eight cwt. of mace are allowed to a ton. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

MADDER (Ger. *Fürberüthe*; Du. *Mee*; Fr. *Alisari*, *Garance*; It. *Robbia*; Sp. *Granza*, *Rubia*; Rus. *Mariona*, *Krap*; Hind. *Munjith*), the roots of a plant (*Rubia tinctorum*), of which there are several varieties. They are long and slender, varying from the thickness of a goose-quill to that of the little finger. They are semi-transparent, of a reddish colour, have a strong smell, and a smooth bark. Madder is very extensively used in dyeing red; and though the colour which it imparts be less bright and beautiful than that of cochineal, it has the advantage of being cheaper and more durable. It is a native of the south of Europe, Asia Minor, and India; but has been long since introduced into and successfully cultivated in Holland, Alsace, Provence, &c. Its cultivation has been attempted in England, but without any beneficial result. Our supplies of madder were, for a lengthened period, almost entirely derived from Holland (Zealand); but large quantities are now imported from France and Turkey.

Dutch or Zealand madder is never exported except in a prepared or manufactured state. It is divided by commercial men into four qualities, distinguished by the terms *mull*, *gamene*, *ombro*, and *crope*. The roots being dried in stoves, the first species, or mull, consists of a powder formed by pounding the very small roots, and the husk or bark of the larger ones. It is comparatively low priced, and is employed for dyeing cheap dark colours. A second pounding separates about a third part of the larger roots; and this, being sifted and packed separately, is sold here under the name of *gamene*, or *gemeens*. The third and last pounding comprehends the interior, pure, and bright part of the roots, and is sold in Holland under the name of *kor krops*, but is here simply denominated *crope*. Sometimes, however, after the mull has been separated, the entire residue is ground, sifted, and packed together, under the name of *ombroofste*, or *ombro*. It consists of about one third of *gamene*, and two thirds of *crope*. Prepared madder should be kept dry. It attracts the moisture of the atmosphere, and is injured by it.

The Smyrna or Levant madder (*Rubia peregrina*), the alisari or lisary of the modern Greeks, is cultivated in Boeotia, along the border of lake Copais, and in the plain of Thebes. It also grows in large quantities at Kurdar near Smyrna, and in Cyprus. The madder of Provence has been raised from seeds carried from the latter in 1761. Turkey madder affords, when properly prepared, a brighter colour than that of Zealand. It is, however, imported in its natural state, or as roots: the natives, by whom it is chiefly produced, not having industry or skill sufficient to prepare it like the Zealanders, by pounding and separating the skins and inferior roots; so that, the finer colouring matter of the larger roots being degraded by the presence of that derived from the former, a peculiar process is required to evolve that beautiful Turkey red which is so highly and deservedly esteemed. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 221—278. : see also *Beckmann, Hist. of Invent.* vol. iii. art. *Madder*.)

In France, madder is prepared nearly in the same manner as in Zealand. The following instructive details as to its cultivation, price, &c. in Provence, were obligingly furnished to us by an English gentleman, intimately acquainted with such subjects, who visited Avignon in the autumn of 1829: —

" This town (Avignon) is the capital of the madder country, the cultivation of which was introduced here about the middle of the 13th century, and, with the exception of Alsace, is still confined (in France) to this department (Vaucluse). The soil appears to be better adapted for its cultivation here than any where else, and it has long been the source of great wealth to the cultivators. Of late years, however, the prices have fluctuated so much, that many proprietors have abandoned, or only occasionally cultivated this root, so that the crop, which was formerly estimated to average 500,000 quintals, is now supposed not to exceed from 200,000 to 400,000.

" The root is called *alazar*, and the powder (made from it) *garance*. The plant is raised from seed, and requires 2 years to come to maturity. It is, however, when raised in 18 months without injury to the quality; the quantity only is smaller. A rich soil is necessary for its successful cultivation; and when the soil is impregnated with alkaline matter, the root acquires a red colour—in other cases it is yellow. The latter is preferred in England, from the easy habit of using Dutch madder, which is of this colour; but in France the red sells at 3 fr. per quintal higher, being used for the Turkey red dye.

" It is estimated that when wheat sells at 90 fr. per hectolitre, *alazar* should bring 25 fr. per quintal (*quintal de table*), to give the same remuneration to the cultivator. That is, wheat 65s. per Eng. quarter, and *alazar* 51s. per Hog. cwt. The price has, however, been frequently as low as 25 fr. per quintal.

" Prices undergo a revolution every 7 or 8 years, coinciding the minimum of 16, and rising as high as 100 fr. As in every similar case, the high price induces extensive cultivation, and this generally produces its full effect 4 or 5 years after. The produce of Alsace, which is inferior both in quantity and quality to that of Vaucluse, is generally sold in Strasbourg market.

" England employs both the root and the powder, according to the purposes for which they are intended. The Dutch madder is more employed by the woollen dyers, and the French by the cotton dyers and printers.

" In making purchases of *garance*, it is essential to employ a house of confidence, because the quality depends entirely upon the care and honesty of the agent. The *alazar* is produced from the roots after being cleaned and stripped of their bark. They are dried by grinding the roots without cleaning. A third by mixing the bark of the *alazar* while grinding; and so on to any degree of adulteration.

" The price of *alazar* in the country, which was only 55 fr. in July, is now (November, 1850) at 85 fr., and is expected to be at 60 fr. very shortly. The crop being deficient both here and in Holland, and the certainty of its being also deficient next year, added to the small quantity existing in England, give reason to believe that the price will reach 60 fr. before many months, and will continue to advance for a year or two more.

" The *quintals* above mentioned are of 100 lbs. *quintal de table*—the weight in general use over the south of France, and even in Marseilles. This weight is different in the different provinces, varying from 82 to 85 per cent. Below that the *quintal metrique*. At Avignon, 100 lbs. *quintal de table* are equal to 80 kilograms, consequently 100 lbs. are equal to 1 cwt. Eng. At the entrance of 25/40 the cwt. costs (including 11s. for freight, duty, and all charges till delivered in London or Liverpool) 51s. or 60s.

" It is considered that only one sixth or one eighth of the present crop remains for sale.

" Madder does not deteriorate by keeping, provided it be kept dry.

" *Compte rendu*.—

Cost of 1 quintal of roots in the country	Fr. 25
Expenses in do.	8
	33

The root gives 85 per cent. powder, consequently 1 quintal powder	Fr. 48-50
Grinding and cask	2
Transport	Fr. 5-00
	Fr. 49-00

The English root costs therefore	Fr. 55-56
All expenses, incl. on board at Marseilles	5
	Fr. 61-25

For an account of East Indian madder, or *manjist*, see *MADRAS*.

Account of the Quantities of Madder and Madder Root imported and retained for Consumption in the U. Kingdom during each of the 4 Years ending with 1840, specifying the Countries whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	Madder.				Madder Root.			
	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Holland	Cwts. 33,531	44,257	35,968	47,275	Cwts. 418	998	102	348
Belgium	405	535	5,035	3,035				
France	49,058	53,558	58,044	58,719	53,518	36,141	13,311	51,458
Spain and the Balearic Islands	1,590	37	1,764	5,174	1,071	12		
Italy and the Italian Islands			111	268	11,840	6,223	15,714	10,190
Turkey					56,568	39,059	47,587	60,259
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	14				18	4,628	1,801	373
All other countries	229	906	640	150	978	87	1,651	237
Total	84,841	97,411	98,896	140,795	109,235	73,701	60,538	109,415
Total quantities retained for consumption	78,830	108,221	96,708	124,472	100,503	82,841	60,259	112,714

The duty on madder is 6s. and on madder roots 3s., and their prices (duty paid) in the London market, in July, 1843, were—

Madder, —	per cwt.	65 0 to 72 0
Dutch crop	—	50 0 — 65 0
Ambo	—	35 0 — 40 0
Glansen	—	18 0 — 25 0
Mull	—	45 0 — 50 0
French	—	0 0 — 0 0
Spanish	—	0 0 — 0 0

Madder roots, —	per cwt.	0 0 to 0 0
Turkey	—	0 0 — 0 0
French	—	0 0 — 0 0
Dutch	—	0 0 — 0 0
Marjisi, E. I. Id.	—	12 0 — 0 0

Madder, the produce of Europe, is not to be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under forfeiture of the same, and 100l. by the master of the vessel. — (5 & 7 WUL. 4. c. 52. sect. 56.)

MADEIRA. See **WINE.**
MADRAS, the principal emporium of the coast of Coromandel, or western shore of the Bay of Bengal, lat. of lighthouse 13° 5' 10" N. long. 80° 20' E. It is the seat of the government of the second presidency of British India, having under it a territory, including the tributary states, of 172,000 square miles, with a population, according to the census of 1836-37, of 18,314,000, paying a gross annual revenue of nearly 4,500,000l. sterling. The town is situated in the Carnatic province, a low, sandy and rather sterile country. It is without port or harbour, lying close upon the margin of an open roadstead, the shores of which are constantly beat by a heavy surf. Besides these disadvantages, a rapid current runs along the coast; and it is within the sphere of the hurricanes or typhoons, by which it is occasionally visited. In every respect, indeed, it is a very inconvenient place for trade, and its commerce is consequently greatly inferior to that of either Calcutta or Bombay. It has been in possession of the English above two centuries, having been founded by them in 1639, and retained ever since. Fort Saint George is a strong and handsome fortification, lying close to the shore. The Black Town of Madras, as it is called, stands to the north and eastward of the fort, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade. Here reside the native, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, with many Europeans unconnected with the government. Like most other Indian towns, it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses. Madras, like Calcutta and Bombay, is subject

II. Account of the Values of the principal Articles exported from Madras and the Ports subordinate to it by Sea, to Foreign and other Ports (not subordinate), in 1838-1839, and 1839-1840.

Principal Articles exported.	1838-1839.		1839-1840.		Principal Articles imported.	1838-1839.		1839-1840.	
	Co.'s Rep.	Rs.	Co.'s Rep.	Rs.		Co.'s Rep.	Rs.	Co.'s Rep.	Rs.
Hotel wares, bottled and raw	1,53,397		2,11,450		Provisions of sorts	-	-	-	-
Chambs	1,24,479		50,916		Salt	-	-	28,218	25,565
Chilies	-	-	85,164		Saltpetre	-	-	7,599	61,748
Coffee	81,898		1,29,774		Randal woad	-	-	2,14,703	81,158
Cotton	20,159		27,58,997		Spices, viz.:-	-	-	-	-
Drugs and medicines	1,79,304		97,149		cardamoms, with shells	1,03,017		1,81,769	
Dyes, indigo	1,15,491		25,56,198		cloves	5,351		9,989	
Ferils, cocoa-nuts, fresh and dry	5,20,085		9,91,711		asafoetida and cinnamon	-	-	5,494	46,494
Grain	44,79,456		33,56,453		pepper	7,57,008		8,95,484	
Hides and goat skins, &c.	1,09,448		1,20,823		of sorts, mace and nutmegs	1,421		3,368	
Horns, buffalo and deer	98,328		47,177		Machinery	-	-	16,337	
Liquors and wines	71,279		77,741		Black lac	-	-	15,175	
Liquor, spirituous	10,244		39,563		Sugar	-	-	71,780	
Metals	8,00,471		8,29,240		Tin	23,015		16,197	
Naval stores, viz.:-	-	-	-	-	Timber, viz.:-	-	-	-	-
and plants	7,890		10,081		red wood	2,7,159		2,40,390	
oil, private account	1,35,783		1,29,074		Tobacco	-	-	80,549	
Oils	-	-	63,864		Turmeric	-	-	81,002	
Ferils and precious stones	27,307		44,183		Was and wax candles	-	-	46,012	
Finest goods, viz.:-	-	-	-	-	Other articles, Europe, &c.	7,29,904		4,89,063	
cotton	59,24,003		63,55,160			-	-	-	-
ells	9,130		18,598			-	-	-	-
Provisions, viz.:-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-
rice	1,29,540		2,29,518			-	-	-	-
beast and	19,403		10,019			-	-	-	-
cattle provisions	49,713		92,973			-	-	-	-
					Total	2,54,12,773		2,02,90,611	

III. Account of the Trade of Madras with Foreign Countries in 1838-40, specifying the Value of the Imports and Exports from each.

Countries.	Imports.			Exports.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
United Kingdom	Co.'s Rep. 85,30,090	Co.'s Rep. 5,44,718	Co.'s Rep. 90,74,808	Co.'s Rep. 81,28,904	Co.'s Rep. 678	Co.'s Rep. 81,99,890
France	1,78,339	94,350	2,72,689	10,45,154	-	10,45,154
Madras and Tenoriff	3,849	-	3,849	-	-	-
America	14,483	-	14,483	28,515	-	28,515
Arabia	8,807	55,600	64,407	9,77,835	-	9,77,835
Bengal	11,40,518	5,60,870	17,01,388	5,76,010	38,31,906	44,08,016
Bombay	10,11,924	15,99,930	26,11,854	39,41,398	59,40,950	1,11,90,978
Cape of Good Hope	27,314	-	27,314	9,530	-	9,530
Ceylon	1,26,590	88,100	2,14,690	20,84,911	6,15,179	27,00,090
China	1,95,479	271	1,95,750	5,20,390	-	5,20,390
Eastward	4,32,847	12,000	4,44,847	4,49,195	4,000	4,53,195
French ports (Indian)	10,194	68,295	78,489	1,96,069	-	1,96,069
Goa	15,445	-	15,445	95,787	-	95,787
Gulph of Persia	8,218	-	8,218	-	-	-
Java	3,06,998	5,93,781	9,00,779	9,11,443	6,545	9,17,987
Malacca Straits	52,943	-	52,943	97,545	-	97,545
Maldiv Islands	75,113	12,000	87,113	71,098	-	71,098
Mauritius and Bourbon	170	-	170	310	-	310
New South Wales	14,47,550	5,348	14,52,898	2,11,070	6,51,064	8,62,134
Penang	5,14,149	-	5,14,149	7,140	-	7,140
Tranquebar	1,38,087	135	1,38,222	64,981	-	64,981
Travancore	-	-	-	10,184	-	10,184
West coast of Sumatra	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	1,04,78,998	83,54,500	1,38,31,598	1,99,98,901	1,03,07,710	2,02,90,611

IV. Summary of the external Commerce of Madras by Sea, in 1838-39, and 1839-40.

For the Year	Private Trade.			Company's Trade.			Grand Total.
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	
For the Year 1838-39.	Co.'s Rep. 1,01,77,445	Co.'s Rep. 1,89,59,754	Co.'s Rep. 2,91,37,199	Co.'s Rep. 2,40,101	Co.'s Rep. 6,52,691	Co.'s Rep. 8,92,792	Co.'s Rep. 1,45,26,998
Imports	1,89,59,754	13,66,839	2,03,26,593	13,089	48,74,461	49,87,550	5,26,15,778
Exports	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Co.'s rep.	8,90,66,206	50,95,244	9,41,61,450	2,85,790	55,36,661	3,41,15,451	3,99,41,701
For the Year 1839-40.	Co.'s Rep. 1,09,52,231	27,88,540	1,37,40,771	Co.'s Rep. 9,24,761	Co.'s Rep. 5,66,850	Co.'s Rep. 14,91,611	Co.'s Rep. 1,38,51,589
Imports	1,09,52,231	27,88,540	1,37,40,771	9,24,761	5,66,850	14,91,611	1,38,51,589
Exports	1,99,59,668	11,10,364	2,10,70,032	23,823	91,97,346	92,20,579	2,02,90,611
Total Co.'s rep.	3,02,11,899	38,98,704	3,41,10,603	2,47,994	67,59,596	1,00,11,590	4,41,92,181

General Rates of Agency and Commission, as revised by the Chamber of Commerce, and recommended for general approval and adoption. — 1st June, 1845.

- On the total sum of a debit or credit side of account at the option of the agent, excepting items on which a commission of 5 per cent. is chargeable, 1 per cent.
 - On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.
 - On subscriptions to government-loans, purchasing, selling, transferring or exchanging public securities and bank shares, 4 per cent.
 - On delivering up public securities, or lodging them in any of the public offices, 1 per cent.
 - On receiving and delivering private commissions of wines, cattle, and merchandise, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On collecting rents, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On purchase of lottery tickets, and amount of prizes, 1 per cent.
 - On the sale of lottery tickets from other settlements, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On letters of credit granted against pay and allowances to be drawn monthly, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On executorship or administration to estates of deceased persons, 3 per cent.
 - On the management of estates for executors or administrators, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On becoming security for administrators, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On debts when a process of law or arbitration is necessary, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - And if received by such means, 5 per cent.
 - On bills of exchange, notes, &c. dishonoured, 1 per cent.
 - On overdue debts collected, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On becoming security for individuals to government or others, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On all sales or purchases of goods, 5 per cent.
- With the following exceptions:—
- On houses, lands, and ships, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On diamonds, pearls, and jewellery, 2 1/2 per cent.
 - On treasure and bullion, 1 per cent.
 - On all goods and merchandise withdrawn, shipped, or delivered to order, half commission.
 - On all other descriptions of property for sale, if withdrawn or otherwise disposed of by the owners, half commission.
 - On goods transferred to auction or commission sale, half commission.

- 13. On invoicing proceeds of sales in goods, 2½ per cent.
- 14. On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, contracts for goods, or other engagements, ½ per cent.
- 15. On ship's disbursements, ½ per cent.
- 16. On chartering ships or engaging tonnage for other parties, 2 per cent.
- 17. On consigning to the agents of owners or commanders of ships for freight as passengers, on the amount of freight or passage money, by charter or otherwise, whether the cargo shall pass through the agents' hands or not, 5 per cent.

- 18. On effecting insurances, or writing orders for insurance, whether on lives or property, 4 per cent.
- 19. On settling losses, partial or general, and returns of premiums, 5 per cent.
- 20. On promoting money on respondents, whenever payable, 2 per cent.
- 21. On giving orders for the provision of goods where a commission is not chargeable on sale or shipment, ½ per cent.
- 22. On attending the delivery of contract goods, 2 per cent.
- 23. On receiving freight of goods, and making no way of troops by ships entered inwards, ¼ per cent.

Rates of Godown Rent per Month.

	Rs.	s.
Rates of godown cloth of 20 pieces, per bale	0	8
Screen cloths of cotton, of 200 lbs., per bale	0	8
Canvas burlap of do., of 500 lbs., per bundle	0	4
Boxes of javaltee and raw silk, per bale	1	0
Boxes of opium, per chest	0	8
of Indian, per chest	0	8
of China, of 15 dozens, per chest	0	8
Pipes of wine, punchbottles and bottles, each per pipe	0	1
Keys of wine and sugar, per bag	0	1
of saltstons, per bag	0	1
Merch, per ton	0	4

Other articles in proportion to the above.
 (Investment Bank.—Rate of Interest on Loans.
 Rates of interest on loans for a special period (not exceeding 12 months) on mortgage of government paper, 5 per cent.
 On cash accounts money on quarterly deposit of government paper on all payments, 6 per cent.
 On all receipts, 2 per cent.
 Loans can be advanced on loan on cash accounts, 3,500 rupees.

Rate of Discount.

On private bills, 5 per cent.
 On government bills, 4 per cent.
 (No bills discounted that have a longer period to run than 3 months.)
 To open an account, the sum required to be transmitted is 100.
 The lowest sum received, after opening an account, is 100.
 Do. paid on a cheque, is 55.
 N.B.—The above are now monies carried to account after half past 3 p.m.
 The bank is entirely a government concern, the directors consisting of the superior officers of government) and the ministerial officers are on fixed salaries. The bank issues notes, receivable on all bills at the public treasury, within the town of Madras; it receives deposits and grants discounts. In 1848, however, a joint stock company called the Bank of Madras with a capital of 2,00,000 (Rs.) was established for the transacting of banking business on more liberal terms.

TABLE OF PORT CHARGES AT MADRAS.

Dred Hrs.	B. Roads.		N. Roads.	
	Rs.	s.	Rs.	s.
Ordinary trip	1	3	0	12
1 hr. do. for an accommodation boat	4	0	4	0
Transhipment	0	14	0	12
1 hr. do. for an accommodation boat	3	0	3	0
Deep	1	8	1	8
1 hr. do.	3	0	3	0
Return trip	0	10	0	6
Head winds, ordinary trip	1	8	1	8
— for an accommodation boat	6	0	6	0
— transhipment	1	3	1	8
— jolly-boat do.	3	0	3	0
— return ships	1	3	0	12

Anchorage Dues.				
British ships, and ships under foreign, management, or American colours	25	0	0	0
Country ships, from 50 to 500 tons	25	0	0	0
— 500 — 900	25	0	0	0
— 900 — 1100	17	0	0	0
— 1100 — 20	14	0	0	0
— 20 — 50	10	0	0	0
— 50 — 100	0	0	12	0
— 100 — 200	0	0	17	0
— 200 — 1000	0	0	14	0

B. Roads.		N. Roads.	
Rs.	s.	Rs.	s.
Native craft, from 100 to 20 tons.	0	0	0
— 20 — 50	0	0	0
— 50 — 100	0	0	0

Light-house Dues.	
Rs.	s.
All British and foreign ships, on anchoring	14
Country ships	14
Steam, brig, ketch, and schooner	7
Ship and cutter	5
Large dhonies	5
Small dhonies	3

Cottamaraan Dues.	
Rs.	s.
Small cottamarans, to all ships, on anchoring	1
— snow, brig, and ketch, do.	0
— sloop and cutter, do.	0
— dhonies and large boats	0
— carrying letters to ships	0
— carrying provisions or parcels	1

Large cottamarans, for landing or shipping a European cable of 15 to 16 inches	
Rs.	s.
— for do. do. 17 to 22 inches	18
— for do. do. 23 to 28 inches	26
— for do. do. 29 to 34 inches	34
— for do. do. 35 to 40 inches	42

The foregoing statements sufficiently exhibit the commercial importance of Madras. The limited extent of its trade, as compared with that of Calcutta and Bombay, is partly ascribable to the badness of its port or roadstead, the want of any navigable river or other easy means of communication with the interior, and the backward state of the provinces of which it is the capital, in consequence of the heavy and fluctuating land tax to which they are subject. In 1839-40, there arrived at Madras no fewer than 3,456 vessels (including their repeated voyages) of the aggregate burden of 359,465 tons. But by far the greater number of these were of very small burden; 2,532 being country craft from Bombay, 633 from Ceylon, and 285 from Goa. In the course of the same year 21 vessels arrived from the U. Kingdom. — (Hamilton's East Indian Gazetteer; Geog. Dict. art. Madras; Madras Almanack for 1839, 1840, and 1841; Official Returns of the Trade of Madras, &c.)

MAGNESIA. (Fr. *Magnésie*; Ger. *Gebrauntes Magnesia*; R. *Magnesia*), one of the primitive earths, having a metallic basis. It is not found native in a state of purity, but is easily prepared. It is inodorous and insipid, in the form of a very light, white, soft powder, having a specific gravity of 2.3. It turns to green the more delicate vegetable blues, is infusible, and requires for its solution 2,000 parts of water at 60°.

MAHOGANY, the wood of a tree (*Swietenia Mahogany*) growing in the West Indies and Central America. There are two other species of *Swietenia* found in the East Indies, but they are not much known in this country.

Mahogany is one of the most majestic and beautiful of trees: its trunk is often 40 feet in length, and 6 feet in diameter; and it divides into so many many arms, and throws the shade of its shining green leaves over so vast an extent of surface, that few more magnificent objects are to be met with in the vegetable world. It is abundant in Cuba and Hayti, and it used to be plentiful in Jamaica; but in the latter island, most of the larger trees, at least in accessible situations, have been cut down. The principal importations into Great Britain are made from Honduras and Campeachy. That which is imported from the islands is called Spanish mahogany; it is not so large as that from Honduras, being generally in logs from 30 to 36 inches square and 10 feet long, while the latter is usually from 3 to 4 feet square and 12 or 14 feet long; but some logs are much larger. Mahogany is a very beautiful and valuable species of wood; its colour is a red brown, of different shades, and various degrees of brightness; sometimes yellowish brown; often very much veined and mottled, with darker shades of the same colour. The texture is uniform, and the annual rings not very distinct. It has no larger septa; but the smaller septa are often very visible, with pores between them, which in the Honduras wood are generally empty, but in the Spanish wood are mostly filled with a whitish substance. It has neither taste nor smell, shrinks very little, and warps or twists less than any other species of timber. It is very durable when kept dry, but does not last long when exposed to the weather. It is not attacked by worms. Like the pine tribe, the

timber is best on dry rocky soils, or in exposed situations. That which is most accessible at Honduras grows upon moist low land, and is, generally speaking, decidedly inferior to that brought from Cuba and Haiti; being soft, coarse, and spongy; while the other is close grained and hard, of a darker colour, and sometimes strongly figured. Honduras mahogany has, however, the advantage of holding glue admirably well; and is, for this reason, frequently used as a ground on which to lay veneers of the finer sorts. The best qualities of mahogany bring a very high price. Not long since, Messrs. Broadwood, the distinguished pianoforte manufacturers, gave the enormous sum of £2000 for three logs of mahogany! These logs, the produce of a single tree, were each about 18 feet long, and 38 inches square; they were cut into veneers of 8 to an inch. The wood was particularly beautiful, capable of receiving the highest polish; and when polished, reflecting the light in the most varied manner, like the surface of a crystal; and, from the wavy form of the pores, offering a different figure in whatever direction it was viewed. Dealers in mahogany generally introduce an amber before buying a log; but, notwithstanding, they are seldom able to decide upon the quality of the wood, so that there is a good deal of lottery in the trade. The logs for which Messrs. Broadwood gave so high a price were brought to this country with a full knowledge of their superior worth. Mahogany was used in repairing some of Sir Walter Raleigh's ships at Trinidad, in 1667; but it was not introduced into use in England till 1726.

The cutting of mahogany at Honduras takes place at two different seasons; after Christmas, and towards midsummer. The negroes employed in felling the trees are divided into groups of from 10 to 100. The trees are cut about 12 feet from the ground, and are floated down the rivers.

Of 23,115 tons of mahogany imported in 1840, 17,000 came from the British West Indies (including Honduras), and 4,812 from Hayti. The duty on foreign mahogany used to be 7*l.* 10*s.* a ton, on Honduras, 1*l.* 10*s.*, and on Jamaica mahogany, 4*s.*; the effect of such a duty being to force the consumption of the inferior in preference to the superior article. Luckily, however, the duty on foreign mahogany was reduced in 1843 to 2*s.*, and that on Honduras mahogany to 1*s.* a ton.—(See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, p. 204. *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, volume on *Timber Trees and Fruits*; and *Edwards's West Indies*, vol. iv. p. 256. ed. 1819, &c.)

Mahogany from Honduras, imported into any free warehousing port in the British possessions in the West Indies or America, in a ship cleared out from Ballis, and then warehoused, may have been so imported and cleared, may be exported from the warehouse and imported into the U. Kingdom, as if it had been imported direct in a British ship, provided it be stated in the ship's clearance that the mahogany had been so warehoused and exported.—(9 *Geo.* 4. c. 76. § 13.)

Mahogany not to be entered as being the produce of any British possession, unless the master of the ship importing the same deliver to the collector or comptroller a *certificate*, and declare that the goods are the produce of such place.—(See *act*, p. 673.)

MAIZE, or INDIAN CORN (Fr. *Bled de Turquie*; Ger. *Türkisch horn, Maiss*; It. *Grano Turco o Siciliano*; Sp. *Trigo de Indias, Trigo de Turquia*), one of the cereal grasses (*Zea Mays*), supposed to be indigenous to South America, being the only species of corn cultivated in the New World previously to its discovery. It was introduced into the Continent about the beginning, and into England a little after the middle, of the 16th century. Its culture has spread with astonishing rapidity; being now extensively grown in most Asiatic countries, and in all the southern parts of Europe. It has the widest geographical range of all the cerealia, growing luxuriantly at the equator, and as far as the 50th degree of north, and the 40th of south latitude. It has been raised in England, in nursery gardens near the metropolis, for more than a century; and recently it has been attempted to raise it in the fields, but with indifferent success. Like other plants that have been long in cultivation, it has an immense number of varieties. The ear consists of about 600 grains, set close together in rows, to the number of 8, 10, or 12. The grains are usually yellow; but they are sometimes red, bluish, greenish, or olive-coloured, and sometimes striped and variegated. The maize of Virginia is tall and robust, growing 7 or 8 feet high; that of New England is shorter and lower; and the Indians further up the country have a still smaller sort in common use. The stalk is jointed like the sugar cane. The straw makes excellent fodder; and the grain, as a bread corn, is liked by some; but though it abounds in mucilage, it contains little or no gluten, and is not likely to be much used by those who can procure wheat or even rye bread.—(*London's Encyclopædia of Agriculture*, &c.) For the imports of maize, duties, &c., see **CORN LAWS and CORN TRADE.**

MALAGA, a city and sea-port of Spain, in the kingdom of Granada, in lat. 36° 43½' N., lon. 4° 25' 7" W. Population, perhaps, 65,000.

Harbour.—Malaga has an excellent harbour. It is protected on its eastern side by a fine mole, full 700 yards in length. At its extremity a light-house has been constructed, furnished with a powerful light, revolving once every minute. At a distance it appears obscured for 45 seconds, when a brilliant flash succeeds for the other 15 seconds. A shoal has grown up round the mole head, and the depth of water throughout the harbour is said to be diminishing. Latterly, however, a dredging machine has been employed to deepen it, by clearing out the mud and accumulating sand. The depth of water, at the entrance to the harbour and within the mole, is from 26 to 30 feet; and close to the city, from 8 to 10 feet. The harbour could easily accommodate more than 450 merchant ships; it may be entered with all winds, and affords perfect shelter.

Trade, &c.—Owing to the want of official returns, and to the prevalence of smuggling, which may be said to have annihilated all fair trade, it is not possible to obtain any accurate accounts of the trade of Malaga, or, indeed, of any Spanish port. The great articles of export are wine and fruits, particularly raisins and almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; there is also a considerable exportation of olive oil, with quantities of brandy, anohovics, cummin seed, aniseed, barilla, soap, &c. The lead exported from Malaga is brought from Adra.—(See *Lxap.*) The imports are salt fish, iron hoops, bar iron, and nails; cotton stuffs, hides, earthenware, &c., with dye stuffs, all sorts of colonial produce, butter and cheese from Holland and Ireland, linens from Germany, &c. The trade with England seems to be diminishing, and that with the United States to be increasing. This is a consequence, no doubt, of Malaga wine being very little in demand in the

former, while it is pretty largely consumed in the latter. The Americans are also the largest consumers of Malaga fruit.

The following details, abstracted from Mr. Inglis's valuable work, entitled "Spain in 1830," contain the fullest and best account we have met with of the trade of Malaga. Their authenticity may, we believe, be depended upon.

"*Wine.*—The wines of Malaga are of two sorts, sweet and dry; and of the former of these there are four kinds: first, the common 'Malaga,' known and exported under that name. In this there is a certain proportion of boiled wine, which is allowed to burn, and which communicates a slightly burnt taste to the 'Malaga.' The grape from which this wine is made is a white grape, and every pipe of 'Malaga' contains no less than *eleven* gallons of brandy. Secondly, 'Mountain.' This wine is made from the same grape as the other, and, like it, contains colouring matter and brandy; the only difference is that, for 'Mountain,' the grape is allowed to become riper. Thirdly, 'Lagrima,' the richest and finest of the sweet wines of Malaga; the name of which almost explains the manner in which it is made. It is the droppings of the ripe grape hung up, and is obtained without the application of pressure.

"The dry wine of Malaga is produced from the same grape as the sweet wine, but pressed when greener; in this wine there is a eighth part more of brandy than in the sweet wine; no less than 1-12th part of the dry Malaga being brandy.

"The whole produce of the Malaga vineyards is estimated at from 35,000 to 40,000 pipes; but owing to the increasing stock of old wine in the cellars, it is impossible to be precise in this calculation. The export of all sorts of Malaga wine may be stated at about 27,000 pipes. The principal market is the U. States and S. America; and to these the export is upon the increase. The average price of the wines shipped from Malaga does not exceed 35 dollars per pipe; but wines are occasionally exported at the price of 170 dollars. Many attempts have been made at Malaga to produce sherry, but not with perfect success. The sherry grape has been reared at Malaga upon a soil very similar to that of Xeres; but the merchants of Malaga have not ventured to enter the wine for export. One reason of the very low price of the wines of Malaga is to be found in the cheapness of labour; field labour is only 2½ reals a day (4d.). In the fruit and vintage time it is about double.

"*Fruit.*—Next to its wines, the chief export of Malaga is fruit, consisting of raisins, almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; but of these, raisins are principally exported. I have before me a note of the exports of Malaga for the months of September and October, 1830,—the chief, though not the sole, exporting months.—and I find that during that time the export of raisins amounted to 268,845 boxes, and 31,916 smaller packages. Of this quantity, 125,304 boxes were entered for the U. States; 45,913 for England; the remaining quantity being for France, the West Indies, the Spanish ports, S. America, and Holland.

"The raisins exported from Malaga are of three kinds, *muscatel*, *bloom* or *sun raisin*, and *lexia*. The muscatel is the finest raisin in the world. In its preparation no art is used; the grape is merely placed in the sun, and frequently turned. The bloom or sun raisin is a different grape from the muscatel; but its preparation is the same. The lexias acquire this name from the liquor, or ley, in which they are dipped, and which is composed of water, ashes, and oil; these, after being dipped, are also dried in the sun. All muscatel raisins are exported in boxes, and also a part of the bloom raisins. In 1829, the exports of muscatel and bloom raisins were 325,000 boxes of 25 lbs. each; in all, 8,125,000 lbs. This quantity is independent of the export of bloom raisins in casks, and of lexias; the latter amounting to about 30,000 arrobas. The export of raisins to England has fallen off, while that to America has considerably increased. In 1824, 75 ships cleared from Malaga, for England, with fruit; in 1830, down to the 1st of November, 34 vessels had cleared out.

"Of the other fruits raised near Malaga, grapes, almonds, and lemons are the most extensively exported. In the months of September and October, 1830, 11,612 jars of grapes were shipped for England; 6,429 for America; and 1,650 for Russia. During the same months, 5,335 arrobas of almonds (133,375 lbs.) were shipped for England, this being nearly the whole export; there were also exported, during the same period, 3,749 boxes of lemons for England; 4,301 ditto for Germany; and 840 ditto for Russia.

"*Oil.*—There is also a large export of oil from Malaga; but the exportation, during the latter part of 1830, would be no criterion of the average; because, the Greenland whale fishery having failed, extensive orders had been received from England.

"*Shipping.*—The trade between England and Malaga is on the decline: that with both the Americas is increasing, especially in wine. The number of British vessels entered at the port of Malaga, in 1827, I find from an official note furnished by the British consul to have been 104; in 1828, 126; in 1829, 105; and in 1830, to the 1st of November, 83, exclusive of small Gibraltar vessels. The number of American vessels entering in 1829, was 55; but the average burden of the Americans being 175 tons, and that of the English vessels not exceeding 100, the whole American is nearly equal to the whole English trade." (Vol. II. pp. 190—195.)

"*Money.*—Accounts are kept in reals of 34 maravedis vellon.—(For the coins, and their value, used at Malaga, see CADIZ.)

"*Weights and Measures.*—The weights are the same as those of Cadiz. The arroba, or cantara=4·19 English wine gallons; the regular pipe of Malaga wine contains 35 arrobas, but is reckoned only at 34; a bota of Pedro Ximenes wine=5½ arrobas; a bota of oil is 43, and a pipe 25 arrobas; the latter weighs about 850 lbs. avoirdupois: a carga of raisins is 2 baskets, or 7 arrobas; a cask contains as much, though only called 4 arrobas: as a last for freight are reckoned—4 botas or 5 pipes of wine or oil; 4 bates of orange peel; 5 pipes of Pedro Ximenes wine or oil; 10 casks of almonds (each about 260 lbs. English); 20 chests of lemons and oranges; 22 casks of almonds (of 8 arrobas each); 44 casks of raisins (of 4 arrobas each); 88 half casks of raisins; 50 baskets or 160 jars of raisins.

"*Port Charges.*—The port and harbour dues amount, on an English vessel of 300 tons, to about 217, on a Spanish vessel, of the same burden, they would be about 117. 10s.

"*Warehousing.*—Goods may be warehoused for 12 months, paying 2 per cent. *ad valorem* in lieu of all charges; but, at the end of the year, they must be either entered for consumption or reshipped. The 2 per cent. is charged, whether they lie a day or the whole year.

"There is an excellent account of Malaga in *Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. III. pp. 10—42.

MALMSLEY. See WINE.

MALT (Ger. *Maly*; Du. *Mout*; Fr. *Mal*, *Blégermé*; It. *Malto*; Sp. *Cebada retanada* ó *entalceda*; Rus. *Solod*; Lat. *Maltum*). The term malt is applied to designate grain which, being steeped in water, is made to germinate to a certain extent, after which the process is checked by the application of heat. This evolves the saccharine principle of the grain, which is the essence of malt. The process followed in the manufacture is very simple. Few changes have been made in it; and it is carried on at this moment very much in the same manner that it was carried on by our ancestors centuries ago. Rice, and almost every species of grain, has been used in malting; but in Europe, and especially in England, malt is prepared almost wholly from barley. It

is the principal ingredient in the manufacture of beer, and is little used except in brewing and the distillation of spirits.

Duties on, and Consumption of, Malt. Influence of the Reduction of the Duty and the Opening of the Trade.—Owing to malt liquor having early become the favourite beverage of the people of England, the manufacture of malt has been carried on amongst us, for a lengthened period, on a very large scale. Instead, however, of increasing with the increasing wealth and population of the country, it was nearly stationary for the hundred years ending with 1816. In proof of this we may mention that the quantity of malt that paid duty in England and Wales, at an average of the 12 years ending with 1720, was 24,191,904 bushels a year; whereas the annual average quantity that paid duty during the 12 years ending with 1816, was only 23,197,754 bushels! This apparently anomalous result is probably in some measure to be accounted for by the increased consumption of tea and coffee, which are now in almost universal use; but there cannot be a question that it is mainly owing to the exorbitant duties with which malt, and the ale or beer manufactured from it, have been loaded, and to the oppressive regulations imposed on the manufacture of malt and the sale of beer. The effect of these duties and regulations was to impose a tax of about 7s. on the malt and beer made from a bushel of barley; which, taking the average price of barley at from 4s. to 5s. a bushel, was equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of from 140 to 175 per cent.! The exorbitancy of the duty was not, however, its most objectionable feature. It was about equally divided—one half being assessed directly on malt, and the other on beer: but the beer duty affected only beer brewed by public brewers, or for sale, and did not affect that which was brewed for private use; and as rich families brewed all the beer they made use of, the consequence of this distinction was, that the beer duty fell wholly on the lower and middle classes, who did not brew any beer; or, in other words, the poor man was compelled to pay twice the duty on the malt he made use of that was paid by the rich man! That such a distinction should ever have been made, or submitted to for any considerable period, is certainly not a little astonishing. Originally, however, the distinction was not so great as it afterwards became; and being increased by slow degrees, the force of habit reconciled the parliament and the country to the gross inequality and oppressiveness of the tax. But the public attention being at length forcibly attracted to the subject, and the effect of the exorbitant duties on malt and beer in increasing the consumption of ardent spirits having been clearly pointed out—(see *Edinburgh Review*, No. 98. art. 4.), the beer duty was repealed in 1830. This measure of substantial justice and sound policy reflects the greatest credit on the administration of the Duke of Wellington; which is also entitled to the public gratitude for having placed the licensing system on a fair footing, and established, for the first time, a free trade in beer.

The repeal of the duty has materially increased the consumption of malt; and the anticipations of those who contended that its abolition, if combined with a free trade in beer, would be no great loss to the revenue, are in a fair way of being realised. The clamour that was raised against the measure, on account of its supposed influence in increasing drunkenness, was, we firmly believe, wholly without foundation. If the measure increased, as it certainly did, the consumption of beer, the probability is that it would, at the same time, equally diminish the consumption of gin; and it is surely superfluous to add, that this is a most beneficial change. It is true that a number of new public houses were opened for the sale of beer; but it has not hitherto been proved that this circumstance, though it occasioned no common alarm among the clergy and magistrates in different parts of the country, was productive of any public inconvenience. Like all newly opened lines of business, the trade of beer selling was overdone; and a considerable number of beer shops have since been shut up. "It is not," as Dr. Smith sagaciously remarked, "the multiplication of alehouses that occasions a general disposition to drunkenness among the common people; but that disposition, arising from other causes, necessarily gives employment to a multitude of alehouses."—(*Wealth of Nations*, p. 161.) The way to eradicate this disposition is by giving a better education to the poor, and inspiring them with a taste for less grovelling enjoyments. All that the fiscal regulations and police enactments intended to promote sobriety have ever done, is to make bad worse, to irritate and disgust, to make the lower classes more enamoured of that which they conceive is unjustly withheld from them, and to stimulate them to elude and defeat the law.

The duty on malt was first imposed in England in 1697, and in Scotland in 1713; but it was not introduced into Ireland till 1785. The following tables exhibit the progress of the consumption and of the duties directly falling on malt from a remote period. But the principal consumption of malt being in beer, the duties on the latter were, in fact, duties on malt; and must always be taken into account in forming anything like a correct estimate of the influence of the latter. Ample information as to the duties on beer will be found in the art. *ALE AND BEER*.

Prices of Malt, per Winchester Quarter, at Greenwich Hospital, from 1730 to 1842.

Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.
1730	90s. 6d.	1800	84s.	1873	59s. 11d.
1740	87s. 6d.	1805	85s. 7d.	1884	62s. 11d.
1750	84s.	1810	84s. 5d.	1825	71s. 10d.
1760	84s. 6d.	1815	84s. 5d.	1830	66s. 11d.
1770	84s. 3d.	1820	86s. 5d.	1835	61s. 4d.
1780	81s. 1d.	1821	81s. 11d.	1840	69s. 4d.
1790	85s. 6d.	1822	85s. 6d.	1842	61s. 7d.

Account of the Quantities of Malt charged with Duty in England and Wales, of the Revenue received thereon, and of the Rates of Duty, in each Year, from 1702.

Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.	Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.
1702	18,166,778	315,907 5 0	6 1/2 d.	1775	24,967,360	1,171,026 8 2	9 1/2 d.
1703	26,754,505	691,677 4 11	2 1/2	1776	25,356,298	1,084,556 8 5	4 1/2
1704	19,785,918	512,755 4 4	2 1/2	1777	25,814,436	1,001,050 9 3	3 1/2
1705	27,120,989	709,357 11 1	2 1/2	1778	26,518,736	1,027,990 9 1	3 1/2
1706	25,099,534	699,477 3 7	2 1/2	1779	26,275,403	1,029,063 1 0	3 1/2
1707	25,099,455	694,846 15 3	2 1/2	1780	26,805,100	1,254,454 14 6	4 1/2
1708	25,205,068	699,871 5 0	2 1/2	1781	26,718,046	1,311,556 7 4	4 1/2
1709	20,473,355	527,355 19 19	2 1/2	1782	27,559,116	1,216,106 11 10	4 1/2
1710	19,671,071	512,755 4 4	2 1/2	1783	16,712,114	1,138,782 10 6	6 1/2
1711	22,465,136	578,839 19 10	2 1/2	1784	26,796,105	1,243,353 19 2	4 1/2
1712	22,513,483	580,188 16 7	2 1/2	1785	26,808,430	1,263,917 8 8	4 1/2
1713	23,040,639	620,814 4 4	2 1/2	1786	25,074,334	1,495,546 2 3	5 1/2
1714	20,619,767	580,721 7 0	2 1/2	1787	26,659,578	1,789,780 3 9	6 1/2
1715	24,472,610	635,330 18 6	2 1/2	1788	26,509,692	1,691,463 15 6	6 1/2
1716	26,645,112	691,393 14 4	2 1/2	1789	26,509,692	1,691,463 15 6	6 1/2
1717	26,859,986	748,283 19 6	2 1/2	1790	21,976,658	1,487,770 6 0	6 1/2
1718	26,868,157	827,166 1 3	3 1/2	1791	27,070,559	2,091,451 11 10	7 1/2
1719	26,828,697	732,585 7 8	2 1/2	1792	Stock in hand	46,716 18 0	1s. 4d. - 1s. 7d.
1720	25,625,844	665,627 1 9	2 1/2	1793	27,759,168	2,142,050 12 10	7 1/2
1721	26,597,391	741,901 10 0	2 1/2	1794	25,707,765	1,694,717 8 0	6 1/2
1722	25,099,698	680,460 16 0	2 1/2	1795	24,815,541	1,702,292 7 8	6 1/2
1723	26,655,408	795,558 6 0	2 1/2	1796	25,600,922	1,808,619 5 8	7 1/2
1724	24,422,667	620,282 10 0	2 1/2	1797	27,222,273	1,840,818 5 9	6 1/2
1725	27,565,122	707,467 12 3	2 1/2	1798	26,979,110	1,929,549 7 11	7 1/2
1726	27,016,303	700,973 19 1	2 1/2	1799	26,143,434	1,668,619 5 8	6 1/2
1727	25,401,578	654,457 12 8	2 1/2	1800	26,805,222	1,683,701 14 0	6 1/2
1728	26,951,269	697,447 14 8	2 1/2	1801	14,019,749	890,296 18 5	6 1/2
1729	25,036,216	644,523 11 0	2 1/2	1802	18,045,767	1,212,513 7 7	6 1/2
1730	26,410,421	732,585 7 8	2 1/2	1803	22,432,584	1,172,406 16 0	5 1/2
1731	25,833,540	670,180 4 3	2 1/2	1804	Stock in hand	466,533 8 7	1s. 4d. - 2s. 5d.
1732	26,980,568	699,581 8 7	2 1/2	1805	22,502,028	1,268,668 11 4	5 1/2
1733	26,725,160	778,126 7 9	2 1/2	1806	21,893,111	1,458,036 9 4	6 1/2
1734	27,087,437	702,921 15 0	2 1/2	1807	Stock in hand	914,306 0 0	4s. 6d.
1735	25,494,686	661,459 17 8	2 1/2	1808	21,665,934	1,212,513 7 7	5 1/2
1736	25,491,612	618,911 11 8	2 1/2	1809	26,634,425	1,555,718 0 0	5 1/2
1737	24,491,266	635,878 9 2	2 1/2	1810	24,156,845	1,597,655 8 4	6 1/2
1738	26,145,113	677,466 0 4	2 1/2	1811	21,746,412	1,468,068 11 0	6 1/2
1739	26,126,197	698,782 2 8	2 1/2	1812	21,809,981	1,493,771 7 8	6 1/2
1740	27,074,674	373,059 9 7	1 1/2	1813	23,546,516	1,661,566 12 0	7 1/2
1741	20,141,254	585,189 8 4	2 1/2	1814	23,298,749	1,609,213 8 0	6 1/2
1742	25,979,349	671,011 6 3	2 1/2	1815	18,099,465	1,048,716 16 4	5 1/2
1743	26,298,391	641,740 7 11	2 1/2	1816	21,701,556	1,412,513 7 7	6 1/2
1744	21,776,749	624,543 15 0	2 1/2	1817	25,200,615	1,657,948 8 4	6 1/2
1745	24,017,069	645,398 12 8	2 1/2	1818	26,216,795	1,665,606 18 8	6 1/2
1746	25,255,350	621,046 17 10	2 1/2	1819	21,108,118	1,412,513 7 7	6 1/2
1747	21,880,567	604,531 4 9	2 1/2	1820	20,855,566	1,509,817 18 4	7 1/2
1748	26,422,650	684,635 10 8	2 1/2	1821	24,629,838	1,664,074 12 10	6 1/2
1749	24,966,250	646,946 18 8	2 1/2	1822	26,612,490	1,868,884 2 8	7 1/2
1750	26,954,796	746,368 16 1	2 1/2	1823	26,512,490	1,491,263 6 8	5 1/2
1751	26,991,400	609,318 11 5	2 1/2	1824	26,984,222	1,431,446 8 1	5s. 7d.
1752	24,200,056	689,314 13 7	2 1/2	1825	26,139,457	1,478,260 10 0	5 1/2
1753	25,440,816	644,430 18 1	2 1/2	1826	26,598,215	1,624,348 8 0	6 1/2
1754	27,347,890	708,450 4 10	2 1/2	1827	24,845,132	1,505,502 17 8	6 1/2
1755	27,916,402	724,732 2 8	2 1/2	1828	27,615,383	1,560,665 0 0	5 1/2
1756	24,181,294	694,531 4 9	2 1/2	1829	26,578,741	1,513,078 7 6	5 1/2
1757	17,640,986	457,719 16 8	2 1/2	1830	27,355,971	1,530,935 10 6	5 1/2
1758	25,247,814	648,175 14 6	2 1/2	1831	26,086,837	1,541,610 3 11	5 1/2
1759	26,980,364	747,138 13 7	2 1/2	1832	26,017,419	1,591,884 19 1	6 1/2
1760	27,610,571	999,618 11 11	6 1/2 d. - 3s. 1d.	1833	25,446,150	1,576,133 19 0	6 1/2
1761	24,928,960	1,125,010 17 8	4 1/2	1834	26,000,409	1,574,609 18 0	6 1/2
1762	25,531,676	1,007,821 18 11	4 1/2	1835	26,905,470	1,637,781 10 10	6 1/2
1763	19,537,818	760,298 16 4	3 1/2	1836	21,666,771	1,090,676 15 1	5 1/2
1764	26,231,702	1,025,554 9 0	3 1/2	1837	23,709,010	1,460,613 10 10	6 1/2
1765	25,681,098	996,236 19 3	3 1/2	1838	24,449,648	1,446,745 0 0	6 1/2
1766	20,225,676	810,544 16 10	4 1/2	1839	26,079,858	1,660,185 0 0	6 1/2
1767	21,024,198	851,748 3 10	4 1/2	1840	27,196,998	1,800,621 0 0	6 1/2
1768	21,812,036	1,034,186 0 10	4 1/2	1841	26,693,556	1,851,399 6 3	6 1/2
1769	26,246,082	1,031,799 11 2	4 1/2	1842	25,523,063	1,268,931 8 8	5 1/2
1770	24,452,960	950,827 12 8	4 1/2	1843	23,285,016	1,369,183 14 0	5 1/2
1771	21,961,057	854,544 11 6	3 1/2	1844	26,633,442	1,841,229 18 0	6 1/2
1772	27,538,150	1,070,125 14 9	3 1/2	1845	26,956,304	1,491,460 18 4	5s. 2d. - 5s. 7d.
1773	21,167,090	853,715 9 10	4 1/2	1846	26,796,268	1,476,742 18 0	5 per cent.
1774	23,519,063	931,268 14 2	4 1/2				

Regulations as to the Manufacture of Malt.—These are embodied in the acts 7 & 8 vic. 4. c. 58. and 11 vic. 4. c. 17. The former act is exceedingly complex; it has no fewer than eighty-three clauses; and the regulations embodied in it, though frequently repugnant to common sense, are enforced by the penalties, amounting in all to the enormous sum of 15,000*l.* Under such a statute, it was hardly possible for the most honest and cautious maltster to avoid incurring penalties. Such, indeed, is the nature of this act, that one is almost tempted to believe in looking into it, that if its framers had any object more than another at heart, it was to condemn into it whatever was most contradictory and absurd in the *ferri* statutes that had previously been passed for the collection of the malt duty and the oppression of the trader! But it was not in the nature of things that such a law could be allowed to exist for any considerable period. It was not only loudly and universally condemned by the maltsters, but by all the more intelligent officers of excise; and, in consequence, the 11 vic. 4. c. 17. was passed. This latter statute is entitled to very considerable praise; it re-

presents a good many of the penalties, and some of the most vexatious and useless regulations, in the former; so that the business may now be carried on with equal security to the revenue, and the maltster with the fullest and most ample security on the part of the manufacturer. The existing regulations principally refer to the gauging of the cisterns, the wetting of the malt, the emptying of the cisterns, the gauging of the malt when in the couch frames, the payment of the duties, &c. But as no one would think of undertaking the business of maltster without having a copy of both acts in his possession, it would be quite unnecessary for us, even if our limits permitted, to give any abstract of the acts. The licence duty on maltsters, and the number of maltsters who took out licences in 1845, distributed into classes according to the extent of their business, will be found specified in the article LICENSING (Malt).

Malt may not be imported into the U. Kingdom for home use, under pain of forfeiture; it may be warehoused for exportation.—(6 Geo. 4. c. 107. s. 2.)

to 1842.

Prices.	
89s. 11d.	
87s. 1d.	
71s. 10½d.	
50s. 14d.	
61s. 4½d.	
82s. 4½d.	
61s. 7d.	

Revenue received

Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.
1	9½ d.
2	9½ d.
3	9½ d.
4	9½ d.
5	9½ d.
6	9½ d.
7	9½ d.
8	9½ d.
9	9½ d.
10	9½ d.
11	9½ d.
12	9½ d.
13	9½ d.
14	9½ d.
15	9½ d.
16	9½ d.
17	9½ d.
18	9½ d.
19	9½ d.
20	9½ d.
21	9½ d.
22	9½ d.
23	9½ d.
24	9½ d.
25	9½ d.
26	9½ d.
27	9½ d.
28	9½ d.
29	9½ d.
30	9½ d.
31	9½ d.
32	9½ d.
33	9½ d.
34	9½ d.
35	9½ d.
36	9½ d.
37	9½ d.
38	9½ d.
39	9½ d.
40	9½ d.
41	9½ d.
42	9½ d.
43	9½ d.
44	9½ d.
45	9½ d.
46	9½ d.
47	9½ d.
48	9½ d.
49	9½ d.
50	9½ d.
51	9½ d.
52	9½ d.
53	9½ d.
54	9½ d.
55	9½ d.
56	9½ d.
57	9½ d.
58	9½ d.
59	9½ d.
60	9½ d.
61	9½ d.
62	9½ d.
63	9½ d.
64	9½ d.
65	9½ d.
66	9½ d.
67	9½ d.
68	9½ d.
69	9½ d.
70	9½ d.
71	9½ d.
72	9½ d.
73	9½ d.
74	9½ d.
75	9½ d.
76	9½ d.
77	9½ d.
78	9½ d.
79	9½ d.
80	9½ d.
81	9½ d.
82	9½ d.
83	9½ d.
84	9½ d.
85	9½ d.
86	9½ d.
87	9½ d.
88	9½ d.
89	9½ d.
90	9½ d.
91	9½ d.
92	9½ d.
93	9½ d.
94	9½ d.
95	9½ d.
96	9½ d.
97	9½ d.
98	9½ d.
99	9½ d.
100	9½ d.

Account of the Quantities of Malt charged with Duty in Scotland, of the Revenue received thereon and of the Rates of Duty, in each Year, from 1793.

Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.	Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.
1793	1,715,381	88,184	5½ d.	1817	1,093,878	94,599	From Barley. 1s. 8½d. From Bigg. 1s. 8½d.
1794	1,675,741	86,983	5½ d.	1818	1,380,215	120,474	1s. 8½d.-2s. 7½d.
1795	1,699,916	87,410	5½ d.	1819	1,454,580	129,868	1s. 8½d.-2s. 7½d.
1796	1,803,023	90,829	5½ d.	1820	1,192,206	112,268	3s. 7½d.
1797	2,088,572	97,671	4½ d.	1821	1,500,659	231,860	3s. 7½d.-5s. 1d.
1798	1,934,299	85,560	4½ d.	1822	1,408,177	183,038	3s. 7½d.-2s. 7d.
1799	2,385,897	90,075	3½ d.	1823	1,615,290	198,608	2s. 7d.
1800	2,765,398	92,870	3½ d.	1824	2,788,608	330,503	2s. 7d.
1801	2,073,384	80,160	3½ d.	1825	2,928,847	468,144	2s. 7d.
1802	1,716,278	70,587	4½ d.	1826	2,726,535	235,374	2s. 7d.
1803	1,594,884	137,878	8½ d.	1827	2,714,073	330,489	2s. 7d.
1804	1,091,577	197,587	18s.	1828	2,667,159	478,208	2s. 7d.
1805	1,180,112	206,353	17s.	1829	2,712,263	437,888	2s. 7d.
1806	1,344,101	225,642	16s.	1830	4,101,946	505,621	12s.
1807	1,159,498	226,847	19s.	1831	4,188,253	515,979	12s.
1808	1,048,016	180,594	17s.	1832	4,188,253	468,096	12s.
1809	772,758	139,852	18s.	1833	4,204,038	530,558	12s.
1810	890,294	149,808	16s.	1834	4,491,829	533,267	12s.
1811	1,019,256	184,822	18s.	1835	4,459,553	551,096	12s.
1812	953,459	169,870	17s.	1836	4,008,187	511,119	12s.
1813	685,241	125,703	18s.	1837	4,583,043	576,518	12s.
1814	1,285,958	251,776	19s.	1838	4,419,141	557,913	12s.
1815	1,907,777	256,839	13s. 9½d. 3s. 1½d. 3s. 9½d. 1s. 8½d.	1839	4,360,363	508,107	12s. 7d.-2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
1816	1,162,284	164,743	13s. 9½d. 3s. 1½d. 3s. 9½d. 1s. 8½d.	1840	4,039,304	573,544	12s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
				1841	4,297,819	539,578	12s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
				1842	3,786,478	503,829	12s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.

Account of the Quantities of Malt charged with Duty in Ireland, of the Revenue received thereon, and of the Rates of Duty in each Year, from 1790.

Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.	Years.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Rate of Duty per Bushel.
1790	4,607,953	135,496	2½ d.	1813	3,664,466	482,685	3s. 3½d.-4s. 5d.
1791	4,713,500	140,228	2½ d.	1814	Stock in hand	129,233	4s. 5d.-2s. 4½d.
1792	4,675,835	137,692	2½ d.	1815	1,279,721	359,809	4s. 5d.-2s. 4½d.
1793	5,079,899	148,197	2½ d.	1816	1,385,486	164,771	4s. 5d.-2s. 4½d.
1794	4,975,586	146,316	2½ d.	1817	1,785,636	211,530	3s. 6½d.
1795	Stock in hand	17,672	1s. 2d.	1818	1,742,444	207,036	3s. 6½d.
1796	4,697,153	130,051	2½ d.	1819	1,738,571	219,694	3s. 6½d.
1797	Stock in hand	36,701	2½ d.	1820	Stock in hand	43,974	3s. 6½d.
1798	4,956,584	136,070	2½ d.	1821	1,949,215	247,494	3s. 6½d.
1799	4,072,989	128,558	1s. 5d.	1822	1,785,591	275,514	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1799	4,413,817	135,661	1s. 5d.	1823	1,702,585	217,902	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1799	Stock in hand	19,768	1s. 6½d.	1824	2,107,752	276,255	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1800	3,511,463	123,179	1s. 6½d.	1825	2,066,653	256,108	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1801	Stock in hand	12,226	1s. 6½d.	1826	2,406,453	310,808	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1801	81,540	25,090	3s. 6½d.	1827	1,803,091	234,899	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1801	1,030,175	79,769	2s. 6½d.-1s. 9½d.	1828	2,069,228	311,196	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1802	3,611,879	127,110	1s. 9½d.-2s. 0½d.	1829	2,014,079	259,894	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1803	3,556,762	128,584	1s. 9½d.-2s. 0½d.	1830	1,830,606	251,646	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1804	Stock in hand	31,183	1s. 9½d.-2s. 0½d.	1831	2,101,844	265,508	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1804	2,807,535	120,356	2s. 3½d.	1832	2,006,260	320,278	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1805	Stock in hand	88,696	2s. 3½d.	1833	1,994,843	345,987	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1805	2,765,827	117,228	2s. 3½d.-2s. 0½d.	1834	2,004,633	272,991	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1806	2,814,418	134,103	2s. 6½d.	1835	2,333,645	388,602	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1807	Stock in hand	24,220	2s. 6½d.	1836	2,207,633	365,537	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1807	2,372,225	109,891	2s. 6½d.	1837	2,275,547	386,470	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1808	2,297,758	101,019	2s. 6½d.	1838	2,269,440	384,954	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1809	2,938,617	126,991	2s. 6½d.	1839	1,744,250	216,503	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d.
1810	2,322,545	121,423	2s. 6½d.	1840	1,406,116	178,703	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
1811	2,681,848	141,793	2s. 6½d.-3s. 3½d.	1841	1,149,692	151,210	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
1812	2,206,206	121,117	3s. 3½d.	1842	1,269,656	168,009	3s. 6½d.-2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent. 2s. 7d. and 5 per cent.
1813	2,867,603	126,330	3s. 3½d.				
1814	2,156,175	82,813	3s. 3½d.				

MALTA, an island in the Mediterranean, belonging to the British, nearly opposite to the southern extremity of Sicily, from which it is about 54 miles distant.

Valetta, the capital, is situated on the north coast of the island, the light-house in the castle of St. Elmo being in lat. 35° 54' 6" N., lon. 14° 31' 10" E. Malta is about 20 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. The island of Gozo, about a fourth part of the size of Malta, lies to the north-west of the latter, at about 4 miles' distance; and in the strait between them is the small island of Cumino. In 1835, the resident population of Malta amounted to 100,154; and, including troops and strangers, the total population amounted to 106,578. The population of Gozo, at the same period, was 16,547. The total population of both islands making 123,125. The entire revenue collected in Malta amounts to about 100,000*l.* a year, of which about 23,000*l.* is derived from the rent of lands; the expenditure, exclusive of that incurred in England on account of the island, amounts to about 88,000*l.*

Valetta, the capital of the island, is defended by almost impregnable fortifications. "These," says Mr. Brydone, "are, indeed, most stupendous works. All the boasted catacombs of Rome and Naples are a trifle to the immense excavations that have been made in this little island. The ditches, of a vast size, are all cut out of the solid rock; these extend for a great many miles; and raise our astonishment to think that so small a state has ever been able to make them."—(*Tour through Sicily and Malta*, Letter 15.) Since the island came into our possession, the fortifications have been considerably improved; so that at present it is a place of very great strength.

ies, and some of the most in the summer so that the with equal security to the risk and annoyance on the existing regulations principles, the warring of the us, the gauging of the malt payment of the duties, &c. detaching the business of a both acts in his possession, us, even if our limits per- acts. The licence duty of maltsters who took out clauses according to the and specified in the article the U. Kingdom for home it may be warehoused for 5s.)

After the capture of Rhodes by the Turks, the Emperor Charles V. made a present of Malta to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in whose possession it remained till 1798, when it was taken by the French. It was taken from the latter by the English in 1800; and was definitively ceded to us in 1814.

The island consists mostly of a rock, very thinly covered with soil, a good deal of which has been brought, at an immense expense, from Sicily; but being cultivated with the utmost care, it produces excellent fruits, particularly the celebrated Maltese oranges, corn, cotton, with small quantities of indigo, saffron, and sugar. The principal dependence of the inhabitants is on their cotton; the crop of which, amounting to about 4,000,000 lbs. a year, is partly exported raw, and partly manufactured to the value of from 80,000*l.* to 100,000*l.* The corn raised in the island is not sufficient to feed the inhabitants for more than 5 or 6 months. The trade in corn used to be monopolised by government; and after the monopoly was abandoned, duties on importation, varying, like those in this country, with the price, were imposed. But in 1835, these duties were abolished; and the fixed duties on corn entered for consumption, specified in the subjoined tariff, were substituted in their stead.

Malta presents unusual facilities, which have not hitherto been taken proper advantage of, for becoming the entrepôt of the corn trade of the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Her warehouses for corn are, like those of Sicily and Barbary, excavated in the rock; and are, perhaps, the best fitted of any in Europe for the safe keeping of corn. The wheat lodged in them may be preserved for an indefinite period; and it is affirmed that though it should, on being deposited, be affected by the weevil, it is very soon freed from that destructive insect. It is not often that corn can be brought direct from Odessa, Taganrog, &c. to England, without the risk of being damaged; but were it brought in the first instance to Malta, and bonded there, it might afterwards be conveyed in the best order to London, or any where else. Malta is also admirably well suited for becoming the centre of the corn trade of Egypt, Barbary, Italy, &c.

During the late war, particularly during the period when Napoleon's anti-commercial system was in operation, Malta became a great entrepôt for colonial and other goods, which were thence conveyed, according as opportunities offered, to the adjacent ports. This commerce ceased with the circumstances that gave it birth; and for some years after the return of peace, the trade of the island was depressed below its natural level, by the imposition of various oppressive discriminating duties. In 1819, this vexatious system was partially obviated; but it continued to exert a pernicious influence till 1837, when, pursuant to the recommendation of Messrs. Austin and Lewis, commissioners of inquiry, the then existing tariffs of customs duties and port charges were wholly abolished; and a new tariff (which is subjoined) was issued in their stead. It imposes moderate duties, for the sake of revenue only, on a few articles in general demand, without regard to the country whence they come, at the same time that it equalises the tonnage duties, and reduces the warehouse rent on articles in bond to the lowest level. Every thing has thus been done that was possible to second the natural advantages enjoyed by Malta for becoming the grand entrepôt of the Mediterranean trade; and we have little doubt they will powerfully contribute to bring about that result.

There are some good springs of fresh water. Valetta is partly supplied by water brought by an aqueduct a distance of about 6 miles, and partly by the rain collected in cisterns.

TABLE exhibiting the various Articles, and their Value in Sterling Money, imported into the Island of Malta during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.

Species of Imports.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	Species of Imports.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	£	£	£	£		£	£	£	£
Manufactures of all sorts	160,962	121,531	135,688	118,696	Hullocks, pigs, and sheep	24,418	27,729	21,250	11,711
Sugar, refined and crushed	22,533	16,603	19,182	16,628	Carib-beans	-	3,102	5,548	3,192
Coffee and cocoa	16,899	12,760	19,695	18,711	Coke and charcoal	-	10,358	10,514	25,291
Indigo	-	2,643	1,462	1,190	Cheese	4,222	4,174	12,381	19,616
Hemp	-	3,244	1,031	4,529	Fish, salted and dried	-	11,476	14,483	15,204
Spices	-	6,960	3,839	10,448	Flour	-	162	619	1,153
Raw sugar	27,320	17,461	24,429	17,399	Fruits, dried	-	18,860	14,467	31,308
Tea	-	2,436	2,019	2,922	Grain, viz. - Wheat	-	58,337	106,577	114,833
Hristons	-	1,171	2,970	4,178	Indian corn	-	6,976	5,188	621
Drugs and articles used in dyeing	2,648	4,437	3,483	2,446	Barley	-	6,390	7,196	6,318
Flea, hemp and tow	2,020	906	3,449	2,340	Mest, salted and dried	-	6,511	2,292	2,983
Hides, salted and dried	4,977	14,808	10,034	5,579	Mules, horses, and asses	-	318	227	510
Horn and tar	-	648	1,539	1,978	Olives and linseed oil	26,720	24,422	26,738	23,543
Seeds in general	4,187	4,693	4,222	4,654	Olives, salted	-	1,030	431	736
Raw silk	-	13	233	0	Grive stones and firewood	-	8,518	6,297	5,703
Tobacco leaf	12,336	21,766	20,145	14,396	Paste and macaroni	-	700	1,322	992
Wax	-	464	221	1,864	Potatoes	-	1,314	1,606	2,106
Wood (timber deals, &c.)	8,373	10,487	6,134	8,450	Rice	-	2,665	4,143	1,056
Wool and cotton wool	-	337	2,266	1,853	Spirits (brandy and gin)	-	8,028	17,629	10,041
Miscellaneous (raw materials)	2,103	2,876	2,664	1,263	Vinegar	-	1,438	221	1,830
Horns, pigs, caravances, saddles, &c.	29,065	28,804	42,569	29,858	Wines	-	45,691	40,389	67,722
Biscuit	100	277	1,615	none	Miscellaneous (provisions)	-	1,636	2,037	1,227
					Totals	591,646	670,388	685,581	547,484

made a present remained till by the English

good deal of being cultivated of Maltese wine. The principal amounting to the sufficient to be used by import- consumption,

But in 1835, consumption,

When proper ad- can and Black cavated in the pepping of corn. and it is affirmed

it is very soon brought direct damaged; but light afterwards also admirably Italy, &c.

Anti-commercial and other goods, adjacent ports. some years after the equal level, by the exaction system even till 1837,

Commissioners of were wholly d. It imposes general demand, it equalises the lowest level. advantages en- trade; and by

collected in into the island of

1833.	1836.	1837.
7,789	31,200	11,711
25,319	5,192	2,251
25,514	25,591	18,777
4,174	12,301	14,210
3,181	11,833	87,413
5,198	621	3,105
1,601	5,318	8,519
2,222	2,983	4,46
527	516	186
44,282	36,738	28,543
431	736	866
6,987	6,703	6,319
1,322	928	866
1,608	3,108	3,110
4,143	1,059	1,121
71,628	10,041	9,463
489	1,330	827
40,389	67,732	71,903
2,037	1,927	434

70,382	685,281	347,484
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Harbour.—The harbour of Valetta is double, and is one of the finest in the world. The city is built on a narrow tongue of land, having the castle and light of St. Elmo at its extremity and an admirable port on each side. That on the south-eastern side, denominated the grand port, is the most frequented. The entrance to it, about 250 fathoms wide, has the formidable batteries of St. Elmo on the one hand, and those of Fort Manoel on the other. In entering, it is necessary not to come within 50 or 60 fathoms of the former, on account of a spit which projects from it but in the east of the channel there is from 10 to 15 fathoms water. The port which runs about 1½ mile inwards, has deep water and excellent anchorage throughout; the largest men-of-war coming close to the quay. Fort Manoel, on the north-western side of the city, is also a noble harbour. The entrance to it, which is about the same breadth as that of the grand port, is between St. Elmo and Fort Tigne. In the centre of the basin is an island, on which are built a castle and a lazaretto, for the convenience of the ships performing quarantine, by which the port is principally used. Owing to the narrowness of the entrance, and the usual variations of the wind, it is customary for most vessels bound for Valetta to take a pilot on board before entering the harbour.

Taxes (A).—Duties on Imports, and Dues for Store Rent, which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.

	Import Duties.	Store Rents on Articles Lodged in Bond.
Beer, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 1
Castle's bullocks, and other animals of the kind, per head	0 10 0	0 0 0
Horses and mules, per head	1 0 0	0 0 0
Charcoal, per saim	0 0 0	0 0 1
Uraia:—		
Wheat, per saim	0 0 0	0 0 2
Indian corn, per saim	0 0 0	0 0 2
Barley, per saim	0 4 0	0 0 2
Maize, per saim	0 0 0	0 0 2
Other inferior grains	0 0 0	0 0 2
Manufactured grain, per cantar	0 0 0	0 0 2
Wheat, Indian corn, barley, or other inferior grains, if damaged so as to be unfit for the food of man (commonly called <i>frumentoso</i>), per saim	0 2 0	0 0 2
Manufactured grain, if damaged so as to be unfit for the food of man, per cantar	0 2 0	0 0 2
Oil, olive, per cantar	0 0 0	0 0 1
Potatoes, per cantar	0 0 0	0 10 0
Wax and seeds:—		
Beans, carraways, chick-peas, kidney-beans, lentils, lupins, peas, and vetches, per saim	0 2 0	0 0 2
Carob-beans and cotton seeds, per cantar	0 0 0	0 6 0
Spirits: viz. for every Maltese barrel of such spirits of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof, by Nye's hydrometer (namely London proof) and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof.	1 2 0	0 0 2
Vinegar, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 2
Wines, the value of which shall exceed 15s. per pipe of 11 Maltese barrels, per Maltese barrel	0 11 0	0 0 2
All other wines, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 2

Observations.—1. The duties payable by the sailer on spirits, pulps, and seeds (except large bladders) to be obtained by the strike measure. The duties on large Sicilian beans and on charcoal to be charged by the heaped measure.
2. Every liquid compounded of spirit and any other ingredient or ingredients, and containing more than 20 per cent. of spirit of the strength of proof, to be liable to the duty on spirits which is imposed by the present tariff.
3. The store rents on grain lodged in bond to be payable from the day on which the grain was lodged. The store rents on every other article mentioned in the present tariff to be payable from the tenth day after the day on which such article was lodged.

Taxes (B).—Tonnage Dues which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.
Vessels discharging merchandise in the island shall, on clearing outwards, pay for every ton or any part thereof — 6d.

Taxes (C).—Fees which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.

For each certificate under the office seal	0 0 2
For each sheet of printed official forms	0 0 2

Tariff of Dues authorised to be levied for Account of Government, by the Superintendent of Quarantine, Malta.

Shipping in Quarantine.—1. Vessels entered upon a quarantine to pay, for each day of their continuance in port, as follows:—

Vessels not exceeding 25 tons	0 0 6
from 26 tons 50	0 0 6
from 51 — 100	1 0 0
from 101 — 150	2 0 0
from 151 — 200	3 0 0
from 201 — 250	4 0 0
from 251 and upwards	5 0 0

2. Vessels of whatever class, sailing in quarantine, having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay at the above rates, but in no case more than 2s. a day for the remainder of the term of quarantine.
3. Vessels liable to quarantine, not having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay 2s. for each day of their continuance in port.
4. Vessels compelled by stress of weather to enter the great harbour, to be subject, while they remain there, to the additional charge of 2s. a day, for every guard boat which the Superintendent of Quarantine may deem it necessary to place over them.

5. Any vessel in quarantine entering the great harbour without a justifiable cause, incurs the penalty of 300 dollars imposed by the second article of the proclamation, dated 12th October, 1830. (No. xiii.)

6. Vessels having contagious diseases on board to pay an extra rate in proportion to the expense that may be incurred, but in no case to exceed 30s. a day, in addition to the usual rate.

7. Duties received into the lazaret for detention to be chargeable with a due proportion of the actual expense thereof, which, at present, on ordinary occasions, is at the rate of 2s. 6d. a day for each guardian and 1s. 6d. a day for each labourer, whom it may be necessary to employ.
8. Cattle landed in the lazaret to be chargeable, for each —
Horse, mule, or ass — 2 0
Hallock, or other animal of the kind — 2 0
Sheep, goat, pig, or other small animal — 1 0

Persons performing quarantine in the lazaret to pay at the rate of 2s. 6d. a day, for each guardian employed, but no single individual to be chargeable with more than 1s. 5d. a day. Documents issued under the office seal, 2s. 6d. each.

List of Vessels belonging to the Island of Malta, on the 1st of January, 1838.	Movement of Shipping at Malta, during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.						Average Prices of Wheat in England, during each of the Ten Years ending with 1837, per bushel, in Sterling Money.				
	Vessels.	Tons.	The Year and Sizes.	Ships inwards.		Ships outwards.		Year.	Price.		
1834.	28	under 10 tons each	845	Vessels above 40 tons—	935	140,532	10,058	1,025	153,118	10,999	
	85	from 10 to 25 tons	256		788	14,289	7,282	715	15,682	7,820	
	18	25 — 50	168		Total						
	5	50 — 100	1,408		1,728	154,921	17,658	1,740	168,798	16,840	
	38	100 — 150	4,408		1835.						
	11	150 — 200	3,837		1,351	187,139	12,481	1,232	197,473	13,230	
	91	200 — 250	2,285		916	18,479	8,836	955	18,210	6,071	
	10	250 — 300	2,700		Total						
	6	300 tons and upw.	2,040		3,067	205,638	21,257	3,167	215,883	19,301	
	171	of all sizes, making	17,500		1836.						
				1,283	185,616	12,891	1,351	202,737	13,863		
				700	12,884	6,743	738	15,550	7,099		
				Total							
				1,983	199,500	19,636	2,089	218,287	20,962		
				1837.							
				1,199	167,079	11,673	1,198	168,398	12,434		
				420	8,275	3,294	459	8,624	4,101		
				Total							
				1,519	165,354	15,967	1,657	177,022	16,535		

The central position, excellent port, and great strength of Malta, make it an admirable naval station for the repair and accommodation of the men-of-war and merchant-ships frequenting the Mediterranean, and render its possession of material importance to the British empire. Since Malta-built vessels were admitted into the ports of the U. Kingdom on the same terms as those of British built, the trade of ship-building has materially increased in the island. The Maltese shipwrights are diligent expert workmen, and, their wages being moderate, it is a favourable place for careening. Owing to the want of a dry dock, all ships above the size of a sloop of war, that require to have their bottoms examined, have to come to England for that purpose. This, surely, should be obviated. Quarantine is strictly enforced at

Malta; but there is every facility for its performance, and the charges are less than at any other port in the Mediterranean.

Malta is now the centre of a very extensive steam-packet system; the steamers from England for the Ionian Islands, Constantinople, Alexandria, and other ports of the Levant, touching here. The French steamers from these ports usually perform quarantine at Malta.

Money.—In 1825, British silver money was introduced into Malta; the Spanish dollar being made legal tender at the rate of 4s. 4d.; the Sicilian dollar at 4s. 2d.; and the scudo of Malta at 1s. 6d.

Weights and Measures.—The pound or rotolo, commercial weight = 50 ounce = 1511½ English grains. Hence 100 rotoli (the cantaro) = 174½ lbs. avoirdupois, or 79½ Kilog. Merchants usually reckon the cantaro at 175 lbs.

The salina of corn, stricken measure = 8721 Winchester bushels; heaped measure is reckoned 16 per cent. more. The cantaro, or measure for oil, contains 4½ English gallons = 30'818

litres. The barrel is double the caskin. The Maltese foot = 11 1/8 English inches = 2936 metres. The canna = 8 palmi = 81'9 English inches = 2'079 metres. Merchants usually convert Malta measure into English in the proportion of 24 palmi to a yard, or 2 3/4ths yards to 1 canna.

Bills on London are usually drawn at 30 and 60 days' sight. The deputy commissary general is obliged to grant, at all times, bills on the treasury here for British silver tendered to him, at the rate of 100s. bill for every 100l. 10s. silver, receiving, at the same time, other silver, at a discounting rate of exchange.

MAN (ISLE OF) is, as every one knows, situated in the Irish sea, at about an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is about 30 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. The interior is mountainous, and the soil no where very productive. Population, in 1841, 47,975. This island used to be one of the principal stations of the herring fishery; but for a considerable period it has been comparatively deserted by the herring shoals,—a circumstance which is not to be regretted; for the fishery, by withdrawing the attention of the inhabitants from agriculture and manufactures, and leading them to engage in what has usually been a gambling and unproductive business, has been, on the whole, injurious to the island. The steam packets from Glasgow to Liverpool touch at the Isle of Man; which has, in consequence, begun to be largely frequented by visitors from these cities, and other parts of the empire, whose influx has materially contributed to the improvement of Douglas and other towns.

The feudal sovereignty of Man was formerly vested in the Earls of Derby, and more recently in the Dukes of Athol, a circumstance which accounts for the fact of the duties on most commodities consumed in the island having been, for a lengthened period, much lower than those on the same commodities when consumed in Great Britain. This distinction, which still subsists, has produced a great deal of smuggling, and been in no ordinary degree injurious to the revenue and trade of the empire. During the present century, indeed, the clandestine trade of Man has been confined within comparatively narrow limits; but to accomplish this, a considerable extra force of Custom-house officers and revenue cruisers is required; and the intercourse with the island has to be subjected to various restraints. Nothing, as it appears to us, can be more impolitic than the continuance of such a system. The public has, at a very heavy expense, purchased all the feudal rights of the Athol family; and having done so, it is certainly high time that an end were put to the anomalous absurdity of having a considerable island, lying, as it were, in the very centre of the empire, and in the direct line between some of the principal trading towns, with different duties on many important articles! It might be necessary, perhaps, to make some compensation to the inhabitants for such a change; and this might be done, with advantage to them and without expense to the public, by modifying and improving the internal regulations and policy of the island, which are very much in need of amendment. We do not, indeed, imagine that the island would lose any thing by the proposed alteration; for the temptation which the present system holds out to engage in smuggling enterprises diverts the population from the regular pursuits of industry, and, along with the herring lottery, is the principal cause of that idleness for which the Manx are so notorious. We subjoin an

ABSTRACT OF 8 & 9 VICT. C. 94., FOR REGULATING THE TRADE OF THE ISLE OF MAN.

Commencement.—To commence on the 4th August, 1845.—§ 1.
Duties to be levied on Goods imported into the Isle of Man.—With the exception of the customs duties on corn, grain, meal, or flour, there shall be raised, levied, collected, or paid unto H. M., her heirs and successors, the several duties of customs respectively set forth in the subjoined table of duties, upon the importation or bringing into the Isle of Man of the several goods, wares, or merchandise in the said table, according to the quantity or value thereof specified in it, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity or value of the same; viz.:—

Table of Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported or brought into the Isle of Man.	£ s. d.
Coats from the U. K.	Free.
Coffee, the import duties in the U. K. not having been paid thereon, the lb.	0 0 2
Hemp	Free.
Hops from the U. K.	Free.
Iron	Free.
Spirits; viz.—	
Brandy, Foreign, the gallon	0 4 6
Geneva, Foreign, the gallon	0 2 6
Hum of the British possessions, the gallon	0 1 6
Such spirits not exceeding the strength of proof by Syke's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon.	
Sugar, Muscovado, of the British possessions, and such other sugar as if entered for consumption in the U. K. would be subject, under any act of the present session of parliament, to a duty less than 8s. the cwt., the cwt.	0 1 0
Sugar, refined in the U. K. from raw sugar, whereupon the import duties have there been paid, the cwt.	0 9 0
Tea; viz.—	
Bohea, the lb.	0 1 0
Green, the lb.	0 1 0
Tobacco, the lb.	0 1 6
Segars, the lb.	0 3 6
Wine, the tun of 252 gallons	12 0 0
Wool, Foreign, viz.—	
Timber 2 inches square and upwards, per load of 50 cubic feet	0 8 0
Timber and wood goods, the produce of the British possessions	Free.
Eau de Cologne, per Haak (50 not containing more than 1 gallon)	0 0 4
Or per gallon	0 10 0
Liqueurs, per gallon	0 10 0
Goods, wares, and merchandise brought from the U. K. and entitled to any bounty or drawback of excise on exportation from thence, and not herein-before enumerated or charged with duty	Free.
Goods, wares, and merchandise the growth, produce, or manufacture of and brought from the U. K., and not herein-before charged with duty	Free.
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. K., but brought	

any other port in England for the purpose of the French

The Maltese foot is the same as 8 pence. Merchants usually have to grant, at 30 and 60 days' sight, at all which silver tendered to 101/2, the silver, re- at a fluctuating rate of

about an equal quantity, and 10 or 12 per cent. Populations of the herring fishery by withdrawing leading them to have been, on the pool touch at the island by visitors from contributed to

by, and more respect of the duties under present period, much obtain. This dis- been in no ordi- present century, comparatively narrow custom officers and to be subjected to more than the com- purchased all the high time that an island, lying, as it some of the prin- ! It might be for such a change; to the public, by island, which are the island would the present system from the regular principal cause of that

ISLAND OF MAN.

of the customs duties H. M., her duties and e of duties, upon the duties in the said table, any greater or less

	s. d.
	0 10
	0 10
	0 1 6
	0 3 0
	12 0 0
wards, per load	0 8 0
produce of the	Free.
containing more	0 4
	0 11 0
	0 10 0

brought from the duty of drawback of, and not herein- were imported into the said island, and it shall not be lawful to remove any wine from one part of the said island to another, except in such packages or in bottles. — § 11.

from thence, and having there been entered for consumption, and the tax paid thereon. Goods, wares, and merchandise imported or brought

Power to the Lords of the Treasury to remit and to re-impose the Duties on unenumerated Articles. — It shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, from time to time, by any order or orders under their hands, to declare that all or any article or articles specified in the said schedule, and upon which the said duty of 15s. for every 100l. value is hereby imposed, shall and may, from and after a day to be named in the said order or orders, be imported from the places and in the manner in the said order or orders mentioned into the Isle of Man duty-free, and that such articles shall be imported duty-free accordingly so long as such order or orders or any part thereof affecting such articles shall continue in force, provided always, that it shall be lawful for the said Lords, or any 3 or more of them, at any time and from time to time as they shall consider expedient, by any further order under their hands to revoke the whole or any part of such order or orders for admitting the aforesaid articles or any of them into the Isle of Man duty-free, such order or orders to take effect from a day to be named therein; provided also, that all orders of the Lords of the Treasury made in pursuance of this enactment shall be duly published in the London and Dublin Gazettes, twice at least within 14 days from the date of such orders respectively, and that a copy of every such order shall be laid before both houses of parliament within 6 weeks after the date of such order, if parliament be then sitting, and if not, then within 6 weeks after the commencement of the then next session of parliament. — § 3.

Certain Goods Importable only under Licence. — The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the subjoined "Schedule of Licence Goods" shall not be brought into the Isle of Man, nor laden on board any vessel to be carried from any place to the Isle of Man, without the licence of the commissioners of customs first obtained, nor in greater quantities in the whole in any 1 year than the respective quantities of such goods specified in the said schedule, and such goods shall not be so brought into the said Isle of Man, except from the respective places set forth in the said schedule, and according to the rules subjoined thereto: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, or any 3 or more of them, from time to time, upon sufficient cause to them appearing, by any order under their hands to permit the importation into the Isle of Man of such additional quantity of such several sorts of goods or any of them, in any year, beyond the quantities named in the said table as they shall in their discretion consider expedient. — § 4.

Schedule of Licence Goods.

- 1. Spirits, viz.— Foreign Brandy, 20,000 gallons. Foreign Geneva, 20,000 gallons. Aquaviv, 50 gallons. Eau de Cologne, 50 gallons. From the U. K. or from any place from which the same may be imported into the U. K. for consumption therein.
- 2. Rum of the British plantations, 70,000 gallons.
- 3. Tobacco, 55,000 pounds.
- 4. Segars, 5,000 pounds.

Rules relating to licence goods referred to in this act.— 1. All such goods to be imported or brought into the port of Douglas, and by which to be subject to the British ships or vessels of the burden of 50 tons or upwards. 2. Such tobacco to be shipped only in ports in the U. K. where tobacco is allowed to be imported and warehoused without payment of duty.

Application for Licence to be delivered to Officers at Douglas between 5th May and 5th July. — Every application for licence to import any of the goods aforesaid into the Isle of Man shall be made in writing, and delivered between the 5th day of May and the 5th day of July in each year to the collector or comptroller of the port of Douglas in the said Isle; and such application shall specify the date thereof, and the name, residence, and occupation of the person applying, and the description and quantity of each article for which such licence is required; and all such applications, with such particulars, shall be entered in a book, to be kept at the custom-house at the port of Douglas, and to be there open for public inspection during the hours of business, and on the 5th day of July in each year such book shall be closed, and within 14 days thereafter the collector and comptroller shall make out and sign a true copy of such entries, specifying the applicants resident and the applicants not resident in the said Isle, and deliver or transmit such copy to the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle for the time being. — § 5.

Governor to allot Quantities. — Within 14 days after the receipt of such copy the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle shall allot the whole quantity of each article in the first place among the applicants resident in the said island; and in case the whole quantity of any article shall not have been applied for by residents, he shall then allot the quantity not so applied for among the non-resident applicants, in such proportions in all cases as he shall judge most fair and equitable; and shall cause a report thereon to be drawn up in writing, and sign and transmit the same to the Lords of the Treasury, and shall cause a duplicate of such report so signed to be transmitted to the commissioners of customs. — § 6.

Before Delivery of Licences, Bond to be given. — Previous to the delivery of any such licences to the persons to whom they are granted, the collector and comptroller of Douglas shall take the bond of such persons, with sufficient security for the importation or bringing in of the articles for which the said licences are respectively granted on or before the 5th day of July succeeding the delivery of such licences, with such conditions, and for the forfeiture of such sums, not exceeding the whole amount of duties payable in Great Britain on articles similar to those specified in such licences, as the commissioners of customs shall think fit; provided always, that if any person to whom such licence shall be granted shall not have given such bond prior to the 5th day of January next after the granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said Isle, if he shall see fit, to transfer any such licence to any other person who shall be desirous to take up the same, and willing to be able to give such bond; and such transfer shall be notified by endorsement on the licence signed by such governor or lieutenant-governor. — § 8.

Clause 9, enacts that parties not importing the whole of the goods for which they have obtained a licence shall be disqualified from having a licence the following year.

Clause 10, inflicts a penalty of 500l. on all persons counterfeiting or falsifying a licence. Licence Goods not to be re-exported, &c. — It shall not be lawful to re-export from the Isle of Man any goods which have been imported into the said Isle with licence of the commissioners of customs as aforesaid; and it shall not be lawful to carry any such goods coastwise from one part of the said Isle to another, except in vessels of 50 tons burden at the least, and in the same packages in which such goods were imported into the said Isle; and it shall not be lawful to remove any wine from one part of the said Isle to another, except in such packages or in bottles. — § 11.

Trade with the Isle of Man to be a Coasting Trade. — All trade from any port of the U. K. to the Isle of Man, or from the Isle of Man to any port of the U. K., shall be deemed to be a coasting trade, and all ships employed therein shall be deemed to be coasting ships, and shall be subject to all the rules, regulations, penalties, and forfeitures now in force relating to coasting ships, and the Isle of Man shall not

be deemed in law with reference to any part of the U. K. to be parts beyond the seas in any matter relating to the trade or navigation or revenue of this realm; provided nevertheless, that all goods subject to duty under this act, when brought from the U. K. into the Isle of Man, and all vessels bringing the same, shall be liable to the same rules and regulations as are required by law in respect of goods imported into the said Isle from foreign parts, and in respect of the vessels importing the same; and that all the penalties and forfeitures inflicted by law for any breach of the said rules and regulations shall attach upon all goods so brought into the said Isle contrary to the said rules and regulations, or any of them, and upon all persons committing any breach of any such rule or regulation; and such penalties and forfeitures shall and may be recovered in the same manner as any penalty or forfeiture may be recovered by any act relating to the customs.

Clause 13. enacts that corn, grain, meal, and flour may be warehoused in the Island, under the sanction of the commissioners of customs.

Clause 14. enacts that the provisions of the Warehouse Act shall extend to the Isle of Man in respect of corn, grain, meal, and flour.

Clause 15. enacts that goods warehoused in the U. K. may be removed into the Isle of Man, under certain regulations.

Clause 16. directs that nothing in this act shall affect the existing laws and regulations as to excise drawbacks.

Clause 17. enacts that sugar on which bounty has been allowed may be removed to the Isle of Man.

Clause 18. enacts that bond shall be given not to re-land such sugar.

Foreign Goods, except Corn, not to be brought from the Isle of Man to the U. K. — It shall not be lawful to carry any goods not being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Isle of Man or of the U. K., except corn, grain, meal, or flour, in any ship from the Isle of Man to any port or place in the U. K. — § 19.

Goods prohibited to be imported into the Isle of Man. — The several sorts of goods enumerated in the subjoined "Schedule of Prohibitions," shall not be imported or brought into the Isle of Man, viz. —

Schedule of Prohibitions.

Goods the produce or manufacture of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, except from the U. K. Cotton yarn, cotton cloth, linen cloth, glass manufactures, woollen manufactures, unless *boned jades* laden in and brought directly from the U. K.

British distilled spirits: *Goods imported, exported, or carried coastwise, contrary to the Act, forfeited.* — If any goods shall be imported into or exported from the Isle of Man, or shall be carried coastwise from one part of the said Isle, or from the U. K. to the said Isle, or from the said Isle to the U. K., or shall be waterborne or brought to any wharf or place with intent to be waterborne, to be so exported or carried, or shall be removed by land within the said Isle, contrary to any of the directions or provisions of this act, the same and all the packages containing the same shall be forfeited, together with such ships, vessels, or boats, and all cattle and carriages used or employed therein; and every person offending therein shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 100*l.*, or the full amount of all duties which would be payable in respect of similar goods the produce of foreign countries, if imported into and entered for home consumption in the U. K., at the election of the commissioners of H. M. customs. — § 21.

Limiting the Quantity of Spirits, Tea, and Tobacco for Use of Seamen, &c. — If any decked vessels, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board for the use of the seamen any spirits exceeding the quantity of half a gallon for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding 1 lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 2 lbs. weight for the whole of the seamen on board such vessel; or if any open boat, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board for the use of the seamen any spirits exceeding 1 quart for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding 1 lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 1 lb. weight for the whole of the seamen on board such boat, all such foreign spirits, tobacco, and tea respectively, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and also every such vessel or boat, together with all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel thereof, shall be forfeited. — § 22.

Sugar or runs other than that enumerated and described in the table of duties herein-before contained: All goods prohibited to be imported into the U. K. to be used or consumed therein on account of the sort or description of the same. — § 20.

Certificates for Goods the Produce of the Isle of Man. — Before any goods shall be shipped in the Isle of Man, to be carried to the U. K., as being the produce or manufacture of that island, proof shall be made by the written declaration of some competent person to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs, at the port of shipment, that such goods, describing and identifying the same, are the produce of the manufacture, as the case may be, of the said island, and in such declaration shall be stated the name of the person by whom such goods are intended to be shipped; and such person at the time of shipping (not being more than 1 month after the date of such declaration) shall make and subscribe a declaration before such collector or comptroller that the goods to be shipped are the same as are mentioned in such declaration; and that upon the collector and comptroller shall, on demand, give to the master of the ship in which the goods are to be exported a certificate of such proof of produce or of manufacture having been made in respect of such goods, describing the same, and setting forth the name of the party and of the ship, and of the master thereof, and the destination of the goods; and such certificate shall be received at the port in the U. K. into which the said goods shall be brought, instead of the certificate of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the said island, heretofore required. — § 23.

Clause 24 and 25 relate to the management and appropriation of the duties, and are not, therefore, of any commercial importance.

Clause 26 enacts that vessels of 50 tons burden registered in the Isle of Man, and the *boned jades* property of inhabitants thereof, shall be entitled in the coasting trade to all privileges enjoyed by vessels of 60 tons registered in the U. K.

MANGANESE (Ger. *Braunstein*, *Glauseise*; Du. *Bruinsteen*; Fr. *Manganèse*, *Magalèse*, *Saxon du verre*; It. *Minguneria*; Sp. *Manganesia*; Lat. *Magnesia nigra*, *Manganesium*), a metal which, when pure, is of a greyish white colour, like cast iron, and has a good deal of brilliancy. Its texture is granular; it has neither taste nor smell; it is softer than cast iron, and may be filed; its specific gravity is 8. It is very brittle, and can neither be hammered nor drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is unknown. When exposed to the air, it attracts oxygen with considerable rapidity. It soon loses its lustre, and becomes grey, violet, brown, and at last black. These changes take place still more rapidly if the metal be heated in an open vessel. Ores of manganese are common in Devonshire, Somersetshire, &c. The ore of manganese, known in Derbyshire by the name of *black wadd*, is remarkable for its spontaneous inflammation with oil. Oxide of manganese is of considerable use; it is employed in making oxymuriatic acid, for forming bleaching liquor. It is also used in glazing black earthenware, for giving colours to enamels, and in the manufacture of porcelain. It is the substance generally used by chemists for obtaining oxygen gas. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*, &c.)

MANGEL WURZEL, or **FIELD BEET** (Fr. *Betteraves*; Ger. *Mangold Wurzel*; It. *Biettoia*), a mongrel between the red and white beet. It has been a good deal cultivated in France, Germany, and Switzerland, partly as food for cattle, and partly to be used in distillation, and in the extraction of sugar. Its culture in Great Britain is very recent; and Mr. Loudon questions whether it has any advantages over the turnip for general agricultural purposes. The preparation of the soil is exactly the same as for turnips, and immense crops are raised on strong clays. The produce per acre is about the same as that of the Swedish turnip; it is applied almost entirely to the fattening of stock, and the feeding of milch cows. — (*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*.)

MANNA (Fr. *Manne*; Ger. *Mannaesche*; It. *Manna*), the concrete juice of the *Fraxinus ornus*, a species of ash growing in the south of Europe. The juice exudes

spontaneously in warm dry weather, and concretes into whitish tears; but the greater part of the manna of commerce is obtained by making incisions in the tree, and gathering the juice in baskets, where it forms irregular masses of a reddish or brownish colour, often full of impurities. Manna is imported in chests, principally from Sicily and Calabria. The best is in oblong pieces or flakes, moderately dry, friable, light, of a whitish or pale yellow colour, and in some degree transparent; the inferior kinds are moist, unctuous, and brown. It has a slight peculiar odour, and a sweet taste, with some degree of bitterness not very pleasant, and leaving a nauseous impression on the tongue. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

MANIFEST, in commercial navigation, is a document signed by the master, containing the name or names of the places where the goods on board have been laden, and the place or places for which they are respectively destined; the name and tonnage of the vessel, the name of the master, and the name of the place to which the vessel belongs; a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, the goods contained in such packages, the names of the respective shippers and consignees, as far as such particulars are known to the master, &c. A separate manifest is required for tobacco. The manifest must be made out, dated, and signed by the captain, at the place or places where the goods, or any part of the goods, are taken on board. — (See IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.)

MANILLA, the capital of Luconia, the largest of the Philippine Islands, and the principal settlement of the Spaniards in the East, in lat. 14° 36' 8" N., lon. 120° 59' E. Population about 100,000, of whom from 4,000 to 5,000 may be Europeans. Manilla is built on the shore of a spacious bay of the same name, at the mouth of a river navigable for small vessels a considerable way into the interior. The smaller class of ships anchor in Manilla roads, in 5 fathoms, the north bastion bearing N. 37° E., the fishery stakes at the river's mouth N. 18° E., distant about a mile; but large ships anchor at Cavita, about 3 leagues to the southward, where there is a good harbour, well sheltered from the W. and S. W. winds. The arsenal is at Cavita, which is defended by Fort St. Philip, the strongest fortress on the islands. The city is surrounded by a wall and towers, and some of the bastions are well furnished with artillery.

Though situated within the tropics, the climate of the Philippines is sufficiently temperate; the only considerable disadvantage under which they labour in this respect being that the principal part of the group comes within the range of the typhoons. The soil is of very different qualities; but for the most part singularly fertile. They are rich in mineral, vegetable, and animal productions. It is stated in a statistical account of the Philippines, published at Manilla in 1818 and 1819, that the entire population of the islands amounted to 2,249,852, of which 1,376,222 belonged to Luconia. There were, at the period referred to, only 2,897 Europeans in the islands, and little more than 6,000 Chinese. The natives are said to be the most active, bold, and energetic, of any belonging to the Eastern Archipelago. "These people," says a most intelligent navigator, "appear in no respect inferior to those of Europe. They cultivate the earth like men of understanding; are carpenters, joiners, smiths, goldsmiths, weavers, masons, &c. I have walked through their villages, and found them kind, hospitable, and communicative; and though the Spaniards speak of and treat them with contempt, I perceived that the vices they attributed to the Indians, ought rather to be imputed to the government they have themselves established." — (*Voyage de M. De la Perouse, c. 15.*)

The principal articles of export consist of sugar, hemp, indigo, cigars, cotton, coffee, rice, span wood, mother of pearl, hides, ebony, gold dust, &c. The principal articles of import are stuffs for clothing, iron, hardware, furniture, fire-arms, and ammunition, &c.

Subjoined is a statement of the import trade of Manilla in 1838, procured direct from that city; but it is right to bear in mind that the official accounts from which it has been drawn up are so defective, that the amounts specified can only be considered as rough approximations; and are, no doubt, under the mark.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported from Manilla in 1838.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Iron	91,874	\$87,948
Cottons, grey	4,643,373	690,424
Do, white	1,138,332	171,050
Cinghams	233,199	65,508
Stripes	395,177	86,445
Handkerchiefs	67,361	154,722
Prints	106,946	34,320
Woolens and worsted	157,597	118,197
Muslins	651,015	137,754
Umbrellas	26,308	16,708
China and earthenware	No.	47,740
Sundries	776	214,803
Total value in Spanish dollars		\$1,665,265

Of the above, goods to the value of 1,145,000 dollars were imported, in Spanish vessels, from China, Singapore, and elsewhere. About 130 ships entered the port of Manilla in 1838; of which 46 were Spanish, 35 British, 28 American, and 11 Chinese.

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Account of the Quantity and Value of the Produce exported from Manila in 1857.

Articles.	By Foreign Vessels.	By Spanish Vessels.	Total.	Price.		Gross Amount.	
				Doll.	Rts.	Doll.	Rts.
Sugar	198,858 pic.	86,881 pic.	285,739 pic.	4	3	944,877	6
Napan wood	9,091	13,668	22,759	4	2	925	6
Hemp	1,263	3,104	4,367	3	9	258,734	6
Cotton	8,850	3,413	12,263	15	0	84,960	0
Coffee	6,508	671	7,179	16	0	68,604	0
Buffalo	7,531	3,124	10,655	3	7	37,413	104
Mother of pearl shells	1,094	—	1,015	14	—	14,810	—
Hide cuttings	4,417	1,591	6,008	8	14	8,214	—
Hemp, cordage	875	3,001	3,876	9	—	10,759	4
Strawed shony	9,803	—	9,803	1	2	19,255	6
Knots of napan wood	6,593	1,748	8,341	1	2	19,255	6
Pieces of molave (timber)	4,584	—	4,584	3	4	94,494	—
Indigo	1,833—99 ctya.	118—99 ctya.	1,951—99 ctya.	66	—	118,503	—
Leaf tobacco	33	—	33	12	—	430	—
Tortoiseshell	3,706 ctya.	1,910 ctya.	5,616 ctya.	7	3	24,523	6
Rice	45,037	70,998 ctya.	116,035 ctya.	1	2	107,503	6
Paddy	19,564 pic.	19,048 pic.	38,612 pic.	—	3	17,460	—
Coffee in bulk	—	86	86	3	6	294	4
Wata	19,908 in numb.	23 in numb.	19,931 in numb.	1	1	34,324	—
Cigar cases	6,851	70	6,921	—	3	9,660	—
Cigars	3,141 boxes	4,157 boxes	7,298 boxes	25	—	114,950	4
Manilla hemp cord	10,030 pieces	10,000 pieces	20,030 pieces	—	3	10,938	—
Wata	4,075	50	4,125	—	14	773	3
Cocos-nut oil	8,768 casks	—	8,768 casks	9	3	9,419	5
Ditto	8,768	—	8,768	3	6	1,794	—
Wata	6,951 gallons	132 gallons	7,083 gallons	—	3	6,566	1
Wata	1,440	—	1,440	4	4	740	—
Liquid indigo	—	230 pic.	230 pic.	4	—	290	—
Ditto	—	606 casks	606 casks	3	4	3,721	—
Cotton canvas	—	560 pieces	560 pieces	11	—	5,190	4
Mate	—	768	768	—	2	—	—
				Total		2,012,638	65

The port charges on foreign vessels consist of a tonnage duty of 2 reals, or a quarter-dollar, per register ton; and fees, varying from 15 to 20 dollars, according to the size of the vessel, for port-captain's and health officer's visits, passport, &c. The tariff is bottomed on a custom-house valuation, fixed every 5 years. Most foreign commodities, imported in foreign vessels, pay an import duty of 14 per cent. *ad valorem*, except wines and spirits, which mostly pay a duty of from 30 to 60 per cent. unless the produce of Spain. Cotton-twist of certain colours, cutlery, ready-made clothes, European fruits, confectionery, and vinegar, pay 40 per cent. If imported in Spanish vessels, and 50 per cent. If in any other. British and other foreign cotton and silk manufactures made in imitation of native cloth, Madras and Senegal cottons, &c. pay 15 per cent. If imported in Spanish, and 25 per cent. If in other ships. Machinery of all sorts for the promotion of industry, cotton twist of certain colours, gold and silver, plants and seeds, are imported duty free; but tropical products, the same as those of the Philippines, gunpowder, swords, and other warlike stores, &c., are prohibited, unless landed in bond for re-exportation. Exports of nearly all descriptions, by Spanish vessels, pay only from 14 to 2 per cent. *ad valorem*, and by foreign vessels double this duty; but manufactured tobacco, rope from Manila, hemp, and gold and silver, coined or uncoined, if exported to Spain, go duty free. The principal currency of Manila consists of Spanish dollars, of 8 reals and 96 grains; but S. American dollars are also current. The weights in use are the Spanish lb., which is nearly 2 per cent. heavier than the English; the arroba = 25½ Eng. lbs. nearly; the quintal = 102 lbs., and the picul of 5 arrobas, or 1¼ cwt. Eng. The coyan is a measure for rice, &c., varying from 96 to 135 lbs. According to a recent list, there are in Manila 47 Spanish merchants and 11 foreign firms. The Spanish merchants have a chamber of commerce, and a joint-stock insurance society. The U. S. States, France, and Belgium have consuls, and each of the Canton marine insurance companies has an agent here. There are, however, neither fire nor life offices nor agencies; nor is any newspaper, price-current, or other periodical publication issued in Manila.

Considering the great fertility and varied productions of the Philippines, and their peculiarly favourable situation for carrying on commerce, the limited extent of their trade, even with its late increase, may excite surprise. This, however, is entirely a consequence of the wretched policy of the Spanish government, which persevered until very recently in excluding all foreign ships from the ports of the Philippines, confining the trade between them and Mexico and S. America to a single ship! Even ships and settlers from China were excluded. "Provisions," says La Perouse, "of all kinds are in the greatest abundance here, and extremely cheap; but clothing, European hardware, and furniture bear an excessively high price. The want of competition, together with prohibitions and restraints of every kind laid on commerce, render the productions and merchandises of India and China at least as dear as in Europe!" Happily, however, this miserable policy, the effects of which have been admirably depicted by M. de la Perouse, has been materially modified during the last few years. The events of the late war destroyed for ever the old colonial system of Spain; and the ships of all nations are now freely admitted into Manila and the other parts in the Philippines. An unprecedented stimulus has, in consequence, been given to all sorts of industry; and its progress will no doubt become more rapid, according as a wider experience and acquaintance with foreigners makes the natives better aware of the advantages of commerce and industry, and disabuses them of the prejudices of which they have been so long the slaves.

MARBLE (Ger. Rus. and Lat. *Marmor*; Du. *Marmer*; Fr. *Marbre*; It. *Marmo*; Sp. *Marmol*), a genus of fossils, composed chiefly of lime; being a bright and beautiful stone, moderately hard, not giving fire with steel, fermenting with and soluble in acid menstrua, and calcining in a slight fire.

The colours by which marbles are distinguished are almost innumerable. Some are quite black; others, again, are of a snowy white; some are greenish; others greyish, reddish, bluish, yellowish, &c. while some are variegated and spotted with many different colours and shades of colour. The finest solid modern marbles are those of Italy, Blankenburg, France, and Flanders. Great quantities of very beau-

of having compiled the whole, or at least the greater part, of the *Consolato del Mare*. On the other hand, Don Antonio de Capmany, in his learned and excellent work on the commerce of Barcelona — (*Antiguo Comercio de Barcelona*, tome i. pp. 170—183.), has endeavoured to show that the *Consolato* was compiled at Barcelona; and that it contains the rules according to which the consuls, which the Barcelonese had established in foreign places so early as 1268, were to render their decisions. It is certain that the *Consolato* was printed for the first time at Barcelona, in 1502; and that the early Italian and French editions are translations from the Catalan. Asuni has, indeed, sufficiently proved, that the Pisans had a code of maritime laws at a very early period, and that several of the regulations in it are substantially the same as those in the *Consolato*. But it does not appear that the Barcelonese were aware of the regulations of the Pisans, or that the resemblance between them and those in the *Consolato* is more than accidental; or may not fairly be ascribed to the concurrence that can hardly fail to obtain among well-informed persons legislating upon the same topics, and influenced by principles and practices derived from the civil law.

M. Pardessus, in the second volume of his excellent work already referred to, appears to have been sufficiently disposed, had there been any grounds to go upon, to set up a claim in favour of Marseilles to the honour of being the birthplace of the *Consolato*; but he candidly admits that such a pretension could not be supported, and unwillingly adheres to Capmany's opinion. — "Quoique Français," says he, "quoique portée par des sentimens de reconnaissance, qu'aucun événement ne sauroit affoiblir, à faire valoir tout ce qui est en faveur de Marseilles, je dois reconnoître franchement que les probabilités l'emportent en faveur de Barcelone." — (Tome ii. p. 24.)

But to whichever city the honour of compiling the *Consolato* may be due, there can be no doubt that its antiquity has been greatly exaggerated. It is affirmed, in a preface to the different editions, that it was solemnly accepted, subscribed, and promulgated, as a body of maritime law, by the Holy See in 1075, and by the kings of France and other potentates at different periods between 1075 and 1270. But Capmany, Asuni, and Pardessus have shown in the clearest and most satisfactory manner that the circumstances alluded to in this preface could not possibly have taken place, and that it is wholly unworthy of attention. The most probable opinion seems to be, that it was compiled, and began to be introduced, about the end of the 13th or the beginning of the 14th century. And notwithstanding its prolixity, and the want of precision and clearness, the correspondence of the greater number of its rules with the ascertained principles of justice and public utility, gradually led, without the intervention of any agreement, to its adoption as a system of maritime jurisprudence by all the nations contiguous to the Mediterranean. It is still of high authority. Casaregis says of it, though, perhaps, too strongly " *Consulatus maris, in materis maritima, tanquam universalis consuetudo habens vim legis, invariabiliter attendenda est apud omnes provincias et nationes.* — (Disc. 213. n. 12.)

The collection of sea laws next in celebrity, but anterior, perhaps, in point of time, is that denominated the *Roole des Jugemens d'Oleron*. There is as much diversity of opinion as to the origin of these laws, as there is with respect to the origin of the *Consolato*. The prevailing opinion in Great Britain has been, that they were compiled by direction of Queen Eleanor, wife of Henry II., in her quality of Duchess of Guienne; and that they were afterwards enlarged and improved by her son Richard I., at his return from the Holy Land: but this statement is now admitted to rest on no good foundation. The most probable theory seems to be, that they are a collection of the rules or practices followed at the principal French ports on the Atlantic, as Bordeaux, Rochelle, St. Malo, &c. They contain, indeed, rules that are essential to all maritime transactions, wherever they may be carried on; but the references in the code sufficiently prove that it is of French origin. The circumstance of our monarch's having large possessions in France at the period when the Rules of Oleron were collected, naturally facilitated their introduction into England; and they have long enjoyed a very high degree of authority in this country. "I call them the Laws of Oleron," said a great civilian — (*Sir Leoline Jenkins, Charge to the Cinque Ports*), "not but that they are peculiarly enough English, being long since incorporated into the customs and statutes of our admiralties; but the equity of them is so great, and the use and reason of them so general, that they are known and received all the world over by that rather than by any other name." Molloy, however, has more correctly, perhaps, said of the laws of Oleron, that "they never obtained any other or greater force than those of Rhodes formerly did; that is, they were esteemed for the reason and equity found in them, and applied to the case emergent." — (*De Jure Maritimo et Navali*, Introd.)

A code of maritime law issued at Wisby, in the island of Gothland, in the Baltic, has long enjoyed a high reputation in the North. The date of its compilation is uncertain; but it is comparatively modern. It is true that some of the northern jurists contend that the laws of Wisby are older than the Rules of Oleron, and that the latter are chiefly

copied from the former ! But it has been repeatedly shown that there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for this statement. — (See *Pardessus, Collection, &c.* tome i. pp. 425—462.; *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 13. art. *Hanseatic League*.) The Laws of Wisby are not certainly older than the latter part of the 14th or beginning of the 15th century; and have obviously been compiled from the *Consolato del Mare*, the Rules of Oleron, and other codes that were then in use. Grotius has spoken of these laws in the most laudatory manner: — “*Quæ de maritimis negotiis*,” says he, “*insula Gothlandia habitatoribus placuerunt, tantum in se habent, tum æquitate, tum prudentia, ut omnes oceani accola eo, non tanquam proprio, sed velut gentium jure, utantur.*” — (*Prolegomena ad Procopium*, p. 64.)

Besides the codes now mentioned, the ordinances of the Hanse Towns, issued in 1597 and 1614, contain a system of laws relating to navigation that is of great authority. The judgments of Damme, the customs of Amsterdam, &c., are also often quoted.*

But by far the most complete and well digested system of maritime jurisprudence that has ever appeared, is that comprised in the famous *Ordonnance de la Marine* issued by Louis XIV. in 1681. This excellent code was compiled under the direction of M. Colbert, by individuals of great talent and learning, after a careful revision of all the ancient sea laws of France and other countries, and upon consultation with the different parliaments, the courts of admiralty, and the chambers of commerce, of the different towns. It combines whatever experience and the wisdom of ages had shown to be best in the Roman laws, and in the institutions of the modern maritime states of Europe. In the preface to his treatise on the *Law of Shipping*, Lord Tenterden says, — “If the reader should be offended at the frequent references to this ordinance, I must request him to recollect that those references are made to the maritime code of a great commercial nation, which has attributed much of its national prosperity to that code; a code composed in the reign of a politic prince; under the auspices of a wise and enlightened minister; by laborious and learned persons, who selected the most valuable principles of all the maritime laws then existing; and which, in matter, method, and style, is one of the most finished acts of legislation that ever was promulgated.”

The ordinance of 1681 was published in 1760, with a detailed and most elaborate commentary by M. Valin, in 2 volumes, 4to. It is impossible which to admire most in this commentary, the learning or the sound good sense of the writer. Lord Mansfield was indebted for no inconsiderable portion of his superior knowledge of the principles of maritime jurisprudence to a careful study of M. Valin's work.

That part of the *Code de Commerce* which treats of maritime affairs, insurance, &c. is copied, with very little alteration, from the ordinance of 1681. The few changes that have been made are not always improvements.

No system or code of maritime law has ever been issued by authority in Great Britain. The laws and practices that now obtain amongst us in reference to maritime affairs have been founded principally on the practices of merchants, the principles laid down in the civil law, the Laws of Oleron and Wisby, the works of distinguished juriconsults, the judicial decisions of our own and foreign countries, &c. A law so constructed has necessarily been in a progressive state of improvement; and, though still susceptible of amendment, it corresponds, at this moment, more nearly, perhaps, than any other system of maritime law, with those universally recognised principles of justice and general convenience by which the transactions of merchants and navigators ought to be regulated.

The decisions of Lord Mansfield did much to fix the principles, and to improve and perfect the maritime law of England. It is also under great obligations to Lord Stowell. The decisions of the latter chiefly, indeed, respect questions of neutrality, growing out of the conflicting pretensions of belligerents and neutrals during the late war; but the principles and doctrines which he unfolds in treating those questions, throw a strong and steady light on those branches of maritime law. It has occasionally, indeed, been alleged, — and the allegation is probably, in some degree well founded, — that his Lordship has conceded too much to the claims of belligerents. Still, however, his judgments must be regarded, allowing for this excusable bias, as among the noblest monuments of judicial wisdom of which any country can boast. “They will be contemplated,” says Mr. Serjeant Marshall, “with applause and veneration, as long as depth of learning, soundness of argument, enlightened wisdom, and the chaste beauties of eloquence, hold any place in the estimation of mankind.” — (*On Insurance*, Prelim. Disc.)

The “Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen,” by the late Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, does credit to the talents, erudition, and liberality of its noble and learned author. It gives, within a brief compass, a clear and

* A translation of the Law of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse Towns, is given in the 3d edition of Malynes's *Lex Mercatoria*; but the edition of them in the work of M. Pardessus, referred to in the text, is infinitely superior to every other.

admirable exposition of the most important branches of our maritime law; and may be consulted with equal facility and advantage by the merchant, the general scholar, and the lawyer. Mr. Serjeant Marshall has entered very fully into some, and has touched upon most points of maritime law, in his work on *Insurance*; and has discussed them with great learning and sagacity. The works of Mr. Justice Park, Mr. Holt, and a few others, are also valuable. Of the earlier treatises, the *Lex Mercatoria* of Malynes is by far the best; and, considering the period of its publication (1622), is a very extraordinary performance.

Statutes with respect to Importation and Exportation, Navigation, &c.—The preceding remarks refer merely to the principles, or leading doctrines, of our maritime law. These, however, have often been very much modified by statutory enactments; and the excessive multiplication of acts of parliament suspending, repealing, or altering parts of other acts, has often involved our commercial and maritime law in almost inextricable confusion, and been most injurious to the public interests. No one, indeed, who is not pretty conversant with the subject, would readily imagine to what an extent this abuse has sometimes been carried. From the Revolution down to 1786, some hundreds of acts were passed, each enacting some addition, diminution, or change, in the duties, drawbacks, bounties, and regulations previously existing in the customs. In consequence, the customs laws became so intricate and unintelligible, that hardly one merchant in fifty could tell the exact amount of duty affecting any article, or the course to be followed either in entering or clearing out vessels; being obliged to leave it entirely to the clerks of the Custom-house to calculate the amount of duties, and to direct him how to proceed so as to avoid forfeiting the goods and the ship; and yet, so powerful is the influence of habit in procuring toleration for the most pernicious absurdities, that this monstrous abuse was allowed to go on increasing for 50 years after it had been denounced as intolerable. Mr. Pitt has the merit of having introduced something like order into this chaos. Under his auspices, all the separate customs duties existing in 1787 were repealed, and new ones substituted in their stead; consisting, in most instances, of the equivalents, so far at least as they could be ascertained, of the old duties. In carrying this measure into effect, the House of Commons passed no fewer than 3,000 resolutions. The regulations as to entries and clearances were also simplified.

The advantages resulting from this measure were very great; but during the war, so many new duties and regulations were passed, that the necessity for a fresh consolidation became again very urgent, and was effected in 1819. It was not, however, in the customs department only, or in the mere article of duties, that the merchant and ship owners were bewildered by the multiplicity of statutory regulations. There was not a single branch of the law regulating their transactions that escaped the rage for legislation. Previously to 1822, no fewer than 113 statutes had been passed relating to the fisheries; and the makers and buyers of sails and cordage were supposed to be familiar with the various obscure and contradictory regulations embodied in the *twenty-three* acts of parliament relating to these articles! But the enormity of the abuse will be rendered more apparent, by laying before the reader the following extract from the *Report of the Lords' Committee on Foreign Trade in 1820*.

"Before," say their Lordships, "your committee proceed to advert to the points which have been the principal objects of their inquiry, they are anxious to call the attention of the House to the excessive accumulation and complexity of the laws under which the commerce of the country is regulated, with which they were forcibly impressed in the very earliest stage of their proceedings. These laws, passed at different periods, and many of them arising out of temporary circumstances, amount, as stated in a recent computation of them, to upwards of *two thousand*, of which no less than 1,100 were in force in 1815; and many additions have been since made. After such a statement, it will not appear extraordinary that it should be matter of complaint by the British merchant, that, so far from the course in which he is to guide his transactions being plain and simple—so far from being able to undertake his operations, and to avail himself of favourable openings, as they arise, with promptitude and confidence—he is frequently reduced to the necessity of resorting to the services of professional advisers, to ascertain what he may venture to do, and what he must avoid, before he is able to embark in his commercial adventures with the assurance of being secure from the consequences of an infringement of the law. If this be the case (as is stated to your committee) with the most experienced among the merchants, even in England, in how much greater a degree must the same perplexity and apprehension of danger operate in foreign countries and on foreign merchant's, whose acquaintance with our statute book must be supposed to be comparatively limited, and who are destitute of the professional authority which the merchant at home may at all times consult for his direction? When it is recollected, besides, that a trivial unintentional deviation from the strict letter of the acts of parliament may expose a ship and cargo to the inconvenience of seizure, which (whether

law; and may be general scholar, and has touched us discussed them Mr. Holt, and a *Storia* of Malynes (1622), is a very

—The preceding our maritime law. etments; and the altering parts of most inextricable indeed, who is not extent this abuse some hundreds of ge, in the duties, In consequence, one merchant in the course to be leave it entirely to and to direct him l yet, so powerfulicious absurdities, years after it had introduced some- te customs duties stead; consisting, be ascertained, of Commons passed earances were also

during the war, so fresh consolidation ver, in the customs t and ship owners e was not a single ge for legislation. ng to the fisheries; e familiar with the wenty-three acts of e will be rendered a the *Report of the*

vert to the points ous to call the at- of the laws under furcibly impress'd t different periods, a stated in a recent han 1,100 were in uch a statement, it y the British mer- ctions being plain to avail himself of —he is frequently visers, to ascertain le to eni ark in his onsequences of an mmittee) with the ch greater a degree sign countries and ust be supposed to authority which the n it is recollecte, the acts of parlia- re, which (whether

sustained or abandoned) is attended always with delay and expense, and frequently followed by litigation, it cannot be doubted that such a state of the law must have the most prejudicial influence both upon commercial enterprise in the country, and upon our mercantile relations and intercourse with foreign nations; and perhaps no service more valuable could be rendered to the trade of the empire, nor any measure more effectually contribute to promote the objects contemplated by the House, in the appointment of this committee, than an accurate revision of this vast and confused mass of legislation; and the establishment of some certain, simple, and consistent principles, to which all the regulations of commerce might be referred, and under which the transactions of merchants engaged in the trade of the United Kingdom might be conducted with facility, safety, and confidence."—(p. 4.)

Since this Report was printed, a very considerable progress has been made in simplifying and clearing up the statute law, on the principles laid down in it. The law as to shipping and navigation has been particularly improved. The principles laid down in the famous navigation acts of 1650 and 1660 were, indeed, sufficiently distinct and obvious; but when these acts were passed, there were above 200 statutes in existence, many of them antiquated and contradictory, which they did not repeal, except in so far as the regulations in them might be inconsistent with those in the new acts. But besides these, a number of statutes were passed almost in every session since 1660, explaining, limiting, extending, or modifying in one way or other, some of the provisions of the navigation acts; so that ultimately there were questions perpetually arising, as to which it was very difficult to discover the precise law. On such occasions, recourse was often had to the courts; and the good sense and equity which generally characterised their decisions mitigated the mischievous consequences resulting from the uncertainty of the statute law, and even gave it the appearance of consistency. Latterly, however, this uncertainty has been well nigh removed. A bill introduced and carried through parliament in 1824 repealed above 200 antiquated and contradictory statutes; and the new customs and navigation acts passed in the following year were drawn up with a brevity and precision which do honour to the memory of their compiler, the late Mr. Hume, of the Board of Trade. But various alterations having been subsequently made in the customs' laws, new statutes embodying these alterations were passed in 1833, and again in 1845. Of those now referred to the principal are—the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 88, for the encouragement of British shipping and navigation, which may be called the present navigation law—(see NAVIGATION LAWS); the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 89, for the registry of British vessels—(see ROASTRY); the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86, containing the principal regulations with respect to importation and exportation—(see IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION); and the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 93, for regulating the trade with the British possessions abroad—(see COLONIES AND COLONY TRADE).

It may be worth while observing, that hardly a session passes without giving birth to more or fewer acts, making certain changes or modifications in the customs' laws. Where these changes apply only to some particular emergency, without affecting the general principles or rules laid down in the statutes, there can be no doubt that they should be embodied in separate acts; but where any modification or alteration is to be made in the principles of the law, the better way, as it appears to us, would be to introduce it directly into the leading act on the subject—re-enacting it in an amended or altered form. In no other way is it possible to preserve that unity and clearness which are so very desirable. The multiplication of statutes is a very great evil, not only from the difficulty of ascertaining the exact degree in which one modifies another, but from its invariably leading to the enactment of contradictory clauses. The property and transactions of merchants ought not to depend upon the subtleties and niceties of forced constructions, but upon plain and obvious rules, about which there can be no mistake. It would, however, be idle to expect that such rules can ever be deduced from the conflicting provisions of a number of statutes: those in the same statute are not always in harmony with each other.

MARK, or MARC, a weight used in several parts of Europe, for various commodities, especially gold and silver. In France, the mark was divided into 8 oz. = 64 drachms = 192 deniers or pennyweights = 4,608 grains. In Holland, the mark weight was also called Troy weight, and was equal to that of France. When gold and silver are sold by the mark, it is divided into 24 carats.

The pound, or *livre*, *poide de marc*, the weight most commonly used in retail dealings throughout France, previous to the Revolution, was equal to 2 marcs, and consequently contained 16 oz. = 128 drs. = 384 den. = 3,216 grs. One kilogramme is nearly equal to 2 livres.—Subjoined is a Table of *livres*, *poide de marc*, from 1 to 10, converted into kilogrammes. Any greater number may be learned by a simple multiplication and addition.

<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Kilog.</i>	<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Kilog.</i>	<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Kilog.</i>	<i>Livres.</i>	<i>Kilog.</i>
1	0.4895	4	1.9580	7	3.4265	10	4.8950
2	0.9790	5	2.4475	8	3.9160		
3	1.4685	6	2.9370				

MARK, a term sometimes used among us for a money of account, and in some other countries for a coin. The English mark is $\frac{3}{4}$ s of a pound sterling, or 13s. 4d.; and the Scotch mark is $\frac{3}{4}$ s of a pound Scotch. The mark Lubs, or Lubeck mark, used at Hamburg, is a money of account, equal to 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. sterling.

MARKET, a public place in a city or town, where provisions are sold. No market is to be kept within 7 miles of the city of London; but all butchers, victuallers, &c. may hire stalls and standings in the flesh-markets there, and sell meat and other provisions. Every person who has a market is entitled to receive toll for the things sold in it; and, by ancient custom, for things standing in the market, though not sold; but those who keep a market in any other manner than it is granted, or extort tolls or fees where none are due, forfeit the same. — (See **FAIRS**.)

MARSEILLES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Mediterranean, lat. 43° 17' 49" N., lon. 5° 22' E. Population, including suburbs, 170,000.

Harbour. — The harbour, the access to which is defended by several strong fortifications, is in the centre of the city, forming a basin 525 fathoms in length, by about 150 do. in breadth. The tide is hardly sensible; but the depth of water at the entrance to the harbour varies from 16 to 18 feet, being lowest when the wind is N.W., and highest when it is S.W. Within the basin the depth of water varies from 12 to 24 feet, being shallowest on the north, and deepest on the south side. Dredging machines are constantly at work to clear out the mud, and to prevent the harbour from filling up. Though not accessible to the largest class of ships, Marseilles is one of the best and safest ports in the world for moderate-sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate above 1,000. Ships in the basin lie close alongside the quays; and there is every facility for getting them speedily loaded and unloaded. The Isle de Ratonneau, Pomegues, and the strongly fortified islet or rock of Ile W. S.W. from the port; the latter, which is the nearest to it, being only 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ mile distant, and not more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile from the projecting point of land to the south of the city. There is good anchorage ground for men-of-war and other large ships between the Isles de Ratonneau and Pomegues, to the west of the Isle d'Iff. When coming from the south, it is usual to make the Isle de Planier, in lat. 43° 11' 54" N., lon. 5° 13' 59" E. A light-house erected on this island is 131 feet high; the flashes of the light, which is a revolving one, succeed each other every $\frac{1}{4}$ minute, and in clear weather it may be seen 7 leagues off. Ships that have made the Isle de Planier, or that of Le Maire, lying east from it about 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles, steer northerly for the Isle d'Iff distant about 7 miles from each, and having got within $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ mile of it, heave to for a pilot, who carries them into harbour; it is not, however, obligatory on ships to take a pilot on board; but being obliged to pay for one whether they avail themselves of his services or not, they seldom dispense with them. The charge is 4 sous per ton in, and 2 sous per do. out, for French vessels, and the vessels of countries having reciprocity treaties with France. There is a light-house in the fort St. Jean, on the north side of the entrance to the port. The *Isarétis*, which is one of the best in Europe, lies a little to the north of the city; and there is an hospital on Ratonneau Island, for individuals whose health is dubious. With the exception of the above charge for pilotage, and the charges for such vessels as perform quarantine, there are no port charges on ships entering at or clearing out from Marseilles.

Trade, &c. — Marseilles is a city of great antiquity, and has long enjoyed a very extensive commerce. Havre, partly, no doubt, from its being, as it were, the port of Paris, used to enjoy a greater share of the trade of France; but, notwithstanding the increased importance of the former, it has recently been surpassed by Marseilles. The customs duties collected at Havre, in 1841, were 23,000,000 fr., whereas those collected at Marseilles during the same year, amounted to 34,000,000 fr.; and, in 1842, to 34,222,463 fr., having increased to that amount from 25,899,394 fr. in 1830.

This statement shows conclusively, that the trade of Marseilles is not only increasing rapidly, but that it is already very extensive. She is the grand emporium of the South of France, and the centre of 9-10ths of her commerce with the countries on the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. The exports consist principally of silk stuffs, wines, brandies, and liqueurs; woollens and linens; madder, oil, soap, refined sugar, perfumery, stationery, verdigris, and all sorts of colonial products. Among the principal imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; dye stuffs; corn from the Black Sea and the north coast of Africa; cotton from Egypt and America; coal, linen, thread, and various descriptions of manufactured goods from England; with hides, wool, tallow, timber, &c. Marseilles engrosses almost the whole trade between France and Algiers. She is now also the principal seat of the intercourse carried on by steamers with Malta, Alexandria, and Constantinople; and, besides the steamers employed by the government as packets, she has upwards of 20 steamers belonging to private companies. Mr. Maclaren says that in 1839 most part of the latter had English-made engines, and English engineers; and that they burnt English coal, which sold here for about 30s. a ton. There belonged to the port, on the 31st of December 1841, 659 sailing vessels of the burden of 58,945 tons; and 21 steamers of the burden of 2,751 tons. A joint-stock bank established here in 1835 is said to have been exceedingly successful.

We regret we are unable to lay before the reader any very recent account of the import and export trade of Marseilles. We believe, however, that the value of the first may at present (1843), be estimated at about 200,000,000 fr. or 8,000,000 sterling, and that of the exports at about as much. For information as to money, weights, measures, duties, &c., the reader is referred to the art. *HAVER*, under which head he will find an account of the trade of France. We subjoin an

Account of the Value of the Imports from different Foreign Countries, and of the Value of the Exports to the same, at Marseilles, in 1833.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	France.	France.	France.	France.
Great Britain and possessions in the Mediterranean	1,615,239	6,000,650	1,880,331	1,879,338
Belgium	1,208	331,832	5,018,478	2,358,313
Holland	255,178	61,192	7,225,181	6,151,634
Hannetic States	418,671	1,244,168	331,501	234,620
Prussia	-	370,104	199,353	391,847
Russia	15,594,483	2,023,484	645,388	177,975
Sweden	327,086	594,094	148,870	765,135
Norway	65,200	11,292	35,678	404,945
Denmark	17,264	55,150	86,905	750,133
Germany	-	46,930	13,026,073	6,685,916
Switzerland	-	2,621,554	277,793	-
Austria	6,159,735	4,271,635	516,498	103,316
Sardinia	37,873,490	18,004,359	1,060,557	668,378
Two Sicilies	30,011,278	6,935,038	1,158,503	446,407
Other Italian States	8,891,668	10,336,783	141,575	14,812
Spain	15,938,242	9,424,122	54,180	141,046
Portugal	420,450	19,616	-	-
Turkey	23,374,830	16,738,035	Total	151,936,486
				106,829,290

Summary Account of the Trade of Marseilles in 1833.

	Imports.		Exports.	
	France.	France.	France.	France.
Trade with foreign countries	-	-	151,936,486	106,829,290
Trade with the colonies	-	-	11,511,916	10,407,525
Algiers	-	-	2,078,858	10,986,021
Gold fishery	-	-	6,000	30,000
Whale fishery	-	-	1,263,098	-
Small fishery	-	-	1,000,000	-
Great coasting trade	-	-	9,976,483	21,000,601
Little coasting trade	-	-	8,000,000	15,000,000
Total	-	-	182,775,831	164,555,737

Account of the Shipping which arrived at and departed from Marseilles in 1847, specifying the Countries to which the Ships belonged, and the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of those belonging to each.

Countries.	Arrivals.			Departures.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Great Britain	246	44,405	2,299	280	55,829	2,757
France	2,247	266,962	-	2,038	331,258	896
America	34	15,078	865	54	15,578	896
Austria	454	112,858	4,372	448	104,043	4,679
Brazil	2	847	26	1	287	14
Belgium	2	665	29	6	368	24
Chili	2	808	29	1	217	12
Denmark	15	1,066	118	18	1,247	130
Holland	19	2,310	125	25	2,580	149
Greenland	770	163,272	9,273	771	163,818	9,223
Hanover	4	960	17	4	860	17
Hannetic Towns	4	1,220	70	4	1,220	70
Lucas	68	5,185	421	68	5,278	433
Macklenburgh Schwerin	2	329	19	2	429	30
Morocco	69	1,109	310	69	1,109	310
Naples	654	127,456	7,664	676	134,617	7,909
Portugal	5	832	61	5	822	61
Prussia	10	2,262	93	10	2,282	93
Roman States	40	2,086	270	42	2,283	297
Russia	203	65,592	3,622	204	65,096	3,712
Sardinia	143	84,302	8,450	139	82,467	8,400
Spain	517	45,712	5,104	522	48,898	5,196
Sweden and Norway	98	24,565	1,054	107	27,017	1,146
Turkey	154	28,048	2,069	160	30,045	2,186
Tuscany	80	2,322	679	71	2,227	680
Venezuela	1	170	10	1	170	10
Total	6,445	1,107,889	-	6,504	1,090,293	-

The arrivals and departures in this and the preceding year are considerably above the average, a consequence of the great importations of foreign corn. In 1846 the imports of wheat amounted to 1,290,000 quarters, and in 1847 to above 2,200,000 quarters.

The trade of Marseilles has been much increased by the occupation of Algiers, she being the grand centre of the intercourse carried on with that country. But independently of this circumstance, Marseilles engrosses by far the largest share of the extensive commerce carried on between France and the E. coast of Spain, Italy, Greece, and the Levant. Her preponderance as an emporium is obvious from the fact of her customs duties having amounted in 1847 to 34,742,000 fr., while those of Havre and Bordeaux were respectively only 26,002,000 and 14,957,000 do.

MASTER, in commercial navigation, the person intrusted with the care and navigation of the ship.

No one is qualified to be the master of a British ship, unless he be a natural-born British subject, or naturalised by act of parliament, or a denizen by letters of denization; or have become a subject of his Majesty by conquest, cession, &c., and have taken the oaths of allegiance; or a foreign seaman who has served 3 years, in time of war, on board of his Majesty's ships.

"The master is the confidential servant or agent of the owners; and in conformity to the rules and maxims of the law of England, the owners are bound to the performance of every lawful contract made by him relative to the usual employment of the ship."—(*Abbott* (late Lord Tenterden) on the *Law of Shipping*, part ii. c. 2.)

From this rule of law it follows that the owners are bound to answer for a breach of contract, though committed by the master or mariners against their will, and without their fault.—(*Id.*) Nor can the expediency of this rule be doubted. The owners, by selecting a person as master, hold him forth to the public as worthy of trust and confidence. And in order that this selection may be made with due care, and that all opportunities of fraud and collusion may be obviated, it is indispensable that they should be made responsible for his acts.

The master has power to hypothecate, or pledge, both ship and cargo for necessary repairs executed in foreign parts during the course of the voyage; but neither the ship nor cargo can be hypothecated for repairs executed at home.

The master has no lien upon the ship for his wages, nor for money advanced by him for stores or repairs. In delivering judgment upon a case of this sort, Lord Mansfield said—"As to wages, there is no particular contract that the ship should be a pledge; there is no usage in trade to that purpose; nor any implication from the nature of the dealing. On the contrary, the law has always considered the captain as contracting personally with the owner; and the case of the captain has, in that respect, been distinguished from that of all other persons belonging to the ship. This rule of law may have its foundation in policy, for the benefit of navigation; for, as ships may be making profit and earning every day, it might be attended with great inconvenience, if, on the change of a captain for misbehaviour, or any other reason, he should be entitled to keep the ship till he is paid. Work done for a ship in England is supposed to be done on the personal credit of the employer: in foreign parts the captain may hypothecate the ship. The defendant might have told the tradesman, that he only acted as an agent, and that they must look to the owner for payment."

The master is bound to employ his whole time and attention in the service of his employers, and is not at liberty to enter into any engagement for his own benefit that may occupy any portion of his time in other concerns; and therefore, if he do so, and the price of such engagement happen to be paid into the hands of his owners, they may retain the money, and he cannot recover from them.—(*Abbott*, part ii. c. 4.)

During war, a master should be particularly attentive to the regulations as to sailing under convoy; for, besides his responsibility to his owners or freighters, he may be prosecuted by the Court of Admiralty, and fined in any sum not exceeding 500*l.*, and imprisoned for any term not exceeding 1 year, if he wilfully disobey the signals, instructions, or lawful commands of the commander of the convoy; or desert it without leave.—(43 *Geo.* 3. c. 160.)

Wilfully destroying or casting away the ship, or procuring the same to be done by the master or mariners, to the prejudice of the owners, freighters, or insurers; running away with the cargo; and turning pirates; are offences punishable by transportation beyond seas for not less than 15 years, or by imprisonment for not more than 3 years.—(See art SEAMEN.)

After the voyage has been commenced, the master must proceed direct to the place of his destination, without unnecessarily stopping at any intermediate port, or deviating from the shortest course. No such deviation will be sanctioned, unless it has been occasioned by stress of weather, the want of necessary repair, avoiding enemies or pirates, succouring of ships in distress, sickness of the master or mariners, or the mutiny of the crew.—(*Marshall on Insurance*, book 1. c. 6. § 3.) To justify a deviation, the necessity must be real, inevitable, and imperious; and it must not be prolonged one moment after the necessity has ceased. A deviation without such necessity vitiates all insurances upon the ship and cargo, and exposes the owners to an action on the part of the freighters. If a ship be captured in consequence of deviation, the merchant is entitled to recover from the owners the prime cost of the goods with shipping charges; but he is not entitled to more, unless he can show that the goods were enhanced in value beyond the sum above mentioned.

If a merchant ship has the misfortune to be attacked by pirates or enemies, the master is bound to do his duty as a man of courage and capacity, and to make the best resistance that the comparative strength of his ship and crew will allow.

By the common law, the master has authority over all the mariners on board the ship,—it being their duty to obey his commands in all lawful matters relating to the navigation of the ship, and the preservation of good order. But the master should in all cases use his authority with moderation, so as to be the father, not the tyrant, of his crew. On his return home he may be called upon by action of law, to answer to a mariner he has either beat or imprisoned during the course of the voyage; and unless he show sufficient cause for chastising the mariner, and also that the chastisement was reasonable and moderate, he will be found liable in damages. Should the master strike a mariner without cause, or use a deadly weapon as an instrument of correction, and death ensue,

he will be found guilty, according to the circumstances of the case either of manslaughter or murder. — (*Abbott*, part ii. c. 4.)

The master may by force restrain the commission of great crimes; but he has no jurisdiction over the criminal. His business is to secure his person, and to deliver him over to the proper tribunals on his coming to his own country. — (See art SEAMEN.)

If by shipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, seamen, subjects of Great Britain, be found in foreign parts, her Majesty's governors, ministers, consuls, or 2 or more British merchants, residing in such parts, may send such seamen home in ships of war, or in merchant ships homeward bound in want of men; and if such ships cannot be found, they may send them home in merchant ships that are fully manned, but no such merchant ship shall be obliged to take on board more than *four* such persons for every 100 tons burden: and the master, upon arrival, and producing to the Navy Board a certificate from the governor, minister, consul, &c. where he shipped the men, and his own affidavit of the time he maintained them, shall receive *1s. 6d. per diem* for all such seamen above his own complement of men. — (*53 Geo. 3. c. 85.*) A subsequent statute (*58 Geo. 3. c. 38.*) inflicts a penalty of 100*l.* on any master of a merchant vessel who shall refuse to take on board or bring home any seafaring man, a subject of Great Britain, left behind in any foreign country, upon being required to do so by the competent authorities.

The discharging of any man when abroad, or leaving behind any man carried out who is in a condition to return, without the express sanction of the consul or other authority to be referred to in such cases, or forcing a seaman on shore, whether in or out of H. M.'s dominions, are, respectively, offences on the part of the master which the law has declared to be misdemeanors, and made punishable as such. — (*7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. §§ 46, 47.*)

A penalty of 20*l.* is imposed on every master of a vessel, who, having, on account of his inability to proceed on his voyage, left any seafaring man at any foreign port or place, shall neglect or refuse to deliver an account of the wages due, and to pay the same. — (*7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. § 49.*)

The law makes no distinction between carriers by land and carriers by water. The master of a merchant ship is, in the eye of the law, a carrier; and is, as such, bound to take reasonable and proper care of the goods committed to his charge, and to convey them to the place of their destination, *barring only the acts of God and the king's enemies.*

Every act which may be provided against by ordinary care renders the master responsible. He would not, for example, be liable for damage done to goods on board in consequence of a leak in the ship occasioned by the violence of the tempest, or other accident; but if the leak were occasioned by rats, he would be liable, for these might have been exterminated by ordinary care, as by putting cats on board, &c. On the same principle, if the master run the ship in fair weather against a rock or shallow known to expert mariners, he is responsible. If any injury be done to the cargo by improper or careless stowage, the master will be liable.

The master must not take on board any contraband goods, by which the ship and other parts of the cargo may be rendered liable to forfeiture or seizure. Neither must he take on board any false or colourable papers, as these might subject the ship to the risk of capture or detention. But it is his duty to procure and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the manifestation of the ship and cargo, by the law of the countries from and to which the ship is bound, as well by the law of nations in general, as by treaties between particular states. These papers and documents cannot be dispensed with at any time, and are quite essential to the safe navigation of neutral ships during war. — (See *SHIPS' PAPERS.*)

It is customary in bills of lading to insert a clause limiting the responsibility of the master and owners, as follows: — "*The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, save risk of boats, as far as ships are liable thereto, excepted.*" When no bill of lading is signed, the master and owners are bound according to the common law.

The most difficult part of the master's duty is when, through the perils of the sea, the attacks of enemies or pirates, or other unforeseen accidents, he is prevented from completing his voyage. If his own ship have suffered from storms, and cannot be repaired within a reasonable time, and if the cargo be of a *perishable nature*, he is at liberty to employ another ship to convey it to the place of destination. He may do the same if the ship have been wrecked and the cargo saved, or if his own ship be in danger of sinking, and he can get the cargo transferred to another; and in *extreme cases* he is at

* The most celebrated maritime codes, and the opinions of the ablest writers, have differed considerably as to these points. According to the Rhodian law (*Pand. l. 10. § 1.*) the captain is released from all his engagements, if the ship, by the perils of the sea, and without any fault on his part, become incapable of proceeding on her voyage. The laws of Oleron (*art. 4.*), and those of Wisby (*arts. 16, 37, 55.*), say that the captain may hire another ship; harmonising in this respect with the present law of England. The famous French ordinance of 1681 (*tit. Du Frêt, art. 11.*) and the *Code de Commerce* (*art. 296.*), order the captain to hire another ship; and if he cannot procure one, freight is to be due only for that part of the voyage which has been performed (*pro rata itineris peracti*). Valin has objected to this article, and states that practically it meant only that the captain must hire another ship if he would earn the whole freight.

liberty to dispose of the cargo for the benefit of its owners. But, to use the words of Lord Chief Justice Tenterden, "the disposal of the cargo by the master is a matter that requires the utmost caution on his part. He should always bear in mind that it is his duty to convey it to the place of destination. This is the purpose for which he has been intrusted with it, and this purpose he is bound to accomplish by every reasonable and practical method. What, then, is the master to do, if, by any disaster happening in the course of his voyage, he is unable to carry the goods to the place of destination, or to deliver them there? To this, as a general question, I apprehend no answer can be given. Every case must depend upon its own peculiar circumstances. The conduct proper to be adopted with respect to perishable goods will be improper with respect to a cargo not perishable: one thing may be fit to be done with fish or fruit, and another with timber or iron: one method may be proper in distant regions, another in the vicinity of the merchant; one in a frequented navigation, another on unfrequented shores. The wreck of the ship is not necessarily followed by an impossibility of sending forward the goods, and does not of itself make their sale a measure of necessity or expedience: much less can the loss of the season, or of the proper course of the voyage, have this effect. An unexpected interdiction of commerce, or a sudden war, may defeat the adventure, and oblige the ship to stop in her course; but neither of these events doth of itself alone make it necessary to sell the cargo at the place to which it may be proper for the ship to resort. In these and many other cases, the master may be discharged of his obligation to deliver the cargo at the place of destination; but it does not therefore follow that he is authorised to sell it, or ought to do so. What, then, is he to do? In general, it may be said, *he is to do that which a wise and prudent man will think most conducive to the benefit of all concerned*. In so doing, he may expect to be safe, because the merchant will not have reason to be dissatisfied; but what this thing will be, no general rules can teach. Some regard may be allowed to the interest of the ship, and of its owners; but the interest of the cargo must not be sacrificed to it. Transhipment for the place of destination, if it be practicable, is the first object, because that is in furtherance of the original purpose: if that be impracticable, return, or a safe deposit, may be expedient. A disadvantageous sale (and almost every sale by the master will be disadvantageous) is the last thing he should think of, because it can only be justified by that necessity which supersedes all human laws." — (*Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.)

The master of a ship is liable for goods of which she is robbed in part; and the reason, as Lord Mansfield stated, is, lest room should be given for collusion, and the master should get himself robbed on purpose, in order that he might share in the spoil. The master is, however, entitled to indemnify himself out of the seamen's wages for losses occasioned by their neglect.

If any passenger die on board, the master is obliged to take an inventory of his effects; and if no claim be made for them within a year, the master becomes proprietor of the goods, but answerable for them to the deceased's legal representatives. Bedding and furniture become the property of the master and mate; but the clothing must be brought to the deck, and there appraised and distributed among the crew.

If a master die, leaving money on board, and the mate, becoming master, improve the money, he shall, on allowance being made to him for his trouble, account both for interest and profit.

The conditions under which seamen and apprentices are to be taken on board ship, and the obligations of the master with respect to them, are fully set forth in the art. SEAMEN, in this work; and to it also the reader is referred for a statement of the duty of the master with respect to the registry of seamen, and the contributions, &c. due to the corporation for the relief of decayed seamen, their widows, &c.

For the duty of the master, as respects Custom-house regulations, see the articles IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, QUARANTINE, SMUGGLING, &c.; and for a further discussion of this important subject, see the excellent work of Lord Tenterden on the *Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3, &c.; *Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 8, &c.; and the articles CHARTERPARTY, FREIGHT, &c. in this Dictionary.

Qualifications of Masters. Means by which they should be ascertained. — Considering the important nature of the duties which the master of a ship has to perform, it has been customary in some countries to require that all persons, previously to their being nominated to act in that capacity, should undergo an examination by some public board respecting their knowledge of seamanship, and their possession of the various qualifications necessary to act as masters, and that none should be appointed without their being licensed by such board or other competent authority. We are in-

Emerigon (tom. i. p. 428.) holds that the captain, being the agent not only of the owners of the ship, but also of the shippers of the goods on board, is bound, in the absence of both, to use his best endeavours to preserve the goods, and to do whatever, in the circumstances, he thinks will most conduce to the interest of all concerned; or what it may be presumed the shippers would do, were they present. This, which seems to be the best and wisest rule, has been laid down by Lord Mansfield and Tenterden, as stated above, and may be regarded as the law of England on this point.

clined to think that sound policy would approve of this practice, and we have no doubt that were an examination of this sort instituted in this country and properly conducted, it would add to the respectability of the profession, the public security, and be in all respects of material advantage. There can, unhappily, be no doubt that the ignorance and incapacity of the masters and inferior officers of ships has been a copious source of disaster. Officers of the navy have to go through a course of discipline, and are obliged to submit to certain examinations as to their proficiency in seamanship. This, also, was the case with the officers of the East India Company's ships, which were exceedingly well navigated. Indeed the Company trusted entirely for protection to the goodness of their ships, and the skill of their officers and men; it not being their practice ever to insure. But the masters and officers of ordinary merchant ships, even of those engaged in the conveyance of passengers, are not subjected to any specific training, or regular examination. Everything is left to mere individual investigation and selection; and this, as every one knows, depends almost wholly on accident; or, which is nearly equivalent to it, on the skill, industry, liberality, &c. of the ship owner. It is sufficiently clear that masters so chosen cannot fail of being, in many instances, very ill qualified for their business. Few, however, have any notion of the extent of the mischief thence arising; but we have been assured by gentlemen of undoubted information, and extensively connected with the business of insurance, that nearly half the losses at sea may be ascribed to the incapacity and carelessness of the masters and crews. Perhaps there may be some exaggeration in this; but, supposing that only a third part, or that 212 out of the 636 vessels wrecked in 1841, were lost through the circumstances referred to, is not that enough, not merely to justify government interfering to avert so great an evil, but to make such interference an imperative duty?

The interposition of government in a case of this sort is not only absolutely just and necessary, but it is conformable to the highest authority. The famous French ordinance of 1681 has the following article: — "*Aucun ne pourra ci-après être reçu capitaine, maitre, ou patron de navire, qu'il n'ait navigué pendant cinq ans, et n'ait été examiné publiquement sur le fait de la navigation, et trouvé capable par deux anciens maitres, en présence des officiers de l'Amirauté et du Professeur de l'Hydrographie, s'il y en a dans le lieu.*" — (Liv. ii. tit. 1. § 1.) A like article has been inserted in the *Code de Commerce*; and in 1825, the French Government issued an ordinance specifying, in detail, the qualifications that are necessary before any one can obtain a certificate of his fitness to command a ship, either on a foreign or a coasting voyage; the persons who are to examine candidates; and the rules to be observed in the examination. A similar system has been adopted in Prussia; and we cannot entertain a doubt that it would be of the greatest service were it introduced into this country. The authority of the master is so very great, and the trust reposed in him, including not merely the ship and goods of his employers, but the lives of the crew and passengers, so very extensive, that it is the bounden duty of the public to provide, in as far as practicable, that it be not committed to ignorant or incapable hands.

At present the care of the lives of hundreds of passengers may be committed, without check or control of any sort, and without their knowing anything of the matter, to any incapable blockhead who may be able to prevail on an owner to appoint him to a ship. No doubt it is for the interest of the owner to appoint the best captain he can find; but he may be unable to form a correct estimate of the qualifications necessary for such a situation; and, though this were not the case, hundreds of circumstances may conspire to blind his judgment, and to make him select a master who is really unworthy. Hence the advantage of the preliminary examination by competent parties, which, if made efficient, would certainly afford a powerful guarantee against the chance of an unfit person being appointed.

Perhaps it would, at first, be enough to enact, that no ship, which cleared out for an *oversea* voyage, should be deemed a British ship, unless the master and the second in command had received a certificate of fitness from the proper authorities. This would leave it to the owners to take whom they pleased as masters of coasting vessels; but we believe that the better way would be to enact that all masters of vessels above a specified tonnage, and of all vessels employed in the conveyance of passengers, should be selected from among certificated persons.

We rather incline to think, should we have occasion to notice this important subject on any future occasion, that it will be to announce that some such plan as that which we have ventured to recommend has been adopted. It has, we are glad to say, been approved by the Committee appointed by the House of Commons in 1843 to inquire into the causes and prevention of shipwrecks. "Your Committee, after carefully weighing the evidence adduced, consider that, under all the circumstances, it would materially promote science, and prevent the loss of life and property, if a legislative enactment were introduced by government, establishing local boards for the purpose of examining into the abilities, conduct, and character of all who wish to qualify as masters and mates

in the merchant service. And your Committee further recommend the establishment of schools for the purpose of teaching navigation in the different seaports, to be supported by a small tonnage duty to be levied on the vessels belonging to such ports."— (*Report*, p. 4.)

MASTICH, or **MASTIC** (Ger. *Mastix*; Du. *Mastik*; Fr. *Mastic*; It. *Masticce*; Sp. *Almastica*, *Almaciga*; Arab. *Arâh*). This resinous substance is the produce of the *Pistacia Lentiscus*, a native of the Levant, and particularly abundant in the island of Chios. It is obtained by making transverse incisions in the trunks and branches of the trees, whence the mastic slowly exudes. About 1,500 cwt. are annually exported from Chios, part of which is brought to this country, packed in chests. The best is in the form of dry, brittle, yellowish, transparent tears; it is nearly inodorous, except when heated, and then it has an agreeable odour; chewed, it is almost insipid, feeling at first gritty, and ultimately soft; its virtues are trifling.—*Ainslie's Materia Indica*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

MATE, in a merchant ship, the deputy of the master, taking, in his absence, the command. There are sometimes only 1, and sometimes 2, 3, or 4 mates in a merchantman, according to her size; denominated 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. mates. The law, however, recognises only 2 descriptions of persons in a merchantman—the master and mariners; the mates being included in the latter, and the captain being responsible for their proceedings.

In men-of-war, the officers immediately subordinate to the captain are called lieutenants. But the *master*, or officer whose peculiar duty it is to take charge of the navigation of the ship, has certain mates under him selected from the midshipmen. The boatswain, gunner, carpenter, &c. have each their mates or deputies, taken from the crew.

The officers subordinate to the commander in the ships belonging to the East India Company were called 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. officers. East Indians had no sailing masters, the commanders performing that duty.—(*Falconer's Marine Dictionary*, &c.)

MATS (Du. *Matten*; Fr. *Nattes*; Ger. *Matten*; It. *Stuoje*, *Stoje*; Port. *Esteiras*; Rus. *Prugoshki*; Sp. *Esteras*), textures composed, for the most part, of flags, reeds, the bark of trees, rushes, grass, rattans, old ropes, &c. In this country mats are used for a great variety of purposes. The coarser sort are very largely employed in the packing of furniture and goods; in the stowage of corn and various other articles on board ship; in horticultural operations; in covering the floors of churches and other public buildings, &c.: the finer sorts are principally employed in covering the floors of private houses.

In Europe, mats are principally manufactured for sale in Russia, where their production is a prominent branch of national industry. They consist of the bark of the lime or linden tree, and are known in this country by the name of *bast* mats. The Russian peasants manufacture this sort of material into shoes, cordage, sacks for corn, &c., and employ it in an endless variety of ways. In consequence of the vast quantities of matting that are thus made use of at home and sent abroad, the demand for it is immense. It is principally produced in the governments of Viatka, Kostroma, and those immediately contiguous; and in the months of May and June, the period when the bark is most easily detached from the stem, the villages in the governments in question are almost deserted, the whole population being then in the woods employed in stripping the trees. The academician Köppen, who has carefully investigated this curious subject, estimates the average annual production of mats in European Russia, as follows:—

Government of Viatka	-	-	-	-	6,000,000 pieces
Ditto	Kostroma	-	-	-	4,000,000 —
Ditto	Kasan	-	-	-	1,000,000 —
Ditto	Nijni Novgorod	-	-	-	1,000,000 —
Ditto	Vologda, Tamboff, Simbirsk, and Pensa	-	-	-	2,000,000 —
Total					14,000,000

Köppen further estimates that about 1-4th part of this vast quantity, or 3½ millions, are exported, the rest being consumed at home.

It is obvious from these statements that the annual destruction of linden trees must be quite enormous; and it may well excite astonishment that they are not already all but exhausted. But whether it be from the rapid growth of the tree, or the vast extent of the forests in which it is found, the gloomy forebodings of Mr. Tooke, as to its destruction have not hitherto been realised (*View of Russia*, iii. 262.), and mats have not become either scarcer or dearer. It is, however, hardly possible to suppose that such should continue to be the case, seeing the rapid increase of population and of the consumption of matting in most parts of the empire. But in the event of its becoming scarcer, the inhabitants will have no difficulty in finding substitutes; so that we agree in opinion with those who think it would be bad policy to impose any restrictions on this branch of industry, in the view of averting an evil which may never occur; and which, if it do occur, may be easily obviated.—(See a very interesting article in the *Supplement au Journal de l'Intérieur de St. Petersburg*, for 1841, p. 113.)

"From this it will appear, that the imports have increased nearly an *lacs* of rupees, and the exports two *lacs* and a half. Among the imports, the increase is found chiefly under the head of marine stores, spirituous liquors, and articles of European and Birmese manufacture. Among the exports, it is found in the staple productions of the country, rice and timber. Under the head of imports, we may notice that five *lacs* of rupees were received during the year into the government treasury; to which may be added, what does not appear in our statements, about half a *lac* of rupees, perhaps, from the Mauritius, for the purchase of cargoes of rice and timber. Under the head of exports, also, it would not, we think, be improper to include the estimated value of the vessels built and launched during the year at the several dock-yards. The following is a very rough estimate:—

Vessels launched	No.	Tonnage.	Estimated Value.
	9	- 2000	- 250,000
Ditto fitted for sea	-	-	- 125,000
		Total	Rs. 375,000

"We are not aware that the mode in which our statements are drawn up requires any particular explanation. The word

'*sendries*' may be, perhaps, thought too comprehensive, but we have divided it among articles of European, Indian, Chinese, and Birmese produce or manufactures.

"The following is a statement of the imports into Madras from the neighbouring Indian States during 1837:—

	No.	Value.
Elephants	68	15,600
Foxes	146	17,300
Buffaloes	82	990
Cows and bullocks	2480	45,000
Swindies	-	4,500
		Rs. 81,610

"Of the exports to these states, we can prepare no detailed statement. Little else, however, is taken to them from hence but piece goods, either European or native, the value of which may, perhaps, be estimated at about 60,000 rupees.

"Taking, then, into consideration the various items above alluded to, and which are not brought into our statements, we shall have the following as the amount of imports and exports for the year 1837:—

Imports	Rs. 20,92,875
Exports	Rs. 11,08,410

MAURITIUS. See POPE LOUIS.

MEAD, or METHEGLIN (Ger. *Mehl, Meth*; Du. *Meede, Meedrank*; Fr. *Hydromel*; It. *Idromelo*; Rus. *Lipez*), the ancient, and for a long time, the favourite drink of the northern nations. It is a preparation of honey and water. Manufacturers of mead for sale must take out an annual licence.

MEAL (Ger. *Mehl*; Du. *Meel*; Fr. and It. *Farina*; Sp. *Farina*; Rus. *Muka*; Lat. *Farina*), the edible part of wheat, oats, rye, barley, and pulse of different kinds, ground into a species of coarse flour.

MEDALS, are pieces of metal, generally in the form of a coin, and impressed with some peculiar stamp, intended to commemorate some individual or action. Medals are of very different prices—varying according to their rarity and preservation, the fineness of the metal, the beauty of the workmanship, &c.

MEDITERRANEAN PASS. The nature of this sort of instrument has been described by Mr. Reeves, in his *Treatise on the Law of Shipping*, as follows:—

"In the treaties that have been made with the Barbary states, it has been agreed, that the subjects of the King of Great Britain should pass the seas unmolested by the cruisers of those states; and for better ascertaining what ships and vessels belong to British subjects, it is provided that they shall produce a *pass* under the hand and seal of the Lord High Admiral, or the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. In pursuance of these treaties, passes are made out at the Admiralty, containing a very few words, written on parchment, with ornaments at the top, through which a scolloped indenture is made; the *scolloped tops* are sent to Barbary; and being put in possession of their cruisers, the commanders are instructed to suffer all persons to pass who have passes that will fit these scolloped tops. The protection afforded by these passes is such, that no ships, which traverse the seas frequented by these rovers, ever fail to furnish themselves with them, whether in the trade to the East Indies, the Levant, Spain, Italy, or any part of the Mediterranean; and from the most particular need of them in the latter, they, no doubt, obtained the name of *Mediterranean passes*. For the accommodation of merchants in distant parts, blank passes, signed by the Lords of the Admiralty, are lodged with the governors abroad, and with the British consuls, to be granted to those who comply with the requisites necessary for obtaining them. As this piece of security is derived wholly from the stipulations made by the crown with a foreign power, the entire regulation and management of it has been under the direction of his Majesty, who, with the advice of his privy council, has prescribed the terms and conditions on which these passes shall be granted. Among others are the following:—They are to be granted for none but British-built ships, or ships made free, navigated with a master and $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of the mariners British subjects, or foreign protestants made denizens. Bond is to be given in the sum of 300*l.* if the vessel is under 100 tons, and in 500*l.* if it is of that or more, for delivering up the pass within 12 months, unless in the case of ships trading from one foreign port to another; and such passes need not be returned in less than 3 years.

"It has been found expedient, at the conclusion of a war, and sometimes during a peace, to recal and cancel all passes that have been issued, and to issue others in a new form. This has been done for 2 reasons. 1st, That these useful instruments, by various means, either accidental or fraudulent, came into the hands of foreigners, who, under cover of them, carried on in security a trade which otherwise would belong to British subjects, and which had been purchased by the crown, at the expense of keeping up this sort of alliance. 2dly, That the Barbary states complained, that, adhering to the rule of fitting the other part of the indenture to the passes, they were obliged to suffer ships to pass that did not belong to British subjects."

We have thought it right to give this explanation, though, since the occupation of Algiers by the French, and the disappearance of the corsairs of the other Barbary powers, Mediterranean passes have fallen into disuse.

MEMEL, a commercial town of East Prussia, lat. 55° 41' 49" N., lon. 21° 8' 14" E. Population, in 1838, 9,034. Memel is situated on the north-east side of the great bay, denominated the *Currische Haf*, near its junction with the Baltic. It is, consequently, the principal *entrepôt* of the country traversed by the Niemen, and as such enjoys a pretty extensive commerce.

Harbour.— The harbour of Memel is large and safe; but the bar at the mouth of the *Currische Haf* has seldom more than 17 feet water, and, sometimes not more than 13 or 14 feet; so that ships drawing more than 16 feet water are frequently obliged to load and unload a part of their cargoes in the roads, where the anchorages are but indifferent, particularly when the wind is N. or N.W. A light-house, originally 75, but now 100 feet in height, has been erected on the N.E. side of the entrance to the harbour. The light, which is fixed and powerful, may be distinguished in clear weather at more than 30 miles distance. The outer buoy lies in 6 fathoms water, about a mile without the light-house, which bears from it S.E. by E. ½ E. The channel thence to the harbour is marked by white buoys on the north, and red on the south side. Three beacons to the north of the town, when brought into a line, lead directly into the harbour. Inasmuch, however, as the channel is subject to frequent changes, both in depth and direction, it is always prudent, on arriving at the outer buoy, to heave to for a pilot; but this is not obligatory; and the Prussian authorities have issued directions for ships entering without a pilot, which may be found in Mr. Norie's *Sailing Directions for the Cattegat and Baltic*, p. 36.

Trade.— Timber forms the principal article of export; for though that of Dantzig be considered better, it is generally cheaper, and almost always more abundant; at Memel. Here, as at Dantzig, the best quality of all sorts of wood articles is called *Äros*, or crown, the 2d *brack*, and the 3d *brack* or *brack*. Large quantities of hemp and flax are also exported, as are bristles, hides, linseed (the finest for packing brought to England), wax, pitch and tar, &c. The exports of grain are sometimes very considerable. The wheat of Lithuania is reckoned the best. All flax and hemp shipped from Memel must be *Äros*, or assorted by sworn selectors.— (See *FLAX*, and *HEMP*.) The imports consist principally of coffee, sugar, spices, dyes, tobacco, rum, cotton stuffs and yarn, cutlery, wine, &c. Merchants at Memel generally send their bills to Königsberg to be sold, charging their correspondents with 1 per cent. for bank commission, postage, &c. The navigation generally closes about the latter end of December, and opens about the middle of March.

Notwithstanding the difficulties which our corn laws and timber duties throw in the way of our commerce with Prussia, we have a pretty extensive intercourse with Memel. Our imports consist principally of fir timber, and the ships that go out are mostly only partially loaded, or in ballast. We subjoin an

Account of the Imports into and Exports from Memel by Sea in 1842.

Articles.	Imports.				Total.	Estimated Amount Shipped.	Exports.			
	From Foreign Ports.	From Russian Countries.	Total.	Estimated Amount Shipped.			To Great Britain.	To all other Countries.	Total.	Estimated Amount Shipped.
Woolen wares - cwt.	10	1	11	107		Wheat {lots of about 10½ quarters.}	13	12	25	600
Lead - - - - -	136		136	136		Flax - - - - -				15,199
Chemical manufactures - - - - -	156		156	156		Barley - - - - -				1,025
White lead - - - - -	158		158	675		Oats - - - - -	58		336	33
Soda - - - - -	189		189	201		Peas - - - - -				17
Wine - - - - -	519		519	117		Linseed - - - - -	1,679	1,583	3,262	58,716
Dyes - - - - -	55	539	594	680		Hemp, flax, cordage, anchors & chains, &c. - - - - -	69,079	4,389	73,468	99,101
Iron, raw - - - - -	6,813		6,813	1,181		Hides and skins, calf, cow, &c. - - - - -	176,081	2,400	181,481	9,073
Iron anchors & chains, &c. - - - - -	1,036		1,036	74		Goats - - - - -	1,436		1,436	1,156
Iron fine wares - - - - -	74	5	79	74		Cattle bones - - - - -	61	79	140	439
Timber - - - - -	135		135	686		Feathers - - - - -	81	79	160	1,248
Copper & brass wares - - - - -	34	8	42	36		Bristles & horse hair - - - - -	5	8	13	1,493
Railcloth - - - - -	103		103	540		Old rope - - - - -	156		156	31
Malt liquors - - - - -	698		698	939		Tar and pitch - - - - -	2,963	3,365	6,328	9,817
Spirits - - - - -	38	54	92	233		Timber, oak - - - - -	9,321	8,151	10,472	15,678
Wine - - - - -	79	964	1,043	909		Flax - - - - -	44,133	7,669	51,802	38,851
Herrings - - - - -	301		301	48		Manila - - - - -	29	48	77	845
Cocoa - - - - -	140,307		140,307	66		Spice - - - - -	293	1,383	1,676	1,517
Tax - - - - -	736	1,067	1,793	48		Waincoat logs - - - - -	1,366	331	1,737	6,143
Sarbanware - - - - -	27	4	31	193		Deals and ends, sleepers, &c. - - - - -	6,068	11,509	17,577	105,582
Marble figures - - - - -	27	83	110	66		Trenails - - - - -	511	34	545	976
Salt, lots of about 4000 lbs. - - - - -	2,572		2,572	305		Lithwood and fire-wood, &c. - - - - -	1,352		1,352	3,380
Alum - - - - -	65		65	328		Staves, oak, of all dees - - - - -	9,531	1,766	11,297	69,157
Southern fruits of all kinds - - - - -				439		Articles of wood, &c. - - - - -		2,436	2,436	6,708
Spices of all kinds - - - - -				1,477		Articles of glass, &c. - - - - -		38,000	38,000	1,209
Coffee - - - - -				138		Spirits of wine - - - - -		2,593	2,593	1,900
Rice - - - - -				76						444,392
Tea - - - - -				17,653						203,267
Sugar - - - - -				70						
Oil of all kinds - - - - -				77						
Tobacco - - - - -				246						
Wine, lots of about 4000 lbs. - - - - -				14						
Sundries, glass, cheese, paper, &c. - - - - -				269						

The *Monies, Weights, and Measures* of Memel are the same as those of Dantzig; which see. For further particulars see *Oddy's European Commerce*, pp. 220—224.; *Jacob's First Report on the Agriculture of the North of Europe*; *Geographical Dictionary*, art. MEMEL.

MERCURY, or **QUICKSILVER** (Fr. *Vif argent*; Ger. *Quicksilber*; It. *Argento vivo*; Sp. *Azogue*; Rus. *Rtut*; Lat. *Hydrargyrum*; Arab. *Zibâkh*; Hind. *Parah*; Sans. *Pârada*.) This metal was known in the remotest ages, and seems to have been employed by the ancients in gilding, and separating gold from other bodies, just as it is by the moderns. Its colour is white, and similar to that of silver; hence the names of *hydrargyrum*, *argentum vivum*, *quicksilver*, by which it has been known in all ages. It has no taste or smell. It possesses a good deal of brilliancy; and when its surface is not tarnished, it makes a very good mirror. Its specific character is 13.568. It differs from all other metals in being always fluid, unless when subjected to a degree of cold

equal to -39° , when it becomes solid. The congelation of mercury was first observed in 1759. — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Mercury is found in various parts of the world. Among the principal mines are those of Almaden, near Cordova, in Spain; Idria, in Carniola; Wolfstein and Morsfeld, in the Palatinate; Guanacavelica, in Peru, &c. "Most of the ores of mercury are readily distinguished from those of any other metal; in the 1st variety, globules of the metal are seen attached to or just starting on the surface, which is at once a sufficient criterion, mercury being unlike every other metal; in the 2d, by the fine white colour, and the action of the blow-pipe, which sublimates the mercury and leaves the silver behind; the 3d, by its beautiful deep red tint, varying from cochineal to scarlet red, excepting in those termed hepatic cinnabars, which are generally of a lead grey; the 4th, by its grey colour, its partial solubility in water, and its complete volatilisation by heat, emitting at the same time an arsenical odour. Before the blow-pipe, the 5th varieties burn with a blue flame and sulphurous colour, leaving more or less residue behind them; and which may consist of earthy matter, as silice and alumina, together with the oxides of iron and copper. — (*Joyce's Chem. Min.*)

Mercury is often adulterated by the admixture of lead, bismuth, zinc, and tin. When the metal quickly loses its lustre, is covered with a film, or is less fluid and mobile than usual, or does not readily divide into round globules, there is reason to suspect its purity.

Our supplies of mercury are derived almost wholly from Spain; thus of 2,157,918 lbs. imported in 1840 no fewer than 2,157,823 lbs. were brought direct from that country, being principally the produce of the mines of Almaden. About 300,000 lbs. are retained for home consumption, the surplus being exported to S. America, France, the East Indies, &c.

Quicksilver is produced in several of the provinces of China. During the war, when the intercourse between Europe and America was interrupted, the price of quicksilver rose to such a height in the latter, that it answered to import it from China. But since the peace it has been regularly exported to the latter. In 1838 the English and Americans imported into Canton 2,555 piculs, worth 253,825 dollars.

There are 2 sulphurets of mercury, the black or *ethiops mineral*, and the red or *cinnabar*. When mercury and sulphur are triturated together in a mortar, the former gradually disappears, and the whole assumes the form of a black powder, denominated *ethiops mineral*. If this powder be heated red-hot, it sublimates; and on a proper vessel being placed to receive it, a cake is obtained, of a fine red colour, which is called cinnabar. This cake, when reduced to powder, is well known in commerce by the name of *vermillion*. Cinnabar may be prepared in various other ways.

Calomel, or protochloride of mercury (*mercurius dulcis*), is the most useful of all the preparations obtained from it. It is in the form of a dull white, semi-transparent mass, having a specific gravity of 7.174. It is more generally employed, and with better effect, than almost any other remedy in the whole range of the *materia medica*.

Besides its uses in medicine, mercury is extensively employed in the amalgamation of the noble metals, in water-gilding, the making of vermilion, the silvering of looking-glasses, the making of barometers and thermometers, &c.

MILE, the usual measure of roads in England, being 8 furlongs, or 1,760 yards.

MILK (*Fr. Lait; It. Latte; Lat. Lac*), a fluid secreted by the female of all those animals denominated *mammalia*, and evidently intended for the nourishment of her offspring. The milk of every animal has certain peculiarities which distinguish it from all other milk. But the animal whose milk is most used by man, and with which, consequently, we are best acquainted, is the cow. The external character of all milk is that of a white opaque fluid, having a sweetish taste, and a specific gravity somewhat greater than that of water. When allowed to remain at rest, it separates into 2 parts; a thick whitish fluid called *cream*, collecting in a thin stratum over its surface, and a more dense watery body, remaining below. Milk which has stood for some time after the separation of the cream, becomes acescent, and then coagulates. When the coagulum is pressed gently, a serous fluid is forced out, and there remains the caseous part of the milk, or pure cheese.

Butter, one of the most valuable animal products, is solidified cream, and is obtained artificially by churning. — (See BUTTER.)

Milk has always been a favourite food of most European nations, and especially of the British. *Lacte et carne vivunt*, says Cæsar of our ancestors; and the same articles still continue to form a large part of our subsistence. Mr. Middleton estimates (*Agricultural Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 419.), that, in 1806, no fewer than 8,500 milch cows were kept for the supply of London and its environs with milk and cream; and he estimates the average quantity of milk obtained from each cow at *nine quarts* a day, or 328½ quarts a year, leaving, every deduction being taken into account, 3200 quarts of marketable produce.

But Mr. Youatt, in his valuable work on cattle, their breeds, &c., estimates the number of dairy cows kept, at present (1843), in London and its environs, at 12,000; affording, on Mr. Middleton's hypothesis, an annual supply of 38,400,000 quarts of milk. Now, as milk is sold by the retailers at from 3d. to 4d. a quart after the cream is separated from it, and as the cream is usually sold at from 2s. 6d. to 3s. a quart, and there is reason to suspect that a good deal of water is intermixed with the milk, we believe we should hardly be warranted in estimating that the milk, as obtained from the cow, is sold at less than 5d. a quart, which gives 800,000*l.* as the total price of the milk consumed in the city and its immediate vicinity. If to this sum were added the further sums paid for cheese and butter, the magnitude of the entire sum paid in the metropolis for milk, and the various products derived from it, would appear not a little astonishing.

MILLET (*Ger. Hirse; Fr. Millet, Mil; It. Miglio, Panicastrolo; Sp. Mijo; Lat. Milium, Panicum miliaceum*). There are 3 distinct species of millet; the Polish millet, the common or German millet, and the Indian millet. It is cultivated as a species of

grain; and is sometimes employed to feed poultry, and as a substitute for rice. The Indian millet grows to a large size; but the autumns in England are seldom dry and warm enough to allow of its being cultivated here. — (*London's Encyc. of Agriculture.*)

MILL-STONES (Ger. *Mühlsteine*; Fr. *Pierres meulières*; It. *Mole macine*; Sp. *Muelas de molino*; Rus. *Schernowol kamen*), the large circular stones, which, when put in motion by machinery, grind corn and other articles. The diameter of common mill-stones is from 5 to 7 feet, and their thickness varies from 12 to 18 inches. These stones have been principally imported from Rouen and other parts of France; the burr-stones of that country being supposed more durable than our own. Mill-stones are, however, found at Conway, in North Wales, and in some parts of Scotland, which are said to equal any imported from foreign countries. Good mill-stones usually last 35 or 40 years.

The duty on mill-stones formerly depended on their size, or on their being over or under four feet in diameter, but now it is 2s. per ton if they be shaped or scalped, and 10s. if they be hewn.

MINING COMPANIES. By this designation was formerly meant the associations formed in London, in 1825, for working mines in Mexico and S. America; but at present it comprises all mining projects carried on by joint stock associations.

The mania for mining concerns, which raged in London and the empire generally in 1824 and 1825, after the opening of Mexico and other parts of Spanish America to our intercourse, forms a remarkable, and we are sorry to add, disgraceful era in our commercial history. Now that the delusion is long past, we have difficulty in conceiving how mercantile men could be led to entertain such visionary expectations, and to pay immense premiums for shares in distant and hazardous undertakings of which they knew little or nothing. We may, therefore, be excused for appropriating a page or two to the notice of an infatuation hardly second to that which led to the South Sea and Mississippi schemes.

The American mining companies formed at the outset had some sort of basis for favourable expectations, their directors having made contracts for a number of mines in Mexico, described by Humboldt as having enriched many families. This particularly applies to the Real del Monte Company, whose mines are situated in the mountainous district of that name; to the Anglo-Mexican Company, whose mines are at Guanaxuato, the principal mining quarter in Mexico; and to the United Mexican Company, whose contracts, though too widely spread, comprise several valuable mines at Zacatecas, Sombrerete, Guanaxuato, and other parts.

These associations were formed in London early in 1824, and during the spring and summer of that year their stock or shares bore only a small premium; but towards the winter it began progressively to rise; not because of any favourable intelligence from the mines (for the accounts from Mexico merely reported the arrival of the English agents), but from a blind ardour and spirit of speculation in the public, which really took *omne ignotum pro magnifico*, every rumour of a mine for a certain and inexhaustible source of profit and of wealth! It was supposed that our countrymen were about to reap an immediate harvest; to lay their hands on a treasure hid for ages. This was said to be the true discovery of America, the effectual access to her resources. Every new contract for a Mexican mine produced a rise in the shares of the other companies, as if this fresh undertaking must necessarily be a source of profit to the whole! And the result was, that in January, 1825, the premium on the shares of most of the companies exceeded cent. per cent.! It must not, however, be imagined that this rise of price was occasioned solely by the competition of individuals who intended to continue to hold stock, and to trust to the dividends made by the companies for a return. That this was the case in the first instance, is, speaking generally, true. But a host of others, actuated by very different views, speedily entered the field. A peculiar combination of circumstances, at the head of which must be placed an almost incredible degree of ignorance and folly on the part of a considerable portion of the public, spread a spirit of gambling among all classes. Many who were most eager in the pursuit of shares, intended only to hold them for a few hours, days, or weeks, to profit by the rise which they anticipated would take place, by selling them to others more credulous or bold than themselves. The confidence of one set of speculators confirmed that of others. Meanwhile the public gullibility, or rather its indiscriminating rapacity, was liberally administered to. Company after company was formed without any previous contract; in other words, without any foundation whatever! The plan was to fix on a district in America, understood to contain mines; to form a company bearing the name of such district; to obtain a first payment from the shareholders, and to send or pretend to send out agents, to survey the district and engage mines. Such was the case of most of those companies having the names of districts in South America; and such, also, was the case of the Hispaniola or St. Domingo Company, formed on the basis of accounts given by Robertson of mines wrought in that island some 3 centuries ago! And yet lawyers, clergymen, and

even the nobles of the land, were candidates for shares in these miserable bubbles, in the hope of finding (in which, luckily, most of them were disappointed) some dupe to buy their shares at a premium.*

As the year 1825 proceeded, the mining mania gradually declined, not from any falling off in the prospects of the companies, for in truth they never had any, but in the supply of money in London. That redundancy of the currency in which the mining mania had partly originated, having brought about an adverse exchange, and a heavy drain for bullion on the Bank of England, the latter was obliged to pull up, and in a moment the bubble burst, and unreasonable suspicion took the place of blind unthinking confidence. Mining projects, from being in the highest favour, fell to the lowest point in the public estimation. The shares of the 3 principal companies, some of which had been at a premium of 500 per cent., fell to par: that is, 100*l.* in money, and no more, could be got for 100*l.* of the company's stock! They maintained this price for a considerable time, because most of the parties interested continued to have a favourable impression of the undertakings. Demands, however, continued to be made for additional sums to meet the expenditure abroad; and in 1826 and 1827 mining shares progressively declined, so that 100*l.* stock fetched only 20*l.* or 25*l.* in money. The bubble companies were entirely destroyed, and the few only remained that were founded by capitalists and had some foundation to stand upon.

Even these would have been relinquished, or have shrunk into very small dimensions, had not the directors been able to enforce further payments, by forfeiting, in default of such, whatever had been previously paid by the subscribers. The usage was, that on becoming a shareholder each person subscribed the deed of the company, engaging to pay, when called on, such instalments or sums to account (generally 10*l.* on each share) as should be required by the directors, until he had completed payment of the 100*l.* And many shareholders who had advanced 50*l.* or 60*l.* unwisely preferred paying 10*l.* from time to time, rather than incur the immediate forfeiture of all they had paid. Those who held only a few shares felt this in a less degree; but to the holders of a number of shares, the grievance was most serious. Numbers of them raised the money with great difficulty; often selling, at a heavy loss, their family property, or prevailing on relations to make them advances, to their great inconvenience, and, as far as can be seen, with almost no prospect of a return. Resentment would be excited against the directors, had they not been, in general, the heaviest sufferers: their regulations required them to hold a certain number of shares (perhaps 20 or 30); but in their blind confidence they frequently held 200 or 300, and drew on themselves a proportional sacrifice—in several cases, the loss of their whole property.

The managers of the companies formed in the outset were principally chargeable with ignorance, rashness, and overweening confidence. They had, in fact, but little information to go upon. The monopoly enforced by Old Spain had prevented any considerable communication between this country and her colonies. And of the Spaniards settled in Mexico, and driven from it by the civil war: and consequent emancipation of the country, few or none found their way hither, the great majority having repaired to Cuba, the south of France, and Spain. Nor were the published accounts of the country entitled to much confidence: Humboldt's Travels formed the chief authority; but their illustrious author, though generally cautious, seems, in this instance, to have placed too much confidence in vague, exaggerated statements. Our merchants knew, generally, that silver mines formed a main branch of the productive industry of Mexico, and had enriched very many families originally in humble circumstances; but they had no idea of the injury sustained by the mines during the civil war, nor of the amount of expenditure required to bring them into a working state: nor were they aware how little useful information could be expected from the natives; the working of the mines, like every operation requiring skill and intelligence, having been superintended by natives of Old Spain, who had either fallen in the civil war, or been expelled after the Mexicans succeeded in the contest. Hence, the agents of our companies found on the spot only native Mexicans, without education or experience in business, and, speaking generally, without candour or probity. They urged our countrymen to drain the mines, not by machinery, of which they had no idea, but by animal power, the use of which was of advantage to them, by employing their horses, and creating a great consumption of maize, the principal grain of the country. Then, as to the last and most important stage in the business of mining,—the mode of extracting the silver from the ore,—the Mexicans, wholly unacquainted with the improvements made

* Those who may be desirous of seeing the extent to which the public credulity was practised upon in 1824 and 1825, may consult a pamphlet published by H. English, broker, in 1827, which contains an account of all the joint stock companies formed and projected in these memorable years. It presents a most extraordinary picture. There were in all 74 mining companies formed and projected! The number and quality of the other schemes were similar. It is due to Mr. Baring (now Lord Ashburton) to say that he denounced the evil when in progress; and warned the unthinking multitude of the ruin they were bringing upon themselves; but to no purpose.

in Germany during the last half century, recommended amalgamation, a process conducted by them in a very rude manner, and which, in most qualities of silver ore, fails to extract the whole, or any thing like the whole, of the metal. The object of the Mexicans, in short, was merely to make English capital be circulated among them; thus giving employment to their people for a time, and bringing the mines into an improved state; when they (the Mexicans) might hope to resume them after our countrymen had exhausted their resources, or had become weary of their contracts.

Actuated by these views, the Mexicans pressed one undertaking after another on the agents of the companies, who were but too eager to enter on them without such incitement. All the companies fell into errors of the same kind, having engaged too many mines, and conducted them, for a time, as if their funds were unlimited. They reckoned on finding, as they proceeded, supplies in the produce of the mines; but that produce, though considerable in quantity, seldom yielded the expected result, owing to the very imperfect method of extracting the silver from the ore, as well as to the various disadvantages attendant on the vast distance of the undertakings from this country. These disadvantages were ill supplied by the agents of the companies. Mining in England is not conducted on a scale sufficient to afford any great choice of superintendents for mines abroad; it was necessary, in such appointments, to waive the qualification of mining knowledge, and to be satisfied with men of fair character and reputed ability in their respective professions, however different from mining. Hence the appointment as agents, of *naval and military officers, on the half-pay list*; whose habits, whatever might be their personal merits, were very different from those required for such concerns. This suffices, in part at least, to account for the disappointments of the companies in a very material point—the conduct of their commissioners or agents abroad; for, of the whole number, it would be difficult to point out more than 2 or 3 entitled to the praise of judicious management. The same applied to most of the inferior *employés*, or to the practical miners, clerks, and mechanics.

The expense of conveying the requisite machinery from the coast of Mexico to the mining districts, generally at a great distance in the interior, absorbed much capital. The country has few practicable roads, and these have latterly been allowed to fall into disrepair; draught carriages are almost unknown, and burdens are carried on the backs of mules and horses: add to this, that Mexico being under-peopled, labour is nearly as high in it as in the United States of North America; and the mechanical arts being in a manner unknown, all skilled workmen, such as carpenters, blacksmiths, and working engineers, had to be sent from England at a heavy expense. (For an account of the low state of the arts in Mexico, see the extracts from Chevalier's Letters in the *Geog. Dict. art. MEXICO.*)

Such were the chief causes of the failure of the Mexican mining companies; and several of these may be referred to one radical disadvantage—the non-existence of silver-mines in England. We have, in Cornwall, considerable mines of tin and copper, while in the northern counties we have mines of lead; but of silver we have none that deserve the name. How much better had it been had our countrymen set out with a consciousness that Germany is the only country in which the treatment of silver ore is conducted on scientific principles! The Saxons extract a profit from ore of very inferior quality, often worth only a fourth or fifth part of the ore raised by the Mexicans on account of our companies, but which, being wrought by their crude, inefficient, and expensive process, fails to afford any thing like a satisfactory return. There seems no reason to doubt that the German process may be applied to silver ore in Mexico as in Europe: the difficulties arise, not from difference in the quality of the ore, but from the want of experienced smelters, and the general backwardness of the Mexicans in mechanics.

But though the companies had been in all other respects successful, they had a serious drawback to contend with in the unsettled state of the country. No government has as yet been established in Mexico, nor in any other of the newly constituted American states, with power, or perhaps inclination, sufficient to put down disturbances, or to enforce the observance of contracts. So long as the companies were struggling to put their mines into order, they sustained little inconvenience from the circumstances now mentioned; but the moment they had succeeded in bringing them once more into a productive state, and were beginning to have a reasonable prospect of obtaining some return for their enormous outlays, they were annoyed by questions as to title, and by the setting up of claims on the mines, of which they had never heard before. In some instances the claimants have had recourse to violence, and the companies' servants have been forcibly ejected from their works! Chevalier says that it requires an armed force to transport any quantity of ore from the mine to the place of its destination; and he gives an account of a murderous attack made in 1835 on some miners belonging to the Real del Monte company.—(See *Geog. Dict. art. MEXICO.*) Probably, however, there has latterly been, in this respect, some improvement. At all events, the produce of the

mines is increasing in Mexico and most parts of South America. — (See art. PARCHOUS METALS.)

Without, however, pretending to anticipate the final result of these remote speculations, we shall conclude with a brief notice of the considerations on both sides of the question. The circumstances adverse to the success of mining companies in America, conducted on account of parties in England or in any part of Europe, are —

1. The various disadvantages of distant management. These are so many and so serious, as to admit of only one corrective, — selling the ore as soon as raised, and transferring to individuals, for their own account, the extraction of the metal, as is done in Cornwall, and, in a somewhat different manner, in Saxony. The ores also ought to be raised by paying the workmen, not fixed wages, but a tribute or portion of the proceeds.

2. The half-civilised state of the inhabitants, their unsettled political condition, and the want of power or disposition on the part of those in power to make contracts be observed; and to hinder the former proprietors of the mines, or those connected with them, from setting up fictitious claims, and enforcing them by violence.

3. The high price of labour; the ignorance of the natives as to mechanics, and still more as to science. Hence the necessity of having artisans and confidential superintendents from Europe at a heavy expense.

On the other hand, the circumstances in favour of such undertakings are —

1. The abundance of silver ore, which is far greater than in any part of Europe
2. The former success of mining in Mexico, under a system extremely rude and expensive, compared to that which is now followed in Germany.

3. The probability of peace in Europe, and of an abundance of monied capital; so that the failure of the present companies may not involve a relinquishment of their enterprises, any more than the failure of the first New River Company, about two centuries ago, implied an abandonment of their project. There is surely, also, some probability that anarchy and disorder will ultimately cease; and that the security of property will, in the end, be established. We confess, however, that these are but problematical and contingent events; and that it may reasonably be doubted whether any considerable future success can be anticipated.

It seems, however, as if there were something in mining speculations that renders them exceedingly unsuitable for joint stock associations. At all events, hardly one of the joint stock associations formed in this country for the working of mines has been successful. The company for working the copper mines near Santiago in Cuba appears to be the only one that has in any degree realised the magnificent prospects that were held out in 1824 and 1825. Anglo-Mexican 100l. shares are now selling at 2l. 15s., and Bolanos 150l. shares at 4l. 15s., and so forth. We subjoin

An Account of the principal existing Mining Companies, exhibiting the Number of Shares in each, the Amount of each Share, and its Cost Price, &c., in June 1843.

No. of Shares.	Mining Companies.	Amount of Share.	Average Cost.	Price per Share.	Dividend payable.
		£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
4,000	Alton	50	13 0 0 paid		May.
16,000	Anglo-Mexican (iss. at 5l. pm.)	100	100 0 0	2 15 0	
	Do., Subscription	50	25 0 0		
8,000	Risnavon Iron and Coal	50	50 0 0		April & Sept.
3,000	Bolanos	150	150 0 0		March & Sept.
10,000	Do. Scrip		21 0 0		
	Brazilian Imp. (iss. at 5l. pm.)	55	21 0 0	5 15 0	12th Dec.
6,000	Do. Mocaubas and Cocas United	25	25 0 0		
11,000	Do. St. John del Rey	30	15 0 0		
20,000	British Iron	100	73 0 0		
10,000	Candonga	20	7 10 0		Feb. and Aug.
	Do., Registered		7 10 0		
12,000	Coler Copper		40 0 0		
8,500	Coplapo	30	15 0 0		1 Sept.
16,000	Canadian (iss. at 5l. pm.)	55	55 0 0		
1,500	Do., New	11	11 0 0		
20,000	General Mining	30	30 0 0	5 0 0	
10,000	Hibernian	50	10 0 0	2 0 0	
5,000	Mexican	60	69 0 0		
20,000	Mining Company of Ireland	25	7 0 0		June and Dec.
11,500	Real del Monte, Registered	65	84 0 0	4 15 0	June and Dec.
	Do. Loan Notes		150 0 0		
10,000	Rhymney Iron	50	50 0 0	4l. to 5l. 10s.	Jan. and July.
30,000	Santiago de Cuba	25	10 0 0		Jan. and July.
	United Mexican (iss. at 2l. pm.)	40	40 0 0		
	Do. Scrip (New)		1 5 0		

MINIUM, or RED OXIDE OF LEAD, a tasteless powder of an intense red colour, often inclining to orange, and very heavy; its specific gravity being 8.94. It is extensively used in the arts.

MOCHA, the principal port in the Red Sea frequented by Europeans, in that part of Arabia called Yemen, about 40 miles to the north of the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb, lat. 13° 19' 30" N., lon. 43° 20' E. Population variously estimated; but may, perhaps, amount to from 5,000 to 7,000. It is encircled with walls, and indifferently fortified. Its appearance from the sea is imposing.

Mocha is situated on the margin of a dry sandy plain. It is built close to the shore, between 2 points of land which project and form a bay. Vessels drawing from 10 to 12 feet water may anchor within this bay at about a mile from the town; but large ships anchor without the bay in the roads, in 5 or 7 fathoms water — the grand mosque bearing E. S. E. and the fort to the south of the town S. by E., distant about two miles from the shore. The great article of export from Mocha is coffee, which is universally admitted to be of the finest quality. It is not possible to form any very accurate estimate of the quantity exported; but we believe it may be taken at 10,000 tons, or per-

haps more. The greater portion is sent to Djidda and Suez; but there is a pretty large export to Bombay, and other parts of India, whence some is sent to Europe: occasionally, however, the exports from Mocha and Hodeida, direct from Europe, are very considerable. Besides coffee, the principal articles of export are, dates, adjou, or paste made of dates, myrrh, gum Arabic, alibanum, senna (*coastia senna*), sharks' fins, tragacanth, horns and hides of the rhinoceros, balm of Gilead, ivory, gold dust, civet, aloes, saganapenum, &c. The principal articles of import are, rice, piece goods, iron and hardware, &c. The ivory, gold dust, and civet, met with at Mocha, are brought from the opposite coast of Abyssinia, whence are also brought slaves, ghee, &c.

The greater part of the foreign trade of Mocha is transacted by the Banians; and it is much safer to deal with them than with either Turks or Arabs. Europeans pay a duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* on all goods imported by them from Europe, India or China; the duty being levied on the amount of the sales. The buyer pays brokerage, cooloy, and boat hire. All kinds of foreign goods are sold on credit, and the payment is made in 3 instalments, or at a certain day, according as may have been agreed on. Coffee is always paid for in ready money. On the sale of other goods, the produce of the country, a credit is given; or if ready money be paid, a discount is allowed at the rate of 9 per cent. When goods are discharging, the master must furnish the Custom-house officer with a manifest, or account of the marks, numbers, and contents of each package. He then opens two or three bales, taken at random; and if they correspond with the account delivered, no further examination is made; but if they do not correspond, the whole bales are opened, and double duty is charged upon the excess. The quantities being thus ascertained, their value is learned from the account of sales rendered by the seller, and the duty charged accordingly. In this respect there is nothing to object to at Mocha; but a good deal of extortion is practised in the exacting of port charges, presents, &c., which may, however, be defeated by proper firmness. The port charges on ships, or *three-mast* vessels, may amount to about 400 Mocha dollars, and those on brigs to about half as much. Provisions are plentiful and cheap; but water is dear: that in the vicinity being brackish and unwholesome, whatever is used for drinking, by all but the poorest persons, is brought from Mocha, about 20 miles off. Fish are abundant and cheap, but not very good.

Money.—The current coin of the country are carats and commasas; 7 carats = 1 commasa; 60 commasas = 1 Spanish dollar; 100 Spanish dollars = 124 Mocha dollars.
Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are—
15 Yakias = 1 Rottolo = 1 lb. 2 os. avoird.
40 Yakias = 1 Maund = 3 lbs. avoird.
10 Maunds = 1 Frazel = 30 lbs. avoird.
15 Frazels = 1 Bahar = 450 lbs. avoird.

There is also a small mound of only 30 yakias = 1 Mocha behar = 161 Bombay mounds; 1 Mocha behar = 13 Surat mounds = 15125 seers. Grain is measured by the kelleh, 40 of which = 1 tomand, about 170 lbs. avoird. *Measures.*—The liquid measures

are 16 yakias = 1 maseah; 8 maseahs = 1 cude, about 2 English wine gallons. The long measures are the gae = 23 English inches; the hand covia = 18 inches, and the long from covid = 27 inches.
In compiling this article, we made use of *Milliers's Oriental Commerce*, and *Elmore's Directory*. Niebuhr has given a plan of the port of Mocha in his *Voyage en Arabie*, tome 1, p. 348, ed. Amst. 1776. He has also given some details of its trade in his *Description de l'Arabie*, p. 191. But the best account we have seen of Mocha is in *Hamilton's Account of the East Indies*, vol. 1, pp. 40—52, an accurate and valuable work. Burckhardt did not visit Mocha; which it is to be regretted.

MOGADORE, a semi-port on the west coast of Morocco, lat. 31° 50' N., lon. 9° 20' W. Population 10,000. It is indifferently fortified; the country in the immediate vicinity is sandy, and unproductive. Water is scarce and rather dear; being either rain water collected and preserved in cisterns, or brought from a river about 1½ mile distant. The port is formed by a small island lying to the southward of the town; but as there is not more than 10 or 12 feet water in it at ebb tide, large ships anchor without, the long battery bearing E. distant 1½ mile. The city of Morocco derives its most considerable supplies of European articles from Mogadore, from which it is distant about 4 days' journey (caravan travelling). The principal imports are, English woollen and cotton stuffs and hardware, German linens, tin, copper, earthenware, mirrors, glass, sugar, pepper, paper, and a variety of other articles. The exports principally consist of sweet and bitter almonds, gum Arabic, and other gums, bees' wax, cow and calf skins, ivory, ostrich feathers, gold dust, olive oil, dates, &c.

Money.—Accounts are kept in nutkols of 10 ounces; the ounce being divided into 1 blankets, and the blanket into 24 faces. From their proportion to the Spanish dollar, the blanket may be valued at 1d., the ounce at 4d., and the nutkol or quart at 3d. 4d.
Weights and Measures.—The commercial pound is generally regulated by the weight of 30 Spanish dollars; and therefore, 100 lbs. Mogadore weight, or the quintal, = 119 lbs. avoirdupois. The market pound for provisions is 30 per cent. heavier, or 1 lb. 12½ oz. avoirdupois.

The corn measures are for the most part similar to those of Spain, but there are considerable discrepancies.
The cubit, or canna, = 21 English inches, is the principal long measure.
The most ample details with respect to the trade of Mogadore, and the trade and productions of Morocco in general, may be found in *Jackson's Account of Morocco*, c. 6, 7 and 13:1; see also *Kelly's Combit*.

MOHAIR (Ger. *Mohr*; Fr. *Moire*; It. *Moerro*; Sp. *Mue*, *Muer*), the hair of a variety of the common goat, famous for being soft and fine as silk, and of a silvery whiteness. It is not produced any where but in the vicinity of Angora, in Asia Minor. The exportation of this valuable and beautiful article, unless in the shape of yarn, was formerly prohibited; but it may now be exported unspun. The production, preparation, and sale of mohair have long engrossed the principal attention of the inhabitants of Angora; and it used to form an important article of Venetian commerce. It is manufactured into camlets and other expensive stuffs. Hitherto but little has been imported into England.—(See, for further particulars, *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, ii. 463., where there is a figure of the goat; and *Urquhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 184.)

MOLASSES or MELASSES (Fr. *Sirap de Sucre*, *Melasses*; Ger. *Syrup*; It. *Mielazzu di zucchero*; Sp. *Miel de azucar*, *Chancaea*; Port. *Melasso*, *Assuere liquido*; Rus. *Tutoka sacharnaja*), the uncrystallisable part of the juice of the sugar cane, separated from the sugar during its manufacture. It is of a brown or black colour, thick, and viscid; has a peculiar odour, and a sweet empyreumatic taste. Molasses imported from the West India colonies and the Mauritius is charged, on being entered for home consumption, with a duty of 9s. a cwt., the duty on foreign molasses, which is quite

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prohibitory, being 23s. 9d. a cwt. It is not, however, used in its original state, but is purchased by the sugar-bakers, who, when it is of an ordinary degree of strength, extract from it a coarse, soft species of sugar called bastards, and treacle. But it is obvious, inasmuch as the duty on molasses is fixed, that the duty on the sugar extracted from it will vary indirectly according to the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains; and we understand that, in consequence, molasses is frequently imported so rich as to yield good crystallised sugar. We do not know whether the practice has been carried to such an extent as materially to injure the revenue: but it seems pretty clear that the duty should depend, in part at least, on the quality of the molasses, or on the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains, as well as on the weight. It is difficult — unless advantage has been taken of the way in which the duty is assessed, to elude the sugar duties — to account for the fact of the imports of molasses from the West India islands not having diminished in anything like the same proportion as the imports of sugar. (For an account of the imports of molasses see *anté*, p. 331.)

About 8 gallons of proof spirit may, it is said, be obtained from a cwt. of molasses, such as has recently been imported; but this depends, of course, wholly on the richness of the molasses.

Part of the refuse that remains, after refining muscovado sugar, is a sweet syrup, which, as well as the syrup that remains after boiling molasses to obtain bastards, is called treacle. But the treacle obtained from the former is always preferred to that obtained from the latter, and fetches 2s. per cwt. more.

Molasses is sometimes used in preparing the coarser sort of preserves; and on the Continent it is extensively used in the manufacture of tobacco.

An Account of the Quantity of Molasses entered for Consumption in 1840, 1841, and 1842, and of the Produce of the Duty thereon in each of these Years.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
<i>Cwts.</i> 423,728	<i>Cwts.</i> 402,450	<i>Cwts.</i> 535,202	£ 201,580	£ 195,548	£ 256,432

MONEY. When the division of labour was first introduced, commodities were directly bartered for each other. Those, for example, who had a surplus of corn, and were in want of wine, endeavoured to find out those who were in the opposite circumstances, or who had a surplus of wine and wanted corn, and then exchanged the one for the other. It is obvious, however, that the power of changing, and, consequently, of dividing employments, must have been subjected to perpetual interruptions, so long as it was restricted to mere barter. A. carries produce to market, and B. is desirous to purchase it; but the produce belonging to B. is not suitable for A. C., again, would like to buy B.'s produce, but B. is already fully supplied with the equivalent C. has to offer. In such cases — and they must be of a constant occurrence wherever money is not introduced — no direct exchange could take place between the parties; and it might be very difficult to bring it about indirectly.*

The extreme inconvenience attending such situations must early have forced themselves on the attention of every one. Efforts would, in consequence, be made to avoid them; and it would speedily appear that the best or rather the only way in which this could be effected, was to exchange either the whole or a part of one's surplus produce for some commodity of known value, and in general demand; and which, consequently, few persons would be inclined to refuse to accept as an equivalent for whatever they had to dispose of. After this commodity had begun to be employed as a means of exchanging other commodities, individuals would become willing to purchase a greater quantity of it than might be required to pay for the products they were desirous of immediately obtaining; knowing that should they, at any future period, want a further supply either of these or other articles, they would be able readily to procure them in exchange for this universally desired commodity. Though at first circulating slowly and with difficulty, it would, as the advantages arising from its use were better appreciated, begin to pass freely from hand to hand. Its value, as compared with other things, would thus come to be universally known; and it would at last be used, not only as the common medium of exchange, but as a standard by which to measure the value of other things.

Now this commodity, whatever it may be, is *money*.

An infinite variety of commodities have been used as money in different countries and periods. But none can be advantageously used as such, unless it possess several very peculiar qualities. The slightest reflection on the purposes to which it is applied,

* The difficulties that would arise on such occasions, and the devices that would be adopted to overcome them, have been very well illustrated by Colonel Torrens, in his work on the "Production of Wealth," p. 291.

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must, indeed, be sufficient to convince every one that it is indispensable, or, at least, exceedingly desirable, that the commodity selected to serve as money should, (1) be divisible into the smallest portions; (2) that it should admit of being kept for an indefinite period without deteriorating; (3) that it should, by possessing great value in small bulk, be capable of being easily transported from place to place; (4) that one piece of money, of a certain denomination, should always be equal, in magnitude and quality, to every other piece of money of the same denomination; and (5) that its value should be comparatively steady, or as little subject to variation as possible. Without the *first* of these qualities, or the capacity of being divided into portions of every different magnitude and value, money, it is evident, would be of almost no use, and could only be exchanged for the few commodities that might happen to be of the same value as its indivisible portions, or as whole multiples of them: without the *second*, or the capacity of being kept or hoarded without deteriorating, no one would choose to exchange commodities for money, except only when he expected to be able speedily to re-exchange that money for something else: without the *third*, or facility of transportation, money could not be conveniently used in transactions between places at any considerable distance: without the *fourth*, or perfect sameness, it would be extremely difficult to appreciate the value of different pieces of money: and without the *fifth* quality, or comparative steadiness of value, money could not serve as a standard by which to measure the value of other commodities; and no one would be disposed to exchange the produce of his industry for an article that might shortly decline considerably in its power of purchasing.

The union of the different qualities of comparative steadiness of value, divisibility, durability, facility of transportation, and perfect sameness, in the precious metals, doubtless, formed the irresistible reason that has induced every civilised community to employ them as money. The value of gold and silver is certainly not invariable, but, generally speaking, it changes only by slow degrees; they are divisible into any number of parts, and have the singular property of being easily reunited, by means of fusion, without loss; they do not deteriorate by being kept; and, from their firm and compact texture, they are very difficult to wear. Their cost of production, especially that of gold, is so considerable, that they possess great value in small bulk, and can, of course, be transported with comparative facility; and an ounce of pure gold or silver, taken from the mines in any quarter of the world, is precisely equal, in point of quality, to an ounce of pure gold or silver dug from the mines in any other quarter. No wonder, therefore, when all the qualities necessary to constitute money are possessed in so eminent a degree by the precious metals, that they have been used as such, in civilised societies, from a very remote era. "They became universal money," as Turgot has observed, "not in consequence of any arbitrary agreement among men, or of the intervention of any law, but by the nature and force of things."

When first used as money, the precious metals were in an unfashioned state, in bars or ingots. The parties having agreed about the quantity of metal to be given for a commodity, that quantity was then weighed off. But this, it is plain, must have been a tedious and troublesome process. Undoubtedly, however, the greatest obstacle that would be experienced, in early ages, to the use of gold and silver as money, would be found to consist in the difficulty of determining the degree of their purity with sufficient precision; and the discovery of some means by which their weight and fineness might be readily and correctly ascertained, would be felt to be indispensable to their extensive use as money. Fortunately, these means were not long in being discovered. The fabrication of coins, or the practice of impressing pieces of the precious metals with a stamp indicating their weight and purity, belongs to the remotest antiquity.—(*Gouget, De l'Origine des Loix, &c.* tome i. p. 269.) And it may safely be affirmed, that there have been very few inventions of greater utility, or that have done more to accelerate the progress of improvement.

It is material, however, to observe, that the introduction and use of coined money make no change whatever in the *principle* on which exchanges were previously conducted. The coinage saves the trouble of weighing and assaying gold and silver, but it does nothing more. It declares the weight and purity of the metal in a coin; but the *value* of that metal or coin is in all cases determined by precisely the same principles which determine the value of other commodities, and would be as little affected by being recoined with a new denomination, as the burden of a ship by a change of her name.

Inaccurate notions with respect to the influence of coinage seem to have given rise to the opinion, so long entertained, that coins were merely the *signs* of values! But it is clear they have no more claim to this designation than bars of iron or copper, sacks of wheat, or any other commodity. They exchange for other things, because they are desirable articles, and are possessed of real intrinsic value. A draft, check, or bill may not improperly, perhaps, be regarded as the sign of the money to be given for it. But that money is nothing but a commodity; it is not a sign — it is the thing signified.

Money, however, is not merely the universal equivalent, or *merchandise banale*, used by society: it is also the *standard* used to compare the values of all sorts of products; and the stipulations in the great bulk of contracts and deeds, as to the delivery and disposal of property, have all reference to, and are commonly expressed in, quantities of money. It is plainly, therefore, of the utmost importance that its value should be preserved as invariable as possible. Owing, however, to improvements in the arts, the exhaustion of old mines, and the discovery of new ones, the value of the precious metals is necessarily inconstant: though, if we except the effects produced in the 16th century by the discovery of the American mines, it does not appear to have varied so much at other times as might have been anticipated. Great mischief has, however, been repeatedly occasioned by the changes that have been made in most countries in the weight, and sometimes also in the purity, of coins; and since the impolicy of these changes has been recognised, similar, and perhaps still more extensive, disorders have sprung from the improper use of substitutes for coins. It is, indeed, quite obvious, that no change can take place in the value of money, without proportionally affecting the pecuniary conditions in all contracts and agreements. Much, however, of the influence of a change depends on its direction. An increase in the value of money is uniformly more prejudicial in a public point of view than its diminution: the latter, though injurious to individuals, may sometimes be productive of national advantage; but such can never be the case with the former. — (See *Principles of Political Economy*, by the author of this work, 3d ed. pp. 510—515.)

No certain estimate can ever be formed of the quantity of money required to conduct the business of any country; this quantity being, in all cases, determined by the value of money itself, the services it has to perform, and the devices used for economising its employment. Generally, however, it is very considerable; and when it consists wholly of gold and silver, it occasions a very heavy expense. There can, indeed, be no doubt that the wish to lessen this expense has been one of the chief causes that have led all civilised and commercial nations to fabricate a portion of their money of some less valuable material. Of the various substitutes resorted to for this purpose, paper is, in all respects, the most eligible. Its employment seems to have grown naturally out of the circumstances incident to an advancing society. When government becomes sufficiently powerful and intelligent to enforce the observance of contracts, individuals possessed of written promises from others, that they will pay certain sums at certain specified periods, begin to assign them to those to whom they are indebted; and when the subscribers are persons of fortune, and of whose solvency no doubt can be entertained, their obligations are readily accepted in payment of debts. But when the circulation of promises, or bills, in this way, has continued for a while, individuals begin to perceive that they may derive a profit by issuing them in such a form as to fit them for being readily used as a substitute for money in the ordinary transactions of life. Hence the origin of bank notes. An individual in whose wealth and discretion the public have confidence, being applied to for a loan, say of 5,000*l.*, grants the applicant his bill or note, payable on demand, for that sum. Now, as this note passes, in consequence of the confidence placed in the issuer, currently from hand to hand as cash, it is quite as useful to the borrower as if it had been gold; and supposing that the rate of interest is 5 per cent., it will yield, so long as it continues to circulate, a revenue of 250*l.* a year to the issuer. A banker who issues notes, coins, as it were, his credit. He derives the same revenue from the loan of his written promise to pay a certain sum, that he could derive from the loan of the sum itself, or of an equivalent amount of produce! And while he thus increases his own income, he, at the same time, contributes to increase the wealth of the public. The cheapest species of currency being substituted in the place of that which is most expensive, the superfluous coins are either used in the arts, or are exported in exchange for raw materials or manufactured goods, by the use of which both wealth and enjoyments are increased. Ever since the introduction of bills, almost all great commercial transactions have been carried on by means of paper only. Notes are also used to a very great extent in the ordinary business of society; and while they are readily exchangeable at the pleasure of the holder for coins, or for the precise quantities of gold or silver they profess to represent, their value is maintained on a par with the value of these metals; and all injurious fluctuations in the value of money are as effectually avoided as if it consisted wholly of the precious metals.

In common mercantile language, the party who exchanges money for a commodity is said to buy; the party who exchanges a commodity for money being said to sell. Price, unless where the contrary is distinctly mentioned, always means the value of a commodity estimated or rated in money. — (For a further account of metallic money, see the article *COIN*; and for an account of paper money, see the article *BANKS*.)

MONOPOLY. By this term is usually meant a grant from the Crown, or other competent authority, conveying to some one individual, or number of individuals, the sole right of buying, selling, making, importing, exporting, &c. some one commodity, or

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set of commodities. Such grants were very common previously to the accession of the House of Stuart, and were carried to a very oppressive and injurious extent during the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The grievance became at length so insupportable, that, notwithstanding the opposition of government, which looked upon the power of granting monopolies as a very valuable part of the prerogative, they were abolished by the famous act of 1624, the 21 Jac. 1. c. 3. This act declares that all monopolies, grants, letters patent for the sole buying, selling, and making of goods and manufactures, shall be null and void. It excepts patents for fourteen years for the sole working or making of any new manufactures within the realm, to the true and first inventors of such manufactures, provided they be not contrary to law, nor mischievous to the state. It also excepts grants by act of parliament to any corporation, company, or society, for the enlargement of trade, and letters patent concerning the making of gunpowder, &c. This act effectually secured the freedom of industry in Great Britain; and has done more, perhaps, to excite the spirit of invention and industry, and to accelerate the progress of wealth, than any other in the statute book.

MONTEVIDEO, a sea-port, and the capital of the Republic of Uruguay, on the north bank of the Rio de la Plata, lat. 34° 54' 11" S. 56° 13' 18" W. The population, which is variously estimated, may probably be about 12,000. The town is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on a regular plan, and is well fortified. It has suffered much from the various revolutions to which it has been subject during the last 30 years.

Montevideo is situated 2° 3' 33" W. of Cape St. Mary, the northern limit of the embouchure of the La Plata. Vessels from the north bound to Montevideo generally make this cape, entering the river between it and the small island of Lobos, in from 14 to 17 fathoms. The course is thence nearly W. to the Isle of Flores, on which is a light-house 112 feet above the level of the sea, with a revolving light. From Flores to Montevideo is 16 miles in a direct line, and the course W. by S. by compass. A light-house, 475 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected on the summit of the Montevideo, whence the town has its name. The latter is built on a projecting tongue of land, the port being on its S. side. This, which is the best on the La Plata, is a large circular basin open to the S.W.; generally the water is shallow, not exceeding from 14 to 19 feet, but the bottom being soft mud, vessels are seldom damaged by grounding. It should, however, be observed that the depth of water in the harbour, as well as throughout the whole of the Rio de la Plata, depends very much on the direction and strength of the winds. The S. W. wind, called *pampero*, blows right into the bay of Montevideo with much force, not infrequently causing a rise of a fathom or more in the depth of water! But it rarely occasions much damage to vessels properly moored with anchors to the S.W., S.E., and one to the N.— (*Bian's American Pilot*, pp. 442—445; *Cooley sur les Fleuves*, &c.)

Montevideo has a considerable commerce. The great articles of export consist of animal products, or of hides, beef, tallow, hair, bones, grease, wool, &c. The imports principally consist of British cottons, woollens, and hardware, flour, wine and spirits, linens, sugar, tobacco, boots and shoes, salt, &c.

Account specifying the Quantities and Values of the various Articles of Native Produce exported from Montevideo in 1845.

610,283 sealed ox and cow hides, at \$3 50	- \$2,278,485	97,033 calf skins, at 3 reals	- - - - -	26,387
703,759 dry ox and cow hides, at \$2 50	- 1,759,397	3,521 dozen sheep skins, at \$2 0	- - - - -	5,182
51,253 sealed horse hides, at 13 reals	- 68,161	9,044 quintals hide cutlins, at \$2 0	- - - - -	18,088
5,330 dry horse hides, at 10 reals	- 6,660	4,375 tons bones, at \$3 0	- - - - -	86,250
435,210 quintals jerked beef, at \$2 0	- 867,820	3,034 dozen nutria skins, at \$2 50	- - - - -	5,060
81,750 arrobas ynone, at 13 reals	- 1,111,311	2,011 pounds ostrich feathers, at 2 reals	- - - - -	503
25,654 arrobas tallow, at 15 reals	- 38,481	Deer skins, bone ashes, tallow candles, mules, and oil and skins	- - - - -	75,932
1,050 quintals horse hair, at \$14 0	- 147,225			
975,096 horns, at \$50 0	- 48,750			
2,235 baies wool, at \$30 0	- 67,050			
22,590 colt skins, at 3 reals	- 6,584			
2,580 arrobas mares' oil, at 9 reals	- 2,302			
		Total	- - - - -	\$5,273,918

Account of sundry Exports from Buenos Ayres and Montevideo in the following Years.

Years.	Dry and sealed Ox and Cow Hides.		Horse Hides.		Wool.		Sheep Skins.		Nutria Skins.		Tallow and Soap.		Horns.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Arrobas.	Value.	Dozens.	Value.	Dozens.	Value.	Arrobas.	Value.	Number.	Value.
1838	1,218,101	61,596	80,536	199,059	58,965	71,745	514,253	1,450,000						
1839	1,012,468	49,798	49,832	75,068	15,804	407,532	1,199,000							
1840	1,218,827	45,804	61,101	96,611	10,551	12,540	275,474	1,448,036						
1841	3,542,939	177,506	177,095	939,067	21,694	97,904	1,222,086	2,637,972						
1842	2,300,040	140,555	115,811	316,798	109,124	97,523	511,735	2,185,919						

DUTIES ON IMPORTS.

In National or Foreign Vessels, at Montevideo.

- Machinery, agricultural implements, instruments used in the arts and sciences, books, prints, and maps - free.
- Silk, raw and wrought, laces, blonde, gold, and silver embroidery, watches, jewellery, salted, plaster of Paris, coal, timber, cotton fringe, and wooden hoops - 5 per cent.
- Powders, pitch, tar, resin, and naval stores - 15 -
- All raw materials and manufactured articles, not included in the preceding enumeration - 15 -
- Sugar, Paraguay and China teas, cocoa, cardis lignes, and cinnamon, spices, drugs, and provisions in general - 20 -
- Furniture, pictures, looking glasses, musical instruments, all sorts of carriages, carts, &c., and harness, saddles, horses' furniture (excluding horse cloths of the manufacture of the adjacent provinces, which pay 15 per cent.), ready made clothes, boots and shoes, liquors, brandy, wine, vinegar, ale and porter, elder, tobacco, and soap - 25 -

Salt, 2 reals the fanega, say 11d. per 250 lbs.
7. Hides of all classes, hair, horns, tallow, silver and gold, in bullion or coin - free.

A small charge is made for warehousing and portage on passing through the Custom-house. Goods may be bonded for an indefinite period, during which time they are subject to a moderate warehouse rent.
Foreign flour pays as follows:—
8 dollars per barrel, when wheat is worth 2 to 5 dollars per fanega, about 224 lbs.
6 dollars per barrel, when wheat is worth 3 to 5 dollars per fanega.
4 dollars, when wheat is worth 5 to 7 dollars.
2 dollars, when wheat is worth 7 to 9 dollars.
1 dollar, when wheat is worth 9 dollars.
Wheat:—
3 dollars per fanega, when wheat is worth 2 to 3 dollars per fanega.
2 dollars, when wheat is worth 3 to 6 dollars.
1 dollar, when wheat is worth 6 to 10 dollars.
Nothing, when wheat is worth above 10 dollars per fanega.
Goods transhipped, or shipped out of bond, pay 2 per cent.
Foreign goods, shipped in vessels of less than 100 tons burden, for ports of the Uruguay and Paraguay, pay only 1 per cent.

2. All goods imported, paying duties, are subject to pay an additional 1 per cent. to the consuls (4 per cent. to the hospital) and, for the extinction of copper money, 1 per cent. additional on all goods that pay 5 per cent. On all goods that pay 15, 16, and 20 per cent. . . . 5 per cent. On all goods that pay 25 per cent. . . . 5 per cent. On flour 5 per cent. On wheat 5 per cent.

DUTIES ON EXPORTS.

In National or Foreign Vessels.
Ox and cow hides, 2 reals; 25 centimos, for reconnoiter valuations of 1 dollar, and 1 per cent. consulado.
Horse hides, 1 real for reconnoiter, on valuations of 8 reals for reconnoiter each, and 1 per cent. consulado.
All other produce of the country pays 4 per cent. on the market value, and 1 per cent. consulado.
Jerked and salt beef, pork, &c.; also all foreign goods that have paid the import duty, free.
Gold and silver, coined or in bullion, 1 per cent.

Foreign National.
Post Charges.—Tonnage from beyond sea, 3 reals. 2 reals. During loading and unloading both classes, pay 1 dollar per day.
Freight, with pilot 8 dollars. 4 dollars.
Heat 3 2
Without pilot 4 2

National and foreign vessels, that neither discharge nor load cargo, and that do not remain more than six days, pay nothing; those that remain in the harbour more than six days pay one third of the above tonnage dues.

* This has, much to the honour of the authorities and people, been already accomplished; but the duty is maintained for general purposes.

MOROCCO, or MAROQUIN (Ger. *Saffan*; Fr. *Maroquin*; It. *Marrocchino*; Sp. *Marroqui*; Rus. *Saffan*), a fine kind of leather prepared of the skins of goats, imported from the Levant, Barbary, Spain, Flanders, &c. It is red, black, green, yellow, &c. It is extensively used in the binding of books.

MUNJEET, a species of *Rubia tinctorum*, or madder, produced in Nepal and in various districts of India. That which is brought to England is imported from Calcutta, and is cultivated in the high lands about Natpore in Purnea. The roots are long and slender, and when broken appear of a red colour. It is used in dyeing; the red which it produces being, though somewhat peculiar, nearly the same as that produced by European madder. Dr. Bancroft says that the colour which it imparts to cotton and linen is not so durable as that of madder: but that upon wool or woollen cloth its colour is brighter and livelier; and, when proper mordants are used, nearly, perhaps quite, as permanent. — (*Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. p. 279.) The best munjeet is in pieces about the higness of a small quill, clean and firm, breaking short, and not pipy or chaffy. Its smell somewhat resembles liquorice root.

Being a very bulky article, as compared with its value, the freight adds greatly to its cost. This seems to be the principal reason of its being so very little used in Great Britain, that the entire imports, during the 2 years ending with 1840, amounted to only 3,533 cwt. The brokers estimate that 4s. per ton of freight is equal to 11s. 1d. per cwt. on the value of the article; 5s. per ton being equal to 13s. 10d.; 6s. to 16s. 7d.; and 7s. to 19s. 4d.; and as the price of munjeet in bond varies from 12s. to 15s. a cwt., it is plain it cannot be imported in any considerable quantity, except when freights are very much depressed. It is mostly imported in small packets or bundles of 600 or 800 to the ton; but sometimes it is packed in bales like cotton.

MUSCAT, a city and sea-port situated on the east coast of Arabia, about 96 miles N. W. of Cape Rasselgate (Ras-el-had), in lat. 25° 38' N., lon. 58° 37' E. Population uncertain; but estimated by Lieut. Wellsted at 40,000, which we incline to think beyond the mark. There are more Banians here than in any other city in Arabia. There are amongst them some very extensive merchants, who engross almost the whole pearl trade of the Persian Gulph, and the supply of corn from India. The negro slaves are numerous, and are generally stout, well made, and active.

The harbour, which is the best on this part of the Arabic coast, opens to the north, and is shaped like a horse-shoe. It is bounded on the W. and S. by the lofty projecting shores of the mainland, and on the E. by Muscat Island, a ridge of rocks from 200 to 300 feet high. The town stands on a sandy beach at the south end or bottom of the cove or harbour, about 1½ mile from its mouth. The depth of water near the town varies from 3 to 4 and 5 fathoms. Ships at anchor are exposed to the north and north-west winds; but as the anchorage is every where good, accidents are of very rare occurrence. The harbour is protected by some pretty strong forts. Vessels are not allowed to enter after dusk, nor to leave before sunrise. If the usual signal be made for a pilot, one will come off, but not otherwise. It is best to make them attend till the vessel be secured, as they have excellent boats for carrying out warp anchors.
Muscat is a place of considerable importance, being at once the key to, and commanding the trade of, the Persian Gulph. The dominions of the imaum, or prince, are extensive, and his government is more liberal and intelligent than any other in Arabia or Persia. The town, situated at the bottom of a high hill, is ill-built and filthy; and, during the months of July and August, is one of the hottest inhabited places in the world. The country in the immediate vicinity of the town is extremely barren; but it improves as it recedes from the shore. Dates and wheat, particularly the first, are the principal articles of produce. The dates of this part of Arabia are held in high estimation, and are largely exported, those of Bushire and Bussorah being imported in their stead. A date tree is valued at from 10 dollars, and its annual produce at from 1 to 1½ dollar. An estate is said to be worth 2,000, 3,000, or 4,000 date trees, according to the number it possesses.
But the place derives its whole importance from the commerce and navigation of which it is the centre.

National vessels, and vessels belonging to the provinces of Buenos Ayres, employed within the river Plate, called coasting, pay for a licence for each voyage as follows:—

1/3 to	7 tons,	4 reals.
16	30	18
31	45	18
46	60	36
61	75	36
81	90	36
101	above	72

Hospital Dues.—National and foreign vessels, sailing for a foreign port beyond sea or in the river Plate, pay 2 dollars for the vessel, 4 reals for the captain, 2 reals for each seaman, 1 dollar for each passenger.

Passage from Montevideo to Buenos Ayres to be paid in Montevideo.

If the draught of water do not exceed	9 fathoms measure,	50 dollars.
9	17 feet	40
10	— 11	70
11	— 12	80
12	— 13	100
13	— 14	120
14	— 15	140
15	— 16	160
16	— 17	180
17	— 18	200

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Paper money there is none. Current money, the Brazilian patacon and Spanish dollar; they pass for 850 centimos. 100 centimos make a real. 800 centimos, or 8 reals, make a dollar. 960 centimos, or 9 reals 60 cents, make 1½ current dollar, or 1 hard dollar or patacon. Weights and measures same as those of Spain; for which see *Cadix*, in the *Dict.*

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The Imaum has some large ships of war, and his subjects possess some of the finest trading vessels to be met with in the Indian seas. The part of Arabia adjoining to Muscat is too poor to have any very considerable direct trade; but, owing to its favourable situation, the backward state of the country round the Persian Gulph, and the superiority of its ships and seamen, Muscat has become an important entrepôt, and has an extensive transit and carrying trade. Most European ships bound for Bussorah and Basulira touch at it; and more than half the trade of the Persian Gulph is carried on in ships belonging to its merchants.—(See Bussorah.) But, exclusive of the ports on the gulph, and the south and west coasts of Arabia, ships under the flag of the Imaum trade to all the ports of British India, to Singapore, Java, the Mauritius, the east coast of Africa, &c. The pearl trade of the Persian Gulph is now, also, wholly centred at Muscat. All merchandise passing up the gulph on Arab bottoms pays a duty of 1 per cent. to the Imaum. He also rents the islands of Ormus and Kishmee, the port of Gombroon, and some sulphur mines, from the Persian government.

In the magazines of Muscat may be found every species of produce imported into or exported from the Persian Gulph. Various articles are also imported for the use of the surrounding country, and for the internal consumption of Arabia. Among these, the principal are rice, sugar, coffee from Mocha, cotton and cotton cloth, cocoa nuts, wood for building, slaves from Zanguebar, dates from Bushira and Bussorah, &c. Payment for these is chiefly made in specie and pearls; but they also export drugs of various descriptions, ivory, gums, hides, ostrich feathers, horses, sharks' fins, a sort of earthen jars, called mer-tuban, to Tranquebar, dried fish, an esteemed sweetmeat called *hushnah*, and a few other articles.

The markets of Muscat are abundantly supplied with all sorts of provision. Beef, mutton, and vegetables of good quality may be had at all times, and reasonably cheap. The bay literally swarms with the greatest variety of most excellent fish. Water is excellent, and is conveyed to the beach in such a manner that the casks of a vessel may be filled in her boats while aloft. Fire-wood is also abundant, and is cheaper than at Bombay.

A duty of 5 per cent. is laid on imports, all exports being duty free. The entire value of the imports has been estimated at 900,000.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts here are kept in goz and mamoodies: 20 goz=1 mamood; and 20 mamoodies=1 dollar. All Persian, Turkish, and Indian coins, as well as French and German crowns, and Spanish dollars, are met with; their value fluctuating with the demand; and they are generally sold by weight.

The weights are, the *cucha* and *maund*; 24 *cuchas*=1 *maund*=8 lbs. 12 oz. avoirdupois. Niebuhr thinks that Muscat occupies the site of the Mosca of Arrian and other Greek writers—(*Voyage en Arabie*, vol. iii. p. 71. ed. Amst. 1780); a conjecture which seems to be confirmed, not merely by the resemblance of the name, but also by the terms applied by Arrian to Mosca being sufficiently descriptive of Muscat; and as the port is bounded on all sides by rocks, it must now present almost the same appearance as in antiquity. Dr. Vincent, however, though he speaks doubtfully on the subject, is inclined to place Mosca to the west of Cape Hesselgate.—(*Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients*, vol. ii. pp. 344–347. For further particulars, besides the authorities above referred to, see *Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 63. *Fraser's Journey to Khorasam*, pp. 5–18. *Valdieu's Travels in Arabia*, l. pp. 14–25. The longitude given above is that of *Arrowsmith's Chart of the Persian Gulph*.)

MUSK (Fr. *Musc*; Ger. *Bisam*; Du. *Muskus*; It. *Muschio*; Sp. *Almizete*; Rus. *Muscus*; Arab. and Pers. *Mishk*) is obtained from a species of deer (*Moschus moschiferus*) inhabiting the Alpine mountains of the east of Asia. The musk is found in a small bag under the belly. Musk is in grains concreted together, dry, yet slightly unctuous, and free from grittiness when rubbed between the fingers or chewed. It has a peculiar, aromatic, and extremely powerful and durable odour; the taste is bitterish and heavy; and the colour deep brown, with a shade of red. It is imported into England from China in caddies containing from 60 to 100 oz. each; but an inferior kind is brought from Bengal, and a still baser sort from Russia. The best is that which is in the natural follicle or pod. Being a very high-priced article, it is often adulterated. That which is mixed with the animal's blood may be discovered by the largeness of the lumps or clots. It is sometimes mixed with a dark, highly coloured, friable earth; but this appears to the touch to be of a more crumbling texture, and is harder as well as heavier than genuine musk. 20 cwt. of musk are allowed to a ton. It was not permitted to be brought home in the China ships belonging to the East India Company.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory; Milburn's Orient. Com.*) The duty of 6d. an oz. on musk produced in 1840, 53L, showing that 2,120 oz. had been entered for consumption. Previously to 1832 the duty was 5s. an oz.

MUSLIN (Ger. *Muselin*, *Nesselstuch*; Du. *Neteldoek*; Fr. *Mouseline*; It. *Moussolina*; Sp. *Moselina*; Rus. *Kisea*), is derived from the word *moussale* or *mousseln*, a name given to it in India, where large quantities are made. It is a fine thin sort of cotton cloth, with a downy nap on the surface. Formerly all muslins were imported from the East; but now they are manufactured in immense quantities at Manchester, Glasgow, &c., of a fineness and durability which rival those of India, at the same time that they are very considerably cheaper.—(See *CORRON*.)

MUSTARD (Ger. *Mustert, Senf*; Fr. *Mustarde*; It. *Mostarda*; Sp. *Mostaza*; Rus. *Gortschiza*; Lat. *Sinapis*; Arab. *Khirdal*; Hind. *Râi*), a plant (*Sinapis*) of which there are several species, some of them indigenous to Great Britain. It was formerly extensively cultivated in Durham, but it is now seldom seen in that county. At present it is principally raised in the neighbourhood of York, and throughout other parts of the North Riding; and being manufactured in the city of York, is afterwards sold under the name of Durham mustard. Two quarters an acre are reckoned a good crop. Mustard is of considerable importance in the materia medica, and is extensively used as a condiment. It was not, however, known, in its present form, at our tables, till 1720. The seed had previously been merely pounded in a mortar, and in that rude state separated from the integuments and prepared for use. But, at the period referred to, it occurred to a woman of the name of Clements, residing in Durham, to grind the

seed in a mill, and to treat the meal in the same way that flour is treated. Her mustard was, in consequence, very superior; and, being approved by George I., speedily came into general use. Mrs. Clements kept her secret for a considerable time, and acquired a competent fortune. In Bengal, and other Eastern countries, mustard is extensively cultivated, as rape is in Europe, for the purpose of yielding oil. — (*Bailey's Survey of Durham*, p. 147; *London's Encyc. of Agric.*)

MYROBALANS, are dried fruits of the plum kind, occasionally brought from Bengal and other parts of India. There are said to be 5 different species. They vary from the size of olives to that of gull nuts; have an unpleasant, bitterish, austere taste; produce, with iron, a strong, durable, black dye and ink, and with alum, a very full, though dark, brownish yellow. They are used in calico printing and medicine by the Hindoos. They have also been employed, though to a comparatively trifling extent, in the arts, and in pharmacy, in Europe; but they are now discarded from our Pharmacopœias. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Bancroft on Permanent Colours*, vol. i. p. 351.)

MYRRH (Ger. *Myrrhen*; Du. *Mirre*; Fr. *Myrrhe*; Ital. and Sp. *Mirra*; Lat. *Myrrha*; Arab. *Murr*), a resinous substance, the produce of an unknown tree growing in Arabia and Abyssinia. It is imported in chests, each containing from 1 to 2 cwt. Abyssinian myrrh comes to us through the East Indies, while that produced in Arabia is brought by the way of Turkey. It has a peculiar, rather fragrant, odour, and a bitter aromatic taste. It is in small irregularly shaped pieces, which can hardly be called tears. Good myrrh is translucent, of a reddish yellow colour, brittle, breaking with a resinous fracture, and easily pulverised. Its specific gravity is 1.36. When it is opaque, mixed with impurities, and either white, or of a dark colour approaching nearly to black, with a disagreeable odour, it should be rejected. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

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NAILS (Ger. *Nägel*, *Spiker*; Du. *Spykers*; Fr. *Clous*; It. *Chiodi*, *Chiovi*, *Aguti*; Sp. *Clavos*; Rus. *Gvozd*), are small spikes of iron, brass, &c., which, being driven into wood, serve to bind several pieces together, or to fasten something upon them. There is scarcely a town or village in Great Britain in which nails are not forged; but the principal seats of this useful branch of the iron manufacture are at Birmingham, Bilston, Wolverhampton, Dudley, and a small district in Derbyshire. The consumption of nails is immense; and the aggregate value of those annually produced is very large.

NANGASACKI, a sea-port town on the south-west coast of the island of Ximo, one of the Japanese islands, being, according to Krusenstern, in lat. 32° 45' 40" N., lon. 130° 11' 47" E. The harbour extends N. E. and S. W. about 2½ leagues, being, in most places, less than a mile in width. Ships lie in 5 or 6 fathoms water, within a gunshot of the town, near the middle of the bay, where they are protected from all winds.

The Japanese islands are situated within the temperate zone. They are believed to contain 50,000,000 of people, superior in industry and civilisation to every other Eastern nation, with the exception of the Chinese. But, notwithstanding Japan has some thousand miles of sea-coast, all foreigners are rigidly excluded from it, with the exception of the Dutch and Chinese; and they are only allowed to visit Nangasacki, the former with 2 ships, and the latter with 10 junks.

The Japanese themselves are prohibited by the laws of the empire from quitting their own shores; and, notwithstanding they formerly emigrated freely, and traded extensively with the neighbouring nations, they have resolutely adhered to this anti-social regulation since 1637, or for nearly 200 years. Both Dutch and Chinese are subjected to a rigorous surveillance during their residence in Japan. "The ships," (Dutch) says Mr. Crawford, "no sooner arrive, than their rudders are unshipped, their guns dismantled, their arms and ammunition removed, a military guard put on board, and row boats appointed to watch them. Their cargoes are landed by, and placed in charge of, the officers of the Japanese government, and the Dutch have neither control over, nor access to them, except through *solicitation*. The island of Desima, to which they are confined, is an artificial structure of stone raised upon the rocks of the harbour, measuring in its greatest length 236 paces, by a breadth of 82. It communicates with the town of Nangasacki by a bridge and a gate, and is surrounded all round as well as surrounded by a guard. From this imprisonment the Dutch are allowed to peep twice or three a year, rather to be exhibited to the great as a curiosity, than out of indulgence. A corps of constables and interpreters are appointed to watch over their minutest actions; and the most degrading servilities are exacted from the highest among them, by the meanest officers of the Japanese government."

The Chinese trade with Japan is understood to be conducted from the port of Ningpo, in the province of Chekiang, which is so conveniently situated, that 2 voyages may be performed in the year, even by the clumsy junks of China. The commodities with which the Chinese furnish the Japanese, consist of raw sugar, cow and buffalo hides, wrought silks, consisting chiefly of satins and damasks, eagle and sandal wood, ginseng, tutenague or zinc, tin, lead, fine teas, and, for more than 100 years back, some European broad cloths and camlets. The exports consist of copper, limited to 15,000 piculs, or about 300 tons; camphor, sabre blades, pearls, some descriptions of paper and porcelain, and some Japan ware, which is either curious or handsome, but not so substantial as that of China.

Japan, could a trade be freely carried on with it, would unquestionably, from its extent, population, and civilisation, afford a great opening for the commerce of Europe. All attempts hitherto made have been baffled by the watchful jealousy of the Japanese government. The only fair prospect of success is to leave the matter entirely to the enterprise and ingenuity of the British merchants, to whom the trade of the neighbouring Chinese empire is now thrown open. After considering Japan, among Eastern nations, as second only in population, extent, and civilisation, to China, and that the whole empire is situated beyond the tropics, and in the same region as Turkey, Italy, Spain, and a part of the south of France, we may easily discover the sort of commodities which Europe or European colonies could

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furnish in a trade with it. They would consist of broad cloths and other woollens, cotton fabrics, iron, spelter, tin, lead, glass ware, sugar, drugs, and speries. These would be paid for in camphor, raw silk, unwrought copper, gold, and silver. Of the 3 metals now mentioned, there can be no question that Japan contains very rich mines. Down to 1710, when the quantity of copper permitted to be exported was limited, the exports by the Dutch and Chinese amounted to 4,500 tons. With respect to silver, before its exportation was prohibited, the Portuguese brought it away in large quantities, having, in 1626, exported no less than 2,300 chests, equivalent to 2,850,000 taels, or (at 6s. the tael) 705,000 sterling. As to gold, it has been always supposed, from its relative abundance in Japan, to be a much more proportionate value to silver than in any other country.

The following are the quantities and value of goods exported and imported by the Dutch in their trade with Japan in 1825; the ships employed being one of 600 and one of 700 tons burden. The trade is exclusively carried on with the port of Batavia.

Exports to Nangasacki.			Imports from Nangasacki.		
Articles.	Value.		Articles.	Value.	
	<i>Florins.</i>			<i>Florins.</i>	
Sundal wood, 100 piculs	- - - -		Camphor, 730 piculs	- - - -	69,180
Benzen wood, 1,167 do.	- - - -		Copper, 107,45 do.	- - - -	617,868
Bull-ho hide, 600 in number	- - - -		Craze, 486 piculs	- - - -	17,748
Elephants' teeth, 1,638 lbs.	- - - -	5,347	Cotton cloth	- - - -	15,978
Malay camphor, 61 lbs.	- - - -	5,241	Medicine	- - - -	2,000
Java mate, 225 in number	- - - -		Provisions	- - - -	5,227
Cocoa nut oil, 24 piculs	- - - -		Hakls and soy	- - - -	31,320
Cloves, 115 do.	- - - -	18,026	These and 407 bags	- - - -	44,820
Sugar, 6,991 do.	- - - -	104,968	Mills	- - - -	1,156
Tin, 358 do.	- - - -	20,536	Sundries	- - - -	96,080
Bengal piece goods	- - - -	20,896			
Hardware and porcelain	- - - -	4,850			
Jewellery	- - - -	100			
China ware	- - - -	5,748			
Netherlands broad cloths	- - - -	75,909			
Lead, 127 piculs	- - - -	4,723			
Netherlands cotton goods	- - - -	61,333			
Medicine and sundries	- - - -				
		373,853			869,468
Total value of export cargoes	Fl.	373,853	Total value of import cargoes	Fl.	869,468
Or, at 12 fl. per £	£	31,154 8 4	Or, at 12 fl. per £	£	72,457 16 0

We may take this opportunity of stating that the last authentic account we have of any British vessel attempting to carry on an intercourse with Japan, was that of a ship commanded by Captain Gordon, which touched at the entrance of the bay of Jeddo, in 1818, in a voyage from Calcutta to Ochotok. Captain Gordon remained at anchor 8 days, waiting the receipt of instructions from the capital, Jeddo, at the head of the bay, distant about 100 miles. He requested leave to return next year for the purpose of carrying on trade, which in civil but peremptory terms was refused. During the ship's stay, she was closely watched by an immense police force, but liberal offers were made of supplies. The officers were permitted to speculate in trade to be carried on for which, however, the people evinced the greatest possible desire, admiring the broad cloths, calicoes, and other European articles which were shown them. The ship was visited by some thousand natives, chiefly from curiosity. Captain Gordon thinks that a contraband trade, similar to that conducted by the European nations off the mouth of the Canton river, may be successfully carried on with Japan.—(*Kempfer's History of Japan*, vol. 1, p. 310—326; *Krazeendern's Voyage round the World*, vol. 1, p. 261. Eng. trans.; *Caulfield's Archipelago*, vol. 11, p. 257.; *Evidence of John Deans, Esq. First Report of the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company*, 1830, p. 242.; *Personal communications from Capt. P. Gordon.*)

Money.—Accounts are kept in taels, mace, and candarines; 16 candarines make 1 mace, and 10 mace 1 tael. The Dutch reckon the Nangasacki tael at 53 florins, equal to about 6s. 8d. The gold coins current are the new and old *tihl* and *colang*, or *colang*; the silver coins are, the *nandlogit*, *Itaganne*, and *kolomna*. They are in general very simple, struck plain and unadorned, the greater part of them without any rim round the margin, and most of them without any determined value. For this reason they are always weighed by the merchants, who put their chop or stamp upon them, to signify that the coin is standard weight and undeteriorated. The new *colang* are oblong, rounded at the ends, and flat, about 2 inches broad, scarcely thicker than an English farthing, of a pale yellow colour; the die on one side consists of several cross lines stamped; and at both ends there is a rectangular figure, with raised letters on it, and besides, a moonlike figure, with a flower on it in relief. On the other side is a circular stamp, with raised letters on it; and within the margin, towards one end, two smaller sunk stamps with raised letters, which are different on each *colang*; they are valued at 60 mace. There are old *colangs* occasionally met with, which are of fine gold, somewhat broader than the new.

The old *colang* weigh 371 Dutch asen, or 275 English grains, and the gold is said to be 22 carats fine, which would give 41s. 7d. for the value of the old *colang*. But the Japanese coins are reckoned at Madras only 87 touch, which is 22 2/3 carats; this reduces the old *colang* to 41s. 10d. The new *colang* weigh 180 grains; the gold is about 16 carats fine, and the value 21s. 3d. The *colang* is thrice the value of the *colang*.

The *tihl* is called by the Dutch golden bean, and is made of pale gold, of a nonsquare figure and flat, rather thicker than a farthing, with many raised letters on one side and two figures or flowers in relief on the other; the value of this is 1/2 of a *colang*. There are old *tihls* also to be met with; these are thicker than the new ones, and in value 22 mace 5 candarines.

Nandlogit is a parallelogram flat silver coin, of twice the thickness of a halfpenny, 1 inch long and 3/4 inch broad, and formed of the silver. The edge is stamped with stars, and within the edges are raised dots. One side is marked all over with raised letters; and the other on its lower and larger moiety, is filled with raised letters, and at the same time exhibits a double moonlike figure. Its value is 1/2 candarines.

Itaganne and *koloma* are denominations by which various lumps of silver, without form or fashion, are known, which are neither of the same size, shape, nor value. The former of these, however, are oblong, and the latter roundish, for the most part thick; but sometimes, though seldom, flat. These pass in trade, but are always weighed in payment from one individual to another, and have a dull leaden appearance.

Sent is a denomination applied to pieces of copper, brass, and iron coin, which bear a near resemblance to our old farthings. They differ in size, value, and external appearance, but are always cast, and have a square hole in the middle, by means of which they may be strung together and likewise have always tread edges. Of these are current, *siamon sent*, of the value of 4 common sent, made of brass, and almost as broad as a halfpenny, but thin. The common sent are the size of a farthing, and made of cast copper; 60 of them = 1 mace. *Duosa sent* is a cast iron coin, in appearance like the last, of the same size and value, but is so brittle that it is easily broken by the hand, or breaks in pieces when let fall on the ground.

The sent are strung 100 as a *hina*, or as it is most commonly the case, 96 on a *raah*. The coins in the larger ones are seldom all of one sort, but generally consist of 2, 3, or more different kinds in this case, the first of these are strung on first, and then follow the smaller; the number diminishing in proportion to the number of large pieces in the parcel, which are of greater value than the smaller.

The *schuit* is a silver piece of 4 oz. 18 dwts. 16 grs. Troy, and is 11 oz. fine, which gives it value 11, 2s. 5d. The name is Dutch, referring, probably, to its shape, like a boat. *Wegh*,—These are the candarine, mace, tael, catty, and picul, thus divided:—

10 candarines	=	1 mace.
16 mace	=	1 tael.
10 taels	=	1 catty.
100 catties	=	1 picul.

The picul = 125 Dutch pounds, or 135 1/3 lbs. avoirdupois. It is, however, said to weigh only 130 lbs.

Messure.—The revenues of Japan are estimated by two measures of rice, the *man* and *koft*; the former contains 10,000 kofs, each 3,000 bales or bags of rice.

The long measure is the *ite*, which is about 4 Chinese cubits or 5 1/2 feet English length; and 3 Japanese leagues are computed to be about 1 Dutch league. — (*Milburn's Oriental Com.*)

NANKEEN, or NANKIN (Ger. *Nanking*; Du. *Nankings innen*; Fr. *Toile de Nankin*; It. *Nanquino*; Span. *Nanquina*), a species of cotton cloth in extensive use

* The imports of copper, in 1828, amounted to 11,631 piculs, worth 298,635 florins.

in this country. It takes its name from Nanking, in China, a European corruption of Kyang-ning, the capital of the extensive province of Kyang-nan, where it is principally produced, and which also furnishes the greater part of the green tea. In the East, the manufacture is wholly confined to China.* The cloth is usually of a yellowish, though occasionally it is of a blue colour, and of different degrees of fineness; the broad pieces, called "the Company's nankeens," are generally of a better quality than the narrow ones, and are most esteemed. We produce imitation nankeens at Manchester and other places, but it must be admitted that they are inferior to the Chinese; neither lasting so long, nor holding their colour so well. The colour, whether yellow or blue, is given to the cloth by dyeing; for, though yellow cotton wool be raised in the East, the cloth made from it is too glaring. The nankeens brought to England come under the general denomination of piece goods. They are mostly made into trousers and waistcoats for gentlemen's wear during summer, ladies' pelisses, &c. In some of the more southern parts of Europe, the warmer parts of Asia and America, and the British settlements in Africa, nankeen is worn by both sexes all the year round, and constitutes the principal article of attire. Latterly, however, they have become unfashionable in this country, and their importation has, in consequence, all but ceased, only 3,300 pieces having been imported in 1842. — (See article CANTON, for an account of the imports of Nankeen.)

NANTES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Loire, about 34 miles from its mouth, lat. $47^{\circ} 13' 6''$ N., lon. $1^{\circ} 32' 44''$ W. Population, in 1836, 75,150. Vessels of 200 tons burden come up to the city; but those of larger size load and unload in the roads of Paimbeuf, about 24 miles lower down the river.

Entrance to the Loire. — There are 3 entrances to the Loire. The first and most generally frequented is between the bank called *Le Four* and *Point Croix*; there is a second between *Le Four* and the bank called *La Banche*; and the third, which in southerly winds is much resorted to, between the latter and the rocks called *La Couronne*. The navigation, which is naturally rather difficult, has been much facilitated by the erection of light-houses and beacons. Of the former, one has been recently constructed on the north part of *Le Four*, about a league from *Croix*, in lat. $47^{\circ} 17' 53''$ N., lon. $2^{\circ} 32' 21''$ W. It is 65 feet high. The light is a revolving one; the flash, which continues for 7 seconds, being succeeded by a dark interval of 53 seconds. Two light-houses, called the *Aiguillon* lights, stand on the north side of the river, near its mouth; the lower light, adjoining *Point de Lévi*, being in lat. $47^{\circ} 14' 33''$ N., lon. $2^{\circ} 15' 49''$ W. The light is fixed, and is 111 feet above the level of the sea. The upper *Aiguillon* light, situated about a mile N. 31° E. from the lower, is 127 feet high; it also is a fixed light, varied, however, by a flash every 3 minutes. A beacon tower, called the *Turk*, is erected on the southernmost extremity of *La Banche*; the course for vessels entering between it and *La Couronne*, is to bring the *Aiguillon* lights in one. The depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river varies from 2 to 2½ fathoms. At springs the rise is 14, and at neaps 7 or 8 feet. High water at full and change 3½ hours.

Trade, &c. — Her situation renders Nantes the emporium of all the rich and extensive country traversed by the Loire, so that she has a pretty considerable import and export trade, particularly with the West Indies. The exports consist of all sorts of French produce, but principally of brandy, wine and vinegar, silk, woollen and linen goods, refined sugar, wheat, rye, biscuits, &c. The principal imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, cotton, indigo, timber, hemp, &c. Nantes is a considerable *entrepôt* for the commerce of salt, large quantities being made in the dep., principally at Noirmutiers and Croixic. During the time that the slave trade was carried on, Nantes was more extensively engaged in it than any other French port.

The customs duties of Nantes produce, exclusive of those on salt, about 12,000,000 fr. a year, being in this respect inferior only to Marseilles, Havre, and Bordeaux.

Subjoined is a statement of the French and foreign ships that entered and cleared from the port in 1838, specifying the departments in which the French ships were engaged, and the number in each.

Branch of Trade.	Entered.		Cleared.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
French ships in foreign trade	901	24,349	1350	18,317
colonial do.	60	16,255	94	19,291
coasting do.	4,003	135,190	4,303	96,187
fisheries	13	8,475	-	-
Foreign ships	176	26,285	159	22,716
Steam-vessels chiefly to and from Bordeaux	10	736	13	1,040
	4,463	204,380	4,672	151,543

* Of these, 40 vessels, of 1,615 tons, left in ballast.

Of the vessels engaged in the fisheries, 10 came from the banks of Newfoundland, laden with 15,665 cwt. of cod-fish and 290 cwt. of oil; 3 whalers brought in, during the same year, 13,433 cwt. of whale-oil, and 306 cwt. of whalebone. The pilchard fishery is also carried on with great activity; and employs, in the season, 700 boats, manned by about 3,000 seamen. Nantes has 2 weekly markets, and 12 yearly fairs, one of which, beginning May 25th, lasts 15 days. Living is cheap; and fish of many varieties, as well as the fine fruits of the S. of France, are abundant in the markets.

Monies, Weights, and Measures same as in the rest of France. — (See *BOURDEAUX*.)

Taxes. — 2½ per cent. on coffee in bags; real on ditto in hds., casks, &c.; 6 per cent. on cottons; 13 per cent. on indigo; 17 per cent. on Brazil muscovado sugar, 19 per cent. on Martinique and Guadeloupe ditto; 13 per cent. on ditto clayed.

* It was stated in the first edition of this work, on authority that should not have been trusted to, that the manufacture of nankeen was carried to great perfection in the East Indies; but, in point of fact, the manufacture is wholly unknown every where in the East except China.

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In the East, the yellowish, though the broad pieces, than the narrow chester and other neither lasting so blue, is given to the East, the cloth under the general and waistcoats for the more southern settlements in the principal in this country, pieces having been ports of Nankeen.) de Loire, about 34 pulation, in 1836, ose of larger size in the river.

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nt. on cottons; 13 Guadeloupe ditto, 10 been trusted to, that in point of fact, the

NAPLES, a large city and sea-port in the south of Italy, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, the light-house being in lat. 40° 50' 19" N., long. 14° 14' 15" E. Population, 350,000. Naples is well situated for commerce; but the policy of the government has hitherto been most unfavourable to its growth, and has confined it within comparatively narrow limits.

Harbour.—The bay of Naples is spacious, and is celebrated for its picturesque views. The harbour is formed by a mole, built nearly in the form of the letter L, having a light-house on its apex. Within the mole there is from 3 to 4 fathoms water, the ground being soft. The water in the bay is deep, and there is no bar; it is, however, a good deal exposed to the south-westerly winds; and to guard against their effects, vessels lying in the bay must with open haws in that direction. There is no obligation to take a pilot on board, but it is usual to take one the first time that a ship anchors within the mole. The lighthouse has a revolving light. The period of revolution is 3 minutes, during the first of which the full strength of the light is continued, and during the second minute its brilliancy rapidly decreases. The height of the light is 161 feet above the sea, and it is visible at the distance of 16 or 20 miles. At the extremity of the mole is a low fixed light to guide vessels round its head.

Money.—Accounts are kept at Naples in ducati di regno of 100 grani. According to the new monetary system introduced in 1816, the unit of coin is the silver ducato, 5/24 sterling. The ducato is 10 carlini; and there are coins of 1, 2, 5, and 12 carlini in proportion. Coins of a less value than 1 carlino are

in copper. The smallest gold piece is the oncia = 10s. 3/4 sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are the cantaro and rotolo. The cantaro gross = 100 rotoli (100) lbs. avoirdupois = 49.105 kilogram = 104 lbs. of Hamburg or 180.4 lbs. of Amsterdam. The cantaro piccolo = 100 lbs. avoirdupois = 45 kilogram.

In dry measure, the carro of corn contains 56 tonnell. The tonello = 145 Winchester bush.

In wine measure, the carro is divided into 2 botti, or 24 barili, or 1,410 ranche. The carro = 964 English wine gallons. The regular pipe of wine or brandy = 132 English gallons.

In oil measure, the salma is divided into 18 stajo, 256 quart, or 1,536 measure. The salma at Naples = 424 English wine gallons; at Gallipoli it is from 3 to 4 per cent. less.)

In land measure, the canna is divided into 8 palmi, or 96 oncia, and is = 6 feet 11 inches English. Hence the palmo = 10.38 English inches.

English salma are allowed to a ship's last. — (Nikolawesker & Kelly.)

Exports and Imports.—The exports principally consist of the products of the adjacent country. Of these, silk is the most important. Olive oil is also a most important article; but it is principally supplied by Gallipoli, a town in the Terra d'Otranto, whence it is commonly called Gallipoli oil. The entire exports of oil from the kingdom of Naples have been estimated at about 200,000 salme, or 36,833 tons, a year, which, taking its mean value when exported at 21s. per tun, is equivalent to the annual sum of 762,993l. — (See OLIVE OIL.) The other articles of export are wool, wine, brandy, dried fruits, red and white argol, tallow, liquorice, gloves, madder, hemp, linseed, cream of tartar, bones, lamb and kid skins, oak and chestnut staves, rags, saffron, &c. There is a great variety in the Neapolitan wines. The most esteemed is the *lacrima Christi*, a red luscious wine, better known in England by name than in reality, the first growths being confined to a small quantity only, which is chiefly reserved for the royal cellars. There are, however, large quantities of second-rate wines produced in the vicinity of Naples, such as those of Pozzuoli, Ischia, Nola, &c., which are sold under the name of *lacrima Christi*, and are largely exported. Several parts of Calabria produce sweet wines of superior quality. — (Henderson's *Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 239.) The price of wine at Naples depends entirely on the abundance of the vintage; only a small quantity comes to England. The imports consist principally of English cottons and cotton twist, hardware, iron and tin, woolsens, sugar, coffee, indigo, spices, &c. Naples is a good market for pilchards, and it requires a large supply of dried and barrelled cod.

Account of the Quantities of Merchandise imported into Naples in 1835, specifying the Countries whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each, with the Rate of Duty on each Article, and the Average Price thereof.

Articles.	Countries whence imported.							Total.	Rates of Duty.	Average Prices in 1835, Duty included.
	Great Britain and Newfoundland.	Norway and Russia.	Germany and Asia.	France.	Spain and Portugal.	Greece, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, &c.	Brazil, &c.			
Alum - - - cwt.	-	-	-	-	-	597	-	597	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Henskets - - - No.	91	-	-	14	-	-	-	108	0 5 11½	0 5 10
Irras - - - cwt.	19	-	328	-	-	356	-	703	0 11 10½	6 8 7½
Wire - - - lbs.	-	-	149	8,668	-	8,817	-	8,817	0 0 11½	0 0 11½
Cloth, broad - yds.	2,510	-	-	11,792	-	23,576	-	35,368	0 8 10	0 2 9½
rough - - -	11,372	-	-	-	-	11,475	-	22,847	0 1 14	0 5 32
Cresiala - - -	72,918	-	-	6,424	-	79,342	-	79,342	0 8	0 6 10
casimero - - -	42,879	-	-	9,991	551	54,966	-	54,966	0 8	0 8 4½
casimero - - -	30,263	-	-	845	-	31,208	-	31,208	0 8	0 8 10
woolen stuffs -	308,721	-	3,818	6,669	-	378,608	-	378,608	0 8	0 8 11½
Cotton twist - - cwt.	20,597	-	-	3	-	20,600	-	20,600	2 9 5½	13 7 8½
Cloth - - - yds.	920,619	-	37,065	44,198	-	1,011,882	-	1,011,882	0 0 7½	various.
long cloth - - -	196,704	-	-	-	-	196,704	-	196,704	0 0 7½	0 0 7½
and thread do. -	21,016	-	-	1,705	-	22,721	-	22,721	0 0 8	0 0 8
knitted articles - cwt.	182	-	8	13	-	203	-	203	14 10 10½	various.
handkerchiefs - No.	682,280	-	23,670	10,211	-	7,173	-	7,173	0 0 8	0 0 8
muslin - - - yds.	969,540	-	5,529	11,392	-	986,461	-	986,461	various.	do.
do. figured - - -	96,124	-	123	212	-	96,559	-	96,559	do.	do.
do. embroidered -	30	-	-	1,359	-	6,738	-	6,738	do.	do.
do. Lins - - -	21,462	-	-	4,238	-	25,678	-	25,678	do.	do.
velvet - - -	715,422	-	-	1,329	-	716,751	-	716,751	8 10 7½	0 2 10
Casimero - - - cwt.	1,529	-	-	13	-	1,542	-	1,542	0 8 11½	0 0 7½
Cinnamon - - - lbs.	13,722	-	-	-	-	13,722	-	13,722	0 1 10½	0 8 11½
Coffee - - - cwt.	2,507	-	-	3,011	-	5,518	41	5,559	2 9 5½	3 4 10½
Cocoa - - -	859	-	-	13	550	-	-	1,422	0 19 0	0 11 7
Copper, shales or Ingots -	1,188	-	401	-	-	1,589	-	1,589	10 10 10½	5 4 10½
Alaba - - -	820	-	217	1	-	1,038	-	1,038	0 19 0	0 0 11½
Gold - - -	1,339	-	459	2	-	1,799	-	1,799	5 0 10½	5 0 10½
Silver - - -	525	-	1,125	328	-	2,978	-	2,978	1 19 7	various.
Fish, cod - - -	51,297	-	-	-	-	51,297	34	51,331	0 10 0	0 11 7
stock - - -	3,508	80,818	-	-	-	84,326	-	84,326	0 10 0	1 4 9
Beatings - - -	8,109	-	-	-	-	8,109	-	8,109	0 8 11½	1 3 9
pilchards - - -	196	-	-	-	-	196	-	196	0 4 10	0 11 7
do. small - - -	819	-	-	-	-	819	923	1,742	0 4 10	1 0 8½

Account of the Quantities of Merchandise Imported into Naples, &c. — continued.

Articles.	Countries whence imported.							Total.	Rates of Duty.	Average Prices in 1850, Duty included.
	(free Britain and Newfoundland.)	Norway and Russia.	Germany and Trieste.	France.	Spain and Portugal.	Genoa, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, &c.	Irra-lli, &c.			
Glass	cwt.	91	1,061	104	7	5	1,260	0 15 0	£ s. d.	
Hardware	cwt.	1,630	490	707	107	23	2,957	1 19 7	do.	
White, unbleached	No.	70,410	18,981	1,928	5,555	76,305	174,301	0 5 11 cwt.	3 9 3	
Wool	cwt.	—	—	1,246	1,405	2	2,779	1 19 7	4 3 0	
Beef	—	—	—	—	280	—	280	1 19 7	4 3 0	
Calves	—	—	—	—	443	—	443	1 19 7	4 3 0	
Iron	—	65,037	2,568	139	22	—	67,791	0 8 11	0 16 10	
Wire	—	240	—	289	436	—	965	0 11 10	various.	
Pig	—	2,870	—	—	—	—	2,870	0 2 11	0 7 11	
Sheet	—	744	—	—	—	—	744	0 8 11	1 5 9	
Indigo	—	1,127	—	—	—	—	1,127	0 11 11	0 4 11 lb.	
Lead	—	915	—	—	11,161	—	12,076	0 4 11	unknown.	
Linens cloth	nds.	157,149	25,708	5,418	792	—	187,279	0 0 7	0 3 7	
Handkerchiefs	No.	—	—	2,324	1,224	30,404	34,400	3d. to 17d.	0 0 11	
Logwood	—	—	—	2,032	—	4,250	6,282	0 2 9	various.	
Mahogany	—	—	—	293	—	161	454	0 1 11	do.	
Yellow	—	35	—	1,037	—	1,669	2,741	0 1 11	do.	
Molasses	casks	18	—	194	—	103	303	0 11 10	1 4 9	
Pepper	cwt.	147	—	217	73	—	437	2 9 0	4 7 1	
Flour	—	1,573	4,347	600	—	—	6,520	0 10 4	0 10 4	
Ham	casks	189	—	12	—	—	201	0 11 10	0 1 9	
Silk manufactures	lbs.	139	—	5,165	—	12,379	18,683	0 2 11	various.	
Solder, in cakes	cwt.	261	—	98	—	—	361	0 17 11	various.	
Steel	—	89	3,698	—	—	—	3,787	0 5 11	1 9 8	
Sugar	—	35,998	—	3,109	778	—	40,885	0 12 11	0 12 11	
Tar	—	—	703	—	—	260	963	0 1 11	0 10 10	
Tin, in sheets	No.	330,585	—	6,750	—	—	337,335	£ 245 sheets	1 9 8	
Vitriol	cwt.	4,562	150	123	—	—	4,835	0 3 2	0 9 6	
Wax	—	118	112	562	404	—	2,145	1 12 7	0 0 9	
Whalebone	—	84	—	—	—	—	84	0 17 3	0 0 9	

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from the Port of Naples in 1850, specifying the Quantities shipped for different Countries, and their Average Prices.

Articles.	England and Gibraltar.	France.	Other Countries.	English Weight or Measure.		Average Price in sterling Money.
				Tons.	Cwt. Qrs.	
Argole	cantar	1,828	113	1,116	3,057 tons	£ 22, to 41. 10s. ton
Almonds	—	—	11	211	222	53 10 0 ton
Antiseed	—	—	44	14	—	3 17 0 to 35L. ton
Bones	—	—	5,867	7	5,867	5 5 0 ton
Bone shavings	—	—	147	1,867	2,014	1 14 0 ton
Brandy	casks	11,275	2,165	12,725	29,163 (casks of 132 galls.)	29,163 6 16 0 cask
Casks, used	number	—	780	1,090	1,870	0 6 8 each of 150
Cask staves, 5 palms	—	—	4,490	1,233	6,423	0 10 8 per 100
4 palms	—	—	3,189	510	3,699	0 10 8 per 100
hoops	—	—	9,683	100	9,783	0 1 4 bundle
tops and bottoms	number	—	1,282	1,282	1,282	—
Creosol of tartar	lb. 12 oz.	1,155,703	39,511	1,000,898	1,285,110	5d. to 4d. lb. of 16 oz.
Coral	cantar	—	20	121	147	12 17 1 to 234. to 244. ton
wrought	—	—	—	—	—	0 3
Essence of orange	lb. 12 oz.	550	6,565	1,866	8,979	6,734 3 8 10 lb. of 16 oz.
Flax	cantar	35	8,721	1,218	10,007	87 9 3 11 10 0 ton
Wheat	—	89	—	—	—	7 7 0 to 571. to 761. ton
Indi n corn	—	—	—	1,561	1,569	135 15 2 1 17 2 quarter
Pess	—	—	—	130	—	11 7 2 1 17 2 quarter
Lupine	—	—	—	409	—	25 15 3 1 5 2 quarter
Lupine	tomol	—	1,009	19,225	20,234	330 1 5 2 quarter
Hay	cantar	1,926	2,267	490	4,583	401 0 1 1 9 2 quarter
Leaves of Indian corn	—	—	—	471	471	471 0 6 8 per 100
Hemp	cantar	1,423	15,616	605	15,671	4,086 2 20 15 6 ton
Hoops	—	—	—	30	117	10 4 3 34. 10s. to 124. 5s. ton
Lambs and kid skins	—	470	1,674	4	2,150	1 18 2 2 66 10 0 ton
Leather gloves	pairs	—	12,150	257,010	269,160	203,496 1 19 7 74. to 1s. pair
Leather savings	cantar	—	33	—	33	2 17 3 5 0 ton
Lemon juice	casks	—	363	20	383	383 (casks of 132 galls.) 3 8 cask of 132 gallons
Linsed paste	cantar	1,941	—	—	1,945	170 3 3 2 10 0 ton
Liquorice paste	—	4,114	5,113	4,100	13,327	1,166 2 1 45 0 0 ton
Macaroni	—	169	207	241	1,017	35 9 1 21 0 0 ton
Madder root	—	9,959	796	1,776	12,531	1,090 9 1 27 15 0 ton
Madder, ground	—	88	961	627	976	85 8 0 36 10 0 ton
Nat galls	—	—	608	128	678	40 29 0 4 10 0 ton
Nuts and walnuts	—	110	903	902	1,915	167 11 1 19 0 0 ton
Oil of (from the	—	—	—	—	—	—
producers)	—	100,595	1,048,833	401,084	1,549,512	4,183,542 0 2 3 gallon
Pigeons' dung	cantar	—	—	43	49	4 5 3 3 10 0 ton
Eggs, wooten	—	—	—	4,673	4,673	409 8 1 3 15 0 ton
Robins, dried	—	30	381	—	411	63 9 1 11 0 0 ton
Silk, raw	lb. 12 oz.	52,170	167,883	7,811	227,866	10,925 0 10 2 1/2 lb. of 16 oz.
manufactured	—	—	10,345	13,379	23,724	2,985 0 2 2 2 1/2 wad
dye	—	50	82,244	30,995	113,487	87,215 1 3 2 1/2 lb. of 16 oz.
waste	—	1,390	287	287	1,577	0 3 0 1/2 lb. of 16 oz.
Wool, unbleached	number	3,268	1,390	1,390	3,958	1,390 1 3 1/2 lb.
Soap, soft	cantar	27 1/2	5 25 r.	—	33 24	9 1 8 0 2 1/2 lb. of 16 oz.
hard	—	—	8 20 r.	—	8 20	42 0 11 4 1/2 lb.
Tinder (Eces)	lb. 12 oz.	—	30,750	46,466	77,116	42 0 0 1/2 lb. of 16 oz.
Tallow	cantar	1,195	3,673	16	4,884	427 7 0 40 0 0 ton
Wool	—	1,354	1,930	2,802	4,546	397 15 2 764. to 1337. ton
Wine in casks	casks	264	275	850	1,389	1,389 (casks of 132 galls.)
in bottles	bottles	754	200	4,081	5,265	5,265 bottles
Zaffres	lb. 12 oz.	250	587	2,840	3,776	4,798 (16s. to 16s. 10d. lb. of 16 oz.)

ment, and guaranteed by the possession of landed property. It is not a bank for the issue of notes on credit, like the Bank of England, but for their issue on deposits, somewhat on the principle of the Bank of Hamburg. Government makes all its payments by means of notes or orders on the bank; and they are issued to individuals for whatever sums they desire, on their paying an equivalent sum of money to the bank. These notes or orders form a considerable part of the circulating medium of Naples; they are paid in cash on demand.

Government has also established a discount office, where bills, indorsed by 2 persons of good credit, and not at more than 2 months' date, are discounted at 4 per cent.

No large city as Naples, and so advantageously situated for the commerce with the Black Sea, the Levant, Greece, Spain, Northern Italy, Northern Africa, &c., would, had it been allowed to avail itself of its natural advantages, have become a

most important *entrepot*. But in consequence of injudicious regulations no goods have been carried to it except those destined for home consumption. In this respect, however, a considerable change may now be anticipated.

Credit, &c.—Goods are universally sold at long credits, mostly from 6 to 8 months; and for manufactured goods, sometimes longer. On sales of indigo, from 18 to 18 months' credit is given. Discount for ready money is at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum. Merchants are arranged by the Chamber of Commerce into 5 different classes; and a 6 months' credit is given at the Custom-house for duties, to the extent of 10,000, 20,000, 30,000, 40,000, and 15,000 ducats, to individuals, according to the class in which they happen to be enrolled. But this is of little importance. Unless the transactions of a merchant be very limited indeed, the duties he has to pay amount to much more than the credit he is allowed.

Commercial Policy.—The policy of the Neapolitan government with respect to commerce was for a lengthened period the most objectionable that can well be imagined. Articles, whether of import or of export, were burdened, alike, with oppressive duties and restrictions; and even the warehousing of foreign goods could hardly be said to be permitted. Of late, however, we are glad to observe, the administration appears to have become alive to the injurious influence of this *felu de se* system, and has given its sanction to several measures of a comparatively liberal character. In proof of this we may mention that a treaty of commerce and navigation with this country, bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity, was signed at Naples in the course of this year (1845), and that a similar treaty has been entered into with France. (See TREATIES, COMMERCIAL.) Several important changes have also been made in the rates of duty in the Neapolitan tariff. The export duty on sulphur is wholly to cease from the 1st of January next (1846); and the 30s. per tun of discriminating duty on olive oil, when exported in a foreign ship, over and above the duty of 3*l*. per tun imposed on it, when exported in a native ship, will be put an end to, in so far at least as our vessels are concerned, by the reciprocity treaty referred to above. The export duty on olive oil ought, however, to be wholly abolished. Even though Naples enjoyed a monopoly of this valuable product, the imposition of a duty is wholly indefensible on any sound principle. But when, instead of having a monopoly of the oil trade, the Neapolitans are exposed to the keen competition of the Tuscans, Genoese, Spaniards, &c., the imposition of an export duty is in the last degree impolitic. It depresses that branch of industry which is most suitable for the country, and gives a corresponding encouragement to its extension amongst foreigners. The increased duty of 30s. a tun on oil exported in foreign ships was, of course, intended to force the employment of native ships: but it has not had, and could not rationally be expected to have, any such consequence; its only effect being to tempt foreigners to make a corresponding addition to the duties on oil, when imported in Neapolitan ships. Such regulations are never, in fact, productive of any thing except injury to those by whom they are enacted.

The duties on imports have also undergone various modifications. Those on fish (of which large quantities are imported from England), sugar, and other colonial products, have been reduced fully a half. But we beg to submit in illustration of these changes the following statement of the old and new rates of duty on certain articles:—

	Old duty.		New duty.			Old Duty.		New Duty.	
	duc. c.	duc. c.	duc. c.	duc. c.		duc. c.	duc. c.	duc. c.	duc. c.
Herrings	—	—	—	—	Cloves	—	—	—	—
Codfish	—	—	—	—	Nutmegs	—	—	—	—
Goose	—	—	—	—	Pepper	—	—	—	—
Coffee	—	—	—	—	Flinders, &c.	—	—	—	—
Camphor, raw	—	—	—	—	Stockfish	—	—	—	—
Dec. refined	—	—	—	—	Sugar of any kind, in powder	—	—	—	—
Cinnamon, in sort	—	—	—	—	Do. in leaves	—	—	—	—
Cassia lignosa, of any sort	—	—	—	—	Vanilla	—	—	—	—

We have no doubt that the beneficial influence of these wise and liberal measures will lead to farther changes. The duties on iron, with those on cottons, woollens, and other descriptions of manufactured goods, are a great deal too high. These duties were imposed partly for the sake of revenue, and partly in the view of encouraging domestic manufactures; but they have not accomplished either object. The inordinate extent to which they have been carried has made them advantageous only to the smuggler, and ruinous to every one else. How, indeed, could it be otherwise? The coast of Naples, exclusive of Sicily, stretches from 800 to 1,000 miles; in many places it is uninhabited, while, in a great number of others, the people are not more than half civilised. The facilities for smuggling are, therefore, incalculably great; and, combined with the inadequate remuneration of the customs' officers, and the ease with which they are corrupted, our only wonder is, not that smuggling is in a thriving state, but that there should be any considerable legitimate traffic. The latter, indeed, has been principally confined to Naples, where a stricter police is established; for it has not been uncommon to find the same articles, in country towns at no great distance from the capital, selling for $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ their cost in it. In a country subjected to a commercial code like that which till the present year has existed in Naples, the smuggler is a great public benefactor. He is, in fact, the natural enemy of oppressive duties and prohibitions. These bring him into the field, and make him put forth all his enterprise and energy: and it is fortunate for the best interests of society that he is uniformly victorious over

penalties, confiscations, racks, and gibbets; and cannot be defeated otherwise than by the adoption of enlarged and liberal principles of commercial policy.

Of the direct taxes, the most productive is the *fondataria*, or tax on rent, producing above 1,000,000, a year. It was imposed during the French occupation, when it was fixed at 25 per cent. of the sum received by the landlord. It was subsequently reduced to 12½ per cent.; and during the current year (1845) it has been further reduced to 10 per cent.

Considering the great natural fertility, varied productions, and advantageous situation of Naples and Sicily, it is plain that nothing more than freedom and security are required to render them among the richest, most industrious, and flourishing countries of Europe. But, instead of this, the fetters laid upon commerce, by depriving the inhabitants of a market for their productions, and, consequently, of the most powerful stimulus to industry and invention, have hitherto paralysed all their energies, and immersed them in poverty, sloth, and barbarism. It was high time that a different line of policy should be adopted. At Naples, extensive reforms may be undertaken without (which is not always the case elsewhere) endangering any thing either useful or valuable. The foundations of a great and rapid improvement have, we believe, been laid. To carry it to its fullest extent government has only to abolish all duties and restrictions on exportation, to establish the warehousing system, and to reduce the duties on the importation of manufactures to ¼ or ½ part of their present amount. If it do this, it will add prodigiously to its own revenue; at the same time that it will do 10 times more to rouse the dormant energies and to augment the wealth of its subjects, than it is possible to do by any other means.

In compiling this article, we have been much indebted to the carefully drawn up, and judicious *Answers of Mr. Goodwin, British consul, Palermo, to the Circolo Querle, to various native works on Sicily, and to some valuable private communications from Mr. Goodwin and others.* We have also looked into the works of a good many English and foreign travellers, but seldom with much advantage. They are filled with accounts, a thousand times repeated, of antiquities, Vesuvius, the churches, theatres, lazaroni, &c.; but few among them com-

municate any information from which any just ideas can be formed of the state of industry and commerce, the financial system of the country, &c. The statistical works of the Neapolitans are equally defective. They are overlaid with insignificant details, while they neglect altogether, or pass slightly over, the more important departments. This may arise from the jealousy of government; but the English travellers can make no such apology for their defects.

NAVIGATION LAWS. These laws form an important branch of Maritime Law. In this country they are understood to comprise the various acts that have been passed, defining British ships, the way in which such ships are to be manned, the peculiar privileges enjoyed by them, and the conditions under which foreign ships shall be allowed to engage in the trade of the country, either as importers or exporters of commodities, or as carriers of commodities from one part of the country to another.

Sketch of the History and Principles of the Navigation Laws.—The origin of the Navigation Laws of England may be traced to the reign of Richard II., or perhaps to a still more remote period. But, as no intelligible account of the varying and contradictory enactments framed at so distant an epoch could be compressed within any reasonable space, it is sufficient to observe, that, in the reign of Henry VII., two of the leading principles of the navigation law were distinctly recognised, in the prohibition of the importation of certain commodities, unless imported in ships belonging to English owners, and manned by English seamen. In the early part of the reign of Elizabeth (5 Eliz. c. 5.), foreign ships were excluded from our fisheries and coasting trade. The republican parliament gave a great extension to the navigation laws, by the act of 1650, which prohibited all ships, of all foreign nations whatever, from trading with the plantations in America, without having previously obtained a licence. These acts were, however, rather intended to regulate the trade between the different ports and dependencies of the empire, than to regulate our intercourse with foreigners. But in the following year (9th of October, 1651) the republican parliament passed the famous *Act of Navigation*. This act had a double object. It was intended not only to promote our own navigation, but also to strike a decisive blow at the naval power of the Dutch, who then engrossed almost the whole *carrying trade* of the world, and against whom various circumstances had conspired to incense the English. The act in question declared, that no goods or commodities whatever, of the growth, production, or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, should be imported either into England or Ireland, or any of the plantations, except in ships belonging to English subjects, and of which the master and the greater number of the crew were also English. Having thus secured the import trade of Asia, Africa, and America, to the English ship owners, the act went on to secure to them, as far as that was possible, the import trade of Europe. For this purpose, it further enacted, that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of any country in Europe, should be imported into Great Britain, except in British ships, or in such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or most usually were, exported. The latter part of the clause was entirely levelled against the Dutch, who had but little native produce to export, and whose ships were principally employed in carrying the produce of other countries to foreign markets. Such were the leading provisions of this famous act. They were adopted by the regal government which succeeded Cromwell, and form the basis of the act of the 12th Car. 2. c. 18., which continued, to a very recent period, to be the rule by which our naval intercourse with other countries was mainly regulated; and has been pompously designated the *Charta Maritima* of England!

In the statute 12 Car. 2. c. 18., the clause against importing foreign commodities, except in British ships, or in ships belonging to the country or place where the goods were produced, or from which they were exported, was so far modified, that the prohibition was made to apply only to the goods of Russia and Turkey, and to certain articles since well known in commerce by the name of *enumerated* articles, leave being at the same time given to import all other articles in ships of any description. But this modi-

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1 45	7 0
2 47	1 20
6 68	3 0
22 0	10 0
33 0	15 0
2 78	1 80

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fication was of very little importance; inasmuch as the enumerated articles comprised all those that were of most importance in commerce, as timber, grain, tar, hemp and flax, potashes, wines, spirits, sugar, &c. Parliament seems, however, to have very speedily come round to the opinion that too much had been done in the way of relaxation; and in the 14th of Charles II. a supplemental statute was passed, avowedly with the intention of obviating some evasions of the statute of the preceding year, which it was affirmed had been practised by the Hollanders and Germans. This, however, seems to have been a mere pretence, to excuse the desire to follow up the blow aimed, by the former statute, at the carrying trade of Holland. And such was our jealousy of the naval and commercial greatness of the Dutch, that, in order to cripple it, we did not hesitate totally to proscribe all trade with them; and to prevent the possibility of fraud, or of clandestine or indirect intercourse with Holland, we went so far as to include the commerce with the Netherlands and Germany in the same proscription. The statute of the 14th Car. 2. prohibited all importation from these countries of a long list of enumerated commodities under any circumstances, or in any vessels, whether British or foreign, under the penalty of seizure and confiscation of the ships and goods. So far as it depended on us, Holland, the Netherlands, and Germany were virtually placed without the pale of the commercial world! And though the extreme rigour of this statute was subsequently modified, its principal provisions remained in full force until the late alterations.

The policy, if not the motives, which dictated these statutes, has met with very general eulogy. It has been said, and by no less an authority than Dr. Smith, that national animosity did, in this instance, that which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended. "When the act of navigation was made," says he, "though England and Holland were not actually at war, the most violent animosity subsisted between the two nations. It had begun during the government of the long parliament, which first framed this act, and it broke out soon after in the Dutch wars during that of the Protector and of Charles II. It is not impossible, therefore, that some of the regulations of this famous act may have proceeded from national animosity. They are as wise, however, as if they had all been dictated by the most deliberate wisdom. National animosity at that particular time aimed at the very same object which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended, — the diminution of the naval power of Holland, the only naval power which could endanger the security of England. The act of navigation is *not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can arise from it.* The interest of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and to sell as dear as possible. But the act of navigation, by diminishing the number of sellers, must necessarily diminish that of buyers; and we are thus likely not only to buy foreign goods dearer, but to sell our own cheaper, than if there was a more perfect freedom of trade. As defence, however, is of much more importance than opulence, the act of navigation is, perhaps, the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England." — (*Smith's Wealth of Nations*, p. 204.)

It may, however, be very fairly doubted, whether, in point of fact, the navigation law had the effects here ascribed to it, of weakening the naval power of the Dutch, and of increasing that of this kingdom. The Dutch were very powerful at sea for a long period after the passing of this act; and it seems natural to conclude, that the decline of their maritime preponderance was owing rather to the gradual increase of commerce and navigation in other countries, and to the disasters and burdens occasioned by the ruinous contests the Republic had to sustain with Cromwell, Charles II., and Louis XIV., than to the mere exclusion of their merchant vessels from the ports of England. It is not meant to say that this exclusion was altogether without effect. The efforts of the Dutch to procure a repeal of the English navigation law show that, in their apprehension, it operated injuriously on their commerce.* It is certain, however, that its influence in this respect has been greatly over-rated in this country. *Excessive taxation*, and not our navigation law, was the principal cause of the fall of profits, and of the decline of manufactures, commerce, and navigation, in Holland. "Les guerres," says the well-informed author of the *Commerce de la Hollande*, "terminées par les traités de Nimègue, de Ryswick, d'Utrecht, et enfin la dernière par le traité d'Aix-la-Chapelle, ont successivement obligé la République de faire usage d'un grand crédit, et de faire des emprunts énormes pour en soutenir les fraix. Les dettes ont surchargé l'état d'une somme immense d'intérêts, qui ne pouvoient être payés que par une augmentation excessive d'impôt, dont il a fallu faire porter la plus forte partie par les consommations dans un pays qui n'a qu'un territoire extrêmement borné, et par conséquent par l'industrie. Il a donc fallu faire enchérir infiniment la main-d'œuvre. Cette cherté de la main-d'œuvre a non seulement restreint presque toute sorte de fabrique et d'industrie à la consommation intérieure,

* In the treaty of Breda, agreed upon in 1667, between the States General and Charles II. the latter undertook to procure the repeal of the navigation law. But the subject was never agitated in either house of parliament.

mais elle a encore porté un coup bien sensible au commerce de frêt, partie accessoire et la plus précieuse du commerce d'économie: car cette cherté a rendu la construction plus chère, et augmenté le prix de tous les ouvrages qui tiennent à la navigation, même de tous les ouvrages des ports et des magasins. Il n'étoit pas possible que l'augmentation du prix de la main-d'œuvre ne donnât, malgré tous les efforts de l'économie Hollandaise, un avantage sensible aux autres nations qui voudroient se livrer au commerce d'économie et à celui de frêt."—(Tome II. p. 211.)

This extract, which might, were it necessary, be corroborated by others to the same effect from all the best Dutch writers, show that it is not to our navigation law, nor to the restrictive regulations of other foreign powers, but to the abuse of the funding system, and the excess of taxation, that the decline of the commercial greatness and maritime power of Holland was really owing. Neither does it appear that the opinion maintained by Dr. Smith and others, that the navigation law had a powerful influence in augmenting the naval power of this country, rests on any better foundation. The taste of the nation for naval enterprise had been awakened, the navy had become exceedingly formidable, and Blake had achieved his victories, before the enactment of this famous law. So far, indeed, is it from being certain that the Navigation Act had, in this respect, the effect commonly ascribed to it, that there are good grounds for thinking it had a precisely opposite effect, and that it operated rather to diminish than to increase our mercantile navy. It is stated in Roger Coke's *Treatise on Trade*, published in 1671 (p. 36.), that this act, by lessening the resort of strangers to our ports, had a most injurious effect on our commerce; and he further states that we had lost, within 2 years of the passing of the act of 1650, the greater part of the Baltic and Greenland trades.—(p. 48.) Sir Josiah Child, whose treatise was published in 1691, corroborates Coke's statement: for while he decidedly approves of the navigation law, he admits that the English shipping employed in the Eastland and Baltic trades had decreased at least *two thirds* since its enactment, and that the foreign shipping employed in these trades had proportionally increased.—(*Treatise on Trade*, p. 89. Glasg. edit.) Exclusive of these contemporary authorities, it may be worth while to mention that Mr. Richardson, an extensive and extremely well-informed merchant, condemns the whole principle of the Navigation Act; and contends, that instead of increasing our shipping and seamen, it had diminished them both; and that, by rendering the freight of ships higher than it would otherwise have been, it had entailed a heavy burden on the public, and been one of the main causes that had prevented our carrying on the fishery so successfully as the Dutch.—(*Essay on the Causes of the Decline of Foreign Trade*, p. 60. ed. 1756.)

There do not seem to be any very good grounds on which to question these statements; and they are at all events sufficient to show, that the assertions of those who contend that the navigation laws had a prodigious effect in increasing the number of our ships and sailors, must be received with very great modification. But suppose that all that has been said by the apologists of these laws were true to the letter; suppose it were conceded, that when first framed, the Act of Navigation was extremely politic and proper; that would afford but a very slender presumption in favour of the policy of supporting it in the present day. Human institutions are not made for immortality: they must be accommodated to the varying circumstances and exigencies of society. But the situation of G. Britain and the other countries of Europe has totally changed since 1650. The envied wealth and commercial greatness of Holland have passed away; we have no longer any thing to fear from her hostility; and "he must be, indeed, strangely influenced by antiquated prejudices and by-gone apprehensions, who can entertain any of that jealousy from which the severity of this law principally originated." London has become, what Amsterdam formerly was, the grand emporium of the commercial world—*universi orbis terrarum emporium*: and the real question which now presents itself for our consideration is, not what are the best means by which we may rise to naval greatness? but—what are the best means of preserving that undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs to which we have attained?

Now, it does not really seem that there can be much difficulty in deciding this question. Navigation and naval power are the children, not the parents—the effect, not the cause—of commerce. If the latter be increased, the increase of the former will follow as a matter of course. More ships and more sailors become necessary according as the commerce between different and distant countries is extended. A country in the condition of G. Britain in the reign of Charles II., when her shipping was comparatively limited, might perhaps be warranted in endeavouring to increase its amount, by excluding foreign ships from her harbours. But it is almost superfluous to add, that it is not by any such regulations, but solely by the aid of a flourishing and widely extended commerce, that the immense mercantile navy we have now accumulated can be supported.

It may be easily shown, that to have continued, in the present state of the world, to

enforce the provisions of the old navigation law, would have been among the most efficient means that could have been devised for the destruction of our commerce. The wealth and power to which Britain has attained, have inspired other nations with the same feelings of envy and jealousy, that the wealth of Holland formerly generated in our minds. Instead of ascribing our commercial and manufacturing superiority to its true causes, that is, to the comparative freedom of our constitution, the absence of all oppressive feudal privileges, the security of property, and the fairness of our system of taxation, our foreign rivals contended that it had been entirely owing to our exclusive system, and appealed to our example to stimulate their respective governments to adopt retaliatory measures, and to protect them against British competition. These representations had the most injurious operation. In 1817, the American legislature passed an act, copied to the very letter from our statute book, with the avowed intention of its operating as a retaliatory measure against this country. The northern powers threatened to act on the same principle; and would have carried their threats into effect but for timely concessions on our part. The same engines by which we laboured to destroy the trade of Holland were thus about to be brought, by what we could not have called an unjust retribution, to operate against ourselves. Nor can there be a doubt that, had we continued to maintain our exclusive system, and refused to set a better example to others, and to teach them the advantage of recurring to more liberal principles, we should have run a very great risk of falling a victim to the vindictive spirit which such short-sighted and selfish policy would have generated.

These statements are sufficient to show that a considerable relaxation of our navigation laws had become indispensable; and this was partly effected in 1821 and 1825, but principally in the latter, by the measures introduced with that view into parliament by Mr. Wallace (afterwards Lord Wallace) and Mr. Huskisson. The effect of these was to place the intercourse of all European countries at amity with the U. Kingdom on the same footing. The memorials of our former animosity, and of our jealousy of the prosperity of certain neighbouring states, being thus abolished, the same law has since continued to regulate our commerce with the continent. This uniformity, besides giving greater scope to mercantile operations, and facilitating our traffic with some of our most opulent neighbours, removed a prolific source of embarrassment and litigation, at the same time that it detracted considerably from that selfish character which had been believed on the continent, and not without considerable reason, to be the animating principle of our commercial policy.

The changes that were also made in 1821 and 1825, in regard to the importation of *enumerated goods**, and of articles, the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, though of considerable importance, were very far from obviating the hardships arising out of the previous rules. The importation of European goods continued to be practicable only in British ships, or in ships of the country of which the goods were the produce, or of the country from which they were shipped. This regulation was kept up to hinder the Dutch, the Danes, or any other people from becoming the carriers of the produce of other nations to our ports. But while this result was not very likely to occur, the rule imposed a serious hardship on foreigners, and also on ourselves. Suppose that a Dutch ship took in part of a cargo of Dutch produce, such as cheese, butter, and Geneva at Rotterdam for England, what could be more vexatious, in the event of her not being able to complete her cargo with Dutch goods suitable for our markets, than to hinder her from making it up with the foreign goods suitable for them warehoused at Rotterdam, such as the wines and brandies of France, the corn of Poland, the hemp and tallow of Russia, &c. ? But its vexatious character was not the only thing to be objected to in a regulation of this sort. It really increased the cost of the butter, cheese, &c. sent to us; for as these had to bear the whole charge on account of freight which, but for the regulation, would have been in part borne by other articles, their price was proportionally enhanced, at the same time that the Dutch were tempted to resort to retaliatory measures. And how injurious soever in other respects, it is sufficiently plain that this regulation could never, as has been alleged, occasion an increased demand for British shipping. It no doubt compelled the foreigners to sort their cargoes less advantageously than they might otherwise have done. But the burden of this fell upon the employers of the carriers and not on the carriers themselves; that is, it fell upon us and not on the foreigners; while, in the event of their retaliating, our trade was subjected to the same difficulties. It is visionary to pretend that a system so prejudicial to commerce could be advantageous to shipping and navigation.

The measures introduced in 1825 left also untouched the regulation by which goods, the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, were prohibited from being imported from any European port †, and could not be imported on foreign bottoms, except when they

* These changes are specified in the former editions of this work.

† The only exception to this rule were articles from Asiatic and African Turkey imported from the Levant, and bullion.

were imported direct in ships of the country of which the goods were the produce. It was proposed in 1821 to authorise British ships to import all non-prohibited articles from wherever they might find them; and though nothing apparently could be more reasonable than such a regulation, it was objected to on the pretence that foreign ships being more cheaply navigated than ours, would take advantage of this circumstance to import Asiatic, African, and American products into the contiguous continental ports, and would thus confine the employment of our ships to their carriage thence! And upon this futile pretence, for which there was not so much as the shadow of a foundation in fact, the old rule was maintained; and, in consequence, though the ports along the English Channel might have been glutted with the corn and cotton of America, the sugar of Brazil and Cuba, the coffee of Java, and the tea of China, and though all or some of these articles might at the time have been deficient here, not one of them could be imported in a foreign ship, unless, as was sometimes the case, it were carried back to the country whence it had been originally shipped, nor even in a British ship, unless it were first carried from Europe to some other continent! It is hardly possible to imagine any rule or regulation more extravagantly oppressive and absurd, and it is really astonishing it should have been able to keep its place on the statute book for about two centuries. Luckily, however, this preposterous system, as well as the regulations affecting importation from Europe, ceased on the 1st of January, 1850. The act for their repeal, the 12th and 13th Vict. c. 29., may be regarded as the completion of the free trade measures adopted in 1842 and 1846, and will, we have little doubt, have the most favourable influence over the commerce and navigation of the empire.

The monopoly of the coasting trade is still secured to British ships, and it is very doubtful whether it would have been expedient to interfere with it. Speaking generally, the coasting trade of a country may be always most cheaply and efficiently carried on by the agency of its own ships, while, by confining it to them, the risk of smuggling is materially diminished.

The relaxations made in 1825 and 1826 in the regulations embodied in our old navigation laws in regard to the colonial trade, were perhaps the most valuable portion of the changes introduced by Mr. Huskisson. But though they did much to obviate the hardships growing out of the previous rules, and to give freedom to the colonial trade, they did not entirely effect that object; and some regulations were subsequently continued in force which, though irritating and mischievous in their bearing on the colonies, were of no real advantage to ourselves. These, however, wholly ceased on the 1st of January, 1850. All varieties of goods may now be imported into the colonies from all countries at peace with Great Britain, and exported from the colonies to them, whether in British, colonial, or foreign shipping. The complaints of the colonists, in regard to the injuries they have sustained from the rules enforced by our navigation laws, are thus completely obviated, and on that ground, at all events, they have no farther claim to prohibitory duties.

Besides the restrictive regulations already alluded to, it was a part of our former policy to encourage the employment of British shipping by imposing higher duties on commodities imported in foreign vessels than were imposed on them when imported in British vessels; and it was also customary to charge foreign vessels with higher port and lighthouse duties, &c. This practice was always loudly complained of by foreigners; but we had little difficulty in maintaining it, so long as we could afford to disregard the retaliatory measures of other powers. But the extraordinary increase that took place, since the commencement of the late war, in our manufactures for foreign consumption, and the necessity under which we were, in consequence, placed, of conciliating our customers abroad, led to the adoption of the *reciprocity system*. The latter was first introduced into the trade with the U. States. After the N. American colonies had succeeded in establishing their independence, they set about framing rules for their navigation on the model of those of this country. Among other regulations of a restrictive character, it was enacted that all foreign vessels trading to the U. States should pay 44 cents, which was afterwards raised to 94 cents (nearly a dollar), per ton duty, beyond what was paid by American ships; and farther, that goods imported in foreign vessels should pay a duty of 10 per cent. over and above the duty payable on them when imported in American vessels.

This law was avowedly directed against the shipping of this country, though, as it was bottomed on the same principles as our navigation laws, we could not openly complain of its operation. Under these circumstances it would have been sound policy to have at once proposed an accommodation; and, instead of attempting to meet retaliation by retaliation, to have offered to modify our navigation law, in so far as American shipping was concerned, on the Americans making reciprocal modifications in our favour. A different course was, however, followed. Various devices were fallen upon to counteract the navigation system of the Americans, without in any degree relaxing our own: but they all failed of their object; and at length it became obvious

to every one that we had engaged in an unequal struggle, and that the real effect of our policy was, to give a bounty on the importation of the manufactured goods of other countries into the U. States, and thus gradually to exclude both our manufactures and ships from the ports of the republic. In consequence, a conviction of the necessity of making concessions gained ground progressively; and it was ultimately fixed, by the commercial treaty agreed upon between G. Britain and the U. States, in 1815, that in future equal charges should be imposed on the ships of either country in the ports of the other, and that equal duties should be laid upon all articles, the produce of the one country imported into the other, whether such importation were effected in the ships of the one or the other.

Brazil and the other states of S. America were naturally anxious to establish a commercial marine; and, to forward their views in this respect, they contemplated enacting navigation laws. But this intention was frustrated by the interference of the British government, who, without stipulating for any peculiar advantage, wisely offered to admit their ships into our ports on a principle of reciprocity, or on their paying the same charges as our own ships, on condition of their admitting British ships into their ports on a similar footing. Commercial treaties, framed on this sound principle, were afterwards entered into with most of these states.

The reciprocity system having been thus adopted as the basis of the intercourse with the U. States, whose commercial marine was second only to that of G. Britain, it was not possible to refuse adopting it in the case of such European countries as might choose to admit our ships into their ports on a footing of equality.* The first demand of this sort was made on the part of the Prussian government, which, on the 20th of June, 1822, issued an order in council, making large additions to the port dues previously charged on all ships belonging to those nations which did not admit Prussian ships on a principle of reciprocity. The real object of this order was to injure the navigation of this country; and it was speedily found that it had the desired effect, and that its operation on British shipping was most mischievous.

Under these circumstances, the British merchants and shipowners applied to our government for relief.

"We were assailed," said Mr. Huskisson, "with representations from all quarters connected with the shipping and trade of the country, against the heavy charges imposed upon British ships in the ports of Prussia. In such circumstances, what course did his Majesty's government take? We felt it to be our duty, in the first instance, to communicate with the Prussian minister in this country; and our minister at Berlin was, I believe, also directed to confer with the Prussian government on the subject. I myself had a conference with the Prussian minister at this court, and I well recollect the substance of his reply to me: 'You have,' he said, 'set us the example, by your port and light charges, and your discriminating duties on Prussian ships; and we have not gone beyond the limits of that example.' Hitherto, we have confined the increase of our port and tonnage charges to ships only; but it is the intention of my government next year' (and of this he showed me the written proof) 'to imitate you still more closely, by imposing discriminating duties on the goods imported in your ships. Our object is a just protection to our own navigation; and so long as the measure of our protection does not exceed that which is afforded in your ports to British ships, we cannot see with what reason you can complain.'

"Against such a reply what remonstrance could we, in fairness, make to the Prussian government? We might have addressed ourselves, it may be said by some, to the friendly feelings of that government;—we might have pleaded long usage in support of our discriminating duties;—we might have urged the advantages which Prussia derived from her trade with England. Appeals like these were not forgotten in the discussion, but they were of little avail against the fact stated by the consul at Danzig—that 'the Prussian shipowners were all going to ruin.'

"By others it may be said, 'Your duty was to retaliate by increasing your own port charges and discriminating duties, on Prussian shipping.' I have already stated generally my reasons against the policy of this latter course. We were not prepared to begin a system of commercial hostility, which, if followed up on both sides to its legitimate consequences, could only tend to reciprocal prohibition. In this state of things, more prudently, as I contend, we entered upon an amicable negotiation with the Prussian government, upon the principle of our treaty with the United States,—that of abolishing, on both sides, all discriminating duties on the ships and goods of the respective countries in the ports of the other.

"Having concluded an arrangement with Prussia upon this basis, we soon found it necessary to do the same with some other of the northern states. Similar conventions were accordingly entered into with Denmark and Sweden. Reciprocity is the foundation of all these conventions; but it is only fair to add, that they contain other stipulations for giving facility to trade, and from which the commerce of this country, I am confident, will, in the result, derive considerable advantage."†

This statement shows that the establishment of the reciprocity system with respect to which so violent a clamour was afterwards raised, was not a measure of choice but of necessity. We could not afford to hazard the exclusion of our manufactures from countries into which they were annually imported to a large amount. So long as the Prussians, Swedes, Danes, and other nations, chose to submit, without attempting to retaliate, to our system of discriminating duties on foreign ships, and on the goods imported in them, it was no business of ours to tell them that that system was illiberal and unjust. But when they discovered that such was really the case, and declared that unless we modified our restrictions, they would retaliate on our commerce, and

* By the fourth section of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 1., it was enacted, that his Majesty might, by an order in council, admit the ships of foreign states into our ports, on payment of the like duties that are charged on British vessels, provided that British ships are admitted into the ports of such foreign states on payment of the like duties that are charged on their vessels.

† Huskisson's Speech, May 13. 1826, on the State of the Shipping Interest.

either entirely exclude our commodities from their markets, or load those that were imported in British ships with prohibitory duties, which we have been justified in refusing to come to an accommodation? Were we to sacrifice the substance to the shadow? To turn away some of our best customers because they chose to stipulate that the intercourse between them and us should be conducted either in their ships or in ours, as the merchants might think best? Government had only a choice of difficulties; and they wisely preferred adopting a system which has preserved the access to foreign markets for English goods, and has farther secured an equal chance to English ships, with those of foreigners, of being employed in the trade with other countries. More could not have been obtained; nor would it have been really desirable. Had we endeavoured to enforce in the nineteenth century the rules and regulations that had been justly objected to and regarded as oppressive in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, we should have provoked a spirit of hostility and retaliation that must eventually, and at no distant period, have crippled alike the manufactures, the trade, and the navigation of the empire.

The reciprocity system is still wisely maintained, and is, indeed, embodied in the act 12 & 13 Vict. c. 29. But we do not make its previously agreeing to this system a condition of a foreign country being entitled to participate in the advantages conferred by this act. Such preliminary arrangements would have occasioned much embarrassment and difficulty, and we, therefore, have contented ourselves with reserving power to her Majesty in council, in the event of her thinking it expedient to interfere, to impose such prohibitions, restrictions, and discriminating duties on the ships of any foreign power frequenting our ports, as may be required to counteract any peculiar prohibitions, restrictions, or duties laid upon British ships in the ports of such foreign power.

Much difference of opinion has existed as to the practical effect on our shipping and navigation, of the changes in the navigation law introduced by Mr. Huskisson. But there is really no ground for any such difference. This will be apparent from the following comparison between the shipping belonging to the empire in 1825, when Mr. Huskisson's reforms began, and in 1848:—

Account of the Ships, their Tonnage, and their Crews, belonging to the British Empire in 1825 and 1848.

Years.	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.		Crews.
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	
1825	20,701	2,328,807	3,579	214,875	24,280	2,553,682	166,183
1848	25,638	3,400,809	8,054	651,351	33,672	4,052,160	236,069
Excess in 1848.	4,937	1,072,002	4,455	436,476	9,392	1,498,478	69,886

It is plain from this statement that the number of our ships, the amount of their tonnage, and the number of our sailors, have all been vastly increased since 1825. And if this be not, we should like to know what can be, a conclusive proof of the wisdom of the changes effected in 1825. They have, in fact, been successful to a degree which the most sanguine could not previously have supposed possible.

Although, however, the fact of a vast increase of our mercantile marine having taken place since 1825, be too well established to admit of any doubt, it is contended by the apologists of the old restrictive system, that the share which foreigners have in the trade of the U. K. is notwithstanding greater now than in 1825. But this greater preponderance of foreign vessels in our trade, if such really be the case (which is doubtful), is admitted to be but inconsiderable; though, were it incomparably greater than it is alleged to be, it would afford no room or ground for objecting to the measures of 1825 and 1849. The shipping and foreign trade of most continental states were all but wholly destroyed during the war terminated in 1815, while our shipping and trade were then proportionally increased: and the influence of this depression on the one side, and of the unnatural stimulus on the other, was far from being exhausted in 1825. But in the lengthened interval that has since elapsed, the mercantile navies of the continental states have attained to their ordinary state. And while we have no longer had any peculiar advantages on our side, we have had to contend with them, and with the rapidly increasing marine of the U. States. As respects the latter, we may observe, that while in 1825 our imports of cotton, principally from America, amounted to about 222,500,000 lbs., they amounted in 1848, to about 670,000,000 lbs.; at the same time that the imports of corn and flour from the U. States in the latter year bore a still greater proportion to their amount in the former. Our intercourse with Holland, France, the Elbe, &c., which was all but wholly suppressed during the war, is now become very extensive; and are we, under such circumstances, to be surprised that the proportion of foreign shipping frequenting our ports has increased? Had such increase been ten times greater, it could not have surprised any reasonable person; and the fair

presumption is, that but for the reforms effected in 1825, such would have been the case. And there is every reason to anticipate that the farther reforms effected in 1849, which, like those of 1825, were imperatively required by the exigencies of the commercial world, will be equally beneficial.

No evi- lence has been, or, we believe, can be produced, to warrant the often repeated assertion, that foreigners man and navigate ships cheaper than ourselves. There is not at present any trade open to British ships in which they do not, without difficulty, maintain their ground against every other competitor. The wages of seamen in the U. States are higher than here; and this, indeed, is a principal cause of our seamen engaging so very extensively as they are known to do in the American service. And while the wages paid by the northern shipowners differ but little from ours, their crews are larger, compared with the burden of their ships. The difference in the cost of victualling must be inconsiderable; for in all distant voyages our ships procure provisions and stores of all sorts at the same rates as the foreigner. Hence, as it appears to us, nothing can be more futile and unfounded than the fears, whether real or pretended, that our shipowners will not be able to withstand any competition to which they may be exposed. The late changes will be more advantageous to ourselves than to any other nation. Being the greatest commercial and naval people in the world, we must necessarily gain most by whatever gives increased facilities to commerce and navigation.

In estimating the capacity of the British shipowners to maintain their ground against their competitors in other parts of the world, it must be remembered that they are not now, as heretofore, obliged to use only ships of the built of the U. K. or the colonies. This restriction has been repealed by the 12 & 13 Viet. c. 29; and the fact of a ship being British, and entitled to all the privileges peculiar thereto, no longer depends on her having been constructed in our dominions, but on her being registered and manned according to the provisions in the statute now referred to. The building yards of all the countries of the world are thus laid open to our merchants, or others wishing to buy ships, who may purchase them as they do corn and wine, wherever they may be had cheapest.

We, however, incline to think that the power to buy foreign ships is one that will be rarely exercised. At present, taking their quality and durability into account, English built ships are as cheap as those of any other country, or cheaper. But we are ready to admit the superior importance of the shipbuilding business, and that it is right and proper to adopt any measure not injurious to others, by which its safety, and the well-being of our commercial marine, may be most effectually secured. And hence we think it would be good policy to remit the duty on the timber used in the building of ships, or, if that cannot be conveniently done, to allow them to be built and fitted out in bond. Even as it is, our shipbuilders have little or nothing to fear from foreign competition; but with the concession now referred to, which might be made with very little loss to the revenue, there can be no manner of doubt that ships would be built cheaper here than anywhere else; and, under the circumstances supposed, the probability is, that besides supplying our own demand, we should export them in large numbers.

Among the drawbacks to which our commercial marine has been, and continues to be subject, the most formidable appears to be the frequent incompetence of the masters, and the prevalence of intemperance among them and the crews. To obviate the first of these evils, it is proposed conformably to the policy adopted in some other countries*, to subject all parties seeking to be employed as masters of ships to a previous examination, in the view of ascertaining their capacity properly to discharge the important duties incident to such employment. And provided the examination were conducted by thoroughly qualified parties, and made sufficiently stringent, it would raise alike the character and the skill of the masters; and were some better system also introduced for the maintenance of discipline and good order on board merchant ships, and for the prevention or discouragement of intemperance, the result could not fail to be in the highest degree beneficial.

NEW NAVIGATION ACT OF 1849, THE 12 & 13 VICT. c. 29.

Certain Acts repealed from 1st January 1850.—From and after the 1st of January 1850, the following acts and parts of acts shall be repealed, viz. the act 8 & 9 Viet. c. 88, intitled "An Act for the Encouragement of British Shipping and Navigation;" so much of the act 8 & 9 Viet. c. 89, intitled "An Act for registering of British Vessels," as limits the privileges of vessels registered at Malta, Gibraltar, and Heligoland; and so much as provides that no ship or vessel shall be registered, except such as are wholly of the build of some part of the British dominions; and so much as relates to the disqualification of ships repaired in a foreign country; and so much as prevents British ships which have been captured by or sold to foreigners from becoming entitled to be again registered as British in case the same again become the property of British subjects; and so much of the act 8 & 9 Viet. c. 93, intitled "An Act to regulate the Trade of British Possessions abroad," as provides that no goods shall be imported into or exported from any of the British possessions in America by sea from or to any place other than the U. K., or some other of such possessions, except into or from the ports denominated free ports; so much thereof as provides for the limitation of the privileges allowed to foreign ships by the law of navigation in

* For an account of the regulations adopted in France in regard to this matter, see art. MASTERS.

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respect of Importations into the British possessions in Asia, Africa, and America; and so much thereof as provides that no vessel or boat shall be admitted to be a British vessel or boat on any of the inland water or lakes of America, except such as shall have been built at some place within the British dominions, and shall not have been repaired at any foreign place to a greater extent than in the said act is mentioned; and so much of the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 86, intituled "An Act for the general Regulation of the Customs," as prohibits the Importation of train oil, blubber, sperm-oil, oil, head-matter, skins, bones, and furs, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, unless in vessels which shall have been cleared out regularly with such oil, blubber, or other produce on board from some foreign port; and so much thereof as prohibits the Importation of tea, unless from the Cape of Good Hope, or from places outward of the same to the Straits of Magellan; and so much of the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112, intituled "An Act to amend and consolidate the Laws relating to Merchant Seamen, and for keeping a Register of Seamen," as provides that the master or owner of every ship belonging to any subject of H. M., of the burden of 80 tons or upwards, (except pleasure yachts,) shall have on board at the time of her proceeding from any port of the U. K., and at all times when absent from the U. K., or navigating the seas, one apprentice or more in a certain proportion to the number of tons of his ship's admeasurement, and that if any such master or owner shall neglect to have on board his ship the number of apprentices thereby required, together with their respective registered indentures, assignments, and register ticket, he shall forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* in respect of each apprentice, indenture, assignment, or register ticket so wanting or deficient; also act 27 G. 3. c. 117, intituled "An Act for regulating the Trade to be carried on with the British Possessions in India by the Ships of Nations in amity with H. M.," and so much of the act 47, 4. c. 80, intituled "An Act to consolidate and amend the several Laws now in force with respect to Trade from and to Places within the Limits of the Customs of the E. I. Company, and to make further Provisions with respect to such Trade, and to amend an Act of the present Session of Parliament for the registering of Vessels registered in India," as enacts that no Asiatic sailors, Lascars, or natives of any of the territories, countries, islands, or places within the limits of the said act, shall at any time be deemed or taken to be British subjects, or to be subject to the provisions of the act 4 G. 4. c. 77, intituled "An Act to authorise H. M., under certain circumstances, to regulate the Duties and Drawbacks on Goods Imported or exported in Foreign Vessels, and to exempt Foreign Vessels from Pilotage," as relates to the regulation of duties and drawbacks; also the act 5 G. 4. c. 1, intituled "An Act to indemnify all Persons concerned in advising, issuing, or acting under a certain Order in Council for regulating the Tonnage Duties on certain Foreign Vessels, and to amend an Act of the last Session of Parliament for authorising H. M., under certain circumstances, to regulate the Duties and Drawbacks on Goods Imported or exported in any Foreign Vessels;" also so much of the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 90, intituled "An Act for granting Duties of Customs," as empowers H. M. in council to direct that additional duties shall be levied on articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of foreign countries, or goods imported in the ships of foreign countries, or to prohibit the importation of manufactured articles the produce of foreign countries; also so much of the act 5 & 6 Vict. c. 14, intituled "An Act to amend the Laws for the Importation of Corn," as enables H. M., under certain circumstances, to prohibit the importation of corn, grain, meal, or flour from the dominions of certain foreign powers; and the said several acts and parts of acts before mentioned are hereby accordingly repealed, except so far as the said act or any of them repeal or amend former acts or acts, or any part of such act or acts, and except so far as relates to any penalty or forfeiture which shall have been incurred under the said act or acts hereby repealed or any of them, or to any offence which shall have been committed contrary to such act or acts or any of them.—§ 1.

Coasting Trade.—No goods or passengers shall be carried coastwise from one part of the U. K. to another, or from the U. K. to the Isle of Man, or from the Isle of Man to the U. K., except in British ships.—§ 2.

Trade with the Channel Islands.—No goods or passengers shall be imported into the U. K. from any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, nor shall any goods or passengers be exported from the U. K. to any of the said islands, or any goods or passengers be carried from any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, to any other of the said islands, nor from one part of any of the said islands to another part of the same island, except in British ships.—§ 3.

Coasting Trade of the British Possessions.—No goods or passengers shall be carried from one part of any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America to another part of the same possession, except in British ships.—§ 4.

Queen in Council may regulate Coasting Trade of Colonies.—If the legislature or proper legislative authority of any such British possession shall present an address to H. M., praying H. M. to authorise or permit the conveyance of goods or passengers from one part of such possession to another part thereof in other than British ships, or if the legislatures of any two or more possessions, which for the purposes of this act H. M. in council shall declare to be neighbouring possessions, shall present addresses or a joint address to H. M., praying H. M. to place the trade between them on the footing of a coasting trade, or of otherwise regulating the same, so far as relates to the vessels in which it is to be carried on, it shall thereupon be lawful for H. M., by order in council, so to authorise the conveyance of such goods or passengers, or so to regulate the trade between such neighbouring possessions, as the case may be, in such terms and under such conditions, in either case, as to H. M. may seem good.—§ 5.

Coasting Trade of India to be regulated by Governor-General.—It shall be lawful for the G. General of India in council to make any regulations authorising or permitting the conveyance of goods or passengers from one part of the possessions of the E. I. Company to another part thereof in other than British ships, subject to such restrictions or regulations as he may think necessary; and such regulations shall be of equal force and effect with any laws and regulations which the said G. General in council is now or may hereafter be authorised to make, and shall be subject to disallowance and repeal in like manner as any other laws or regulations made by the said G. General in council under the laws from time to time in force for the government of the British territories in India, and shall be transmitted to England, and be laid before both houses of parliament, in the same manner &c.—§ 6.

No Ship British unless registered and navigated as such.—No ship shall be admitted to be a British ship unless duly registered and navigated as such; and every British-registered ship (so long as the registry of such ship shall be in force, or the certificate of such registry retained for the use of such ship,) shall be navigated during the whole of every voyage (whether with a cargo or in ballast) in every part of the world by a master who is a British subject, and by a crew whereof three-fourths at least are British seamen; and if such ship be employed in a coasting voyage from one part of the U. K. to another, or in a voyage between the U. K. and the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or from one of the said Islands to another, or from one part of either of them to another of the same, or be employed in fishing on the coasts of the U. K. or of any of the said Islands, then the whole of the crew shall be British seamen; provided always, that if a due proportion of British seamen cannot be procured in any foreign port, or in any place within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, for the navigation of any British ship, or if such proportion be destroyed during the voyage by any unavoidable circumstance, and the master of such ship make proof of the truth of such facts to the satisfaction of the collector and controller of the customs at any British port, or of any person authorised in any other part of the world to inquire into the navigation of such ship, the same shall be deemed to be duly navigated; provided also, that every British ship (except such as are required to be wholly navigated by British seamen) which shall be navigated by one British seaman for every 20 tons of the burthen of such ship shall be deemed to be duly navigated, although the number of other seamen shall exceed one-fourth of the whole crew.

The unhealthiness of the climate is the great drawback on New Orleans. This probably arises from the low and marshy situation of the city and surrounding country, which is under the level of the Mississippi, being protected from inundation by an artificial levee or mound, varying from 5 to 30 feet in height, and extending along the bank of the river a distance of 100 miles. The unhealthy season includes July, August, and September; during which period the yellow fever often makes dreadful havoc, particularly among the poorer classes of emigrants from the North and from Europe. Latterly, great efforts have been made to improve the health of the city, by supplying it abundantly with water, paving the streets, removing wooden sewers, and replacing them with others of stone, &c. Many places, where water used to stagnate, have been filled up; and large tracts of swampy ground contiguous to the town have been drained. And as such works will no doubt be prosecuted on a still larger scale, according to the increase of commerce and population, it is to be hoped that the ravages of fever may be materially abated, though the situation of the city excludes any very strong expectation of its ever being rendered quite free from this dreadful scourge.

The following Tables give a pretty complete view of the trade of this great and growing emporium. Its preponderance in the shipment of cotton is quite as decided as the preponderance of Manchester in its manufacture.

Account of the Quantity of the principal Articles imported from the Interior to New Orleans during the Six Years ending with the 31st of August, 1846. These, of course, form also the Articles of Exportation.

Articles.	1845-46.	1844-45.	1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.
Apples - - - bbls.	26,775	26,515	43,969	67,803	26,443	27,944
Bacon, salted - - - casks	19,299	19,299	19,263	16,669	13,505	11,931
Bacon, salted - - - hhd.	7,099	8,338	19,070	13,588	9,920	6,111
Bacon, in bulk - - - lbs.	492,700	350,000	1,905,921	1,433,798	1,498,109	2,293,037
Bagging - - - pieces	66,601	11,374	100,216	90,721	67,076	70,976
Bale rope - - - coils	56,678	67,690	83,684	80,932	63,207	63,613
Butter - - - kegs	41,172	30,519	18,831	18,530	11,791	14,074
Beef - - - bbls. and tierces	21,831	29,674	49,263	17,949	17,455	23,899
Beef, dried - - - lbs.	98,200	58,200	55,610	51,400	60,812	70,191
Buffalo robes - - - packs	1,031	1,915	2,445	3,153	5,122	2,587
Cotton, viz:—						
Louisiana and Mississippi bales	765,215	686,214	687,769	824,045	583,328	677,543
Lark	14,475	15,533	15,234	14,480	9,667	5,163
N. Alabama and Tennessee	224,677	138,216	169,334	131,410	118,629	118,122
Arkansas	34,476	25,103	21,835	30,511	16,734	11,149
Mobile	6,526	19,125	47,898	10,097	4,265	3,881
Florida	5,944	18,830	18,916	3,581	4,281	731
Texas	4,949	25,150	19,170	15,329	5,101	4,461
Corn - - - bbls.	358,373	139,696	183,554	235,038	240,375	169,000
Corn, shelled - - - sacks	1,166,120	850,964	360,032	427,552	238,709	668,537
Cheese - - - boxes	67,399	39,091	12,582	5,292	2,710	1,958
Candles - - -	10,461	5,170	2,618	1,201	328	425
Coal, western - - - bbls.	462,801	281,000	227,788	255,268	140,382	221,233
Flour - - - bbls.	837,285	535,312	504,507	581,175	439,588	495,104
Fathers - - - bags	4,607	5,403	4,608	4,494	1,527	470
Hemp - - - bundles	30,980	46,274	38,062	14,972	1,211	450
Hides - - -	112,213	117,865	76,409	67,957	26,169	23,522
Horns - - -	700	8,300	3,870	1,701	700	2,480
Hay - - - bundles	71,270	37,499	55,132	39,022	20,123	21,425
Lard - - - bbls.	107,839	60,078	119,717	104,540	18,307	16,772
Ditto - - - kegs	334,269	215,414	373,541	307,871	366,294	311,710
Lard - - - pigs	785,598	738,145	639,269	371,949	479,556	434,467
No. am - - - bbls.	138,363	105,096	64,832	66,193	69,101	69,101
Oats - - - bbls. and sacks	469,368	144,262	130,432	120,430	63,281	64,820
Potatoes - - - bbls.	197,058	55,779	36,597	48,060	36,801	29,498
Pork - - -	369,401	216,960	412,926	204,613	244,442	216,974
Ditto - - - hhd.	9,999	6,741	8,800	2,271	946	765
Pork, in bulk - - - lbs.	2,740,132	4,079,600	7,729,000	6,814,750	4,051,800	9,744,220
Sugar - - - hhd.	93,109	93,999	51,816	60,999	60,999	60,999
Soap - - - boxes	3,333	6,076	1,299	2,627	1,932	150
Shingles - - -	13	114,000	861,551	147,890	114,000	153,000
Staves - - -	5,679	2,500,000	1,362,678	1,165,407	425,000	736,000
Tallow - - - bbls.	4,252	7,799	7,293	6,290	5,071	927
Tobacco, leaf - - - hhd.	72,898	71,433	82,433	91,434	66,555	53,170
Tobacco, chew - - - kegs	3,040	3,209	7,695	4,902	3,618	2,535
Tobacco - - - bales	1,105	3,739	4,771	3,006	3,429	1,426
Whiskey - - - bbls.	117,104	97,651	86,917	83,897	63,118	73,873
Wheat - - - bbls. and sacks	413,286	64,759	86,014	118,249	134,282	2,621

Account of the Prices of middling to fair Cotton at New Orleans on the 1st of September and the 1st of February in each of the following Years; with an Account of the Total Receipts of Cotton at New Orleans, and of the Total Cotton Crops of the U. States, during each of the same Years.

	1845-46.	1844-45.	1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.
September - - - Cents.	Per lb. 7 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 6 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 5 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 6 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 6 @ 2 1/2
February - - -	Per lb. 7 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 4 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 8 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 5 1/2 @ 2 1/2	Per lb. 7 1/2 @ 2 1/2
Cotton received at New Orleans - Bales.	1,023,633	979,238	910,854	1,089,642	740,153
Crop of U. States - - -	2,075,000	2,400,000	2,030,409	2,576,875	1,685,574

Monthly Arrivals of Ships, Barks, Brigs, Schooners, &c., for 2 Years, from 1st Sept. to 31st August.

Months.	1843-46.					1844-45.				
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schoon.	Total.
September	24	7	80	14	125	26	9	12	8	55
October	26	3	7	15	51	59	16	11	10	96
November	31	22	33	39	135	74	25	29	28	156
December	30	49	44	42	215	53	39	37	39	168
January	67	77	74	37	255	118	6	4	8	136
February	29	21	36	40	126	22	44	59	59	144
March	40	34	53	32	159	53	40	52	45	190
April	110	40	47	37	234	78	24	28	24	154
May	60	30	27	61	178	27	19	12	24	82
June	44	25	42	30	141	52	12	11	14	89
July	52	21	29	51	153	25	8	11	12	56
August	43	33	41	64	181	18	8	10	11	47
Total	743	277	447	518	2,005	718	297	331	318	1,664

Aggregate Value of Receipts of Produce at New Orleans for the undermentioned Years.

1842	\$45,716,045	1844	\$60,099,716	1846	\$77,193,464	1848	\$79,779,151
1843	\$37,288,034	1845	\$7,199,122	1847	\$9,033,256		

These returns show that the value of the produce sent from the Interior last year was larger than in any previous year. The quantities and average prices of the leading articles have been as follow:—

Year.	Cotton.		Corn.		Flour.		Lard.	
	Bales.	Price.	Sacks.	Price.	Barrels.	Price.	Ebbs. & Tcs.	Price.
1844	310,854	32 00	360,052	0 90	509,507	4 00	110,767	11 00
1845	273,338	24 00	290,064	0 90	535,718	4 00	60,076	10 00
1846	1,053,633	22 00	1,165,120	1 15	437,985	4 50	107,639	16 00
1847	710,669	44 00	1,386,510	2 00	1,817,675	5 50	117,077	23 00
1848	1,213,303	22 00	1,085,117	1 10	705,958	5 00	216,030	17 00

Year.	Pot.		Sugar.		Tobacco.	
	Barrels.	Price.	Hogsheads.	Price.	Hogsheads.	Price.
1844	412,928	Dollars. 65 00	140,316	Dollars. 60 00	70,835	Dollars. 45 00
1845	310,960	10 00	200,000	65 00	64,092	45 00
1846	260,701	8 00	186,630	65 00	57,936	45 00
1847	302,170	12 00	140,000	70 00	42,288	55 00
1848	356,480	8 50	240,000	45 00	47,227	55 00

For Monies, Weights, and Measures, see New York.

New Orleans Levee Dues.—The following ordinance, amendatory of existing ordinances concerning levee dues, in and for the port of New Orleans, was ordained by the general council and approved by the Mayor, May 26th, 1845:—

1. That from and after the 31st day of August next the levee or wharfage dues on ships and other decked vessels, and on steam-vessels arriving in New Orleans, shall be as follows:—

On each vessel under 75 tons	\$12
of 75 and under 100 tons	20
of 100	25
of 125	30
of 150	35
of 200	40
of 250	45
of 300	50
of 350	55
of 400	60
of 450	65
of 500	70
of 550	75
of 600	80
of 650	85
of 700	90
of 750	95
of 800	100
of 900	105
of 1,000	110
of 1,100	115
of 1,200 and upwards	120

2. That from and after the 31st day of August next, the levee dues on steam vessels navigating on the river, and which shall moor or land in any part of the incorporated limits of the port, shall be as follows:—

On each steamer under 75 tons	\$12
of 75 and under 100 tons	15
of 100	20
of 150	25
of 200	30
of 250	35
of 300	40
of 350	45
of 400	50
of 450	55
of 500	60
of 550	65
of 600	70
of 650	75
of 700 and over	80

3. That hereafter it shall not be lawful for any pilot, flatboat, bargeboat, or keelboat, to remain in port longer than five days, as fixed by the 15th article of an ordinance approved the 31st October, 1839, under a penalty of \$25; and it shall be the duty of the wharfingers of the several municipalities to cause to be removed beyond the limits of the port any pilotboat, flatboat, barge, or other craft, found, in violation of this ordinance, within the limits of their respective municipalities. The fines arising from any violation hereof shall be recoverable before any court of competent jurisdiction, of the owner, agent, or consignee of such pilotboat, flatboat, or other craft, for the benefit of the municipality within which the offence may be committed.

4. That hereafter it shall not be lawful for any flatboat, keelboat, barge, or old hull, to remain within the limits of the port longer than 24 hours after the discharge of its cargo, under a penalty of \$25, recoverable as aforesaid; and after the expiration of said 24 hours, it shall be the duty of the wharfingers of either of the municipalities to cause to be removed beyond the limits of the port, or to turn ashore, without delay, any such flatboat, keelboat, or other craft in contravention.

5. That in case any captain, owner, or person in command of any steamboat, flatboat, barge, keelboat, or other craft, shall neglect or refuse to obey the orders of the wharfingers to conform to the ordinances regulating the port, he or they shall be liable to a fine of \$25 to \$50 for each offence, recoverable as aforesaid.

6. That from and after the 31st day of August next, all ships and other decked vessels, and steam vessels, arriving from east, which shall have landed or moored in front of one municipality, and shall have paid or be liable to pay the levee dues to such municipality, and which shall afterwards remove from such municipality to one of the other municipalities, shall pay to the municipality to which they remove, the following dues:—

All vessels over 750 tons	\$5 00 per day
of 500 and less than 750	3 50
of 300	2 50
of 100	1 50
All vessels under 100	75

Such daily levee dues to be collected for every day which vessel may remain in the port of the municipality to which they may have removed, the days of removal and departure excepted.

7. That so much of all existing ordinances as is inconsistent with the provisions of this ordinance is hereby repealed.

Banks.—The banks in New Orleans differ but little from those in other parts of the Union, and are quite as little entitled to credit or confidence. The stoppage of their payments would seem to be quite an ordinary occurrence, and does not, in fact, seem to be thought of much consequence. We give the following statement as we find it in Hunt's Commercial Magazine, but without vouching for its accuracy.

Orleans. This... along the... July, August... from Europe... by supplying it... replacing them... been filled... been drained... according to the... fever may be... expectation

this great and... as decided as

Orleans during the... of Exporta-

1842.	1840-41.
56,443	27,944
3,505	11,931
9,520	8,111
10,109	9,293,087
20,307	70,976
30,307	60,613
11,791	14,074
17,435	33,083
20,312	70,104
5,122	2,587
677,343	677,343
8,967	5,163
11,929	11,149
16,731	5,081
731	4,481
4,481	168,430
269,257	269,257
1,453	1,453
281,323	281,323
436,194	436,194
1,211	450
85,222	85,222
4,480	4,480
21,245	21,245
9,972	9,972
311,710	311,710
434,467	434,467
63,281	64,269
26,401	26,400
244,442	246,874
946	763
60,200	9,744,230
1,532	150
114,000	153,000
428,000	736,000
5,071	937
65,853	55,170
3,518	3,535
3,298	1,296
65,313	73,873
134,286	3,621

September and the 1st of	Per Hb.
of Cotton at New	0 @ 104
Orleans Years.	7 1/2 10

2-43.	1841-42.
740,155	
1,585,374	

Condition of the specie-paying banks of New Orleans, on the 30th May, 1846.

Banks.	Cash Liabilities.	Assets.	Circulation.	Specie.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Bank of Louisiana	3,975,143	4,999,687	1,461,929	2,319,258
Canal bank	1,769,876	2,599,634	600,500	1,099,299
City bank	1,460,988	1,181,634	637,830	706,437
Louisiana State bank	1,481,497	2,109,797	429,149	718,312
Mechanics' and traders' bank	2,998,409	3,477,890	877,970	1,375,866
Union bank	80,890	801,179	36,880	245,194
Total	11,605,189	16,135,951	4,215,518	6,657,692

Insurance companies are quite as numerous in New Orleans as in the other cities of the Union, and are conducted in precisely the same manner.

The following table, which gives the value as well as the quantities of the principal articles shipped from New Orleans during the years ending the 1st of September 1845 and 1846, sets the increase in the trade of that emporium in the most striking point of view.

Articles.	1845.		1846.		
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	
Corn	bbls. and sacks	830,650	Dollars. 411,955	1,524,693	Dollars. 1,236,181
Rice	bbls. and tierces	81,230	890,870	25,413	1,008,299
Bagging	pieces	111,281	1,115,240	86,791	912,719
Flour	bbls.	535,512	4,154,248	837,985	3,771,932
Beef	bbls.	—	—	50,917	254,110
Hemp	bbls.	46,174	462,270	50,890	309,800
Lead	piqs	732,123	1,614,455	765,394	1,063,484
Relasse	galls.	9,000,000	1,250,000	2,000,000	17,100,000
Sugar	bbls.	200,000	9,000,000	186,650	10,265,750
Tobacco	bbls.	64,093	2,881,185	57,896	2,605,720
Fork	bbls. and bbls.	225,701	2,379,946	379,889	5,276,424
Cotton	bales	979,238	23,201,712	1,053,633	23,716,256
All other	—	—	11,550,548	—	15,469,037
Total	—	—	57,199,122	—	77,183,594

In so far as the trade to foreign countries is concerned, the great increase has been in the value of cotton, and in the shipments of grain and flour, but more especially of Indian corn. The largest supplies of that article might be obtained from New Orleans, but it is quite otherwise with wheat and flour. We have been assured by excellent authorities that in Ohio, the principal wheat growing state in the Union, the average produce of the wheat lands rarely exceeds 12 bushels an acre! It is not easy to imagine that such a return can be productive; and in years when there is no unusual demand in Europe, it is not conceivable that any large quantity of wheat should be brought hither from the valley of the Mississippi, without a very great improvement in its agriculture. This, however, if it do take place, must be the work of time; and it will not be effected until the existing facilities for the acquirement of unoccupied lands be very much diminished.

Sugar.—We subjoin a statement of the sugar produced in Louisiana during each of the 11 years ending with 1844. The statement sets the very precarious nature of this branch of industry in a striking light. An unfavourable season for planting, or the occurrence of frost a little earlier than usual, will reduce the crop a half; so that the amount of the produce can never be estimated beforehand. It partakes more of a gambling character than any other branch of industry carried on in the States.

Crop of 1844	800,000 bbls.	Crop of 1839	115,000 bbls.	Crop of 1835	30,000 bbls.
1845	100,000 —	1838	70,000 —	1834	100,000 —
1846	140,000 —	1837	65,000 —	1833	75,000 —
1841	96,000 —	1836	70,000 —	1832	70,000 —
1840	87,000 —				

TARIFF OF COMMERCIAL CHARGES AND RATES, ADOPTED BY THE NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, 2ND NOVEMBER, 1846.

Commissions on Sales.		Adjusting and collecting insurance or other claims, without litigation	
Sugar, cotton, tobacco, lead, flour, and other products of the soil	2½ per cent.	—	2½ per cent.
Domestic manufactures, and all foreign merchandises	6 —	—	5 —
Duration of sales on time	2½ —	with litigation	—
Purchase and shipment of merchandise or produce	2½ —	Purchasing and remitting drafts, or receiving and paying money on which no other commission has been charged	1 —
Bales or purchase of stocks or bullion	2½ —	If bills remitted are guaranteed, in addition	¼ —
Collecting and remitting dividends	1 —	Bills and notes remitted for collection protested and returned	1 —
Hiring vessels or steam boats	2½ —	Landing, custody, and re-shipping merchandise or produce from vessels in distress	2 —
Purchasing	5 —	— bullion or specie	1 —
Procuring freights	5 —	Adjusting and collecting general averages	5 —
Collecting freights from foreign ports	2½ —	Consignments of merchandise withdrawn or re-shipped per order, on account of advances and responsibilities — full commission.	—
Coasting	5 —	On the surplus amount of invoices of such con-	—
Outfits and disbursements	2½ —		
Effecting insurance	2½ —		

May, 1846.

Specie.
Dollars
2,519,358
1,030,690
106,423
718,518
1,576,586
843,194
6,637,692

Other cities of

of the principal
September 1845
striking point of

1846.	Value.
Dollars	
593	1,556,181
413	1,008,590
801	917,719
382	5,770,828
117	534,110
980	809,800
594	1,063,484
000	17,10,000
650	10,865,750
890	9,608,300
588	3,878,424
653	35,716,326
	15,850,087
	77,183,524

increase has been
especially of
New Orleans,
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30,000 bhd.
100,000 --
75,000 --
70,000 --

AMOUNT OF COMMERCE.

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of receiving
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1 --
addition
son protested
1 --
merchandise
2 --
verage
drawn or re-
advances and
of such com-

alignments, deducting advances and liabilities
- half commission.
Drawing, endorsing, or negotiating foreign bills
of exchange - 1 1/2 per cent.
- domestic bills of exchange - 1 --
Receiving, entering, and re-shipping merchan-
dise to a foreign port - on amount of invoice - 1 --
On amount of advances, charges, and liabilities
on sums - 2 1/2 --
For drawing, accepting, negotiating or endor-
sing notes or drafts without funds, produce, or
bills of lading in hand - 2 1/2 --
On cash advance - on all cases - 2 1/2 --
For entering and bonding merchandise for the
interior - on amount of duties, freight, and
charges, besides the regular charge for for-
warding - 2 1/2 --
Agency for steam boats - according to special
contract.
The foregoing rates are exclusive of brokerage
and charges actually incurred.

Receiving and forwarding Merchandise, exclusive of Charges
actually incurred.
Sugar, molasses, and tobacco - 1/2 hhd. 50 cents.
Cotton - 1/2 bale 50 --
Hemp - " " 10 --
Wool - " " 10 --
Provisions or bacon - 1/2 hhd. 25 per cent.
duty
Pork, beef, lard, tallow, whiskey, &c., 1/2 barrel - 5 --
Flour, grain, and other dry barrels - 5 --
Lard, tallow, and shot - 10 keg 24 --
Lead - 10 pig 1 --
Corn, wheat, beans, oats, and other grain 1/2 bag 5 --

Liquids.
Pipes and hogheads - " " 50 cents.
Half pipes and tierces - " " 25 --
Quarter casks and barrels - " " 12 1/2 --
Sundries.
Boxes, bales, cases, trunks, and other packages
dry goods - " " 10 a 50 cents.
Earthen and hardware - 1/2 package 25 --
Iron and castings - 1/2 ton \$1 00 --
Soap, candles, wine, &c. - 1/2 box 06 --
Coffee, spices, salt, &c. - 1/2 keg 09 --
Gunpowder - " " 09 --

Storage per Month.
Cotton and wool - 1/2 bale 20 cents.
Tobacco - 1/2 hhd. 50 --
Hemp - 1/2 bale, not exceeding 300 lbs. 19 --
" " 450 - 15 --
" " 600 - 25 --
" " 1000 - 5 --
Moss - 1/2 bale 5 --
Burling and rope - " " 10 --
Petrics - " " 14 --
Hides - " each - 14 --
Lead - 10 pig 100 --
Iron - " ton 100 --
Lard, beef, lard, tallow, whiskey, &c. - 1/2 bbl. 8 --
Molasses and oil - " " 10 --

Flour - " " 1/2 bbl. 5 cents.
Land - " " 1/2 keg 25 --
Sugar and molasses - 1/2 hhd. 40 --
Wheat, oats, and other grain - 1/2 bag 5 --
Coffee, spices, &c. - 1/2 hhd. 40 --
Salt - " " 5 --
Candles, soap, wine, fish, raisins, oil, sweetmeats,
sugar, &c. - 1/2 box or basket 2 --
Do. in half boxes - " " 1 --
Nails - " " 1 --
Dry goods, as in bulk - 1/2 package 10 a 50 --
Crockery - " " 1/2 cask or crate 25 --
Hardware - " " 1/2 cask 40 --
Do. - " " 1/2 cask 20 --
Liquids - " " 1/2 bbl. 10 --
Do. - " " 1/2 pipe or tierce 25 --
Do. - " " 1/2 qr. cask or bbl. 10 --
Claret - " " 1/2 cask 20 --
Guany bags - " " 1/2 bale 5 --

Weight of Grain per Bushel.
Wheat and rye - " " - 60 lbs.
Corn - " " - 56 --
Oats - " " - 32 --
The tare on lard is as follows: - 1/2 lbs., 16 per cent.;
1/2 doz., 18 per cent.; 1/2 keg, 20 per cent.

Freights.
When vessels are chartered, or goods shipped by the ton,
and no special agreement respecting the proportion of tonnage
which each particular article shall be computed at, the fol-
lowing regulation shall be the standard: -
That the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to
equal a ton of heavy materials, shall in weight be as fol-
lows: -

Coffee in casks - 1,368 lbs.; in bags 1,830 lbs.
Cocoa - " " 1,120 --
Simento - " " 800 --
Flour - " " 1600 lbs. of 196 lbs.
Dried pork, tallow, pickled fish,
and naval stores - 7 bbls.
Fig and bar iron, lead, and other
metallic ore, heavy dry-woods,
sugar, rice, honey, or other
articles - 2,240 lbs. gross.
Ship iron, in casks - 672 lbs., bags, 784 1/2 bulk,
and 986.

Wines, brandy, spirits, and
liquids generally, reckoning the
full capacity of the casks, wine
measures - 200 gallons.
Grain, peas, and beans, in casks - 1/2 bushel in bulk 56 bush.
Salt, European - " " 36 --
Do., West India - " " 31 --
Stone coal - " " 28 --
Timber, planks, furs, peltry, in
bales or boxes, cotton wool, or
other measurement goods - 40 cubic feet.
Dry hides - " " 1,120 lbs.

When molasses is shipped by the hoghead without any
special agreement, it shall be taken at 1 1/2 gallons, estimated
on the full capacity of the cask.
Freights, and commissions on them, when in sterling money,
shall be settled at \$4 64 per pound sterling; and other cur-
rency at the value fixed by Congress.

Louisiana Dry Dock, New Orleans. - This dock is capable of securing ships of 1,100 tons, and drawing 16 feet water, and all steamboats not exceeding 275 feet in length. The following are the rates of dockage charged on ships and steamboats.

Rates for docking Ships, and daily Use of Dock.				Rates for docking Steamboats, and daily Use of Dock.			
	Tons.	Rates for docking.	Rates per Day.		Tons.	Rates for docking.	Rates per Day.
Vessels under 100	100	\$75	\$14	Steamboats under 109	109	\$85	\$14
100 and under 125	125	80	16	109 and under 125	125	90	16
125	150	85	18	125	150	106	18
150	175	90	20	150	175	113	20
175	200	95	22	175	200	120	22
200	225	100	24	200	225	128	24
225	250	104	26	225	250	136	26
250	275	108	28	250	275	144	28
275	300	112	30	275	300	152	30
300	325	115	32	300	325	160	32
325	350	120	34	325	350	168	34
350	375	125	36	350	375	177	36
375	400	133	38	375	400	186	38
400	425	140	40	400	425	195	40
425	450	148	42	425	450	204	42
450	475	156	44	450	475	214	44
475	500	164	46	475	500	224	46
500	525	173	48	500	525	234	48
525	550	182	50	525	550	244	50
550	575	191	52	550	575	254	52
575	600	200	54	575	600	264	54

Every additional 25 tons will pay \$10, and \$2 per day.

We avail ourselves of this opportunity to lay before the reader the following statements with respect to Mobile, with which New Orleans is intimately connected. Mobile, at the mouth of the Alabama river in Mobile bay, had, in 1844, about 17,000 inhab. It is now become the second port in the Union for the shipping of

cotton, and it has also an extensive and rapidly increasing trade in other things, being the entrepôt for nearly the whole of the state.

The entrance to Mobile Bay is between Mobile Point on the E., and Dauphin Island on the W., about 3 1/2 m. apart, the deepest channel having 15 feet water at low ebb.; but vessels drawing more than 8 or 9 feet water cannot, owing to a shoal in the bay, reach the town except at high water. A lighthouse erected on the point, lat. 30° 16' N., long. 88° 32' W., exhibits a fixed light elevated 55 feet above the level of the sea.

Account of the Quantity of the various Articles imported from the Interior to Mobile, in the under-mentioned Years.

Articles.	Sept. 1841 to Aug. 31, 1842.	Oct. 1840 to Aug. 31, 1841.	Oct. 1839 to Sept. 30, 1840.	Oct. 1838 to Sept. 30, 1839.	Oct. 1837 to Sept. 30, 1838.
Hegging - ass. pieces	31,057	34,842	32,250	19,493	25,300
Bale rope - " cills	4,632	20,776	26,450	14,191	24,538
Bacon - " hbls.	4,982	2,592	4,557	9,533	4,803
Coffee - " bags	16,287	17,83	21,431	13,000	16,000
Cotton -					
Alabama	318,468	317,612	445,725	251,898	308,000
Florida	632	186	1,050	806	937
Texas	153	155	none	78	32
Flour -	22,571	41,685	34,725	29,110	22,500
Grain corn -	78,853	68,988	85,134	13,000	43,130
Oats -	16,323	10,221	19,211	10,179	16,200
Hay - " bales	11,246	12,928	21,446	9,000	32,518
Lard - " kegs	8,604	6,152	6,092	5,848	9,000
Lima - " bbls.	10,470	5,098	21,714	14,800	16,413
Molasses	7,728	8,398	7,075	6,738	6,669
Potatoes, Irish	21,841	51,745	17,864	10,790	20,470
Rock - " bbls.	7,398	4,293	4,228	5,563	9,103
Rice - " tierces	1,143	1,172	1,582	1,095	1,587
Sugar - " hbls.	5,016	4,590	8,273	8,363	4,612
Salt - " sacks	99,808	145,612	124,005	72,000	85,368
Whisky - " bbls.	15,731	15,640	12,609	5,000	6,330

Exports of Cotton from Mobile in 1844-45, &c.

Whither exported.	1844-45.	1843-44.	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.
Great Britain	Bales, 208,740	Bales, 201,140	Bales, 207,382	Bales, 185,114	Bales, 149,854
France	68,922	55,905	55,421	49,544	67,201
Other foreign ports	59,336	12,381	27,609	6,919	9,181
Coastwise	131,294	125,673	115,862	77,161	105,527
Totals	521,996	465,203	481,494	319,038	319,876

Monthly Arrivals and Clearances at Mobile in 1844-45.

Months.	Arrivals.				Clearances.			
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs. Total.	Ships.	Barks.	Schrs.	Total.
September	1	-	6	5	19	-	2	3
October	10	7	8	14	29	1	4	5
November	16	12	5	24	27	4	9	6
December	19	15	12	28	79	20	13	15
January	29	20	12	24	112	16	17	18
February	29	22	17	21	92	31	21	13
March	54	17	31	26	108	55	20	11
April	36	17	10	35	88	48	21	9
May	6	7	11	12	36	30	16	16
June	1	5	3	5	14	11	8	6
July	-	3	3	5	17	2	2	2
August	-	3	2	6	10	-	1	2
Totals	221	121	108	209	657	221	192	107

Notes.—A large number of small coasting vessels have sailed without clearing.

Tariff of Charges on Cotton at Mobile. — The proprietors of the several presses and warehouses at Mobile, have adopted the following uniform tariff of charges on cotton: —
 Labour on ship marked cotton - - - - - 5 cents
 Drayage, compressed ditto - - - - - 5 -
 Factor's storage on cotton, for the season - - - 30 cents
 Compressing cotton - - - - - 50 -
 Extra ropes on compressed cotton, each - - - 64 -
 Wharfage, ditto - - - - - 5 -
 Storage on cotton going coastwise, per week - - - 5 -
 Turning out and re-storing cotton - - - - - 5 -
 Arranging - - - - - 3 -

NEWSPAPERS. Publications in numbers, consisting commonly of single sheets, and published at short and stated intervals, conveying intelligence of passing events.

Importance and Value of Newspapers in a Commercial Point of View. — It is foreign to the purposes of this work to consider the moral and political effects produced by newspapers: of the extent of their influence there is no doubt, even among those who differ widely as to its effect. Their utility to commerce is, however, unquestionable. The advertisements they circulate, though these announcements are limited in Great Britain by a considerable duty, the variety of facts and information they contain as to the supply and demand of commodities in all quarters of the world, their prices, and the regulations by which they are affected, render newspapers indispensable to commercial men, supersede a great mass of epistolary correspondence, raise merchants in remote places towards an equality, in point of information, with those in the great marts, and wonderfully quicken all the movements of commerce. But Newspapers themselves have become an important commercial article. In 1842 the gross produce of the stamp duty levied on newspapers in the U. Kingdom was 252,003*l.*: the gross produce of the sale may be estimated at 4 1/2 times this sum; so that on this hypothesis the newspapers produced in that year must have cost the public about 1,134,000*l.* sterling, exclusive of the sums paid for advertisements.

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Oct. 1837 to Sept. 30, 1838.	28,300
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	4,805
	16,000
	308,000
	937
	32
	25,500
	43,150
	18,200
	22,518
	9,000
	18,413
	6,599
	20,470
	8,103
	1,657
	4,112
	85,388
	6,830

1840-41.	
Sales.	
149,854	
57,303	
9,181	
103,637	
319,878	

Prigs.	Schrs.	Total.
2	3	5
4	3	7
5	3	8
9	10	19
13	10	23
17	10	27
13	15	28
11	44	110
9	21	99
16	40	82
2	11	26
8	3	8
107	136	592

Per bale.
- 5 cents
- 5 -
- 5 -
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Newspapers, in London, are sold by the publishers to newsmen or newsvenders, by whom they are distributed to the purchasers in town and country. The newsmen, who are the retailers, receive, for their business of distribution, a regulated allowance. The papers sold to the public at 5d., which form the great mass of London newspapers, are sold to the newsmen in what are technically called quires. Each quire consists of 27 papers, and is sold to the newsmen for 8s. 9d.; so that the newsmen's gross profit on 27 papers is 2s. 6d. In some instances, where newspapers are sent by the post, 1d. additional on each paper is charged by the newsmen to their country customers. Some of the clerks of the post-office, called clerks of the roads, used to be considerable news-agents; but this, we believe, is no longer the case. Previously to 1836 the stamp duty on a newspaper was rather under 3½d. (4d. — 20 per cent.); but it was then reduced to 1d. nett. A single paper being sold to the newsmen at 4d., the sum which is received by the newspaper proprietors for paper, printing, and the expenses of their establishments, is 3d. for each copy; but this is said to be inadequate to defray the expenses; and as it is not improbable that the selling price of newspapers may be raised to 6d., we have constructed the subjoined table to show how papers are disposed of at present to the different classes of dealers, when the price is 5d., and how they would be disposed of were the price raised to 6d.

Papers at	Wholesale Newsmen, per 27 Papers.		Retail Newsmen, per 27 Papers.*		Retail Newsmen, per single Copy.	
	Cost.	Profit on Sale.	Cost.	Profit on Sale.	Cost.	Profit on Sale.
5d.	s. d. 8 9	s. d. 2 6	s. d. 9 0	s. d. 2 3	d. 4	d. 1
6d.	10 9	2 9	11 3	2 3	5	1

Advertisements form a considerable source of profit to newspapers; and without this source, some of those that are most widely circulated could not support their great expenditure. Each advertisement is charged, without distinction of length, with a duty of 1s. 6d., and in 1842 this duty produced 117,056l. nett in Great Britain, and 9,321l. in Ireland. We have no means of ascertaining exactly the portion of this sum derived from newspapers, as distinguished from other publications, but we believe we should under-estimate it by taking it at 4-5ths of the whole. The charges of newspapers for advertisements are proportioned to their length, and to the character of the newspaper itself. The sum received for them may now be taken, inclusive of the duty, at above 300,000l.

Newspaper stamps are obtained at the Stamp Office, where the paper is sent by the stationers to be stamped. The stamps are paid for before the paper is returned. The duty on advertisements, which is also under the management of the commissioners of stamps, is paid monthly; and, for securing these payments, the printer and 2 sureties become bound in moderate sums.

The London newspapers have become remarkable for the great mass and variety of matter which they contain, the rapidity with which they are printed and circulated, and the accuracy and copiousness of their reports of debates. These results are obtained by a large expenditure and considerable division of labour. The reports of parliamentary proceedings are obtained by a succession of able and intelligent reporters, who relieve each other at intervals of ¼ of an hour, or occasionally less. A newspaper cannot aim at copious and correct reports with less than 10 reporters for the House of Commons; and the expense of that particular part of a morning newspaper's establishment exceeds 3,000l. per annum.

Regulations as to Newspapers. — An important alteration was made in 1836, in the duties on, and in the regulations relating to, newspapers. The act of that year, 6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 76., has repealed the former duty on newspaper stamps, and imposed in its stead the duties specified in the following schedule: —

For every sheet or other piece of paper whereon any newspaper shall be printed	£ s. d. 0 0 1	And the following shall be deemed and taken to be newspapers chargeable with the said duties; viz: —
And where each sheet or piece of paper shall contain, on one side thereof, a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, exceeding 1,530 inches, and not exceeding 2,295 inches, the additional duty of	0 0 4	Any paper containing public news, intelligence, or occurrences printed in any part of the U. Kingdom to be dispersed and made public
And where the same shall contain on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, exceeding 2,295 inches, the additional duty of	0 0 1	Also any paper printed in any part of the U. Kingdom weekly or oftener, or at intervals not exceeding 26 days, containing only or principally advertisements
Provided always, that any sheet or piece of paper containing on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, not exceeding 753 inches, which shall be published with, and as a supplement to, any newspaper chargeable with any of the duties aforesaid, shall be chargeable only with the duty of	0 0 4	And also any paper containing any public news, intelligence, or occurrence, or any remarks or observations thereon, printed in any part of the U. Kingdom for sale, and published periodically or in parts or numbers at intervals not exceeding 26 days (between the publication of any 2 such papers, parts, or numbers, where any of the said papers, parts, or numbers respectively shall not exceed 2 sheets of the dimensions herein-after specified (exclusive of any cover or blank leaf, or any other leaf upon which any advertisement or other notice shall be printed), or shall be published for sale for a less sum than 6d., exclusive of the duty by this

* Such of the retail newsmen as have a good share of business, purchase direct from the publishers at the wholesale prices.

act imposed thereon: provided always, that no quantity of paper less than a quantity equal to 11 inches in length and 17 inches in breadth, in whatever way or form the same may be made or may be divided into leaves, or in whatever way the same may be printed, shall, with reference to any such paper, part, or number as aforesaid, be deemed or taken to be a sheet of paper:

And provided also, that any of the several papers hereinbefore described shall be liable to the duties by this act imposed thereon, in whatever way or form the same may be printed or folded, or divided into leaves or stitched, and whether the same shall be folded, divided, or stitched, or not.

Regulations, &c.—A discount of 25 per cent. is to be allowed on the above duties on newspapers printed in Ireland.—(§ 2.)

In order to prevent fraud, in the returns as to newspapers, it is enacted, that, from the 31st of December, 1836, a separate or distinctive stamp or die shall be used for each newspaper.—(§ 3.)

No person is to print or publish a newspaper until after a declaration has been made and lodged at the Stamp-Office, containing certain particulars (specified in the act), as to the names and addresses of the printer, and certain of the proprietors of such paper, &c., under a penalty of 50*l.* Persons wilfully making a false or defective declaration are, upon conviction, to be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour.—(§§ 6, 7.)

There are a number of regulations intended to provide for the discovery and liability of the printer and proprietors, the security of the duties, and the prevention of the sale of unstamped papers. A penalty of 20*l.* is imposed on any person printing, publishing, selling, &c. newspapers not duly stamped; and it is declared to be lawful for any officer of stamps, or any person authorized by the commissioners in that behalf, to seize any such offender, and take him before any justice having jurisdiction where the offence is committed, who shall summarily determine the matter, and upon conviction and default of payment, shall commit such offender to prison for some term not exceeding 3, nor less than 1 calendar month.—(§ 17.)

Penalty for sending abroad newspapers not duly stamped, 50*l.*—(§ 18.)

Justices may grant warrants to search for unstamped newspapers, and to seize presses, &c. used in printing the same; and on refusal of admittance, officers may break open doors, &c. Persons resisting officers liable to a penalty of 20*l.*—(§§ 22, 23.)

Influence of the Reduction of the Duty.—The reduction of the price of newspapers from 7*d.* to 5*d.* occasioned a considerable increase in the demand for the old or established papers; and a considerable number of new weekly papers have also started into existence since the reduction of the duty in the metropolis and throughout the country. Hitherto, however, no new daily paper has been established.

Influence of the Tax on Newspapers.—Formerly it used to be impossible, without a violation of the stamp laws, to sell newspapers under 7*d.* or 7*½d.*; so that those poorer persons who could not afford so large a sum, or who had no means of getting a newspaper in company with others, were obliged either to be without one, or to resort to those low-priced journals that were circulated in defiance of the law. This inconvenience has, however, been obviated by reducing the duty to 1*d.* Probably, however, the better plan would have been to have made the duty 1*d.* on all papers sold at or under 4*d.*, and to have made it an *ad valorem* duty of 25 per cent. on all papers published at above that rate. This would have had the same influence as the present plan on the lower priced class of papers at the same time that it would have subjected the larger and more expensive papers to a proportionally greater charge. But it may, perhaps, be doubted whether the reduction of the duty to 1*d.*, even supposing it had been confined to the cheaper class of papers, was a judicious measure, and whether it would not have been better to have fixed it at 2*d.* on all papers without exception. No doubt, it was contended, at the time that the subject was under discussion, that various advantages would result from the proposed reduction; that the clandestine circulation of cheap journals advocating dangerous doctrines would be suppressed; and that the stigma attached to low priced journals in the public estimation being removed, men of ability and attainments would find it as much for their advantage to write in them as in the higher priced journals. Probably these anticipations have been in some degree realised; but we much doubt whether the circulation of low priced political journals can ever be of advantage. Such papers are, speaking generally, addressed to the lower and poorer classes of the community; and their writers find it more for their advantage to flatter the prejudices entertained by their readers, and to espouse their peculiar views, how inconsistent soever these may be with the interests of society in general, than to inculcate sounder though less popular principles—hence the revolutionary character of the greater number of the low priced papers. This, perhaps, may be a necessary evil in a highly advanced country like this; but whether it be so or not, there can be no doubt of its existence, and of its formidable magnitude.

It has sometimes been thought singular that that division of subjects which has been introduced into most other things has not been introduced amongst newspapers. Instead of having all sorts of matter crammed into the same journal, it might be presumed that the better plan would be to have all topics of considerable interest separately treated in papers appropriated to them only, and conducted by persons fully conversant with their principles and details. Under the present omnivorous system, individuals who care nothing for the theatre are, notwithstanding, unable to procure a paper in which it does

Exemptions.—Any paper called "Police Gazette, or Hue and Cry," published in Great Britain by authority of the Secretary of State, or in Ireland by the authority of the Lord Lieutenant.

Daily accounts or bills, of goods imported and exported, or warrants or certificates for the delivery of goods, and the weekly bills of mortality; and also papers containing any list of prices current, or of the state of the markets, or any account of the arrival, sailing, or other circumstances relating to merchant ships or vessels, or any other matter wholly of a commercial nature; provided such bills, lists, or accounts do not contain any other matter than that which has been usually comprised therein.

not occupy a prominent place; and those who cannot distinguish one tune from another have daily served up to them long dissertations on concerts, operas, oratorios, and so forth. But, how desirable soever in some respects, the plan of appropriating particular papers to particular subjects does not appear to be at all suited to the public taste. In a well conducted daily paper, like *The Times*, ably written articles on all subjects of interest are brought together under the reader's notice, who may read them all, or such only as he pleases. This is incomparably more convenient than to have to hunt for different articles among a variety of journals; and is, in fact, the only plan calculated to meet the wants and exigencies of the public.

Instead of imposing an equal fixed duty or an *ad valorem* duty on newspapers, it has been proposed to repeal the duty entirely, and to substitute in its stead a post-office duty, similar to that charged in the United States. A scheme of this sort would entirely exempt all newspapers printed and sold in large towns from the duty; a result which, we confess, we do not think is in any respect desirable, but the reverse. In our view of the matter, the object ought not to be to relieve newspapers from taxation, or to create differences in their price by charging a duty only on those carried by post, but to assess the duty so that it should fall equally on them all.

Notices of Newspapers.—The history of newspapers, and of periodical literature in general, remains to be written; and were the task executed by an individual of competent ability, and with due care, it would be a most interesting and important work. It appears, from the researches of Mr. Chalmers, that the first newspaper published in modern Europe made its appearance at Venice, in 1536; but the jealousy of the government would not allow of its being printed; so that, for many years, it was circulated in manuscript! It would seem that newspapers were first issued in England by authority, in 1588, during the alarm occasioned by the approach of the *Armada* to our shores; in order, as was stated, by giving real information, to allay the general anxiety, and to hinder the dissemination of false and exaggerated statements. From this æra, newspapers, of one sort or other, have, with a few intermissions, generally appeared in London; sometimes at regular, and sometimes at irregular intervals. During the civil wars, both parties had their newspapers. The earliest newspaper published in Scotland made its appearance under the auspices of Cromwell, in 1652. The Caledonian Mercury was, however, the first of the Scotch newspapers of native manufacture; it made its appearance at Edinburgh, under the title of *Mercurius Caledonius*, in 1660; but its publication was soon afterwards interrupted. In 1715, a newspaper was, for the first time, daily published in Glasgow.

The *Daily Courant*, the first of the daily newspapers published in Great Britain, made its appearance in London in the early part of the reign of Queen Anne.—(See the *Life of Raddiman*, pp. 102—121.)

From the Stamp Office accounts, it appears that the number of newspapers sold annually in England, during the 3 years ending with 1753, was 7,411,757; in 1760, 9,464,790; in 1790, 14,035,539; in 1792, 15,005,760.

Account of the Aggregate Number of Stamps issued for Newspapers in each of the undermentioned Years; distinguishing the Numbers in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Years.	England.	Scotland.	Great Britain.	Years.	England.	Scotland.	Great Britain.	Ireland.*
1801	15,090,505	891,480	16,085,085	1817	20,946,452	850,816	21,797,063	2,480,401
1802	14,265,249	967,750	15,232,039	1818	21,015,429	1,018,900	22,061,729	2,653,212
1803	15,888,921	1,060,210	16,949,131	1819	21,904,834	1,143,615	23,048,449	2,782,903
1804	16,941,758	1,156,235	18,078,293	1820	23,177,127	1,236,560	25,413,687	2,974,156
1805	17,010,069	1,172,200	18,789,269	1821	23,699,752	1,162,154	21,862,185	2,951,037
1806	19,218,381	1,515,709	20,539,793	1822	22,709,152	1,225,246	23,934,403	3,089,472
1807	20,097,602	1,537,269	21,771,861	1823	23,422,222	1,227,739	24,670,465	3,339,102
1808	20,714,566	1,545,925	22,048,491	1824	24,556,860	1,017,019	25,573,909	3,564,999
1809	22,536,331	1,470,232	21,066,885	1825	25,185,503	1,485,191	26,590,094	3,500,482
1810	22,639,786	1,459,775	22,979,561	1826	25,661,003	1,495,519	26,980,452	3,473,014
1811	22,977,963	1,145,750	21,441,713	1827	25,865,499	1,795,771	27,659,471	3,642,816
1812	23,715,000	1,073,690	22,529,690	1828	26,639,568	2,162,643	28,735,299	3,790,279
1813	24,859,537	1,045,221	25,594,118	1829	26,537,000	2,691,226	29,036,334	3,865,550
1814	24,051,910	1,376,093	26,368,003	1830	27,370,092	3,135,988	30,504,080	4,033,514
1815	25,075,485	1,369,225	27,387,508	1831	26,170,093	3,280,072	33,480,165	4,291,430
1816	24,053,227	996,727	22,050,354	1832	26,427,080	3,263,631	32,694,131	4,218,090
				1833	27,690,229	3,033,222	30,724,221	3,791,000
				1834	27,539,170	3,172,310	30,694,180	4,081,432
				1835	26,008,360	3,043,454	29,653,023	4,291,026
				1836	31,740,499	3,296,163	33,136,702	4,286,438
				1837	41,114,516	4,291,399	46,635,712	5,225,211
				1838	41,283,676	4,081,073	45,268,548	5,122,232
				1839	47,787,804	5,410,417	53,198,221	5,782,267
				1840	48,896,570	5,665,343	54,566,513	6,037,728
				1841	48,640,070	6,142,829	54,789,259	6,990,083

* Until 1817 no distinct account was kept of the stamps issued for newspapers in Ireland.

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An Account of the Gross Produce of the Duties on Newspapers and Advertisements during each of the undermentioned Years, in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Years ending 5th of Jan.	Newspapers.									Advertisements.								
	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.			England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1811	398,413	10	11	21,988	7	6				115,346	19	1	15,041	9	0	14,743	11	7
1812	355,095	6	0	21,054	11	8				114,195	11	8	14,797	9	0	20,479	8	5
1813	315,306	1	6	24,944	6	6				117,875	18	6	14,446	8	0	20,915	8	0
1814	268,911	4	4	31,991	19	7				114,111	19	10	14,623	7	0	21,253	3	11
1815	363,500	0	0	30,158	0	0				106,875	9	8	15,610	3	0	19,759	17	6
1816	323,414	8	0	30,281	10	10				110,592	4	8	14,017	7	0	20,476	16	14
1817	350,833	16	6	18,612	8	4				118,302	5	4	15,323	6	6	18,496	7	5
1818	348,101	0	0	17,180	0	0				116,592	4	11	16,068	13	0	18,131	17	6
1819	320,427	8	0	17,481	13	4				119,788	16	8	17,840	8	0	18,533	12	6
1820	365,090	11	4	19,060	5	0				122,227	9	8	16,911	9	6	16,781	1	84
1821	419,618	15	6	30,629	6	6				123,772	15	6	16,160	15	0	15,491	0	0
1822	394,993	17	4	19,273	18	0				125,518	9	7	18,965	17	6	15,192	5	0
1823	378,485	19	8	30,287	8	0				131,298	18	0	17,020	16	6	15,708	7	34
1824	390,375	8	9	30,735	13	0				133,475	8	7	16,020	11	0	14,594	3	64
1825	409,481	0	0	32,387	9	4				136,833	19	5	17,893	17	0	16,499	10	9
1826	426,154	10	0	34,419	13	0				144,751	6	5	18,708	18	0	15,907	16	0
1827	421,061	15	2	32,017	6	4				147,187	11	9	17,779	18	0	15,730	0	0
1828	428,639	9	8	39,299	10	4				153,978	16	11	18,400	14	6	14,379	17	6
1829	439,796	4	0	35,656	6	0				156,568	17	10	18,959	18	5	15,359	16	0
1830	438,667	10	8	42,301	6	0				156,058	18	10	17,692	18	0	14,985	0	0
1831	455,978	10	6	49,466	10	0				159,596	18	3	19,566	8	0	16,337	14	0
1832	498,697	19	4	49,660	15	0				187,898	12	3	18,060	0	0	15,674	10	3
1833	490,451	6	8	61,465	14	6				187,122	11	0	18,879	6	0	15,446	17	4
1834	481,457	3	0	48,100	14	0				114,506	2	8	16,191	4	4	12,840	7	4
1835	436,933	18	4	49,339	9	4				123,360	8	0	10,114	16	0	8,150	14	8
1836	473,910	12	6	47,999	4	0				127,855	9	9	10,547	17	0	6,468	18	2
1837	503,413	14	4	57,452	6	0				127,945	8	11	10,565	6	0	8,339	9	0
1838	483,898	3	0	18,271	13	3				114,538	11	6	11,438	10	0	9,741	18	4
1839	184,077	1	8	20,539	17	9				98,668	11	5	13,320	16	8	8,910	18	0
1840	194,458	9	8	22,400	16	0				100,556	12	8	15,917	18	0	9,741	18	4
1841	200,757	1	8	22,965	18	7				105,901	11	1	14,516	8	0	10,167	10	4
1842	202,755	8	6	24,430	2	0				107,327	5	1	14,817	4	0	9,589	16	0
1843	211,798	15	11	26,027	15	9				105,360	7	2	15,671	16	0	9,260	14	0

A Return of the Number of Stamps issued to each Newspaper in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, during each of the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1843; specifying also the Amount of Advertisement Duty paid by each Paper in each of the above Three Years.

LONDON PAPERS.	ENGLAND.					
	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1810.	1841.	1842.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Age	96,000	74,000	64,500	210 7 6	168 10 0	160 19 0
Atlas	165,000	96,500	125,000	215 12 6	900 2 0	259 13 0
British Chronicle	1,500	6,000	3,000	333 13 6	547 18 6	584 13 6
British Literary Advertiser	18,500	18,500	18,500	258 4 6	918 2 0	132 19 6
Bells' Life in London	1,000	1,500	750			
Bells' New Weekly Messenger	1,075,500	1,029,000	1,024,000	367 19 0	525 10 0	367 9 6
Bells' Weekly Messenger	142,500	123,500	117,750	104 5 0	82 2 6	69 19 6
British Queen	906,000	883,000	847,000	330 12 0	896 11 0	304 19 0
Britannia	10,000	11,000	10,000			
Britannia	161,000	199,500	289,000	237 8 0	136 13 0	207 0 0
Britannia	6,000	9,000	23,000	137 2 0	135 4 6	189 3 0
Carrier	24,500	809,000	99,500	652 7 0	448 1 0	239 0 0
County Herald	37,000	44,000	40,000	92 7 6	91 2 6	35 37 6
County Chronicle	80,500	79,000	79,500	183 18 0	197 8 0	162 12 0
Court Journal	74,000	76,000	58,500			
Circular to Bankers	9,500	5,500	27,500	309 1 6	274 2 6	300 0 0
Commercial Daily List	31,000	28,500	27,500			
Court Gazette	3,000	1,536	1,460	11 19 8	97 13 0	107 15 6
Colonial Gazette	14,500	13,000	47,000	182 9 6	365 0 6	996 9 6
Conservative Journal	1,000	1,728				
City Chronicle	40,500	29,000	71,750	193 11 6	194 17 0	108 16 6
Christian Spectator	70,000	51,000	61,500	29 1 6	60 14 9	106 5 6
Evening Chronicle	1,900	1,728				
Evening Mail	219,500	204,000	154,000	52 18 6	23 5 6	18 9 0
English Chronicle	380,000	445,000	475,000	60 4 0	46 7 0	38 19 0
Examiner	199,500	118,775	192,500	11 17 0	22 15 0	97 2 6
Ecclesiastical Gazette	711,000	319,500	315,500	289 11 6	279 16 6	257 11 6
Era	139,500	145,975	159,050	192 6 6	149 6 6	165 3 6
Globe	176,500	845,000	210,000	223 8 6	200 15 6	219 0 0
Gardener's Gazette	5,000	1,069,000	1,010,050	1,147 17 6	1,108 19 0	1,013 5 0
Gardener's Chronicle	181,000	112,650	75,000	90 18 0	137 12 6	114 13 6
Illustrated London News	20,000	188,342	308,000		133 18 0	158 9 6
Justice of the Peace and Parish Law Recorder	108,400	122,5 0	115,850			
John Bull	219,000	204,000	185,000	455 18 0	429 12 0	422 6 6
Justice of the Peace and Parish Law Recorder	27,500	85,215	85,794	20 17 0	25 15 0	29 16 0
London Journal of Commerce	13,500	16,152	18,500			
London Mercantile Journal	11,550	25,800	27,775	18 18 0	22 15 0	31 19 0
Literary Gazette	27,500	27,000	28,500	262 4 0	260 19 0	265 3 0

bring each of the

Ireland.	
£	s. d.
16,733	11 7
20,479	5 3
20,915	5 10
21,833	3 11 1/2
19,759	17 6
20,476	16 1 1/2
19,498	12 6
18,191	18 7
15,102	5 0 1/2
16,731	1 6 1/2
15,491	0 0
15,708	0 0
15,708	3 3 1/2
14,524	3 8 1/2
16,536	10 8
15,907	18 0
15,708	0 0
14,779	17 6
15,529	16 0
14,568	4 0
16,327	14 0
15,672	10 2
15,618	17 4
18,240	3 4
17,130	12 2
8,433	6 0
8,439	12 0
9,910	12 0
9,741	12 4
10,167	10 3
9,839	15 10
9,320	14 0

Scotland, and free

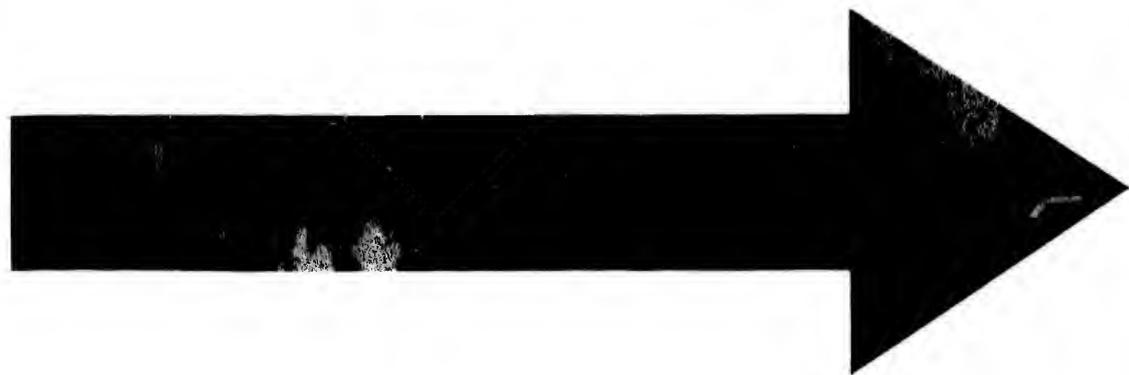
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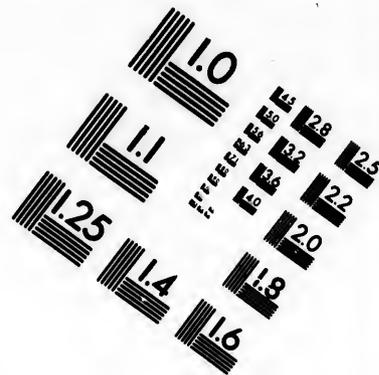
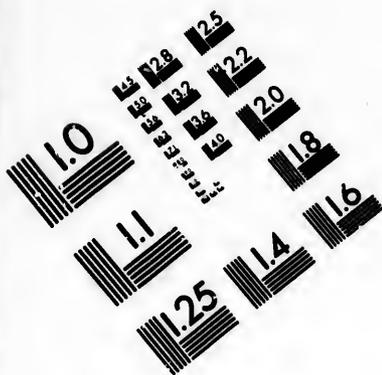
ment Duty.

11.	1812.
£	s. d.
10	10 10
2	259 13 0
7	381 13 6
0	132 18 6
5	367 2 6
2	69 10 0
6	304 19 0
6	207 0 0
15	189 3 0
18	239 6 0
31	26 17 0
37	162 12 0
74	500 0 0
97	107 15 6
103	296 9 6
60	45 12 0
94	108 16 6
102	106 5 6
23	18 9 0
48	28 14 6
22	97 2 6
77	257 11 6
149	163 3 6
300	15 0 0
108	1,015 5 0
137	114 13 6
133	188 9 6
42	53 8 0
420	422 6 6
42	29 16 0
12	9 15 6
29	31 19 0
261	263 8 0
31	117 14 6
142	191 11 0

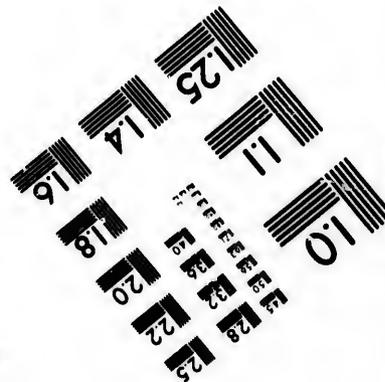
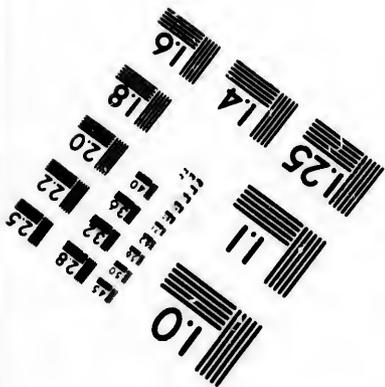
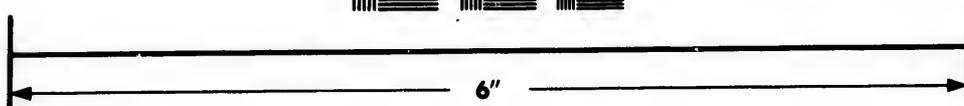
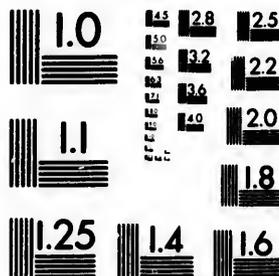
London Papers.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1840.	1811.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
La Courrier de l'Europe	53,250	89,500	94,750	14 13 6	69 14 0	90 18 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	-	-	1,000	-	-	-
London Gazette	165,000	200,000	235,000	-	-	-
London Price Current	8,500	6,000	6,500	-	4 10 0	19 8 6
London Mail	22,350	40,000	38,000	5 14 0	3 0 0	1 14 6
Lamley's Advertiser	30,000	22,825	19,000	-	-	-
Morning Chronicle	2,075,500	2,079,000	1,919,500	4,607 3 0	4,074 9 0	4,313 12 6
Morning Post	1,125,000	1,165,210	1,135,000	3,407 14 0	5,078 11 0	5,628 10 0
Morning Herald	1,950,000	1,950,000	1,950,000	4,415 3 0	4,611 6 0	3,960 12 0
Morning Advertiser	1,520,000	1,470,000	1,445,000	3,923 4 0	3,716 15 6	3,068 8 0
Mining Journal	75,000	74,400	73,500	-	-	-
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,500	4,650	1,300	118 7 0	99 1 6	120 18 0
Mark Lane Express	238,000	231,000	214,500	221 14 0	214 10 0	201 3 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	8,000	8,500	8,000	-	-	-
Medion Times	14,298	18,224	22,535	6 4 6	-	50 5 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	-	-	800	-	-	-
Magnet	207,550	213,750	210,200	49 1 0	43 5 6	23 15 0
New Zealand Journal	18,000	20,450	22,100	28 2 0	22 7 0	29 17 0
Naval and Military Gazette	10,265	19,800	16,900	-	-	-
National Advertiser	4,000	28,000	169,000	-	60 10 6	173 11 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	-	-	2,000	-	-	-
Nicholson's Price Current	14,500	14,000	12,500	-	-	-
Observer	216,000	182,500	210,000	346 16 0	313 11 6	281 0 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	191,000	111,100	117,000	81 8 6	166 11 6	16 4 0
Old England	10,000	3,000	-	-	-	-
Parrot	202,500	201,000	212,500	360 18 0	347 17 0	860 19 0
Prince's Price Current	15,000	10,000	11,000	0 3 7 1/2	-	-
Public Ledger	140,000	140,000	130,000	1,112 17 0	1,115 5 0	1,074 13 6
Publishers' Circular	66,200	60,900	57,500	144 19 0	126 7 6	152 9 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	9,750	9,200	8,200	-	-	-
Pineax	110,000	102,250	89,500	83 10 0	87 8 0	87 4 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	29,700	31,800	106 8 6	109 14 6	115 0 0
Pawnbroker's Gazette	27,200	29,225	30,075	66 13 6	71 11 0	68 3 0
Racing Calendar	36,425	39,225	38,075	6 9 0	6 8 0	6 8 0
Record	323,500	333,000	312,000	576 3 0	588 4 6	580 0 0
Railway Times	13,275	13,075	135,000	133 19 0	158 5 0	141 19 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	2,000	15,624	6,550	108 3 0	180 15 0	141 6 0
Railway Magazine	72,000	70,000	70,750	605 6 6	605 4 0	609 12 6
Sunday Times	1,040,000	1,100,000	1,060,000	762 0 0	9,081 8 6	975 16 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	156,000	45,000	135,000	1,158 7 0	1,148 8 0	1,074 9 0
Shipping Gazette	582,000	408,000	385,500	543 11 6	520 12 6	2 18 6
Standard	1,040,000	1,025,000	1,000,000	1,816 18 0	1,809 15 0	960 19 0
St. James's Chronicle	694,000	676,000	621,000	251 9 0	229 11 0	235 15 0
Sun	1,281,000	1,175,000	1,175,000	241 6 0	163 7 6	189 0 0
Spectator	184,000	185,000	188,000	1,807 0 0	1,481 5 0	1,823 1 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	12,000	102,000	151,000	-	-	-
Strait	194,000	102,000	790,000	35 18 0	85 11 0	82 13 0
Times	5,060,000	5,050,000	6,305,000	13,887 0 0	14,801 5 0	15,823 1 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	67,000	99,700	41,000	-	-	-
Tribune	4,000	2,000	1,500	250 7 0	294 13 6	191 18 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	86,500	85,800	85,700	-	-	-
United Service Gazette	6,000	-	-	629 8 0	505 15 0	733 7 0
Weekly Chronicle	1,124,152	1,007,500	975,000	196 9 0	196 0 0	216 7 6
Weekly Dispatch	5,273,000	2,975,000	3,275,000	-	-	-
Watchman	80,000	207,000	209,000	80 16 6	98 0 6	91 8 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	49,000	43,500	27,500	34 10 0	21 0 0	13 12 0
Anti-Bread Tax Circular	172,600	118,700	82,550	210 15 0	199 19 0	192 17 0
Bath Herald	44,000	40,000	48,000	284 3 0	283 10 0	280 17 0
Bath Chronicle	71,950	70,000	70,000	1,000	-	-
Ditto, at one halfpenny	3,000	67,000	61,000	210 18 0	204 19 0	211 13 0
Bath Journal	61,000	57,000	51,000	225 4 0	225 4 0	211 19 0
Bath and Cheltenham Gazette	55,500	50,000	40,000	111 13 6	111 0 0	106 14 6
Berkwick Advertiser	38,000	35,000	30,500	135 3 0	149 8 0	164 8 0
Berkwick Warder	20,000	20,000	21,000	271 19 0	275 3 0	225 8 0
Brighton Gazette	57,800	60,500	61,000	321 12 6	306 3 0	294 8 0
Brighton Guardian	60,000	60,000	61,000	205 9 0	198 7 0	203 16 0
Brighton Herald	66,000	53,000	53,000	80 18 0	487 13 0	471 6 0
Bristol Mirror	111,000	106,000	132,500	-	-	-
Ditto	-	-	6,000	-	-	-
Bristol Mercury	168,000	197,000	209,000	452 9 0	504 3 0	531 7 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	49,000	40,500	5,000	213 0 0	195 10 6	61 17 6
Bristol Standard	49,000	45,000	35,000	183 12 0	193 10 0	204 6 0
Bristol Times	30,000	23,000	20,000	226 5 6	224 0 0	230 11 0
Bristol Gazette	89,000	84,500	94,750	361 8 0	326 16 0	275 14 0
Bucks Gazette	48,112	29,000	26,500	106 9 0	95 12 0	77 8 6
Bucks Herald	8,000	8,000	8,000	76 9 0	87 15 0	19 1 0
Bucks Herald (2)	30,000	40,238	35,500	100 19 0	92 10 0	72 7 6
Birmingham Gazette (Aris)	151,600	148,500	144,000	324 14 0	316 8 0	312 4 0
Birmingham Journal	108,500	106,000	94,000	228 7 0	226 12 6	232 14 0
Birmingham Advertiser	80,000	55,000	65,000	68 18 6	74 3 0	65 17 0
Boston Herald	15,000	9,000	12,000	100 8 6	101 0 0	94 8 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	41,000	42,000	42,000	215 8 0	218 3 6	198 6 0
Berkshire Chronicle	25,000	26,215	27,000	87 18 0	79 9 0	83 11 0
Berkford Mercury	16,000	16,000	16,000	69 7 6	36 2 0	49 8 6
Blackburn Gazette	10,500	10,250	28,100	79 5 6	73 11 0	77 3 6
Blackburn Standard	27,410	20,750	25,190	178 7 6	175 14 6	140 2 0
Bolton Free Press	35,000	35,000	37,500	150 3 0	159 10 0	140 3 0
Bolton Chronicle	42,500	60,000	25,400	261 1 6	293 10 0	226 10 0
Boswell Current	62,000	60,000	96,000	330 13 0	332 8 0	297 18 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	400	1,000	400	-	-	-
Chesham Chronicle	107 0 0	112,300	106,000	253 8 0	291 12 6	294 19 0
Coventry Standard	25,000	37,000	39,150	166 0 0	139 11 0	134 9 6
Coventry Herald	25,500	58,500	54,000	156 6 0	156 6 0	156 6 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	4,000	-	-	-	-
Ditto, at one halfpenny	15,000	14,000	21,000	50 10 6	42 0 0	41 9 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	30,000	30,000	30,000	153 7 6	148 5 6	144 18 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	24,000	21,000	22,000	42 4 6	51 10 6	62 6 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	30,000	30,000	30,000	89 12 6	68 14 0	70 11 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	50,000	51,000	61,000	133 17 6	138 8 0	132 16 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,500	-	50,375	258 7 6	214 17 6	234 14 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	86,100	89,000	4,700	368 11 0	355 1 0	365 15 0

PROVINCIAL PAPERS.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Cambridge Advertiser	84,500	87,000	87,000	150 10 6	150 10 6	157 14 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	5,000	5,000	5,000			
Cambridge Independent Press	131,198	116,000	116,000	267 5 0	370 5 0	371 15 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	5,000	5,500	5,500			
Cumberland Packet	60,000	40,000	37,000	85 12 0	191 9 6	179 11 0
Carlisle Journal	106,565	113,000	112,000	386 4 0	273 6 0	255 19 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	45,000	30,000	41,000	285 9 0	208 0 0	186 18 0
Darham Chronicle	48,000	69,757	66,175	163 11 0	300 12 0	163 19 0
Durham Advertiser	40,000	40,000	40,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	2,000	1,750	1,750	187 11 6	161 6 0	180 13 0
Devonport Telegraph	36,000	46,300	30,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	1,000	1,000	187 11 6	157 1 0	155 0 0
Devonport Independent	41,550	41,430	49,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	7,000	200	146 11 0	143 1 0	136 19 0
Devonshire Chronicle	21,400	25,500	25,000	58 8 6	86 19 0	64 4 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	74,800	86,000	72,000	276 18 0	394 9 0	368 17 0
Derby Mercury	71,000	1,500	80,000	309 5 0	305 5 0	308 13 0
Derby Reporter	60,000	60,000	60,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,500	1,500	3,000	185 11 0	161 6 0	184 19 0
Derbyshire Courier	43,000	25,000	40,000	108 1 6	191 2 0	68 7 0
Derbyshire Chronicle	33,000	27,000	25,500			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,700	1,700	1,700	41 15 0	91 14 0	84 16 0
Dover Telegraph	29,000	29,500	28,500	104 10 0	98 11 0	68 18 0
Dover Chronicle	24,000	23,000	27,500	41 0 0	79 15 6	80 11 0
Doncaster Gazette	119,000	117,050	115,000	399 5 0	230 6 0	249 13 0
Doncaster Chronicle	39,000	51,000	65,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	2,000	2,000	2,000	150 4 6	139 5 6	153 6 0
Devizes and Wiltshire Gazette	48,000	60,000	60,000	174 19 0	183 12 0	183 16 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	63,100	79,150	74,800			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,300	1,600	1,600	221 9 0	236 5 0	257 7 6
Essex Herald	61,000	58,000	64,000	107 0 0	184 2 0	119 9 6
Essex, Herts, and Kent Mercury	66,800	43,265	59,000	96 10 6	105 19 0	101 12 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	3,200	91,000	89,000	274 15 6	278 5 0	253 17 0
Essex Flying Post	75,000	191,500	192,500	203 16 0	308 2 6	365 14 0
Essex and Plymouth Gazette	111,500	156,000	153,000	486 18 0	439 10 0	448 0 0
Eastern Counties Herald	185,200	156,000	153,000	69 6 0	33 13 0	108 1 6
Falmouth Packet	24,000	30,000	30,000			
Felix Farley's Bristol Journal	64,000	72,000	75,500			
Great Northern Advertiser	233,000	291,175	291,175			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	108,000	118,000	118,000	385 6 0	481 7 0	372 13 0
Gloucestershire Chronicle	69,000	67,000	67,000	291 3 0	273 16 6	267 7 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	108,000	109,000	101,000	486 18 0	324 13 6	298 10 0
General Commercial Intelligence	3,000	25,200	29,500			
Hertford Journal	66,550	89,175	81,000	974 3 0	373 15 0	270 15 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	111,748	120,650	120,650			
Hertford Times	101,000	6,000	6,000	257 3 0	314 19 6	306 8 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	4,800	6,000	6,000			
Hampshire Chronicle	26,000	69,500	76,883	196 5 6	318 7 0	212 17 0
Hampshire Telegraph	169,740	203,500	156,000	373 12 0	574 2 0	401 4 0
Hampshire Advertiser	104,145	100,500	104,000	405 6 0	399 4 6	399 6 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	75,000	75,500	54,250			
Hampshire Independent	70,000	75,500	75,500	307 16 6	222 18 0	267 16 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	3,100	4,500	4,500			
Hertford County Press	31,200	42,925	30,100	113 11 0	121 17 6	117 0 0
Hampshire & West Sussex Standard	2,000	13,500	28,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	3,000	3,000		7 16 0	91 14 6
Hull Guardian	53,000	41,000	66,000	153 19 6	167 14 0	182 6 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	1,000	1,000	1,000	143 3 6	130 14 6	128 14 0
Hull Advertiser	46,500	41,000	35,500	407 15 0	311 8 0	261 9 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	22,850	95,000	95,000			
Hull Packet	37,500	47,000	51,500	167 17 0	165 10 6	169 5 6
Hull Rockingham	35,000	38,000	25,000	110 11 0	97 11 0	96 3 6
Hull Times	40,000	56,300	5,000	144 3 0	152 8 6	50 7 6
Harrogate Advertiser	9,000	9,500	11,000	41 18 6	44 17 0	50 2 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	115,000	104,000	112,000	373 4 0	370 2 6	360 9 6
Howich Journal	39,000	47,000	54,000	67 19 0	128 18 6	133 6 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	600	86,000	58,000			
Kentish Gazette	54,000	50,000	58,000	174 7 6	160 37 6	141 13 0
Kentish Observer	30,000	50,000	109 8 6	110 19 6	112 7 0	112 7 0
Kentish Mercury	46,950	37,500	18,100	114 13 0	125 19 6	41 11 0
Kent Herald	65,000	51,000	56,800	160 11 6	176 14 0	183 0 0
Kendal Mercury	35,250	41,500	42,700	87 1 6	74 15 6	71 18 6
Kentish Standard	38,000	30,500	4,900	115 5 0	94 15 0	5 17 0
Lancaster Gazette	34,000	35,000	35,000	191 14 6	88 14 6	75 16 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	29,000	37,000	26,150			
Leamington Chronicle	29,000	18,000	14,575	121 13 0	123 12 0	102 3 0
Leamington Spa Courier	52,000	52,000	48,000	180 19 6	180 3 6	174 6 0
Leeds Intelligence	212,500	167,000	188,500	568 5 0	790 1 0	567 7 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	5,000	5,000	6,000			
Leeds Mercury	495,500	517,000	515,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	60,878	48,000	48,000	1,042 4 0	1,338 10 6	947 15 6
Leeds Times	169,500	182,000	165,000	157 4 0	261 18 0	177 12 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	13,538	11,000	11,000			
Leeds Conservative Journal	79,500	76,250	84,000	349 4 0	335 6 0	285 3 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	4,000	47,600	38,000	156 6 0	118 15 6	97 8 6
Leicestershire Mercury	15,500	15,000	9,600	70 7 0	73 19 0	35 0 6
Leicester Herald	33,500	37,500	36,000	194 12 6	179 8 0	154 6 6
Leicester Chronicle	2,000	10,250	10,000	33 4 6	33 11 6	37 2 6
Leicester Advertiser	81,000	84,000	84,250	358 16 0	355 10 0	332 6 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	162,500	167,500	163,500	846 19 0	675 19 0	675 9 0
Liverpool Albion	24,500	4,000	4,000			
Ditto, at one halfpenny	6,000	104,000	104,000	518 8 0	534 6 0	471 12 0
Liverpool Journal	89,100	10,000	73,000	214 17 6	266 12 6	259 18 6
Liverpool Chronicle	17,000	14,000	20,000	519 12 0	615 12 0	523 19 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	17,000	169,000	151,500	618 2 0	615 12 0	523 19 0
Liverpool Mail	17,000	169,000	151,500	618 2 0	615 12 0	523 19 0
Ditto, at one halfpenny	17,000	169,000	151,500	618 2 0	615 12 0	523 19 0
Liverpool Mercantile Gazette	401,000	565,000	567,000	1,205 5 0	1,200 3 0	1,136 16 6
Ditto, at one halfpenny	50,000	39,000	35,511			





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

1.8
2.0
2.2
2.5
2.8
3.2
3.6
4.0

10
11
12
13
14
15

PROVINCIAL PAPERS.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Windsor and Eton Express	40,000	41,000	42,000	125 17 0	110 9 6	115 16 0
Windsor and Eton Journal	15,000	-	-	-	-	-
Worcester Herald	105,500	96,750	116,000	274 5 6	267 19 6	275 11 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	4,750	-	-	-
Worcester Journal (Harrow's)	85,175	111,000	105,000	278 0 6	258 10 6	282 13 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	550	2,000	2,000	-	-	-
Wiltshire Independent	36,300	37,500	37,500	123 10 6	126 18 0	120 19 0
Wills and Hincote's Standard	25,550	26,500	26,500	58 17 0	130 9 6	115 16 0
West of England Conservative	81,500	42,000	31,000	177 19 6	173 14 0	150 19 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	1,500	-	-	-	-
Wigan Gazette	23,500	22,000	2,500	65 19 0	82 18 6	26 6 6
Westmorland Gazette	37,500	33,000	23,000	76 19 0	68 15 6	84 9 0
Worcestershire Guardian	45,000	37,000	40,000	155 11 0	144 4 0	127 10 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	5,000	-	-	-
Worcestershire Chronicle	75,450	83,150	100,000	141 19 0	195 7 6	180 10 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	4,000	4,500	-	-	-	-
Walsfield Journal	-	1,000	87,000	123 0 0	124 5 6	117 6 0
Western Star	7,500	-	-	2 12 6	-	-
Wesleyan Advertiser	4,100	-	-	-	-	-
Yorkshire Gazette	144,000	112,950	147,350	303 7 6	292 14 6	281 0 6
Yorkshire Racing Calendar	4,900	4,950	5,600	7 4 0	8 5 0	11 9 6
York Contract	154,500	116,000	90,000	155 6 6	144 7 6	121 10 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	6,000	-	-	-	-
York Herald	171,500	162,800	106,000	441 10 6	397 16 0	254 7 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	7,000	-	-	-	-
Yorkshireman	122,300	120,000	125,000	216 10 6	213 4 6	195 0 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	9,282	-	-	-	-

WALES.

WALSH PAPERS.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Carmarthen Journal	48,100	48,000	44,000	164 9 6	161 12 6	164 15 0
Cambran	91,000	90,000	64,000	256 7 0	246 3 0	215 5 0
Carnarvon and Tenbigh Herald	37,650	39,450	41,000	95 16 6	102 13 6	86 5 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	1,000	5,000	5,000	-	-	-
Monmouthshire Merlin	74,000	74,000	60,500	228 19 6	211 5 6	176 7 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	3,000	4,800	-	-	-
Monmouthshire Beacon	23,000	27,000	27,000	101 14 0	103 4 0	91 11 6
Merthyr Guardian	44,500	50,800	28,000	128 9 6	105 16 6	92 0 6
North Wales Chronicle	24,800	24,000	27,000	98 9 6	117 11 0	95 0 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	20,000	27,000	29,000	67 19 0	63 18 0	52 19 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	32,800	18,600	10,500	7 11 6	8 9 0	2 3 6
Yalestyn	35,200	42,950	45,000	136 16 0	129 1 6	113 15 6
Ylloger Cymru	-	-	10,600	-	-	-

SCOTLAND.

SCOTCH PAPERS.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Aberdeen Journal	135,000	133,800	130,000	406 2 6	394 8 6	385 5 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	4,200	-	-	-	-	-
Aberdeen Herald	120,000	119,000	102,000	361 8 6	364 8 6	295 5 6
Aberdeen Constitutional	44,500	36,500	34,000	207 4 6	172 6 6	151 17 6
Aberdeen Thamer	41,900	71,700	42,000	65 9 6	115 17 6	98 9 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	2,000	2,000	-	-	-	-
Arbroath Journal	15,000	14,750	4,000	93 6 0	55 4 0	31 17 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	16,280	-	-	42 9 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	1,000	-	-	-
Ayr Advertiser	72,000	70,200	69,400	146 2 0	156 1 6	150 0 0
Ayr Observer	41,000	46,500	38,960	125 6 6	129 10 6	123 13 6
Dumfries Times	61,000	52,000	47,500	142 2 6	116 8 0	95 16 6
Dumfries Courier	90,000	103,000	103,000	266 3 6	257 3 0	246 16 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dumfries Herald	42,000	42,500	42,500	126 3 0	141 19 6	129 10 0
Dumfries Railway Register	30,000	22,200	24,228	66 6 0	61 17 6	59 9 6
Dundee Advertiser	67,725	78,500	72,600	303 15 0	296 8 6	257 11 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	5,000	5,300	3,000	-	-	-
Dundee Chronicle	54,195	45,000	25,000	117 19 6	89 3 6	35 3 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	700	-	-	-	-	-
Dundee Courier	16,775	26,500	24,000	138 1 6	151 10 0	118 11 6
Dundee Wavler	-	51,200	40,000	-	110 3 6	111 19 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	1,000	-	-	-
Dundee Herald	-	-	11,475	-	-	3 0 0
Edinburgh Courant	274,150	280,100	280,500	809 15 6	748 14 6	795 4 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	5,000	2,000	3,100	-	-	-
Edinburgh Mercury	120,000	126,000	135,000	296 14 0	261 16 6	258 12 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	4,000	2,000	1,000	-	-	-
Edinburgh Advertiser	142,000	143,000	147,000	295 1 0	255 10 0	250 10 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	2,000	3,700	2,000	-	-	-
Edinburgh Gazette	11,000	12,000	10,000	59 11 0	62 8 0	62 2 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	-	4,000	-	-	-
Edinburgh Journal	68,500	67,500	65,000	167 5 0	124 13 6	123 10 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	3,000	-	-	-	-
Edinburgh Chronicle	87,000	32,000	46,500	120 3 0	77 6 6	71 11 0
Edinburgh Scotsman	256,502	208,000	231,500	490 1 0	426 15 0	612 11 0
Edinburgh Observer	65,000	60,000	60,000	186 10 6	156 3 0	153 3 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	3,000	-	-	-	-
Edinburgh North British Advertiser	481,500	491,000	215,000	1,707 16 6	1,815 0 0	1,234 1 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	27,500	47,500	286,500	-	-	-
Edinburgh Saturday Post	44,000	80,000	75,000	123 12 0	175 11 6	174 15 0
Edinburgh Scottish Pilot	35,200	27,450	15,860	101 2 0	4 0	42 6 6
Edinburgh True Scotsman	42,500	67,000	17,050	29 0 0	8 6 6	5 6 6
Edinburgh Miscellaneous Record	23,500	40,700	37,960	107 0 0	122 0 0	157 0 0
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	-	400	3,660	-	-	-
Edinburgh Witness	155,500	195,000	251,437	170 8 6	193 14 6	208 9 6
<i>Do.</i> , at one halfpenny	6,000	14,000	-	-	-	-

NEWSPAPERS.

899

ment Duty.			
1812.			
s. d.	£	s. d.	£
19 6	27s	11 0	0
19 6	28s	13 6	6
18 0	120	12 0	0
9 6	115	16 0	0
14 0	150	19 0	0
18 6	26 6	6 6	6
15 6	54 9	0 0	0
4 0	127	10 0	0
7 6	180	10 6	6
5 6	117	6 0	0
14 6	281 0	6 6	6
12 0	144 15	0 6	6
7 6	121 10	0 0	0
10 0	584 7	6 6	6
4 6	196	0 0	0

ment Duty.			
1812.			
s. d.	£	s. d.	£
12 6	144 15	0 6	6
13 0	218 5	0 0	0
13 6	98 5	0 0	0
5 6	178 7	0 0	0
4 0	91 11	6 6	6
15 6	99 0	0 6	6
11 0	95 0	6 6	6
18 0	52 19	0 0	0
1 6	2 13	6 6	6
1 6	115 15	6 6	6

ment Duty.			
1812.			
s. d.	£	s. d.	£
17 6	98 9	0 0	0
4 0	51 17	6 6	6
1 6	48 9	0 0	0
1 6	325 5	17 6	6
8 6	151 17	6 6	6
17 6	98 9	0 0	0
1 6	48 9	0 0	0
10 6	130 0	0 0	0
10 6	125 13	6 6	6
1 6	74 11	0 0	0
8 0	95 16	0 0	0
1 6	846 16	6 6	6
17 6	130 19	0 0	0
1 6	59 9	6 6	6
8 6	257 11	0 0	0
3 6	35 3	6 6	6
10 0	118 11	0 0	0
0 3 6	111 19 6	0 0	0
14 6	795 4	0 0	0
16 6	858 12	0 0	0
16 0	320 10	0 0	0
8 0	68 2	0 0	0
13 6	123 10	0 0	0
6 6	71 11	0 0	0
15 0	613 3	0 0	0
5 0	153 11	0 0	0
0 0	1 31	1 0	0
11 6	174 15	0 0	0
2 0	42 1 6	0 0	0
8 0	5 9 6	0 0	0
0 0	157 0 0	0 0	0
14 6	208 8 6	0 0	0

Source Papers.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1810.	1811.	1812.	1810.	1811.	1812.
Edin Courant	25,000	31,000	29,000	165 12 0	177 6 0	182 6 0
Edin Herald	28,000	41,500	39,300	184 16 0	118 13 0	104 12 0
Edin Journal	25,000	30,500	28,000	119 0 6	112 4 0	98 9 6
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	600	-	-	-	-
Edin Advertiser	-	500	18,825	-	22 10 0	27 7 6
Edin Review	8,000	4,000	4,000	37 5 0	137 12 6	14 0 6
Glasgow Courier	160,000	150,000	150,000	758 8 6	738 12 0	641 19 6
Glasgow Journal	14,100	14,500	14,000	9 1 6	11 13 6	13 17 6
Glasgow Chronicle	69,500	75,500	75,500	241 10 6	211 6 0	196 11 6
Glasgow Herald	333,000	319,600	348,680	1,334 9 6	1,243 6 0	1,368 14 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	16,500	-	-	-	-
Glasgow Saturday Evening Post	74,000	176,000	176,000	93 10 6	96 5 6	108 1 6
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	5,000	-	-	-	-
Glasgow Scottish Guardian	184,000	180,000	99,000	184 13 0	184 13 0	178 4 6
Glasgow Arris	97,000	104,000	184,000	388 19 0	385 10 0	359 3 6
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	20,000	-	-	-	-
Glasgow Constitutional	90,000	186,729	8,000	337 19 0	353 8 0	346 19 0
Glasgow Scottish Farmer's Gazette	123,969	144,840	203,850	206 18 6	283 17 4	283 19 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	21,000	-	-	-	-
Glasgow Mail	26,000	24,000	14,000	46 7 0	32 14 0	32 12 6
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	1,000	-	-	-	-
Greenock Advertiser	67,325	73,500	58,000	294 12 0	309 6 0	240 16 0
Greenock Observer	11,500	16,650	16,000	32 19 0	41 18 6	28 1 0
Inverness Courier	61,500	68,487	68,750	166 13 0	174 6 0	171 4 6
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	2,500	-	-	-	-
Inverness Herald	26,200	29,000	24,500	95 9 6	85 11 6	66 18 0
Inverness Journal	21,000	26,000	26,000	105 13 6	119 2 0	112 7 0
Keele Mail	24,000	20,000	44,000	217 19 0	214 14 6	230 16 0
Keele Chronicle	20,000	20,000	20,000	107 0 0	107 0 0	107 0 0
Kilmarnock Journal	23,000	22,000	14,000	84 18 6	82 11 6	73 19 6
Leith Commercial List	8,000	8,000	14,000	14 0 0	14 0 0	14 0 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	62,000	-	-	-	-
Edin Standard	16,000	18,000	18,500	198 0 0	232 16 0	192 4 6
Falvey Advertiser	20,000	30,000	27,000	134 8 0	137 12 6	107 17 0
Perthshire Courier	19,000	21,072	18,000	121 16 0	103 17 6	99 0 0
Perthshire Advertiser	61,000	60,000	60,000	192 15 0	216 19 6	151 4 6
Perthshire Constitutional	29,000	39,000	24,000	150 19 0	154 5 0	145 8 0
Perthshire Chronicle	22,000	18,000	3,500	58 12 6	51 0 0	13 11 6
Perthshire Journal	24,000	24,000	24,000	115 5 6	101 5 0	108 7 6
Perthshire Observer	48,150	44,000	31,959	114 12 0	101 2 0	86 17 0
Wick John-o'-Groat Journal	37,500	37,000	35,000	76 8 6	78 13 6	66 1 6

Source Papers.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.		
	1810.	1811.	1812.	1810.	1811.	1812.
Sunderland News Letter	630,000	642,000	708,000	2,098 0 0	2,084 10 0	2,109 10 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	12,000	-	-	-	-
Morning Register	118,000	114,125	101,500	247 4 0	251 17 0	222 16 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	2,500	-	-	-	-
Freeman's Journal	201,575	193,500	229,000	849 3 0	866 18 0	847 2 0
Evening Mail	438,000	450,000	458,000	827 15 0	854 5 0	808 19 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	16,000	-	-	-	-
Evening Post	235,000	245,000	224,000	270 14 0	257 2 0	211 3 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	8,000	-	-	-	-
Evening Freeman	28,500	40,000	40,000	15 9 0	16 7 0	17 18 0
Evening Packet	244,000	289,000	268,000	244 7 0	265 8 0	252 14 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	3,000	-	-	-	-
Price	111,475	124,500	107,213	68 3 0	61 18 0	56 9 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	4,275	-	-	-	-
Monitor	110,650	117,700	102,500	113 19 0	125 14 0	100 4 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	1,000	-	-	-	-
Statesman	78,150	61,050	59,500	81 5 0	57 10 0	53 1 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	2,450	-	-	-	-
Gazette	304,000	11,000	7,500	36 19 0	32 15 0	29 0 0
Weekly Register	115,500	125,500	100,000	61 17 0	45 10 0	41 14 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	49,000	-	-	-	-
Weekly Freeman	145,000	150,000	185,500	78 13 0	80 9 0	82 12 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	15,000	-	-	-	-
Weekly Wanderer	99,425	111,550	116,500	145 3 0	129 15 0	111 13 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	8,550	-	-	-	-
General Advertiser	289,000	345,950	346,650	600 7 0	693 13 0	667 14 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	5,000	-	-	-	-
Medical Press	40,100	38,800	36,750	18 19 0	17 7 0	8 2 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	5,200	-	-	-	-
Words	66,450	64,825	58,275	64 2 0	163 5 0	78 4 0
Farmers' Gazette	-	-	48,575	-	-	26 7 0
Nation	17,300	14,500	58,000	9 15 0	5 7 0	11 8 0
Christian Journal	16,900	15,000	7,000	8 0 0	1 14 0	1 5 0
Christian Examiner	13,550	20,000	22,000	6 10 0	16 1 0	-
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	2,540	-	-	-	-
Irish Ecclesiastical Journal	26,280	15,629	8,674	36 18 0	13 1 0	8 0 0
Irishman	73,325	52,715	28,950	24 7 0	15 0 0	10 17 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	5,800	-	-	-	-
Mercantile Advertiser	17,500	15,000	15,000	43 10 0	46 1 0	45 12 0
Courtesy Papers.	115,000	111,000	122,500	279 19 0	247 15 0	236 14 0
Belfast Mercantile Register	17,500	17,500	17,500	76 1 0	66 13 0	58 11 0
Belfast News Letter	100,000	100,000	84,000	188 10 0	187 10 0	147 10 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	8,500	-	-	-	-
Belfast Vindicator	66,500	87,500	20,000	111 2 0	118 13 0	94 5 0
Belfast Irish Friend	30,910	30,910	17,500	2 8 0	4 11 0	7 7 0
Belfast Northern Whig	174,500	195,500	207,000	343 7 0	383 18 0	392 6 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	1,550	-	-	-	-
Belfast Ulster Missionary	3,360	3,360	4,500	0 7 0	0 5 0	-
Belfast Ulster Times	120,000	104,500	101,000	242 6 0	215 1 0	188 4 0
Edin, at one halfpenny	-	9,500	-	-	-	-
Belfast Banner of Union	-	-	72,000	-	-	48 10 0
Athlone Sentinel	4,000	4,000	5,500	11 7 0	11 15 0	8 2 0
Athlone Westmeath Guardian	11,000	13,000	13,717	18 9 0	22 13 0	19 1 0
Cork Constitution	204,000	204,000	216,000	437 15 0	419 1 0	468 2 0
Cork Southern Reporter	190,000	185,000	195,000	434 17 0	411 14 0	412 9 0

Irish Newspapers.	Newspaper Stamps.			Advertisement Duty.					
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.		1841.		1842.	
Cork Examiner	-	41,000	154,000	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Ballyshannon Herald	5,300	10,500	12,000	12	0	0	19	10	0
Newry Telegraph	115,000	118,500	123,000	201	19	0	207	5	0
Newry Examiner	60,000	60,000	44,000	114	7	0	90	31	0
Downpatrick Recorder	30,000	25,000	30,000	44	10	0	50	9	0
Do, at one halfpenny	224	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Drogheda Conservative	20,500	20,000	21,500	44	14	0	49	2	0
Drogheda Argus	32,500	37,500	40,000	78	18	0	69	16	0
Drogheda Journal	4,900	10,500	30,000	10	1	0	13	9	0
Fermanagh Impartial Reporter	12,500	17,500	22,500	-	-	-	-	-	-
Do, at one halfpenny	1,750	175	-	16	17	0	29	12	0
Enniskillen Chronicle	18,000	19,000	16,000	29	14	0	33	5	0
Do, at one halfpenny	-	500	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Galway Weekly Advertiser	9,500	13,000	7,500	23	4	0	44	6	0
Galway Courier Journal	10,500	-	-	41	18	0	-	-	-
Galway Tuam Herald	15,000	15,000	15,000	24	18	0	32	11	0
Galway Vindicator	-	19,000	21,000	-	-	-	19	9	0
Galway Standard	-	-	6,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kerry Evening Post	25,000	25,000	17,500	57	0	0	41	2	0
Kerry Examiner	7,500	27,250	29,500	4	6	0	25	19	0
Leinster Express	38,612	37,750	39,700	-	-	-	-	-	-
Do, at one halfpenny	1,500	5,199	-	11	0	0	82	6	0
Kilkenny Journal	25,000	27,500	27,500	26	11	0	58	19	0
Kilkenny Moderator	25,000	20,500	25,000	60	9	0	46	18	0
Carlow Sentinel	15,000	17,500	15,000	-	-	-	-	-	-
Do, at one halfpenny	-	-	500	35	12	0	34	10	0
Limerick Chronicle	200,000	197,500	198,000	291	2	0	223	9	0
Limerick Reporter	65,000	64,500	65,000	96	11	0	97	8	0
Limerick Standard	57,000	54,750	2,400	117	14	0	98	6	0
Clare Journal	20,000	16,500	15,000	35	1	0	39	0	0
Londonderry Journal	41,500	35,500	40,000	94	0	0	101	5	0
Londonderry Sentinel	29,000	29,000	64,500	118	6	0	113	19	0
Londonderry Standard	61,500	63,500	67,500	79	3	0	101	9	0
Roscommon Gazette	10,000	10,000	6,500	12	19	0	16	19	0
Roscommon Journal	10,750	6,007	4,803	19	17	0	32	2	0
Longford Journal	5,500	11,400	0,000	11	11	0	11	5	0
Longford Standard	17,500	15,000	19,500	32	18	0	30	9	0
Mayo Constitution	42,500	20,000	40,500	91	17	0	20	11	0
Mayo Telegraph	8,500	7,500	8,500	18	15	0	23	6	0
Mayo Hallina Advertiser	27,500	64,000	20,500	7	0	0	3	12	0
Mayo Achill Missionary Herald	-	11,000	12,500	-	-	-	6	2	0
Mayo Star	15,500	-	17,500	-	-	-	28	11	0
Do, at one halfpenny	500	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Northern Standard	24,000	23,000	22,500	44	11	0	39	10	0
Sligo Journal	12,500	10,000	10,000	42	0	0	29	9	0
Sligo Champion	12,500	12,500	10,500	25	3	0	25	8	0
Tipperary Free Press	37,000	40,500	35,500	57	3	0	57	17	0
Tipperary Constitution	30,000	29,000	30,000	51	6	0	57	1	0
Waterford Chronicle	44,750	44,300	48,300	102	16	0	93	16	0
Waterford Weekly Chronicle	-	7,750	8,500	-	-	-	-	-	-
Do, at one halfpenny	-	500	500	-	-	-	-	-	-
Waterford Mirror	29,500	30,000	35,000	49	11	0	45	1	0
Waterford Mail	27,500	34,000	16,500	81	8	0	60	9	0
Waterford Commercial News Letter	9,000	9,000	9,500	-	-	-	-	-	-
Waterford Independent	35,000	45,000	39,000	76	5	0	71	15	0
Waterford Conservative	25,000	27,500	25,000	75	15	0	65	6	0

American Newspapers. — The increase of newspapers in the U. States has been a good deal more rapid than in England; a consequence, partly, no doubt, of the greater increase of population in the Union, but more, probably, of their freedom from taxation, and of the violence of party contentions. The total number of newspapers annually issued in the Union may be estimated at from 65,000,000 to 75,000,000, while the total number issued in Great Britain and Ireland, in 1841, was only 60,759,392; so that, making allowance for the difference of population, every individual in America has, at an average, nearly twice the supply of newspapers enjoyed by individuals in England. "From this exuberant supply of daily and weekly papers, and the low price charged, as compared with the English and French newspapers, they are liberally patronised by all classes, and are found in almost every dwelling and counting house, and in all hotels, taverns, and shops; and attract a large share of the public attention. As the paths of honour and promotion are alike open to every one, it follows that public discussion forms the principal staple of the newspapers. There is no country where the press has a more powerful influence over public opinion." — (*Picture of New York*, p. 391.)

We are not, however, to estimate the influence of newspaper literature by its quantity only, but must have regard also to its quality. The latter is, indeed, the principal thing to be attended to; and in whatever degree the Americans may exceed us in the number, they certainly are immeasurably below us in the quality, of their newspapers. Speaking generally, we do not hesitate to say that the newspaper press is a disgrace to the union. The journals indulge, with few exceptions, in the most offensive personalities. Instead of examining the principles of the measures brought forward, they assail the character and misrepresent the motives of those by whom they are introduced. It is impossible, we believe, to name an individual, who has attained to any high office in the U. States, or to consideration in Congress, who has not been libelled, traduced, and calumniated by a large portion of the press, to a degree that can hardly be imagined. The magnitude of the evil will, probably, lead to its cure. No people, with any pretensions to instruction and morality, can continue to patronise a press whose principal features are misrepresentation, exaggeration, and abuse.

NEW YORK, the capital of the state of that name, and the commercial metropolis

Sent Duty.	
1.	1848
4	264 11 0 0
13	11 3 0 0
13	177 8 0 0
11	84 15 0 0
9	41 9 0 0
2	54 4 0 0
16	54 0 0 0
9	31 0 0 0
13	39 7 0 0
5	96 16 0 0
6	11 11 0 0
11	80 3 0 0
9	27 3 0 0
13	1 17 0 0
13	31 0 0 0
4	73 11 0 0
19	48 15 0 0
16	52 0 0 0
10	98 0 0 0
13	910 1 0 0
9	104 13 0 0
2	22 4 0 0
2	25 15 0 0
19	35 15 0 0
19	38 3 0 0
19	52 14 0 0
19	9 3 0 0
2	11 9 0 0
19	52 14 0 0
19	39 19 0 0
19	39 15 0 0
19	5 10 0 0
6	7 17 0 0
16	91 4 0 0
19	35 8 0 0
19	39 19 0 0
19	34 7 0 0
19	35 15 0 0
19	55 14 0 0
19	28 7 0 0
19	48 7 0 0
16	67 19 0 0
19	55 1 0 0
19	39 19 0 0
19	2 11 0 0
19	66 16 0 0
19	59 0 0 0

States has been no doubt, of their freedom number of news- 65,000,000 to and, in 1841, was ulation, every in- ly of newspapers daily and weekly and French news- in almost every and attract a large and are alike open ple of the news- influence over

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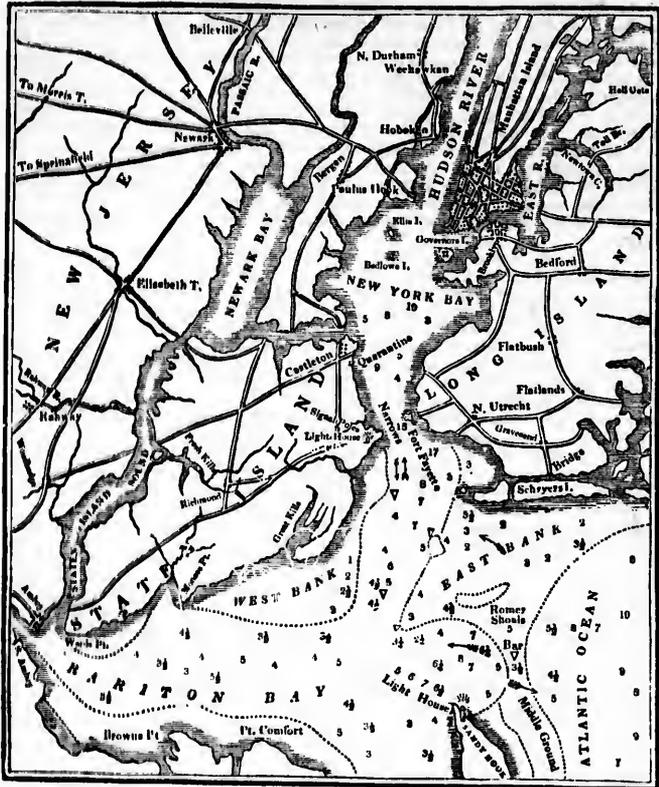
of the U. States, on the southern extremity of Manhattan Island, at the point of confluence of the Hudson River, which separates Manhattan from New Jersey, with East River, which separates it from Long Island, lat. 40° 42' N., lon., 74° 8' W. New York bay, or inner harbour, is one of the most capacious and finest in the world; it is completely land locked, and affords the best anchorage. The entrance to the bay through the Narrows is extremely beautiful. On each side, the shore, though wooded down to the water's edge, is thickly studded with farms, villages, and country seats. At the upper end are seen the spires of the city; and in the distance the bold precipitous banks of the Hudson. From New York to the bar between Sandy Hook Point and Schryer's Island (the division between the outer bay or harbour and the Atlantic) is about 17 miles. Fortifications have been erected at the Narrows, Governor's Island, and other places, for the defence of the city and shipping. The wood-cut on the opposite page represents the city and bay of New York, and the surrounding country.

The Hudson river was first explored in 1609, by the famous English navigator whose name it bears, then in the service of the West India Company of Holland. In 1612, New Amsterdam, now New York, was founded by the Dutch, as a convenient station for the fur trade. In 1664, it was taken by the English. The Dutch again recovered possession of it in 1673; but it was retaken by the English in the following year, and continued in their occupation till the termination of the revolutionary war.

New York has increased faster than any other city of the United States. In 1699 it contained 6,000 inhabitants. In 1774, previously to the commencement of the war of independence, the population amounted to 22,750. During the war the population continued stationary; but since 1783, its increase has been quite extraordinary. In 1790, the population amounted to 33,131; in 1800, to 60,489; in 1820, to 123,706; in 1830, to above 213,000, and in 1840, to 312,710. Originally the houses were mostly of wood, and the streets narrow and confined. In these particulars, however, a great improvement has taken place during the last half century; most of the old houses having been pulled down and rebuilt with brick. The new streets, which are broad, and intersect each other at right angles, are well paved and lighted. Broadway, the principal street, is one of the largest and finest in the world. Many of the public buildings are commodious and elegant. The pools, that were formerly abundant in the city and its vicinity, have been completely filled up; a measure that has done much to improve the health of the population. In respect of cleanliness, however, New York is not to be compared with an English town. There is hardly such a thing as a sink or common sewer in the whole city; the night-soil and filth are collected in pits, of which there is one in every house, and, being conveyed to the nearest quay, are thrown into the water; but as these quays are made of timber, with many projections, a great deal of filth is retained about them, producing, in hot weather, an abominable stench. The yellow fever, by which New York is sometimes visited, uniformly breaks out in the lower and dirtiest part of the town; and seldom, indeed, extends to the new and more elevated streets. It is now much less prevalent than formerly; and the general opinion seems to be, that if stones were substituted for timber in the quays, sewers constructed, and proper regulations enforced as to cleanliness, the scourge would entirely disappear.

New York is indebted, for her wonderful increase, to her admirable situation, which has rendered her the greatest emporium of the New World. The rise of the tide is about 6 feet; and even at ebb, there is 21 feet water on the bar; and the water in the outer and inner bays, and in the river, is so deep, that ships of the largest burden lie close to the quays, and may proceed to a great distance up the river. The navigation of the bay is rarely impeded by ice. The great strength of the tide, and the vicinity of the ocean, keep it generally open, even when the Chesapeake and Delaware bays are frozen over. The influence of the tides is felt in the Hudson as far as Troy, 160 miles above New York, affording very peculiar facilities for its navigation. These natural advantages have been vastly extended by a system of canals, which has connected the Hudson not merely with Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, but with the Ohio river, and consequently with the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico! So prodigious a command of internal navigation is not enjoyed by any other city, with the exception of New Orleans; but the reader access to the port of New York, the greater salubrity of the climate, and her situation in the most industrious part of the Union, where slavery is abolished, give her advantages over her southern rival, which, it is most probable, will secure her continued preponderance.

Entrance to Harbour, Light-houses, &c. — The course in entering the harbour of New York is nearly due W. from the outermost white buoy on the bar, till the buoy on the S. W. point of the east bank be passed, and then nearly due N. The navigation is extremely easy. Pilots generally board vessels without the bar; for, otherwise, they are only entitled to half fees. Were it not for fear of violating insurance, their services would seldom be required. — (See *Rates of Pilotage, post.*) The light-house near the extremity of the long, low, narrow tongue of land, projecting from the New Jersey shore, called Sandy Hook, is in lat. 40° 28' N., lon. 74° 8' W. It is fitted up with a very powerful fixed light, which, in clear weather, may be seen by vessels coming from the westward 10 leagues off. But, from 1.



position, it is not readily discovered by ships coming from the S. till too near. To obviate this inconvenience, a floating light was moored about 7 miles E. from Sandy Hook Point. In 1828, however, 2 light-houses were erected on Neversink hills, nearly 4 miles S. by E. from Sandy Hook. They are 800 feet apart, the most northerly being furnished with a fixed, and the other with a revolving light, both of great power. The lights are elevated 250 feet above the level of the sea; and may be seen, in clear weather, in all directions, from 40 to 50 miles. Since they were fitted up, the floating light has been discontinued. Vessels load and unload at the wharfs on both sides the city.

Trade, &c. — The commerce of New York is very extensive. The value of the merchandise annually loaded and unloaded in the port may be respectively estimated at from 100,000,000 to 120,000,000 dollars. The number of vessels in the port in the busy season varies from 500 to 750, exclusive of about 50 steam packets. The number of arrivals from foreign ports amounted in 1841 to 2,118; and the coasting arrivals are between 4,000 and 5,000. The total value of the imports into the U. States in the year ending the 30th of September, 1841, was 127,946,177 dollars; of which no less than 75,713,426, or nearly 2-3ds, were imported into New York! The imports comprise an infinite variety of articles. The principal are cottons, woollens, linens, hardware, and cutlery; with earthenware, brass and copper manufactures, &c. from Great Britain; silk, wine, brandy, &c. from France and Spain; sugar and coffee from the Havannah and Brazil; with tea, spices, cochineal, indigo, dyewoods, &c. The value of the exports to foreign countries from New York in the year ending the 30th of September 1841, amounted to 83,139,838 dollars, being between $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ part of the total exports from the U. States. The exports principally consist of wheat flour, corn, rice, and cotton; beef, pork, butter, dried fish, and all sorts of provisions; furs, tobacco, coarse

manufactured goods, lumber, &c. The great excess of the imports into New York over the exports is accounted for by the fact, that, while mostly all articles of export from the Western States are shipped at New Orleans, the greater part of the more valuable articles brought from abroad, and destined for the consumption of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and, in some degree, even Kentucky, are principally imported into New York.

The tonnage of New York is greater than that of Liverpool, or any other city, with the single exception of London. The registered tonnage belonging to the port on the 30th of June, 1847, amounted to 297,516 tons, and the enrolled and licensed tonnage to 345,527 tons; making a grand total of 643,043 tons, being more than one-fifth part of the whole tonnage of the U. States.

Commerce of New York in 1846.

Months.	Value of Imports in 1846.			Value of Exports in 1846.			
	For Goods Dutiable.	For Goods Free.	Specie.	For Goods Dutiable.	For Goods Free.	Domestic Goods.	Specie.
January	\$4,942,894	\$ 276,905	\$ 43,221	\$124,675	\$ 26,937	\$1,939,412	\$ 21,788
February	4,177,952	474,360	66,779	120,553	25,248	1,675,942	185,703
March	6,657,795	1,095,476	62,223	132,072	66,216	1,465,229	237,781
April	4,105,353	2,228,278	106,844	195,518	111,927	1,989,758	519,599
May	4,169,591	1,200,751	97,996	208,562	35,820	1,297,006	201,041
June	4,605,527	1,230,006	29,123	223,504	93,038	3,745,687	80,465
July	5,411,595	729,251	64,473	182,103	40,141	2,875,013	26,283
August	7,685,427	329,819	44,892	167,273	29,484	2,415,742	4,289
September	5,272,923	691,849	10,044	305,860	82,309	2,338,101	7,235
October	2,736,927	591,449	24,969	196,810	74,199	1,594,142	78,598
November	2,568,183	719,215	139,394	247,250	60,537	3,510,869	4,820
December	4,479,915	637,496	61,246	118,245	65,876	4,111,500	1,435,220
Total Imports	\$58,406,847	\$11,117,435	\$745,599	\$2,423,156	\$611,795	\$11,853,611	\$1,435,220
Total Exports						\$6,483,762	

Principal Imports into the Port of New York in 1845-46.

	1845.	1846.	1845.	1846.
Coal	55,116	55,236	Olive oil	231
Cocoa	5,969	7,859	boxes & bask.	11,807
Coffee	382,268	312,362	Pepper	81,215
Cotton	392,456	356,749	Pimento	7,066
Duck	1,659	1,195	Rags	11,750
Earthenware	29,417	35,537	Raisins	7,962
Pipes	35,493	140,747	Rice	36,443
Rises	1,274	2,150	Run	1,301
Tin	9,356	2,501	Salt	1,303,663
Hemp	43,623	51,009	Saltpetre	9,295
Hides	694	788	Sugar	354,732
Iron, bar	566,446	705,222	Tea	577
Iron, pig	17,371	29,297	Tobacco	17,074
Lead	49,864	55,484	Wine	1,299
Molasses	23,557	83,127	Wool	19,514

Arrivals in 1817 from Foreign Ports.

Stemmers	17
Ships	705
Barques	709
Brigs	1,222
Schooners	514
Galley and sloops	6
Total	3,166

Of these were —

Countries.	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Galley.	Stemmer.	Total.
American	555	362	683	514	—	2	1,916
British	84	155	361	122	—	2	729
Daneish	16	45	29	1	—	—	91
French	2	19	43	—	—	—	63
German	18	22	6	1	—	—	54
Hamburg	9	19	6	1	—	—	35
Spanish	10	23	4	1	—	—	42
Belgian	3	12	6	—	—	—	21
Neapolitan	1	8	18	3	1	—	30
Prussian	4	19	1	—	—	—	24
Austrian	1	2	1	—	—	—	4
Sicilian	1	2	1	—	—	—	4
Russian	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Neapolitan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Genese	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Portuguese	1	1	4	—	—	—	6
New Granada	1	1	—	—	—	—	2
Brazilian	1	1	—	—	—	—	2
Oldenburgh	3	3	1	—	—	—	7
Lubeck	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Columbian	4	2	—	—	—	—	6
Sundries	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	793	702	1,222	511	5	17	3,167

Coastwise Arrivals in 1847.

Months.	Stemmers.	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
January	—	17	15	54	232	298
February	—	1	14	15	60	91
March	—	2	19	12	59	92
April	—	3	19	18	36	57
May	—	3	17	6	35	59
June	—	4	25	11	33	63
July	—	3	27	14	70	114
August	—	2	22	11	64	100
September	—	3	19	12	56	90
October	—	4	18	10	50	82
November	—	4	16	18	63	91
December	—	14	16	51	373	401
Whole number as above						4,864
Which added to the foreign						5,167
Makes a total for the year of						10,031
Whole number last year						6,934
Increase						3,097

Notes.— In the above there are no sloops included, which, if added to the many schooners from Virginia and Philadelphia, with wood and coal, which discharge their cargoes at Brooklyn, Williamsburgh, Jersey City, and the adjacent towns on the Hudson, and are not boarded, owing to the remoteness of those points for general business, would make the number much greater. We estimate the schooners that arrive at the above places, and are not reported, at 6 per day, which we think a small estimate; — this would give for the year 2,190 additional schooners to be added to the coastwise trade, making the whole number of coastwise arrivals for 1847, 7,001.



To obviate this in 1828, however, they had a revolving light, and may be seen, in floating light has been

value of the merchandise estimated at from port in the busy The number of sailing arrivals are the U. States in the ; of which no less The imports consist, liens, hardware, from Great Britain; from the Havannah value of the exports of September 1841, total exports from corn, rice, and cot- lurs, tobacco, coarse

The following Statement shows the Number of Foreign Arrivals and Passengers in different Years:—

Years.	Arrivals.	Passengers.	Years.	Arrivals.	Passengers.	Years.	Arrivals.	Passengers.
1853	2,094	35,308	1840	1,953	69,737	1844	2,306	61,022
1856	2,893	60,541	1841	1,116	57,397	1845	2,044	53,863
1857	3,071	87,975	1842	1,960	73,319	1846	2,725	115,250
1858	1,759	36,541	1843	1,832	66,328	1847	3,156	106,110
1859	2,159	46,158						

Statement of the Number of Arrivals and Tonnage of Vessels at the Port of New York, from 1810 to 1840, inclusive, from Official Authority.

Years.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.	Increase of Tonnage since 1810.	Years.	Arrivals.	Tonnage.	Increase of Tonnage since 1810.
1810	2,541	974,848		1836	2,964	408,446	56 69 100ths
1811	2,708	1,046,010		1837	2,911	447,406	78 18 100ths
1812	1,959	194,301		1838	2,826	418,997	60 71 100ths
1813	1,518	148,939		1839	2,716	417,981	69 66 100ths
1814	1,766	148,531		1840	2,896	435,267	57 74 100ths
1815	3,120	291,078		1831	3,090	427,601	68 41 100ths
1816	2,284	311,078		1832	3,222	439,810	91 8 100ths
1817	2,097	298,547		1833	2,637	221,810	108 26 100ths
1818	2,273	297,199		1834	2,437	255,497	108 4 100ths
1819	1,673	266,540		1835	2,450	250,000	116 55 100ths
1820	1,947	256,261		1836	2,719	267,328	131 22 100ths
1821	2,061	374,214	6 78 100ths	1837	2,568	289,365	145 17 100ths
1822	2,243	419,840	31 91 100ths	1838	1,963	235,438	147 16 100ths
1823	2,423	330,783	36 25 100ths	1839	2,573	355,973	158 27 100ths
1824	2,618	378,378		1840	2,479	316,185	140 56 100ths
1825	2,773	450,214	63 75 100ths				

In addition to these arrivals, which are from foreign and coastwise ports, there are about 1,050 schooners, sloops, &c., employed in coasting inland, not included in the above, averaging about 75 tons, making 16,500 tons. These vessels

are here probably every week during the season of navigation, and about 75 steamboats, which probably are here about every other day; tonnage, 30,766.

Regulations as to Passengers arriving at New York.—On the arrival of passengers, an entry must be made at the Custom-house, of their names, clothes, implements of trade or profession (all of which are exempt from duty), and an oath taken respecting them; and the form of which, and the entry, may be had at the office gratis. Cabin passengers make this entry themselves, and pay 20 cents each for a permit; an exhibiting which to the officer on board, they are allowed to remove their baggage after it has been inspected. Only 1 entry and permit is necessary for a family, and only 20 cents demanded, whatever may be the number of the family. Remains of sea stores, such as tea, sugar, foreign spirits and wines, are liable to pay duties; but unless these are of great bulk or quantity, they are generally allowed to pass free.

An entry is usually made by the master of the vessel, of steerage passengers and their baggage; they pay each 30 cents for a permit. When entry is made by any person not the owner, he gives bond for payment of the duties, if any; and if, after entry is made at the Custom-house, and the oath taken, any article is found belonging to a passenger, liable to pay duty, not specified in the entry, it is forfeited, and the person in whose baggage the article is found subjected in treble the value.

Besides making entry at the Custom-house, it is provided by a law of the State, that every master of a vessel arriving from a foreign country, or from any other port of the U. States, shall, within 24 hours after entering his vessel at the Custom-house, make a report in writing, on oath, to the mayor, and in case of his sickness or absence, to the recorder of the said city, of the name, age, and occupation of every person who shall have been brought as passenger in such ship or vessel on her last voyage, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect or omission to make such report, the sum of 75 dollars for every alien, and the sum of 50 dollars for every other person neglected to be so reported as aforesaid.

Masters of ships bringing passengers to New York must also pay a dollar on account of each passenger to the corporation, as commutation money, or give bond that none of them shall become chargeable on the city poor rates for the space of 2 years. They almost uniformly prefer paying the commutation.

Lines of Packets.—The establishment of regular lines of packets from New York to foreign ports, and also to every principal port in the U. States, produced a new era in the commerce of the city, and has redounded equally to the benefit of the enterprising individuals by whom they were projected, and the public. The principal intercourse is carried on with Liverpool; there being about 24 packet ships, distributed in 5 lines, employed at present (1848), in maintaining a regular communication with that port. A dozen packet ships are also employed in the trade between New York and London; and 10 in the trade between New York and Havre. These ships vary in size from 600 tons to above 1,000 tons. Their tonnage has latterly been increasing; and, at an average, it may now be estimated at about 1,000 tons. These ships are all American property, and built chiefly in New York. They are probably the finest and fastest sailing merchant vessels in the world; being beautifully modelled, of the best workmanship, and fitted up with every convenience for passengers, and in the most expensive style. The safety, regularity, and expedition with which they perform their voyages is quite astonishing. The average length of a voyage from Liverpool and Portsmouth to New York, may be estimated at about 24 days, and from the latter to the former, at about 20 days. And it is material to observe, that these voyages are not reckoned from land to land, but from port to port.

The packet ships for New York sail from London on the 7th, 17th, and 27th; and from Portsmouth, or rather Cowes, at which place they touch, on the 1st, 10th, and 20th of each month.

Those bound for New York from Liverpool, sail on the 1st, 7th, 13th, 19th, and 25th of each month; and they sail on the same days from New York for Liverpool. Those bound for New York from Havre sail on the same days as those from Liverpool.

Cabin passage to New York from London and Liverpool, 25 guineas; from New York to London and Liverpool, 75 dollars. This includes provisions, beds, &c.; but neither wines nor liquors of any kind.

Each ship has a separate cabin for ladies; each state-room, in the respective cabins, will accommodate two passengers; but a whole state room may be secured for 1 individual by paying at the rate of 14 passage, that is, 37½ guineas to New York.

Packets for Philadelphia sail from Liverpool on the 8th of every month throughout the year; and 4 of these ships sail from Philadelphia for Liverpool on the 20th of each month; the others do not always return direct for Liverpool, but sometimes go to Charleston, Savannah, &c., to bring cargoes of produce to Liverpool.

Cabin passage same as that to and from New York.

These ships are all American built and owned, being from 500 to 800 tons burden: some of them are as splendid as the New York packets, and all are fitted up with every regard to comfort.

The rate of steerage passage varies, in the course of the year, considerably; depending on the number of ships and the number of passengers going at the time. By the packet ships it fluctuates from 3 to 4 guineas for each full-grown person; and children under 14 years are taken at half price. If other ships

ifferent Years—

Yrs.	Passengers.
73	81,022
74	85,001
75	115,490
76	166,110

ork, from 1810 to

Year	Increase of Tonnage since 1800.
54 02-100ths	
78 18-100ths	
60 71-100ths	
62 86-100ths	
37 24-100ths	
66 41-100ths	
91 6-100ths	
108 96-100ths	
108 4-100ths	
116 3-100ths	
131 98-100ths	
145 17-100ths	
117 74-100ths	
153 37-100ths	
140 58-100ths	

ason of navigation, are here about every

an entry must be also (all of which in the entry, may be into each for a per- baggage after it has demanded, what- foreign spirits and generally allowed

their baggage for pay- give bond taken, any it is forfeited, and

every master of a all within 24 hours the mayor, and in occupation of every age, upon pain of or every alien, and

of each passenger some chargeable on commutation.

ork to foreign ports, ce of the city, and ere projected, and

unication with that don; and 15 in the 1,000 tons. Their at about 1,000 tons.

probably the finest workmanship. The safety, regu- the average length 34 days, and, from the voyages are not

from Portsmouth, th of each month; York from Havre

ork to London and ors of any kind. will accommodate the rate of 1/4 pas- the year; and 4 of ders do not always cargoes of produce

en: some of them on: (ing on the number ctutes from 3 to 4 ce. By other ships

the rate of storage passage varies, at Liverpool, from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.*; but the *average* rate may be taken at 1*l.* 10*s.* For these rates, the ship provides nothing but berths, fire, and water; the passengers provide their own provisions, bedding, &c. The expense of provisions for a poor person, who might wish to be as economical as possible, for the voyage out to the U. States, would not be more than from 4*s.* to 5*s.*

The *cr&h* and passage by the common traders (and many of them are quite equal to the packets in equip- ment and safety) varies from 1*l.* to 2*l.*; no wines being provided by the ships at these rates, but provisions, bedding, and malt liquor.

Capital and Dividends of New York Banks in 1847 and 1848.

Banks.	Capital.	1st Div. 1847.	2nd Div. 1847.	1st Div. 1848.
Bank of America	\$2,000,000	Jan. 24 per cent.	July 31 per cent.	Jan. 31 per cent.
Bank of Commerce	\$449,480	" 5	" 24	" 24
Tydemans'	600,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
Phenix	1,300,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
Weymouth Ward	600,000	" 24	" 24	" 24
Merchants' Exchange	750,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
North River	655,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
New York Dry Dock	250,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
Leather Manufacturers'	600,000	Feb. 24	Aug. 24	Feb. 24
Mechanics	2,000,000	" -	" -	" 24
Hatchers' and Drovers'	200,000	" -	" -	" 24
National	750,000	April 5	Oct. 4	April 4
American Exchange	1,155,400	May 24	Nov. 24	May 24
Bank of New York	1,000,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
State of New York	3,000,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
City	1,200,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
Mechanics'	1,440,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
Union	1,000,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
Levy	500,000	" 5	" 5	" 5
Mechanics' and Traders'	200,000	" 5	" new	" 4
Greenwich	300,000	" 5	" -	" 4
Fulton	200,000	" 5	" -	" 4
Mechanics' Banking Association	623,000	June 2	Dec. 24	" 5
Mechanics'	1,480,000	" 4	" 4	" 4
Chemical	300,000	" -	" -	" -
Total	\$4,092,080			

List of Insurance Companies existing in New York in 1843, with the Amount of their Capitals and Shares.

Companies.	Capitals.	Shares.	Companies.	Capitals.	Shares.
<i>LIFE.</i>			<i>Fire—continued.</i>		
Life Insurance and Trust Company	1,000,000	100	North River Insurance Company	250,000	25
Farmers' Loan and Trust Company	2,000,000	100	New York Equitable Insurance Company	300,000	50
Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York			New York Contribution Insurance Company	300,000	50
Mutual Marine Insurance Company of New York	5,000,000	60	Jefferson Insurance Company	200,000	50
New York Insurance Company	1,500,000	60	U. States Fire Insurance Company	200,000	50
American Insurance Company	350,000	60	Zena Fire Insurance Company	200,000	50
Health Insurance Company	250,000	60	Fremens' Insurance Company	200,000	25
Nepane Insurance Company	250,000	60	Howard Insurance Company	200,000	60
Washington Insurance Company	300,000	37 50	New York Fire Insurance Company	200,000	100
Washington Mutual Insurance Company	300,000	50	New York Fire Insurance Company	210,000	50
Mutual Safety Insurance Company			New York Brewery Fire Insurance Com-pany	300,000	25
Non Mutual Insurance Company			Greenwich Insurance Company	200,000	25
Atlantic Mutual Insurance Company	450,000	50	East River Fire Insurance Company	250,000	25
<i>FIRE.</i>			North American Fire Insurance Company	250,000	50
Mutual Insurance Company	350,000	50	Trust Fire Insurance Company	200,000	100
Nagle Fire Company	500,000	100	Williamsburg Fire Insurance Company	150,000	20
Merchants' Insurance Company	500,000	100	New York Guardian Insurance Company	300,000	100
Mechanics' Insurance Company	500,000	100	National Fire Insurance Company	150,000	25
Mutual Insurance Company	500,000	100	Hudson Insurance Company	200,000	25

Rules observed by the New York Banks.—The banks are open every day in the year from ten to three in the afternoon, except Sundays, Christmas Day, New Year's Day, the 4th of July, and general holidays appointed by legal authority, and the bank of New York on Good Fridays.

The interest for discount in the banks in this city is fixed at six per cent. per annum, upon notes or bills not having 60 days to run. Three days of grace are allowed, and the discount taken for the same. Upon notes or bills having more than 60 days to run, 7 per cent. is taken.

Every bill or note offered for discount, must be delivered into the office on the day preceding the day of discount, inclosed in a sealed cover, directed to the cashier, advising the name of the person upon whose account it is offered, &c.

Bills or notes lodged at the banks for collection, are collected free of expense, except when protested for non-payment; the person lodging the same pays the charge of protest. Deposits of money, or notes for collection, must be entered in the dealer's book at the time such deposit is made.

Gold coins of France, Great Britain, and Spain, are received and paid at the banks at the following rates, according to an act of Congress, passed 1834, viz.: France, 93-10 cents the pennyweight. Great Britain, Portugal and Brazil, 94-10 cents do. Spain, 93-10 cents do.

Silver coins are received at the banks as follows:—1 crown, 109 cents.; 1 dollar, 100 cents. 4 5 francs, 63-100 cents. 1 pastareen, 18 cents.

Remarks on Banking in New York.—The reader will find in the article BANKS, FOREIGN (ant^o, p. 111.), some details as to the banking system of the U. States. It seems to be quite as defective in New York as in any other part of the Union. Several banks in that State have failed, and some of those that still exist, obtained their charters by resorting to the most disgraceful practices. In the summer of 1826, the grand jury of the city entered upon an investigation of certain circumstances connected with the formation of some of these establishments, which ended in the conviction, as conspirators to defraud the public, of not a few citizens, and even of some members of the legislature, who had previously been deemed highly respectable. The Court of Errors afterwards decided, by a small majority, that these convictions were illegal; but the fact of the most scandalous abuses having prevailed was established beyond all question. We may mention, by way of example, that the United States Lombard Association, incorporated in 1826, was sworn to as having a paid-up capital of 300,000 dollars; but the association having failed in 1826, it was ascertained that not more than 30,000 dollars had ever been paid up! There were, we are sorry to say, several other cases quite as bad, or, if possible, even worse than this.—(Report and Observations on the Banks, &c. of the State of New York, p. 10.)

In order to protect the public from the mischief resulting from the failure of banks, the legislature of

the State of New York enacted a law, in 1829, compelling all banks chartered in futuro, or getting their charters renewed, to pay from 1 to 1 per cent of their capital stock to the treasurer of the State, by whom it is invested and accumulated as a guarantee fund. When a bank fails, its debts, under certain restrictions, are to be paid from this fund. Commissioners have also been appointed, having authority to examine upon oath, and to inquire into any particulars as to the management of the different banks subjected to this regulation.

When the last edition of this work was published, we observed of this system, that "it has not been established for a sufficient length of time to enable a conclusive opinion to be formed as to its practical operation. We believe, however, that it will be found quite inadequate to eradicate the evils complained of. Even were it otherwise successful, what can be more unjust than to tax the capital of solid and well-managed concerns, to create a fund to pay the debts of those set on foot for the purpose of swindling? The interference of the commissioners, by lessening the responsibility of the directors, must be a good deal worse than useless; and can have no effect other than the multiplication of abuses."

These anticipations have been more than realized; and, with but few exceptions, the banks of New York are about in the same rotten and disgraceful state as those in most other parts of the Union. In 1838, the State passed what was called a "general banking law," which it was supposed would have considerable influence, and under which several banks have been established. But this law, like its predecessor, left untouched all the radical vices of the system, and has been quite as ineffectual for any good purpose. In proof of this, it is sufficient to state that the New York Register for 1843 (p. 177.) has a list of no fewer than 20 banks established under the law of 1838 that have since failed and been shut up.

The truth is, that the business of banking in New York, as in other parts of the Union, is, as now carried on, an unmixt and scandalous nuisance. And it is worse than idle to expect that it should ever be improved without abolishing the system of limited responsibility, and making the partners in the banks liable to the utmost extent of their means for the debts of the banks. Even this would leave much untouched that is objectionable; but it would go far to prevent banks from degenerating into mere swindling engines; and, were it coupled with the obligation on the part of those who issue notes to give security for their payment, it would do all that legislation can do to obviate the abuse of private banking. The devices that the legislatures of New York and other American States have adopted in this view, are not of the slightest use; while, by teaching the public to depend on them, they facilitate the fraud and misconduct inseparable from the system.

Forgery is extremely prevalent in the State of New York, and, indeed, throughout the Union; a consequence of the low value at which notes are issued, and of their employment even in the smallest transactions.

SALES BY AUCTION.—The practice of selling goods, particularly those imported from abroad, by auction, is of long standing in New York, and is carried to a very great extent. Auctioneers are appointed by the senate, on the nomination of the governor.

Statement of Sales at Auction in the State of New York, from 1833 to 1842 Inclusive, from Returns made by the Auctioneers to the Comptroller.

Years.	Duties.	Amount of Sales dutiable.	Amount of Sales not dutiable.
1833	\$258,719	\$21,045,506	\$18,406,818
1834	295,470	14,415,152	13,291,294
1835	237,077	10,627,353	14,044,253
1836	258,511	16,160,703	25,072,689
1837	314,458	12,711,937	6,683,746
1838	218,418	8,425,308	15,329,864
1839	225,401	15,361,053	12,514,430
1842	199,507	15,306,468	

Abstract of the principal Provisions of the Law, concerning Auctions.

The duties are—

1. On wines and ardent spirits, foreign or domestic, 2 per cent.
2. On goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and sold in packages, bales, &c., as imported, 1 per cent.
3. On all other articles, subject to duties, 1/2 per cent.

The following articles are not subject to duties:—

1. Ships and vessels.
 2. Vessels of husbandry, harness, neat cattle, hogs, and sheep.
 3. Articles grown, produced, or manufactured in this state, except distilled spirits.
 4. All fabrics of cotton, wool, hemp, and flax, manufactured within the jurisdiction of the United States.
- Goods are exempted from auction duties, —
1. When they belong to the United States or this State.
 2. When sold by the authority of a court, or when sold by a public officer on account of any forfeiture or penalty, or under a distress for rent.
 3. The effects of a deceased person sold by executors or administrators, or by a person authorized by a surrogate.
 4. The effects of a bankrupt or insolvent sold by his assignees, appointed pursuant to law, or by a general assignment for the benefit of all his creditors.
 5. Goods damaged at sea and sold within 30 days after being landed, for the owners or insurers.

Any citizen of this State may sell at auction (except in the city of New York, where the goods are not subject to duty, but in the city of New York, or where the goods pay duties, the sale must be by an authorized auctioneer, his partner, or clerk. And any person selling contrary to the said provisions is guilty of a misdemeanor.

When an auctioneer cannot attend an auction by sickness, by duty as a firm, or by military orders, or on any other occasion, in a court of justice, or when he is temporarily absent from the place for which he is appointed, he may employ a partner to attend in his behalf.

He must give bond to the people of this State, with 2 freehold sureties, conditioned in the penalty of 5,000 dollars, for the payment of the duties imposed by law and accruing on the sales. The penalty of selling without the bond, is 125 dollars for each article offered for sale.

No auctioneer in any city shall at the same time have more than 1 house or store for holding his auctions, and shall, before entering on his office, designate in a writing, to be filed with the clerk of the city, such house or store, and his partner or partners. But goods sold in the packages in which they were imported, furniture, and such bulky articles as have usually been sold in warehouses, in the streets, or on the wharfs, need not be sold in the house or store designated in such writing, if such sales be advertised at least 4 days previously, in 1 or more newspapers.

Auctioneers are to receive 2 1/2 per cent. on the amount of all sales, unless by previous agreement in writing; and for de-

scussing and receiving an unlawful commission, shall forfeit 250 dollars, and refund the monies so received.

No auctioneer, on the same day and at the same place where his public auction shall be held, nor any other person at the same time and place, shall sell at private sale any goods liable to auction duties, under penalty of forfeiting their price.

Every auctioneer shall make out in writing a quarterly account, dated on the 1st days of April, July, October, and January in the year for which he is appointed, stating minutely —

1. The sum for which any goods shall have been sold at every auction held by or for him, from the time of his giving bond, or from the date of his last quarterly account.
2. The days on which sales were made, and the amount of each day's sale, designating the sales made by himself, or in his presence, and those made in his absence, by his partner or clerk, and the causes of his absence.
3. The amount of all private sales made by himself or his partner, and the times thereof.
4. The amount of duties chargeable on all sales made.

Every such account shall, within 30 days after its date, be exhibited, by auctioneers for a city, to the mayor or recorder; and if by an auctioneer for a county, to a county judge, and be verified by oath. Every partner of an auctioneer, and every clerk who has made any sales, shall also swear to his belief in the truth and justice of every particular of such account.

The State duties (together with the addition of 2 1/2 per cent. on the whole amount of them) are to be paid within 10 days after exhibiting such account.

Any deceit or fraud in violating any provision of the law respecting auctioneers, is made a misdemeanor, and subjects the offending party to the payment of treble damages to the party injured.

Coins.

Gold eagle.—This, with its subdivisions, is the only American gold coin. By the mint regulations of the United States, the eagle, which is the equivalent of 10 dollars, contained, previously to the 31st of July, 1834, 240 grains of standard gold, 18 2/3 grains pure, and 21 grains alloy. But by an act of Congress, which came into operation at the above date, the weight of the eagle was reduced to 230 grains of standard gold, 22 1/2 pure, and 20 grains alloy. In consequence of this alteration, the sovereign, that was formerly worth 4 dollars 27 cents, is now worth 4 dollars 27 cents, and is received by the Americans at this rate.

We do not know whether it was the object of the American government, in enacting this law, to substitute gold in the place of the former currency; but it will, perhaps, have that effect. Under the silver system, silver was over-valued in the American mint as compared with gold, so consistently, as to cause everybody's interest to pay his debts in silver rather than in gold; the latter was nearly banished from circulation, precisely in the same way that the over-valuation of gold in the

oro, or getting their... the State, by whom... certain restrictions... different banks sub-

British mint banished all silver coins of full weight from this country, and that the over-valuation of silver in the French mint banished gold... Under the present American system, it is said that gold is over-valued from 14 to 18 per cent, so that an individual who has to pay a debt of 100fr., and who employs his money for that purpose, will save from 14 to 18 fr. by using gold rather than silver.

money, and be receivable in all payments, by weight, for the payment of all debts and demands, from and after the 31st day of July, 1853... 1. The gold coins of Great Britain, Portugal, and Brazil, of not less than 32 carats fine, at the rate of 92 5-10 cents per pennyweight; 2. The gold coins of France, 20 carats fine, at the rate of 95 1-10 cents per pennyweight; 3. The gold coins of Spain, of the fineness of 20 carats 3-7-16 grains, at the rate of 80 3-10 cents per pennyweight. On this principle the following table has been calculated.

Gold Coins of Great Britain, Portugal & Brazil, 22 Carats fine.

Table with columns: Weight, Contents in pure gold, Value in U.S. currency, Value in U.S. currency at 34 1/2 cts. per gr. wt., and columns for dwt., gr., grains, d. e. m., d. c. m.

Gold Coins of France, 20 Carats fine.

Table with columns: Weight, Contents in pure gold, Value in U.S. currency, Value in U.S. currency at 35 1/2 cts. per gr. wt., and columns for dwt., gr., grains, d. e. m., d. c. m.

N. B. - There are several gold coins of Portugal and Brazil, the Joazeiro, the pieces of 16, 12, and 8 Estoccos, and the old and new cruzado, which are not included in the above table, because they are not 22 carats fine, and of course not legal tender.

Gold Coins of Spain, 20 Carats 5 7-16 Grains fine.

Table with columns: Weight, Contents in pure gold, Value in U.S. currency, Value in U.S. currency at 89 1/10 cts. per gr. wt., and columns for dwt., gr., grains, d. e. m., d. c. m.

* In the above table the coins are all presumed to be of full weight, but fractional parts of a mill have been disregarded in the calculation of their value. It will be found to be a sufficient approximation to the truth for ordinary purposes.

remain 9 months at the risk and expense (for fees of cartage, laborage and storage, as fixed by the Chamber of Commerce, see post) of the owner, without any duties being demandable.

the banks of New York of the Union. In proposed would have at this law, like its inefficacy for any for 1843 (p. 177.) had and been shut up, is, as now carried id ever be improved the banks liable to the with untouched that swindling engines, ve security for their king. The devicee view, are not of the aud and misconduct

from Returns made

of Sales not dutiable.

Table with 2 columns: Amount, Description

commission, shall forfeit received. In the same place where any other person as the same party liable receiving their price. in writing a quarterly bills, and appointed, stating mil have been sold at every time of his giving bond, account, and the amount of value by himself, or in absence, by his partner be by himself or his

Silver Coins. Dollar, val. 10 dimes, wt. 416 grs. stand. silver = 4 3/4 ster. Half dollar 5 do. 208 do. = 2 3/8 - Quarter 2 1/2 do. 104 do. = 1 1/8 - Dime 10 cents, 41 2/5ths = 0 9/16 - Half dime 5 do. 20 4/5ths = 0 4/16 - Standard silver is 1,485 parts pure, and 179 alloy.

Coins of the United States decimally divided. - 10 mills make 1 cent; 10 cents 1 dime; 10 dimes 1 dollar; 10 dollars 1 eagle.

Notes for reducing the Currencies of the different States into each other.

To reduce the currencies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia, into those of New York and North Carolina, - to the given sum add 1-5th part thereof. Of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, - to the given sum add 1-4th thereof. Of South Carolina and Georgia, - from the given sum subtract 2-10ths thereof.

To reduce New York and North Carolina into New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia, - from the given sum deduct 1-5th thereof. Into Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, - from the given sum deduct 1-4th thereof. Into South Carolina and Georgia, - multiply by 3 and 1-10th and divide the product by 5; or multiply by 24, and divide by 45.

To reduce Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, into New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia, - to the given sum add 1-5th thereof. Into Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, - to the given sum add 1-4th thereof. Into South Carolina and Georgia, - multiply by 3 and 1-10th and divide the product by 5; or multiply by 24, and divide by 45.

CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS. - Vessels must be reported to the collector by the master 24 hours after arrival; must come to a full entry 48 hours after arrival, at which time the commander answers to a detailed account of his cargo, stores, and passengers, and that he has deposited all letters in the post office, except such as are for his ship's husband, at which time he must also deposit the register, clearance, and cockpit in the Custom-house.

Warehousing. - There is no warehousing system, but goods are received into the public stores, where they are allowed to

all sales made. 10 days after its date, be the mayor or recorder; to a county judge, and of an auctioneer, and shall also agree to his very particular of such addition of 25 per cent. be paid within 10 days provision of the law measurement, and subjects of traffic damages to the persons, is the only Amens- of the United States, of 10 dollars, contained, 270 grains of standard rains alter. But, by an state, and the above duty, to 25th grains, of which In consequence of this for its worth 4 dollars cents, and it is received by object of the American substitute a gold in the perhaps, have that effect. over-ruled in the Attor- ed, as it consequently be- in silver rather than the most objectionable re- valuation of gold in the

At a station, on arrival, to proceed from district to district, and receiving a manifest, 1 dollar; receiving manifest and goods, and putting on vehicles, or otherwise, 1 dollar. (Special permits for a vessel to carry an fishery in a foreign port, 10 cents. For report and entry of any foreign goods imported in such last-mentioned vessel, 10 cents.)

Expenses of loading a vessel of 300 tons, in the port of New York, with the usual cargo exported from thence.		Dolls. & cts.	
Duty on discharging —	80	18	0 0
For discharging —	30	0	1 1
Coals, per chaldron	10	0	1 1
For loading —	20	0	1 1
Tobacco, per hhd.	20	0	1 1
Coffee, per bale	20	0	1 1
Peas or beans	20	0	1 1
Wheat, &c.	20	0	1 1

Rate of Wharfage.—Vessels under 50 tons, 10 cents per ton; 50 to 100, 15 cents; and for every 50 tons more, 15 cents additional in 75.

Wh.—Where are all private property.

Terms of Commission, recommended for general Adoption, and allowed by the New York Chamber of Commerce, when an Agreement subsists to the contrary.

On Foreign Business.—On the sale of merchandise, 1 per cent.—On the purchase of stocks, 1 per cent.—Specie, 1 per cent.—Purchase and shipment of merchandise, with fund in hand, on aggregate amount of bills and cheques, 1 per cent.—Drawing or indorsing bills, in all cases, 2 1/2 per cent.—Vessels, sailing or purchasing, 2 1/2 per cent.—Freighting freight, 5 per cent.—Collecting freight on general average, 2 1/2 per cent.—Outfit or disbursements, with funds in hand, 2 1/2 per cent.—Effecting marine insurances, in all cases, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent., on the amount insured, 1 per cent.—When the premium exceeds 10 per cent., on the amount of premium, 5 per cent.—Collecting dividends on stock, 1 per cent.—Collecting interest on bills, 1 per cent.—Adjusting and collecting insurance losses, 1 per cent.—Receiving and paying monies, from which no other commission is derived, 1 per cent.—Remittances in bills, in all cases, 1 per cent.—Landing and reshipping goods from vessels in distress, the vessel, 2 1/2 per cent.—In the sale of merchandise, 2 1/2 per cent.—Purchase and shipment of merchandise, or accepting for purchase, without funds or property in hand, 2 1/2 per cent.—Sale or purchase of stocks, 1 per cent.—Sale or purchase of specie, 1 per cent.—Sale of bills of exchange with indorsement, 1 per cent.—Sale of bank notes or drafts not current, 1 per cent.—Netting or indorsing bills of exchange, 2 1/2 per cent.—Netting or purchasing vessels, 2 1/2 per cent.—Chartering in proceed to charter, per ton, 2 1/2 per cent.—Procuring or collecting freight, 2 1/2 per cent.—Outfit or disbursements, 2 1/2 per cent.—Collecting general average, 2 1/2 per cent.—Effecting marine insurances, in all cases when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent., on the amount insured, 1 per cent.—When the premium exceeds 10 per cent., on the amount of premium, 5 per cent.—Adjusting and collecting insurance losses, 2 1/2 per cent.—Collecting dividends on stocks, 1 per cent.—Collecting bills, and paying over the amount, or receiving and paying monies from which no other commission is derived, 1 per cent.—Receiving and forwarding goods, on the vessel, 1 per cent.—The same when ordered for duty or demurrage, 1 per cent.—Remittances in bills, in all cases, 1 per cent.—The above commissions to be exclusive of the guarantee of debts for sales on credit, storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred. The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietor of the goods. When bills are remitted for collection, and are returned under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, the same commission to be charged as though they were duly honoured. On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or re shipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.

On articles on which the rate is fixed by weight, it is understood to be on the gross weight; and on liquor, oil, &c., on which the rate refers to gallons, it is understood to be on the whole capacity of the casks, whether full or not. The proprietor of goods to be at the expense of putting them in store, stowing away, and turning out of store.—All goods taken on storage to be subject to 1 month's storage; if taken out within 15 days after the expiration of the month, to pay 1/2 month's storage; if after 15 days, a whole month's storage.

On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or re shipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.

RATE OF STORAGE, chargeable per month, as established by the New York Chamber of Commerce.

	Cents.
Almonds, in fruits or packages, cwt.	6
Alum, in casks or bags, per ton	40
Ashes, pot and pearl, bbl.	8
Beef, bbl.	8
Bottles, quart, in mass, or of hump, &c.	8
Bark, quercitron, in casks, ton	60
Baggins, cotton, loose or in bales, pc.	3
Butter in firkins of 60 lbs., per box	3
Brandy. See Liquors.	
Candles, in boxes of 50 or 60 lbs., box	2
Chocolate, in boxes of 50 lbs., box	2
Cocoa, in bags, per cwt.	2 1/2
Cocoa, in casks, ditto	2 1/2
Coffee, in casks, ditto	2 1/2
Coffee, in bags, ditto	2 1/2
Copperas, in casks, per ton	3
Copper, in pigs, ditto	30
in sheets or bolts, ton	20
brassier's bottoms, ton	18
Cordage, per ton	10
Cream, in snags or boxes, per cwt.	10
Cotton, American, in bales, 300 lbs. ditto in round bales, ditto	18
West Indian, in proportion to round.	9
East Indian, in bales, per 300 lbs.	5
Cheese, casks, boxes, or loose, cwt.	10
Duck, heavy, per bolt	10
Favers or Russia sheeting, piece	10
Dry goods, in boxes or bales, 40 cubic feet	40
Fish, pickled, per bbl.	6
dry, in casks or boxes, cwt.	4
in bulk, per cwt.	2 1/2
Flax, in frails, boxes, or drums, cwt.	60
Flax, per ton	60

	Cents.
Flax-seed, or other dry articles, in tiers of 7 bushels per case	10
Flour, or other dry articles, in bbls.	4
in drums of 25 to 30 feet	10
in bbls., of 10 to 20 feet	10
Grain, in bulk, per bushel	1
in bags, per cwt.	1
Glass, window, in boxes of 50 feet	10
Gins. See Liquors.	
Iron, per ton	75
Hide, dried or salted, per hide	10
Hardware, in casks of 40 cubic feet	40
Indigo, in casks or boxes, per cwt.	30
Iron, in bars or bolts, per ton	30
in boxes, sheets, or railroads, ton	30
Liquors. See Liquors.	
in casks	50
in pipes casks, 100 gallons	50
bottled, in casks, or boxes, doz. bottles	10
Lead, per side	1
in casks of 60 lbs.	4
Lead, pig or sheet, per ton	30
dry or gr. in oil, ditto	30
Molasses, per hhd., of 110 gallons (other casks in proportion)	30
Nails, in casks, per cwt.	30
Oil, in casks, 110 gallons	30
in chests of 30 casks, per chest	4
bottled, in boxes or baskets, doz.	10
Paints, in casks or kegs, per ton	40
per barrel	8
Paper, in bags, per cwt.	10
in sheets, per sheet	10
Perforated, in casks or bags, cwt.	30
in sheets, per sheet	10
Rags, in bales, per cwt.	1
Matted, in casks	1
ditto, in boxes	1
in other packages, per cwt.	1
Rum. See Liquors.	
Salt-petre, in bags, per cwt.	3
in casks, ditto	10
Salt, in bags, or bulk, per bushel	10
Shot, in casks, per ton	30
Soap, in boxes of 50 to 60 lbs.	10
Steel, in bars or bundles, per ton	30
in boxes or tubs, ditto	40
Sugar, raw, in boxes or boxes, per cwt.	10
ditto, in casks, ditto	10
refined, in casks or packages	10
in boxes or barrels, per cwt.	10
Tallow, in casks or barrels, cwt.	10
Tin, boxes, in whole chests	10
ditto, in chests	10
green or black, in chests	10
in boxes, in proportion to 1 chest.	10
Tin, blocks, per ton	10
in boxes of usual size, per box	10
Tobacco, in hhd., per hhd.	30
in bales or boxes	30
Wine. See Liquors.	
Woods, for drying, under cover, per ton	50
Whiting, in yards	35
Whiting, in hhd., per ton	30

On articles on which the rate is fixed by weight, it is understood to be on the gross weight; and on liquor, oil, &c., on which the rate refers to gallons, it is understood to be on the whole capacity of the casks, whether full or not. The proprietor of goods to be at the expense of putting them in store, stowing away, and turning out of store.—All goods taken on storage to be subject to 1 month's storage; if taken out within 15 days after the expiration of the month, to pay 1/2 month's storage; if after 15 days, a whole month's storage.

RATE OF CARTAGE.

	D.	C.
Als or beer, per hhd.	1	0
hhd. from 50 to 90 gallons	1	0
Alum or copperas, from 12 to 16 cwt., per hhd.	2	6
from 15 to 30 cwt.	3	0
over 1 ton	4	0
Bar iron, per load	2	0
Beards and plank, per load	2	0
Brandy, pipe over 100 gallons	3	0
Bread, 4 tierces	2	0
Bricks, per load	2	0
handed and piled	2	0
Building or paving stones, load	2	0
Cider, sherry, and wine	2	0
Cider, cheese, and cocoa	2	0
City end sand, 12 bushels	2	0
Coal, half chaldron, per load	2	0
Cocoa, per load	2	0
Coffee, in bags or bbls.	2	0
above 10 cwt., per hhd.	2	0
Cordage, small, per load	2	0
Cotton, per load of 3 bales	2	0
Cut wood, per load	2	0
Dried fish, loose, load	2	0
dry, per load	2	0
Barrenware, loose, per load	2	0
European goods, per load	2	0
Flax, in bales and bundles, load	2	0
Flax-seed, 3 tierces	2	0
Flax-wood, per load	2	0
Flour, in bags, 12 per load	2	0
7 bbls. per load	2	0
Germans or fruits, per load	2	0
Gins, pipe over 100 gallons	2	0
Hay, in trusses, bundles, bales, per load	2	0
in casks	2	0
Heading or staves, per load	2	0
Hide, 50 per load	2	0
Hemp, in bales or bundles, per load	2	0
loose, not over 12 cwt.	2	0

ed from a foreign port having passengers, and not hereinbefore declared subject to quarantine, shall, on her arrival at the quarantine ground, be subject to visitation by the health officer, and shall not be detained beyond the time requisite for due examination, unless she shall have on board during the voyage some case of small-pox, or infectious or contagious disease, in which case she shall be subject to such quarantine as the health officer shall prescribe; and it shall be the duty of the health officer, whenever he thinks it necessary for the preservation of the public health, to cause the persons on board of any vessel to be vaccinated.

§ 17. Nothing in this act contained shall prevent any vessel arriving at the quarantine from again going to sea before breaking ball.

§ 18. The commissioners of health shall admit into the Marine Hospital any passenger who shall have paid hospital moneys, during any temporary sickness, within one year after such payment. The mayor of the city of New York, the resident physician, and the commissioners of health of said city, shall constitute a board of appeal from any direction or regulation of the health officer, with power to grant such and so much relief as may appear to the board thus constituted, or a majority of them, expedient and proper; the decision of the board of health, however, to be paramount.

§ 19. Every appeal from a decision of the health officer shall be made by serving upon him a written notice of such appeal, within twelve hours after such decision, (Sundays excepted), and the health officer shall make a return in writing, including the facts on which the decision is founded, within twelve hours after the receipt of such notice, (Sundays excepted) to the mayor, who shall immediately call a meeting of the board of appeal, and shall be president of said board, and said appeal shall be heard and decided within twenty-four hours thereafter, (Sundays excepted), and the decision of the board of appeal from shall be suspended until the determination of the appeal.

§ 20. Every master of a vessel subject to quarantine or visitation, arriving in the port of New York, who shall refuse or neglect either—

1. To proceed with and anchor his vessel at the place assigned for quarantine, at the time of his arrival;
2. To submit his vessel, cargo, and passengers to the examination of the health officer, and to furnish all necessary information to enable that officer to determine to what length of quarantine and other regulations they ought respectively to be subjected to;
3. To remain with his vessel at quarantine during the period assigned for her quarantine, and while at quarantine, to comply with the directions and regulations prescribed by law, and with such as any of the officers of health, by virtue of the authority given to the president of said board, and said appeal in his vessel, his cargo, himself, or his crew, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by a fine not exceeding 2000 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding twelve months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 21. Every master of a vessel hailed by a pilot, who shall

1. Give false information to such pilot relative to the condition of his vessel, crew, passengers, or cargo, or the health of the place or places whence he came, or refuse to give such information as shall be lawfully required;
2. Or hinder or obstruct any pilot, or permit any person except a pilot to come on board his vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of his cargo, before his vessel shall have been visited and examined by the health officer;
3. Or shall place with his vessel near the city of New York, than the place of quarantine to which he shall be directed;

shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And every person who shall land from any such vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of her cargo, under the circumstances, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment.

§ 22. Every person who shall violate any provision of this act, or neglect or refuse to comply with the directions and regulations which any of the officers of health may prescribe, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject, for each offence, to the like punishment.

§ 23. Every person who shall oppose or obstruct the health officer in performing the duties required of him, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding 500 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding three months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 24. Every person who, without authority of the health officer, commissioners of health, or board of health, shall go within the enclosures of the quarantine ground, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding 100 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding thirty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 25. Every person who shall go on board of, or have any communication, intercourse or dealing with any vessel at quarantine, without the permission of the health officer, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And such offender shall be detained at quarantine so long as the health officer shall direct, not exceeding twenty days, unless he shall be taken sick of some pestilential or infectious disease.

§ 26. Every person who shall violate the provisions of the article of title 2nd of chapter 14th of part first of the Revised Statutes, by refusing or neglecting to obey or comply with any order, prohibition or regulation made by the board of health, in the exercise of the powers therein conferred, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court by which the offender shall be tried.

§ 27. Articles 1st, 3rd, 4th, and 6th, of title 2nd of chapter 14th of part first of the Revised Statutes: an act entitled "An act to amend title 2nd, chapter 14th, part first of the Revised Statutes, relating to the quarantine regulations of the port of New York," passed May 2, 1850: an act entitled "An act relative to the quarantine laws," passed May 7, 1851; an act entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes relating to the public health," passed April 13, 1854; and all other laws inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

We have derived these statements from the *New York Annual Register*; *The Picture of New York*; *Hunt's Commercial Magazine*; and valuable private communications.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

Trade and Navigation of the United States, for the Year ending the 30th of June, 1847.—(From the Official Accounts, printed by order of Congress, 14th December, 1847.)

Statement of the Commerce of each State and Territory, for the year commencing the 1st of July, 1846, and ending the 30th of June, 1847.

States.	Value of Exports.						Value of Imports.			
	Domestic Produce.			Foreign Produce.			Total of American and Foreign Produce.	In Foreign Vessels.		Total.
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.		In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	
Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.		
Maine	1,453,009	100,282	1,614,071	4,755	15,377	20,132	1,634,203	445,745	198,311	574,056
N. Hampshire	231,085	1,807	232,892	1,071	883	1,914	1,890	13,150	3,783	16,933
Vermont	7,942,656	1,320,121	9,262,777	5,313,981	451,105	1,985,876	11,248,653	18,189,238	16,877,770	34,447,088
Massachusetts	190,586	838	191,424	835	55	192,369	301,073	4,414	305,489	235,611
Rhode Island	565,648	24,854	590,502	490	490	591,000	189,199	571,871	5,053	275,823
Connecticut	39,513,500	12,049,980	44,163,480	5,777,711	1,450,147	5,027,868	49,364,368	71,084,398	13,089,554	84,167,552
New York	74,481,718	3,116,793	77,598,511	18,426	4,069	77,602,580	1,426,128	4,669	1,428,771	4,687,771
New Jersey	6,146,513	2,116,793	8,263,311	273,466	7,614	281,080	8,544,391	8,845,773	743,745	9,287,116
Pennsylvania	185,013	50,446	235,459	3,426	2,548	238,007	235,459	18,152	253,611	14,722
Maryland	6,295,076	2,836,244	9,131,320	94,530	35,514	129,984	9,226,414	8,928,645	503,771	4,432,314
D. Columbia	108,891	15,372	124,263	184,229	12,269	196,498	85,049	25,049	110,098	25,049
Virginia	3,489,110	1,346,358	5,635,468	10,710	1,966	12,706	5,638,374	333,091	53,536	586,127
N. Carolina	1,919,371	2,919	1,922,290	2,919	2,919	1,925,209	984,919	136,083	3,001	142,380
S. Carolina	6,058,387	4,369,759	10,428,146	472	2,866	5,371	10,431,517	1,391,911	378,717	1,520,628
Georgia	2,080,300	5,601,249	5,718,149	-	472	5,718,149	5,718,149	117,511	59,606	207,180
Florida	1,810,336	1,810,336	1,810,336	1,900	461	2,361	1,810,336	103,180	119	143,369
Alabama	5,197,809	2,877,371	9,075,180	-	-	-	9,075,180	80,492	209,669	300,161
Louisiana	25,609,819	15,176,985	41,786,805	195,204	70,136	265,340	42,052,153	7,437,990	1,681,073	9,222,969
Mississippi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	51	51
Tennessee	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,256	-	1,256
Missouri	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	107,104	-	107,104
Illio	303,100	575,844	778,944	-	-	-	778,944	88,381	2,300	100,681
Kentucky	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26,256	-	26,256
Michigan	47,008	48,607	95,705	-	-	-	95,705	37,300	259	37,559
Indiana	46,100	14,060	52,160	-	-	-	52,100	268	-	268
Ohio	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30,687	9,739	39,426
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	97,841,274	29,796,192	150,637,461	5,975,138	2,036,200	8,011,338	158,618,622	11,541,537	53,043,281	162,845,638

ground any south of the quarantine, when he shall the vessel or her cargo, time grounds, or some cargo, bedding, and the related, cleaned, and disinfected, as time as shall necessary to prevent infection of such cargo, seem incapable of persons arrive, in vessel antine until fifteen days port of her departure, essential or infectious, and ten days after her discharged by him. If under quarantine, or if jail the same free conveyed to the city of designated by the mayor reported in writing health of said city the lien to grant such percent to be inoperative without of health, or the mayor their opinion it will not permit the cargo of any vessel to be carried up the North of East or same shall approach the Mayor of the city, by the commissioners of health, or the mayor shall be designated the north part of her main through the range of the quarantine ground to be subject to visitation to load or unload vessels the health officer, and the master shall be unable to do so for the master of the vessel shall be maintained on such vessel, and the cost of such expense shall have application of the master confine in any suitable of such vessel charged by the health officer, who cannot be secured on any vessel continuing during such quarantine, and the expenses thereof shall be paid by the master. In case the vessel is subject to such quarantine arriving or departing, the mayor and commissioners of health shall be subject to visitation by the health officer, and shall not be detained beyond the time requisite for due examination, unless she shall have on board during the voyage some case of small-pox, or infectious or contagious disease, in which case she shall be subject to such quarantine as the health officer shall prescribe; and it shall be the duty of the health officer, whenever he thinks it necessary for the preservation of the public health, to cause the persons on board of any vessel to be vaccinated.

§ 17. Nothing in this act contained shall prevent any vessel arriving at the quarantine from again going to sea before breaking ball.

§ 18. The commissioners of health shall admit into the Marine Hospital any passenger who shall have paid hospital moneys, during any temporary sickness, within one year after such payment. The mayor of the city of New York, the resident physician, and the commissioners of health of said city, shall constitute a board of appeal from any direction or regulation of the health officer, with power to grant such and so much relief as may appear to the board thus constituted, or a majority of them, expedient and proper; the decision of the board of health, however, to be paramount.

§ 19. Every appeal from a decision of the health officer shall be made by serving upon him a written notice of such appeal, within twelve hours after such decision, (Sundays excepted), and the health officer shall make a return in writing, including the facts on which the decision is founded, within twelve hours after the receipt of such notice, (Sundays excepted) to the mayor, who shall immediately call a meeting of the board of appeal, and shall be president of said board, and said appeal shall be heard and decided within twenty-four hours thereafter, (Sundays excepted), and the decision of the board of appeal from shall be suspended until the determination of the appeal.

§ 20. Every master of a vessel subject to quarantine or visitation, arriving in the port of New York, who shall refuse or neglect either—

1. To proceed with and anchor his vessel at the place assigned for quarantine, at the time of his arrival;
2. To submit his vessel, cargo, and passengers to the examination of the health officer, and to furnish all necessary information to enable that officer to determine to what length of quarantine and other regulations they ought respectively to be subjected to;
3. To remain with his vessel at quarantine during the period assigned for her quarantine, and while at quarantine, to comply with the directions and regulations prescribed by law, and with such as any of the officers of health, by virtue of the authority given to the president of said board, and said appeal in his vessel, his cargo, himself, or his crew, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by a fine not exceeding 2000 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding twelve months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 21. Every master of a vessel hailed by a pilot, who shall

1. Give false information to such pilot relative to the condition of his vessel, crew, passengers, or cargo, or the health of the place or places whence he came, or refuse to give such information as shall be lawfully required;
2. Or hinder or obstruct any pilot, or permit any person except a pilot to come on board his vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of his cargo, before his vessel shall have been visited and examined by the health officer;
3. Or shall place with his vessel near the city of New York, than the place of quarantine to which he shall be directed;

shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And every person who shall land from any such vessel, or unlade or tranship any portion of her cargo, under the circumstances, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment.

§ 22. Every person who shall violate any provision of this act, or neglect or refuse to comply with the directions and regulations which any of the officers of health may prescribe, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject, for each offence, to the like punishment.

§ 23. Every person who shall oppose or obstruct the health officer in performing the duties required of him, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding 500 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding three months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 24. Every person who, without authority of the health officer, commissioners of health, or board of health, shall go within the enclosures of the quarantine ground, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be punished by fine not exceeding 100 dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding thirty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

§ 25. Every person who shall go on board of, or have any communication, intercourse or dealing with any vessel at quarantine, without the permission of the health officer, shall be guilty of the like offence, and be subject to the like punishment. And such offender shall be detained at quarantine so long as the health officer shall direct, not exceeding twenty days, unless he shall be taken sick of some pestilential or infectious disease.

§ 26. Every person who shall violate the provisions of the article of title 2nd of chapter 14th of part first of the Revised Statutes, by refusing or neglecting to obey or comply with any order, prohibition or regulation made by the board of health, in the exercise of the powers therein conferred, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, at the discretion of the court by which the offender shall be tried.

§ 27. Articles 1st, 3rd, 4th, and 6th, of title 2nd of chapter 14th of part first of the Revised Statutes: an act entitled "An act to amend title 2nd, chapter 14th, part first of the Revised Statutes, relating to the quarantine regulations of the port of New York," passed May 2, 1850: an act entitled "An act relative to the quarantine laws," passed May 7, 1851; an act entitled "An act to amend the Revised Statutes relating to the public health," passed April 13, 1854; and all other laws inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

the following Years, June, with a Column as taken.

Year	Population of the United States according to the Official Census.
1815	7,530,903
1820	9,637,999
1825	12,788,742
1830	17,068,666
1835	21,585,053
1840	26,064,541
1845	31,217,000
1850	36,898,984
1855	42,833,000
1860	49,191,000
1865	56,200,000
1870	63,900,000
1875	72,400,000
1880	81,500,000
1885	91,200,000
1890	101,600,000
1895	112,700,000
1900	124,600,000
1905	137,300,000
1910	150,700,000
1915	164,800,000
1920	179,600,000
1925	195,100,000
1930	211,300,000
1935	228,200,000
1940	245,800,000
1945	264,100,000
1950	283,100,000
1955	302,700,000
1960	322,900,000
1965	343,700,000
1970	365,100,000
1975	387,100,000
1980	409,700,000
1985	432,900,000
1990	456,700,000
1995	481,100,000
2000	506,100,000
2005	531,700,000
2010	557,900,000
2015	584,700,000
2020	612,100,000

Account of the registered, enrolled, and licensed Tonnage of the United States, from 1815.

Years.	Registered Tonnage.		Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage.		Total Tonnage.	Years.	Registered Tonnage.		Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage.		Total Tonnage.
	Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.			Tons.	95ths.	Tons.	95ths.	
1815	853,291	74	215,838	80	1,069,129	1831	697,451	92	617,994	92	1,315,445
1816	800,759	65	571,438	95	1,372,197	1832	752,460	83	752,460	83	1,504,920
1817	809,734	70	590,186	68	1,399,921	1833	750,026	73	856,123	82	1,606,149
1818	806,084	61	609,925	61	1,416,009	1834	857,438	62	901,468	67	1,758,907
1819	618,930	44	617,621	17	1,236,551	1835	885,921	69	885,921	69	1,871,842
1820	619,017	55	601,118	66	1,220,135	1836	897,274	61	984,338	14	1,881,612
1821	618,066	40	678,002	30	1,296,068	1837	910,447	59	1,086,638	60	1,997,085
1822	628,130	41	696,518	71	1,324,648	1838	929,691	88	1,173,047	60	2,102,738
1823	638,920	76	696,011	57	1,334,931	1839	831,241	84	1,269,324	27	2,104,565
1824	660,812	60	718,100	87	1,378,912	1840	899,765	76	1,490,988	35	2,390,753
1825	700,767	8	728,323	69	1,429,090	1841	975,558	42	1,884,940	90	2,864,038
1826	737,978	15	736,812	68	1,474,790	1842	975,558	74	1,117,031	90	2,092,589
1827	747,170	44	873,437	34	1,620,607	1843	1,009,263	61	1,156,297	98	2,165,561
1828	819,619	57	929,772	50	1,749,391	1844	1,068,764	91	1,211,330	11	2,959,935
1829	650,142	68	610,658	85	1,260,800	1845	1,293,172	44	1,321,839	57	2,614,012
1830	675,475	33	615,201	10	1,290,676						

* The decrease of shipping in 1829 is apparently only. From 1790 down to that year, the returns were made up from the registers, without making any allowance for vessels worn out, lost, sold, or captured. This glaring defect was, if noticed at all, not obviated till 1822. No dependence can, therefore, be placed on any previous statement as to the amount of American tonnage.

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the Value of the Imports from, and of the Exports to, each Foreign Country; also the Tonnage of American and Foreign Vessels, arriving from, and departing to, each Foreign Country, during the Year ending the 30th of June, 1845.

Countries.	Value of Exports.				Value of Imports.				Navigation.			
	Domestic Produce.		Foreign Produce.		Domestic Produce.		Foreign Produce.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Entered the U. S.	Cleared from the U. S.	Entered the U. S.	Cleared from the U. S.
Russia	1,227,327	356,843	1,584,170	180,493	18,303	9,109	1,165	1,996				
Prussia	509,007	65,114	574,121	667,121	412	847	90	9,261				
Sweden and Norway	627,038	950,567	1,577,605	27,261	275,298	2,125	549	13,139	6,248			
Swedish West Indies	68,816	32,119	100,935	60,538	563	335	135	80				
Denmark	22,429	124,668	147,097	20,501	145,167	1,010	1,157	2,118				
Danish West Indies	760,499	833,503	1,594,002	994,499	38,312	26,920	3,669	1,437				
Hanse Towns	2,918,257	4,106,927	7,025,184	4,245,029	13,008	18,016	5,825	39,097				
Holland	951,341	2,753,780	3,705,121	968,297	3,023,947	2,827	2,659	5,023	16,547			
Dutch East Indies	538,609	129,151	667,760	72,007	20,158	3,914	4,592	9,292				
West Indies	365,321	304,080	669,401	375,708	3,708	5,025	3,029	8,603				
Guyana	41,347	47,737	89,084	1,872	49,609	6,334	6,740	2,656	4,542			
Belgium	709,562	1,435,724	2,145,286	1,858,107	11,740	95,289	1,400	1,991				
England	44,681,838	1,316,638	46,000,476	4,767,844	4,284,269	84,314	37,646	196,728	198,921			
Scotland	708,187	2,611,874	3,320,061	54,936	2,966,810	11,855	14,732	41,847	30,810			
Ireland	104,657	4,067,260	4,171,917	105,471	907	1,412	21,276	597				
Guiltiar	36,119	426,107	462,226	163,564	59,471	4,071	11,691	1,007				
Malta	22,311	14,909	37,220	19,309	989	989	5,094	1,165				
British East Indies	1,276,531	69,221	1,345,752	131,067	43,138	9,500	10,314	1,665				
Australia	69,221	790	70,011	790	70,311	1,319	413	807				
Cape of Good Hope	96,439	35,743	132,182	35,743	413	498	207	261				
Mauritius	36,329	13,385	49,714	13,385	155	368	220	364				
Honduras	304,818	188,494	493,312	239,915	4,548	3,869	857	663				
British Guiana	7,957	116,667	124,624	117,48	4,072	19,295	4,803	2,901				
West Indies	729,560	4,067,260	4,796,820	4,284,269	84,314	37,646	196,728	198,921				
N. American colonies	2,020,963	4,644,968	1,309,560	6,024,226	694,539	677,935	463,746	512,004				
France on the Atlantic	90,141,250	1,350,432	91,491,682	14,322,685	115,740	121,815	9,505	10,836				
France on the Mediterranean	1,414,173	978,732	2,392,905	1,177,119	16,677	19,417	4,598	660				
French West Indies	415,032	544,455	959,487	564,103	24,799	33,150	4,564	1,294				
Mexique & French fisheries	151	67,052	67,203	57,496	1,919	1,825	1,825	1,825				
French Guiana	50,306	57,052	107,358	50,306	1,919	1,919	1,919	1,919				
French African ports	5,908	5,908	11,816	5,908	155	368	220	364				
Spain on the Atlantic	117,158	271,823	388,981	156,183	1,643	6,528	1,676	672				
Spain on the Mediterranean	954,636	55,790	1,010,426	84,508	10,127	3,909	4,073	1,056				
Teneriffe and other Canaries	35,032	5,935	41,000	41,000	1,643	3,293	467	574				
Manila & Philippine Islands	633,056	119,883	752,939	35,315	154,578	4,292	3,000	3,987				
Cuba	6,601,414	6,908,808	13,510,222	6,264,754	193,183	171,992	9,238	16,193				
Other Spanish West Indies	296,906	121,550	418,456	1,100,000	61,520	29,575	629	629				
Portugal	168,674	39,312	207,986	189,769	10,266	9,003	1,100	990				
Madaira	28,753	8,831	37,584	1,096	813	3,081	509	491				
Fazal and other Azores	2,579	50,599	53,178	2,579	184	4,226	105	170				
Cape de Verd Islands	1,901,577	687,369	2,588,946	617,921	5,186	6,994	3,164	914				
Italy	80,423	70,625	151,048	334,627	70,625	12,713	6,845	5,698				
Sardinia	19,959	162,827	182,786	192,797	1,134	4,332	1,104	1,411				
Trieste and other Austrian ports	341,500	1,435,193	1,776,693	1,801,878	4,472	16,870	2,101	9,108				
Ionian Republic	781,517	115,555	897,072	49,546	165,069	5,915	1,497	2,724				
Porcy, Levant, and Egypt	1,386,627	1,327,981	2,714,608	1,405,440	34,772	27,919	7,174	534				
China	7,285,914	4,079,311	11,365,225	7,285,914	4,079,311	17,477	478	478				
Texas	255,284	1,718,738	1,974,022	365,199	1,974,022	13,740	1,907	2,221				
Mexico	1,718,738	784,153	2,502,891	1,152,331	1,627	16,934	3,023	4,540				
Central America	63,869	41,544	105,413	67,049	1,690	1,019	628	187				
New Grenada	1,691	71,927	73,618	30,660	3,667	3,667	3,667	3,667				
Venezuela	1,276,275	535,545	1,811,820	725,150	12,794	10,733	1,765	1,117				
Brazil	6,084,599	2,415,567	8,500,166	2,637,950	30,250	40,716	2,181	4,077				
Argentine Republic	1,560,008	267,673	1,827,681	1,560,008	11,623	11,623	11,623	11,623				
Chilipian Republic	30,573	140,986	171,559	16,150	157,136	369	3,232	814				
Chili	1,123,690	1,747,360	2,871,050	1,848,191	4,272	6,973	1,071	330				
Peru	336,114	57,549	393,663	35,414	343	3,003	1,003	1,003				
South America generally	106,110	17,903	124,013	140,915	312,748	963	6,717	2,558				
Asia generally	374,126	21,575	395,701	79,343	16,993	11,733	10,592	400				
Africa generally	182,598	378	182,976	182,976	182,976	182,976	182,976	182,976				
Europe generally	136,565	416,025	552,590	473,089	67,214	70,229	7,499	7,499				
West Indies generally	245	1,666	1,911	245	1,666	1,911	1,911	1,911				
East Indies generally	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
North-west coast of America	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
South-west coast of America	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
South-east coast of America	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
Uncertain places	1,666	1,666	3,332	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666	1,666				
Total	317,251,464	99,299,776	416,551,240	111,616,990	2,038,486	6,053,977	910,563	930,275				

Year	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1815	281,530	4,088,823	4,612,507
1820	345,902	4,717	5,200
1825	6,794	47,104	17,096
1830	108,152	3,967	6,115
1835	538,273	17,096	3,967
1840	1,081,414	31,5	1,500
1845	2,158,984	29,466	3,446
1850	3,148,902	47,104	17,096
1855	4,137,812	3,967	6,115
1860	5,126,720	17,096	3,967
1865	6,115,628	31,5	1,500
1870	7,104,536	47,104	17,096
1875	8,093,444	62,700	22,600
1880	9,082,352	78,300	28,200
1885	10,071,260	93,900	33,800
1890	11,060,168	109,500	39,400
1895	12,049,076	125,100	45,000
1900	13,038,984	140,700	50,600
1905	14,028,892	156,300	56,200
1910			

Abstract of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the U. States on the last Day of June, 1845, showing of what it consisted, and how it was employed.

Districts.	Registered.		Enrolled and licensed.		Licensed, under 20 Tons.		Aggregate Tonnage of each District.	Registered in the Whale Fishery.	Registered in the Nonum Tonnage.	Proportion of the enrolled and licensed Tonnage employed in the				
	Permanent.	Temporary.	Permanent.	Temporary.	Coasting Trade.	Cod Fishery.				Whale Fishery.	Steam Navigation.			
Pennamaddy, Maine	1,247 54	1,165 61	1,253 51	-	110 49	68 50	12,055 32	-	-	1,845 32	335 24	545 53	-	-
Machias	1,255 68	1,018 61	1,275 31	-	57 85	561 86	16,899 44	-	-	2,675 66	323 24	799 48	-	-
Proctor's Bay	2,145 14	2,217 30	2,165 44	-	83 89	417 34	31,411 74	-	-	26,775 90	1,240 13	177 81	-	-
Bridport	2,558 80	2,055 02	2,406 64	-	42 81	1,438 65	36,297 38	-	-	32,465 55	3,065 28	114 75	-	-
Wiscasset	4,355 39	1,230 83	3,124 56	-	50 86	473 33	62,285 87	-	350 36	17,911 71	1,598 49	1,245 65	-	993 74
Bath	36,850 35	5,158 19	19,875 09	-	72 87	315 69	64,191 65	-	-	14,759 89	5,215 44	1,245 65	-	309 13
Wiscasset	57,818 11	7,886 75	19,480 25	-	39 69	82 04	7,091 16	-	-	1,786 59	415 82	29 14	-	-
Keeganbank	4,114 29	154 52	2,550 26	-	39 69	82 04	1,203 89	-	-	1,786 59	415 82	29 14	-	-
Keeganbank	13,443 07	1,406 36	8,516 05	234 92	17 33	182 89	83,270 75	348 36	-	7,401 68	965 47	398 76	-	1,689 81
White's Cove, Vermont	16,066 92	245 43	5,596 59	-	-	-	31,938 91	-	-	2,025 26	3,161 89	909 29	-	-
Newburyport, Massachusetts	16,945 13	1,898 18	11,181 85	21 48	-	684 84	29,965 29	-	-	10,265 84	1,039 69	9,831 63	-	-
Gloucester	14,558 05	40,294 47	29,437 13	-	476 53	418 35	227,094 54	-	570 33	116 40	6,588 09	139 13	-	3,178 17
Merrimack	2,865 08	174 00	2,997 16	-	70 89	57 75	13,923 72	1,053 63	-	1,136 14	1,591 76	6,282 25	-	-
Boston	102,948 03	2,400 14	8,514 58	-	170 82	298 18	113,281 57	86,296 57	-	1,591 76	1,591 76	6,282 25	-	-
Fall River	4,474 06	2,273 84	3,615 21	-	107 00	21 74	4,827 21	3,475 21	-	31,660 54	1,652 24	6,282 25	-	-
Edgartown	37,061 91	808 07	9,318 05	-	14 44	59 58	13,653 15	86,298 31	-	18,403 94	918 77	7,181 05	-	47 81
Nantucket	10,670 44	538 54	5,240 51	-	11 14	121 43	21,794 73	8,580 21	-	18,403 94	10,891 43	10,891 43	-	-
Breton	5,835 94	1,258 09	4,583 21	-	292 47	195 76	12,413 57	2,283 46	-	2,283 46	33 46	102 55	-	479 22
Norport	5,835 94	1,258 09	4,583 21	-	138 08	765 57	40,266 07	19,941 79	-	6,211 50	218 86	311 11	-	1,283 50
New London	90,298 72	883 10	9,548 49	141 87	138 08	508 26	17,571 46	6,116 05	-	9,248 40	30 01	400 70	-	819 26
New Bedford	11,487 10	884 20	3,768 88	-	138 08	508 26	17,571 46	6,116 05	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,093 61
Wareham	1,823 55	-	1,226 24	-	180 89	25 61	15,210 34	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	378 14
Wareham	-	-	3,198 34	-	-	-	15,210 34	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	11,410 55	-	-	-	11,410 55	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	312 49	-	-	-	312 49	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	1,435 79	-	-	-	1,435 79	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	34,570 29	-	-	-	34,570 29	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	290,279 49	10,598 17	-	-	290,279 49	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	18,907 35	-	-	-	18,907 35	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	5,596 61	-	-	-	5,596 61	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	6,677 89	-	-	-	6,677 89	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	31,837 90	509 00	-	-	31,837 90	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	207,467 53	40,819 02	-	-	207,467 53	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	18,907 35	-	-	-	18,907 35	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	-	4,998 12	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	5,596 61	-	-	-	5,596 61	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50
Wareham	-	-	6,677 89	-	-	-	6,677 89	-	-	12,265 51	134 85	5,198 51	-	1,283 50

Bills of Exchange.—By a revised law of the State of New York, the following damages on bills drawn or negotiated in this State, and presented for non-payment, are allowed, viz.:—
 Bills drawn on the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia or district of Columbia, 3 per cent.
 North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent.
 Any other date or territory of the U. States, or any other place, or adjacent to this continent, and north of the equator, or any British or other foreign possessions in the West Indies, or elsewhere on the Western Atlantic Ocean, or any port or place in Europe, 10 per cent.
 Such damages shall be in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and all other charges incurred previous to and at the time of giving notice of non-payment, but the holder of such bill shall be entitled to demand and recover lawful interest upon the

aggregate amount of the principal sum specified in such bill, and of the damages thereon, from the time at which notice of protest for non-payment shall have been given, and payment of such principal sum shall have been demanded. — Sect. 19.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account of the U. States, the amount due thereon, and of the damages herein allowed for the non-payment thereof, shall be ascertained and determined without any reference to the rate of exchange existing between this State and the place on which such bill shall have been drawn, at the time of the demand of payment or of notice of non-payment. — Sect. 20.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account or currency of any foreign country, then the amount due, exclusive of the damages payable thereof, shall be ascertained and determined by the rate of exchange or the value of such foreign currency, at the time of the demand of payment. — Sect. 21.

TARIFF OF THE UNITED STATES.—Notwithstanding the unprecedented progress of the United States in wealth and population, their foreign trade was nearly stationary for the 10 years ending with 1830. And yet, considering the spirit of commercial enterprise by which the people, particularly in the New England States and New York, are animated, and their skill in navigation, it might have been fairly presumed that the growth of their foreign trade would, at least, have kept pace with the development of the internal resources of the country. That it did not do so, is wholly owing to the policy of government. Not satisfied with the extraordinary advances their constituents had made in numbers and wealth, Congress seems to have believed that their career might be accelerated by means of Custom-house regulations!—by giving an artificial direction to a portion of the public capital and industry, and turning it into channels into which it would not naturally flow.

No one who has the slightest acquaintance with the condition of America — who knows that she is possessed of boundless tracts of fertile and unappropriated land — that her population is comparatively thin, and wages high — can doubt for a moment that agriculture *must*, for a long series of years, be the most profitable species of employment in which her citizens can engage. There can be no question, indeed, that such branches of manufacture as are naturally adapted to her peculiar situation will gradually grow up and flourish in America, without any artificial encouragement, according as her population becomes denser, and as the advantage which now exists on the side of agriculture becomes less decided. And the imposition of moderate duties on foreign articles for the sake of revenue would certainly give these branches all the protection to which they are justly entitled, or more. But to force, by means of duties and prohibitions, imposed not for the sake of revenue, but of protection, the premature growth of manufactures, is plainly to force a portion of the industry and capital of the country into businesses in which it will be *least* productive.

Such, however, was, for a lengthened period, the policy of the American legislature. The exploded sophisms of the mercantile system, though renounced by every statesman in Europe, have acquired a noxious influence in Congress, and have been put forth with as much confidence, as if their soundness neither had been nor could be questioned! From 1816 down to the present time (1846), the object of the American legislature has, for the most part, been to bolster up a manufacturing interest, by imposing oppressive duties on most manufactured articles imported from abroad. Now, it is obvious, even had the articles produced in America through the agency of this plan been nearly as cheap as those they superseded, that nothing would have been gained by it; for, to whatever extent the importation of foreign articles may be diminished, there must be a corresponding diminution in the exportation of native American products; so that the only result would have been the raising up of one species of industry at the expense of some other species entitled to an equality of protection. But the "American system" was not so innocuous. Instead of the goods manufactured in the States being as cheap as similar ones manufactured in Europe, they were admitted to be, at an average, from 50 to 60 per cent. dearer! The extent of the pecuniary sacrifice that was thus imposed on the Union by the tariff modified in 1832 has been variously estimated by American writers; and we have been assured by those who have the best means of knowing, that it may be taken as amounting to from 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 dollars, or from about 11,000,000*l.* to 13,000,000*l.*! And this immense burden — a burden nearly three times as great as the whole public expenditure of the republic — was incurred for no purpose of public utility, and was productive of nothing but mischief. The whole effect of the scheme was to divert a certain amount of the national capital from the production of cotton, wheat, rice, tobacco, &c., the equivalents sent to foreigners in payment of manufactured goods, to the direct production of these goods themselves! And as the latter species of industry is less suitable for America, a tax of 13,000,000*l.* a year was imposed on the Union, that the manufacturers might be enabled to continue a losing business. We leave it to others to determine whether the absurdity of the system, or its costliness, be its more prominent feature. That its influence has not been more injurious is solely owing to the smuggling it occasioned. With a frontier like

that of America, it would be worse than absurd to suppose that the old tariff could be carried into effect. But it had enough of influence to render it highly prejudicial — to occasion a great rise in the price of many important articles — to cripple the trade and navigation of the country — and to throw a considerable part of it into the hands of smugglers, who carried it on in defiance of the law.

It is difficult, however, to say how long the system of imposing high duties on most foreign products might have been maintained without so much as a check, but for its political effects. It was principally patronised by the Northern States; and though it would be difficult to show that they derived any benefit from it, it is, at all events, pretty certain that it was most injurious to the Southern States. Their staple products are cotton, tobacco, and rice, of which by far the largest portion is exported to foreign countries; and the planters speedily found that every restriction on importation from abroad occasioned a corresponding difficulty of exportation. This led to a disunion of interests, and to strong remonstrances against the tariff by the Southern States. These, however, were disregarded. Provoked by this treatment, South Carolina took the decisive step of refusing to enforce the customs acts; and threatened, if coercion were attempted, to repel force by force, and to recede from the Union! This was a death-blow to the high duties of the old tariff. Congress now saw, what all sensible men had seen long before, that it was necessary to recede; that, in fact, either the tariff must be modified, or the integrity of the Union be brought into jeopardy. A law, commonly called the "Compromise Act," was in consequence passed on the 14th of July, 1832, which provided that certain reductions should be progressively made on the then existing duties on most descriptions of foreign goods, at certain specified periods between 1833 and 1842, when they were, in most instances, to be reduced to 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

This act was allowed to take effect for a few years; but as the reduction specified in it began to come into practical operation, the manufacturers, also, began to set up fresh claims for additional protection. Probably, however, the latter might not have been able to carry their point had not the Southern States been apprehensive that if they made any resolute stand against the proposal to increase the duties, and still more if they threatened to secede from the Union in the event of its being carried, they might be brought into serious difficulties by the agitation of the question as to the emancipation of their slaves. The latter, therefore, having to choose between two evils, preferred, of course, that which they believed to be least; and purchased a truce for the emancipation question by agreeing to the tariff act passed in 1842, by which comparatively high duties were again imposed on most descriptions of imported articles.

Happily, however, this system has not been so permanent as was expected. The Western and Southern States, being those most directly interested in a low tariff, have of late years had a majority in Congress; and the apprehensions with regard to negro emancipation, excited by the proceedings in our islands, having subsided, sounder opinions with regard to commercial matters began again to prevail in Congress. Perhaps, however, the majority now referred to, or the party of Mr. Polk, might not have endeavoured to act on these principles without the example set by England; but the great commercial reforms effected in this country during the administration of Sir Robert Peel, and more especially the last and greatest of all, the change in the corn-laws, had a powerful influence in the U. States; and Mr. Polk's government, having profited by these and other circumstances which it is needless to specify, succeeded in carrying the comparatively liberal tariff given below, which took effect from the 1st December, 1846. They have also passed the warehousing act, of which we have subjoined an abstract.

It is, of course, impossible to foretell whether the new tariff will be maintained for any considerable period. It is understood that the political party by which it has been enacted are losing ground, and that those opposing them will, most likely, be in the ascendant at the next presidential election; and, if so, it is probable that an attempt will be made to alter the tariff, by again imposing high duties on most species of manufactured goods. But we would fain hope that the bulk of the American people may see the policy of opposing any such change. They never have been supposed to be blind or indifferent to their own interests; and these, they may be assured, will be better promoted by maintaining a system which enables them to sell in the dearest and to buy in the cheapest markets. If they re-impose high duties they will fall wholly on themselves, and on no one else; and the less they buy from foreigners, the less will they be able to export to them. It is incomparably more for their own advantage than for that of those who deal with them, that the existing tariff should be maintained; and such being the case, the presumption would seem to be that it will be maintained.

We subjoin some paragraphs from a late able report of Mr. Walker, secretary to the Treasury of the U. States, in which the sound principles of commercial intercourse, by the expediency of low duties on imports, are set in a clear light.

"We are beginning to realize the benefits of the new tariff, many imports having been warehoused in anticipation of the new duties, and some already paid. By freer interchange of commodities, the foreign market is opened to our agricultural products, our tonnage and commerce are rapidly augmenting, our exports enlarged, and the prices advanced, exchange is in our favour, and specie is flowing within our limits. The country was never more prosperous, and we have never enjoyed such a wide and profitable market for all our products. This is not the result of an inflated currency, but is an actual increase of wealth and business. Whilst agriculture, commerce, and navigation, released from onerous taxes and restrictions, are thus improved and invigorated, manufactures are not depressed. The large profits of manufacturers may be in some cases somewhat diminished, but that branch of industry, now depending more on its own skill and resources, is still prosperous and progressive. New manufactures are being erected throughout the country, and still yield a greater profit, in most cases, than capital invested in other pursuits.

"Commerce between nations is but an exchange of their respective products, specie liquidating only the occasional fluctuating balances, and cannot long be maintained to any great extent by sales for specie only. Thus, if England opens her markets to our products, whilst we exclude by high duties most of the fabrics she would sell in exchange, her specie would rapidly diminish, and such a commerce would languish and decline. She might still, from necessity, purchase a portion of our products; but a necessity, equally stern and irremediable, from exhausted means, would soon compel her to reduce the purchases and price, and thus diminish the balance demanded from her in specie. To maintain, then, permanently a profitable commerce with England, the barriers must be broken down on both sides—her corn-laws repealed, and our duties reduced, so as to permit an exchange of her fabrics and our products. With high duties on our part, we could realize but little permanent advantage from the repeal of her corn-laws. Such high duties would continue to enforce, against our farmers, the British corn-laws, nearly as effectually as though they had never been repealed. Before the repeal of those laws, the advocates of our protective policy conceded that, if England would open her markets for our breadstuffs and provisions, we should receive her fabrics in exchange. Now her markets are thus opened to these products, and the friends of a protective tariff, abandoning their former position, would still arrest, by high duties, the exchange of English fabrics for our breadstuffs and provisions. If the reduced duties are continued on both sides, so as to permit a reciprocal interchange of commodities, the foreign market, now opened for our breadstuffs and provisions, must be maintained.

"Our farmers now have, and must retain, our home market, with or without the tariff, because breadstuffs and provisions cannot profitably be imported here. The few diverted from farming to manufactures, by a high tariff, bear no comparison in number with the people of the world, whose markets are lost, in whole or in part, by high duties. Nor is it chiefly the farmers, but the merchant, the ship-builder, and ship-owners, the seamen, and the thousands of labourers in the marts of our foreign commerce, that furnish much the larger portion of those who are driven by a high tariff from existing pursuits into manufactures; and consuming, as they all did, our own breadstuffs and provisions, as well before as after this change of their pursuits, no additional market is thereby secured to the farmer. Indeed, there is an absolute loss, in so far as the machinery of the manufacturer, which consumes no breadstuffs or provisions, is substituted for the manual labour engaged in agriculture, commerce, and navigation.

"The number of manufacturers would not be increased (if increased at all) more than one-tenth by the difference between the tariff of 1842 and that of 1846; and of that tenth more than one-half would not have changed from agricultural pursuits. In the mean time, when commerce and navigation flourish under low duties, a larger number of consumers of breadstuffs and provisions are diverted to those pursuits from agriculture, than would be driven from it into manufactures by high duties. Nothing, then, is gained in a home market to the farmer by high duties, whilst the markets of the world are lost or diminished. The population of the world is now one thousand millions, increasing at the rate of ten millions per annum, with but little augmentation anywhere of breadstuffs and provisions, except in our own country; yet our farmers are asked to abandon this immense market. In the vain attempt to create an adequate home market, by sacrificing agriculture, commerce, and navigation for the benefit of manufactures.

"Experience is against the protective policy. In England, after a long trial, and ruinous results, it is abandoned; and here, under the tariff of 1842, the prices of breadstuffs and provisions fell, and have now risen with the reduction of duties and the opening of a foreign market. From a long peace, Europe is becoming so densely populated, that her poorer soil and more uncertain climate afford a less adequate supply of food from year to year for her rapidly increasing population. Under a system of low duties, and a reciprocal interchange of commodities, it will be the interest, not only of Great Britain, but also of most of the continent of Europe, to take a large supply of food from us; but, by arresting the exchange of their fabrics for our products, it becomes their interest, and in fact a necessity, to look for and encourage markets elsewhere; and also by extraordinary means, and high governmental bounties, to drive capital into agriculture there, to supply the wants of their people, unable to purchase our products, for which, by high duties, we demand payment in specie.

"If we receive the fabrics of Europe in exchange for our products, it will be their interest to encourage and enlarge that commerce, and it must go on rapidly augmenting, until our country becomes the granary for Europe, and our export there of food shall even exceed that of cotton, great as that is destined to be under a system of low duties. With this enlargement of our exports will come a corresponding increase of our imports, and a great augmentation of the revenue of the government, and of the prosperity of the people. There will be a greater number more profitably engaged in agriculture, commerce, and navigation. The increased number and prosperity of those classes, constituting four-fifths of the whole people, will enable them greatly to extend their purchases; and the manufacturers, by the increased ability and means our own people will derive, in a series of years, a greater benefit, than by destroying the ability of our customers, by excluding their products from the foreign market, and depriving them to that extent of the means to purchase at home or abroad.

"If the ship-builder constructs, and the navigator freights more vessels—if the farmer sells more breadstuffs and provisions, and the planter more cotton, and at better prices—if the merchant transacts a larger and more prosperous business—if the seamen increase in number and receive better wages—if the working classes employed in connection with trade in our American marts of foreign commerce are increased and rendered more prosperous, they must all be enabled to purchase more of our own manufactures, and at better prices. Under such a system of reciprocal interchange of commodities with all the world, the great city of New York would become (what she now is for the States of this union) the great mart for the commerce of the various nations of the earth. Located nearer the centre of the commerce of the world than any European city, she would go on augmenting her commerce, and surpass them all, and within her own limits and suburbs would afford a larger home market for our breadstuffs and provisions, than the whole number whom a protective tariff would drive from agriculture to manufactures.

"Such would be the effect on New York as a market for breadstuffs and provisions, whilst New Orleans, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, and our other great commercial marts, would maintain and in an accelerated progress, augmenting the demand for agricultural products as well as for foreign and domestic manufactures. This is the true method of building up a home market for the products of all our industry. This is the most equal, just, certain, and permanent, as well as the most effectual and comprehensive protection and encouragement, not only of manufactures, but also of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, and the labour connected with every branch of American industry."

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.—THE UNITED STATES TARIFF, 1846.

An Act reducing the Duty on Imports, and for other Purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, that from and after the first day of December next (1846), in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on the goods, wares, and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following rates of duty: that is to say—

- A. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule A, a duty of 100 per centum ad valorem.
- B. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule B, a duty of 50 per centum ad valorem.
- C. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule C, a duty of 30 per centum ad valorem.
- D. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule D, a duty of 20 per centum ad valorem.
- E. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule E, a duty of 20 per centum ad valorem.
- F. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule F, a duty of 15 per centum ad valorem.
- G. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule G, a duty of 10 per centum ad valorem.
- H. On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule H, a duty of 5 per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 2. From and after the 1st day of December next, the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in Schedule I, shall be exempt from duty.

Sec. 3. From and after the 1st day of December next, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on all goods, wares, and merchandise imported from foreign countries and not specially provided for in this act, a duty of 30 per centum ad valorem.

Sec. 4. In all cases in which the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight or quantity, or measure of goods, wares, or merchandise now weighed, or measured, or gauged, the same shall be weighed, gauged, or measured, at the expense of the owner, agent, or consignee.

Sec. 5. From and after the 1st day of December next, in lieu of the bounty heretofore authorized by law to be paid on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, there shall be allowed, on the exportation thereof, if cured with foreign salt, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on the salt, and no more; to be ascertained under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 6. All goods, wares, and merchandise, imported after the passage of this act, and which may be in the public stores on the 2nd day of December next, shall be subject to no other duty upon the entry thereof than if the same were imported respectively after that day.

Sec. 7. The 12th section of the act entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved August 30, 1842, shall be and the same is hereby so far modified, that all goods imported from this side the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores for the space of 1 year, instead of the term of 60 days prescribed in the said section; and that all goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores one year, instead of the term of 90 days, prescribed in the said section.

Sec. 8. It shall be lawful for the owner, consignee, or agent of imports which have been actually purchased, on entry of the same, to make such addition in the entry, to the cost or value given in the invoice, as, in his opinion, may raise the same to the true market-value of such imports in the principal markets of the country whence the importation shall have been made, or in which the goods imported shall have been originally manufactured or produced, as the case may be; and to add thereto all costs and charges which, under existing laws, would form part of the true value of the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties should be assessed. And it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered to cause the dutiable value of such imports to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, in accordance with the provisions of existing laws; and if the appraised value thereof shall exceed, by ten per centum or more, the value so declared on the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, a duty of 30 per centum ad valorem on such appraised value: provided, nevertheless, that under no circumstances shall the duty be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice value; any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

Sec. 9. The deputies of any collector, naval officer, or surveyor, and the clerks employed by any collector, naval officer, surveyor, or appraiser, who are not by existing laws required to be sworn, shall, before entering upon their respective duties, or, if already employed, before continuing in the discharge thereof, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation faithfully and diligently to perform such duties, and in use their best endeavours to prevent and detect frauds upon the revenue of the United States; which oath or affirmation shall be administered by the collector of the port or district where the said deputies or clerks may be employed, and shall be of a form to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Sec. 10. No officer or other person connected with the navy of the United States shall, under any pretence, import in any ship or vessel of the United States any goods, wares, or merchandise, liable to the payment of any duty.

Sec. 11. All acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be and the same are hereby repealed.

<p>Itinny, and other spirits distilled from grain, or other materials.</p> <p>Alabaster and spar ornaments.</p> <p>Alumina.</p> <p>Anchovies, sardines, and all other fish preserved in oil.</p> <p>Cashmere, refined.</p> <p>Casals.</p> <p>Claret.</p> <p>Competition tops for tables or other articles of furniture.</p> <p>Combs, awnings, or fruit preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses.</p> <p>Currents.</p> <p>Alc, beer, and porter, in casks or bottles.</p> <p>Argentine, Alabama, or German silver, manufactured or unmanufactured.</p> <p>Articles unmanufactured with gold, silver, or other metal.</p> <p>Articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, made up, or made wholly, or in parts, by hand.</p> <p>Articles of skin.</p> <p>Balm, cosmetics, essences, extracts, perfumes, pastes, and tinctures, used either for the toilet or for medicinal purposes.</p> <p>Beards, and all other articles composed</p>	<p>SCHEDULE A.—100 per centum ad valorem.</p> <p>Cardinals, abynthis, arrack, curacos, kirchenwasser, liqueur, maraschino,</p> <p>SCHEDULE B.—40 per centum ad valorem.</p> <p>Dates.</p> <p>Figs.</p> <p>Ginger root, dried or green.</p> <p>Glass, cut.</p> <p>Mace.</p> <p>Manufactures of cedar-wood, grand-dilla, ebony, mahogany, rose-wood, and satin-wood.</p> <p>Nutmegs.</p> <p>Pimento.</p> <p>Prepared vegetables, nests, poultry,</p> <p>SCHEDULE C.—30 per centum ad valorem.</p> <p>Grass, oler, palm-leaf, straw, whalebone, or willow, not otherwise provided for.</p> <p>Bay rum.</p> <p>Beads, of amber, composition, or wax, and all other beads.</p> <p>Benzonites.</p> <p>Bologna sausages.</p> <p>Bracelets, braids, chains, curls, or ringlets, composed of hair, or of which hair is a component part.</p> <p>Brace, suspenders, whaling, or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India rubber, not otherwise provided for.</p> <p>Brooms and brushes of all kinds.</p>	<p>rotilla, and all other spirituous beverages of a similar character.</p> <p>and game, sealed, or enclosed in cans, or otherwise.</p> <p>Prunes.</p> <p>Raisins.</p> <p>Scagliola tops for tables or other articles of furniture.</p> <p>Segars, snuff, paper segars, and all other manufactures of tobacco.</p> <p>Wines—Burgundy, Champagne, claret, Madeira, port, sherry, and all other wines, and imitations of wines.</p> <p>Cameos, real and imitation, when set in gold, silver, or other metal.</p> <p>Canes and sticks for walking, polished or unfinished.</p> <p>Capers, pickles, and sauces of all kinds, not otherwise provided for.</p> <p>Caps, hats, muffs, and tips of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material.</p> <p>Caps, gloves, leggings, mits, socks, stockings, wore-shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for.</p>
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Card cases, pocket books, shell boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles, of whatever material composed.

Carpets, carpeting, hearth-rugs, bed-sides, and other portions of carpeting, being either Axminster, Brussels, Ingrain, Bazony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric.

Carpenters, and parts of carriages.

Cayenne pepper.

Cinnamon.

Clocks, and parts of clocks.

Clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured wholly or in part, by the tailor, sempstress, or manufacturer.

Coach and harness furniture, of all kinds.

Coal.

Coke and cumin of coal.

Combs of all kinds.

Compositions of glass or paste, when set.

Confectiories of all kinds, not otherwise provided for.

Coral, cut or manufactured.

Corks.

Cotton cords, gimps, and galloons.

Court-plaster.

Crayons of all kinds.

Cademy of all kinds.

Diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, in imitation of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal.

Paints and toys of all kinds.

Earthen, China and stone ware, and all other wares, composed of earthy or mineral substances, not otherwise provided for.

Epaulettes, galloons, laces, knobs, stars, tassels, crests and wings of gold, silver, or other metal.

Fans and five-creases of every description, of whatever material composed.

Festoons and flowers, artificial or ornamental, and parts thereof, of whatever material composed.

Fire-crackers.

Flats, beads, plaids, spartans, and willow squares, used for making hats or bonnets.

Frames and sticks for umbrellas, parasols, and sun-shades, finished or unfinished.

Furniture, cabinet and household.

Ginger, ground.

Glass, colored, stained, or painted.

Glass crystals for watches.

Glasses or pebbles for spectacles.

Glass tumblers, plates, moulded, or pressed, not cut or puted.

Gorzes or tinsel.

Burgandy pitch.

Buttons and button moulds, of all kinds.

Balzes, bookings, fannels, and floor-cloths, of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for.

Cables and cordage, tarred or untarred.

Calomel, and all other mercurial preparations.

Camphor, crude.

Cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids.

Acids—acetic, aceticus, benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow, nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for.

Alone.

Alum.

Ambergris.

Angora, Thibet, and other goat's hair or mohair, unansufactured.

Animal carbon.

Antimony, crude and regulus of.

Arrow-wood.

Articles, not in a cruda state, used in dying or tanning, not otherwise provided for.

Asafoetida.

Bacon.

Bananas.

Barley.

Beef.

Beeswax.

Berries, vegetables, flowers, and barks, not otherwise provided for.

Bismuth.

Blister apples.

Blankets of all kinds.

Blank books, bound or unbound.

Paintings on glass.

Porcelain glass.

Ums Lamson or Benjamin.

Hair pencils.

Hot bottles of cotton.

Hats and bonnets, for men, women, and children, composed of straw, seal, silk, sherry, chip, grass, palm-leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, of felt, whalebone, or other material not otherwise provided for.

Hemp, unmanufactured.

Honey.

Human hair, cleaned or prepared for use.

Ink and ink-powder.

Iron, in bars, blooms, bolts, hoops, pigs, rods, shags, or other form, not otherwise provided for.

Castings of iron.

Old or scrap iron.

Vessels of cast-iron.

Japanned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for.

Jewelry, real or imitation.

Jet, and manufactures of jet, and imitations thereof.

Lead pencils.

Mac-armi, vermicelli, gelatins, jellies, and similar preparations.

Manufactures of the bark of the cork-tree, except corks.

Manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, or vegetable ivory.

Manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platinum, tin, zinc, or other metal, or of which either of those metals or any other metal shall be the component material of chief value.

Manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool, or worsted, if embroidered or tamboours of any description, or otherwise by machinery, or with the needle, or other process.

Manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, of glass, or of which glass shall be the component material, not otherwise provided for.

Manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for.

Manufactures, and articles of marble, marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs or blocks in the rough.

Manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for.

Manufactures, articles, and wares of paper mache.

Manufactures of wood, or of which wood shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for.

Manilla.

wood in a component part, not otherwise provided for.

Manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for.

Medicinal preparations, not otherwise provided for.

Metal pens.

Mineral waters.

Musket, rifle, and other fire-arms.

Nuts, not otherwise provided for.

Oil-cloth of every description, of whatever material composed.

Oil, volatile, essential, or expressed, and not otherwise provided for.

Olive oil in casks, other than salad oil.

Olive salad oil; and all other olive oil, not otherwise provided for.

Olive.

It appears from the previous statement that the trade between the U. States and this country has lately undergone the most extraordinary vicissitudes; the exports to the U. States having declined from 12,425,605*l.* in 1836, to 3,528,807*l.* in 1842! This remarkable decline has been mainly occasioned by the bankruptcy and disorder that grew out of the abuse of banking and the over issue of paper money in the U. States in 1836, 1837, and 1838. The facility with which discounts and loans were then obtained occasioned a vast deal of overtrading among individuals, and also led to the contracting of loans with which to undertake extensive public works by the different States. But no sooner had the banks, which, for the most part, were without any solid foundation, been entangled in the difficulties consequent to such over issue, than a severe shock was given to credit, and bankruptcy became prevalent from one end of the Union to the other. Had the general government had the power, or the state governments the wish, to mitigate the severity of the crisis, there were abundant means at their disposal; but the former would appear to be nearly impotent for either good or bad purposes, and (with a few distinguished exceptions) the state governments, instead of providing by a small increase of taxation for the payment of their creditors, and the completion of the works in which they had engaged, were impolitic enough to abandon the latter, and dishonest and shameless enough to repudiate the former! Discredit and bankruptcy have, therefore, been all but universal in America, and hence the limited amount of her imports. In so far, however, as we are concerned, the decline of the latter is of little importance. It is better we should export nothing than that the exports should not be paid for. After the experience they have purchased at an expense of many millions, our countrymen will, it is to be hoped, be cautious in the extreme how they deal with the Americans in future.

NICARAGUA or **PEACH WOOD** (Ger. *Nicaragaholz*, *Blutholz*; Du. *Bloed-hant*; Fr. *Bois de sang*, *Bois de Nicaragua*; It. *Legno sanguigno*; Sp. *Palo de sangre*; Port. *Pao sanguinho*), a tree of the same genus (*Caesalpinia*) as the Brazil and sapan wood; but the species has not been exactly ascertained. It grows principally in the vicinity of the lake of Nicaragua, whence its name. It is said by Dr. Bancroft to be almost as red and heavy as the true Brazil wood, but it does not commonly afford more than a third part, in quantity, of the colour of the latter; and even this is rather less durable and less beautiful, though dyed with the same mordants. Nicaragua or peach woods differ greatly in their quality as well as price; one sort being so deficient in colouring matter, that 6 pounds of it will only dye as much wool or cloth as 1 pound of Brazil wood; while another variety of it will produce nearly half the effect of an equal quantity of Brazil wood, and will sell proportionally dear. — (*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 332.)

The London dealers distinguish Nicaragua wood into 3 sorts, viz. *large*, *middling*, and *small*; the price of the 1st sort (duty included) being from 1*l.* to 20*l.* per ton; of the 2d, from 8*l.* to 10*l.* per do.; and of the 3d, from 7*l.* to 8*l.* per do. The entries of Nicaragua wood for home consumption amounted, in 1840, to 2,614 tons, and in 1841, to 1,899 tons. The duty was reduced in 1831 from 15*s.* to 5*s.* a ton, and in 1842 it was further reduced to 2*s.* per ton.

NICKEL, a scarce metal, which occurs always in combination with other metals, from which it is exceedingly difficult to separate it. When pure, it is of a fine white colour resembling silver. It is rather softer than iron: its specific gravity, when cast, is 8.279; when hammered, 8.932. It is malleable, and may without difficulty be hammered into plates not exceeding $\frac{1}{10}$ th part of an inch in thickness. It is attracted by the magnet; and is not altered by exposure to the air, nor by being kept under water. It is employed in potteries, and in the manufacture of porcelain. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

NITRE. See **SALTPETRE**.

NOTE, PROMISSORY. See **BANKING**, and **BANKS**.

NUT, or **HAZEL NUT** (Ger. *Haselnüsse*; Fr. *Noisettes*, *Avelines*; It. *Nuccinale*, *Avelane*; Sp. *Avellanas*; Port. *Avellãs*; Lat. *Avellana*), the fruit of different species of *Coryli*, or hazels. The kernels have a mild, farinaceous, oily taste, agreeable to most palates. A kind of chocolate has been prepared from them; and they have sometimes been made into bread. The expressed oil of hazel nuts is little inferior to that of almonds. Besides those raised at home, we import nuts from different parts of France, Portugal, and Spain, but principally from the latter. The Spanish nuts in the highest estimation, though sold under the name of Barcelona nuts, are not really shipped at that city, but at Tarragona, a little more to the south. Mr. Inglis says that the annual average export of nuts from Tarragona is from 25,000 to 30,000 bags, of 4 to the ton. They cost, free on board, in autumn, in 1830, 17*s.* 6*d.* per bag. — (*Spain* in 1830, vol. ii. p. 362.) In 1841, 149,845 bushels of hazel nuts were retained for consumption. The duty is 2*s.* a bushel.

NUTMEG (Ger. *Muskatennüsse*; Du. *Muskäit*; Fr. *Muscades*, *Noix muscades*; It. *Nocce muscate*; Sp. *Moscada*; Arab. *Jaw-zaltib*; Sans. *Jaliphaki*; Malay, *Buah-pulu*),

the fruit of the genuine nutmeg tree (*Myristica Moschata*), a native of the Moluccas, but which has been transplanted to Sumatra, Penang, &c. An inferior and long-shaped nutmeg is common in Borneo; but the fruit nowhere attains to the same perfection as in the Moluccas. Of the several varieties of the tree, that denominated the Queen Nutmeg, which bears a small round fruit, is the best. The kernel, or proper nutmeg, is of a roundish oval form, marked on the outside with many vermicular furrows, within of a fleshy farinaceous substance, variegated whitish and bay. Nutmegs are frequently punctured and boiled, in order to obtain the essential oil; the orifice being afterwards closed; but the fraud is easily detected by the lightness of the nutmeg. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory; Ainslie's Materia Indica.*)

Nutmegs should be chosen large, round, heavy, and firm, of a light grey colour on the outside, and the inside beautifully marbled, of a strong fragrant smell, warm aromatic taste, and a fat oily body. They are very subject to be worm-eaten. The best manner of packing them is in dry chunan. The oblong kind, and the smaller ones, should be rejected. 15 cwt. are allowed to a ton. — (*Milburn's Orient Com.*)

The dried produce of a nutmeg tree consists of nutmeg, mace (which see), and shell. Supposing the whole produce to be divided into 100 parts, there are 13½ of mace, 33½ of shell, and 53½ of nutmeg. In the ancient commerce, and down to the establishment of the Dutch monopoly, nutmegs were always sold and exported in the shell. The natives, whenever the commerce is left to their management, continue the practice, which is strongly recommended by Mr. Crawford. — (*Eastern Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 396.)

The jealous policy of the Dutch has reduced the trade in nutmegs to a mere trifle, compared to what it would otherwise have been. They have, in so far at least as it was possible, exerted themselves to exterminate the nutmeg plants every where except in Banda. They bribe the native princes of the surrounding islands to root out the trees; and annually send a fleet to see that the work of destruction has been effected, and that the bribes have not been bestowed in vain. To engage in an illicit trade in spices is *death* to an inferior person, and *banishment* to a noble; and yet, notwithstanding these tremendous penalties, it is supposed that about 60,000 lbs. of nutmegs, and 15,000 lbs. of mace, are clandestinely exported each year! In Banda, the aboriginal inhabitants have been expatriated, and the island parcelled among settlers from Holland, under the name of *park keepers*. These persons, who may be turned out of their farms on the most trifling pretext, have about 2,000 slaves, who cultivate and prepare the nutmegs. The prices paid to the cultivator are all fixed by government; and it deserves to be mentioned, as affording one of the most striking illustrations of the ruinous effects of monopoly, that the fixed price which the government is now obliged to pay for nutmegs is *five times greater than the price of which they bought them when the trade was free!* Such is a rough outline of that system, which has reduced what used to be one of the most important branches of Eastern commerce so low, that it is unable to afford employment for the capital of a single wealthy merchant. We cannot conceive how so enlightened and liberal a government as that of Holland should continue to tolerate such scandalous abuses — abuses destructive alike of the rights of those subjected to its authority in the East, and the commerce and wealth of its subjects at home. — (*Modern Universal History*, vol. x. p. 457–487. 8vo. ed.; and *Crawford's Eastern Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 394–413.)

Mr. Crawford estimates the produce of the Banda Islands at about 600,000 lbs. of nutmegs, and 150,000 lbs. of mace.

During the period that the English had possession of the Spice Islands, nutmeg plants were carried to Penang, Bencoolen, and some of the West India Islands. In the latter they have altogether failed, at least as far as respects any useful purpose; but very good nutmegs, and in considerable quantities, are now raised at Penang and Bencoolen. Mr. Crawford, however, alleges that the cost of bringing them to market is there so high, that the restoration of a free culture in the native country of the nutmeg would instantly destroy this unstable and factitious branch of industry. — (*Eastern Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 409.)

The duty on nutmegs was reduced, in 1819, from *5s. 6d.* to *2s. 6d.* per lb.; and the quantities entered for home consumption have since rapidly increased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Nutmegs entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, in 1840, 1841, and 1842, and of the Amount of Duty received thereon.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	£	£
118,061	115,111	170,061	15,011 9	14,851 10	22,018 12

In 1842 the duties were fixed at *3s. 6d.* per lb. on those from a foreign, and at *2s. 6d.* per lb. on those from a British possession. The duty on wild nutmegs in the shell was then also fixed at *3d.* per stone against origin.

NUTRIA, or NEUTRIA, the commercial name for the skins of *Myopotamus Bonariensis* (Commerson), the *Coypon* of Molina, and the *Quoiga* of D'Azara. In France, the skins were, and perhaps still are, sold under the name of *raccoonda*; but in England they are imported as *nutria* skins — deriving their appellation, most probably, from some supposed similarity of the animal which produces them, in appearance and habits, to the otter, the Spanish name for which is *nutria*. Indeed, Molina speaks of the *coypon* as a species of water rat, of the size and colour of the otter.

Nutria fur is largely used in the hat manufacture; and has become, within the last 15 or 20 years, an article of very considerable commercial importance. The imports fluctuate considerably. In 1841 they amounted to 1,125,212 skins; but in some years they are much less; and, in 1840, amounted to only 242,733. Those entered for home consumption pay a duty of 1s. per 100 skins. They are principally brought from the Rio de la Plata. — (See FUR TRADE.)

The *coypon* or *quoiga* is a native of S. America, very common in the provinces of Chill, Buenos Ayres, and Tucuman, but more rare in Paraguay. In size it is less than the beaver, which it resembles in many points. The head is large and depressed, the ears small and rounded, the neck stout and short, the muzzle sharper than that of the beaver, and the whiskers very long and stiff. There are, as in the beaver, 2 inferior teeth, and 18 molar, above and below — 20 teeth in all. The limbs are short. The fore feet have each 5 fingers not webbed, the thumb being very small; the hind feet have the same number of toes; the great toe and 3 next toes being joined by a web which extends to their ends, and the little toe being free, but edged with a membrane on its inner side. The nails are compressed, long, crooked, and sharp. The tail, unlike that of the beaver, is long, round, and hairy; but the hairs are not numerous,

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and permit the scaly texture of the skin in this part to be seen. The back is of a brownish red, which becomes redder on the flanks: the belly is of a dirty red. The edges of the lips and extremity of the snouts are white.

Like the beaver, the coypou is furnished with 2 kinds of fur; viz. the long ruddy hair which gives the tone of colour, and the brownish ash-coloured fur at its base, which, like the down of the beaver, is of much importance in hat making, and the cause of the animal's commercial value.

The habits of the coypou are much like those of most of the other aquatic rodent animals. Its principal food, in a state of nature, is vegetable. It affects the neighbourhood of water, swims perfectly well, and burrows in the ground. The female brings forth from 5 to 7 at a time; and the young always accompany her.

The coypou is easily domesticated, and its manners in captivity are very mild.

* We are indebted for this account of nutria — the first, we believe, that appeared in any English work — to W. J. Broderip, Esq., F.R.S., &c.

NUX VOMICA (Fr. *Noix Vomique*; Hind. *Kaachla*), the fruit of a species of *Stychnos*, growing in various places in the East Indies. The fruit is about the size of an orange, covered with a smooth crustaceous yellow bark, and filled with a fleshy pulp, in which are imbedded several orbicular flattened seeds, about $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in diameter. Nux vomica is inodorous, and has a very bitter, acrid taste, which remains long on the palate. It is known as a very virulent poison. A suspicion has, however, been entertained, that it has been used in porter breweries; but its introduction into them is prohibited under heavy penalties. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*, &c.)

O.

OAK (Ger. *Eiche*; Du. *Eik*; Da. *Eeg*; Sw. *Ek*; Fr. *Chêne*; It. *Quercia*; Sp. *Roble*, *Carballo*; Port. *Roble*, *Carbalho*; Rus. *Dub*; Pol. *Dab*; Lat. *Quercus*; Arab. *Baalut*). There are several varieties of this valuable tree; but the common English oak (*Quercus robur*) claims precedence of every other. The oak timber imported from America is very inferior to that of this country: the oak from the central parts of Europe is also inferior, especially in compactness and resistance of cleavage. The knotty oak of England, the "unwedgeable and gnarled oak," as Shakespeare called it, when cut down at a proper age (from 50 to 70 years), is the best timber known. Some timber is harder, some more difficult to rend, and some less capable of being broken across; but none contains all the three qualities in so great and equal proportions; and thus, for at once supporting a weight, resisting a strain, and not splintering by a canon shot, the timber of the oak is superior to every other.

A fine oak is one of the most picturesque of trees; it conveys to the mind associations of great strength, and of all but endless duration. It stands up against the blast, and does not take, like other trees, a twisted form from the action of the winds. Except the cedar of Lebanon, no tree is so remarkable for the stoutness of its limbs; they do not exactly spring from the trunk, but divide from it; and thus it is sometimes difficult to know which is stem and which is branch. The twisted branches of the oak, too, add greatly to its beauty; and the horizontal direction of its boughs, spreading over a large surface, completes the idea of its sovereignty over all the trees of the forest. Even a decayed oak, such as that described by Spenser, —

" ———— dry and dead,
Still clad with reliques of its trophies old,
Lifting to heaven its aged, hoary head,
Whose foot on earth has got but feeble hold," —

is strikingly beautiful. To such an oak Lucan compared Pompey in his decline: —

" Quails frugifero quercus sublimis in agro
Exuvius veteres populi, sacratæque gestans
Dons ducum; nec jam validis radicibus hærens,
Pondere fixa suo est; nudosque per æra ramos
Effundens, trunco, non frondibus, efficit umbram.
At quavis primo nutet casura sub Euro,
Tat circum silvæ firmo se robore tollant,
Sola tamen colitur." — (Lib. 1. lin. 136.)

The oak is raised from acorns, sown either where the oak is to stand, or in a nursery, whence the young trees are transplanted.

The colour of oak wood is a fine brown, and is familiar to every one; it is of different shades; that inclined to red is the most inferior. The larger transverse septa are in general very distinct, producing beautiful flowers when cut obliquely. Where the septa are small, and not very distinct, the wood is much the strongest. The texture is alternately compact and porous; the compact part of the annual ring being of the darkest colour, and in irregular dots surrounded by open pores, producing beautiful dark veins in some kinds, particularly pollard oaks. Oak timber has a particular smell, and the taste is slightly astringent. It contains gallic acid, and is blackened by contact with iron when it is damp. The young wood of English oak is very tough, often cross-grained, and difficult to work. Foreign wood, and that of old trees, is more brittle and workable. Oak warps and twists much in drying; and, in seasoning, shrinks about $\frac{1}{4}$ d of its width.

Oak of a good quality is more durable than any other wood that attains a like size. Vitruvius says it is of eternal duration when driven into the earth: it is extremely durable in water; and in a dry state it has been known to last nearly 1,000 years. The more compact it is, and the smaller the pores are, the longer it will last; but the open, porous, and foxy coloured oak, which grows in Lincolnshire and some other places, is not near so durable.

Besides the common British oak (*Quercus robur*), the sessile-fruited bay oak (*Quercus sessiliflora*) is pretty abundant in several parts of England, particularly in the north. The wood of this species is said by Tredgold to be darker, heavier, harder, and more elastic than the common oak; tough, and difficult to work; and very subject to warp and split in seasoning. Mr. Tredgold seems disposed to regard this species as superior to the common oak for ship building. But other, and also very high authorities, are opposed to him on this point; and, on the whole, we should think that it is sufficiently well established, that for all the great practical purposes to which oak timber is applied, and especially for ship building, the wood of the common oak deserves to be preferred to every other species. A well-informed writer in the *Quarterly Review* has the following remarks on the point in question:—

"We may here notice a fact long known to botanists, but of which our planters and purveyors of timber appear to have had no suspicion,—that there are two distinct species of oak in England,—the *Quercus robur*, and the *Quercus sessiliflora*; the former of which affords a close-grained, firm, solid timber, rarely subject to rot; the other more loose and sappy, very liable to rot, and not half so durable. This difference was noted so early as the time of Ray; and Martyn in his *Flora Rustica*, and Sir James Smith in his *Flora Britannica*, have added their testimonies to the fact. The second species is supposed to have been introduced some 2 or 3 ages ago, from the Continent, where the oaks are chiefly of this latter species, especially in the German forests, the timber of which is known to be very worthless. But what is of more importance to us, is, that *de facto* the imposture abounds, and is propagated vigorously in the New Forest and other parts of Hampshire; in Norfolk, and the northern counties, and about London; and there is but too much reason to believe that the numerous complaints that were heard about our ships being infected with what was called, improperly enough, *dry rot*, were owing to the introduction of this species of oak into the naval dock-yards, where, we understand, the distinction was not even suspected. It may thus be discriminated from the true old English oak:—The acorn stalks of the *robur* are long, and its leaves short; whereas the *sessiliflora* has the acorn stalks short, and the leaves long; the acorns of the former grow singly, or seldom two on the same footstalk; those of the latter, in clusters of 2 or 3 close to the stem of the branch. We believe the Russian ships of the Baltic, that are not of larch or fir, are built of this species of oak; but if this were not the case, their exposure on the stocks, without cover, to the heat of summer, which, though short, is excessive, and the rifts and chinks which fill up with leach snow in the long winter, are enough to destroy the stoutest oak, and quite sufficient to account for their short-lived duration.

A great deal of inquiry and discussion has taken place at different periods as to the supply and consumption of oak timber; but the results have not been very satisfactory. In a *Report of the Commissioners of Land Revenue*, printed in 1812, it is stated that, taking the tonnage of the navy in 1806 at 776,087 tons, it would require, at $\frac{1}{3}$ load to a ton, 1,664,085 loads to build such a navy; and supposing the average duration of a ship to be 14 years, the annual quantity of timber required would be 83,149 loads, exclusive of repairs, which they calculate would be about 27,000 loads; making the whole about 110,000 loads; of which, however, the commissioners reckon may be furnished 21,341 loads as the annual average of the prizes; and of the remaining 88,659 loads, they think it not unreasonable to calculate on 28,659 from other sources than British oak. "This," they observe, "leaves 60,000 loads of such oak, as the quantity which would be sufficient annually to support, at its present unexampled magnitude, the whole British navy, including ships of war of all sorts; but which may be taken as equivalent together to 20 14-gun ships, each of which, one with another, contains about 2,000 tons, or would require, at the rate of $\frac{1}{3}$ load to the ton, 3,000 loads; making just 60,000 loads for 20 such ships."

Now, it has been supposed that not more than 40 oak trees can stand on an acre of ground, so as to grow to a full size fit for ships of the line, or to contain each $\frac{1}{3}$ load of timber; 50 acres, therefore, would be required to produce a sufficient quantity of timber to build a 74-gun ship, and 1,000 acres, for 20 such ships; and as the oak requires at least 100 years to arrive at maturity, 100,000 acres would be required to keep up a successive supply, for maintaining a navy of 700,000 or 800,000 tons. The commissioners further observe, that as there are 20,000,000 acres of waste lands in the kingdom, a 200th part set aside for planting would at once furnish the whole quantity wanted for the use of the navy.

According to Mr. Barrow, this calculation is over-rated by about a half. "In the first place," says he, "it supposed a state of perpetual war, during which the tonnage of the whole navy is considered as more than double of what it now actually is; and, in the second place, it reckons the average duration of the navy at 14 years only; which, from the improvements that have taken place in the construction and preservation of ships of war, with the resources of teak ships built in India, we should not hesitate in assuming at an average of twice that number of years; and if so, the quantity of oak required for the navy will be nothing like that which the commissioners have stated.

"The fact, however, is certain, that long before the conclusion of the late war, a scarcity began to be felt, especially of the larger kind of timber fit for ships of the line; and so great was this scarcity, that if Sir Robert Seppings had not contrived the means of substituting straight timber for that of different forms and dimensions, before considered to be indispensable, the building of new ships must entirely have ceased.

"If, however, the growth of oak for ship timber was greatly diminished during the war, so as to threaten an alarming scarcity, there is little doubt that, from the increased attention paid by individuals to their young plantations, and their great extension, as well as from the measure of allotting portions of the royal forests to those who had claims on them, and inclosing the remainder for the use of the public, this country will, in future times, be fully adequate to the production of oak timber equal to the demand for the naval and mercantile marine." — (*Ency. Brit.*, art. *Navy*.)

The bark of the oak tree is very valuable. It is preferred to all other substances for the purpose of tanning, and brings a high price. — (See *BARK*.)

The foreign oak timber imported into Great Britain is principally derived from Canada and Prussia. The latter is the most valuable—its price being to the former in the proportion of about 9 to 6; that is, 1½ a load of Prussian oak timber brought 3*l.*, a load of Canada ditto would not bring more than about 2*l.* The quantity imported varies; but may, at an average, amount to about 10,000 loads, of 80 cubic feet each; the greater part from Quebec. Oak plank is almost wholly imported from Prussia. The quantities imported during the 6 years ending the 5th of January, 1842, were—

Years.	Lochs.	Years.	Lochs.	Years.	Lochs.
1836	8,870	1838	8,888	1840	8,457
1837	2,198	1839	3,489	1841	2,277

For further details with respect to the importation of oak, its price, duty on, &c., see WOOD. — See, also, *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*; art. *Navy, Supplement to Encyc. Brit.*; the very interesting work on *Timber Trees and Fruits*, in the *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.

OATS (Ger. *Hafer*; Du. *Haver*; Da. *Havre*; Sw. *Hafre*; Fr. *Avoine*; It. *Vena*, *Avena*; Sp. *Avena*; Port. *Avca*; Russ. *Ovies*; Pol. *Owies*), a species of grain, the *Avca sativa* of botanists. There are innumerable varieties of this grain, some of which are said to be indigenous to Britain. It is the hardiest of all the cereal grasses, growing luxuriantly in cold northern climates, and in coarse mountainous districts, where neither wheat nor barley can be advantageously cultivated. It thrives best, and is, indeed, chiefly raised, in latitudes north of Paris; being but little known in the south of France, Spain, or Portugal. It is, however, cultivated in Bengal, so low as the 25th degree of latitude, and, it is said, with considerable success. In Scotland, where it has long formed a principal part of the food of the people, it is far more generally cultivated than any other species of grain. It is also very extensively cultivated in Ireland. In England it is grown principally in the northern counties, and in the fens of Lincoln, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Norfolk; but the oats of Northumberland and Scotland are reckoned superior to those raised farther south.

There are 4 leading varieties of this grain cultivated in England, viz. white, black, grey, and brown or red oats. The sub varieties of the white are numerous. That denominated the potato oat is at present almost the only one raised on land in a good state of cultivation in the north of England and the south of Scotland, and usually brings a higher price in the London market than any other variety. It was accidentally discovered growing in a field of potatoes in Cumberland in 1788; and from the produce of that single stalk has been produced the stock now in general cultivation. Black and grey oats are little cultivated, except in some places in the north of Scotland. The red oat is chiefly confined to Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Staffordshire. A species of naked oats, provincially called *pillar*, is raised in Cornwall. — (*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Brown's Rural Economy*, vol. ii. pp. 47—52.)

In 1765, Mr. Charles Smith estimated the number of consumers of oats in England and Wales at 629,000. — (*Tracts on the Corn Trade*, 2d edit. p. 140.) but at present we believe they are very considerably fewer. The feeding of horses has at all times occasioned the greatest consumption of oats in this part of the kingdom; and as the number of horses kept for business and pleasure has been vastly increased within the last 30 or 40 years, the culture of oats has been considerably extended, notwithstanding the increasing imports from Ireland. Perhaps the produce of no species of grain varies more than that of oats. Where the ground is foul and exhausted, not more than 20 bushels an acre are obtained; but on rich soils, well managed, 64, 72, and sometimes 80 bushels and upwards have been reaped. Oats weigh from 35 to 45 lbs. a bushel, yielding at an average, 8 lbs. meal for 14 lbs. corn: but the proportion of meal increases as the oats become heavier.

For information as to the laws regulating the importation and exportation of oats, their prices, the quantities imported and exported, &c., see **CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE**.

ODESSA, a flourishing sea-port of Southern Russia, on the north-west coast of the Black Sea, between the rivers Dneister and Bug, in lat. 46° 28' 54" N., lon. 30° 43' 22" E. Population, in 1838, 69,023. The foundations of Odessa were laid so lately as 1792, by order of the Empress Catharine, after the peace of Jassy. It was intended to serve as an *entrepôt* for the commerce of the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff, and has in a great measure answered the expectations of its founders. By an Imperial ukase, dated the 7th of February, 1817, it was declared a free port, and the inhabitants exempted from taxation for 30 years; since which period its increase has been extremely rapid. The bay or roadstead of Odessa is extensive, the water deep, and the anchorage good, the bottom being fine sand and gravel; it is, however, exposed to the south-easterly wind, which renders it less safe in winter. The port, which is artificial, being formed by 2 moles, one of which projects to a considerable distance into the sea, is fitted to contain about 300 ships. It has also the advantage of deep water. There is a convenient lazaretto, on the model of that of Marseilles. The want of fresh water used to be the greatest disadvantage under which the inhabitants laboured; but this has been obviated by the construction of a canal which conveys an abundant supply of water into the town. There are no trees in the vicinity, which has, in consequence, a bleak and arid appearance.

Light-houses. — A light-house has been erected on Cape Fontan, about 6½ nautical miles S. of Odessa. The light, which formerly revolved, is now fixed, and is about 263 (Russian) feet above the level of the sea. At the distance of 11 leagues E.S.E. ¼ S. from Odessa, on the north end of the long, narrow, low island of Tendra, a light-house has been erected, of great use to ships approaching Odessa from the S.

or W. The lantern is elevated 93½ (Russian) feet above the level of the sea. It consists of 3 reflecting lights, suspended in the form of a triangle, revolving in the space of 4 minutes, so that each lamp arrives at its maximum brilliancy after an interval of 1 min. 20 sec. Being also of a red colour, this light is readily distinguished from Fontan light, and the other lights in the Black Sea. In foggy weather, a bell is kept ringing.— (*Coulier sur les Phares*, 3d ed.; *Norris's Sailing Directions for the Mediterranean and Black Seas*, &c.)

Not being at the mouth of any great river, nor having any considerable manufactures, Odessa is not a port for the exportation of what may be called articles of native growth; but in consequence of her convenient situation, excellent port, and the privileges she enjoys, she is, as already remarked, the emporium where most of the produce of Southern Russia destined for foreign countries is collected for exportation, and where most of the foreign articles required for home consumption are primarily imported. The shallowness of the water at Taganrog, and the short period during which the Sea of Azoff is navigable, tend to hinder foreign vessels of considerable burden from entering the Strait of Yenikale, and occasion the shipment of a considerable portion of the produce brought down the Don in lighters to Caffa and Odessa, especially the latter. All the products brought down the Dniester, the Bug, and the Dnieper, are exported from Odessa; but owing to the difficult navigation of the first and last mentioned rivers, by far the greater part of the corn brought to Odessa from Yedolla, the Ukraine, &c. is conveyed to the town in carts drawn by oxen. The roads traversed by these carts are only practicable at certain seasons of the year; and nothing would contribute so much to increase the commerce of the port, and the prosperity of S. Russia, as the opening of improved communications with the interior; whether by removing obstructions in the channels of the rivers, constructing canals, or railways, or good common roads.

Among the articles of export from Odessa, corn, especially wheat, occupies, as every one knows, a high rank; but tallow is also a most important article; and next to it are linseed, wool, iron, hides, copper, wax, caviar, potash, beef, furs, cordage, sail-cloth, tar, butter, sainglass, &c. We subjoin an official

Account of the Value of the Exports from and Imports into the Port of Odessa in the different Years from 1802 to 1839 inclusive.

Years	Exports.	Imports.	Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Years.	Exports.	Imports.
	<i>Rbls.</i>	<i>Rbls.</i>		<i>Rbls.</i>	<i>Rbls.</i>		<i>Rbls.</i>	<i>Rbls.</i>
1802	1,284,000	719,000	1820	16,581,000	7,799,000	1830	27,031,000	14,271,000
1804	3,339,000	1,923,000	1821	16,068,000	8,065,000	1831	30,063,000	15,311,000
1805	3,299,000	4,156,000	1822	13,008,000	7,216,000	1832	29,419,000	14,983,000
1812	2,555,000	2,165,000	1823	19,115,000	8,554,000	1833	31,552,000	14,581,000
1814	2,280,000	4,965,000	1824	15,079,000	8,184,000	1834	33,373,000	15,299,000
1815	14,669,000	4,516,000	1825	30,099,000	8,424,000	1835	35,591,000	17,579,000
1816	17,717,000	4,920,000	1826	31,711,000	8,123,000	1836	34,261,000	16,629,000
1817	41,635,000	19,716,000	1827	18,479,000	12,769,000	1837	35,428,000	19,251,000
1818	20,535,000	16,191,000	1828	1,673,000	6,195,000	1838	38,390,000	21,509,000
1819	15,525,000	8,599,000	1829	6,724,000	7,156,000	1839	46,636,500	—

The great amount of the exports in 1816 and 1817 is ascribable to the failure of the corn crops in Italy and Western Europe during those two years, and to the consequent high price and ready demand for the wheat of Odessa, Dantzie, &c. The small amount of the trade in 1828 and 1829 is accounted for by the war with Turkey having interrupted all communication with the port by the channel of Constantinople. Subjoined is an

Account of the Arrivals of Wheat at Odessa since the beginning of the present Century.

Year	Arrived	Quantity	Year	Arrived	Quantity
1801	arrived	53,143 chetverts.*	1835	arrived	376,100 chetverts.
1802	—	485,166	1836	—	578,700
1803	—	494,838	1837	—	505,498
1804-13	—	1,898,267 average 184,836 chets. a year.	1838	—	1,241,000
1814-23	—	3,802,000 average 680,400 chets. a year.	1839	—	1,155,000
1824-33	—	7,279,400 average 727,900 chets. do.	1840	—	680,000
1834	—	691,000			

* A chetvert is equivalent to about 6 imperial bushels, or 5-4ths of a quarter.

The small amount of the wheat brought to Odessa in 1835 was owing to the almost total failure of the crops in S. Russia in the course of that year. The price of the best wheat in Odessa is rarely under 2½ or 2s; a quarter; and, during the 3 years ending with 1840, it was 34s. 6d. free on board; the freight and other charges on importing a quarter of wheat from Odessa to England may be estimated at about 15s. Constantinople, Genoa, Leghorn, Marseilles, and Malta are the principal markets for Odessa wheat; but when our crops are deficient, considerable quantities are shipped for England. In 1839, the exports from Odessa comprised, among other things, 1,210,233 chetverts of wheat, nearly 200,000 do. rye, oats, &c., 155,194 do. linseed, 118,000 pounds wool, and 228,192 pounds tallow. The subjoined account of the merchants belonging to Odessa inscribed in the different guilds affords an additional illustration of the progress of its commerce since 1808.

	Merchants.			
	In 1st Guild.	2d Guild.	3d Guild.	Total.
In 1808	—	39	135	206
1815	—	85	190	276
1825	—	11	67	81
1828	—	84	302	382
1838	—	67	64	725

The great articles of import into Odessa consist of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; cottons, silks, woollens, and other manufactured goods; oil, wines, and spirits; spices and dya-stuffs; cotton twist and raw cotton; lemon juice; tin and tin plates; cutlery, timber for building and firewood, &c. About 800 ships from foreign parts enter and leave Odessa in ordinary years. Including Maltese and Ionian, nearly 200 ships under English colours have arrived in the port in a single season; but their number is very fluctuating, depending essentially on the state of the corn trade.

A tribunal of commerce was established at Odessa in 1824, whose jurisdiction extends over all disputes connected with trade. There is no appeal from its decisions except to the Senate. There are 12 sworn brokers, approved and licensed by the Tribunal of Commerce, who have deputies appointed by themselves. They register all transactions, and receive ½ per cent. from each party as commission. There is a discount or loan bank, established in 1828, and marine and fire insurance societies. Most articles of provision are cheap; and fish, which costs next to nothing, is excellent. Fuel, however, is scarce and dear.

The exports of tallow have increased twenty-fold in 10 years; materially augmenting the value of the herds, and enriching vast countries, which must have remained comparatively poor, had not this outlet been found for their produce.

The increase in the exportation of wool is also very considerable. Within the last 20 years, the Merino breed of sheep has been extensively introduced into the governments of Taurida, Cherson, and

Khatarnasov ; an that there has been not only a great increase in the quantity, but also a very decided improvement in the quality, of the wool exported.

The iron shipped at Odessa is principally brought from Siberia, partly by the Wolga, and partly by the Don to Taganrog, whence it is conveyed to Odessa. A good deal of it is in a manufactured state, from the *Smidlers* at Tula ; but the demand for it both in Europe and Asia has been perceptibly diminishing for some years past, and the exports are now comparatively small. Timber for ship-building, and pitch and tar, are also brought from Taganrog.

Corn Trade.—The principal trade of Odessa is with Constantinople, Smyrna, and other towns in the Levant, Naples, Leghorn, Genoa, Marseilles, &c. "It is generally stated," says Mr. Jacob (*Memoir on the Trade of the Black Sea*, in the *Appendix to the 8vo edition of Tracts on the Corn Trade*), "that the supply of Constantinople requires annually 100,000 quarters of Black Sea wheat. The Greek islands scarcely, on the average of years, produce sufficient wheat for their own consumption, and, in some years, require a large supply, which is furnished partly from the neighbouring continent, and partly from the Black Sea.

"The Asiatic coasts of the Turkish Empire, especially in Anatolia, are nearly in the same predicament. At times, the market of Smyrna is very favourable for the sale of the corn of Southern Russia. The islands of Malta and Gozo produce only about half as much corn as the 120,000 inhabitants require.

"Sicily, though it has greatly declined from its ancient productiveness, has still a quantity of grain to spare for the less fruitful parts of Italy, in most years ; and its wheat enters into competition with that of the Black Sea, in the ports of Naples, Genoa, and Leghorn.

"There are few years in which Tuscany grows a sufficiency of wheat ; and its chief port, Leghorn, being one of those in which ships can unload their cargoes of corn, without being detained to perform quarantine, has been at all times a place of deposit for the wheat of the Black Sea. A market at some price may always be found there, as the capitalists are disposed to purchase ; relying on the uncertain productiveness of some adjacent country, in which they may realise a profit at no great distance.

"In seasons, like Leghorn, is port where wheat can be unloaded within the bounds of the lazaretto. The country around it yields but little wheat ; and, at some periods, it enjoys a trade in that article even as far as Sunderland. This internal demand, and the chance of advantageous re-exportation, induces much trade in corn. There is said to be seldom less than 100,000 quarters in store at the two ports of Genoa and Leghorn ; and at some periods, a far greater quantity.

"Siles, though not having the same advantageous quarantine regulations, and, consequently, not being a *depot* for corn beyond its own demand, from the sterile soil that surrounds it, requires every year a large importation of wheat. That of Silesy and Odessa create a competition in its port ; and the government draws a revenue, by imposing a heavy duty on both.

"Though the corn laws of France have kept the ports closed against the introduction of foreign corn for domestic use, yet it is allowed to be bonded for re-exportation. From the frequent local and partial scarcities which occur on the eastern coast of Spain, at which periods wheat is allowed to be lawfully imported, and, it is said, from the facility of its introduction by contraband, when not legally allowed, Marseilles has been a great *depot* for the wheat of the Black Sea.

"From thence, as also from Gibraltar, where there is generally some in store, it can easily be transported to Spain, to Sardinia, to Corsica, to Tunis, to Tripoli, or wherever scarcity has created a beneficial market.

"The coast of Barbary, though often having a surplus of wheat, much of which occasionally assists to feed Portugal, in some seasons have been affected with most deplorable harvests. This was recently the case in a remarkable degree. Tripoli and Tunis experienced, in the year 1820, a harvest most miserably short, and were supplied from other countries."

Charges on Shipping Corn.—In 1816, the expenses of delivering a chetwert of wheat free on board, including commission, warehouse rent, and shipping charges, amounted to upwards of 5 roubles ; but at present (1830) they do not exceed 2 roubles. The duties per chetwert are as follow :—

	Wheat.	Other grain.
Export duty	21 3-5ths cop.	11 cop.
Alimentine	—	—
Town and harbour duties	7½	8
Lycium duty	9	9
	38½	22½

The warehouse rent of corn at Odessa is from 8 to 10 copecks per chetwert per month. M. De Hagemester supposes that Turkey and the different ports of the Mediterranean require, at an average, an annual supply of 1,400,000 chetwerts, or about 1,000,000 quarters, of which 1,000,000 chetwerts, or 750,000 quarters, are furnished by Southern Russia, and principally shipped from Odessa. Wallachia and Moldavia are both very fertile in corn ; and were tranquility and good order introduced into them, and the free navigation of the Danube secured, Galatz and Braloff would be two of the principal European grain shipping ports. (See the excellent Report of Hagemester on the Trade of the Black Sea, pp. 96—114. Eng. trans.)

Wheat exported from Odessa pays an export duty of 8 roubles per 10 poods.

Exclusive of corn, the other articles mentioned as being exported from Odessa, find their way to the different markets in the Mediterranean. Those shipped for Turkey are iron, tallow, sail-cloth, cordage, anchors for ships of war, butter, &c. The exports to Italy and other European countries are similar.

The importation of all foreign articles into the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff is confined to Odessa, Theodosia or Kaffa, and Taganrog. The import trade is, however, of inferior importance when compared with the export trade. The principal articles are sugar and coffee, dye woods, wine and brandy, cotton stuffs and yarn, woollens and silk manufactures, spices, cutlery, oranges, lemons, figs, and other fruit ; lemon juice, oil, tin and tin plates, dried fruits, paper, silk, specie, &c.

The following instructive details as to the trade of Odessa in 1842 have been obtained from a quarter on which every reliance may be placed.

The import trade at Odessa in 1842 exceeded, by a trifling amount, that of the two preceding years, in consequence of the larger quantities of olive oil and refined sugar introduced. Of these articles, the first is almost wholly carried into the country, even as far as Moscow ; while the consumption of the latter is confined by the tariff to this town, though a part may no doubt be smuggled out of it. In wine there was a considerable falling off ; and so there appears to have been in manufactures ; but, on this head, the official report may be distrusted, and precise information can hardly be obtained. The ships that carry out manufactured goods from British and other ports for Odessa seldom bring them to their destination, the importers here preferring to have them transhipped in the Bosphorus into the steamers which run between Constantinople and this place, that they may avail themselves of the facilities accorded in favour of steam navigation, whereby some vexatious customs formalities are avoided. There is also a disposition in all parties to show imports at their least possible amount : and value, lest any apparent excess should raise in Petersburg the suspicion of an illicit trade being carried on by the privileged town. A new item in the returns, that of opium of the value of 25,000 roubles, would have deserved more particular notice, were its future introduction not arrested by a duty, brought into force during the present year—40 silver roubles per pood, equal to 3s. 6d. per pound English—which is considered as implying prohibition. The drug imported from Smyrna, was sent to Moscow, destined for the caravans going to Kacheta.

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"The return of exports exhibits an increase upon the trade of preceding years, from the larger shipments of wheat and tallow. The quantity of wheat exported was 3,656 quarters, of which 200,569 quarters were for England, and the remainder chiefly for Genoa, Leghorn, Marseilles, and other ports of the Mediterranean. The purchases for British account had in most part been made late in the autumn of 1841, though the shipments were long delayed by reason of the suspended navigation in the winter; those for the Mediterranean were, on the other hand, in great part made only after the cessation of demand for England, and prices had receded from 30s. and 32s. to 22s. and 20s. per quarter. The grain speculations were throughout unsuccessful, but those on English account were nothing less than ruinous. The Odessa commission merchants were not, however, involved in the losses, for they detained the wheat which had not been shipped, and by its resale covered their unpaid drafts. In this way many ships, that came chartered, found no cargoes; indeed such was the situation of 20 vessels belonging to one concern.

"It may be observed, that prices of wheat in this place are affected much more by a demand from England than by one from other countries; for the English agent goes into the market with orders in hand which are to be hastily executed, more regard being had to time than to price, in consequence of the fluctuating duty in England. Whereas those engaged in the regular trade for the Mediterranean purchase at leisure, and have even supplied the English purchasers from their own stores, securing to themselves an immediate profit. The quantity of wheat remaining at Odessa at the end of the year (1842) was about 120,000 quarters. This stock will not be augmented by the produce of the circumjacent Steppes, where the crops failed; but large supplies are expected to arrive next May and June from the Polish provinces, where the harvest was abundant. A new feature in the grain trade of 1842 was the arrival here of about 5,000 quarters of wheat from Austria, Galicia, which came down the Dniester as far as Mayac, and thence to Odessa overland. The duty on wheat brought into Russia over the land frontier is one rouble paper money, per chetwet, which at the exchange of 22 roubles per £, is 1s. 3d. per quarter; but it is generally believed that this duty will be considerably augmented, if such importations are continued to any large amount.

"The exportation of tallow amounted to 9,256 tons, of which 8,851 tons went to England. The quantity shipped in 1840 and 1841 was only 6,222 and 5,922 tons. This excess was occasioned by the fact of the carriage of a good deal of tallow, made in neighbouring districts, and destined for Petersburg, having been prevented by the state of the roads from being sent thither. It was, therefore, sold to the Odessa merchants, who hope that those transactions may lead to a continued diversion of the tallow that formerly went to Petersburg into this new channel.

"Notwithstanding the export of wool has not fallen off, the owners of merinos complain of extreme distress arising from low prices, and from several disadvantages natural to this country, under which it is difficult for these establishments to prosper. They have, however, been signally favoured by the mildness of the two last winters, during which their flocks were kept upon open pasture. A transaction, too, which took place in October, seems to promise a new source of profit to them. A sale was made by Mr. Baguer, the owner of a fine flock in the vicinity of Kertch, of 2000 merino sheep to the Sultan. They were carried in five vessels to Constantinople, where they arrived in perfect condition, and gave great satisfaction. It is thought that Asia Minor unites in a high degree the various conditions necessary to the production of fine wool; and if the example set by the Sultan should open the way to such undertakings, the owners here will be able to dispose of their surplus stocks.

"The rates of freight fluctuated as usual in these ports, having ranged from 65 to 35 shillings per ton. Great losses were incurred by the chartered ships which could not get cargoes, and which, after the expiration of their 'lay days,' accepted low freights here, and had to claim the differences of their original charterers in England, in most cases bankrupts by the failure of grain speculations."

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Odessa and other Russian Ports on the Black Sea and Sea of Azoff in 1847, specifying the Quantities shipped from each Port, with the total Value of the Exports from the same.

Description.	Odessa.	Eupatoria and Theodosia.	Taganrog.	Rostoff.	Mariopol and Berdiansk.	Total Exports.
Wheat - - - - - imp. qrs.	2,016,628	109,097	546,856	236,670	680,989	3,590,234
Rye - - - - - "	249,290	63,576	15,120	14,724	24,296	358,106
Indian Corn - - - - - "	27,409	-	-	-	-	27,409
Barley - - - - - "	161,100	-	21,693	864	4,464	187,061
Oats - - - - - "	15,416	-	-	-	-	15,466
Peas - - - - - "	2,340	-	-	-	-	2,340
Flour - - - - - "	17,000	-	-	-	-	17,000
Butter - - - - - cwt.	684	263	3,277	806	-	5,030
Caviar - - - - - "	2,102	-	6,515	61	-	7,778
Lineded - - - - - imp. qrs.	172,664	-	36,223	224,456	89,217	514,556
Rapeseed - - - - - "	1,460	-	9,108	5,040	22,623	38,231
Wax - - - - - cwt.	344	-	-	-	-	344
Candles - - - - - "	5,474	-	-	-	-	5,474
Cables and Cordage - - - - - "	16,010	-	3,198	-	-	19,208
Wool - - - - - "	44,505	264	10,256	19,735	181	74,841
Hides - - - - - "	5,219	858	491	362	-	6,930
Tallow - - - - - tons	5,298	-	3,610	825	101	10,234
Iron - - - - - "	290	-	703	2,241	-	3,234
Planks and Staves - - - - - vsus £	3,686	-	-	-	-	3,686
Fur - - - - - "	4,174	-	-	-	-	4,174
Gold thread and spangles - - - - - "	2,470	-	-	-	-	2,470
Manufactures - - - - - "	15,489	268	4,000	-	-	19,757
Sundries - - - - - "	68,218	-	-	-	-	68,218
Total Value of Exports, according to Custom House Reports £}	5,699,174	193,051	949,534	830,463	1,192,869	8,865,111

"The exports of wheat from Odessa in 1847, exceeded, we believe, the exports from any other port in any single year, either in ancient or modern times. They reached, as seen by the above table, the prodigious amount of 2,016,622 quarters, being 737,150 quarters more than their amount in 1845, the year of the greatest previous exportation. The average price of wheat free on board in 1847, considerably exceeded 40s. a quarter; but taking it only at that sum, the gross value of the exports of that grain from this single port must have exceeded 4 millions sterling! This excess may be ascribed in part to the extremely abundant harvest of 1846, in Southern Russia and Poland, and in part to the high prices and great demand for wheat in this country, and to France, which made every corner of the country accessible by the Black Sea be ransacked for supplies. Of the quantity exported the largest share went to Marseilles; our imports were, however, very heavy, having amounted to 462,000 quarters, including those from Taganrog.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles Imported into the U. Kingdom from Russian Ports within the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff in the undermentioned Years.

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Corn, Indian qrs.	—	9,549	6,805	5,582	42,169
— Wheat —	50,517	101,003	82,547	165,604	469,207
Hemp, undressed cwt.	1,444	5,081	—	—	—
Seeds, linseed and flax —	—	—	—	—	—
— seed qrs.	84,829	140,310	806,815	147,318	255,710
— rape —	3,808	5,737	4,311	7,133	1,882
Tallow cwt.	159,853	129,512	120,407	145,514	195,877
Wool, sheep and lambs lbs.	2,364,235	2,845,504	5,369,369	2,076,922	2,144,457

Return of the principal Articles of Import sent from the (so-called) Free Port and Town of Odessa into the Interior of the Empire during 1845, on Payment of 4-5ths of the Tariff Duties; the remaining 1-5th having been first paid on Goods when brought by Sea to Odessa.

Cotton wool cwt.	14,151	Tin —	—	—	—	937
Cotton twist —	4,537	Wine —	—	—	—	5,199
Raw silk —	891	Do. —	—	—	—	21,658
Coffee —	996	Porter —	—	—	—	48,968
Raw sugar —	486	Rum —	—	—	—	6,511
Olive oil —	18,840	Fresh fruit —	—	—	—	17,882
Olives —	1,518	Drugs —	—	—	—	14,532
Pepper and other spices —	4,663	Colouring materials —	—	—	—	10,900
Tobacco —	4,025	Manufactures —	—	—	—	9,778
Dry fruit —	85,985	Precious stones, &c. —	—	—	—	15,451
Furniture wood —	1,578	Sundries —	—	—	—	84,136
Lead —	17,079	Declared verbally by travellers —	—	—	—	12,193

Return of Duties levied at Odessa in the Year 1842.

Levied for the Imperial treasury on imports sent into the country at 4-5ths of the tariff duty	106,852	Levied for the benefit of the town of Odessa:—	—
Additional duties	9,540	On imports entered for the town's consumption, at 1-5th of tariff duties	76,769
Duties on goods prohibited out of the town, by weight	4,755	On grain	1,969
On home produce exported	35,431	Tonnage and anchorage	3,060
Dues for the Richelieu Lyceum	5,540		
On goods declared verbally by travellers at the barriers	8,091	Levied for lighthouses	665
	167,510	Total	801,993

Account of the extreme Prices of the principal articles of Import and Export, and of the extreme Rate of the Exchanges and of Freight, in Odessa, in 1842.

Articles.	Highest.	Lowest.	Articles.	Highest.	Lowest.
Cotton wool (Smyrna)	51d. per lb.	41d. per lb.	Wheat	82s. per qr.	19s. 4d. per qr.
Cotton twist (English)	1s. 1d. —	9d. —	Livseed	34s. 6d. —	35s. —
Refined sugar	64d. —	5d. —	Tallow	55s. 6d. per cwt.	50s. per cwt.
Coffee	1s. 3d. —	5d. —	Washed common wool	6d. per lb.	41d. per lb.
Tea	7s. —	4s. —	— sigys	9d. —	5d. —
Olive oil	8s. —	5s. —	— merinos	1s. 5d. —	1s. 1d. —

Odessa, in addition to its great and rapidly increasing trade with Constantinople and the countries on the Mediterranean, has a considerable trade with Redout-kaló at the mouth of the Phasis, and with Trebisond and several ports on the south coast of the Black Sea. Georgian and Armenian merchants are already considerable purchasers at the Leipzig and other German fairs; and civilization is beginning to strike its roots throughout all its extensive countries between the Black Sea and the Caspian. It is probable that, at no very remote period, the Phasis will be frequented by British ships; and that our merchants, without any enchantress to aid them, and depending only on the superior cheapness and excellence of their goods, will be hospitably received in the ancient Colchis, and bear away a richer prize than fell to the lot of Jason and his Argonauts.

Epochs in the Trade of the Black Sea. Depth of Water. Difficulty of Navigation, &c.—The trade of the Black or Euxine Sea was of great importance in antiquity. The shores of the Crimea, or Taurica Chersonesus, were settled by Milesian adventurers, who founded Panticapæum and Theodosia. The exports thence to Athens were nearly the same as those which are now sent from Odessa and Taganrog to Constantinople, Leghorn, &c.; viz. corn, timber, and naval stores, leather, wax, honey, salt fish, caviare, &c., with great numbers of slaves, the best and most serviceable that were anywhere to be met with. The Athenians set a very high value upon this trade, which supplied them annually with about 400,000 medimni of corn; and to preserve it they carefully cultivated the allies of the Thracian princes, and kept a garrison at Sestus, on the Hellespont.—(See the authorities in *Anacharsis's Travels*, c. 55.; and in *Clarke's Connection of the Saxon and English Coins*, pp. 54.—64.) During the middle ages, the Genoese acquired an ascendancy on this sea, and laboured with pretty considerable success to monopolise its trade. Their principal establishment was at Caffa, which was the centre of a considerable commerce. But the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, was soon after followed by the conquest of Caffa, and the total exclusion of European vessels from the Black Sea, which became in a great measure unknown. This exclusion was main-

tained for about 300 years, or till it was opened to the ships of Russia by the treaty of Kalnardgi in 1774. The Austrians obtained a similar equality of privileges in 1784; and British, French, &c. ships were admitted by the treaty of Amiens. There were, however, some restraints still kept up; but these have been abolished by the latter treaty between the Turks and Russians in 1829; and, for commercial purposes at least, the Black Sea is now as free as the Mediterranean.

Notwithstanding the number of English and other European ships that have visited this sea within the last 20 years, its geography is still very imperfectly known. A notion seems to have been long prevalent, that it was not only stormy, but also infested with numerous shoals. Polybius, indeed, contends, that, owing to the vast quantities of alluvial deposit brought down by the Danube and other large rivers that fall into the Black Sea, it was gradually filling up, and would become, at no very remote period, an immense morass. Dr. Clarke seems to have espoused the same theory. But, how probable soever it may appear, extremely little progress has hitherto been made towards the consummation described by Polybius. Instead of being shallow, the water is for the most part remarkably deep; with a bottom, where soundings have been obtained, of gravel, sand, and shells. A strong current sets from the Black Sea, through the Bosphorus, or Canal of Constantinople, into the Sea of Marmara, and from the latter through the Dardanelles, which it requires a fresh breeze to stem. This current is said to be sensibly felt in the Black Sea, 10 or 12 miles from the Bosphorus; and it may probably carry off some of the mud brought down by the rivers. — (See *Tournefort's Voyage du Levant*, Lett. 15, 16.; Art. 9. in No. I. of the *Journal of the Geographical Society*; *Macgill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. p. 245., &c.)

The navigation of the Black Sea has been represented by most modern and all ancient writers as exceedingly dangerous. We believe, however, that there is very little foundation for the greater number of the statements on this subject. It is said to be particularly subject to dense fogs, and to currents; but the former are prevalent only at particular seasons, and the influence of the latter is not greater than in many other seas which are not reputed dangerous. Tournefort, one of the best and most accurate of travellers, considers the navigation of the Black Sea as safe as that of the Mediterranean:

— "Il n'a rien de noir, pour ainsi dire, que le nom: les vents n'y soufflent pas avec plus de furie, et les orages ne sont guères plus fréquens que sur les autres mers." — (Tome ii. p. 164. 4to ed.) Dr. Clarke (*Travels*, vol. ii. p. 387. 8vo ed.) affects to doubt this; but he assigns no grounds for his opinion; and who would think of putting his authority in competition with that of Tournefort? Indeed the accuracy of the statements of the latter has been fully established by the recent reports of Captain Middleton and other able officers who have navigated this sea. But, though without "a hidden danger," any sea would be dangerous to the Greek and Turkish pilots, by whom the Black Sea has been principally navigated. If the progress of navigation were to be estimated by its state amongst them, we should have to conclude that it had been stationary from the era of the Argonauts. They seldom venture out of sight of the coasts; they have neither charts nor quadrants; and hardly even know that one of the points of the needle turns towards the North! — (*Tournefort, in loc. cit.*) There is not, certainly, much room for wonder at shipwrecks being frequent among vessels so navigated. On leaving the Black Sea, the greatest difficulty is in making the Bosphorus. "The mountains," says Mr. Macgill, "are all so much alike, that it is difficult to determine which of them is at the entrance, until you are within a very few miles of the coast: then, with a fair wind, you are on a lee shore with a lee current; and if you make a mistake, destruction is almost inevitable. The Turks have two light-houses at the entrance; but unless you see them before sunset, they are of little use: in the forests, on its borders, great quantities of charcoal are made, and the lights from it bewilder, and often mislead, the unhappy mariner." — (i. 245.)

From the vast quantity of fresh water poured into the Black Sea, the saline particles are so much diluted, that, with a slight frost, the surface becomes covered with ice; hence, during a great part of the year, hardly any navigation is attempted. The vessels that resort to Odessa seldom arrive at that port before the latter end of May; and those whose voyages are not completed before the end of October, more frequently wait the return of spring, than adventure to encounter the dangers of an autumnal or winter voyage.

At Timgarog the frost commences earlier, and continues longer, than at Odessa; so that there are scarcely more than 4 or 5 months in the year, during which the Sea of Azoff can be safely navigated.

OIL. (*Fr. Huile*; *Ger. Oel*; *It. Olio*; *Lat. Oleum*; *Rus. Maslo*; *Sp. Aceite*.) The term oil is applied to designate a number of unctuous liquors, which, when dropped upon paper, sink into it and make it seem semi-transparent, or give it what is called a greasy stain. These bodies are very numerous, and have been in common use from time immemorial. Chemists have divided them into two classes; namely, *volatile* and *fixed* oils. We borrow from Dr. Thomas Thomson the following statement with respect to these bodies: —

from Russian
ars.

1847.	
49,169	
409,897	
535,710	
1,889	
13,977	
2,144,457	

wn of Odessa into
ars; the remaining

- cwts.	937
- hhds.	5,130
- bottles	51,658
-	49,908
- galls.	5,311
value £	17,492
-	14,356
-	10,000
-	6,078
-	15,431
-	64,136
-	15,129

ness: —

umpion, at	79,760
-	1,989
-	9,060
-	85,818
-	665
-	831,093

of the extreme Rate

Lowest.	
10s. 4d. per qr.	—
30s.	—
50s. per cwt.	—
14s. per lb.	—
8d.	—
1s. 1d.	—

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Navigation, &c. —
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in 1453, was soon
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1. **Volatile Oils**, called also *essential oils*, are distinguished by the following properties:—1. Liquid, often almost as liquid as water, sometimes viscid; 2. Very combustible; 3. An acid taste and a strong fragrant odour; 4. Volatilised at a temperature not higher than 212°; 5. Soluble in alcohol, and imperfectly in water; 6. Evaporate without leaving any stain on paper.

By this last test it is easy to discover whether they have been adulterated with any of the fixed oils. Let a drop of the volatile oil fall upon a sheet of writing paper, and then apply a gentle heat to it; if it evaporates without leaving any stain upon the paper, the oil is pure; but if it leaves a stain upon the paper, it has been contaminated with some fixed oil or other.

Volatile oils are almost all obtained from vegetables, and they exist in every part of plants,—the root the bark, the wood, the leaves, the flower, and even the fruit; though they are never found in the substance of the cotyledons; whereas the fixed oils, on the contrary, are almost always contained in these bodies.

When the volatile oils are contained in great abundance in plants, they are sometimes obtained by simple expression. This is the case with oil of oranges, of lemons and bergamotte; but in general they can only be obtained by distillation. The part of the plant containing the oil is put into a still with a quantity of water, which is distilled off by the application of a moderate heat. The oil comes over along with the water, and swims upon its surface in the receiver. By this process are obtained the oil of peppermint, thyme, lavender, and a great many others, which are prepared and employed by the perfumer; others are procured by the distillation of resinous bodies. This is the case in particular with oil of turpentine, which is obtained by distilling a kind of resinous juice, called turpentine, that exudes from the juniper.

Volatile oils are exceedingly numerous. They have been long known; but as their use in chemistry is but limited, they have not, hitherto, been subjected to an accurate chemical investigation. They differ greatly in their properties from each other; but it is impossible at present to give a detailed account of each.

1. The greater number of volatile oils are *liquid*; many, indeed, are as limpid as water, and have none of that appearance which we usually consider oily. This is the case with the following; namely, oil of turpentine, oranges, lemons, bergamotte, roses.—Others have the oily viscosity. It varies in them in all degrees. This is the case with the oils of mace, cardamom, saffraan, cloves, cinnamon.—Others have the property of becoming solid. This is the case with the oils of parsley, fennel, aniseed, balsam.—Others crystallise by slow evaporation. This is the case with oil of thyme, peppermint, marjoram.—The oil of nutmeg has usually the consistence of butter. This is the case also with the oils of hops and of pepper.

2. The colour of the volatile oils is as various as their other properties. A great number are limpid and colourless; as oil of turpentine, lavender, rosemary, saffron, aniseed; some are yellow; as spike, bergamotte; some are brown; as thyme, savory, wormwood; others blue; as camomile, motherwort; others green; as millfoil, pepper, hops, parsley, wormwood, cajuput, juniper, sage, valerian; others, though at first colourless, become yellow or brown by age; as cloves, cinnamon, saffraan.

3. The odours are so various as to defy all description. It is sufficient to say, that all the fragrance of the vegetable kingdom resides in volatile oils. Their taste is acrid, hot, and exceedingly unpleasant.

4. Their specific gravity varies very considerably, not only in different oils, but even in the same oil in different circumstances. The following are the specific gravities of several of the volatile oils, as ascertained by Dr. Lewis:—

Oil of saffraan	-	-	-	1.004	Oil of tansy	-	-	-	.916
cinnamon	-	-	-	1.035	caraway seeds	-	-	-	.940
cloves	-	-	-	1.054	origanum	-	-	-	.940
fennel	-	-	-	.997	spike	-	-	-	.936
dill	-	-	-	.996	rosemary	-	-	-	.954
peppermint	-	-	-	.978	juniper berries	-	-	-	.911
cumin	-	-	-	.975	oranges	-	-	-	.888
mint	-	-	-	.975	turpentine	-	-	-	.792
nutmegs	-	-	-	.918					

When the volatile oils are heated in the open air, they evaporate readily, and without alteration diffuse their peculiar odours all around; but there is a considerable difference between the different oils in this respect. When distilled in close vessels, they do not so readily assume the form of vapour. Hence they lose their odour, become darker in colour, and are partly decomposed. Oils do not seem very susceptible of assuming the gaseous form, unless some other substance, as water, be present.

11. **Fixed Oils** are distinguished by the following characters:—1. Liquid, or easily becomes so when exposed to a gentle heat; 2. An unctuous feel; 3. Very combustible; 4. A mild taste; 5. Boiling point not under 600°; 6. Insoluble in water, and nearly so in alcohol; 7. Leave a greasy stain upon paper.

These oils, which are called fat or expressed oils, are numerous, and are obtained partly from animals and partly from vegetables, by simple expression. As instances, may be mentioned whale oil or train oil obtained from the blubber of the whale and from cod; olive oil, obtained from the fruit of the olive; linseed oil and almond oil, obtained from linseed and almond kernels. Fixed oils may also be extracted from poppy seeds, hemp seeds, beech mast, and many other vegetable substances.

All these oils differ from each other in several particulars, but have also many particulars in common. 1. Fixed oil is usually a liquid with a certain degree of viscosity, adhering to the sides of the glass vessels in which it is contained, and forming streaks. It is never perfectly transparent; has always a certain degree of colour, most usually yellowish or greenish; its taste is sweet, or nearly insipid. When fresh it has little or no smell.

There exist also in the vegetable kingdom a considerable number of bodies which, at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, are solid, and have hitherto been considered as fixed oils. Palm oil may be mentioned as an example. The various substances used in India and Africa as substitutes for butter, and as unguents, may likewise be mentioned.

2. All the fixed oils hitherto examined are lighter than water; but they differ greatly from one another in specific gravity. The same difference is observable in different samples of the same oil. The following Table contains the specific gravity of such oils as have been examined:—

Oil of palm	-	-	-	.968	Oil of beech nuts	-	-	-	.993
hazel nuts	-	-	-	.941	ben	-	-	-	.917
poppies	-	-	-	.939	olives	-	-	-	.913
linseed	-	-	-	.932	rape-seed	-	-	-	.913
almonds	-	-	-	.932	cacao	-	-	-	.892
walnut	-	-	-	.935 to 947					

Fixed oil when in the state of vapour, takes fire on the approach of an ignited body, and burns with a yellowish white flame. It is upon this principle that candles and lamps burn. The tallow or oil is first converted into a state of vapour in the wick; it then takes fire, and supplies a sufficient quantity of heat to convert more oil into vapour; and this process goes on while any oil remains. The wick is necessary, to present a sufficiently small quantity of oil at once for the heat to act upon. If the heat were great enough to keep the whole oil at a temperature of 600°, no wick would be necessary, as it is obvious from oil catching fire spontaneously when it has been raised to that temperature. When oil is used in this manner, either in the open air or in contact with oxygen gas, the only new products obtained are *water* and *carbonic acid*.

The drying oils are used as the vehicle of paints and varnishes. Linseed, nut, poppy, and hemp-seed oils belong to this class. These oils in their natural state possess the property of drying oils, but imper-

paration of the best species of soaps, and other departments of industry, this duty was much and justly objected to. In consequence it was reduced in 1841, to 4l. 4s. if imported indirectly and not in a Neapolitan ship, and in 1845, the duty was farther reduced to 2s. and 4s. a ton according to the vessels in which it is imported. At present, therefore, the amount of the duty cannot be justly objected to, but the differential principle on which it has been and is imported, is most objectionable. It imitates and (in so far as copying can do) justifies the worst part of the commercial policy of the Neapolitan government, and prompts them to keep up high discriminating duties on all articles imported into Naples and Sicily in British ships. So wretched an attempt at retaliation is quite unworthy of an enlightened nation, and deserves to be universally scouted. It is, in fact, injurious only to ourselves.

Account of the Quantities of Olive Oil imported into the United Kingdom during each of the 7 Years ending with 1841 (specifying the Countries from which the Oil was brought and the Quantities brought from each, with the Quantities entered for Home Consumption.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
France	<i>Galls.</i> 48,999	<i>Galls.</i> 30,093	<i>Galls.</i> 3,884	<i>Galls.</i> 6,714	<i>Galls.</i> 11,095	<i>Galls.</i> 5,797	<i>Galls.</i> 56,883
Portugal Proper	170	10,436	108,133	407,046	686,723	41,757	11,598
Spain and the Baleares Islands	1,795	569,254	683,141	57,943	136,167	1,205,264	682,087
Italy and the Italian Islands	376,654	1,818,753	898,508	1,595,774	783,093	719,333	263,436
Ionian Islands	68,801	40,868	84,078	47,500	66,751	66,318	10,810
Turkey	84,789	55,093	15,434	86,725	40,503	48,936	45,598
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco	41,115	109,474	50,996	99,866	130,893	45,706	11,068
All other countries	39,868	86,538	29,806	14,856	46,978	13,290	113,071
Totals	806,166	3,688,016	1,721,914	3,009,110	1,793,930	3,415,436	1,195,000
Quantities entered for home consumption	534,196	1,844,622	1,496,656	3,026,146	1,808,178	1,985,809	1,353,728

Olive oil, the produce of Europe, may not be imported into the U. Kingdom for home consumption, except in British ships or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported on forfeiture of the same and 100l. by the master of the ship. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 64. § 5. 22.)

It is ordered by a Customs Minute of the 23rd July, 1828, that when the actual tare is not taken, 1-8d for tare on each jar, and 1-7th for foot, may be allowed.

Oil Trade of Naples. — The oils of the kingdom of Naples are produced in Apulia, from Bari to its southern extremity, the Capo di Leuca (a district comprising the territories which export from Gallipoli and Taranto; and in Calabria from Rossano, on the Gulph of Taranto, across to Gioja. The whole coast from Gioja as far as Gaeta is covered with olive trees. They are also abundant in the Abruzzi and the Terra di Lavoro; but Apulia and Calabria furnish by far the greatest quantity of oil.

The principal magazines, or *caricatori*, for oil, are at Gallipoli and Gioja.

Gallipoli supplies England, Holland, the north of Europe, and, in short, all those countries that require the most perfectly purified oil. It is clarified to the highest degree, by merely keeping it in cisterns hollowed out of the rock on which the town is built. The voyages it has to perform being long, it is put into casks so well constructed, that it frequently arrives at Petersburg to the great of summer, without the least waste or leakage. — an advantage attributed to the seasoning of the staves, which, before they are put together, are well soaked in sea water.

We borrow the following details with respect to the preparation of oil at Gallipoli, from a very interesting paper, communicated by an English gentleman who had resided in the town. In the volume entitled *Facile e Sostanzosa Materiale di Manufacture*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of useful Knowledge.

"The rock on which the town is built is easily excavated; and in caverns thus constructed oil clarifies sooner, and keeps without rancidity much longer, than in any other place. Hence numerous oil-houses are established at Gallipoli, and a very considerable portion of the rock is cut into cisterns. A Gallipolitan oil warehouse generally occupies the ground floor of a dwelling-house, and has a low arched roof. Some are more extensive, but on an average they are about 30 feet square. In the stone floor you see 4, 6, or more holes, which are circular, about 2 feet in diameter, and like the mouths of wells. Each of these holes gives access to a separate cistern beneath your feet; and when the oil is poured into them care is taken not to mix different qualities, or oils at different stages. In the same reservoir. One cistern is set apart for *oglio mouto*, or oil that is not clarified, another for pure oil of the season, another for old oil, &c. I have seen oil that had thus been preserved for 7 years in a perfect state, or, as the Gallipoli merchants have it, *chiaro, giallo, e lampante*. — words which, during some months, I have heard at least 100 times a day. I also many times verified the fact: the *mouto*, or oil in its turbid state, which arrived almost as black and thick as pitch, soon became bright and yellow in these excellent reservoirs, without any help from man.

"All the oil, whatever may be its quality, is brought to the magazine in sheep or goat skins, which are generally carried on mules — there being but few *strade rotabile*, or roads fit for wheeled carriages, in these parts. In a good year, and at the proper season, I have counted, in the course of an afternoon's ride, as many as 100 mules returning from Gallipoli, where they had been to deposit their untoward burdens, to different towns and villages in the Terra d'Otranto, or the more distant provinces of Bari. The quantity of oil required may be conceived, when I state, that at one time (in the year 1816) I saw 9 English, 3 American, 2 French, and 6 Genoese vessels, (not to mention some small craft from the Adriatic,) all waiting in the cistero of Gallipoli for entire or partial cargoes of it. When the oil is to be shipped, it is drawn off the cistern into *stieri*, or skins, and so carried on men's shoulders down to a small house on the sea shore. In that house there is a large open basin, capable of containing a given quantity, and of measuring the oil; and into that the porters empty their skins as they arrive. A tube communicates from the basin to a large cock at the outside of the house. When the basin is full, well-made casks, of various sizes for the convenience of stowage, are placed under the cock, which is then turned, and the casks are filled. As the casks are closed up by the cooper, the porters roll them down to the brink of the sea, where the sailors secure several of them together with a rope, and taking the end of the cord into the boat, they row off to the vessel, towing the oil casks through the water after them.

"I first became acquainted with the Gallipolitans shortly after the fall of Napoleon, whose system, whatever good parts of it may have done in the rest of Italy, was certainly most ruinous to the provinces of Lecce and Bari. Unable to export, or find any market for their produce, the proprietors in many parts of those provinces let the olives stand and rot upon the ground. For some years, indeed, the price of olives scarcely paid the cost of its preparation, to say nothing of transport and other necessary expenses. During the Continental system, the best *chiaro, giallo, e lampante* oil was sold at Gallipoli for 8 Neapolitan ducats the salma: in 1816 and 1817, it found a ready market at from 60 to 70 ducats per salma!

"Those who, during the evil time, had penetration enough to foresee better days, and that a system opposed to the general commercial prosperity of Europe could not last; and who had, at the same time, money enough for such objects; by annually making their oil as usual, and buying up the oil of others at the low current prices of the day, realized enormous profits when peace threw open the port of Gallipoli, and ships of all nations flocked thither as before.

"The olives of which the Gallipoli oil is made, are never gathered, but allowed to drop in their ma-

owns much and justly indirectly and not only according to the law cannot be justly the most objectionable moral policy of the articles on all articles allation is quite un-act, injurious only to

each of the 7 Years the Quantities brought

1840.	1841.
<i>Galle.</i>	<i>Galle.</i>
6,777	26,483
41,757	11,308
1,205,284	883,282
719,535	565,450
10,678	10,610
14,026	47,558
15,708	11,062
15,930	115,071
9,315,456	1,195,000
1,985,901	1,335,728

for home consumption, from which it is imported at 24. 58 s. 22 y. duty is not taken, 1-3d per gallon. From Bari to the coast export from Gallipoli Gioja. The whole coast in the Abruzzi and the island of Sicily.

in these countries that require keeping it in cisterns perform being long, it is heat of summer, with the heat, which, before they

oil, from a very interesting, in the volume entitled the Diffusion of useful

is constructed oil clarifies some numerous oil-houses cisterns. A Gallipolitan low arched roof. Some stonaceous floor you see 4, 5, or 6 wells. Each of these poured into them care is given. One cistern is set on another for old oil, &c. as the Gallipolitan merchants heard at least 100 times which arrived almost as aervoirs, without any help

of goat skins, which are wheeled carriages, in these (an afternoon's ride, as their unctuous burdens, to the Bari. The quantity (in 1816) I saw 9 English, 3 from the Adriatic, all oil is to be shipped, it is taken to a small house on the coast, a given quantity, and of a tube communicates from the heads of the casks, of various sizes, and the casks are the brink of the sea, where the cord into the boat, they

of Napoleon, whose system, but ruinous to the provinces, the proprietors in many years, indeed, the price of other necessary expenses, sold at Gallipoli for 8 Neapolitan to 70 ducats per salma! other days, and that a system who had, at the same time, buying up the oil of others at a low price, to open the port of Gallipoli,

allowed to drop in their

turty from the tree on the ground, where they are picked up chiefly by women and children, and carried to the mill.

"The machinery employed in expressing the oil is of the rudest kind, and, no doubt, numerous improvements might be introduced, not only into this branch, but into that of cultivating the olive tree. The peasantry, however, and, in the kingdom of Naples, those who stand higher in the scale of fortune and rank, are too often but bores in intellect, are obstinate in their attachment to old practices, and are apt, when any of these are reprehended, to stop discussion by saying—*Faccio come faceva la buon' anima di mio padre, e ciò basta.* (I do as my father of blessed memory did before me, and that's enough.)"

"The poor people of the country make cullinary uses of the same oil that is exported, and which in England is only used in manufactures, or burnt in lamps; but in the houses of the gentry I have often tasted oil prepared with more care, which was truly delicious, being equal to that of Sorrento, Vico, and Massa, or even to the best oils of Tuscany or Provence."—(Pp. 201—204.)

The oil received into the cisterns in Gallipoli, either belongs to the proprietor who buys it of the planter, or is received in deposit on account of some other party who gets a receipt (*biglietto di magazzino*) specifying the quantity of the oil received on his account, its quality, &c. Depositors pay at the rate of 20 grant a-year for every salma of oil to the party holding it in deposit, and who is bound to account for it. The *caricatori* of Bari and Monopoli furnish oils for the consumption of Upper Italy and Germany, through the medium of Venice and Trieste. They also draw supplies from Brindisi and Otranto.

The *caricatori* of Taranto, of Eastern Calabria or Rétromarina, and of Western Calabria, the principal of which is Gioja, furnish supplies for Marsalles, &c. But the *caricatori* now mentioned, having no conveniences for clarification, produce only the thick oils used for soap-making.

The oils of Sicily, like those of Tunis, are too thin to be used singly in the making of soap; and being used only for mixing, are less valuable than most others.

At present (1843) a full crop of oil in the province of Terra d'Otranto is supposed to yield about 300,000 salme, or 41,666 tunne. To facilitate transactions, orders or *cedoles* are circulated, representing quantities of oil deposited in the provincial *caricatori*. These orders are negotiable, like bills of exchange, and are indorsed by the intermediate holder, who receives their value in cash, without, however, becoming liable for their due satisfaction. The only responsible parties are the drawer and drawee. The latter is obliged to deliver the oil at sight, or to hold it, at the bearer's disposal, till the 10th of November for the *caricatori* of Puglia, and till the 1st of December for those of Calabria. If the contract be for time, that is, from one year to another, the oil is usually placed at the purchaser's command on the 1st of March. Purchases for time are effected by means of a contract, wherein the vendor undertakes to deliver the oil by the end of January, on receiving payment of the money; but the oil, as observed above, is not really at the purchaser's disposal before the beginning of March. Hence, in time bargains, the payment of the money precedes the delivery of the oil more than a month; scarce an instance is on record of an engagement of this sort having been broken, and the order is as readily negotiable as any other security.

In purchases of oil at command, payment likewise precedes the delivery of the article; but in this case the advance is confined to the 5 days necessary to transmit the order to the *caricatore* where the oil is kept for delivery.

The oil remains in the *caricatore* under the care and responsibility of the vendor, to be delivered on demand to the bearer of the order, free of all costs and charges whatever for the first year; but for every successive year from 25 to 30 grains per salma are charged for keeping, and for renewal of warranty.—(We are indebted for these details to a very valuable Report by Mr. Steel, vice-consul at Gallipoli, and to a brochure of M. Millenet, entitled *Coup d'œil sur le Royaume de Naples*. Naples, 1832.)

OMNIUM, a term used at the Stock Exchange, to express the aggregate value of the different stocks in which a loan is now usually funded.

Thus, in the loan of 36,000,000*l.* contracted for in June, 1815, the omnium consisted of 130*l.* 3 per cent. reduced annuities, 44*l.* 3 per cent. consols, and 10*l.* 4 per cent. annuities, for each 100*l.* subscribed.

The loan was contracted for on the 14th of June, when the prices of the above stocks were—3 per cent. reduced, 54; 3 per cent. consols, 55; 4 per cent., 70; hence the parcels of stock given for 100*l.* advanced, were worth—

130 <i>l.</i> reduced, at 54	-	-	-	-	£.	s.	d.
44 <i>l.</i> consols, at 55	-	-	-	-	70	4	0
10 <i>l.</i> 4 per cents., at 70	-	-	-	-	24	4	0
					7	0	0

Together - - - - - 101 8 0

which would be the value of the omnium, or 1*l.* 8s. per cent. premium, independently of any discount for prompt payment.

ONION (*Ger. Zwiebel*; *Fr. Oignon*; *It. Cipolla*; *Sp. Cebolla*; *Rus. Лук*), a well known bulbous plant (*Allium Cepa* Linn.) cultivated all over Europe for culinary purposes. The Strasburg, Spanish, and Portuguese varieties are the most esteemed.

ONYX (*Ger. Onyx*; *Fr. Onix, Onice*; *Sp. Onique*; *Lat. Onyx*). "Any stone exhibiting layers of 2 or more colours strongly contrasted is called an *onyx*; as banded jasper, chalcedony, &c., but more particularly the latter, when it is marked with white, and stratified with opaque and translucent lines. But the Oriental onyx is considered a substance consisting of 2 or more layers or bands of distinct and different colours. A sard, or sardoine, having a layer of white upon it, would be called an *onyx*; and according to the number of layers it would be distinguished as an *onyx* with 3 or more bands. Some of the antique engravings are upon onyxes of 4 bands."—*Mawe's Treatise on Diamonds, &c.*

OPAL (*Ger. Opal*; *Fr. Opole*; *It. Opalo*; *Sp. Opalo, Piedra iris*; *Port. Opala*; *Lat. Opalus*), a stone, of which there are several varieties, found in different parts of Europe, particularly in Hungary, and in the East Indies, &c. When first dug out of the earth it is soft, but it hardens and diminishes in bulk by exposure to the air. The opal is always amorphous; fracture conchoidal; commonly somewhat transparent. Hardness varies considerably. Specific gravity from 1.958 to 2.54. The lowness of its specific gravity in some cases is to be ascribed to accidental cavities which the stone contains. These are sometimes filled with drops of water. Some specimens of opal have the property of emitting various coloured rays, with a particular eflulgency, when placed between the eye and the light. The opals which possess this property are distinguished

by lapidaries by the epithet *Oriental*; and often, by mineralogists, by the epithet *nobilis*. This property rendered the stone much esteemed by the ancients.—(Thomson's *Chemistry*; see also *Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvii. c. 6.* where there are some very curious details as to this stone.)

Mr. Mawe gives the following statement with respect to the precious opal, or opal *nobilis*.—"The colour of the opal is white or pearl grey, and when held between the eye and the light is pale red, or wine yellow, with a milky translucency. By reflected light it exhibits, as its position is varied, elegant and most beautiful iridescent colours, particularly emerald green, golden yellow, flame and fire red, violet, purple, and celestial blue, so beautifully blended, and so fascinating, as to captivate the admirer. When the colour is arranged in small spangles, it takes the name of the harlequin opal. Sometimes it exhibits only 1 of the above colours, and of these the most esteemed are the vivid emerald green and the orange yellow. When the stone possesses the latter of these colours, it is called the golden opal.

"The precious opal is not quite so hard as rock crystal: it is frequently full of flaws, which greatly contribute to its beauty, as the vivid iridescent colours which it displays are occasioned by the reflection and refraction of light, which is decomposed at these fissures. It is never cut in facets, but always hemispherical. It is generally small, rarely as big as an almond or hazel nut, though I have seen some specimens the size of a small walnut, for which several hundred pounds were demanded. At present, a pretty opal may be bought at from 1 to 3 or 5 guineas, sufficiently large for a pin or ring stone. It requires great care and judgment in the cutting, as it is fragile and easily spoiled.

"The opal, in all ages, has been highly esteemed: the history of the Roman senator, who preferred death rather than give up his opal ring to the Emperor Nero, is familiar to every one. Among the Eastern nations, the opal ranks higher than in Europe.

"A spurious substance is sometimes sold for black and green opal, and often set in jewellery; it occurs of the size of a small almond, but more commonly not larger than a lentil or pea. This *precious gem* is nothing more than the cartilage of the hinge of a large shell. Glass, and even scoria, having an iridescent appearance, have also often been sold for opal."—(*Treatise on Diamonds, &c. 2d ed. pp. 123—125.*)

OPIUM (Ger. *Mohnsaft*; Fr. *Opium*; It. *Oppio*; Sp. and Port. *Opio*; Lat. *Opium*; Arab. *Ufyoon*; Hind. *Ufsem*; Turk. *Maidjoon*), the concrete juice of the white poppy (*Papaver somniferum*), which is most probably a native of Asia, though now found growing wild in the southern parts of Europe, and even in England. Opium is chiefly prepared in India, Turkey, and Persia; but the white poppy is extensively cultivated in France, and other parts of Europe, on account of its capsules, and of the useful bland oil obtained from its seeds. It has also been cultivated, and opium made, in England: but there is very little probability of its ever being raised here to any considerable extent.

The poppy is an annual plant, with a stalk rising to the height of 3 or 4 feet; its leaves resemble those of the lettuce, and its flower has the appearance of a tulip. When at its full growth, an incision is made in the top of the plant, from which there issues a white milky juice, which soon hardens, and is scraped off the plants, and wrought into cakes. In India, these are covered with the petals of the plant to prevent their sticking together, and in this situation are dried, and packed in chests lined with hides and covered with gunny, each containing 40 cakes, and weighing 2 maunds or 149½ lbs.; they are exported in this state to the places where the opium is consumed. Turkey opium is in flat pieces, covered with leaves, and the reddish capsules of some species of *rumex*; which is considered an indication of its goodness, as the inferior kinds have none of these capsules adhering to them.

According to Dr. A. T. Thomson, Turkey opium has a peculiar, strong, heavy, narcotic odour, and a bitter taste, accompanied by a sensation of acrid heat, or biting on the tongue and lips, if it be well chewed. Its colour when good is a reddish brown, or fawn colour; its texture compact and uniform. Its specific gravity is 1.336. When soft, it is tenacious; but when long exposed to the air, it becomes hard, breaks with a uniform shining fracture, is pulverulent, and affords a yellowish brown powder.

East Indian opium has a strong empyreumatic smell; but not much of the peculiar narcotic, heavy odour of the Turkey opium; the taste is more bitter, and equally nauseous, but it has less acrimony. It agrees with the Turkey opium in other sensible qualities, except that its colour is blacker, and its texture less plastic, although it is as tenacious. Good Turkey opium has been found to yield nearly 3 times the quantity of *morphia*, or of the peculiar principle of the drug, that is yielded by East Indian opium.

Opium is regarded as bad, when it is very soft, greasy, light, friable, of an intensely black colour, or mixed with many impurities. A weak or empyreumatic odour, a slightly bitter or acrid, or a sweetish taste, or the power of marking a brown or black continuous streak when drawn across paper, are all symptoms of inferior opium.—(*Dispensatory.*)

The raising of opium is a very hazardous business; the poppy being a delicate plant, peculiarly liable to injury from insects, wind, hail, or unseasonable rain. The produce seldom agrees with the true average, but commonly runs in extremes; while one cultivator is disappointed, another reaps immense gain: one season does not pay the labour of the culture; another, peculiarly fortunate, enriches all the cultivators. This circumstance is well suited to allure man, ever confident of good fortune.—(*Colebrooke's Husbandry of Bengal, p. 119.*)

In England, opium is little used, except as a medicine. During the 3 years ending with 1842, the quantity entered for home consumption amounted, at an average, to

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44,683 lbs. a year. The principal part of our supply is brought from Turkey. Opium from the latter was worth, in the London market, in June 1843, from 8s. to 8s. 6d. per lb., duty (1s.) paid.

Consumption and Trade of Opium in China. — Opium is pretty extensively used, both as a masticatory and in smoking, in Turkey and India; but its great consumption is in China and the surrounding countries, where the habit of smoking it has become almost universal. The Chinese boil or seethe the crude opium; and by this process the impurities, resinous and gummy matter, are separated, and the remaining extract only is reserved for use. Thus prepared, the drug loses its ordinary strong and offensive aromatic odour, and has even a fragrant and agreeable perfume. A small ball of it, inserted in a large wooden pipe with some combustible matter, is lighted, and the amateur proceeds to inhale four or five whiffs, when he lies down and resigns himself to his dreams, which are said to have no inconsiderable resemblance to the sensations produced by inhaling the oxide of azote. Those who do not carry the indulgence to excess, do not, it is said, experience any bad effects from it.

Nine tenths of the supplies of opium for the consumption of China have always been derived from India, a comparatively small quantity only being derived from Turkey. The trade has always been contraband, the introduction of the drug having been prohibited by the Chinese government. Until about 1810 the trade had not attracted much attention, or become of any very great importance, but it has since been very greatly extended, and has been since 1828 of first-rate consequence. The trade was at first carried on at Whampoa, about 15 miles below Canton; next at Macao, whence it was driven by the exactions of the Portuguese; and thereafter in the bay of Lintin. Here the opium is kept on board ships, commonly called receiving ships, of which there are often 10 or 12 lying together at anchor. But latterly the trade has been carried on all along the south-east coast of China, by means of a species of fast sailing vessels called "clippers," built expressly for the trade and strongly armed. The sales are mostly effected by the English and American agents in Canton, who give orders for the delivery of the opium; which, on producing the order, is handed over to the Chinese smuggler, who comes alongside at night to receive it. Frequently, however, the smuggler purchases the opium on his own account, paying for it on the spot in silver; it being a rule of the trade, never departed from, to receive the money before the drug is delivered.

During the first 10 years of the present century, the exports of opium from India to China averaged about 2,500 chests, of 149½ lbs. each. But after the introduction of Malwa opium into the markets of Bombay and Calcutta, the exports began rapidly to increase. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities and Prices (excluding Fractions) of the different Species of East India Opium, imported into China from the Season 1816-1817, down to Season 1837-1838, when the Trade was interrupted.

Seasons.	Patna and Benares.			Malwa.			Total.		
	From April 1st to March 31st.	Number of Chests.	Price per Chest.	Value in Dollars.	Number of Chests.	Price per Chest.	Value in Dollars.	Number of Chests.	Value in Dollars.
1816-17		8,670	1,200	3,132,000	600	875	525,000	5,210	3,657,000
1817-18		8,559	1,265	3,200,450	1,150	612	705,000	5,680	3,905,450
1818-19		8,030	1,000	3,030,000	1,230	723	889,500	4,580	4,153,430
1819-20		8,070	1,255	3,667,650	1,630	1,175	1,915,250	4,600	5,582,900
1820-21		8,050	1,300	3,775,000	1,780	1,515	2,696,800	4,770	6,471,800
1821-22		8,010	9,075	6,036,450	1,718	1,285	2,226,550	4,698	8,214,500
1822-23		1,822	1,552	3,228,630	4,000	1,380	5,160,000	5,822	7,998,630
1823-24		8,910	1,600	4,365,600	4,172	423	3,858,100	7,998	8,215,100
1824-25		8,655	1,175	3,119,250	5,000	750	4,500,000	6,655	7,879,635
1825-26		8,412	915	3,441,750	5,179	730	4,466,450	8,621	7,808,200
1826-27		3,661	1,002	3,669,268	5,308	942	5,941,580	9,969	9,610,848
1827-28		6,134	908	5,565,158	4,401	1,304	5,739,080	5,635	10,442,018
1828-29		5,983	840	5,034,252	7,771	858	6,628,880	13,152	12,635,115
1829-30		7,145	860	6,149,577	6,857	968	5,907,580	14,000	12,037,157
1830-31		6,860	870	5,799,018	12,100	585	7,111,058	18,760	11,204,463
1831-32		8,672	867	3,494,340	7,851	695	5,447,255	15,503	10,931,695
1832-33		8,157	792	5,511,936	15,403	870	8,781,700	23,570	15,393,736
1833-34		8,272	539	5,245,845	11,114	678	7,510,695	19,786	13,026,510
1834-35		7,767	572	4,431,845	8,747	595	5,225,182	16,514	9,635,019
1835-36		6,175	686	4,298,940	10,612	880	6,116,973	16,765	10,435,673
1836-37		8,078	724	5,818,436	15,450	628	8,436,694	21,509	14,287,530
1837-38		6,185	633	3,903,189	15,873	505	6,280,028	20,049	10,883,137

Note. — The opium trade upon the coast of China east of Canton began to be of importance in the years 1828-33, since which it has rapidly increased, and bids fair to exceed that carried on at the Lintin station.

The imports of Turkish opium into China are believed to amount to about 1,000 chests. The East India Company did not engage in the opium trade, which has always been in the hands of individuals.

Confiscation of Opium in 1839. War with China. — We have already seen (see art CANTON) that opium has always been prohibited in China, and that consequently its importation has always been looked upon as a smuggling speculation. There would seem, however, to be good grounds for thinking that the prohibition of the importation of opium was all along intended to be more apparent than real. At all events, it is certain

that the trade grew gradually up, from a small beginning, to be one of great extent and value; and it is contradictory and absurd to suppose that this should have been the case, had it encountered any considerable opposition from the Chinese authorities. But the truth is, that these functionaries, instead of opposing the trade, or even merely conniving at it, were parties to its being openly carried on; and received certain regulated and large fees on all the opium that was imported. It has even been alleged that a part of these fees found its way into the Imperial treasury at Peking, though that is more doubtful. The appetite for the drug increased with the increasing means of gratifying it; and there appeared to be no assignable limits to the quantity that might be disposed of in the empire.

The rapid extension of the trade seems at length to have drawn the attention of the court of Peking to the subject. We doubt, however, notwithstanding what has been alleged to the contrary, whether a sense of the injurious consequences of the use of the drug had much to do in the matter. This, indeed, is a part of the subject as to which there exists a great deal of misapprehension; and we are well assured, that, provided it be not carried to excess, the use of opium is not more injurious than that of wine, brandy, or other stimulants. The alarm of the Chinese government was probably not so much about the health or morals of its subjects, as about their bullion! They are still haunted by the same visionary fears of being drained of a due supply of gold and silver, that formerly haunted the people of this country. The imports of opium having increased so rapidly as to be no longer balanced by the exports of tea and silk, sycee silver began also to be exported! The paternal government of Peking might have tolerated what are called the demoralising effects of opium with stoical indifference, but the exportation of silver was not a thing to be endured. It is, however, only fair to state, that the Chinese statesmen are not all of the school of Mun and Gee; and that some of them appear to have taken an enlightened view of the question, and to have emancipated themselves from the prejudices that still influence the majority of their colleagues. The statesmen in question contended, that whether the use of the drug were injurious or not, the taste for it was too deeply seated and too widely diffused to admit of its effectual prohibition; and they, therefore, proposed that its importation should be legalised, subjecting it, at the same time, to a heavy duty. There cannot be a doubt that this was the proper mode of dealing with the subject. In the end, however, the government of Peking, influenced by unfounded theories, as to the mischievous effect of the export of the precious metals, came to a different conclusion, and resolved to put a stop to the traffic.

No sooner had this resolution been adopted, than a most extraordinary change appears to have taken place in the conduct of the Chinese authorities; and their usual caution seems to have wholly deserted them. They now became as precipitate and violent as they had previously been slow and circumspect; and resolved at all hazards to attempt forcibly to put down the trade. To accomplish this, all foreigners were, in March, 1839, prohibited from leaving Canton; and compulsory measures were at the same time resorted to for compelling them to deliver up the opium in their possession.

How the affair might have ended, had our countrymen at Canton been left to the exercise of their own judgment in this crisis, it is impossible to say; but we have been assured by those on whose statements we are disposed to rely, that they would most probably have succeeded in getting out of it with comparatively little loss. Instead, however, of acting for themselves, they had to act in obedience to the orders of Mr. Elliot, chief superintendent of the British trade in Canton; and he, while under constraint, occasioned by confinement to the factory, commanded all the opium belonging to British subjects to be given up to him for delivery to the Chinese authorities; declaring, at the same time, that "failing the surrender of the said opium," the British government should be free "of all measure of responsibility or liability in respect of British-owned opium."

We do not presume to offer any opinion as to the necessity or policy of this proceeding on the part of the superintendent; but, in consequence thereof, and of the unjustifiable proceedings of the Chinese, above 20,000 chests of opium were delivered up to Mr. Elliot by British subjects, and by him to the Chinese authorities; and the latter, not satisfied with the possession of the opium, which it was their duty to have placed in a state of security till the matters with respect to it should be arranged, immediately proceeded to destroy it! Having succeeded thus far, the Chinese next insisted that the foreign merchants should subscribe a bond, pledging themselves not to import opium into any part of China; or that, if they did, they were to be justly liable to the penalty of death. But this condition being refused, and no arrangement having been come to, Mr. Elliot suspended the trade on the 22d of May. Our readers do not require to be told that a war with China grew out of these extraordinary proceedings, which terminated in the treaty already laid before the reader. — (See *anté*, art. CANTON.) Perhaps, however, we may be allowed, before dismissing this subject, to make a few

observations on the grounds on which we undertook this contest, which seem to have been a good deal misunderstood.

That the Chinese have the same right to exclude opium from their empire, that we have to prohibit the importation of beef, or ammunition, or to lay a duty on corn, does not admit of any question. But in endeavouring to suppress a trade that had been carried on under the sanction of the authorities at Canton, all of whom had largely participated in its profits, justice required that notice should have been given to the parties concerned of the intentions of government. It is necessary to bear in mind that the Chinese were in the habit of frequently issuing proclamations against the importation of opium; but as no attempt was ever made to give any real effect to these proclamations, the parties engaged in the trade were naturally led to conclude that such would always be the case. Hence the necessity for a distinct intimation being made, that the laws against the importation of opium were, in future, to be *bond fide* and truly carried into effect, and for fixing some period after which all parties found engaged in the trade would be subject to certain penalties. No valid objection could have been made to such a course of proceeding. The Chinese are clearly entitled to prohibit the importation of opium; but neither the Chinese nor any other nation are entitled, after having, by a long connivance at and participation in the trade, induced foreigners to import a large amount of valuable property into their territories, to pounce upon and seize such property on pretence of its being contraband! The Chinese are a remarkably clever people; and it is impossible that they should not see that, in this instance, their government was guilty of gross injustice; and that it consequently rendered itself liable for the value of the property it so unwarrantably seized upon and destroyed.

Suppose the British parliament had, in 1796, passed an act prohibiting the importation of tea; and suppose, farther, that the collector of customs and other authorities in Liverpool had paid no attention whatever to this act, but that, from 1796 down to the present day, they had openly countenanced the trade; that it had rapidly increased; and that every year scores of Chinese ships laden with tea had arrived in the Mersey, safely unloaded their cargoes, and sailed either with silver or other British produce on board: what, under these circumstances, would the Chinese have said, had the British government suddenly turned round and declared, "You are engaged in an illegal trade;" and, without farther intimation, have proceeded to seize and destroy all the tea belonging to them in England? Would not the Chinese, the Russians, French, and, in short, the whole world, have declared such an act to be flagrantly unjust? And would not every honest man in England have said that the Chinese had been swindled; and that the government of China did not deserve to be treated with ordinary respect, if it did not endeavour to procure redress for its subjects.

Now, this is precisely the case of England against the Chinese. The morality or immorality of the opium trade is wholly beside the question. Though the use of opium were ten times more injurious than has ever been represented, that would not alter the fact that the trade in it had been openly countenanced by the Chinese authorities for a period of more than forty years; and such being the case, foreigners were certainly entitled to infer that that countenance would not suddenly be withdrawn; and that, at all events, their property would be respected. This, in fact, is not a question about which there is any real room for doubt or difference of opinion. The conduct of the Chinese was most unwarrantable; and the government of this country had not only a well-founded claim for redress, but was called upon to enforce it by a just regard for the national honour and the interests of the British subjects, whose rights had been so outrageously violated at Canton.

But we may farther observe, in reference to this matter, that though it be laid down by all writers on public law, that it depends wholly on the will of a nation to carry on commerce with another, or not to carry it on, and to regulate the manner in which it shall be carried on (*Vattel*, book i. § 8.), we incline to think that this rule must be interpreted as applying only to such commercial states as recognise the general principles of public or international law. If a state possessed of a rich and extensive territory, and abounding with products suited for the use and accommodation of the people of other countries, insulates itself by its institutions, and adopts a system of policy that is plainly inconsistent with the interests of every other nation, it appears to us that such nation may be justly compelled to adopt a course of policy more consistent with the general well-being of mankind. No doubt, the right of interference, in cases of this sort, is one that should be exercised with extreme caution, and requires strong grounds for its vindication. But that this right does exist, seems sufficiently clear. We admit that a slight degree of inconvenience, experienced from one nation refusing to enter into commercial transactions with another, or from its insisting that these transactions should be carried on in a troublesome and vexatious manner, would not warrant any interference with its internal affairs: but this, like all other questions of the same kind,

is one of degree. Should the inconvenience resulting from such anti-social vexatious conduct become very oppressive on others, the parties so oppressed would have as good a right to interfere to enforce a change of conduct, as if the state that has adopted this anti-social offensive policy had openly attacked their territory or their citizens. A state has a perfect right to enact such rules and regulations for its internal government and the conduct of its trade as it pleases, provided they do not exercise any very injurious influence over others. But should such be the case—should the domestic or commercial policy of any particular state involve principles or regulations that trench on the rights or seriously injure the interests of other parties, none can doubt that these others have a right to complain; and, if the injury be of a grave character, and redress be not obtained on complaint being made,—no reasonable doubt can be entertained that the aggrieved party is justified in resorting to force.

These principles appear to apply with peculiar force in the case of China. Tea, a peculiar product of that country, has become a necessary of life in England; and no one can doubt that a most serious injury would be inflicted on the people of Britain, were any considerable impediment thrown in the way of its importation; and as the arbitrary policy of the Chinese government, which is not influenced by the maxims, and is regardless of the forms, that prevail among civilised states, has on various occasions interrupted this trade, and constantly exposes it to great dangers, it certainly appears that this was a case for forcible intervention—*dignus vindicæ nodus*,—and that we were entitled to demand that the trade should be placed on a solid footing, that the import and export duties should be rendered intelligible and moderate, and that an end should be put to the extortion and interference of the Chinese authorities.

Indemnity for the Opium destroyed in China.—The question as to the amount of the compensation that should be awarded to the parties who delivered up the opium to the superintendent in China, has since attracted considerable attention. The merchants contended that they were entitled to its cost, or to the price at which it had been invoiced to them, or to above 2,300,000*l.* It is, however, admitted on all hands that the price of opium is exceedingly fluctuating, and that it is influenced in a very high degree by variations in the facilities for smuggling into China. And it was contended by government, that such were the obstacles thrown in the way of its clandestine importation when the delivery was made in 1839, that the price of opium had fallen to less than half its invoice cost, and that supposing the merchants had retained it, they must necessarily have sustained a very heavy loss. Having taken this view of the matter, government proposed that indemnity should be made at the rate of 64*l.* per chest (1,250,000*l.* in all), being (though little more than half the sum claimed) considerably above the current price of opium in Canton previously to its being delivered up. As might have been expected, this decision was much found fault with. On the whole, however, we think it eminently fair and reasonable. No one doubts, though not a pound of the opium had been delivered up to Captain Elliot, that its owners must, in consequence of the increased difficulties in the way of its sale, have lost heavily; and, under the circumstances, we see no ground for contending that government was bound, because their agent had interfered, to place the merchants in a better position than they would have been in, but for that interference. All that they could justly require was, that it should not be permitted to injure them.

Cultivation of Opium in India. Monopoly.—The cultivation of opium in India is a government monopoly, and is confined to the provinces of Bahar* and Benares, and Malwa in Central India. Every one within the prescribed limits may engage in the opium cultivation; but the drug, when prepared, must all be sold at a fixed price to the Company's agents. The price is very far below the price at which it is afterwards sold for exportation; and the circumstance of its being fixed and inadequate deprives the cultivator of most part of the favourable chance in the lottery previously alluded to by Mr. Colebrooke. Indeed, Mr. C. distinctly tells us (*Hush. Bengal*, p. 118.) that, except in a few situations that are peculiarly favourable, its cultivation is unprofitable. The peasants engage in it with reluctance; and are tempted only by the immediate advances the government agents are obliged to make to enable them to carry on the business.

The monopoly has sometimes produced a net revenue of about 1,000,000*l.* a year. Latterly, however, this revenue has been materially diminished. This has been occasioned, partly by the conquest of Malwa, and the impossibility of extending the same sort of monopoly into that province that was established in Bahar and Benares, and partly to the introduction of Turkey opium into the Chinese market by the Americans.

The system under which the Indian opium trade has been conducted, has been the theme of much eulogy, and has been supposed to afford the only example of an *unexceptionable monopoly*! By confining the cultivation of the plant to particular districts, and taking care that the whole produce raised in them shall be exported, we prevent, it is said, the use of this deleterious drug from gaining ground in India, while the high price at which it is sold produces a large revenue to the Company's treasury. It is affirmed, too, that even the interests of the Chinese are consulted by the system; that they obtain the drug in a state of purity, which would otherwise be adulterated; and that the high price they are obliged to pay for it merely acts as a wholesome restraint on their vicious propensity to indulge in what is so very injurious. We doubt, however, whether there be much foundation for these eulogies. There can be no question that opium is a very excellent subject for taxation; and the higher the duty can be raised on it, without encouraging smuggling, the better. It is not, however, so clear that the monopoly system is the best way of accomplishing this; and, though the system had been originally a good one, it is no longer possible to

* The opium of Bahar is known in commerce by the name of Fatma opium.

enforce it. To imagine, indeed, that the illicit cultivation of, and traffic in, opium can be prevented, now that it is raised in most parts of the extensive country of Malwa, is altogether ludicrous. As to the supposed influence of the monopoly in lessening the purity of the drug, it is sufficient to observe, that Malwa opium, which is produced under a comparatively free system, has been rapidly improving in its quality, and now very often fetches a higher price than the opium of Bahar and Benares, where the strictest surveillance is kept up. The latter, indeed, has sometimes been nearly unsaleable, from the careless way in which it has been prepared, and the extent to which it was adulterated. — (*Crawford on the Monopoly of the East India Company*, p. 55.) It is needless, however, to say more on this point, than that Turkish opium maintains, in respect of purity and careful preparation, a decidedly higher reputation than any produced in India. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

We doubt, too, whether the use of opium, when taken in moderate quantities, be really so injurious as has been represented. That it may, like spirits and wine, be abused, is abundantly certain; but it has not been shown that it is more liable to abuse than either of these articles. No one doubts that the Chinese, by whom it is principally consumed, are a highly industrious, sober, frugal people; but though it were otherwise, we really do not see that the East India Company are warranted in subjecting a profitable article of cultivation in India to the fetters of monopoly, that the morals of the Chinese may be preserved. It is unnecessary, however, to dwell upon this view of the matter. The Turks and Americans have no scruples of this sort; and the only effect of the Company's attempting to force up the price of opium to an extravagant height, would be to throw a still greater proportion of the trade into the hands of their active competitors, in the great injury of the Indian cultivators.

Neither must the interests of the cultivators in India be lost sight of, who are materially injured by the existing system. Even were it in other respects proper, their allowances are far too small. Upon the whole, therefore, we do not see any solid grounds for supposing that this monopoly forms an exception to the common rule; and we agree with those who think that the better way would be to establish the same system, as to the trade in opium, that is established with respect to the spirit trade in this country; that is, to allow every one to cultivate it upon taking out a licence, and to lay an excise duty on the prepared article. Such a plan would put an end to some most oppressive regulations; and while it would open a new source of wealth to the cultivators, the revenue derived by government would be materially augmented.

Besides the works previously referred to, we have consulted, in compiling this article, *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Muhuri's Orient. Com.*; *Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal*; *Evidence on East Indian Affairs*, before the Parliamentary Committee, in 1830 and 1831, &c. &c.

OPOBALSAM. See BALSAM.

OPOPONAX (Ger. *Opopanax*; Fr. *Opopanax*; It. *Opoponasso*; Sp. *Opoponaca*; Arab. *Jawesheer*), a gum-resin obtained from the *Pastinaca Opopanax*, a species of parsnep. It is a native of the south of Europe, and Asia Minor. The stem rises to the height of 4 or 5 feet, with a thick branched yellow-coloured root. The roots being wounded, a milky juice flows from them, which, being dried in the sun, is the opopanax of the shops. It is in lumps of a reddish yellow colour, and white within. Smell peculiar. Taste bitter and acrid. Specific gravity 1.622. It is imported from Turkey. Being used only to a small extent in medicine, the consumption is inconsiderable. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*.)

OPORTO, or **PORTO**, a large city and sea-port of Portugal, on the north bank of the Douro, about 2 miles from its mouth, lat. 41° 10' 30" N., lon. 8° 37' 18" W. It is a beautifully situated, well-built city; and is supposed to contain, including the suburbs of Villanora and Gaya, on the opposite bank of the river, about, 80,000 inhabitants.

Harbour. — The harbour of Oporto is a bar harbour, and can only be entered, at least by vessels of considerable burden, at high water; and it is seldom at any time practicable for vessels drawing more than 16 feet. On the north side of the entrance is the castle of St. Joao de Foz, whence a ledge of rocks, some of which are at all times above water, extends in a south-west direction. The outermost of these rocks, named Filgueira, which is always visible, is left on the left or larboard side on entering. Cabelado Point, forming the southern extremity of the entrance, is low and sandy. The bar being liable, from the action of the tides, and of sudden swellings or freshes in the river, to perpetual alterations, it is exceedingly dangerous for any vessel to attempt crossing it without a pilot. Pilots are always on the alert, and ready to offer their services when a vessel comes in sight, unless the weather be so bad that they cannot go off. On some few occasions of this sort, vessels have been detained for 3 weeks off the port, without having an opportunity of entering. The chapel of St. Catherine is in a line with that of St. Michael leads over the bar. The ordinary rise of spring tides is from 10 to 12 feet, and of neaps from 6 to 8 feet. A lighthouse with a fixed light is erected on a hill about 600 yards N.N.W. of St. Joao de Foz.

The swellings of the river, or freshes, as they are called, most commonly occur in spring, and are caused by heavy rains, and by the melting of the snow on the mountains. The rise of water at such times is frequently as much as 40 feet; and the rapidity and force of the current are so very great, that no dependence can be placed on anchors in the stream. Fortunately a fresh never occurs without previous warning; and it is then the practice to moor with a cable made fast to trees, or stone pillars erected on the shore for that purpose. — (For further information as to the harbour of Oporto, see *Purday's Sailing Directions for the Bay of Biscay*.)

Trade. — Oporto is the emporium of a large portion of the kingdom of Portugal, and enjoys a pretty considerable foreign commerce. The well known red wine, denominated Port, from its being exclusively shipped at this city, forms by far the largest article of export. The exports vary in different years, from about 26,000 to near 40,000 pipes. England is much the largest consumer of port. The high discriminating duties on French wine originally introduced port into the British markets, and gave it a preference to which, though an excellent wine, it had no just title: this preference first generated, and its long continuance has since so confirmed, the taste for port among the great bulk of the population, that it bids fair to maintain its ascendancy as an after-dinner wine, notwithstanding the equalisation of the duties. At an average of the 8 years ending with 1841, there were shipped from Oporto for England 26,370 pipes a year. Next to England, Brazil, Russia, and the north of Europe are the principal consumers of port; but it appears, from the subjoined account, that the

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total exports to them do not amount to a fourth part of those to England. The other exports are oil, oranges and other fruits, wool, refined sugar, cream of tartar, shinnae, leather, cork, &c. The imports are corn, rice, beef, salt fish, and other articles of provision; sugar, coffee, &c. from Brazil; cotton and woollen goods, hardware, tin plates, &c. from England; hemp, flax, and deals, from the Baltic, &c.

Besides the British manufactured goods imported into Portugal for the use of the natives, a considerable quantity is destined for the consumption of Spain; being smuggled into that country through Braganza and other towns on the frontier.

Money, Weights, and Measures same as those of Lisbon; which see

We subjoin —

An Account of the Wine shipped from Oporto during the 8 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Quantities shipped for the U. Kingdom, and for all other Parts.

	To the U. Kingdom.	To all other Parts.	Total.
1834	- 29,208 pipes.	3,150 pipes.	31,358 pipes.
1835	- 29,536	5,933	35,469
1836	- 30,200	3,079	33,279
1837	- 21,110	4,572	25,682
1838	- 26,057	11,918	37,975
1839	- 26,159	7,046	33,205
1840	- 26,678	7,512	34,190
1841	- 21,011	5,344	26,355
	210,964	48,654	259,618
Average of 8 years	26,370	6,061	32,432

The comparatively large amount of shipments in 1834, 1835, and 1836, is explained by the fact of the siege of Oporto having continued during the greater part of the two previous years; the obstruction to exportation which it occasioned, by reducing the stocks in this and other countries below their usual level, having necessarily led to a proportional increase of shipments in the two or three following years. The decreased export in 1841 (and the almost total cessation of exportation in 1842) is to be ascribed to the protracted negotiations with Portugal on the subject of a commercial treaty, and to the disinclination of the merchants to import, and of the consumers to order, any considerable quantity of wine, when it was supposed the duties were to be immediately reduced. It is estimated that a vintage in the Upper Douro produces at an average about 70,000 pipes, of which above 32,000 are usually exported, while 30,000 of an inferior sort are consumed in the neighbourhood of Oporto, and the remainder, which is still inferior to the second description, is distilled for brandy.

It is hardly possible to form any estimate of the value of the wine shipped from Oporto; the price varying from 4. to 60*l.* per hogshead. The export duty on wine approved for exportation (*vinho d'exportação*), is about 6 (≡ 500 *rs.* per pipe, or, at the present (July, 1843) rate of exchange, 1*l.* 9*s.* a pipe. Reputed wine (*vinho appaado*) is not generally allowed to be exported; but at present it may be shipped on paying 18 (≡ 500 *rs.* more, or 2*l.* 9*s.* a pipe. The other expenses are trifling. Freight to this country varies from 1*l.* to 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* per pipe. — For an account of the Oporto Wine Company, see *Wines*.)

Sometimes wine is purchased from the farmer in the wine country. In this case, the casks are sent about 60 miles up the river, in boats, to be filled. Owing to the miserable state of the roads, the expense of cartage is very considerable; the cartage from and to the river side frequently costing from 1*l.* to 2*l.* per pipe. The freight from the upper country down the river to Oporto is about equal to that from the latter to England. There is also an internal duty of about 1*l.* 9*s.* per pipe on all wine brought down the river, inasmuch, however, as these charges are perpetually varying, it is not possible to lay before the reader any *pro forma* account of the cost of wine bought in the Upper Douro.

The Oporto Wine Company has the monopoly of the brandy as well as of the wine trade of the Douro. — (*Private information.*)

ORANGES (Ger. *Pomeranzen*; Du. *Orangen*; Fr. *Oranges*; It. *Melarance*; Sp. *Naranjas*; Rus. *Pomeranzeü*; Hind. *Narunge*; Malay, *Simao-manis*), the fruit of the orange tree. The common, or sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*, or *Citrus nobilis*), and the Seville, or bitter orange (*Citrus aurantium*), are natives of China; and the Portuguese are entitled to the honour of having transferred the plant to other countries. Particular species of *Citrus* seem to be indigenous to various Eastern countries; but the birth-place of the proper orange may be distinctly traced to China. It is now to be found in our green-houses. Oranges are imported in chests and boxes, packed separately in paper. The best come from the Azores and Spain; very good ones are also brought from Portugal, Italy, Malta, and other places.

The orange trade carried on by this country is of considerable value and importance. Oranges are not much more expensive than most of our superior domestic fruits, while they are, perhaps, the most refreshing and wholesome of those of warmer climates. The entries for home consumption amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, to 334,070 boxes a year; and assuming each box to contain 600 oranges and lemons, the number annually entered for consumption will have been 217,145,500, exclusive of 26,963 entered by number, and 7,013*l.* worth entered at value! The duty produced, at an average of the above years, 70,833*l.* a year. The number of persons employed in the importation and sale of oranges must be very considerable. The policy of charging any duty on oranges seems questionable. They are very apt to spoil; and as no abatement is made from the duty on account of any damage, its influence on their price is much more considerable than might at first be supposed.

ORCHILLA WEED, ORCHELLA, OR ARCHIL (Ger. *Orseille*; Fr. *Orseille*; It. *Oricella, Orcella*; Sp. *Orchilla*), a whitish lichen (*Lichen orcella*) found in the Isle of Portland; but that which is used is imported from the Canary and Cape de Verd Islands, Madeira, Barbary, and the Levant. From it is obtained the archil, or orchil, of commerce, which yields a rich purple tincture, fugitive, indeed, but extremely beautiful. The preparation of orchilla was long a secret, known only to the Florentines and Hollanders; but it is now extensively manufactured in this country. Orchil is generally sold in the form of cakes, but sometimes in that of moist pulp; it is extensively used by dyers; and in times of scarcity the weed or lichen has sold as high as 1,000*l.* per ton! — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) At present (July 1843) Madeira orchilla fetches, in

the London market, 75*l.* a ton; but orehilla from the Canary Islands fetches a higher, and that from Barbary a much lower price. The entries for consumption amounted, at an average of the 9 years ending with 1842, to 6,050 cwt. 3 qrs. 10 lbs. The duty, which had been 9*s.* a cwt., was reduced in 1842 to 1*s.* a cwt.

ORGOL. See AAOOL.

ORPIMENT (Ger. *Operment*; Fr. *Orpiment*; It. *Orpimento*; Sp. *Oropimente*; Lat. *Auripigmentum*), the name usually given to sulphuret of arsenic. When artificially prepared, it is in the form of a fine yellow-coloured powder; but it is found native in many parts of the world, particularly in Bohemia, Turkey, China, and Ava. It is exported from the last two in considerable quantities; and is known in the East by the name of *hartal*. Native orpiment is composed of thin plates of a lively gold colour, intermixed with pieces of a vermilion red, of a shattery foliaceous texture, flexible, soft to the touch like talc, and sparkling when broken. Specific gravity 3.45. The inferior kinds are of a dead yellow, inclining to green, and want the bright appearance of the best specimens. Its principal use is as a colouring drug among painters, bookbinders, &c. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ORSEDEW, ORSIDUE, MANHEIM or DUTCH GOLD (Ger. *Flüggergold*; Du. *Klatergoud*; Fr. *Oripeau*, *Oliguac*; It. *Orpello*; Sp. *Oropel*), an inferior sort of gold leaf, prepared of copper and zinc. It is sometimes called *leaf brass*. It is principally manufactured in Manheim.

OSTRICH FEATHERS. See FEATHERS.

OWNERS OF SHIPS. Property in ships is acquired, like other personal property, by fabricating them, or by inheritance, purchase, &c.

No ship is entitled to any of the privileges of a British ship until she be duly registered as such, and all the provisions in the Registry Act (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55.) be complied with. — (See REGISTER.)

A British ship may belong either to one individual, or to several individuals. It is ordered by the act just cited, that the property of every vessel of which there are more owners than one, shall be divided into 64th shares; and that no person shall be entitled to be registered as an owner who does not, at least, hold one 64th share. It is further provided by the same statute, that not more than *thirty-two* persons shall be owners of any one ship at any one time. Companies or associations holding property in ships, may choose *three* of their members to act as trustees for them.

Neither the property of an entire ship, nor any share or shares in such ship, can be transferred from one individual to another, except by bill of sale or other instrument in writing; and before the sale is valid, such bill or instrument must be produced to the collector and comptroller, who are to enter the names, residences, &c. of the seller and buyer, the number of shares sold, &c. in the book of registry of such vessel, and to indorse the particulars on the certificate of registry. — (See the clause in the statute, art. REGISTER.)

But, though compliance with the directions in the statute accomplishes a complete transference of the property, when the transaction is not in its nature illegal, it gives no sort of security to a transferee that is otherwise had. The purchaser should in all cases endeavour to get possession of the ship, or of his share in her, as soon as his title to her or it is acquired, by the registration of the particulars of the bill of sale; for though all the formalities of sale have been completed, yet, if the sellers continue as apparent owners in possession of the ship, their creditors may, in the event of their becoming bankrupt, acquire a right to it, to the exclusion of the purchasers. In the case of a sale or agreement for a part only, it is enough if, the sale being completed, the seller ceases to act as a part owner. — (*Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping*, part i. c. 1.)

Property in ships is sometimes acquired by capture. During war, his Majesty's ships, and private ships having letters of marque, are entitled to make prizes. But before the captors acquire a legal title to such prizes, it is necessary that they should be condemned in the admiralty or other court constituted for that purpose. When this is done, the captors are considered to be in the same situation, with respect to them, as if they had built or purchased them.

The act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. has ruled, that no person having the transfer of a ship, or a share of a ship, made over to him as a security for a debt, shall be deemed an owner, or part owner, of such ship. And when such transfer has been duly registered according to the provisions of the act, the right and interest of the mortgagee are not to be affected by the bankruptcy of the mortgagor, though he be the reputed owner, or part owner, of such ship. — (See REGISTER.)

In the article MASTERS OF SHIPS is given an account of the liabilities incurred by the owners of ships for the acts of the masters. But it has been attempted to encourage navigation by limiting the responsibility of the owners, without, however, depriving the freighter of a ship of an adequate security for the faithful performance of the contract. To effect this desirable object, it has been enacted, that the owner or owners

shall not be liable to make good any loss or damage happening *without their fault or privity*, to any goods put on board any ship or vessel belonging to such owner or owners, further than the value of such ship or vessel, with all its appurtenances, and the freight due, or growing due, during the voyage that may be in prosecution, or contracted for, at the time when the loss or damage has taken place. — (53 Geo. 3. c. 159.)

This limitation was first introduced into our law by the 7 Geo. 2. c. 15. But it had previously been adopted in the law of Holland, and in the justly celebrated French Ordinance of 1681. In the Ordinance of Rotterdam, issued in 1721, it is expressly declared, that "the owners shall not be answerable for any act of the master, done without their order, any further than their part of the ship amounts to." Independently, however, of this general agreement, the expediency of the limitation appears, for the reasons already stated, sufficiently obvious.

It was also enacted in 1786 (26 Geo. 3. c. 60.), that neither the master nor owners of any ship or vessel shall be liable to answer for or make good any gold or silver, diamonds, watches, jewels, or precious stones, lost or embezzled during the course of the voyage, unless the shipper thereof insert in his bill of lading, or declare in writing to the master or owners, the true nature, quality, and value of such articles.

The responsibility, at common law, of a *master* or *mariner* is not affected by the first-mentioned limitation, even though such master or mariner be owner or part owner of the vessel; neither does the limitation extend to the owner or owners of any lighter, barge, boat, &c. used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any ship or vessel not duly registered according to law.

When several freighters sustain losses exceeding in the whole the value of the ship and freight, they are to receive compensation thereout in proportion to their respective losses: and any one freighter, on behalf of himself and the other freighters, or any part owner, on behalf of himself and the other part owners, may file a bill in a court of equity for the discovery of the total amount of the losses, and of the value of the ship, and for an equal distribution and payment. If the bill be filed by or on behalf of the part owners, the plaintiff must make affidavit that he does not collude with the defendants, and must offer to pay the value of the ship and freight, as the court shall direct.

It is usual in most countries, where the part owners of a ship disagree as to her employment, to give those possessed of the greater number of shares power to bind the whole. But in this country, while the majority of the owners in value have authority to employ the ship as they please, the interests of the minority are secured from being prejudiced by having their property engaged in an adventure of which they disapprove. For this purpose the Court of Admiralty has been in the practice of taking a stipulation from those who desire to send the ship on a voyage, in a sum equal to the value of the shares of those who object to it, either to bring back and restore to them the ship, or to pay them the value of their shares. When this is done, the dissentient part owners bear no portion of the expenses of the outfit, and are not entitled to a share in the profits of the voyage; the ship sails wholly at the charge and risk, and for the profit, of the others. — (Abbott, part i. c. 3.)

For the statutory enactments as to the sale and transfer of ships, see *REGISTRY*.

OYSTER, OYSTERS (Ger. *Austern*; Fr. *Huitres*; It. *Ostriche*; Sp. *Ostras*; Lat. *Ostrææ*). This well known shell-fish is very generally diffused, and is particularly plentiful on the British coasts, which were ransacked for the supply of ancient Rome with oysters. They differ in quality according to the different nature of the soil or bed. They are particularly abundant in the rivers and creeks of Essex and Kent; in Poole harbour, and elsewhere on the coast of Hants and Dorset; at Porth Einion, in Glamorgan, &c. They are also very abundant on the Mersey shores. Those found at Carlingford, in Ireland, are of a peculiarly delicate flavour. The breeding and fattening of oysters for the London market forms a considerable branch of business. It is principally carried on in Essex and Kent; the rivers Crouch, Blackwater, and Colne being the chief breeding-places in the former, and the channel of the Swale, contiguous to Milton, in the latter. The oysters found in them are not, however, brought immediately to town; but are deposited for a while in beds or layings in the adjoining creeks, where they are fed and fattened for the market. Exclusive of the oysters bred in Essex and Kent, vast numbers brought from Jersey, Poole, and other places along the coast, are fattened in the beds. The export of oysters from Jersey is very considerable, having amounted, at an average of the 4 years ending with 1832, to 208,023 bushels a year, of which a large portion comes to London. The Jersey fishery employs, during the season, about 1,500 men, 1000 women and children, and 250 boats. — (*Ingli's Channel Islands*, p. 142. 2nd ed.) The consumption of oysters in London is immense, being, notwithstanding their high price, largely consumed by the middle and lower classes.

The imports of oysters are very various, sometimes amounting to several thousand bushels a year; but in the majority of years none are imported.

The stealing of oysters, or oyster brood, from any oyster bed, laying, or fishery, is larceny, and the offender, being convicted thereof, shall be punished accordingly; and if any person shall unlawfully and wilfully use any dredge, net, &c. for the purpose of taking oysters, or oyster brood, within the limits of any oyster bed or fishery, every such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and, upon being convicted thereof, shall be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both, as the court may award; such fine not to exceed $50s.$, and such imprisonment not to exceed 3 calendar months. It is provided, that nothing in the act shall be construed as preventing any one from catching *floating fish* within the limits of any oyster fishery, with any net, instrument, or engine adapted to the catching of such fish. — (7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 20. § 36.)

P.

PACKAGE, SCAVAGE, BAILLAGE, AND PORTAGE, were duties charged in the port of London, on the goods imported and exported by aliens, or by denizens being the sons of aliens.

During the dark ages, it was usual to lay higher duties upon the goods imported or exported by aliens, whether in British or foreign ships, than were laid on similar goods when imported or exported by natives. But according as sounder and more enlarged principles prevailed, this illiberal distinction was gradually modified, and was at length wholly abolished, in so far at least as it was of a public character, by the 24 Geo. 3. c. 16. This act, after reciting that "the several duties and restrictions imposed by various acts of parliament upon merchandise are, by the alterations of the trade now carried on between this kingdom and foreign states, in some cases become an unnecessary burden upon commerce, without producing any real advantage to the public revenue, and that it is expedient they should no longer continue," enacts, that the duty commonly called "the petty customs," imposed by the 12 Car. 2., and all other additional duties imposed by any act upon the goods of aliens above those payable by natural-born subjects, should be no longer payable. The act then goes on to provide, that nothing contained in it shall "alter the duties due and payable upon goods imported into or exported from this kingdom in any *foreign* ship, nor the duties of *package* and *scavage*, or any duties granted by charter to the city of London;" and then follow provisions to prevent the city being defrauded of such duties by false entries of aliens' goods in the name of a British subject. — (*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. i. p. 160.)

The duties thus preserved to the city were not very heavy; but the principle on which they were imposed was exceedingly objectionable, and their collection was attended with a great deal of trouble and inconvenience. Not being levied in other places, they operated to the prejudice of the trade of the metropolis. For these reasons, we observed, in the first edition of this work, that "if the funds of the corporation will not admit of their following the liberal example of the legislature, by voluntarily abandoning this vexatious impost, it would be good policy to give them a compensation for relinquishing it." And we are glad to have to state that this suggestion has since been carried into effect. The act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 66. authorised the Lords of the Treasury to purchase up the duties in question from the city. This was done, at an expense of about 140,000*l.*, and the duties were abolished. There is a Table of the duties in the first edition of this work.

PACKETS. See NEW YORK, PASSENGERS, and POST-OFFICE.

PALERMO (anciently PANORMUS), a large city and sea-port, the capital of the noble island of Sicily, on the north coast of which it is situated, the light-house being in lat. $39^{\circ} 8' 15''$ N., lon. $13^{\circ} 21' 56''$ E. Population, 170,000.

The bay of Palermo is about 5 miles in depth, the city being situated on its south-west shore. A fine mole, $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile in length, having a light-house and battery at its extremity, projects in a southerly direction from the arsenal into 9 or 10 fathoms water, forming a convenient port, capable of containing a great number of vessels. This immense work cost about 1,000,000*l.* sterling to its construction; but the light-house, though a splendid structure, is said to be very ill lighted. There is an inner port, which is reserved for the use of the arsenal. Ships that do not mean to go within the mole may anchor about $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile from it, in from 16 to 23 fathoms, the mole light bearing N.W. $\frac{1}{4}$ W. A heavy sea, sometimes rolls into the bay, but no danger need be apprehended by ships properly found in anchors and chain cables. In going into the bay, it is necessary to keep clear of the nets of the tunny fishery, for these are so strong and well moored, as to be capable of arresting a ship under sail. — (*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 70. and *Append. p. 4.*)

Money. — Since 1818, the coins of Sicily have been the same as those of Naples, their names only differing. — (See NAPLES.) The ducat, = 3*l.* 8*2d.* sterling, is subdivided into 100 *dacocchi* and 10 *picciotti*; but accounts are still generally kept in *oncia, tari, and grani*: 20 grani = 1 taro; 30 tari = 1 oncia. The oncia = 3 ducats; and 1 carlino of Naples = 1 taro of Sicily. The Spanish dollar is current at 12 tari 8 grani.

Weights. — These are the *cantaro grosso*, subdivided into 100 *rottoli grossi* of 33 oncia, or into 110 rottoli until of 30 oncia; and the *cantaro sottile*, subdivided into 100 rottoli sottili of 30 oncia, or 250 lbs. of 14 oncia. The rottolo of 33 oncia = 1*38* lbs. avoirdupois = 2*34* lbs. Troy = 8*73* hectogrammes = 1*77* lbs. of Amsterdam = 1*8* lbs. of Hamburg. The rottolo of 30 oncia = 1*75* lbs. avoirdupois = 2*13* lbs. Troy = 7*04* hectogrammes = 1*6* lbs. of Amsterdam = 1*64* lbs. of Hamburg.

100 Sicilian pounds of 12 oncia = 70 lbs. avoirdupois = 85*11* lbs. Troy = 31*76* kilog. = 64*23* lbs. of Amsterdam = 60*36* lbs. of Hamburg.

Measures. — The *salma grossa* = 9*48* Winch. bush.: the *salma generale* = 7*62* Winch. bush.

The principal liquid measure is the tonna, divided into 4 barilli, each equivalent to 99 wine gallons. 1 barile = 2 quartare; 1 quartara = 20 quartucci. The casso of oil = 4f Eng. gallons.

The yard or *cassa* = 8 *palmi*; 24 *palmi* = 1 yard Eng.—(*Nelkenbrecher*; *Smyth*, p. 63. App.)

Tarce.—Coffee, indigo, pepper, and dye woods, 2 per cent. and weight of package. Cinnamon, 6 rottoli per secco, with 1 wrapper, or 8 rottoli, with 2 wrappers; cocoa, 2 per cent. weight of package, and 2 per cent. for dust; cod-fish, 3 per cent.; herrings, 12 per cent.; tin, 13 rottoli per barrel, was, weight of package, and 3 to 4 per cent. extra allowance; Havannah sugars, 16 per cent.; Brazil do., in short cases, 18 per cent., and in long cases, 20 per cent.; crushed sugar, weight of cask, and 5 per cent., or 13 per cent. in all, at the option of the buyer; East India do., 15 bags, 8 rot. to 10 rot. per bag. 1 rottolo taken as weight of bag, for coffee and cocoa in bags.

Charges on Goods.—The regular charges on the sale of goods consigned to Palermo, are—commission, 3 per cent.; brokerage, 1/2 per cent.; warehouse rent, 1/2 per cent.; and portage and boat hire, with 2 per cent. *del credere*.—Imports being almost always sold on credit. The charges may occasionally vary 1/2 to 1 per cent., and imports are frequently sold duty paid; the prices, however, so obtained, fully compensate for the trifling increase of charges.

The charges on goods exported are—3 per cent. commission; brokerage, 40 much per *contino*, *salma*, &c., generally amounting to about 1/2 per cent., except on fruit, on which it is equivalent to from 2 to 3 per cent.

Imports and Exports.—The great articles of export from Sicily are—olive oil, grain, particularly wheat and barley; silk, brimstone, wine and brandy, barilla, lemons and oranges, lemon juice, manna, alumac, linsed, fruit, salted fish and salt; with argol, liquorice, pumice stone, rags, skins, honey, cotton wool, saffron, &c. Wheat is largely exported. It is of a mixed quality, hard, and is generally sold from the public magazines, or *caricatori* (see post), by measure, without weight. But the best hard wheat, grown in the neighbourhood of Palermo, is sold by the salma of 572 rottoli = 476 lbs. Eng.; the difference between weight and measure being made good by the seller or buyer, as the case may be. Wine is principally shipped from Marsala; lemons, oranges, and lemon juice, from Mesina; salt, from Trapani; and barilla, from the southern coast. But all the articles to be found on the coast may, for the most part, be had at Palermo; unless, however, the quantity required be small, it is usually best to ship them from the outports, the expense of their conveyance to Palermo being very heavy. The crops of barilla and alumac come to market in August; but brimstone, salt, oil, wine, rags, &c. may generally be had all the year round. The first shipments of lemons and oranges may be made in the beginning of November. Purchases of produce are always paid for in cash, generally 1/2 on making the purchase, and the other 1/2 on delivery, when in Palermo, and on receiving order for delivery, on the coast.

The imports consist of cotton yarn, wool, and stuffs; sugar, coffee, cocoa, dye stuffs, iron, earthenware, spices, tin, hides, Newfoundland cod, timber for building, &c. The best of the old accounts of the trade of Sicily that we have met with is contained in *Swinsburne's Travels in the Two Sicilies*, &c. vol. II. pp. 401—413. But the information in this article has been principally derived from the elaborate and valuable reports of Mr. Consul Goodwin, one of the most intelligent of that class of functionaries. The subjoined Tables show in detail the trade of the island and of Palermo.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Articles exported from and imported into Sicily in 1842, exhibiting the Quantities and Values of those exported to and imported from the United Kingdom and all other Countries.

Articles.	EXPORTS.					
	U. Kingdom.		All other Countries.		Totals.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value in £ sterling.
Argols and cream of tartar	cwt.	4,333	5,630	15,665	21,118	27,718
Barilla	—	39,330	10,466	54,437	18,921	83,767
Brimstone	—	396,530	39,516	429,195	44,113	752,925
Carminatives	—	—	—	—	4,080	57
Cheeses	—	5,468	4,290	3,220	5,256	6,648
Corn, grain, and pulses	—	84,669	86,579	49,189	36,037	96,738
Cotton wool	—	—	—	3,420	4,073	3,420
Essences	lbs.	60,090	11,250	81,729	18,129	131,729
Fish, salted	cwt.	610	711	11,550	19,701	19,660
Fruit dry and pickled	—	10,511	9,734	160,716	48,555	171,327
Oranges and lemons	box	100,550	30,287	359,055	87,224	436,445
Lemon juice	gal.	14,000	2,700	74,400	11,700	93,400
Linsed	qrs.	3,812	5,723	13,122	23,506	16,934
Liquorice paste	cwt.	570	1,003	4,616	8,156	5,146
Manna	—	72	1,970	2,403	6,614	3,565
Oil, linseed	galls.	738,117	84,358	14,990	701	14,990
Olive	—	—	—	1,171,456	149,827	1,029,623
Rags	cwt.	3,454	2,996	18,401	9,820	16,635
Rail	—	—	—	38,425	16,717	29,779
Seeds	tons	8,293	5,773	6,405	3,014	14,698
Shumac	—	141,010	37,998	105,509	20,206	246,509
Silk	lbs.	50,000	60,000	53,200	53,800	103,200
Skins	numb.	40,000	1,200	939,240	7,665	973,500
Wine and spirits	galls.	1,223,972	32,072	1,681,945	87,874	3,905,917
Other articles	—	—	44,544	—	31,387	—
Total	—	—	499,116	—	807,639	—

Articles.	IMPORTS.				
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Value in £ sterling.
Cocoa	cwt.	100	2,496	5,245	2,596
Cochineal	lbs.	2,000	300	5,400	360
Coffee	cwt.	2,250	5,140	10,207	26,531
Indigo	—	1,415	1,290	2,240	1,240
Messinas	galls.	300	30	100	15
Pepper	—	1,158	1,963	4,484	8,366
Rum	galls.	400	96	10,180	1,584
Spices	cwt.	98	2,901	89	89
Sougar	—	19,720	39,460	30,599	59,578
Woods	—	786	509	10,148	7,110
Cottons	—	300	15,400	419	17,350
Cotton yarn	packages	13,154	94,150	5,972	64,400
Cotton and linen	—	20	300	238	18,000
Cotton and wool	—	47	7,815	198	11,900
Earthenware and glass	—	671	14,265	482	14,100
Fancy goods	—	10	1,000	75	7,500
Hardware	—	148	4,400	607	14,400
Lenses	—	93	4,000	246	12,400
Silks	—	80	2,200	447	38,000
Woolens	—	56	8,100	87	12,400

Articles exported from and imported into Sicily in 1842 — continued.

Articles	U. Kingdom.		All other Countries.		Totals.	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Value in sterling.
Copper	1,000	5,000	1,864	7,192	2,864	12,792
Coppers	158	760	-	-	158	760
Cods	12,800	13,160	-	-	12,800	13,160
Deal boards	186	3,405	459,875	24,408	459,789	24,408
Drugs and colours	186	3,405	999	20,580	7,187	25,985
Fab, cod	5,322	4,840	35,000	15,000	20,322	15,380
herrings	660	930	462	1,098	1,522	2,028
stock	-	-	11,500	9,500	11,500	9,500
Flax	-	-	470	1,010	470	1,010
Hides	8,703	27,820	19,033	56,270	27,736	81,190
Iron	49,351	39,690	4,366	2,440	53,717	39,117
Lead	19	80	1	1	20	81
Leather	569	718	1,928	1,498	2,597	9,218
Pitch and tar	-	-	62	97	62	97
Saltpetre	1,393	2,712	62	97	2,015	3,668
Skins	-	-	31	700	31	700
Stationery and books	-	-	133	4,690	133	5,049
Steel	203	460	2,825	5,060	3,028	5,540
Suet	876	150	187	846	1,063	4,435
Tin in bars	4,990	6,195	-	-	4,990	6,495
Tin plates	1,437	7,073	4,301	11,615	5,738	14,518
Tobacco	400	4,480	16,400	4,846	17,800	17,800
Wax	5,522	260	40,000	666	45,522	926
Wool	-	-	2,545	23,500	-	26,785
Other articles	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	-	409,519	-	329,244	-	838,736

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Articles exported from and imported into Palermo in 1842 exhibiting the Quantities and Values of those exported to and imported from the United Kingdom and all other Countries.

Articles	EXPORTS.					
	U. Kingdom.		All other Countries.		Totals.	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Value in sterling.
Argols and cream of tartar	-	-	-	-	-	-
Berilla	-	-	-	-	-	-
Brimstone	39,006	4,981	29,345	5,018	78,351	10,419
Corn, grain and pulse	12,256	15,070	2,408	6,017	14,664	18,090
Essences	-	-	5,159	681	5,159	4,921
Embarthes	2,400	1,668	20,126	92,506	17,726	97,232
Fruits, dry and pickled oranges and lemons	10,350	2,577	115,565	28,914	126,065	31,501
Linseed	638	1,276	1,222	1,124	2,000	4,000
Limonice paste	130	130	1,418	1,296	1,548	4,466
M. inna	62	1,860	2,409	67,690	2,471	69,550
Oil, linseed	407,025	39,736	22,565	22,074	632,490	61,272
Rags	214	136	7,901	5,081	8,115	5,166
Resins	-	-	1,505	964	1,505	964
Shinners	112,000	20,283	68,933	16,399	180,933	42,682
Silks	-	-	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
Skins	-	-	10,000	65	10,000	65
Wine and spirits	56,868	6,340	127,158	11,690	184,026	17,070
Other articles	-	-	1,500	5,908	-	7,408
Total	-	101,099	-	199,414	-	300,513

Articles	IMPORTS.					
	U. Kingdom.		All other Countries.		Totals.	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Value in sterling.
Cocoa	-	-	526	1,685	526	1,685
Coffee	250	640	4,007	12,504	5,157	13,144
Indigo	173	50	-	-	173	50
Pepper	658	1,263	2,784	6,046	3,442	7,309
Rum	480	86	5,880	1,154	6,360	1,230
Sices	47	1,360	35	1,000	82	2,360
Sugar	9,750	24,640	20,119	49,501	29,869	74,841
Woods	117	175	2,268	2,617	2,385	2,792
Manufactures, viz. cottons	60	5,000	179	8,250	239	11,920
cotton yarn	5,117	45,150	5,865	58,550	10,982	107,700
cotton and linen	-	-	2	150	2	150
cotton and wool	441	35,480	17	1,440	458	36,720
serge-moires and glass	411	3,165	27	5,630	378	7,65
serge-moires and glass	68	3,400	277	7,580	345	11,250
linens	6	6	6	300	6	300
silks	6	200	17	7,000	23	7,200
woolens	-	-	1,703	1,700	33	2,300
Copper	-	-	-	145	320	145
Coppers	156	760	-	-	156	760
Cods	5,200	6,810	-	-	5,200	6,810
Deal boards	-	-	-	-	5,200	6,810
Drugs and colours	180	3,805	140,975	8,458	140,275	8,458
Fab, cod	4,522	4,100	829	8,800	1,099	11,925
herrings	60	180	18	25	4,222	4,100
Iron	1,703	5,400	5,323	13,900	5,626	19,440
Hides	12,211	7,908	96	58	12,307	7,966
Lead	156	150	4,981	4,836	5,137	4,986
Leather	10	210	49	600	68	840
Pitch and tar	209	538	248	490	517	1,028
Saltpetre	1,393	2,712	778	1,265	2,166	3,737
Skins	-	-	21	700	21	700
Stationery and books	1	40	123	3,650	124	3,700
Steel	100	190	629	1,800	729	5,100
Tin in bars	476	6,135	187	610	663	6,745
Tin plates	480	735	-	-	480	735
Tobacco	137	528	1,233	8,000	1,370	6,472
Wax	-	-	946	9,090	946	9,090
Wool	5,825	245	-	-	5,825	245
Other articles	-	-	245	3,408	-	3,653
Total	-	161,893	-	227,763	-	389,656

Remarks on the Trade, &c. of Sicily. — This noble island contains about 10,500 square miles, being the largest in the Mediterranean, and one of the most fertile and best situated in the world. Its population is about 2,100,000. In ancient times, Sicily was celebrated for the number, magnitude, and opulence of its cities. Notwithstanding, however, that its population was then probably treble its present amount, it obtained, from its furnishing vast supplies of corn and other articles of provision for the use of Rome, the appropriate epithet of *horreum Romanorum*, and is said by Livy to have been *Populus Romano, pax ac bello, fidelissimum anno a subsidium*. — (Lib. xxvii. cap. 5.) But (*quantum mutatus!*) there are now few countries in which agriculture and the arts are in so degraded a state! It does not, however, appear very difficult to account for this melancholy change. After the overthrow of the Roman power, Sicily was occupied successively by the Greeks, Saracens, Normans, and French, till at length it became a dependency, first of the crown of Spain, and more recently of that of Naples. It is to this dependence, and to the introduction of the feudal system by the Normans, that its backward state is principally to be ascribed. The multiplied abuses which grew up in Spain under the reign of Ferdinand and his successors of the Austrian line, flourished with equal luxuriance in Sicily, and have proved no less destructive of the industry and civilisation of its inhabitants than of those of Spain. Misgovernment, the abuses of the feudal system, insecurity, and unequal and arbitrary taxes, have here, as every where else, paralysed industry, and impoverished the people.

But the grand curse of Sicilian, as of Sardinian industry, will probably be found in the oppressive restrictions that have been laid on the exportation of corn. Down to a late period, no corn could be exported without leave being obtained from the *Real Patrimonio*, a body that pretended to take an account of the crops, and which determined whether there were to be any exportation; and in the event of its being allowed, it issued, or rather sold, licences to a few favoured individuals*, authorising them to export certain specified quantities! Even had Sicily been ten times more productive than she really is, it is quite impossible that agriculture could have flourished under such discouragements. Luckily, however, these oppressive restraints have recently been abolished, and there are no longer any obstacles to the free exportation of corn. Oppressive taxes, the want of leases of a reasonable length, and of practicable roads, are at present, perhaps, the greatest obstacles to agriculture.

The property of the island was valued in 1811, when the English garrison and fleet occasioned a great demand, and high prices for produce of all kinds; and this valuation has been continued to this day, as the basis on which the land and house tax (*fiscaria*) is levied. A rate of 7½ per cent. on the valuation was first charged, which was subsequently raised to 12½ per cent., at which it is now fixed. Owing, however, as is stated, to the fall in the price of agricultural produce since 1811, this tax is alleged by Mr. McGregor to be more than equivalent to a duty of 25 per cent. on the produce of the soil taken at its present (1840) value, and to be a very great obstacle to improvement. We believe, however, that its influence in this respect, though considerable, has been much over-rated; and that the backward state of Sicily is principally owing to other and different causes.

Though there be in Sicily a very considerable number of small proprietors, by far the greater part of the land belongs to the crown, the church, and the nobility, some of whom have very extensive and valuable estates. Down to a recent period, these were held under a system of strict entail, and their occupiers, as well as those of the estates of the crown and the church, usually held under triennial leases, and were in a state of feudal bondage, and subject to numerous exactions on the part of their lords. Under such circumstances, even though there had been neither restrictions on exportation nor a land tax, the depressed condition of the peasantry, and the low state of agriculture, need not be wondered at.

But we are glad to have to state that the dawn of a better day seems to have arisen, and that several important changes have lately been introduced. We have already noticed the removal of the restrictions on exportation; and in 1812 and 1838 laws were passed for the abolition of the feudal system, and the complete emancipation of the peasantry. And, notwithstanding the poverty and ignorance of the latter will hinder them from speedily profiting to the extent that might be anticipated from the passing of these laws, this cannot fail, in the end, to be productive of the best effects. It was also enacted in 1819, that in future, on the death of any individual possessed of an estate in land, and having more than one son, the half only of the estate should descend to the eldest son, and that the other half should be divided in equal shares among the other children. This law, which appears to have been framed on the model of that which regulates the succession to property in France, will probably have nearly similar effects. In both countries, the abuses of entails might have been obviated without running into

* The late Queen is said to have been a great dealer in corn on her own account!

the opposite extreme, and establishing a system that can hardly fail in the end to occasion the too great division of landed property.

Exclusive of wheat and barley, hemp, flax, and cotton are raised with but little labour. The culture of the last is said to be extending of late years, especially in the neighbourhood of Massara. It is mostly short-stapled, and but little is exported, and that only to Naples and Trieste. It is probable, however, that by attention to its culture, and the introduction of improved varieties, its quality might be improved, and it might become an article of some importance. The sugar-cane was formerly a staple product of the S. shore of Sicily. But owing to the introduction of cheaper sugar from the W. Indies and Brazil, the culture of the cane is now restricted to some small plantations near Avola, and will probably at no distant period be wholly abandoned.

The district round Marsala is the principal seat of the wine culture; and, thanks to the exertions of some English capitalists established in that city, the production of wine is become an important branch of industry, and it forms a principal article of export. — (See *WINE*.) But, except in the English establishments, little care is in general bestowed on the vintage. Along the N. coast, the mountain slopes and valleys are almost wholly covered with olive groves; though elsewhere they are rare, and do not furnish sufficient oil for the inhabitants. But for the imperfections in the mode of its preparation, the oil of Sicily would be excellent. The olives, however, are permitted to hang on the tree till they come off with shaking, or beating with light canes; and they are then kept in vats till they get quite black, so that the oil becomes pungent and rancid, and, though fit for the lamp, is totally unfit for the table. It is only near the capital and in a few other places, that a more improved process is followed. Lemons and oranges, which grow luxuriantly, are of excellent quality, well adapted for long voyages, and, when intended for exportation, are collected with more care than any other agricultural product. They are largely exported, and are altogether highly important. Almonds, pistachios, dates, madder, the barilla plant, hazel-nuts, the *Ricinus palma*, or castor oil plant, saffron, tobacco, &c., might all be raised in any quantity; but their culture is for the most part neglected, or ill-conducted. The mulberry is grown in the vicinity of Messina, and in the N. E. part of the island; but the produce of silk does not exceed 400,000 lbs. a year. The manna ash is grown near the capital, and, manna not being monopolised by the government in Sicily, as in Naples, it might be a much more extensive and profitable article of trade than it really is, if there were any public enterprise. Liqueurice is found growing wild in several parts of the island, and considerable quantities of juice are exported. The culture of shumac is a good deal attended to, and it forms a principal article of export.

Formerly there were only certain ports from which corn could be exported; a limitation which gave rise to the establishment at these ports of public magazines or *caricatori*, where the corn may be deposited till an opportunity occurs of shipping it off. Provided it be of good quality (*mercantibile* or *recetibile*), and provided it be brought in immediately after harvest, or, at farthest, in August, it is warehoused free of expense; what it gains in bulk after that period (about 5 per cent.) being sufficient to defray all expenses. The receipt of the *caricator*, or keeper of the magazine, is negotiable like a bill of exchange, and is the object of speculative purchases on the exchange at Palermo, Messina, &c. according to the expected rise or fall in the price of corn. The depositor of a quantity sells it in such portions as he pleases, the whole being faithfully accounted for. The public magazines, in some parts of the island, are either excavations into calcareous rocks, or holes in the ground shaped like a bottle, walled up, and made water-proof, containing each about 200 salme of corn, or about 1,600 English bushels. The neck of the bottle is hermetically closed with a stone fastened with gypsum. Corn may be thus preserved for an indefinite length of time; at least, it has been found in perfectly good order after the lapse of a century. — (*Simond*, p. 540.; *Swinburne*, vol. ii. p. 405. For an account of the oil *caricatori* of Naples, see *OLIVE OIL*.)

The fisheries are chiefly conducted by corporations of fishermen, or monied individuals. That at Palermo employs, during the season, from 900 to 1,000 boats, and 3,500 fishermen; and the produce is valued at from 20,000L. to 25,000L. a year. Tunnies, the fish principally caught on the Sicilian coasts, and which were in great request in antiquity, as well as in modern times, are of large dimensions, being generally from 4 to 8 feet in length, with a nearly equal girth. Their flesh is highly nutritious. The shoals of tunny enter the Mediterranean early in the year. The *tonnars*, or fishing establishments, on the Sicilian coasts, are more extensive and valuable than those of any other part of the Mediterranean. The nets belonging to the one in the Bay of Palermo are so very strong as to be able to arrest the progress of a ship when under sail. The fishery of the sword-fish is confined chiefly to the Straits of Messina, and the anchovy and pilchard fisheries to Siculania. Lentini has some trade in *botarys*, made of the roe of the mullet. The coral fishery, near Bona, in Africa, is principally

frequented by fishermen from Trapani, at which city the coral is polished, and brought for exportation to Catania, Naples, Leghorn, &c.

The minerals of Sicily are important and valuable. Sulphur ranks first; it is found in great quantities imbedded in blue marl, or in gypsum and limestone, over most of the central and S. parts of the island. The sulphur mines have been wrought for upwards of 800 years; but it is only since 1820 that any extraordinary quantity has been prepared for exportation. Subsequently to 1833, the trade with this country increased so much that the export of sulphur to the U. Kingdom rose from 19,122 tons in the above year, to 38,654 tons in 1838. In this year, however, the Neapolitan government granted to a French company the monopoly of the trade in sulphur, the production of which was to be limited to 600,000 quintals, to be supplied to the company by the proprietors of the mines at certain fixed prices, on condition of the latter paying to the government a bonus of 400,000 Neapolitan ducats a year! It is needless to dwell on the impolicy and absurdity of such a project. Instead of attempting to limit the export of sulphur, government should have given it every possible facility; and taking the export under a free system, at only 1,000,000 quintals, it would have yielded, at the low duty of 2s. a cwt. on export, a larger sum than was to be paid by the company for their monopoly. Luckily, however, a firm remonstrance by England occasioned the suppression of the monopoly, and the sulphur trade is again restored to its former state. Some sulphur mines are wrought by English speculators, with machinery brought from England, and workmen from Wales, Cornwall, and Scotland; but in most of the other mines the processes are very rude, and, in melting, a great part of the sulphur is allowed to escape in gas, to the destruction of the surrounding vegetation. Sicily furnishes saltpetre of excellent quality in sufficient quantity for her own consumption, but from want of enterprise none is produced for exportation. Rock salt, bitumen, gypsum, and marble of different kinds are found in various places; and good salt is made at Trapani, and other coast towns. There are also ores of copper, lead, mercury, and iron, but very few of these are wrought. There are no iron foundries in the island, and iron and tin goods are principally imported from England, lead from Spain, and steel from Germany.

Were the bounty of nature towards Sicily not counteracted by vicious laws and institutions, she would undoubtedly be one of the richest and finest of European countries. All that she requires is security of property and freedom of industry. Let but these be given to her, and a few years will develop her gigantic resources, and elevate Girgenti, Termini, and Sciacca, to a very high rank among corn-shipping ports.

PALM OIL (Ger. *Palmol*; Fr. *Huile de palme*, *Huile de Senegal*; It. *Olio di palma*; Sp. *Acetie de palma*) is obtained from the fruit of several species of palms, but especially from that of the *Elais Guineensis*, growing on the west coast of Africa, to the south of Fernando Po, and in Brazil. When imported, the oil is about the consistence of butter, of a yellowish colour, and scarcely any particular taste; by long keeping it becomes rancid; loses its colour, which fades to a dirty white; and in this state is to be rejected. It is sometimes imitated with hog's lard, coloured with turmeric, and scented with Florentine iris root. The inhabitants of the coast of Guinea employ palm oil for the same purposes that we do butter. Our supplies of palm oil are almost wholly derived from the west coast of Africa, of which it is the staple article of export. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

Account of the Quantities of Palm Oil entered for Consumption in the U. Kingdom, with the Amount of Duty received thereon, during each of the 5 Years ending with 1842.

Quantities.			Duties.								
1840.			1841.			1842.					
Cwt.	qrs.		Cwt.	qrs.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
317,376	2		303,992	0		20,638	8	4	19,949	12	6
			356,222	0					13,641	13	6

The duty on palm oil was reduced in 1834 from 2s. 6d. to 1s. 3d. a cwt.; and in 1842 it was farther reduced to 6d. a cwt.

PAMPHLET, a small book, usually printed in the octavo form, and stitched.

It is enacted by 10 Ann. c. 19. § 113. that no person shall sell, or expose to sale, any pamphlet, without the name and place of abode of some known person, by or for whom it was printed or published, written or printed thereon, under a penalty of 20*l.* and costs.

It is enacted by the 55 Geo. 3. c. 185. that every book containing 1 whole sheet, and not exceeding 8 sheets, in 8vo, or any lesser size; or not exceeding 12 sheets in 4to, or 20 sheets in folio, shall be deemed a pamphlet. The same act imposed a duty of 3*s.* upon each sheet of one copy of all pamphlets published. This duty, which was at once venal and unproductive, hardly ever yielding more than 1,000*l.* or 1,100*l.* a year, was repealed in 1833.

PAPER (Ger. and Du. *Papier*; Fr. *Papier*; It. *Carta*; Sp. *Papel*; Rus. *Bumaga*; Lat. *Charta*; Arab. *Kartus*; Pers. *Kayhaz*). This highly useful substance is, as every one knows, thin, flexible, of different colours, but most commonly white, being used for writing and printing upon, and for various other purposes. It is manufactured of ve-

getable matter reduced to a sort of pulp. The term paper is derived from the Greek *πᾶπισ* (*papyrus*, see post), the name of the plant on the inner bark of which (*Liber, βιβλος*, whence our word *book*) the ancients used to write. Paper is made up into *sheets, quires, and reams*; each quire consisting of 24 sheets, and each ream of 20 quires.

Historical Sketch of Paper. Difference between ancient and modern Paper. — Some of those learned and ingenious persons who have investigated the arts of the ancient world, have expressed their surprise that the Greeks and Romans, though they possessed an immense number of books, and approached very near to printing in the stamping of words and letters, and similar devices, should not have discovered the art; the first rude attempts at typography being sufficiently obvious, though much time and contrivance have been required to bring the process to its present state of perfection. But they should rather, perhaps, have wondered that the more civilised nations of antiquity did not invent paper, an invention which, it may easily be shown, necessarily preceded that of printing. But this was an exceedingly difficult task; the more so, that the vast importance of paper could not be appreciated, or even imagined, till after it had been generally introduced. At first, the memory of important events appears to have been handed down by inscriptions cut on rocks, pillars of stone or marble, and the walls of edifices; and this primitive usage is still retained in the monuments in our churches and cemeteries. In a later, though still very remote age, men were accustomed to write upon portable surfaces of various kinds. Everybody knows that the Decalogue was written upon tables of stone; and Joshua wrote a copy of the law upon the like materials. — (*Josh. c. viii. v. 32.*) The Greeks and Romans engraved laws, treaties, contracts, and other important documents, on plates of brass; and it is stated, that a fire which broke out in the capitol, in the reign of Vespasian, consumed above 3,000 such: bronze monuments. — (*Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique, i. 451.*) But exclusive of plates of this sort, which were necessarily inconvenient, costly, and quite unfit for ordinary use, thin and flexible plates of lead and other metals, (*Job, c. xix. v. 23, 24.*) thin pieces of wood, skins, parchment, linen, and a variety of similar substances were used in writing. Cheaper materials, such as the leaves and bark of trees, palms, &c., were also used from a very remote period for the same purpose; but leaves (*χαρτῆς, charta*) being, when dry, apt to split in the direction of the fibres, it was found to be necessary, in preparing them for writing, to glue them together, so that the fibres might cross each other in opposite directions. The texture of the leaf, or sheet, if we may so call it, is thus greatly strengthened; and when it has been smoothed, polished, and fitted for use, it is less inconvenient and better looking than might be supposed. Such, in fact, is the principle on which the paper of the ancients was formed. This, however, which was called *Charta Egyptiaca*, from the place of its manufacture, did not consist of leaves, but of the inner bark of the famous reed or rush, the *Cyperus Papyrus*, found along the banks of the Nile, or rather in the pools and ditches which communicate with the river. The ancients applied this useful plant to an immense variety of purposes; but here we shall only notice that from which it has acquired an immortality of renown. The inner bark having been divided by a needle or other sharp instrument into very thin and broad layers or filaments, portions of these were placed side by side longitudinally, and glued together at the ends; another portion being glued crosswise on the backs of the latter, to give the page the requisite strength. Pliny and other writers have described the process (*Hist. Nat. lib. xiii. c. 11, 12, 13.*), which has been farther elucidated by Hardouin and other commentators. But the fullest and ablest discussion of this curious subject is contained in the very learned and elaborate work, the *Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique* (i. pp. 448—524.), where the most interesting particulars respecting the history and manufacture of papyrus, as well as of the greater number of the other writing materials used in antiquity, have been collected and set in the clearest point of view. — (See also the *Dictionnaire Diplomatique* of De Vaines, art. *Papier*, ii. pp. 165—174.) Bruce has given a summary of the authorities in the seventh volume of the octavo edition of his *Travels*; and, not satisfied with this, he attempted to make paper from the papyrus, in which not being very successful, he imputes his failure to errors in the statements of Pliny; not reflecting that, had he endeavoured, trusting to written directions, without experience and traditional art, to make modern paper, or even a pair of shoes, he would, most probably, have been equally infelicitous. Egypt enjoyed for a lengthened period a natural monopoly of this valuable article; and even attempted, in anticipation of a later policy, by prohibiting the growth of the papyrus, except in certain localities, and limiting its supply, to sell its produce at an artificially enhanced price! — (*Ameihon, Commerce des Egyptiens, p. 238.*) But this policy ceased on the conquest of Egypt by the Romans, who, having imported the plant into Rome, succeeded in preparing from it a very superior article. Pliny enumerates the various kinds of paper, from the coarsest, which was used, like our brown paper,

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for packing, to the most expensive and finest. The latter, which was made of the innermost filaments, was of a snowy whiteness; and when properly dressed and polished, was easily written upon. The consumption was very considerable; and being, after the foundation of Alexandria, principally made in that city, it formed an important article in her commerce, and furnished employment for many workmen and much capital. Flavius Vopiscus relates, that in the 3d century, the tyrant Firmus used to say there was so much paper there, and so large a quantity of the glue or size used in its preparation, that he could maintain an army with it: — "*Tantum habuisse de chartis, ut publicè sepe diceret, exercitum ac alera posse papyrò et glutinò.*" We may doubt whether the value of the paper at present belonging to any single city would do the like. *Charta Egyptiaca* is very ancient, having, notwithstanding the assertion of Varro and Pliny to the contrary, (*Hist. Nat. lib. xiii. cap. 11.*) been in common use long before the age of Alexander. This is evident from the statement of Herodotus, who, though he lived about a century before that conqueror, tells us, that in former times, when papyrus was scarce, the Ionians wrote on the skins of goats and sheep; and that that practice continued to be customary among several barbarous nations. — (*Lib. v. cap. 58.*)

Though white, smooth, durable, and not ill-adapted for writing, ancient paper was not suited for the printer: by reason of the closeness of the grain, it would not have received the ink from types more kindly than shavings of wood, and such like materials; and its texture was so very brittle, that it would have shivered to pieces under the press. It was, in truth, an artificial mass ("*viscera nivea virentium herbarum*"), no great invention or ingenuity being discovered in its preparation. Modern paper, on the other hand, is wholly artificial; and the contrivances for its manufacture are marvellous alike for the sagacity evinced in their design and their practical efficiency. Like the paper of antiquity, it is formed of the filaments of various sorts of vegetable substances, derived principally from the tearing to pieces or pounding cotton and linen rags, and similar materials, mixed with water. This process is called beating them into pulp; and when examined with a microscope, the floating filaments are found to be well fitted for adhering together, being jagged and rough, and mixed in every possible way. A portion of this mixture or pulp being, when properly prepared, poured upon moulds or sieves of fine woven wire, the water is drained off, and the suspended fibres, falling to the bottom, form a layer or sheet, which, being consolidated by pressure and dried, becomes paper; its strength and goodness depending, of course, in a great measure, on the quality of the rag or other material of which it is made. Paper used to be manufactured by dipping sieves or frames into the pulp; the portion of filaments so lifted up forming the sheet of paper. But the application of rotary motion to the manufacture has effected a total change in the mode in which it was carried on: instead of dipping the sieves or frames into the cistern of pulp, a circular web, or round towel of woven wire, revolves horizontally under the vessel, (technically called the vat,) receives the deposit, conveys it away, and, by an adjustment of extraordinary delicacy, transfers it uninjured, though as fragile as a wet cobweb, to a similar revolving towel of felt: thus an endless web of paper is spun, as long, at least, as the machine continues to move, and pulp is supplied.

The pcrvious and spongy texture of paper make it readily imbibe and retain the ink impressed on it by types in printing, and by the pen in writing; its toughness hinders it from being easily torn; and, in a well-bound book, under favourable circumstances, its duration is indefinite, and, for all practical purposes, eternal! It is true that legal documents are sometimes written or printed on parchment, which is less liable to be torn, or injured by rubbing; the luxury of typography occasionally, also, exhibits a few impressions of a splendid work upon vellum; and, it is farther true, that these substances were used for writing upon by the ancients: but they are necessarily expensive, and the cost of either far exceeds the means of the great majority of book buyers; so that it would be altogether unprofitable to cast types, to construct presses, and to incur the various and heavy charges of an establishment for printing, unless we possessed a cheaper material on which to print.

Almost all the more ancient and valuable existing Greek and Latin manuscripts are written either on parchment or vellum, but generally on the latter. It is singular, however, that while such is the case, all or almost all the very old charters and diplomas are written on papyrus. Indeed the learned authors of the *Nouveaux Traitè de Diplomatique* affirm that no parchment charter has been discovered anterior to the 6th century. — (i. 479.)

It appears to be sufficiently established that paper, fabricated like that now in use, of cotton and other vegetable materials, and of silk, has been manufactured in China from a very remote epoch — (*Nouveaux Traitè de Diplomatique*, i. 519.) the Arab historians state that similar paper was manufactured in Mecca in the beginning of the 8th century — (*Andree, Origine e Progressi d' Ogni Letteratura*, i. 202., ed. Rom, 1808,

and Gibbon, ix. 379.); and most probably the mode of its production was then, also, known to the Greeks. It appears to have been soon after introduced into Europe; but it is doubtful whether this was done by the Arabians or Greeks. The mode of fabricating paper from cotton and other vegetable materials being once discovered, its fabrication from linen rags was a comparatively easy, and in Europe, where cotton was then extremely scarce, an all but necessary step. It is singular, however, that we have no positive information either as to the country where, or the epoch when, paper from rags began to be manufactured in Europe. *Mais on ne peut reculer son invention plus tard, qu'au Treizieme siecle, si son usage ordinaire au-delà du Quatorzieme.* — (*Nouveau Traité, &c.*, i. 524.) In fact, Egyptian paper, or paper made of papyrus, in the manner described above, continued to be partially employed down to the middle of the 11th century, though parchment was then the principal material used in writing.

It is curious to observe how very shortly the introduction of paper preceded the invention of printing, to which, indeed, as already seen, it was an indispensable preliminary. Muratori attributes the ignorance of the barbarous ages principally to the scarcity and high price of paper, and the superior intelligence of modern times to its abundance and cheapness. — (*Andres*, i. 200.) And whatever opinion may be entertained as to the first part of this statement, there can be no question that the latter is perfectly well founded.

Not only are we in the dark as to the history of modern paper, but we are unable to make any very satisfactory conjectural estimate of the mode in which it was invented. It is, however, all but certain that the invention must have been suggested by accident, or by observing the effects produced by the accidental drying of triturated vegetable matter, or in some such way; and that the hint thus afforded was gradually improved upon. It is not possible to imagine that the invention should have been wholly the result of design; for, we cannot conceive how any one without any previous knowledge should have proposed to himself to produce paper by pounding rags, or other vegetable matter, mixing the mass in water, and then pressing and drying the deposit. But, without indulging in unprofitable conjectures, it is at all events certain, that however and by whomsoever discovered, no invention has been of greater importance. *Charta sua maxime humanitas vita constat et memoria.* — (*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. viii. cap. 11.*) The processes by which the most worthless and vilest materials are converted into such admirable substances as paper and glass, are probably the greatest triumphs of human talent and ingenuity. They have more than realised the dreams of the alchemists; and have been incomparably more advantageous than if we had become acquainted with a means of transmuting the inferior metals into gold.

Manufacture of Paper in England. — The application of paper to the purposes of writing and printing, and the fact of its being indispensable to the prosecution of the latter, render its manufacture of the highest utility and importance. But, even in a commercial point of view, its value is very considerable. France, Holland, and Genoa had, for a lengthened period, a decided superiority in this department. The finest and best paper being made of linen rags, its quality may be supposed to depend, in a considerable degree, on the sort of linen usually worn in the country where it is manufactured; and this circumstance is said to account for the greater whiteness of the Dutch and Belgian papers, as compared with those of the French and Italians, and still more the Germans. The rags used in the manufacture of writing paper in Great Britain are collected at home; but those used in the manufacture of the best printing paper are imported, principally, from Italy, Hamburg, and the Austrian States, by way of Trieste. — (*Sec Raos.*) We believe, however, that it was owing rather to the want of skill, than, as has sometimes been supposed, to the inferior quality of the linen of this country, that the manufacture of paper was not carried on with much success in England till a comparatively recent period. During the 17th century, most part of our supply was imported from the Continent, especially from France. The manufacture is said to have been considerably improved by the French refugees who fled to this country in 1685. But it is distinctly stated in the *The British Merchant* (vol. ii. p. 266.), that hardly any sort of paper, except brown, was made here previously to the Revolution. In 1690, however, the manufacture of white paper was attempted; and within a few years, most branches were much improved. In 1721, it is supposed that there were about 300,000 reams of paper annually produced in Great Britain, which was equal to about two thirds of the whole consumption. In 1783, the value of the paper annually manufactured was estimated at 780,000*l.* At present, besides making a sufficient quantity of most sorts of paper for our own use, and for exportation, we annually export about 100,000*l.* worth of books. The importation of foreign paper for British consumption has now nearly ceased. A small quantity of French paper was used in this country for copperplate printing till within these few years; but, in this respect, we now surpass the French, and there is no artist of either country, who does not consider English paper, manufactured according to the latest improvements, best

adapted for prints. The French have, however, always excelled in the manufacture of very thin letter paper; and a small portion of this article, and some paper hangings, are now the only articles of import.

In 1813, Dr. Colquhoun estimated the value of paper annually produced in Great Britain at 2,000,000*l.*; but Mr. Stevenson, an incomparably better authority upon such subjects, estimated it at only half this sum. From information obtained from those engaged in the trade, we incline to think that the total annual value of the paper manufactured in the United Kingdom, exclusive of the duty, may at present amount to about 1,600,000*l.* or 1,700,000*l.* There are about 700 paper-mills in England, and from 70 to 80 in Scotland. The number in Ireland is but inconsiderable. Of these mills, we believe very few have lately been unemployed. About 28,000 individuals are supposed to be directly engaged in the trade: and, besides the workmen employed in the mills, the paper manufacture creates a considerable demand for the labour of millwrights, machinists, smiths, carpenters, iron and brass founders, wire-workers, woollen manufacturers, and others, in the machinery and apparatus of the mills. Some parts of these are very powerful, and subject to severe strain; and other parts are complicated and delicate, and require continual renovation. Owing to this, the manufacture is of much greater importance, as a source of employment, than might at first be supposed, or than it would seem to have been formerly considered by government, who loaded it, down to a very recent period, with an excise duty amounting to more than *three times as much as the total wages of the workpeople employed!*

It was formerly customary to collect the rags used in the manufacture into large heaps, in order that, by their heating and fermentation, they might be the more easily reduced to filaments. But this injured the rags; and it is now the practice to tear them to pieces, without any such preparation, by powerful machines, constructed for the purpose.

During the present century this manufacture has been signally promoted by the combined influence of science, ingenuity, and mechanical skill. These have been successfully exerted in the preparation of the pulp; the conversion of the pulp into paper; and the provision of materials: and in none has their influence been more remarkable than in the last. This is evident from the fact, that while the manufacture has been more than doubled since 1820, the demand for continental rags and other foreign materials has actually been reduced within that time, in consequence of the immense home supply we derive from substances previously regarded as worthless, and treated as refuse. The sweepings of cotton and flax mills, owing to the grease and dirt with which they are mixed up, were, until within these few years, of no value whatever, except as manure. But means having been discovered of rendering them clean and white, they are now made into very good paper; and the neighbourhood of Manchester has, in consequence, become a principal seat of the manufacture. The chemical and mechanical processes by which these materials are purified, whitened, and made available for the production of paper, without their strength being impaired, are not only exceedingly interesting in themselves, but are of great national importance; and, by reducing the cost of paper, have done ten times more to lower the price of books, and diffuse literature, than all the efforts of all the societies that ever existed.

The first idea of a machine for converting pulp into paper, originated in France, the inventor being an ingenious workman of the name of Louis Robert. A model of this machine was brought to England by M. Leger Didot; and though at first it was far from giving an assurance of success, it sufficed to induce English capitalists and engineers, particularly Mr. Donkin, to follow up the scheme; and in the course of a few years they brought it to a high degree of perfection. Mr. Dickinson, of Hertfordshire, one of the most intelligent mechanists and extensive paper manufacturers in England, has invented a machine of a different construction for the same purpose, and has also introduced various subsidiary improvements into the manufacture. One of these consists in the application of air pumps to the process, by the action of which, he produces a partial vacuum under a portion of the wire on which the pulp is in the act of settling, and thus very much accelerates its consolidation; in fact, prepares it almost instantaneously for the first mechanical pressure. The result is all but miraculous. By the agency of a great deal of complicated machinery, so admirably contrived as to produce the intended effect with unerring precision and in the very best manner, a process, which in the old system of paper-making occupied about *three weeks*, is performed in as many minutes! A continuous stream of fluid pulp is, within this brief space of time, and the short distance of 30 feet, not only made into paper, but actually dried, polished, and every separate sheet cut round the edges, and rendered completely ready for use! The paper manufactured by this wonderful combination of intelligence and power is, at once, moderate in price, and, for most purposes, superior in quality to what was formerly made by hand. The sample before the reader, though not the finest that is made, will warrant what is now stated.

Mr. Dickinson some time since made an important improvement in the paper manufacture, on the principle of veneering in cabinet work. He makes two webs of paper, each by a separate process; and by laying them together while in an early stage, they are rendered inseparable by the pressure to which they are subjected. This paper is used in copperplate printing; and by adopting a peculiar method of preparing the pulp, and selecting a finer rag for the web which forms the face of the paper, it is much better calculated for taking a fine impression. Its introduction has put a total stop to the importation of that species of French paper, which was formerly used in considerable quantities by copperplate printers. Probably, however, the most ingenious of the modern inventions in the manufacture is that by which Mr. Dickinson has contrived, without increasing the thickness of paper, to embody parallel coloured threads in its fabric. This novel description of paper is now used in the printing of exchequer bills and postage envelopes, for which it is admirably fitted, inasmuch as it cannot be counterfeited, except by employing similar machinery, which it would cost a great deal to construct, and be all but impossible to conceal.

Duty on Paper.—Previously to 1836, all writing, coloured, or wrapping papers, cardboards, and pasteboards, were denominated 1st class paper, and paid 3d. per lb. duty (28s. a cwt.); unless manufactured wholly of tarred ropes, without the tar being previously extracted, in which case the paper was denominated 2d class, and paid 1½d. per lb. (14s. a cwt.). Millboards and scaleboards, made of the same materials as 2d class paper, paid 2½d. per lb. (21s. a cwt.) duty.

This duty varied on the different descriptions of 1st class paper from about 25 or 30 per cent. on the finest, to about 200 per cent. on the coarsest! A duty so oppressive led to the commission of very great frauds, which all the vigilance of the officers, and the endless multiplication of checks and penalties, were unable to prevent; the real effect of such devices being to injure the honest manufacturers, and to give those of a different character greater facilities for carrying on their fraudulent schemes. But, laying out of view for a moment the oppressiveness of the duty, could any thing be more absurd, than to interdict the manufacturer of third class wrapping paper (for it is to him that the regulation applied) from using any other material than tarred ropes? After the peace, and the very general introduction of iron cables, tarred ropes advanced considerably in price; but as the use of any other material whatever would have occasioned an increase of 14s. a cwt. of duty, advantage could not be taken of this circumstance; so that the excise regulation, without putting one sixpence into the pockets of government, obliged the public to pay an increased price for an inferior article! Neither was this its only effect: a good deal of the refuse thrown out in sorting rags, which might have been used in the manufacture of coarse wrapping paper, was sold by the manufacturers for about 3s. a cwt.; while a good deal that might have been used in the same way could not be sold at all, but was absolutely lost. It is plain, therefore, that this regulation had a two-fold operation: first, in adding to the cost of wrapping paper, by compelling it to be made from a comparatively expensive article; and, secondly, in adding to the expense of fine paper, by preventing the refuse of the rags used in its manufacture from being beneficially employed.

Owing to the decline in the price of paper, the duty still amounts to about 50 per cent. on a large proportion of what is manufactured, though it may be doubted, considering the purposes to which paper is applied, whether it should be subject to any duty whatever. Printers, stationers, bookbinders, type-founders, artists, copperplate and lithographic printers, card-makers, paper-stainers and paper-hangers, &c. are all injured by a duty on it. But the greatest evil of all is its influence in increasing the price, and hindering the publication, of books. "This places a great obstacle in the way of the progress of knowledge, of useful and necessary arts, and of sober, industrious habits. Books carry the productions of the human mind over the whole world, and may be truly called the raw materials of every kind of science and art, and of all social improvement."—(*Sir H. Parnell on Financial Reform*, 3d ed. p. 30.)

But though the exigencies of the public service have not permitted the total repeal of the duties on paper, we are glad to have to state that they have been most materially lowered. In 1836, the duty on first-class papers was reduced to the same level as that on papers of the second class, or from 4d. per lb. to 1½d. per lb.; and the manufacturers of the coarser descriptions of paper being at the same time relieved from the restraints under which they had previously laboured, and allowed to use any material in the manufacture which they may judge best. The oppressive duty of 1½d. per square yard laid on paper when printed or stained, over and above the ordinary duty on paper, was then also repealed, and the various acts relating to paper were combined into a single statute. At present, therefore, the same rate of duty is laid on all descriptions of paper, so that there is no longer any room for cheating the revenue by the substitution of superior for inferior paper, and, consequently, no necessity for exercising so great a degree of vexatious surveillance over the manufacture as formerly prevailed.

The influence of this wise and judicious measure in reducing the price of paper used in printing and writing, has since been decidedly manifested. The abolition of the discriminating duty on stained or printed paper has, also, been of material importance. The reduction of price it has occasioned has enabled a much larger class of persons to get their apartments papered; and it has been in this way productive, not only of a great additional demand for paper and labour, but of a great increase of comfort and cleanliness.

This measure has, also, in part obviated the injustice done to authors and publishers, by compelling them to pay a duty on the paper used in printing books previously to their publication; and, consequently, before it can be known whether the books will sell. When they do not sell, the tax has obviously to be paid out of the capital of the authors or publishers, and the loss arising from an unsuccessful publishing speculation is increased by its amount. — (See *ante*, p. 160.) It is true that every duty on paper, how limited soever, operates in this way, and is, therefore, objectionable on principle; but the hardship inflicted on an unsuccessful author by the existing paper duty being only half its former amount, is not nearly so much felt.

As respects revenue, too, the measure has been successful. In 1835, the nett produce of the duties on paper, in the U. Kingdom, amounted to 796,305*l.* Of this sum, the duty on first class paper produced about 650,000*l.*; and as the rate of charge on it has been reduced a half, it follows, had there been no increased production, that the duty should now (1843) amount to about 471,000*l.* (viz. 325,000*l.* half the duty on first class paper, plus 146,000*l.* the duty on second paper, pasteboard, &c.) But, in fact, the paper duty produced in 1841, a nett revenue of 587,380*l.*, being an increase of nearly 25 per cent. This, however, gives a very imperfect view of the progress of the manufacture; for, owing to the premium (for so it may be called) which the new postage regulations give on the use of thin and light paper, the increase in its production has been incomparably greater than we might infer from the increase of weight. Indeed, the probability is, that but for the change in the postage system, the revenue would now (1843) have lost little, if anything, by the reduction of the paper duties.

An Account exhibiting the Quantities of the different Sorts of Paper charged with Duties, the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duties, &c., during each of the Three Years preceding the Reduction of the Duties in 1836, and the Six subsequent Years. — (From *Parl. Papers*, No. 298. Sess. 1842, and No. 43. Sess. 1843.)

Years.	First Class Paper.		Second Class Paper.		Millboard, Glazed Paper, Sheathing Paper, Button Board, &c.		Pasteboard.		Total Weight of Paper, Millboard, and Pasteboard.	Gross Produce of the Duties.	Nett Produce of the Duties.	Drawbacks on Paper exported.
	Duty, <i>sd.</i> per <i>lb.</i>	Qty. <i>lb.</i>	Duty, <i>1<i>sd.</i></i> per <i>lb.</i>	Qty. <i>lb.</i>	First Class.	Second Class.	First Class.	Second Class.				
1835												
England	487,803,481	14,108,300	1,753	24,227	10,531	9,930	81,138,518	665,391	7,681,775	15	9,30,847	0
Scotland	7,517,783	177,045	-	5,641	2,488	3,625	10,049,383	111,560	13	100,072	10	8,639
Ireland	1,868,000	608,490	-	518	23	-	3,457,707	87,561	10	86,677	19	619
U. Kingdom	81,941,860	10,477,105	1,753	28,386	15,042	5,485	75,645,608	804,513	11	748,476	19	9,39,555
1836												
England	44,713,040	14,811,091	1,876	24,423	10,021	3,719	63,396,973	691,041	8	639,467	7	10,36,789
Scotland	7,400,569	1,883,569	-	5,647	2,610	3,738	10,469,270	115,294	8	110,584	9	8,159
Ireland	1,875,000	637,508	20	325	8	6	3,374,031	86,577	0	85,500	17	876
U. Kingdom	54,003,721	16,308,168	1,903	28,393	12,639	6,165	76,159,343	833,892	10	771,162	12	14,125
1837												
England	46,340,213	16,380,171	2,388	23,004	9,345	4,847	64,698,801	705,299	15	645,378	7	6,41,960
Scotland	8,620,630	2,465,766	-	3,118	2,899	5,969	12,015,059	134,292	11	130,299	7	6,739
Ireland	2,237,482	431,158	17	373	51	15	2,704,537	30,943	10	30,427	1	266
U. Kingdom	56,197,555	17,283,095	2,345	26,495	14,663	8,771	79,617,518	866,439	1	796,304	16	7,100,283

PAPER OF ALL KINDS.

Rate of duty on all sorts of Paper in 1837, 1838, 1839, and till the 15th May, 1840, 1*1*s.** per *lb.*; and thereafter 1*1*s.** per *lb.* and 5 per cent. additional.

Years.	Weight of Paper.	Gross Produce of the Duties.			Nett Produce of the Duties.			Drawbacks on Paper exported.	Years.	Weight of Paper.	Gross Produce of the Duties.			Nett Produce of the Duties.			Drawbacks on Paper exported.
		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>				<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	
1837									1840								
England	71,043,900	442,209	0	418,513	15	11,80,849	11	9	75,730,041	494,838	4	457,681	10	7,84,834	10		
Scotland	13,741,385	80,133	12	77,256	6	3,910	18	6	16,486,022	108,674	12	101,810	7	6,299	10		
Ireland	3,428,188	20,501	3	19,112	17	5	109	18	7	3,591,293	35,159	17	32,801	18	8		
U. Kingdom	88,200,843	568,948	16	7,508,282	19	10,84,870	6	10	U. Kingdom	97,327,356	626,668	10	8,811,228	15	10,52,022	18	
1838									1841								
England	73,003,741	461,280	7	7,436,946	2	5,17,638	17	0	76,998,728	500,671	0	4,559,051	19	4,25,373	5		
Scotland	18,105,088	100,500	8	96,354	7	4,543	4	0	16,281,556	110,390	2	10,101,989	14	7,401	15		
Ireland	3,564,278	22,217	10	22,837	17	0	348	4	3,891,477	36,194	0	7,402,53	1	1	10		
U. Kingdom	85,168,296	584,164	8	8,554,248	7	8,21,324	8	10	U. Kingdom	97,105,550	637,255	6	6,667,379	15	13,851	0	
1839									1842								
England	76,047,379	481,179	9	450,669	7	5,28,476	15	10	England	75,574,288	495,858	17	6				
Scotland	17,196,796	97,479	12	101,193	15	4,890	14	9	Scotland	17,063,666	111,293	6	9				
Ireland	3,628,225	21,610	16	21,579	4	211	0	10	Ireland	4,665,499	26,900	12	6				
U. Kingdom	97,812,441	610,190	10	6,73,232	15	6,27,246	15	7	U. Kingdom	96,693,323	634,249	16	6				

PARCEL, a term indifferently applied to small packages of wares, and to large lots of goods. In this latter sense, 20 hogsheads of sugar or more, if bought at one price, or in a single lot, are denominated "a preel of sugar."

PARCELS, BILL OF, an account of the items composing a parcel.

PARCHMENT AND VELLUM. The former consists of the skins of sheep and goats, and the latter of those of calves, prepared in such a manner as to render them suitable for being written upon, for covering books, and other purposes. The consumption of these articles is very considerable. In this and most other countries, it is customary to use them instead of paper in the drawing up of a great variety of deeds and other legal instruments. They are also extensively used, especially in Italy, in the binding of books. The finest copies of the magnificent classics which issued from the Dutch presses, in the 17th century and the early part of the 18th, were all bound in vellum.

Parchment is coarser than vellum, and not so well adapted for writing upon. The qualities of both articles differ very widely; so much so that the best parchment is preferable to inferior or even middling vellum. The goodness of each depends partly on the quality of the skin which they are made, and partly, and indeed in a very high degree, on the skill with which they are manufactured.

Historical Note. — The history of these articles is given in some obscurity. Varro and Pliny (*Ant. Nat. ... xiii. cap. 11.*), who have been generally followed, state that they were originally manufactured at Pergamus, in Asia Minor, the capital city of Eumenes II., one of Alexander's successors*, during the reign of that prince; and that parchment owes to this circumstance its classical name of *charta Pergamena*. But there seems to be little if any foundation for this statement. We have seen, in the preceding article on paper, that Herodotus, who flourished rather more than a century before Alexander the Great, states distinctly, that previously to his era, when paper (*charta Egyptiaca*) was scarce, the Ionians were accustomed to write on the skins of sheep and goats, and that that practice was then followed (*viz. in his time*) by several barbarous nations. — (*Lib. v. cap. 58.*) And it is all but certain, seeing that the practice of writing on skins had been in use for at least 2½ centuries, and probably much more, previously to the era of Eumenes, that their preparation would, in the course of that lengthened period, be so much improved as to render them little different from parchment. It is probable, indeed, that their manufacture may have been improved in Pergamus; but we incline to think that parchment owes its name rather to the extensive demand for it in that city, in consequence of Eumenes having amassed a large and valuable library, than to any thing else. He was, in fact, compelled to use parchment and vellum in the copying of books, as his contemporary Ptolemy Philadelphus had prohibited the exportation of paper. — (*Plin. ubi supra.*)

The scarcity of parchment during the middle ages, and in antecedent times, led to the practice of obliterating the writing on old parchments, by rubbing them with pumice stone, immersing them in boiling water, and such like devices; and there can be no manner of doubt that the prevalence of this practice has been most injurious to literature, and that it has most probably occasioned the total destruction of some of the noblest *chefs-d'œuvre* of antiquity. In the middle ages these were erased that room might be made for some worthless treatise on scholastic theology or logic! Sometimes, however, it happens that the ancient writing is not so much obliterated, but that it may still be read; and to that circumstance the recent discovery of a portion of Cicero's treatise *De Republica* is to be ascribed. It had been effaced to make room for a commentary of St. Augustine on the Psalms. — (See the *préface* of May, the ingenious discoverer of this lost treatise.)

Parchments that have been erased in this way are called *Palimpsests* (from *παλις, again*, and *ψαω, to efface or clean*), or repeatedly cleaned parchments; because they have been repeatedly cleaned, renewed, or prepared for writing upon. If the learned world is ever to be gratified by the recovery of the lost comedies of Menander, or the lost books of Polybius, Livy, and Tacitus, it will most probably be by finding them under some homely or such like trash. — (*Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique, i. 482, &c.; Dom de Vaines, ii. 177, &c.*)

PARTIAL LOSS. See **INSURANCE (MARINE).**

PARTNERSHIP, the association of two or more individuals for carrying on some business or undertaking in common; each deriving a certain share of the profits, and bearing a corresponding share of the loss arising therefrom.

The term partnership is usually applied to those smaller associations in which the partners personally conduct their joint affairs: the term company being applied to those great associations conducted by directors and servants appointed by the body of the

* He was a successor of, but must not be confounded with, Eumenes, the secretary and general of the Conqueror.

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Nett Produce of the Duties.				Drawbacks on Paper exported.			
£	s	d.	q.	£	s	d.	q.
681,775	15	5		30,247	0		
100,028	16	10		8,639	1		
26,577	19	10		619	0		
748,478	12	2		39,555	1		
639,467	7	10		36,798	1		
105,894	7	0		6,548	18		
45,800	17	9		978	3		
771,162	12	7		44,125	1		
645,578	7	6		41,960	8		
130,289	7	6		7,995	8		
50,427	1	3		386	18		
796,304	18	3		50,283	14		

per lb.; and thereafter

Nett Produce of the Duties.				Drawbacks on Paper exported.			
£	s	d.	q.	£	s	d.	q.
457,281	10	1		184,254	13		
5,101,215	7	1		6,929	10		
23,304	18	6		257	18		
5,881,498	16	10		32,071	3		
459,950	19	4		48,733	5		
10,103,389	14	7		8,018	15		
7,28,035	1	4		151	19		
6,067,379	13	1		33,891	0		

partners to act for them; the latter having no direct concern in the management of the affairs of the company. — (See COMPANIES.)

The advantages of partnership are obvious. Many businesses could not be successfully carried on without a larger command of capital than usually belongs to an individual; and most of them require the combination of various species of talent. An individual may have capital sufficient to undertake a particular business; but he may not be thoroughly versed in any of its details, or he may be familiar with certain parts of it and not with others; so that it might be for his advantage to assume one or more individuals as his partners, supposing them to be without capital, provided they possessed the skill and other qualifications required in prosecuting the business. Associations of this sort enable capital and talent to derive all the assistance that each is capable of lending to the other. And as the gains of each partner usually consist of a certain proportion of the total profits made by the company, each has the most powerful motive to exert himself for the benefit of the concern. It is not, indeed, to be denied, that associations of this sort are occasionally productive of mischievous consequences. The public interest requires that the whole partners in a firm should be bound by the acts of any one of their number; so that the folly or fraud of a single partner may entail very serious consequences upon those associated with him. Generally, however, this is not an evil of frequent occurrence; and there can be no question that, both in a private and public point of view, partnerships are highly beneficial.

To enter into anything like a full discussion of the law of partnership would very far exceed our limits. We shall, therefore, merely state a few of those leading principles with respect to it, as to which it is of importance that mercantile men, and the public generally, should be well acquainted.

Formation of Partnerships. — The mere consent of the partners, fixed and certified by acts or contracts, is quite sufficient to constitute a private copartnership; so that if two or more merchants, or other persons, join together in trade, or in any sort of business, with a mutual, though it may be unequal, participation in the profit and loss of the concern, they are in every respect to be considered as partners. No particular form of words or proceeding is necessary to constitute a partnership. It may be entered into either by an express written agreement, or by a merely verbal one. The former ought in almost all cases to be preferred. The contract of copartnership should state the parties to it, the business to be carried on, the space of time the partnership is to continue, the capital each is to bring into the business, the proportion in which the profit and loss are to be divided, the manner in which the business is to be conducted, the mode agreed upon for settling accounts at the dissolution of the partnership, together with the special covenants adapted to the circumstances of each particular case.

To constitute a partnership, there must be a participation in uncertain profits and losses; and the true criterion to determine, when money is advanced to a trader, whether the individual making the advance is to be looked upon as a partner or not, is to ascertain whether the *premium or profit be certain and defined, or casual, indefinite, and depending upon the accidents of trade.* In the former case he is a lender merely; in the latter he is a partner. The mere participation in the profits of any business or adventure, without a participation in the losses, constitutes a partnership, so far as to render the individual so participating liable to third parties for the engagements of the concern, though as between the parties themselves it may be no partnership. Thus, if a clerk or other servant stipulate for a share of the profits of any business as a *reward for his labour*, he becomes responsible to third parties as a partner, and no private arrangement can cancel his liability.

If an individual, by his own act or inadvertence, allow himself to *appear to the world as a partner*, he is precluded from disputing the fact, even though he have no interest in the profits. A partner who withdraws from a firm is liable on account of the remaining partners continuing his name in the firm, though without his consent, unless he take the necessary precautions — (see *post*) — to show that he has ceased to belong to it.

If there be no express stipulation as to the management of partnership property, the majority decide as to the disposition and management of the joint affairs of the firm; or, if there be but two parties in a firm, one may manage the concern as he thinks fit, provided it be within the rules of good faith, and warranted by the circumstances of the case. The general duty of a partner is to keep in view, at all times, and in all transactions, the interest and welfare of the partnership, by acting honestly and uprightly, and as a prudent man would conduct his own affairs.

Liability of Partners as to third Parties. — It may be laid down as a general rule, that partners, whether actual, ostensible, or apparent, are bound by the act of their partner, made in the course of and with reference to the partnership business, and in the regular course of dealing by the firm; and though the general rule of law be, that no one is liable upon any contract, except such as are privy to it, yet this is not contravened by the liability of partners, as they are supposed virtually present at and sanctioning the pro-

ceedings they singly enter into in the course of trade, or as being severally vested with a power enabling them to act at once as principals and as the authorised agents of their copartners. It is for the advantage of partners that they are thus held liable; for the credit of their firm is in consequence greatly enhanced, and facility is given to all their dealings, even when they reside in different parts of the country, or of the world. A due regard to the interest of strangers is at the same time observed; for where an individual deals with one of several partners, he relies upon the credit of the entire firm, and therefore ought to have his remedy against all the individuals who compose it.

Unless, however, the act of one partner relate to and be connected with the partnership trade, and in the *course of dealing by the firm*, such acting partner only will be bound; for it is only by acting in the course of their particular trade or line of business that an implied authority is delegated by partners to each other; and it is only in such transactions that third parties have a right to rely upon the partnership funds. To bind a partnership, credit must be given to the firm itself, and not to one merely of its partners. One of them may even, in furtherance of the objects of the firm, enter into a contract with some third party; but if such contract be made *exclusively and solely upon the credit of the individual partner*, it will only bind him, and not the firm. The presumption of the law, however, always is, that a contract with one of the partners in reference to the business of the firm has been entered into upon the credit of the whole; and this presumption is not to be rebutted, except by very clear evidence. One partner cannot, as such, except in bankruptcy, bind another by *deed*.

The authority of a partner is revocable; and it is now fully established that a *disclaimer* of the authority of the partners in any particular transaction will preclude him from binding his copartners. Even during the subsistence of the partnership, one partner may to a certain degree limit his responsibility; and if there be any particular speculation or bargain proposed, which he disapproves of, he may, by giving distinct notice to those with whom his partners are about to contract that he will not be concerned in it, relieve himself from all consequences. Such notice would rebut his *primâ facie* liability. The partnership would be suspended *quoad* this transaction. Thus, if a partner draw, accept, or indorse a bill or note, he will, in all ordinary cases, thereby render the firm liable. But, to use the words of Lord Ellenborough, "it is not essential to a partnership that every partner should have such power; they may stipulate among themselves that it shall not be done; and if a third party, *having notice of this*, will take such security from one of the partners, he shall not sue the others upon it, in breach of such stipulation, nor in defiance of notice previously given to him by one of them, that he will not be liable for any bill or note signed by the others."—(*Galway v. Matthew*, 10 East, 264.); and so in other cases.

However small the share a partner may have in a concern, he is liable for the *whole* of the debts contracted by the firm; and must seek his remedy in a rateable contribution against his partners. Should one party enter into a smuggling or other illegal transaction on the partnership account, the other partners are liable to the duties and the penalty; and the Crown may proceed against the real delinquent alone, or against all the partners. A bookseller, or newspaper proprietor, is answerable for the acts of his agent or copartner, not only civilly, but also *criminally*.

Dissolution of Partnerships.—A partnership may be dissolved by the effluxion or expiration of the time during which it was originally agreed that it should continue. When a copartnership is formed for a single dealing or transaction, the moment that is completed, it is at an end. Partnerships may also be dissolved by death, agreement, bankruptcy, outlawry, &c. A court of equity will interfere to dissolve a partnership, in cases where a partner so misconducts himself as to be injurious to the firm, or to defeat the object for which the partnership was formed; or when a partner becomes insane, or is in such a state of mind as to render him permanently incapable of transacting the peculiar business of the firm; or where a partnership is formed for an impracticable purpose. Indeed, in all cases, where even a partnership may be dissolved without the interference of a court of equity, it may be most prudent, if the dissolution be opposed by one of the partners, to file a bill, praying a dissolution and account, and an injunction against using the partnership name.

When a partnership is dissolved by agreement, or one of the partners withdraws from it, public notice of the dissolution must be given in the *London Gazette*; and a *specific intimation of the circumstance must be sent to ALL individuals accustomed to deal with the firm*. Where such intimation has not been sent, the individual withdrawing from the firm may be made liable to third parties after he has ceased to have any thing to do with it. A dormant partner, whose name has never been announced, may withdraw from a firm without making the dissolution of partnership publicly known.

When the joint debts of the firm are paid, and the property duly distributed among the partners, the dissolution may be said, in a general sense, to be accomplished. If any one of the firm be guilty of a breach of duty in misapplying the effects before the

concern is finally wound up, the proper course is to apply to the Court of Chancery to appoint a manager.

Within a reasonable time after the death of one partner, the survivors must account to the representatives of the deceased; and if not willing to do so, a court of equity will compel them. In taking partnership accounts at the death of a partner, they must commence with the last stated account; or, if there be none such, with the commencement of the partnership; and they must end with the state of the stock at the time of the partner's death, and the proceeds thereof until it be got in.

No notice is necessary to third parties of the death of a partner; and the partnership is dissolved, and all liabilities for subsequent acts cease. The surviving parties are to be sued alone for the partnership liabilities and obligations, for which they are liable to the full extent. But they are not liable for the separate debts of the deceased partner, unless, after payment of all the joint debts, they have a surplus of the partnership effects in their hands.

Upon a dissolution by death, if the joint effects be insufficient to pay the partnership debts, the separate estate of the deceased partner, if he have any, is liable for the deficiency.

The statements now made will, probably, be sufficient to give our readers a tolerably distinct notion of the formation of partnerships; and of the more important rights, duties, liabilities, &c. arising out of such institutions. Those who wish to go deeper into the subject, may consult the treatises of *Watson and Montagu* on the *Law of Partnership*; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. pp. 225—269.; *Woolrych on Commercial Law*, pp. 298—317., &c.

PASSENGERS, in commercial navigation, are individuals conveyed for hire from one place to another on board ship. Passage ships are those peculiarly appropriated to the conveyance of passengers.

Passage ships are generally placed under certain regulations; and the extent to which emigration is now carried renders it of the utmost importance that these regulations should be carefully compiled.

Account of the Number of Emigrants from the U. Kingdom during each of the 18 Years from 1825 to 1842; both inclusive, specifying the Countries for which they sailed, and the Numbers that sailed for each.

Years.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Australian Colonies and New Zealand.	All other Places.	Total.	Years.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Australian Colonies and New Zealand.	All other Places.	Total.
1825	8,741	5,551	485	111	14,891	1835	15,578	26,720	1,860	328	44,486
1826	12,418	7,983	903	116	20,900	1836	34,226	37,774	2,124	235	75,417
1827	12,548	14,928	715	114	28,003	1837	39,889	26,770	5,054	396	72,051
1828	12,064	12,817	1,056	133	26,069	1838	4,577	14,828	14,021	322	33,757
1829	13,307	15,278	2,016	197	31,198	1839	12,558	33,526	15,766	317	62,207
1830	20,574	24,807	1,549	206	46,936	1840	28,923	40,649	13,850	1,958	84,380
1831	26,027	23,418	1,261	114	51,120	1841	38,164	45,017	23,945	2,756	110,082
1832	66,539	22,878	2,733	196	92,346	1842	54,123	63,829	9,534	1,835	128,344
1833	28,208	29,108	4,023	317	61,656						
1834	40,060	23,074	1,500	288	75,922						
						Total	504,944	507,638	115,456	10,037	1,128,077

Average annual emigration from the U. Kingdom for the 18 years ending with 1842 - 62,671

The following account exhibits the emigration of 1842 more in detail.

Return of Emigrants from the different Portions of the United Kingdom in 1842, specifying the Countries for which they sailed, and the Number that sailed for each.

	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Totals.
TO FOREIGN AMERICA :				
United States	53,439	4,214	6,199	63,852
Texas	38	-	-	38
Central America	195	-	-	195
Buenos Ayres	130	-	-	130
				64,215
BOTHEN NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES :				
Canada	11,257	5,955	24,163	41,375
New Brunswick	522	39	2,748	3,309
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton	1,623	-	241	1,864
Newfoundland	155	30	325	490
Prince Edward Island	624	-	633	1,257
				54,123
WEST INDIES :				
Jamaica	205	41	-	246
British Guiana	64	26	-	90
Trinidad	27	54	-	81
Other West India Islands	288	91	7	386
				813
FALKLAND ISLANDS	x	-	-	x
WESTERN AFRICA	44	-	-	44
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE	585	4	-	589
MAURITIUS	26	-	-	26
AUSTRALIAN COLONIES :				
Sydney	1,068	78	310	1,456
Port Philip	760	104	-	864
Van Diemen's Land	1,790	31	627	2,448
South Australia	119	26	-	145
Western Australia	563	-	-	563
New Zealand	2,345	719	-	3,064
				9,534
Total number of emigrants	71,685	15,108	40,555	127,348

It is seen from this statement, that in 1842 no fewer than 128,544 voluntary emigrants left the U. Kingdom; and such being the extent to which emigration is carried, the propriety, or rather necessity, of enacting some general regulations, with respect to the conveyance of emigrants to their destination, must be obvious to every one at all acquainted with the subject. The greater number of emigrants are in humble life; few among them know any thing of ships, or of the precautions necessary to insure a safe and comfortable voyage; they are also, for the most part, poor, and exceedingly anxious to economise, so that they seldom hesitate to embark in any ship, however unfit for the conveyance of passengers, or inadequately furnished with provisions, if it be cheap. Unprincipled masters and owners have not been slow to take advantage of this; and in order to prevent the frauds that would otherwise be practised on the unwary, it has been found indispensable to lay down some general regulations as to the number of passengers to be taken on board ships as compared with their tonnage, the quantity of water and provisions as compared with the passengers, &c. But this is no very easy task. If the limitations be too strict, that is, if comparatively few passengers may be carried, or if the stock of provisions to be put on board be either unnecessarily large or expensive, the cost of emigration is proportionally enhanced; and an artificial and serious impediment is thrown in the way of what should be made as easy as possible, consistent with security. But, on the other hand, if too many passengers be allowed, their health is liable to suffer; and should the supply of provisions be inadequate, or the quality bad, the most serious consequences may ensue. The act 6 G. 4. c. 116. obliged too great a quantity of expensive provisions to be put on board, and was in consequence objected to by emigrants as well as shippers. The act 9 G. 4. c. 21. avoided this error; but it was defective, inasmuch as it made no provision with respect to the sufficiency of the ship, the having a surgeon or other properly qualified medical person on board ships carrying a certain number of passengers, and in other particulars. These deficiencies were in part supplied by the act 5 & 6 W. 4. c. 53., and the acts 3 & 4 Vic. c. 21. and 1 & 2 Vic. 113. But the provisions in these acts having been still in several respects inadequate, the statute 5 & 6 Vic. c. 107. has repealed them, and substituted the following regulations in their stead.

The 1st clause repeals the acts 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 53.; 3 & 4 Vict. c. 21.; and 1 & 2 Vic. c. 113. in part.

Limitation of Numbers of Passengers according to Tonnage and Space.—No ship carrying passengers on any voyage from any port or place in the U. Kingdom, or in the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, to or for any port or place out of Europe, and within the Mediterranean Sea, shall proceed on her voyage with or shall carry more persons on board than in the proportion of 3 persons to every 5 tons of the registered burden of such ship, the master and crew being included in and forming part of such prescribed number, and that no such ship shall, whatever be the tonnage thereof, proceed on her voyage with or carry more passengers on board than in the following proportion to the space occupied by them and appropriated for their use, and unoccupied by stores not being the personal luggage of passengers; (that is to say,) on the lower deck or platform 1 passenger for every 10 clear superficial feet, if such ship is not to pass within the tropics during such voyage, but if such ship is to pass within the tropics during such voyage, then 1 passenger for every 12 clear superficial feet, if such voyage is computed in manner after mentioned not to exceed 12 weeks, and 1 passenger for every 15 such clear superficial feet if such voyage is so computed to exceed 12 weeks; and under the poop and on the orlop deck, if any, 1 passenger for every 30 superficial feet in all cases; and that if any ship carrying passengers upon any such voyage as aforesaid shall carry any passengers beyond these proportions, the master of such ship shall, for or in respect of every passenger constituting such excess, be liable, on conviction, to a penalty not exceeding 5s. — § 2.

Construction and Thickness of Lower Deck.—No ship shall carry passengers on any such voyage as aforesaid, unless she have lower or hold beams forming part of the permanent structure of the vessel, and also a lower deck or platform, of which the under surface shall be not lower than 3 inches above the bottom of the lower beams, and properly and substantially secured to the same, nor unless such lower deck or platform shall be of not less than 1 1/2 inch thickness. — § 3.

Height between Decks.—No ship shall carry any passengers upon any such voyage as aforesaid, unless she be of the height of 6 feet at the least between the upper deck and the lower deck or platform before mentioned, nor carry passengers on the orlop deck, if any, unless the height between such orlop deck and the deck immediately above the same be 6 feet at least. — § 4.

Sleeping Berths.—No ship carrying passengers on any voyage as aforesaid shall have more than 2 tiers of berths; and in no such ship shall the interval between the floor of the berths and the deck or platform beneath them be less than 6 inches; and further, that the berths shall be securely constructed, and that their dimensions shall not be less than 6 feet in length, and 18 inches in width, for each passenger. — § 5.

Quantities of Provisions and Water to each Passenger.—On board every ship carrying passengers as aforesaid, there shall be issued to the passengers daily a supply of water at the rate of at least 3 quarts for each passenger per day; and there shall also be issued at convenient times, not less than twice a week, a supply of provisions after the rate of 7 lbs. of bread, flour, oatmeal, or rice per week, provided that at least of the supply shall consist of bread or biscuit, and that potatoes may be employed to the extent of the remaining half of the supply; 5 lbs. of potatoes being computed as equal to 1 lb. of the other articles above enumerated; and such issues as aforesaid shall be made throughout the whole voyage, including the time of detention, if any, at any port or place before the end of such voyage; and further, no ship proceeding on any voyage as aforesaid shall be cleared out until there be laden and on board such quantity of pure water, and of good and wholesome provisions of the requisite kind, as shall be sufficient to allow of the above issues during the period assigned to such voyage under the provisions of this act. — § 6.

Further Regulations as to Water.—In such ships the water to be laden on board as before required shall be carried in tanks or sweet casks, and none of such casks shall exceed three hundred gallons in capacity; and further, when any ship shall be destined to call at a port or place in the course of her voyage for the purpose of filling up her water, a supply of water at the rate before mentioned for every week of the computed voyage to such port or place of calling shall be deemed to be a compliance with the provisions of this act, subject to the following conditions:—

1. That the government emigration agent at ports where there is one, and the collector or comptroller

Chancery to
 must account
 rt of equity
 partner, they
 with the com-
 stock at the
 partnership is
 ices are to be
 are liable to
 ased partner,
 ouship effects
 e partnership
 liable for the
 ers a tolerably
 portant rights,
 to go deeper
 n the Law of
 rch on Com-
 for hire from
 y appropriated
 extent to which
 ese regulations
 ers from 1825 to
 ere that sailed for

All other Places.	Total.
825	44,478
293	75,417
336	72,051
252	83,921
227	62,207
1,328	90,743
2,758	118,592
1,855	128,544
10,037	1,128,077
62,671	

ing the Countries

Totals.	
63,852	
36	
195	
150	64,215
41,275	
8,608	
2,333	
490	
1,627	54,123
214	
122	
51	
386	813
-	4
-	41
-	57
-	96
450	
864	
418	
145	
563	
664	5,534
-	128,544

of customs at ports where there is no such agent, signify his approval, in writing, and that the same be carried amongst the papers of the ship, to be delivered to the collector of customs or her Majesty's consul, on reaching her final destination.

2. That an engagement to call at such port or place be inserted in the bond which is herein-after required to be given to the crown by the owner or charterer and master.

3. That if the computed length of voyage to such port or place be not declared in this act, it shall be competent to the government emigration agent, or the collector or comptroller of customs, as the case may be, to fix the same in such cases.

4. That the ship shall have on board, at the time of clearing out, tanks or water casks sufficient for stowing the quantity of water required for the longest portion of the whole voyage. — § 7.

Computed Length of different Voyages. — The number of weeks deemed to be necessary for the voyage of any such ship, according to her destination, shall be determined by the following rule of computation; viz. —

For a voyage to North America, except the west coast thereof, 10 weeks.

For a voyage to the West Indies, including under that term the Bahama Islands and British Guiana, 10 weeks.

For a voyage to any part of the continent of Central or South America, except the west coast thereof and except British Guiana, 12 weeks.

For a voyage to the west coast of Africa, 12 weeks.

For a voyage to the Cape of Good Hope or the Falkland Islands, 15 weeks.

For a voyage to the Mauritius, 18 weeks.

For a voyage to Western Australia, 30 weeks.

For a voyage to any other of the Australian colonies, 22 weeks.

For a voyage to New Zealand, 24 weeks. — § 8.

How Children are to be computed. — For the purposes of this act it shall in all cases be computed that 2 children, each being under the age of 14 years, shall be equal to 1 passenger, and that children under the age of 1 year shall not be included in the computation of the number of passengers. — § 9.

Government Emigration Agents. — Before any such ship shall be cleared out for the voyage, the government emigration agent, at ports where there is such an officer, or in the absence of such agent, and in ports where there is no such agent, the collector or comptroller of customs, shall survey or make some competent person survey the provisions and water required by this act for the consumption of the passengers, and shall ascertain that the same are in a sweet and good condition, and shall also ascertain that over and above the same there is on board an ample supply of water and stores for the victualling of the crew of the ship and other persons (if any) on board. — § 10.

Clause 11. directs that the same officers do attend generally to enforcement of the act.

Seaworthiness of the Ship may be ascertained by Survey. — If doubts shall arise whether any ship about to proceed with passengers as aforesaid is seaworthy, so as to be fit for her intended voyage, and such doubts shall not be removed to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs at the port from which such vessel is to be cleared out, or in case there shall be a government emigration agent at such port, then to the satisfaction of such emigration agent, it shall be lawful for such collector and comptroller, or for such emigration agent (as the case may be), at any time to cause such ship to be surveyed by 2 competent persons, and if these persons report that such ship is not in their opinion seaworthy with reference to such voyage, such ship shall not be cleared out, unless the contents of such report be disproved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of the customs, or of the colonial land and emigration commissioners in those cases in which the report shall have been made at the instance of a government emigration agent, or until such ship shall have been rendered seaworthy. — § 12.

Sufficient Boats to be carried. — No ship shall carry any passengers on any such voyage as aforesaid unless she be provided with good sound boats of suitable size, and properly supplied with all requisites for their use in the proportion to the registered tonnage of such ship; viz. —

Two boats, if the tonnage of such ship be 150 tons and upwards, but under 250 tons;

Three boats, if the tonnage of such ship be 250 tons and upwards;

Four boats, if the tonnage of such ship be 500 tons and upwards, and the number of passengers exceeded 200;

Nor unless one of such boats be a long boat of a size duly proportioned to the tonnage of the ship. — § 13.

Copies of the Act to be kept on board, and produced if demanded. — Two copies of this act shall be kept on board every ship carrying passengers as aforesaid, and for this purpose 2 copies of the same, provided and issued by the authority of the commissioners of the customs, shall be delivered to the master, on demand, by the collector or comptroller of the customs at the port and time of clearance of the ship; and 1 of such copies shall, upon request made at reasonable times to the master of the ship, be produced to any passenger for his perusal. — § 14.

Regulations as to Medical Practitioner and Medicines. — No ship carrying passengers on any voyage as aforesaid to any port or place as aforesaid, except to some port or place in North America, shall, in case the number of such passengers amount to or exceed 100, or in case the estimated length of the voyage, computed as before mentioned, exceed 12 weeks, and the number of such passengers shall amount to or exceed 50, clear out for such voyage from any port in the U. Kingdom or in the before mentioned islands, unless there be rated upon the ship's company, and be actually serving on board such ship, some person duly authorised by law to practise in this kingdom as a physician, surgeon, or apothecary, and that no such ship shall put to sea or proceed on such voyage unless such medical practitioner be therein, and shall *bona fide* proceed on such voyage, taking with him a medicine chest, and a proper supply of medicines, instruments, and other things suitable to the intended voyage; and no ship carrying passengers on any voyage from any port or place in the U. Kingdom to or for any port or place out of Europe, not being within the Mediterranean Sea, shall clear out for any such voyage unless there be actually laden and on board such ship medicines, and printed or written directions for the use of the same, and other things necessary for the medical treatment of the passengers on board during such intended voyage, and available for that purpose, nor unless such medicines and other things be adequate in amount and kind to the probable exigencies of any such voyage; and, together with such medicines and other things shall also be put on board every such ship previously to her clearing out for any such voyage as aforesaid, a certificate under the hands of any 1 or more such medical practitioner, qualified as aforesaid, who shall not have been the seller of the medicines and other things, or any part of them, to the effect that the same have been inspected by him, and are in his judgment adequate to meet any such probable exigencies as aforesaid, and further, that he has no pecuniary interest in the supply of the same. — § 15.

Sale of Spirits to Passengers prohibited. — In any ship carrying passengers upon any such voyage as aforesaid no spirits or strong waters shall be sold to any passenger during the voyage; and if the master of the ship shall, directly or indirectly, sell or cause to be sold any spirits or strong waters to any passenger during the voyage, he shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 100*l.* — § 16.

List of Passengers to be delivered before clearing. — The master of every ship carrying passengers on any such voyage as aforesaid shall, before clearing out his ship for such voyage from any port or place in the U. Kingdom, sign and deliver, in duplicate, to the collector or to such officer of her Majesty's customs at such port or place as may clear the ship, a list, made out according to the form contained in schedule (A) hereto annexed, of all and every the passengers on board of such ship, specifying, as accurately as may be, all the particulars required in said form, and such collector or other officer shall thereupon countersign and return to the said master one of such duplicate lists; and the said master shall exhibit such duplicate list, with the additions, if any, to be made thereto, as herein directed, to the collector or other chief officer of her Majesty's customs at any port or place in her Majesty's possessions, or to her

Majesty's consul at any foreign port at which the said passengers or any of them shall be landed, and shall deposit the same with such collector or chief officer of customs, or such consul, as the case may be, at his final port of discharge. — § 17.

Lists of additional Passengers after clearing out. — In case any vessel shall have cleared out as aforesaid with a number of passengers less than the number she could lawfully carry under the provisions of this act, or in case any passenger or passengers named in the list aforesaid mentioned, shall not proceed on the voyage, and there shall afterwards be taken on board any additional passenger or passengers, the master shall in every such case add to the first list so countersigned and returned to him as aforesaid, and in the same manner as is required in such first list, the names and particulars of such additional passenger or passengers; and shall moreover prepare, in the form aforesaid, a separate list of such additional passenger or passengers, and deliver the same, together with the said first list, so added to as aforesaid, both being duly signed by him, or the collector or other officer of customs at the port or place where such additional passenger or passengers may have embarked, and thereupon such collector or other officer of customs shall countersign the additions so made to such first list, and shall return the same to the master, and retain the separate additional list, and so on in like manner whenever any additional passenger or passengers may be taken on board; Provided always, that in the event of there being no collector or other officer of customs stationed at any port or place where such additional passenger or passengers may be taken on board, then such separate list, and also the said first list, with the additions so to be made to it as aforesaid, shall, in case the vessel shall subsequently touch at any port or place at which there shall be stationed any officer of her Majesty's customs, be delivered by the master to such officer of customs, and the same respectively shall be dealt with in all respects by such officer of customs as it would have been dealt with by the collector or other officer of customs as aforesaid had there been one at the port or place where such additional passenger or passengers embarked. — § 18.

Written Receipts to be given in respect of Passengers for N. America. — If any owner, charterer, or master of a ship, or any passage broker, agent, or other person, receive any money from any person, for or in respect of the conveyance of any person as a passenger on any voyage as aforesaid, to any port or place in North America, he shall give a written acknowledgment for the same to the party from whom the same shall have been received, in the form contained in the schedule (B) hereto annexed, and in default thereof shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.* in respect of each such passenger, and if he shall be so licensed as after mentioned, his licence shall be forfeited, in case the Justice before whom the penalty shall be sued for shall declare the forfeiture thereof. — § 19.

Licences to be taken in respect of Passengers to North America. — No person, not being the owner or master of the ship in which such passenger as after mentioned shall be taken, shall carry on the business of a passage broker or passage dealer in respect of passages from the U. Kingdom to any port or place in North America, or shall sell or let, to any person, any such passage, unless he have previously taken out a licence to carry on the business of a passage broker or passage dealer as after mentioned, and unless such licence continue in force; and if any person shall carry on such business, or sell or let any such passage contrary to this enactment, every person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.* in respect of every such offence, and shall further be subject to all the same penalties and liabilities to which licensed passage brokers and passage dealers are subject under this act; and that it shall be lawful for any person desirous to carry on the business of a passage broker or dealer, in respect of such passages to North America, to make application to the Justices assembled in petty or quarter sessions held for the district or place in which such person shall reside, for a licence to carry on such business, and such Justices so assembled shall be authorised to grant such licence to the party making application for the same, such licence to be made out according to the form contained in the schedule (C) hereto annexed, and to continue in force for the period named in such form, unless sooner forfeited, in manner after mentioned; and where any such licence shall be granted, such Justices shall cause notice thereof to be forthwith transmitted by post to the colonial land and emigration commissioners at their office in London; provided that no such licence shall be granted unless the party applying for the same shall show to the satisfaction of the Justices that he has given notice to the colonial land and emigration commissioners of his intention to apply for the same 21 clear days at least before such application, such notice to be transmitted by post to the office of the said colonial land and emigration commissioners, and to be in the form contained in the schedule (D) hereto annexed. — § 20.

Penalties for acting without written Authority, &c. — If any licensed broker or dealer shall receive money for or on account of the passage of any passenger for any voyage to any port or place in North America, without having a written authority to act as agent for the party on whose behalf the contract for such passage purports to be made, or shall by any fraud or false pretence whatsoever induce any person to purchase, hire, or engage a passage in any ship for any such voyage, every such broker or dealer shall be liable, upon conviction, in respect of every such offence, to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.* and it shall be lawful for the Justices before whom the penalty shall be sued for to declare, if they think fit, the licence of such broker or dealer forfeited, and the same shall upon such declaration be forfeited accordingly; provided, that in any case in which any Justices shall declare the licence of any passage broker or passage dealer forfeited, such Justices shall cause notice of such forfeiture, in the form contained in the schedule (E) hereto annexed, to be forthwith transmitted by post to the colonial land and emigration commissioners, at their office in London. — § 21.

Returns of Passage Money and Compensation to Passengers, in certain Cases. — If any passenger or person on his behalf shall have entered into a contract for a passage or passages for such passenger, or for him and his family, in any ship, from any port in the U. Kingdom, to or for any port or place out of Europe, and not being in the Mediterranean Sea, and if such passenger, or such passenger and his family (as the case may be), shall be at the place of embarkation at the time appointed for that purpose in such contract, and such passenger shall apply for such passage or passages, and shall, on demand, pay or tender such part of the passage money not already paid as shall be payable under such contract previously to embarkation, and if, owing to the previous departure of the ship in which such passage or passages shall have been engaged, or the neglect, refusal, or other default of the owner, charterer, or master thereof, or of the party with whom such passage or passages shall have been contracted for, such passenger shall not obtain such passage or passages, or shall not within a reasonable time obtain a passage or passages by some other equally eligible vessel to the same port or place, and in the meantime be paid subsistence money, or be provided with lodging and maintenance, as hereinafter mentioned, such passenger shall be entitled to recover, in manner herein provided, all monies which he shall have paid for such passage or passages, from the party to whom he shall have paid the same, or from the owner or charterer of the ship for whom such party shall be the agent, and also such further sum not exceeding 10*l.* in respect of each such passage as shall, in the opinion of the Justices who shall adjudicate on the complaint, be a reasonable compensation for the loss or inconvenience occasioned to such passenger or his family by the loss of such passage or passages. — § 22.

Subsistence in case of Detention. — If any ship shall not actually put to sea, and proceed upon any such intended voyage as aforesaid, on the day for that purpose appointed in and by any contract made by the owner, master, or charterer of such ship, or their agent, with any passenger who shall on that day be on board the same, and who shall be engaged on such intended voyage, then and in every such case the owner of such ship shall victual each and every such passenger in like manner as if the voyage had commenced; and if the ship does not put to sea after the interval of 2 clear working days from the day appointed for sailing, shall be liable to pay to each and every such passenger, instead of victualling him, subsistence money, at the rate of 1*s.* for each day's delay, until the actual clearing out and final departure of such ship on such voyage; provided that such subsistence money shall not be payable in lieu of victualling

in respect of any unavoidable detention by wind or weather, and also shall not be payable to any passenger who shall, with his own consent, be suitably lodged and maintained on shore at the expense of the parties who are bound to provide him with a passage. — § 23.

Clause 24. enacts that passengers shall not be landed without their consent at any other place than that contracted for.

Clause 25. enacts that passengers are to be maintained for 48 hours on board ship after their arrival, unless the ship shall quit any such port or place within the said period of 48 hours.

Facilities to be given for Inspection of Ships, &c. — The master of every ship carrying passengers shall afford to the government agent for emigration, or to the proper officer of customs, — any port or place in her Majesty's dominions from which such ship shall sail, or at which such ship shall touch during the voyage, or at which such ship shall arrive at the end of such voyage, and to her Majesty's consul at any port or place at which such ship shall arrive, being in a foreign country, every facility for the inspection of the ship, and for communication with the passengers, and for ascertaining that the act has been duly observed. — § 26.

Penalties. — If in any ship carrying passengers on any voyage as aforesaid, such lower deck or platform of such thickness as before directed shall not be laid and continued throughout the whole duration of any such voyage in such manner as is before required; or if the height between such lower deck or platform and the upper deck shall be less than six feet; or if there shall be more than 2 tiers of berths; or if such berths shall not be securely constructed, or shall not be of the dimensions before required; or if there shall not be throughout the whole duration of any such voyage such an interval as is before prescribed between the deck and the floor of the berths; or if any such ship shall clear out and put to sea not having on board tanks or sweet casks of such size and number as aforesaid, and such water and provisions as aforesaid, for the use and consumption of the said passengers, of the kind and to the amount and in the proportion before required; or if such water and provisions be not issued in manner before required; or if such ship be not provided with good boats according to the rates aforesaid, or if copies of this act have not been kept on board and produced on demand as before required; or if there be not on board any such vessel such medical practitioner as aforesaid, or such medicines and other things necessary to the medical treatment of the passengers as is before required; or if any such ship be cleared out before such list of passengers as before mentioned have been delivered in manner and form aforesaid to such officer as aforesaid; or if the additions to such list and such additional separate list or lists as aforesaid be not made in the cases aforesaid, and delivered in the cases in which they are herein required to be delivered; or if any such list, or the additions to the same, be wilfully false; or if any such list, including the additions, if any, to the same, be not exhibited to or deposited with the proper officer at any port or place at which it is before required to be exhibited or deposited; or if any passenger shall, without his previous consent, be put on shore at any place other than that at which the master had contracted to land such passenger; or if any passenger be not allowed to continue on board such ship in manner before provided; or if every such facility for inspection be not afforded as is before required, the master of any such ship shall, in respect of each and every such offence be liable, on summary conviction, to the payment of a fine not exceeding 50*l.* sterling. — § 27.

The Right of Action of Passengers not taken away or abridged. — Nothing herein contained shall take away or abridge any right of suit or action which may accrue to any passenger in any ship, or to any other person, in respect of the breach or nonperformance of any contract made or entered into between or on behalf of any such passenger or other person, and the master, owner or owners, of any such ship.

Clause 29. directs the steps to be taken for the recovery of penalties.

Clause 30. enacts that *exed* voce evidence may be given of a party being a government agent or officer.

Clause 31. enacts that passengers suing are not incompetent witnesses.

Clause 32. enacts that distress shall not be unlawful for informality.

Clause 33. enacts that no plaintiff shall recover in any action against any person for any thing done in pursuance of this act, or in tender of sufficient amends have been made before such action was brought, or, after the action was brought, a sufficient sum of money shall have been paid into court, with costs, by or on behalf of the defendant.

Clause 34. enacts that 21 days' notice of action shall be given.

Owners or Charterers and Masters of Vessels to enter into Bond for the Performance of the Regulations prescribed by this Act. — Before any ship carrying passengers, if the number of such passengers shall exceed 50, shall clear out for any voyage as aforesaid from any port or place in the U. Kingdom, the owner or charterer, or, in the event of his absence, one good and sufficient person on his behalf, to be approved by the collector or chief officer of customs at such port, and the master of the said ship, shall enter into a joint and several bond to her Majesty, her heirs and successors in the sum of 1000*l.*, the condition of which bond shall be that the said ship is seaworthy, and that — and every the rules and regulations made and prescribed by this act for the carriage of passengers shall be well and truly performed before and during such intended voyage, and that all penalties, fines, and forfeitures which the master of such ship may be sentenced or adjudged to pay for or in respect of the breach or nonperformance, before or during such voyage, of any such rules and regulations, shall be well and truly paid; provided, that such bond shall be without stamps; and that no such bond shall be put in suit, and that no prosecution, suit, action, information, or complaint shall be brought under or by virtue of this act, or by reason of the breach of any provision thereof, in any of her Majesty's possessions abroad, after the expiration of 12 calendar months next succeeding the commencement of any such voyage as aforesaid, nor in the U. Kingdom, after the expiration of 12 calendar months next after the return of the said ship or of the said master to the U. Kingdom. — § 28.

Exception of particular Kinds of Ships. — Nothing in this act shall extend or be construed to extend to ships carrying passengers on such voyage as aforesaid if the number of such passengers shall not amount to or exceed 36, nor shall any thing in this act extend to any of her Majesty's ships of war, or to any ship in the service of the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of the U. Kingdom, or to ships of war or transports in the service of the East India Company. — § 29.

Extension of Act to West Indies, West Africa, Malta, and Mauritius. — This act shall, except as herein-after stated, extend and apply to the carriage of passengers by sea from any of the British West Indies, in which term are included the British West India Islands, the Bahamas, and British Guiana, and from Malta, and from the British possessions in Africa, and from the Mauritius, to any other place whatsoever. — § 30.

Power to Governors of Colonies to adopt the Act. — It shall be lawful for the governor or officer administering the government of any British colony not enumerated in the previous enactment, to declare by proclamation, that this act, except as herein is excepted, shall be extended and shall apply to the carriage of passengers by sea from such colony to such places as may by him be named for the purpose of such proclamation, and thereupon this act shall thenceforth so extended, and shall so apply accordingly. — § 31.

Governors empowered to declare computed Length of Voyage. — It shall be lawful for the governor or officer administering the government of any of the British colonies to which this act has been extended or shall be extended by proclamation issued for that purpose, to declare the rule of computation by which the length of the voyage of any ship carrying passengers from such colony to any other place shall be estimated for the purposes of this act. Provided nevertheless, that this act shall not, except as respects the West Indies, and as after mentioned, extend or apply to any such voyage, if the length thereof so computed shall not be three weeks or upwards. — § 32.

Clause 40. enables the governors of colonies to issue proclamations substituting other articles of food, &c., if equivalent to those previously specified.

PASSENGERS.

Ship _____ of _____ tons register burden, to sail from _____ for _____
on the _____ day of _____ 18__.

Name.	Age.	Equal to Statute Adults.

I engage that the parties herein named shall be provided with a steerage passage to _____ in the ship _____ with not less than ten cubic feet for luggage for each status adult for the sum of £ _____ including hand money, if any, at the place of landing and every other charge; and I hereby acknowledge to have received the sum of £ _____ in part payment.

Water and provisions according to the annexed scale will be supplied by the ship, as required by law, and also fires and suitable hearths for cooking.

Utensils for eating and drinking will be _____ in each case.

Bedding will be provided by _____ whether the articles are to be supplied by a broker or agent, or by the ship or by the passenger.

Signature _____ Date _____

[At the end of this contract insert the victualling scale, which must in no case be less than required under the provisions of the Passengers Act.]

Deposit £ _____
Balance £ _____ to be paid at _____
Total £ _____

SCHEDULE (C) referred to in the 20th Section of this Act.

Form of Passenger Broker's Licence.

A. B. of _____ in the _____ having shown to the satisfaction of us, the undersigned justices of the peace in _____ quarter sessions assembled, that he hath duly given notice to her Majesty's colonial land and emigration commissioners of his intention to make application for a licence to carry on the business of a passage broker or passage dealer in respect of passages to North America; we, the undersigned justices so assembled as aforesaid, and having had no sufficient cause shown to us why the said *A. B.* should not receive such licence, do hereby licence and authorise the said *A. B.* to carry on the business of a passenger broker or passage dealer as aforesaid, until the 31st day of December in the year following the present year, unless this licence shall be sooner determined by forfeiture for misconduct on the part of the said *A. B.*, as in the Passengers Act is provided.

Given under our respective hands and seals, this _____ day of _____ 18__ at _____ (L.S.)
Justice of the Peace.
_____ (L.S.)
Justice of the Peace.

SCHEDULE (D) referred to in the 20th Section of this Act.

Form of Notice to be given by Passage Broker to Her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners.

Gentlemen,
A. B. of _____ in _____ do hereby give you notice, that it is my intention to apply, after the expiration of twenty-one clear days from the putting of this notice into the post, to the justices to be assembled in the _____ quarter sessions to be held for _____ for a licence to carry on the business of a passenger broker or passage dealer in respect of passages to North America.

N.B.—The names in full, with the additions and address of the party, must be here correctly inserted.
N.B.—Name the place or district in which the party giving the notice resides.

Signature _____
Date _____

To her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners.

SCHEDULE (E) referred to in the 21st Section of this Act.

Form of Notice to be given to Her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners of Forfeiture of Passage Broker's Licence.

Gentlemen,
This is to give you notice that the licence granted on the _____ day of _____ 18__ to *A. B.* of _____ to act as a passenger broker or passage dealer, was on the _____ day of _____ last past duly declared by us, the undersigned justices of the peace in petty sessions assembled, to be forfeited.

The names in full, with the additions and address of the party, to be here inserted.
Here state the reason of forfeiture.

Signatures _____
Date _____

To Her Majesty's Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, London.

In some respects, passengers may be considered as a portion of the crew. They may be called on by the master or commander of the ship, in case of imminent danger either from tempest or enemies, to lend their assistance for the general safety; and in the event of their declining, may be punished for disobedience. This principle has been recognised in several cases; but, as the authority arises out of the necessity of the case, it must be exercised strictly within the limits of that necessity. — (*Boyce v. Badcliffe*, 1 Campbell, 58.) A passenger is not, however, bound to remain on board the ship in the hour of danger, but may quit it if he have an opportunity; and he is not required to take upon himself any responsibility as to the conduct of the ship. If he incur any

responsibility, and perform extraordinary services in relieving a vessel in distress, he is entitled to a corresponding reward. The goods of passengers contribute to general average. — (*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 10.)

PATENT, a privilege from the Crown granted by letters patent (whence the name), conveying to the individual or individuals specified therein, the sole right to make, use, or dispose of some new invention or discovery, for a certain specified period.

The power to grant patents seems to exist at common law; but it is limited and defined by the famous statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 3., which enacts, "That any declaration before-mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of 14 years or under, thereafter to be made, of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm, to the *true and first* inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law, nor mischievous to the state, by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient. The said 14 years to be accounted from the date of the first letters patent, or grant of such privilege thereafter to be made; but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if that act had never been made, and none other."

Policy of Patents. — The law with respect to patents is unavoidably encumbered with several difficulties. The expediency of granting patents has been disputed; though, as it would seem, without any sufficient reason. Were they refused, the inducement to make discoveries would, in many cases, be very much weakened; at the same time that it would plainly be for the interest of every one who made a discovery, to endeavour, if possible, to conceal it. And notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of concealment, they are not insuperable; and it is believed that several important inventions have been lost, from the secret dying with their authors. On the other hand, it is not easy to decide as to the term for which the patent, or exclusive privilege, should be granted. Some have proposed that it should be made perpetual; but this would be a very great obstacle to the progress of improvement, and would lead to the most pernicious results. Perhaps the term of 14 years, to which the duration of a patent is limited in England, is as proper a one as could be suggested. It may be too short for some inventions, and too long for others; but, on the whole, it seems a pretty fair average.

Specification. — Previously to the reign of Queen Anne, it was customary to grant patents without any condition, except that they should be for really new inventions. But a condition was then introduced into all patents, and is still retained, declaring that if the inventor do not, by an instrument under his hand and seal, denominated a specification, *particularly describe* and ascertain the nature of his invention, and in what manner the same is to be performed, and also cause the same to be enrolled in Chancery within a certain time (generally a month), the letters patent, and all liberties and advantages whatever thereby granted, shall utterly cease and become void. This was a very judicious regulation. It secures the invention from being lost; and the moment the patent expires, every one is in a situation to profit by it.

Mode of granting a Patent. — Letters patent are obtained upon petition and affidavit to the Crown, setting forth, that the petitioner has, after great labour and expense, made a certain discovery, which he describes, and which he believes will be of great public utility, and that he is the first inventor. The petition is referred to the attorney or solicitor general, who is separately attended by the applicant and all competitors, if there be any. They explain their projects to him, and he decides on granting or withholding the patent. When the inventions of two or more conflicting applicants coincide, he rejects all the applications. It would seem, that to decide upon such difficult questions in mechanics as are often agitated in applications for patents, a familiar knowledge of the principles and practical application of mechanical science would be indispensable. But by the law, as it now stands, such knowledge is not deemed necessary. The legal officers of the Crown are the sole judges as to what patents should or should not be granted; their award is *final*; and they are subject to no responsibility, other than the common remedies against public officers by impeachment, indictment, &c. — none of which would be entertained, unless a corrupt motive were established. After approval by the law officers, the grant is made out, sealed, and enrolled.

Considering the authority under which patents are granted, can any one wonder at the number that have been overturned in the courts of justice? or at the litigation to which they have given rise?

Expense of Patents. — Separate patents have to be taken out for England, Scotland, and Ireland, if it be intended to secure the privilege in the three kingdoms. The expense of stamps, fees, &c. is in all cases very heavy. It varies according to the intricacy of the invention, the opposition (if any) to the patent being granted, &c. But at a rough average it may, perhaps, be estimated at 120*l.* for England, 100*l.* for Scotland, and 100*l.* for Ireland. — (*See Parl. Paper No. 729. Sess. 1838.*)

Conditions as to Patents. — The *novelty* and *utility* of the invention are essential to the validity of a patent; if it can be shown to have been in use previously to the grant of the patent, or to be of no utility, it will be void. It must also be for something vendible — something "material and useful made by the hands of man." — (*Lord Kenyon, 8 T. R. 99.*) A philosophical principle only, neither organised, nor

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capable of being so, is no ground for a patent; because it is an element and rudiment of science, and which, till applied to some new production from these elements, cannot, with justice to other inventors, be applied to the exclusive use of any one of them. In all patents there is required, in the words of Lord Tenterden, "something of a *corporal or substantial nature*, something that can be made by men from the matters subjected to his art and skill, or at the least some new mode of employing practically his art and skill."—(*Godson on the Law of Patents*, p. 81.) Previously to Lord Tenterden, it had been ruled that a new process or method was not the subject of a patent. But his Lordship having suggested that "the word manufacture (in the statute) may, perhaps, extend to a new process to be carried on by known implements, or elements acting upon known substances, and ultimately producing some other known substance, &c."—(*Godson*, p. 83.)—this principle of interpretation has now been adopted.

A patent for a machine, each part of which was in use before, but in which the combination of the different parts is new, and a new result is obtained, is valid. But, in order to its being valid, the specification must clearly express that it is in respect of such new combination or application, and of that only; and not lay claim to original invention in the use of the materials.

A patent may be granted for an addition to an old invention. But the patent must be confined to the addition or improvement, that the public may purchase it without being encumbered with other things. If the patent include the whole, it will be void; for the property in the addition or improvement can give no right to the thing that has been improved.—(*Godson*, p. 71.)

A valid patent may be obtained for an invention, "new in this realm," though it may have been previously practised in a foreign country.

A patent is void, if it be for several distinct inventions, and any one of them fall of originality. The specification must be prepared with great care. It should set forth the invention fully and correctly. The terms used must be clear and unambiguous; no necessary description must be omitted, nor what is unnecessary be introduced; and the invention must be described in the best and most improved state known to the inventor. If any one of these conditions be not complied with, the patent will be void.

Any inaccurate or ineffective statement, *scire fac*, inserted through inadvertency, will vitiate the whole. *Caveat*.—It is not unusual for inventors who have not brought their inventions to perfection, and who are afraid lest they be anticipated by others, to lodge a caveat at the offices of the attorney and solicitor general; that is, an instrument by which notice is requested to be given to the person who enters it, whenever any application is made for a patent for a certain invention therein described in general terms. The entry of a caveat is, therefore, nothing more than giving information that an invention is nearly completed; so that, if any other person should apply for a patent for the same thing, the preference may be given to him who entered it.

An injunction may be obtained for the infringement of a patent, in the same way as for a violation of the copyright acts.

Patents have been sometimes extended by act of parliament beyond the term of 14 years, on the ground that that term was too short properly to reward the inventor.

An act passed in 1835, 5 & 6 W. 4. c. 77., made sundry regulations in the law or regulations under which patents had been previously granted as well as in the rules for their interpretation, and pointed out the method of proceeding in cases where application is made for a prolongation of the term of the patent. We subjoin an abstract of this act.

Any person having obtained Letters Patent for any Invention may enter a Disclaimer.—Any person who hath obtained or shall hereafter obtain letters patent for the sole making, exercising, &c. of any invention, may, if he think fit, enter with the clerk of the patents of England, Scotland, or Ireland, respectively, as the case may be, having first obtained the leave of the attorney-general, or solicitor-general in case of an English patent, of the lord advocate or solicitor-general of Scotland in the case of a Scotch patent, or of the attorney-general or solicitor-general for Ireland in the case of an Irish patent, a disclaimer of any part of either the title of the invention or of the specification, stating the reason for such disclaimer, or may, with such leave as aforesaid, enter a memorandum of any alteration in the said title or specification, not being such disclaimer or such alteration as shall extend the exclusive right granted by the said letters patent; and such disclaimer or memorandum of alteration, being filed by the said clerk of the patents, and enrolled with the specification, shall be taken to be part of such letters patent or such specification in all courts whatever; provided, that any person may enter a caveat, as caveats are now entered, against such disclaimer or alteration; which caveat shall give the party entering a right to have notice of the application being heard by the attorney-general or solicitor-general or lord advocate respectively; provided also, that no such disclaimer or alteration shall be receivable in evidence in any action or suit (except in any proceeding by *scire facias*) pending at the time when it was enrolled, but in every such action or suit the original title and specification alone shall be given in evidence, and taken to be the title and specification of the invention for which the letters patent have been granted; provided also, that it shall be lawful for the attorney-general or solicitor-general or lord advocate, before granting such *scire fac*, to require the party applying for the same to advertise his disclaimer or alteration, as to the said attorney-general, &c. shall seem right, and shall, if he require such advertisement, certify in his *scire fac* that the same has been duly made.—(§ 1.)

Mode of Proceeding where Patentee is proved not to be the real Inventor.—If in any suit or action it shall be proved or found by the verdict of a jury that a person who has obtained letters patent for any invention, or supposed invention, was not the first inventor thereof, or of some part thereof, by reason of some other person or persons having invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, or if such patentee or his assigns shall discover that some other person had, unknown to such patentee, invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, it shall be lawful for such patentee or his assigns to petition H. M. in council to confirm the said letters patent or to grant new letters patent, the matter of which petition shall be heard before the judicial committee of the privy council; and such committee, upon examining the said matter, and being satisfied that such patentee believes himself to be the first and original inventor, and being satisfied that such invention or part thereof had not been publicly and generally used before the date of such first letters patent, may report to H. M. their opinion that the prayer of such petition ought to be complied with, whereupon H. M. may, if he think fit, grant such prayer; and the said letters patent shall be available to give to such petitioner the sole right of using, making, and vending such invention; provided, that any person opposing such petition shall be entitled to be heard before the said judicial committee; provided also, that any person party to any former suit or action touching such first letters patent, shall be entitled to have notice of such petition before presenting the same.—(§ 2.)

If in any Action or Suit a Verdict pass for the Patentee, the Judge may certify, &c.—If any action at law or suit in equity shall be brought in respect of any alleged infringement of such letters patent heretofore or hereafter granted, or any *scire facias* to repeal such letters patent, and if a verdict pass for the patentee, or if a final decree or order be made for him, upon the merits of the suit, it shall be lawful for the judge who tried such action to certify on the record, or the judge who shall make such order to give a certificate under his hand, that the validity of the patent came in question before him, which record or certificate being given in evidence in any other suit or action touching such patent, if a verdict pass, or order be made, in favour of such patentee, he shall receive treble costs in such suit or action, to be taxed at three times the taxed costs, unless the judge making such second or other order, or trying such second or other action, certify that he ought not to have treble costs.—(§ 3.)

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Mode of Proceeding in case of Application for the Prolongation of the Term. — If any person who hath or shall hereafter obtain letters patent shall advertise in the London Gazette 3 times, and in 2 London papers, and 3 times in some country paper published in the town where or near to which he carried on any manufacture of any thing made according to his specification, or near to or in which he resides in case he carried on no such manufacture, or published in the county where he carries on such manufacture, or where he lives in case there shall not be any paper published in such town, that he intends to apply to H. M. in council for a prolongation of his term of sole using and vending his invention, and shall petition H. M. in council to that effect, it shall be lawful for any person to enter a caveat at the council office; and if H. M. refer such petition to the judicial committee of the privy council, and notice shall first be by him given to any person who has entered such caveat, the petitioner shall be heard by his counsel and witnesses to prove his case, and the persons entering caveats shall likewise be heard by their counsel and witnesses; whereupon the judicial committee may report to H. M. that a further extension of the term in the said letters patent shall be granted, not exceeding 7 years; and H. M. is hereby authorised and empowered, if he thinks fit, to grant new letters patent for the said invention for a term not exceeding 7 years after the expiration of the first term; provided that no such extension shall be granted if the application by petition be not made and prosecuted with effect before the expiration of the original term in such letters patent. — (34.)

In case of Action, &c. Notice to be given. — In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, the defendant on pleading thereto shall give to the plaintiff, and in any scire facias to repeal such letters patent the plaintiff shall file with his declaration, a notice of any objections on which he means to rely as at the trial of such action, and no objection shall be allowed to be made in behalf of such defendant or plaintiff at such trial, unless he prove the objections stated in such notice: provided always, that it shall be lawful for any judge at chambers, on summons served by such defendant or plaintiff on such plaintiff or defendant respectively to show cause why he should not be allowed to offer other objections whereof notice shall not have been given, to give leave to offer such objections, on such terms as to him shall seem fit. — (35.)

Costs in Actions for Infringing Letters Patent. — In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, in taxing the costs thereof regard shall be had to the part of such case proved at the trial, which shall be certified by the judge, and the costs of each part of the case shall be given according as either party has succeeded or failed therein, regard being had to the notice of objections, as well as the counts in the declaration, and without regard to the general result of the trial. — (36.)

Penalty for using, unauthorised, the Name of a Patente, &c. — If any person shall write, paint, or print, or mould, cast, or carve, or engrave, or stamp upon, any thing made, used, or sold by him, for the sole making or selling of which he hath not obtained letters patent, the name or any imitation of the name of any other person who hath obtained letters patent for the sole making and vending of such thing, without leave in writing of such patentee or his assigns, or if any person shall upon such thing, not having been purchased from the patentee or some person who purchased it from him, or not having the licence in writing of such patentee or his assigns, write, paint, or otherwise mark the word "patent," the words "letters patent," or the words "by the king's patent," or any words of the like kind, meaning, or import, with a view of imitating or counterfeiting the stamp, mark, or other device of the patentee, he shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty of 50*l.*, to be recovered by action of debt, bill, &c. in any court of record at Westminster or in Ireland, or in the court of session in Scotland, one half to H. M. and the other to any person who shall sue for the same: provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to subject any person to any penalty in respect of stamping or in any way marking the word "patent" upon any thing made, for the sole making or vending of which a patent before obtained has expired. — (37.)

The reader will find a great deal of curious and instructive information with respect to patents, in the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on that subject (No. 332. Sess. 1829), particularly in the evidence and papers laid before the Committee by Mr. Faray. The treatise on the Law of Patents and Copyrights, by Mr. Godson, is clear and able.

PATRAS, or PETRASSO, a sea-port in the N.W. corner of the Morea, near the entrance of the Gulph of Lepanto, lat. 38° 14' 25" N., lon. 21° 46' 20" E. Population variously estimated, from 4,000 to 5,000.

The port lies a little to the northward of the town; but the part fronting it is unsafe, and exposed to heavy seas, particularly in winter. Vessels, therefore, go a little further up the gulph, where there is a mole or quay, and where they can lie close to the wharf. Patras has a more extensive trade than any other port of Greece. The principal exports are currants, oil, valonia, wine, raw silk, raw cotton, wool, skins, wax, &c. Of these, currants are by far the most important. The fruit is larger, and freer from sand and gravel, than that of the Ionian islands. They are shipped in casks of various sizes; but, as the weight of the cask is included in that of the fruit, it is said to be, for the most part, heavier and stronger than necessary. Morea currants are preferred in most countries, except England; but here the currants of Zante are held in equal, or perhaps greater, estimation. The exports of currants from Patras may average from 60,000 to 70,000 cwts. a year; but the produce of the crop varies extremely in different seasons. Lately the culture of currants in the Morea has been very greatly extended, and, we believe, we may add, completely overdone. Owing to the increase of their quantity, their price, which in 1840 amounted to 30 dollars per 1000 lbs., had, in 1842, sunk to 23 dollars per do. And as this price will not pay the expenses of cultivation, the growers are involved in the greatest difficulties, and the inferior plantations will necessarily have to be abandoned. The crops of oil, the next great article of export from Patras, are, if possible, still more fluctuating than those of currants. The imports at Patras, as at the other Greek ports, consist principally of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; plain and printed cotton stuffs, woollen goods, sea-birds, iron, tin plates, hardware, coal, cordage, hemp, deals, &c. Imported articles are brought principally from the Ionian islands, Malta, Venice, Leghorn, Marsellina, and Trieste; but, from the want of authentic details, it is quite impossible to form any accurate estimate of their amount either as respects Patras, or any other Greek port: —

Shipping. — The arrivals and departures at Patras in 1841 were —

Flags.	Arrivals.				Departures.			
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Value of Cargoes.
British *	46	6,235	886	18,636	47	6,350	393	108,427
Ionian	541	5,277	1,364	unknown	339	3,229	1,064	unknown
Greek	645	36,434	3,870	unknown	645	26,814	5,870	unknown
Austrian	69	10,882	1,471	25,830	69	10,822	1,471	25,820
Neapolitan	6	370	48	unknown	6	370	48	610
Ottoman	none	none	none	none	none	none	none	none
Total	1,110	47,548	7,559	1,106	47,616	7,246		

* Exclusive of Peninsular coasters four times a month. Of the 46 British arrivals, 24 were in ballast, 12 had manufactures, 1 coal, 2 sundries, 1 timber, and 3 currants. Of the 47 departures, 28 had currants, 11 were in ballast, 3 oil, &c., 3 sundries, 1 wheat and currants, and 1 manufacture.

Money. — Since the revolution, the Greeks have established a system of coinage in imitation of that of France. The phemias is a silver coin, that should contain 5.10 lbs. of pure metal, and 1.10 lb. of alloy, or 4.099 grammes of the former, and 344 no. of the latter, being worth about 84s. sterling. The lepta is a copper coin, being 1/100th part of the phemia. But the silver coins are already so much debased, that they have been refused even by the officers of government.

Weights and Measures. — The quintal is divided into 44 qbas, or 153 lbs. Hence, 100 lbs. of Patras = 33 lbs. avoirdupois, 40 lb weight is 1.50 heaver.

A sack of currants weighs 140 lbs. of the common weight, or about 180 lbs. avoirdupois.

The stano, corn measure, = 54 Winchester bushels. The long tie, or pile, used in measuring linens and woollens, = 17 English inches. The short pic, used in measuring silks, = 30 ditto.

Port Charges in the Kingdom of Greece.

Tonnage.	
In the ports of Patras, Myra, Nauplis, Pirousa, Marathonensis, Ploos, Calamata, and Navarino.	
On vessels under 5 tons	free
— of 50 —	0 9
— above 50 —	0 12
In the other ports:—	
On vessels under 5 tons	free
— of 50 —	0 6
— above 50 —	0 9
Fermil of Departure.	
On vessels under 5 tons	free
— of from 5 to 20 tons	0 50
— — 21 - 30 —	1 00
— — 31 - 100 —	2 00
— — 101 - 500 —	5 00
— — 501 and above	5 00

Lighthouse (only where there is one).

On vessels under 5 tons	free
— of from 5 to 20 tons	0 50
— — 21 - 50 —	1 00
— — 51 - 100 —	2 00
— — 101 - 200 —	5 00
— — 201 - 300 —	8 00
— — 301 and above	9 00

When gunpowder remains on board, for every 2½ lbs. per month of 30 days - - - - - 0 2

When it is placed in the public magazine, for the same quantity and time - - - - - 0 5

Observations on the Tonnage Duty. — 1. Vessels arriving from abroad loaded, and which discharge their cargoes, and depart loaded, pay the whole duty.

2. Vessels arriving from abroad loaded, and which depart in ballast, pay two thirds of the duty, which is also exacted if they arrive in ballast, and depart loaded.

3. Vessels arriving from abroad in ballast, and departing without loading, or arriving and departing with cargo, and not discharging any of it, pay one third of the duty.

4. Vessels arriving from and going to another port of the kingdom pay but one half of the duty.

5. A vessel is considered as loaded, whether she be so fully or partially.

Exceptions. — 1. Every vessel forced to enter a port, either by a storm or in consequence of damage, is exempted from all charges during 8 days.

2. Every vessel entering a port, from whatever cause, and destined to another port, and the master of which shall immediately make a declaration to the captain of the port, that he has no intention either of loading or discharging his goods, may remain 3 days without paying any duty except the lighthouse duty. He is permitted also to receive or to deliver letters or money, unless otherwise provided for by special ordinances.

We have derived these details partly from consular returns, and partly from other sources.

Commerce of Greece. — Considering the favourable situation of Greece, the number and excellence of her ports, the hardy enterprising character of her people, and the progress they had already made in navigation, it might have been supposed that she would have made a rapid advance in prosperity after being emancipated from the blind and brutal despotism of the Turks. But, however the fact may be accounted for, this has not certainly been the case. The ministers of King Otho appear not to have had the remotest idea of what was necessary to promote the development of industry in such a country as Greece. The new customs law, enacted in 1843, is arbitrary, and is full of prohibitions and penalties against which no caution can guard. Duties are, at the same time, laid on most articles of export; and though the rates of duty in the tariff on imports (amounting to 10 per cent. on cotton and woollen goods) cannot be fairly objected to, they are rendered most oppressive from the practice of charging them on arbitrary valuations, and of levying arbitrary fines. Agriculture is, also, subject to the greatest discouragement; from a third part to a half of the public revenue of the kingdom being derived from the worst of all possible taxes — a tithe! And we are assured by those well acquainted with the practical details, that the burden which the tithe really imposes is, in consequence of the illegal way in which it is assessed and collected, nearer 15 and 20 than 10 per cent. of the gross produce of the soil! Hence, instead of advancing, commerce and agriculture have, of late years, rather retrograded. And if to these defects in the commercial and fiscal regulations under which the country is placed, we add the deficiency of capital, the all but total want of good roads, the barbarism of a large portion of the population, the bankrupt state of the public finances, and the preference given by the government to military parade and ostentatious display, we need not be surprised at the stationary condition, the poverty, and the all but universal discontent of the people. But it is to be hoped that the excess of the evil may at length lead to a cure; and that at no distant period measures may be devised for giving freedom to industry, and for developing the extensive resources of the country, and the talents and ingenuity of its inhabitants.

It is deeply to be regretted that Candia, or Crete, was not either added to the new kingdom of Greece, or made independent. We cannot help considering it as disgraceful to the Christian nations of Europe, that this famous island, where European civilisation first struck its roots, should be consigned to the barbarians by whom it is now laid waste. It is as well entitled to the favourable consideration of England, France, and Russia, as any part of Continental Greece; and we do hope that measures may yet be devised for rousing it from the atrocious despotism by which it has been so long weighed down.

PATTERNS, are specimens or samples of commodities, transmitted by manufacturers to their correspondents, or carried from town to town by travellers, in search of orders.

PAWNBROKERS AND PAWNBROKING. A pawnbroker is a species of banker, who advances money, at a certain rate of interest, upon security of goods deposited in his hands; having power to sell the goods, if the principal sum and the interest thereon be not paid within a specified time.

1. **Advantages and Disadvantages of Pawnbroking.** — The practice of impledging or pawning goods, in order to raise loans, is one that must necessarily always exist in

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civilised societies, and is, in many cases, productive of advantage to the parties. But it is a practice that is extremely liable to abuse. By far the largest proportion of the *bona fide* borrowers of money on pawn consist of the lowest and most indigent classes; and were the lenders not subjected to any species of regulation, advantage might be taken (as, indeed, it is frequently taken, in despite of every precaution) of their necessities, to subject them to the most grievous extortion. But, besides those whose wants compel them to resort to pawnbrokers, there is another class, who have recourse to them in order to get rid of the property they have unlawfully acquired. Not only, therefore, are pawnbrokers instrumental in relieving the pressing and urgent necessities of the poor, but they may also, even without intending it, become the most efficient allies of thieves and swindlers, by affording them ready and convenient outlets for the disposal of their ill-gotten gains. The policy of giving legislative protection to a business so liable to abuse, has been doubted by many. But though it were suppressed by law, it would always really exist. An individual possessed of property which he may neither be able nor willing to dispose of, may be reduced to a state of extreme difficulty; and in such case, what can be more convenient or advantageous for him than to get a loan upon a deposit of such property, under condition that if he repay the loan, and the interest upon it, within a certain period, the property will be returned? It is said, indeed, that the facilities of raising money in this way foster habits of imprudence; that the first resort for aid to a pawnbroker almost always leads to a second; and that it is impossible so to regulate the business, as to prevent the ignorant and the necessitous from being plundered. That this statement, though exaggerated, is to a certain extent true, no one can deny. On the other hand, however, the capacity of obtaining supplies on deposits of goods, by affording the means of meeting pressing exigencies, in so far tends to prevent crime, and to promote the security of property; and it would seem as if the desire to redeem property in pawn would be one of the most powerful motives to industry and economy. At the same time, too, it must be borne in mind, that it is not possible, do what you will, to prevent those who are poor and unstructed from borrowing; and that they must, in all cases, obtain loans at a great sacrifice, and be liable to be imposed upon. But the fair presumption is, that there is less chance of any improper advantage being taken of them by a licensed pawnbroker, than by a private and irresponsible individual. Although, however, the business had all the inconveniences, without any portion whatever of the good which really belongs to it, it would be to no purpose to attempt its suppression. It is visionary to imagine that those who have property will submit to be reduced to the extremity of want, without endeavouring to raise money upon it. Any attempt to put down pawnbroking would merely drive respectable persons from the trade, and throw it entirely into the hands of those who have neither property nor character to lose. And hence the object of a wise legislature ought not to be to abolish what must always exist, but to endeavour, so far at least as is possible, to free it from abuse, by enacting such regulations as may appear to be best calculated to protect the ignorant and the unwary from becoming the prey of swindlers, and to facilitate the discovery of stolen property.

2. *Obligations under which Pawnbrokers should be placed.* — For this purpose it seems indispensable that the interest charged by pawnbrokers should be limited; that they should be obliged to give a receipt for the articles pledged, and to retain them for a reasonable time before selling them; that the sale, when it does take place, should be by public auction, or in such a way as may give the articles the best chance for being sold at a fair price; and that the excess of price, if there be any, after deducting the amount advanced, and the interest and expenses of sale, should be paid over to the original owner of the goods. To prevent pawnbrokers from becoming the receivers of stolen goods, they should be liable to penalties for making advances to any individual unable to give a satisfactory account of the mode in which he became possessed of the property he is desirous to pawn; the officers of police should at all times have free access to their premises; and they should be obliged carefully to describe and advertise the property they offer for sale.

3. *Law as to Pawnbrokers.* — It may appear singular that pawnbrokers should hardly have been named in any legislative enactment till after the middle of last century. It was enacted by the 30 Geo. 2. c. 24. that a *duplicate* or receipt should be given for goods pawned; and that such as were pawned for any sum less than 10*l.* might be recovered any time within *two* years, on payment of the principal and interest; but the rate of interest was not fixed. This defect was supplied by the 25 Geo. 3. c. 48.; but the act 39 & 40 Geo. 3. c. 99. contains the latest and most complete regulations on the subject.

Every person exercising the trade of a pawnbroker must take out a licence, renewable annually, 10 days at least before the end of the year, for which he shall pay, within the cities of London and Westminster, and the limits of the twopenny port, 1*l.*, and every where else, 7*l.* 10*s.* No person shall keep

more than 1 house by virtue of 1 licence; but persons in partnership need only take out 1 licence for 1 house. All persons receiving goods by way of pawn or pledge for the repayment of money lent thereon, at a higher rate of interest than 5 per cent., to be deemed pawnbrokers.

Upon every pledge on which there shall have been lent not exceeding 5*l.* 6*s.*, interest may be charged at the rate of 1*l.* per month.

£ s. d.	per month.
0 7 6	—
0 10 0	—
0 10 6	—
0 15 0	—
0 17 6	—
2 0 0	—
3 0 0	—

And for every sum exceeding 10*l.* and not exceeding 10*l.* at the rate of 5*s.* in the pound by the calendar month, including the current month; and so in proportion for any fractional sum.

Pawnbrokers are to give receipts in exchange.

Persons applying to redeem goods pawned within 7 days after the first calendar month after the same shall have been pledged, may redeem the same without paying any thing for the first 3 days; and, upon applying before the expiration of 14 days of the second calendar month, shall be at liberty to redeem such goods, upon paying the profit payable for 1 calendar month and the half of another; and in all cases where the parties so entitled, and applying as aforesaid, after the expiration of the first 14 days, and before the expiration of the second month, the pawnbroker is allowed to take the interest of the whole second month; and the same regulations and restrictions shall take place in every subsequent month.

When goods are pawned for more than 6*s.*, the pawnbroker, before advancing the money, shall immediately enter in his book a description of the pawn, the money lent thereon, the day of the month and year, the name of the person pawning, and the name of the street, and number of the house, if numbered, where such person resides, and use of the letter, if the pawn is a lodger; and the letters H K, if a housekeeper; and also the name and abode of the owner of the party offering such pledge; and if the money lent shall not exceed 5*s.*, such entry shall be made within 4 hours after the goods shall have been pawned; and the pawnbroker shall, at the time of taking the pawn, give to the person so pawning a duplicate, corresponding with the entry in his book, which the party pawning shall take in all cases; and the pawnbroker shall not receive any pledge, unless the party so pawning shall receive such duplicate.

Rate payable for Duplicates.

£ s. d.	Rate.
Under 5 <i>s.</i>	—
5 <i>s.</i> and under 10 <i>s.</i>	—
10 <i>s.</i> and under 20 <i>s.</i>	—
20 <i>s.</i> and under 5 <i>l.</i>	—
5 <i>l.</i> and upwards	—

The duplicate to be produced to the pawnbroker before he shall be compelled to redeliver the respective goods and chattels, except as herein-after specified.

The amount of profits on duplicates shall be added on pledges redeemed, and such duplicate shall be kept by the pawnbroker for 1 year.

Persons pawning other people's goods without their consent may be apprehended by the warrant of 1 Justice, and convicted in a penalty not exceeding 5*l.*, nor less than 2*s.*, and the full value of the goods pawned; and if the forfeiture be not immediately paid, the Justice shall commit the party to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for 3 calendar months; and if within 3 days before the expiration of the commitment the forfeiture shall not be paid, the Justice may order the person to be publicly whipped, and the forfeitures shall be applied towards making satisfaction to the party injured, and defraying the costs; but if the party injured shall decline to accept such satisfaction and costs, or if there be any overplus, such forfeitures or overplus shall be paid to the poor of the parish.

Persons forging or counterfeiting duplicates may be seized and delivered to a constable, who shall convey them before a Justice; and, upon conviction, such person shall be committed to the house of correction for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons offering pledges, not giving a satisfactory account of themselves, or the means by which they became possessed of such goods, or wilfully giving any false information, or if there shall be reason to suspect that such goods are stolen, or illegally obtained, or if any person not entitled to redeem goods in pawn shall endeavour to redeem the same, they may be

seized and delivered to a constable, to be carried before a Justice; and if there should appear ground for a second examination, they shall be committed to the common goal or house of correction, to be dealt with according to law; or where such proceedings are not authorized by the nature of the offence, the party shall be committed for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons buying or taking in pledge unfinished goods, linen, or apparel, entrusted to others to wash or mend, shall forfeit double the sum lent, and reasons for such forfeiture shall be given, at least 3 days before the auction, in a public newspaper, upon pain of forfeiting to the owner of the goods not more than 2*s.* nor less than 1*s.*

When goods are pawned, the pawnbroker is to restore them; and their houses may be searched during the course of business, by a warrant from a magistrate for the discovery of such property.

Persons producing notes or manouvandams are to be deemed the owners of the property.

Where duplicates are lost, the pawnbroker, upon affidavit made by the owner of such loss before a magistrate, shall deliver another duplicate.

Goods pawned are deemed forfeited at the end of a year; but, on notice from persons having goods in pledge, 3 months further are to be allowed beyond the year for redemption; a such notice to be given before the twelfth month is expiring.

All goods pawned may be sold at the expiration of one whole year; and if goods so forfeited on which above is sold and not exceeding 10*l.* shall have been lent, shall be sold by public auction, and not otherwise; notice of such sale being twice given, at least 3 days before the auction, in a public newspaper, upon pain of forfeiting to the owner of the goods not more than 2*s.* nor less than 1*s.*

All pictures, prints, books, bronzes, statues, busts, carvings in ivory and marble, cameos, intaglio, musical, mathematical and philosophical instruments, and china, shall be sold by themselves, and without other goods, 4 times only in every year viz. on the 1st Monday in January, April, July, and October, in every year.

Pawnbrokers are not to purchase goods, while in their custody, nor take in pledges from persons under 18 years of age, or intoxicated; nor take in any goods before 8 in the morning or after 8 in the evening between Michaelmas-day and Lady-day; or before 7 in the morning or after 9 in the evening during the remainder of the year, excepting only until 11 on the evenings of Saturday, and the evenings preceding Good Friday and Christmas-day, and every day of thanksgiving.

An account of the sale of pledges for more than 1*l.* is to be entered by pawnbrokers in a book, and the surplus is to be paid to the owner of the goods pawned, or demanded within three years of the sale, under penalty of 10*l.* and treble the sum lent.

Pawnbrokers are to place in view the table of profits; and their name and business is to be placed over the door, on penalty of 10*l.*

Pawnbrokers injuring goods, or selling them before the time specified, shall, upon application to a magistrate, be compelled to make satisfaction for the same; and if the satisfaction awarded shall be equal to or exceed the principal and profits, the pawnbroker shall deliver the goods pledged to the owner without being paid any thing for principal or profit.

Pawnbrokers shall produce their books before a magistrate; or, refusing so to do, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 10*l.*, nor less than 5*l.*

Pawnbrokers offending against this act, shall forfeit for every offence not less than 4*s.*, nor more than 10*l.*

It has been held by the court of King's Bench, that a pawnbroker has no right to sell unredeemed pledges, after the expiration of a year from the time the goods were pledged, if, while they are in his possession, the original owner tender him the principal and interest due. — (*Walker v. Smith*, 1740 of January, 1820.) On a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said, "I am of opinion, that if the pledge be not redeemed at the expiration of a year and a day, (and no notice given that 3 months further are to be allowed for its redemption,) the pawnbroker has a right to expose it to sale so soon as he can, consistently with the provisions of the act; but if at any time before the sale has actually taken place, the owner of the goods tender the principal and interest, and expenses incurred, he has a right to his goods, and the pawnbroker is not injured; for the power of sale is allowed him merely to secure to him the money which he has advanced, together with the high rate of interest which the law allows to him in his character of pawnbroker."

Such is the present state of the law with respect to pawnbrokers. On the whole, the regulations seem to be judiciously devised. Perhaps, however, the rate of interest on small deposits might be advantageously lowered. The law allows interest at the rate of 1*l.* per month to be charged on loans of 2*s.* 6*d.*, which is at the rate of 20 per cent. ; but the same sum of 1*l.* per month is exigible on all smaller loans; and as very many do not exceed 1*s.* 6*d.*, and even 6*d.*, the interest on them is exceedingly oppressive. No doubt there is a great deal of trouble with respect to such loans; but still, considering the vast number of advances under 2*s.* 6*d.*, it would seem that the interest on them might be somewhat reduced. Perhaps, too, it might be advisable, still better to secure compliance with the statute, to enact that no one should be licensed as a pawnbroker without producing sufficient security for a certain sum, to be forfeited in the event of his knowingly or wilfully breaking or evading any of its provisions. This would prevent (what Colquhoun says is not an uncommon practice) swindlers from becoming pawnbrokers, in order to get the means of selling stolen goods. — (*Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis*, 2d ed. p. 156.)

It would be a useful regulation to oblige pawnbrokers to insure against losses by fire. Much mischief has been occasioned by the neglect of this precaution.

The duties on pawnbrokers' licences produced, in 1841, 16,365*l.*

4. *Notices of Pawnbroking in Italy, France, &c.* — The practice of advancing money to the poor, either with or without interest, seems to have been occasionally followed in antiquity. — (*Beckmann*, vol. iii. p. 14. 1st Eng. ed.) But the first public establishments of this sort were founded in Italy, under the name of *Monti di Pietà*, in the 14th and 15th centuries. As it was soon found to be impossible to procure the means of supporting such establishments from voluntary contributions, a bull for allowing interest to be charged upon the loans made to the poor was issued by Leo X. in 1521. These establishments, though differing in many respects, have universally for their object to protect the needy from the risk of being plundered by the irresponsible individuals to whom their necessities might oblige them to resort, by accommodating them with loans on comparatively reasonable terms. And though their practice has not, in all instances, corresponded with the professions they have made, there seems no reason to doubt that they have been, speaking generally, of essential service to the poor.

From Italy these establishments have gradually spread over the Continent. The *Mont de Piété*, in Paris, was established by a royal ordinance in 1777; and after being destroyed by the Revolution, was again opened in 1797. In 1804, it obtained a monopoly of the business of pawnbroking in the capital. Loans are made, by this establishment, upon deposits of such goods as can be preserved, to the amount of *two thirds* of the estimated value of all goods other than gold and silver, and to *four fifths* of the value of the latter. No loan is for less than 3 francs (*2s. 6d.*). The advances are made for a year, but the borrower may renew the engagement. Interest is fixed at the rate of *one per cent.* per month.

The *Mont de Piété* has generally in deposit from 600,000 to 650,000 articles, worth from 12,000,000 to 13,000,000 francs. The expense of management amounts to from 60 to 65 *centimes* for each article; so that a loan of 3 francs never defrays the expenses it occasions, and the profits are wholly derived from those that exceed 5 francs. At an average the profits amount to about 280,000 francs, of which only about 155,000 are derived from loans upon deposit, about 125,000 being the produce of other funds at the disposal of the company.

In some respects, particularly the lowness of interest upon small loans, and the greater vigilance exercised with respect to the reception of stolen goods, the *Mont de Piété* has an advantage over the pawnbroking establishments in this country. It may be doubted, however, whether it is, on the whole, so well fitted to attain its objects. The limitation of the loans to 3 francs would be felt to be a serious grievance here, and it can hardly be otherwise in France; nor is it to be supposed, that the servants of a great public establishment will be so ready, to assist poor persons, having none but inferior articles to offer in security, as private individuals anxious to get business. And such, in point of fact, is found to be the case, not in Paris only, but in all those parts of the Continent where the business of pawnbroking is confined to a few establishments. And hence, though the question be not free from difficulty, it would seem that, were the modifications already suggested adopted, our system would be the best of any.

For further information with respect to this curious and interesting subject, the reader is referred to the *Traité de la Bienfaisance Publique* of Degerando, iii. 1—55; besides giving a succinct historical notice of *Monts de Piété*, the learned author has discussed most part of the knotty questions connected with the proper organisation of these establishments, and with their influence on society, with equal sagacity and ability.

PEARL-ASH. See POTASH.

PEARLS (Du. *Paarten*; Fr. *Perles*; Ger. *Perlen*; It. *Perle*; Lat. *Margarite*; Rus. *Shemtschug*, *Perlii*; Sp. *Perlas*; Arab. *Looloo*; Cyng. *Mootoo*; Hind. *Mootie*), are well known globular concretions found in several species of shell-fish, but particularly the mother-of-pearl oyster (*Concha margaritifera* Lin.). Pearls should be chosen round, of a bright translucent silvery whiteness, free from stains and roughness. Having these qualities, the largest are of course the most valuable. The larger ones have frequently the shape of a pear; and when these are otherwise perfect, they are in great demand for ear-rings. Ceylon pearls are most esteemed in England.

Value, &c. of Pearls. — Pearls were in the highest possible estimation in ancient Rome, and bore an enormous price. — (*Principium culmenque omnium rerum fœtiti, margarita tenet.* — *Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. x. c. 35.*) Their price in modern times is very much declined; partly, no doubt, from changes of manners and fashions; but, more probably, from the admirable imitations of pearls that may be obtained at a very low price. According to Mr. Milburn, a handsome necklace of Ceylon pearls, smaller than a large pea, costs from 170*l.* to 300*l.*; but one of pearls about the size of peppercorns may be had for 15*l.*; the pearls in the former sell at a guinea each, and those in the latter at about 1*s. 6d.* When the pearls dwindle to the size of small shot, they are denominated seed pearls, and are of little value. They are mostly sent to China. One of the most

remarkable pearls of which we have any authentic account was bought by Tavernier, at Catifa, in Arabia, a fishery famous in the days of Pliny, for the enormous sum of 110,000*l*.! It is pear-shaped, regular, and without blemish. The diameter is .63 inch at the largest part, and the length from 2 to 3 inches.

Much difference of opinion has existed among naturalists with respect to the production of pearls in the oyster; but it seems now to be generally believed that it is the result of disease, and is formed in the same manner as bezoar—(see *Bezoars*); pearls, like it, consisting of successive coats spread with perfect regularity round a foreign nucleus. In fact, the Chinese throw it to a species of shell-fish (*mytilus cygneus*, or swan muscle), when it opens, 5 or 6 very minute mother-of-pearl beads strung on a thread; and in the course of a year they are found covered with a pearl crust, which perfectly resembles the real pearl.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*, &c.)

Pearl Fisheries.—The pearl oyster is fished in various parts of the world, particularly on the west coast of Ceylon; at Tolforeen, in the province of Tinnevelly, on the coast of Coromandel; at the Bahrein Islands, in the Gulf of Persia; at the Sooloo Islands; off the coast of Algiers; off St. Margarita, or Pearl Islands, in the West Indies, and other places on the coast of Colombia; and in the Bay of Panama, in the South Sea. Pearls have sometimes been found on the Scotch coast, and in various other places.

The pearl fishery is monopolized by the East India Company, and the Ceylon by government. But these monopolies are of no value; as in neither case does the owner for which the fishery is let equal the expenses incurred in guarding, surveying, and managing the banks. It is, therefore, sufficiently obvious that this system ought to be abolished, and every one allowed to fish on paying a moderate licence duty. The fear of exhausting the banks is quite ludicrous. The fishery would be abandoned as unprofitable long before the breed of oysters had been injuriously diminished; and in a few years it would be as productive as ever. Besides giving fresh life to the fishery, the abolition of the monopoly would put an end to some very oppressive regulations, enacted by the Dutch more than a century ago.

Persian Gulph.—The most extensive pearl fisheries are those on the several banks not far distant from the island of Bahrein, on the west side of the Persian Gulph, in lat. 26° 50' N., long. 51° 10' E., but pearl oysters are found along the whole of the Arabian coast, and round almost all the islands of the gulph. Such as are fished in the sea near the islands of Karrak and Corgo contain pearls said to be of a superior colour and description. They are formed of 8 layers or folds, whilst others have only 5, but the water is too deep to make fishing for them either very profitable or easy. Besides, the entire monopoly of the fishery is in the hands of the sheik of Bushire, who seems to consider these islands as his immediate property.

The fishing season is divided into two portions—the one called the short and cold, the other the long and hot. In the cooler weather of the month of June, diving is practised along the coast in shallow water; but it is not until the intensely hot months of July, August, and September, that the Bahrein banks are much frequented. The water on them is about 7 fathoms deep, and the divers are much inconvenienced when it is cold; indeed, they can do little when it is not as warm as the air, and it frequently becomes even more so in the hottest months of the summer. When they dive, they compress the nostrils tightly with a small piece of horn, which keeps the water out, and stuff their ears with bees' wax for the same purpose. They attach a net to their waists, to contain the oysters; and aid their descent by means of a stone, which they hold by a rope attached to a boat, and shake it when they wish to be drawn up. From what could learn, 3 minutes may be considered as rather above the average time of their remaining under water. Although severe labour, and very exhausting at the time, diving is not considered particularly injurious to the constitution; even old men practise it. A person usually dives from 12 to 15 times a day in favourable weather; but when otherwise, 3 or 4 times only. The work is performed on an empty stomach. When the diver becomes fatigued, he goes to sleep, and does not eat until he has slept some time.

At Bahrein alone, the annual amount produced by the pearl fishery may be reckoned at from 200,000*l*. to 240,000*l*. If to this, the purchases made by the Bahrein merchants or agents at Abootabeh Sharga, Ra-ai Khymach, &c. be added, which may amount to half as much more, there will be a total of about 300,000*l*. or 360,000*l*.; but this is calculated to include the whole pearl trade of the gulph; for it is believed that all the principal merchants of India, Arabia, and Persia, who deal in pearls, make their purchases, through agents, at Bahrein. I have not admitted in the above estimate much more than one sixth of the amount some native merchants have stated it to be, as a good deal seemed to be matter of guess or opinion, and it is difficult to get at facts. My own estimate is in some measure checked by the estimated profits of the small boats. But even the sum which I have estimated is an enormous annual value for an article found in other parts of the world as well as here, and which is never used in its best and most valuable state, except as an ornament. Large quantities of the seed pearls are used throughout Asia, in the composition of majoons, or electuaries, to form which all kinds of precious stones are occasionally mixed, after being pounded, excepting, indeed, diamonds; these being considered, from their hardness, as utterly indigestible. The majoon, in which there is a large quantity of pearls, is much sought for and valued, on account of its supposed stimulating and restorative qualities.

The Bahrein pearl fishery boats are reckoned to amount to about 1,500, and the trade is in the hands of merchants, some of whom possess considerable capital. They bear hard on the producers or fishers, and even those who make the greatest exertions in diving hardly have food to eat. The merchant advances some money to the fishermen at cent. per cent., and a portion of dates, rice, and other necessary articles, all at the supplier's own price; he also lets a boat to them, for which he gets one share of the gross profits of all that is fished; and, finally, he purchases the pearls nearly at his own price, for the unhappy fishermen are generally in his debt, and therefore at his mercy.—(*Manuscript Notes communicated by Major D. Wilson, late Political Resident at Bushire.*)

The fishery at Algiers was farmed by an English association in 1826, but we are ignorant of their success.

The pearl fisheries on the coast of Colombia were at one time of very great value. In 1587, upwards of 697 lbs. of pearls are said to have been imported into Seville. Philip II. had one from St. Margarita, which weighed 230 carats, and was valued at 150,000 dollars. But, for many years past, the Colombian pearl fisheries have been of comparatively little importance. During the mania for joint stock companies, in 1825, two were formed:—one, on a large scale, for prosecuting the pearl fishery on the coast of Colombia; and another, on a smaller scale, for prosecuting it in the Bay of Panama and the Pacific. Both were abandoned in 1826.

The best fishery ground is said to be in from 6 to 8 fathoms water. The divers continue under water from a minute to a minute and a half, or at most 2 minutes. They have a sack or bag fastened to the neck, in which they bring up the oysters. The exertion is extremely violent; and the divers are unhealthy and short-lived.

PEARL SHELLS, commonly called *Mother-of-pearl shells*, are imported from various parts of the East, and consist principally of the shells of the pearl oyster from the Gulph of

Persia and other places, particularly the Sooloo Islands, situate between Borneo and the Philippines, the shores of which afford the largest and finest shells hitherto discovered. On the inside, the shell is beautifully polished, and of the whiteness and water of pearl itself; it has the same lustre on the outside, after the external lamina have been removed. Mother-of-pearl shells are extensively used in the arts, particularly in inlaid work, and in the manufacture of handles for knives, buttons, toys, snuff-boxes, &c. The Chinese manufacture them into beads, fish, counters, spoons, &c., giving them a finish to which European artists have not been able to attain. Shells for the European market should be chosen of the larger size, of a beautiful pearly lustre, thick and even, and free from stains. Reject such as are small, cracked or broken, or have lumps on them. When stowed loose as dunnage, they are sometimes allowed to pass free of freight.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*) The imports during the 3 years ending with 1842 amounted, at an average, to about 950,000 lbs. a year.

PEAS (Ger. *Erbsen*; Fr. *Pois*; It. *Fiselli, Bisi*; Sp. *Pesoles, Guisantes*; Rus. *Goroch*). The pea is one of the most esteemed of the leguminous or pulse plants. It is supposed to be indigenous to the south of Europe, and was cultivated by the Greeks and Romans, the latter of whom probably introduced it into Britain. There are many varieties; but the common garden pea (*Pisum sativum*), and the common grey or field pea (*Pisum arvense*), are the most generally cultivated; being reared in large quantities in all parts of the country, particularly in Kent. But since the introduction of the drill husbandry the culture of the pea as a field crop has been to a considerable extent superseded by the bean. Sometimes, however, it is drilled along with the latter; for, being a climbing plant, it attaches itself to the bean, so as to admit the ground being hoed; at the same time that the free admission of air about its roots promotes its growth. It is not possible to frame any estimate of the consumption of peas. The field pea is now hardly ever manufactured into meal for the purpose of being made into bread, as was formerly the case in many parts of the country; but there is reason to think that the garden pea is now more extensively used than ever.—(*London's Ency. of Agriculture; Brown on Rural Affairs*, vol. ii. p. 72. For an account of the laws regulating the importation, &c. of peas, see CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.) Leguminous crops are very extensively cultivated in India.

PECK, a dry measure for grain, pulse, &c. The standard, or Imperial peck, contains 2 gallons, or 551.55 cubic inches. Four pecks make a bushel, and 4 bushels a coomb.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

PELLIFORY, the root of a perennial plant (*Anthemis pyrethrum*), a native of the Levant, Barbary, and the south of Europe. The root is long, tapering, about the thickness of the finger, with a brownish cuticle. It is imported packed in bales, sometimes mixed with other roots, from which, however, it is easily distinguished. It is inodorous. When chewed, it seems at first to be insipid, but after a few seconds it excites a glowing heat, and a pricking sensation on the tongue and lips, which remains for 10 or 12 minutes. The pieces break with a short resinous fracture; the transverse section presenting a thick brown bark, studded with black shining points, and a pale yellow radiated inside. It is used in medicine as a stimulant.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The price varies, including the duty (6d.), from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per lb.

PENCILS (Ger. *Pinzel*; Du. *Pinseelen*; Fr. *Pinceaux*; It. *Pennelli*; Sp. *Pinceles*), the instruments used by painters in laying on their colours. They are of various kinds, and made of various materials; some being formed of the bristles of the boar, and others of camel's hair, the down of swans, &c.

PENCILS, BLACK LEAD. See BLACK LEAD PENCILS.

PENKNIVES (Ger. *Federmeesser*; Fr. *Canifs*; It. *Temperini*; Sp. *Corta plumas*), small knives, too well known to need any particular description, used in making and mending pens. The best and most highly ornamented penknives are manufactured in London and Sheffield.

PENNY, formerly a silver, but now a copper coin. This was the first silver coin struck in England by our Saxon ancestors, being the 240th part of their pound; so that its weight was about 22½ grains Troy.

PENS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Schreibfedern*; It. *Penne da scrivere*; Rus. *Pera Stvol'i*), well known instruments for writing, usually formed of the quills of the goose, swan, or some other bird. Metallic pens have been occasionally employed for a lengthened period; but it is only within these few years that they have been extensively introduced. They are now, however, manufactured in vast quantities, and of an immense variety of forms. But though they have superseded, to a very considerable extent, the use of quills, and have some peculiar advantages, it does not appear possible to give them the elasticity of the quill, nor to fit them so well for quick and easy writing on common descriptions of paper.

PENNYWEIGHT, a Troy weight, being the 20th part of an ounce, containing 24 grains.

PEPPER (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Pfeffer*; Du. *Peper*; It. *Pepe*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Rus. *Peres*; Lat. *Piper*), the berry or fruit of different species of plants, having an aromatic, extremely hot, pungent taste, used in seasoning, &c. The following sorts of pepper are met with in commerce:—

I. **BLACK PEPPER** (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Schwarzes Pfeffer*; It. *Pepe negro*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Sans. *Mereka*; Hind. *Gol-mirch*; Malay, *Lada*; Jav. *Marika*), the fruit of a creeping plant (*Piper nigrum*), one of the pepper genus, of which there are upwards of 80 species. It is cultivated extensively in India, Siam, the Eastern islands, &c. It requires the support of other trees, to which it readily adheres. It climbs to the height of 20 feet; but is said to bear best when restrained to the height of 12 feet. It begins to produce at about the 3d year, and is in perfection at the 7th; continues in this state for 3 or 4 years; and declines for about as many more, until it ceases to be worth keeping. The fruit grows abundantly from all the branches, in long small clusters of from 20 to 50 grains; when ripe, it is of a bright red colour. After being gathered, it is spread on mats in the sun, when it loses its red colour, and becomes black and shrivelled as we see it. The grains are separated from the stalks by hand rubbing. That which has been gathered at the proper period shrivels the least; but if plucked too soon, it will become broken and dusty in its removal from place to place. The vine produces two crops in the year; but the seasons are subject to great irregularities.

Pepper should be chosen of a pungent aromatic odour, an extremely hot and acrid taste, in large grains, firm, sound, and with few wrinkles—for of these it always has some. Reject that which is shrivelled, or small grained, or which on being rubbed will break to pieces.

In point of quality, the pepper of Malabar is usually reckoned the best; but there is no material difference between it and that of Sumatra, and the other islands. In the market of Bengal, where they meet on equal terms, the produce of Malabar is generally about 2 per cent. higher than the other. In Europe, there is generally a difference of $\frac{1}{4}$ l. per lb. in favour of Malabar; but in China they are held in equal estimation.

Black pepper sold ground, is said to be often adulterated with burnt crust of bread.

II. **WHITE PEPPER** is made by blanching the finest grains of the common black pepper by steeping them for a while in water, and then gently rubbing them, so as to remove the dark outer coat. It is milder than the other, and is much prized by the Chinese; but very little is imported into England.

III. **CAVENNE PEPPER** is the produce of several varieties of the *Capsicum*, an annual plant, a native of both the Indies. The best, which is brought home from the West Indies ready prepared, is made from the *Capsicum baccatum* (bird pepper). It has an aromatic, extremely pungent, acrimonious taste, setting the mouth, as it were, on fire, and the impression remaining long on the palate. It is sometimes adulterated with muriate of soda; and sometimes with a very deleterious substance, the red oxide of lead; but this fraud may be detected by its weight, and by chemical tests.—(See CHILLIES.)

IV. **LONG PEPPER**.—This species is the produce of a perennial (*Piper longum*), a native of Malabar and Bengal. The fruit is hottest in its immature state; and is therefore gathered while green, and dried in the sun. It is imported in entire spikes, which are about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch long. It has a weak aromatic odour, an intensely fiery pungent taste, and a dark grey colour. The root of long pepper is a favourite medicine among the Hindoos.

The quantities of the last 3 species of pepper imported are quite inconsiderable, compared with the quantity of black pepper.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Ainslie's Nat. Indica*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*, &c.)

Trade in Pepper. Consumption of, and Duties on, in England.—Pepper is extensively used, all over Europe and the East, as a condiment. It was originally imported into this country by way of the Levant (see *anté*, p. 517.); and for many years after the establishment of the East India Company, it formed the most important article of their imports. In nothing has the beneficial effect of opening the Indian trade been so unequivocally displayed as in the instance of pepper. The private traders have resorted to new markets, and discovered new sources of supply, which had hitherto been wholly unexplored; so that there has been not only a very great increase in the quantity of pepper brought to Europe, but also a very great fall in its price, which does not now exceed a third part of what it amounted to in 1814!

Pepper for a lengthened period was one of the most grossly over-taxed articles in the British tariff. Until 1823, the duty was 2s. 6d. per lb.—a duty so exorbitant, that one would be inclined to think it had been imposed to put a total stop to the use of the article. In 1826, the duty on pepper from a British possession was reduced to 1s. per lb.; but even this duty, as compared with the price of the article (*Sd. to 4d.* per lb.), was quite oppressive, amounting to no less than from 300 to 400 per cent.; so that it was further and most properly reduced in 1837, to 6d. per lb. And in consequence principally of these reductions, the entries of pepper for home consumption,

which, previously to 1826, had not amounted to 1,450,000 lbs. in any one year, amount at present to about 2,700,000 lbs. Still, however, the duty as compared with the price of pepper, is decidedly too high; and should not in fact, exceed 2d. or at most 3d. per lb. Were the duty reduced to this amount, pepper would become accessible to the lower classes, to whom its free use would be of much importance; and if so, the probability is, that the consumption would in no very lengthened period be doubled or more, which would either prevent the revenue from sustaining any loss by such a measure, or make it not worth mentioning.

Account of the Quantities of Pepper imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 8 Years ending with 1842, specifying the Countries whence it was brought, and the Quantities brought from each; and specifying also the Quantities re-exported and retained for Consumption.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	Lbs.	Lbs.						
Western coast of Africa	49,458	56,128	109,565	18,712	10,530	49,530	28,569	28,569
Maritime	4,153	257,850		12,066	400,994	10,979	65,585	65,585
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	9,807,014	6,777,992	4,150,254	5,398,960	9,090,898	5,814,756	14,764,697	5,766,509
Sumatra, Java, and other islands in Indian Seas	74,403	467,319	659,856	119,243	171,793	46,670	14,325	14,325
British West Indies	17,014	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000	5,000
All other places	396,954	119,306	374,820	906,178	21,206	5,897	154,196	154,196
Total imports	5,243,277	7,784,639	5,291,093	5,682,244	9,798,059	5,987,956	16,034,666	16,034,666
Re-exports	1,316,192	4,151,569	4,768,860	3,077,109	6,834,228	5,049,423		
Quantities retained for consumption	2,529,573	3,749,431	1,022,273	2,605,135	2,963,831	9,440,699	2,746,001	2,675,524

The duty on pepper produced, in 1842, 70,348l. 3s. 4d.

Supply of Pepper. — The following instructive details with respect to the supply of pepper are taken from the *Singapore Chronicle*; to which they were contributed by John Crawford, Esq. — than whom there can be no more competent authority as to such subjects.

Of all the products of the Eastern Islands, and of the countries immediately in their neighbourhood, in demand among strangers, black pepper is the most important, both in value and quantity.

The pepper countries extend from about the longitude of 96° to that of 119° E., beyond which no pepper is to be found; and they reach from 8° S. latitude to about 12° N., where it again ceases. Within these limits we have Sumatra, Borneo, the Malayan peninsula, and certain countries lying on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam.

The whole produce of the island of Sumatra is estimated not to fall short of 168,000 piculs of 133½ lbs. each; the south-west coast being said to produce 150,000, and the north-east coast 18,000 piculs.

The pepper ports on the north-east coast of Sumatra are Lankat and Delli, with Gardang. The first 2 produce 15,000 piculs, and the latter 3,000 annually. The cultivation is carried on by the Battia nation in the interior.

The ports on the south-west coast, and the amount of their produce, as given in a recent estimate, are as follows: viz. port and district of Trunjav, 40,000; district of Pulio Dia, 4,000; ditto of Cluat, 30,000; coast from Tampat Tuan to Susu, 31,000; port of Busu, 1,000; Kuala Batta, 20,000; Analab, 2,000; districts to the north of Analab, 20,000; making in all, 150,000 piculs.

Here it is of importance to remark that the culture and production are extremely fluctuating.

During the last pepper season, three obtained cargoes on the west coast of Sumatra, 27 American ships, 6 country traders, 4 large French ships, besides the ships belonging to the East India Company, which generally take away 500 tons. Nearly the whole of this trade is in the hands of Europeans or Americans; the pepper finds its way to Europe, to America, and in a small proportion to China.

The north-east coast of Sumatra, from Pedier down to the Carimons, is estimated, as already mentioned, to produce 18,000 piculs. Prince of Wales Island is the principal depot for this, from whence the greatest part is exported to India and China. The produce of Prince of Wales Island itself is about 18,000 piculs.

Of the islands at the mouth of the Straits of Malacca and Singapore, Bintang, on which Rilio is situated, and adjacent islands, produce 10,000 piculs; and Lingga about 2,000. A large proportion of this is brought to Singapore, which exported last year about 21,000 piculs: some part to Bengal and China, but principally to Europe direct, in free traders.

The west coast of the Malayan peninsula produces no pepper, with the exception of about 4,000 piculs afforded by the territory of Malacca.

On the east coast of the peninsula, the production of pepper is very considerable. The ports of Patual and Calantan — chiefly the latter — yield about 16,000 piculs annually, and Trigiana about 8,000. A portion of this is brought to Singapore and Penang; but we believe the greater proportion goes direct to China in junks, of which 3 large ones frequent Trigiana annually, and 1 Calantan. The Americans, too, occasionally visit these ports. In the year 1821, 3 vessels of considerable burden obtained cargoes.

The east coast of the Gulf of Siam, from the latitude of 10½° to that of 12½° N., affords an extensive produce of pepper. This coast is scarcely known, even by name, to the traders of Europe. The principal ports here are Chantibun, Tungyal, Pongom, and Kampop; the first 2 being under the dominion of Siam, and the latter under that of Kamboja. The whole produce is estimated at not less than 60,000 piculs; 40,000 of which are brought at once to the capital of Siam as tribute to the king, and the whole finds its way to China in junks. It remains only to estimate the produce of the island of Borneo. The whole produce of Borneo is estimated at about 20,000 piculs; of which a large share is carried to China direct in junks, some by Portuguese vessels; and about 7,000 piculs are now annually brought by the native craft of the country itself to Singapore in the course of that free trade, which is happily flourishing at this settlement. The data which have been stated, will enable us to estimate the whole production of the Malayan Archipelago, including that of the peninsula of Malacca, and that of the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, at 308,000 piculs; and as there is no other part of the world that affords pepper, excepting the western coast of the peninsula of India, and this affords but 30,000 piculs, or less than 1-10th part of what the places we have enumerated produce, we have, accordingly, at one view, the whole production of the earth, being 338,000 piculs, or 45,066,566 lbs. of sirapola. The average price of pepper has been lately about 9 Spanish dollars a picul; so that the whole value drawn into India from Europe, China, and the New World, on account of this single commodity, is 3,042,000 dollars. The quantity given in this statement may appear enormous; but if meted out to the whole population of the globe, or to 1,000,000,000 of people, it would be found that the average annual consumption of an individual would amount to no more than 323 grains.

Mr. Crawford has more recently supplied us with a revised estimate of the production of pepper as follows: —

	£s.		£s.
Sumatra (west coast)	- - 20,000,000	Siam	- - - 8,000,000
Do. (east do.)	- - 8,000,000	Malabar	- - - 4,060,000
Islands in the Straits of Malacca	- 3,600,000		
Malay peninsula	- - 3,733,333		
Borneo	- - 2,668,867	Total	- 60,000,000

The localities in the previous estimate are quite correct; and we, therefore, did not think it would be right to suppress it.

PERCH, a long measure, 16½ feet in length. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS. These, as the name implies, are publications which appear at fixed periods or stated intervals, and consequently include newspapers, monthly and other magazines, quarterly reviews, and journals, and all such books as appear at monthly or other intervals. But the term "periodical publications" is usually understood in a more confined sense, or as comprising only magazines and such political, literary, and scientific journals as appear at regular intervals, without including newspapers or works published in parts.

Even when thus restricted, this is a very extensive and important department of literature. No doubt a vast deal of trash gets into print by the agency of magazines that might not otherwise see the light; but most part of these publications contain at the same time some superior articles; and a few are ably conducted and embrace a wide range of topics. Since the establishment of the Edinburgh Review in 1802, the quarterly journals, especially those that embrace politics and literature, have risen to great eminence, and have had a powerful influence over the public mind. At present, however, and for some time past, the influence of this class of journals has been declining. An ably conducted daily paper is, at this moment, by far the most powerful engine the press can bring into the field.

In a mercantile point of view periodical literature is of more importance than most persons would probably be at first disposed to admit. We have inquired with some care into the subject, and we are inclined to think that the following estimate of its extent and value in 1843 may be relied on with pretty considerable confidence.

Monthly Magazines. — These in the U. Kingdom amount, including all descriptions, to about 200; and taking their average price at 1s. 2d., and their average sale at 1,500 copies, their produce will be 17,500*l.* a month, and 210,000*l.* a year.

Quarterly Journals. — There are 27 of these; and taking the average price of each at 5*s.*, and their average sale at 2,000 copies, they will produce 13,500*l.* a quarter, and 54,000*l.* a year. Hence, supposing these estimates to be nearly accurate, the annual produce of the sale of periodical publications (exclusive of what they yield by advertisements) will amount to about 264,000*l.*

PERMIT, a licence or instrument, granted by the officers of excise, certifying that the excise duties on certain goods have been paid, and permitting their removal from some specified place to another.

The acts relative to permits were consolidated by the stat. 2 Will. 4. c. 16. The commissioners of excise provide moulds or frames for making the paper used in the printing of permits, which have the water mark "Excise Office" visible in its substance; and the counterfeiting of such frames or paper, or the having the latter in one's possession without being able satisfactorily to account for it, are felonies punishable by transportation. Permits are not delivered except on the receipt of "request notes," specifying the places from and to which the goods are to be conveyed. A penalty of 500*l.* is to be imposed on all persons counterfeiting "request notes," or fraudulently procuring or misapplying permits, and all goods, for the removal of which permits are necessary, if they be removed without them, are to be forfeited, and the various parties engaged in their removal are to be each amerced in a penalty of 200*l.* It is needless to dwell on the extreme inconvenience that would result from such regulations were permits in extensive use. But such is not the case, and they are now wholly dispensed with, except in the case of a very few articles.

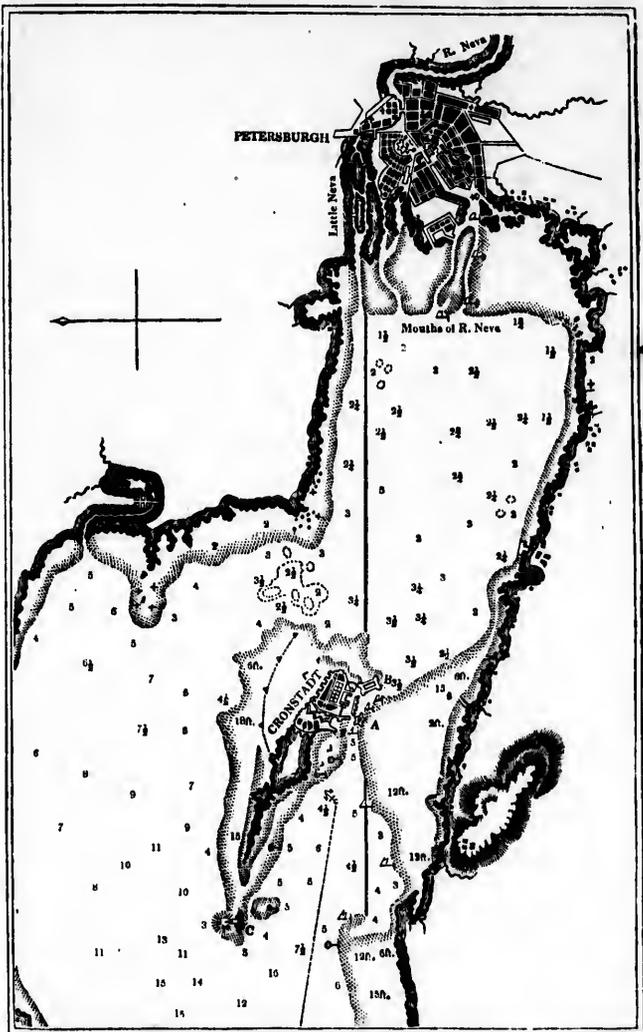
PERRY, a fermented liquor made from pears, in the same manner as cider from apples. The pears best fitted for producing this liquor are exceedingly harsh and tart; but it is itself pleasant and wholesome. — (See CIDER.)

PETERSBURG, the modern metropolis of the Russian empire, situated at the confluence of the river Neva with the eastern extremity of the Gulph of Finland, in lat. 59° 56' 23" N., lon. 30° 18½' E. Population, 480,000.

This flourishing emporium was founded by Peter the Great, whose name it bears, in 1703. In the same year, the first merchant ship that ever appeared on the Neva arrived from Holland; and the Czar, to mark his sense of the value of such visitors, treated the captain and crew with the greatest hospitality, and loaded them with presents. In 1714, 16 ships arrived at Petersburg; in 1730, the number had increased to 180; and so rapid has been the progress of commerce and civilisation in Russia since that period, that, at present, from 1,200 to 1,500 ships annually enter and clear out from Petersburg!

It is much to be regretted, that, although favourable to commerce, the situation of Petersburg is, in other respects, far from good. The ground on which it stands is low and swampy; it has, on different occasions, sustained great injury from inundations; and the country round is, generally speaking, a morass and forest, so that almost

every thing required for the subsistence of the inhabitants must be brought from a distance. No one less bold and daring than Peter the Great would have thought of selecting such a situation for the metropolis of his empire; and none possessed of less



References to Plan. — A, Cronslot; B, Men-of-war haven; C, Tolbocken light-house, 88 feet high, furnished with a fixed light. Soundings in fathoms. It appears, from the above plan, that the depth of water between Cronstadt and Petersburg does not, in some places, exceed 6 or 7 feet; but it is increased about a foot by continued westerly, and is diminished about as much by continued easterly, winds. Cronstadt is, therefore, as already observed, in reality, the port of Petersburg; and has, indeed, no separate Custom-house or Jurisdiction. The transfer of goods between the two places by means of lighters has of late years been materially facilitated by the employment of steam tugs.

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power and resolution could have succeeded in overcoming the all but insuperable obstacles which the nature of the country opposed to the completion of his gigantic schemes.

Cronstadt, situated on a small island about 20 miles W. of Petersburg, may, in some measure, be considered as the port of the latter. Almost all vessels bound for Petersburg touch here; and those drawing above 8 feet water load and unload at Cronstadt; the goods being conveyed from and to the city in lighters, the charges of which vary according to the demand at the time. The merchants' harbour at Cronstadt is fitted to contain about 600 ships; but it is exposed to the westerly winds. Cronstadt is strongly fortified, and is the principal station of the Russian fleet. Vessels bound for Petersburg must pass by the narrow channel to the south of the island, commanded by the fortifications of Cronstadt on the one side, and of Cronslot on the other. The wood-cut on the opposite page, taken from the official survey published by the Russian government, gives a better idea of the situation of Petersburg, Cronstadt, &c. than could be derived from any description.

Trade, &c.—Petersburg has the most extensive foreign trade of any city in the north of Europe. This arises from its being the only great maritime outlet on the Gulph of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior of the country. Few countries have such an extent of internal navigation as Russia. By means partly of rivers, and partly of canals, Petersburg is connected with the Caspian Sea. Goods are conveyed from the latter to the capital, through a distance of 1,434 miles, without once landing them! The iron and furs of Siberia, and the teas of China, are received at Petersburg in the same way; but owing to the great distance of those countries, and the short period of the year during which the rivers and canals are navigable, they take 3 years in their transit. Immense quantities of goods are also conveyed during winter upon the ice, in sledges, to the different ports, and to the nearest *pristans*, or places in the interior where barks are built for river or canal navigation. They are put on board in anticipation of the period of sailing, that the barks may be ready to take advantage of the high water, by floating down with the current as soon as the snow and ice begin to melt. The cargoes carried up the river into the interior during summer are principally conveyed to their ultimate destinations by the sledge roads during winter. The conveyance by the latter is generally the most expeditious; and it, as well as the internal conveyance by water, is performed at a very moderate expense.

The barks that come from the interior are mostly of a very rude construction, flat-bottomed, and seldom drawing more than 20 or 30 inches water. When they arrive at their destination, they are sold or broken up for fire-wood. Those that leave the ports for the interior are of a superior description, and are comparatively few in number; the commodities imported, being at an average, of much greater value relatively to their bulk and weight than those that are exported.

Principal Articles of Export and Import.—The principal articles of export are tallow, hemp and flax; grain, particularly wheat; linsced, timber; iron and copper; hides, potashes, bristles, hempseed oil, furs, leather; fox, hare, and squirrel skins; canvass and coarse linen, cordage, caviare, wax, isinglass, quills, tar, &c. Tallow, both for candles and soap, is more largely exported from this than from any other port in the Baltic or elsewhere, and is an article of great commercial importance.—(See TALLOW.) The hemp is of good quality, though inferior to that of Riga: it is assorted, according to its quality, into *clean*, or firsts; *outshot*, or seconds; and *half-clean*, or thirds. The first sort should be quite clean, and free from spills; the second is less so; and the third, or *half-clean*, contains a still greater portion of spills, and is, besides, of mixed qualities and colours. Russian flax is much esteemed for the length of its fibre; it is naturally brownish, but becomes very white after the first bleaching. Three qualities are distinguished; viz. 12 head, 9 head, and 6 head.—(See HEMP, and FLAX.) Iron is of very good quality, and is preferable to that from the other Russian ports: there are two kinds, old and new sable; the former is the best. The grain trade between this country and Petersburg has latterly become of very considerable importance; and Russia will, probably, continue to be one of the principal sources of our foreign supplies. It will be seen from the subjoined accounts that we drew from her in 1839 no fewer than 371,693 quarters wheat, and 316,823 ditto oats, and that the imports in 1840 and 1841 were also very large. A very considerable proportion of this supply was, however, derived from Odessa, Taganrog, Archangel, and other ports, exclusive of Petersburg. The *Russian wheat*, so called to distinguish it from the *azemala*, or soft wheat, and the *kubanka*, or hard wheat, is the lowest description of wheat shipped from Petersburg. It is very small-grained, and dingy coloured; being, though sound, unfit for the manufacture of fine bread. The *azemala* is of a larger, though still not a large grain, and better colour, and has of late been extensively imported into England. The *kubanka*, or hard wheat, is a large semi-transparent grain. Its hardness has nothing of the flinty character of the Spanish

hard wheat, which it most resembles. When first brought to London, the millers objected to it, on account of the difficulty experienced in grinding it; but it is now much esteemed. All the Russian wheats are well calculated for keeping, either in granary, or when made into bread; but the kubanka has this quality in a peculiar degree; and is in great demand for mixing with other wheats that are old, stale, or out of condition. A shipment of 103 chetwerts of wheat in Petersburg is found, when delivered here, to yield about 72 Imperial quarters. The principal imports are sugar, especially from the Havannah (the importation of refined sugar was prohibited in 1822); coffee, but not in large quantities; madder, indigo, cochineal, and dye woods; cotton stuffs and yarns,—the latter being by far the principal article sent from this country to Russia; woollens, oils, spices, salt, wine; lead, tin, coal, fine linen, from Holland and Silesia, &c.

Rapid as has been the increase of Russian commerce, its progress has been materially retarded by restrictions on importation. Considering the immense variety of valuable natural productions with which Russia abounds, the thinness of the population, and the slavery and ignorance of the great bulk of the people, nothing can be more childish than the attempt to render them, by dint of Custom-house regulations, rivals of the English and Germans in manufacturing industry! However, it must be confessed, that in enacting prohibitions and restrictions, they are only following a line of policy which more advanced countries have shown but little disposition to abandon. It should also be observed that, except in a few great towns, a middle class is all but unknown in Russia. And the population being consumers of coarse and heavy rather than of fine and finished goods, restrictions on importation are less injurious than might at first be supposed. Whether, in fact, importation be free or restricted, the great bulk of the Russian people will, for a lengthened period, be consumers of home made articles. Indeed the frontiers of the empire are far too extensive, and the functionaries too corrupt, to enable high duties on foreign produce to be levied to any great extent, or prohibitions of its importation to be made effectual, provided there were any considerable internal demand for it.

But, on the whole, the policy of Russia, in so far at least as respects commercial matters, has become more liberal of late years. Many articles which at present admitted for consumption that were formerly wholly excluded; and though the duties on various articles have been increased, there are others, and those too of considerable importance, on which they have been reduced. The Russian government wisely admits machinery of all sorts, including ships with their tackle, steamers, &c., duty free; and most articles necessary to the successful prosecution of art and science are treated in the same way. We, therefore, are not without hopes that her government may also at the very distant period see the advantage of materially reducing the duties on the superior descriptions of manufactured goods. It is true that, having by far the largest share of the foreign trade of Russia, this country will gain most by any modifications that may be made in her tariff. The Russian government is well aware of this, and may naturally enough suspect that we are more attentive to our own than to Russian interests when we recommend the repeal of restrictions; and certainly this suspicion will not be weakened by the very objectionable manner in which matters relating to Russia are too often discussed in this country. No one acquainted with our history during the last dozen years, can fail to know that a party amongst us have exerted themselves to the utmost to embroil the two countries; and have even gone so far, in furtherance of their object, as to establish journals apparently for the sole purpose of abusing and misrepresenting the government and people of Russia. This conduct is at once foolish and flagitious. We are not going to undertake the defence of Russia, but we have yet to learn what she has done to injure us; and her conquests, how objectionable soever in some respects, have, in most instances, materially promoted the interests of commerce and civilisation. The Russian government has, however, acted wisely as well as magnanimously in despising the abuse alluded to. Instead of being enemies or estranged from each other, there are no two nations between whom so intimate a friendship should prevail as Russia and England. They have no really conflicting interests; she cannot injure us, nor we her. The products of the one country are admirably suited for the markets of the other; and a farther modification of protecting duties in Russia, accompanied, as it should be, by the adjustment of our regulations as to corn and timber on sound principles, would add largely to the intercourse between the two countries, and establish it on solid foundations.

Inspection of Goods.—At Petersburg, Riga, and other Baltic ports, when goods are brought from the interior to be shipped, they are inspected and classified according to their qualities, by officers (*brackers*) appointed by government for that purpose, and sworn to the faithful performance of their duty. All sorts of timber, linen and canvass, flax and hemp, linseed and hempseed, ashes, wax, &c. are subject to such inspection. They are generally divided into three qualities: *Krohn* (crown), or superior; *Bruck*, or

middling; and *Bracks-Brack*, or inferior. This classification is said to be, in most cases, made with considerable fairness. A factor or commission agent in Russia, instructed to buy, on account of his correspondent in England or Holland, a specified quantity of any description of produce subject to the official visit, is not liable to any action in the event of the article being found upon delivery to be of inferior quality, provided he produce a certificate to show that it had been officially inspected, or *bracked*. But a factor is at liberty, should any article delivered to him be manifestly defective, to name 1 or 2 other *brackers* to decide whether the article be merchantable or not.

Native and Foreign Merchants, &c. — Every Russian carrying on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burghers' book; he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burghers' books, are either townsmen, who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first must possess from 10,000 to 50,000 roubles; these may follow foreign trade, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in a carriage drawn by 2 horses. Those belonging to the second guild declare themselves possessed of from 5,000 to 10,000 roubles; they are confined to inland trade. A capital of from 1,000 to 5,000 roubles entitles its owner to admission into the third guild, which comprises shopkeepers and petty dealers. The rates paid by the members of these guilds amount to 1 per cent. upon their declared capital, the "statement of which is left to the conscience of every individual." Burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but may provide a substitute, or pay a fine. The *guests*, or foreign merchants, who enrol themselves in the city register on account of their commercial affairs, enjoy privileges nearly similar to those enjoyed by the members of the first guild.

None but native Russians are allowed to engage in the internal trade of the country; and hence a foreigner, who imports goods into Russia, must sell them to Russians only, and at the port where they arrive. A few foreigners, indeed, settled in *Ross's*, and having connections with the natives, do carry on a trade with the interior; but it is contrary to law, and the goods are liable to be seized.

The merchants engaged in foreign trade are mostly foreigners, of whom the English are the principal. The peculiar privileges formerly enjoyed by the latter are now nearly obsolete; and their rights, in common with those of other foreigners, are merely those of *guests*. The English factory is, at present, little more than a society formed of some of the principal English merchants, several of whom, however, do not belong to it: its power extends to little else than the management of certain funds under its control.

Purchase and Sale of Commodities, &c. — Owing to the scarcity of capital in Russia, goods the produce of the country are frequently paid for in advance; and foreign goods are most commonly sold upon credit. From the month of November till the shipping season in May, the Russians who trade in flax, hemp, tallow, bristles, iron, &c. either come themselves to Petersburg, or employ agents to sell their goods to foreigners, to be delivered, according to agreement, in May, June, July, or August. The payments are made according to the circumstances of the sellers and buyers; sometimes the buyer pays the whole amount, in the winter months, for the goods which are to be delivered in the summer or autumn; and sometimes he pays a part on concluding the contract, and the remainder on delivery of the goods. The manufacturers and dealers in linen usually come to Petersburg in March, and sell their goods for ready money.

Foreign goods were formerly almost entirely sold at a twelvemonth's credit, and some at a still longer term; but of late years several articles, as coffee and sugar, are sold for ready money; still, however, the great bulk of foreign goods for the supply of the interior is sold on credit. Most part of the Russians who buy goods on credit of foreigners, for the use of the interior, have no other connection or trade with Petersburg, than merely coming there once or twice a year to make purchases; which having accomplished, they set off with the goods, and the foreigner neither sees nor hears of them again till the bill becomes due.

It is obvious, from this statement, that experience and sagacity are nowhere more requisite in a merchant than here. He has nothing, in fact, but his own knowledge of the native dealers to depend upon; and it is highly creditable to the Russians, that foreigners do not hesitate to trust them with immense sums on such a guaranty. A foreign merchant, carrying on business in Russia, must also be acquainted with the customary forms and obligations of contracts; the mode of making payments; the many formalities that encumber, and sometimes turn aside, the course of justice; the spirit, still more than the letter, of the tariff and the Custom-house regulations; the privileges claimed by the Crown, and the different orders; with a variety of other particulars, which attentive able men may learn on the spot, and nowhere else.

Another circumstance connected the British trade is too curious to be passed in silence. Every mercantile house in Petersburg employs certain men, called in the language of the country *artelshicks*, who are the counting-house men, and employed by every merchant to collect payment on bills, and to receive money, as well as, in many instances, to pay it in very considerable sums. This is an important part of their trust. There being no bankers in Russia, every mercantile house keeps its own cash; and as the payments between merchants, and for bills of exchange, are made entirely of bank notes of no higher value than 5, 10, 25, 50, and 100 roubles — most of them in an tattered state as to require several hours to count over a sum of 2,000, or 3,000. — this business is performed by *artelshicks*; and very few instances have occurred of loss by their inattention, either in miscounting the notes, in taking false notes, or where they are much torn. In receiving parts of different bank notes.

These *artelshicks* are also employed to superintend the loading and unloading the different cargoes; they receive the most valuable into the warehouse, where they are left solely under their care; and in these warehouses not merely merchandise, but often large quantities of dollars, are deposited. These Russians are mostly natives of Archangel and the adjacent governments, of the lowest class; are often slaves, generally of the Crown; and the only security of the merchant arises in some degree from the natural reluc-

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tance of the Russian to betray confidence reposed in him; but in a much greater from their association, which is called an artel.

"An artel consists of a certain number of labourers, who voluntarily become responsible, as a body, for the honesty of each individual. The separate earnings of each man are put into the common stock; a monthly allowance is made for his support; and at the end of the year the surplus is equally divided. The number varies in different associations from 50 to 100; and so advantageous is it considered to belong to one of these societies, that 500 and even 1,000 roubles are paid for admission. These societies are out bound by any law of the empire, or even written agreement; nor does the merchant restrain them under any legal obligation; yet there has been no instance of their objecting to any just claim, or of protecting an individual whose conduct had brought a demand on the society."—(Cox's *Travels in Russia*, vol. iii. p. 315.)

Few Russian merchants engage to foreign trade. It is carried on principally in foreign bottoms, of which by far the larger proportion are English. Marine insurances are generally effected in London or Amsterdam; there being no establishment for that department of business in Russia. An insurance company against fire has been established in Petersburg, and enjoys several privileges. It is a joint stock company, divided into actions or shares. It has been very successful; and its shares are at a high premium. No insurance on houses or goods in Russia, made in a foreign country, can be legally recovered; no official documents of loss being allowed to be furnished for such a purpose. A life insurance company has, also, been established.

Money.—Accounts are kept at Petersburg, and throughout Russia, in roubles of 100 copecks. The only gold coin at present struck is the $\frac{1}{2}$ Imperial, or 5 rouble piece, = 16s. sterling very nearly. The silver rouble, worth 5s. 6d. sterling very nearly, was declared, by a ukase issued in 1835, to be worth $\frac{3}{4}$ paper roubles.

But another ukase, issued on the 14th June, 1843, directs that the old bank note roubles in circulation, amounting to the sum of 95,775,510, being equal, at the exchange of $\frac{3}{4}$, to 170,221,503 silver roubles, should be called in, and replaced by an issue of 170,221,500 *billets de credit*, to be exchangeable at the pleasure of the holder for silver roubles. This is a most important regulation, and if it be fully carried out, the distinction between silver and paper roubles will disappear; at the same time that additional security will be given to all sorts of industrious undertakings, and to the credit of the government.

Weights and Measures.—The Russian weights are the same for gold, silver, and merchandise, viz. —
3 Solnickas = 1 Pound. 40 Pounds = 1 Pood.
52 Lotbs = 7 Founds. 10 Poods = 1 Berkovitz.

The Russian pound contains, according to Kelly, 6318.5 English grains. Hence, 100 lbs. Russian = 90.26 lbs. avoirdupois = 4193 Kilog. The pood = 36 lbs. 1 oz. 11 lbs., but among merchants it is reckoned = 36 lbs. According to

Nelkenbrecher, 100 lbs. Russian = 90.19 lbs. avoirdupois = 40.9 Kilog. = 82.2 lbs. of Amsterdam = 84.44 of Hamburg. The principal measure for corn is the chetwert, divided into 2 oosinas, 4 polcoks, 8 chetwicksa, or 64 garbits. The chet = 29.32 Winchester bushels. Hence, 100 chetwerts = 74.4 English quarters.

In liquid measure, 5 Wedros = 1 Anker.
1 Tsharky = 1 Kraschka. 6 Ankers = 1 Dabhoff.
8 Kraschka = 1 Wedro. 2 Dabhoff = 1 Pipe.
40 Wedros = 1 Sorokoty. In long measure,
The wedro = $\frac{3}{4}$ English. 16 Wrubok = 1 Arshen.
wine gallons. 2 Arshen = 1 Sashen.
13 1/3 Bottles = 1 Wedro. 200 Sashen = 1 Verst.

1 Sashen = 7 English feet. 1 arshen = 28 English inches. 100 Russian feet = 114 English feet. The verst, or Russian mile, = 5 furlongs 14 poles. The English inch and foot are used throughout Russia, chiefly, however, in the measuring of timber. —(Kelly's *Combit, art. Russia*; Nelkenbrecher, *Manual Universal*.)

In flaxing freight to England, a ton is 63 poods of hemp, flax, tallow, iron, copper, and ashes; 44 poods of bristles, isoplas, leather, and wax; 1 1/2 oosinas of skins; 3,400 hare skins; 8 chetwerts of wheat or linseed; and 60 pieces of sail-cloth.

The following regulations for the importation of foreign goods are strictly enforced:—

All goods imported must be accompanied by the following documents:—

1. The declaration of the captain, according to the form ordered by the Custom-house.
2. A statement from the Russian consul, and, where there is no consul, from the Custom-house of the place, of the quantity and quality of the goods, and a declaration that they are not the produce, manufacture, or property of an enemy's country.
3. Bills of lading of all goods, in which the weight, measure, or quantity of each package must be specified. In case the bills of lading are not exact after this regulation, the goods pay double duty as a fine. In case more is found than specified in the bill of lading, the surplus is confiscated; if less is found, the duty must be paid on the quantity specified. If, however, it is not sufficient to specify the number of pipes or hogsheads.

only, but also their contents in gallons, &c. Of iron, the number in each box must be specified. Of manufactured goods, the measure of each piece must be specified, and the number of pieces in each bale. It is indifferent whether the gross or the net weight be specified. If the packages be all of the same weight, measure, or contents, a general specification will do; as, for example, 100 casks each, of 17 lb pound each. Of dry goods, the weight of the whole need only be mentioned. Of goods of small bulk, as pepper, &c., it is sufficient to state the weight of every 5 or 10 lbales, but with specification of the numbers. There must not be any erasures, or blots in the bill of lading. All goods not accompanied by these documents, or where the documents are not according to the above regulations will be sent back.

The following charges have been fixed by the merchants of Petersburg:—

Per cent.		Per cent.		Dues to be paid to the church, 10 roubles each vessel.	
Commission on sales and purchases	2	Charges on duty, paid inwards	4	Clearing of ships, of or under	—
Extra charges on all goods	1	Ditto, paid outwards	4	25 tons each, 40 roubles each vessel.	—
Commission on extra charges for goods delivered on	2	Commission for collecting freight, or	3	25 to 50 do. —	—
Protection on sales and purchases	1	Commission for procuring freight	—	50 — 75 —	—
Duties on bills	2	outwards	2	75 — 100 —	—
Ditto on freight, per ton, 60 copecks.	—	For clearances, 40 roubles.	—	100 — 150 —	—
Stamp	1			150 or above, 200	—

Tare on Goods exported, as fixed by the Custom-house.

Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
<i>Dry Goods.</i>		<i>Moist Goods.</i>		<i>Moist Goods.</i>	
In barrels or chests	10	Pressed ox-bone	15	Honey	—
In sacks	10	Sisalop	3	Treacle	10
In mats, or sacks made of mats	5	Mats and sail-bags	10	All other moist goods	17
Except Muscovy leather, of which is deducted	5	Tallow	10		

Tare on Goods imported.

Per cent.		Per cent.		Per cent.	
<i>Dry Goods.</i>		<i>Dry Goods.</i>		<i>Dry Goods.</i>	
In barrels or chests	10	In double sacks	4	In casks and mats together	5
In vessels of glass or earthenware	10	In mats	3	In baskets	5
In sacks	2				

Moist Goods imported.—The following are some of the tares specified in the tariff:—

Olive oil in casks	17 per cent.	Cochineal must be weighed in the sacks after being taken from the casks; for every sack of from 4 to 7 poods.	2 lbs.
Oil of Italy, in flasks and straw	20	— sacks of from 2 to 3 poods.	—
Oil of France, in flasks and earthenware	40	Indigo in screws; every seton of from $\frac{3}{4}$ to 7 poods.	31 —
Salt fish in barrels	25	— in 4 screws, 2 to 4 poods	29 —
And generally on all moist goods in barrels	17	— of Guatemala	20 per cent.
In casks and earthenware	20	— in boxes	23 —
<i>Miscellaneous Goods.</i>			
cotton twist in bales	6		
in chests and barrels	15		

Bills drawn in Russia, and payable after date, are allowed 10 days' grace; but if payable at sight, 3 days only; Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. The Julian calendar, or old style, is still retained throughout Russia. This is 12 days later than the new style; and in leap-years, 13 days, after the month of February.

Port Charges.—The regular charges which British ships have to pay at the ports of Petersburg and Cronstadt, comprise the following fixed dues and expenses, viz. lading, passes, clearing at Cronstadt, address money, Petersburg and Cronstadt church money, Cronstadt excise and allowance to the

VI. List of principal Goods imported into Petersburg during the Navigation of the Four Years ending with 1842.

Articles.	1838.	1840.	1841.	1842.	Articles.	1838.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Cheese - - - - -	8,529	8,427	9,711	12,540	Fruit & eggs - - - - -	217	465	148	156
Cocoa - - - - -	5,203	1,636	1,182	8,293	Cats paper - - - - -	47,754	47,754	5,418	10,000
Coals - - - - -	29,471	28,068	30,970	32,528	dry, other sorts - - - - -	36,761	36,821	23,989	36,544
Coffee - - - - -	61,631	137,143	123,248	117,974	capers - - - - -	378	352	1,391	861
Corkwood - - - - -	3,021	18,659	9,911	16,569	carrots - - - - -	419	12	1,483	1,483
Corka - - - - -	840	875	801	1,037	lambons - - - - -	20,849	26,536	27,810	30,000
Cotton wool - - - - -	283,111	333,964	282,393	372,617	oranges, sweet - - - - -	31,469	47,277	39,847	44,439
Wool, undyed - - - - -	502,988	447,867	438,763	581,705	bitters - - - - -	760	961	961	609
died - - - - -	7,757	1,657	918	1,062	Olives, salted - - - - -	30	10	13	24
Cotton goods - - - - -	6,728	6,704	5,268	4,503	Glueva, leather - - - - -	11,660	14,055	15,471	15,471
white cambrics - pieces	74,006	73,647	34,323	33,594	Herrings, white - - - - -	3,959	61,262	63,906	73,488
cambric handkerchiefs & the like kind - - - - -	74	1,118	1,698	465	Linon goods, viz. cambric and ditto handkerchiefs - pieces	5,240	2,989	3,414	3,551
coverts - - - - -	3,857	3,401	1,170	5,569	linen - - - - -	3,644	3,536	4,780	3,777
muslin and muslin handkerchiefs - - - - -	36,083	16,009	14,066	13,101	handkerchiefs - - - - -	1,594	1,072	1,154	1,666
printers - - - - -	1,780	1,769	1,968	271	table cloths and napkins - - - - -	1,109	1,094	849	423
quillings - - - - -	2,535	2,511	1,404	918	Metal, lead, pig - - - - -	25,253	134,187	140,127	206,222
velvet - - - - -	290	14	8	8	writing - - - - -	52,292	30,411	25,611	15,940
Coloured stuffs - - - - -	1,318	3,853	4,218	5,639	distance - - - - -	2,513	8,066	4,506	14,306
handkerchiefs - - - - -	435	1,389	1,212	1,719	quilted - - - - -	2,540	2,410	2,410	2,410
Embroidered stuffs - - - - -	1,333	1,003	1,006	1,299	silk - - - - -	57,110	8,996	7,218	10,299
Gloves - - - - -	17,296	30,926	10,816	24,256	tin - - - - -	27,431	18,305	24,538	29,219
Stockings - - - - -	24,141	19,333	14,933	16,245	tin plates - - - - -	276	443	256	201
Tull - - - - -	28,964	33,801	15,679	17,321	boxes - - - - -	670	415	895	895
Hundries - - - - -	6,853	6,987	5,145	4,541	Oil, olive - - - - -	25,472	13,929	26,308	29,018
Drugs and dyestuffs, viz. aloes - - - - -	480	379	408	1,378	Paper, drawing - - - - -	170,174	285,481	276,609	302,143
alum - - - - -	40,919	30,064	43,226	78,059	writing - - - - -	372	402	406	521
annatto - - - - -	5,276	1,403	2,352	5,174	Perfumery - - - - -	7,869	8,243	3,201	8,241
antimony - - - - -	4,101	922	559	608	Pencil in wood - - - - -	39,300	36,096	35,173	37,869
argol - - - - -	4,175	14,084	1,938	3,399	Perfumery - oia - - - - -	1,411	1,138	1,436	1,436
arvenis - - - - -	6,034	6,328	4,983	6,294	Petter - - - - -	18,248	35,724	80,432	25,470
bay leaves - - - - -	911	1,772	633	732	Rice - - - - -	49,518	63,750	50,947	57,306
bears - - - - -	616	418	1,013	858	Rice - - - - -	699,474	885,411	692,638	707,907
brimstone - - - - -	67,338	96,763	121,481	133,325	Silk - - - - -	3,275	3,579	2,788	5,100
camphor - - - - -	15,350	850	1,607	1,082	Silk & half all sorts - pieces	2,246	3,041	1,983	2,590
cinchabar - - - - -	69	11	30	81	Sifts - - - - -	87,327	199,153	141,082	817,073
cobalt smalts - - - - -	776	324	719	404	stiff not transparent - - - - -	19,477	20,203	21,827	22,538
cocoal - - - - -	92	15	21	25	transparent - - - - -	7,760	6,211	5,778	7,415
crystal Tatar - - - - -	3,684	2,241	6,671	6,084	handkerchiefs - pieces	26,841	22,477	28,863	46,979
cudbear - - - - -	174	322	370	195	Dutch pink - - - - -	4,431	10,629	5,303	3,569
Dutch pink - - - - -	328	328	328	328	Shine bear - - - - -	1,259	965	1,259	1,259
emery - - - - -	5,105	3,406	1,389	1,306	racon - - - - -	90,899	101,431	111,310	58,134
Gun Arabic and Benzol - - - - -	17,008	17,256	19,118	13,585	Spices - cardamoms, pods cinnamon & cassia - - - - -	49	115	87	114
Benjamin - - - - -	898	307	152	779	lignea - - - - -	190	469	903	316
etatic or India rubber - lbs. - - - - -	718	471	827	1,148	ginger - - - - -	159	169	153	608
rubber - lbs. - - - - -	11,823	38,462	37,412	39,661	ginger, dry - - - - -	1,359	840	1,767	739
gamboge - - - - -	976	197	117	247	ginger, in sugar and molasses - lbs. - - - - -	1,254	1,660	36	299
oilburnum - - - - -	21,849	13,727	10,474	32,341	mace - - - - -	1,574	1,093	18	35
shell and seedlac - - - - -	5,599	10,065	5,192	3,333	nutmegs - - - - -	187	176	18	25
Indigo - - - - -	33,377	31,818	30,316	31,351	pepper - - - - -	8,904	18,125	4,934	9,317
lemon Juice - - - - -	30	98	148	102	pimento - - - - -	1,081	837	1,191	1,178
madder - - - - -	175,154	150,809	71,488	139,741	pinks - - - - -	316	125	619	592
magnesia - - - - -	1,010	471	708	608	Spirits - arrac - - - - -	309	19	68	96
manganese - - - - -	96,874	39,443	29,539	14,142	brandy - - - - -	392	670	419	650
marma - - - - -	384	218	130	192	rum - - - - -	4,161	3,014	4,928	5,869
minium - - - - -	819	439	1,292	86	Sugar, Brasil - - - - -	3,127	5,446	6,688	6,688
resak - - - - -	43	2	10	20	Havanah - - - - -	1,335,448	565,343	1,919,304	1,490,505
ochre - - - - -	10,848	15,328	6,493	11,572	stalks - - - - -	15,637	17,009	18,161	35,271
out of vitriol - - - - -	104	92	63	32	Tensel - - - - -	8,255	5,140	7,808	11,342
optium - - - - -	112	45	7	283	Tobacco leaves - - - - -	35,401	51,169	57,131	62,924
orchel - - - - -	150	146	408	477	Tobacco - - - - -	9,399	25,759	40,917	44,138
peel, lemon and orange - - - - -	591	939	1,376	897	cigars - - - - -	2,649	2,973	3,534	3,013
Peruvian bark - - - - -	203	134	770	839	snuff - - - - -	26	261	464	249
pumice stone - - - - -	4,890	14,944	5,512	5,350	Tortoisehell - - - - -	85	36	30	30
quercitron bark - - - - -	53,156	30,361	30,143	36,891	Vinegar - - - - -	1,145	642	373	517
red ochre - - - - -	16,716	9,793	5,668	5,844	Whalbone - - - - -	1,145	642	373	517
root, galianol - - - - -	394	683	1,374	6,407	Wine, French - - - - -	9,004	12,466	7,240	6,873
goutta - - - - -	969	465	1,801	1,017	Port and Spanish, pipes - - - - -	4,866	8,465	5,545	5,138
jalap - - - - -	268	121	229	260	Rhanish - - - - -	1,001	1,090	863	593
puccinaha - - - - -	99	66	167	167	Champagne - - - - -	731,700	698,991	611,924	604,118
sassa - - - - -	35	44	6	10	Wood, mahogany - - - - -	77,705	69,128	67,251	32,017
safflower - - - - -	3,961	2,743	2,409	3,078	Wool, raw - - - - -	2,583	3,603	1,222	1,303
saffron - - - - -	1,699	49	271	469	Woolles yarn - - - - -	6,637	5,775	4,678	7,777
sago - - - - -	139	90	73	99	Woolen goods - - - - -	16,575	17,092	17,200	20,301
sal ammoniac - - - - -	6,332	5,342	6,800	8,345	baies - - - - -	59	97	112	92
senna leaves - - - - -	7,718	1,189	429	409	barracans - - - - -	929	1,171	929	2,662
thunne - - - - -	10,138	4,414	4,048	1,835	carnetts - - - - -	46,176	37,978	39,294	38,275
star aniseed - - - - -	2,973	3,324	4,56	1,494	carpets - - - - -	1,164	645	446	741
turmeric - - - - -	4,787	14,025	9,700	11,336	cassinet - - - - -	49	49	8	8
turpentine - - - - -	11,523	653	790	1,091	cashmere - - - - -	1,444	1,454	1,145	834
verdigis - - - - -	9,215	3,590	3,970	4,329	coverlets - - - - -	168	128	66	244
verdigris - - - - -	403	546	892	492	ladies' cloths - - - - -	127	135	66	244
vitriol - - - - -	139	696	857	807	kerseymers - - - - -	377	302	469	727
water, mineral pitch white bals and white lead - - - - -	1,066	4,160	1,202	1,368	ladies' cloths - - - - -	1,701	483	365	3,319
wood, Brasil, "cholas, & St. Martha - - - - -	60,859	49,987	100,273	129,928	kerseymers - - - - -	268	897	860	1,302
Fustic - - - - -	73,935	68,774	34,861	59,031	stockings - - - - -	377	302	469	727
logwood - - - - -	365,406	522,149	399,798	421,228	tarmacs & shallons, pcs. - - - - -	1,701	483	365	3,319
rosin - - - - -	1,061	835	439	573	trivets - - - - -	324	1,538	742	1,811
Shephard's teeth - - - - -	203	54	139	674	trivets - - - - -	43	41	94	125
Fruit: almonds - - - - -	17,658	24,118	9,988	19,060	Turkish imitation shawls and handkerchiefs, pcs. - - - - -	3,564	4,047	2,853	5,698
currants - - - - -	39,819	19,478	8,267	17,127	all other kinds - - - - -	1,678	3,444	4,428	16,888

originally

from the dif-

last.

Lasts.

7,475
1,698
2,478
184

1,168
870
3,020
35

15,212

7,690
230
257
1,204
1,120

89
1,489
97

19,850

506
255

761

39,223

Articles, viz. :-

Ships. Last year - - - - -

46 17,506
87 6,472
6 430
1 29
213 23,210
180 27,731
101 1,425
418 32,851
75 8,071
64 9,310

4,694 438,659

rates (including

Impo.

nearoubles.

V. List of Goods cleared for Exportation at the Custom-house of Petersburg during the Navigation of the 4 Years ending with 1842.

Articles.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	Articles.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Hristles, cut -	2,835	1,057	847	740	Licorice -	1,898	5,866	2,027	2,848
Oxalis -	7,134	4,196	6,537	6,363	Manufactures -				
Tat sort -	16,990	13,674	15,900	15,774	ferns -	27,792	61,204	60,900	60,274
Tat sort -	75,561	13,735	15,119	14,146	Manufactures -				
20,455	14,629	18,159	12,157	saliceti -	50,063	60,137	55,919	59,947	
other sorts -	5,212	6,598	4,810	5,049	diaper, broad arh.	2,531,749	2,385,289	2,247,418	2,119,111
Cantharides -	966	1,006	1,000	1,144	harrow -	417,028	974,311	811,781	808,000
Caviare -	183	353	143	212	linen, broad -		190	130	90
Copper -	89,845	119,815	11,003	93,028	linen -	60,000	51,010	57,000	57,000
Cortice, raw -	131,098	126,323	117,576	100,029	linen -	209,478	1,137	106,078	87,411
64,553	81,286	25,999	35,475	Mail, rye -	3,850	7	3,850	3,850	
Dress, rider -					drilling -				
goose -	549	124	492	552	wheat -	4,274	20	97	21
goats -	5,717	2,801	989	5,117	Oil, aniseed -	70	20	20	124
Feathers -	37,460	66,629	35,028	17,757	hempsack -	318,749	18,273	193,268	81,800
Flax, 1/2 head -	42,829	22,051	18,681	15,779	linen -	12	64	33	176
9 head -	115,291	290,984	285,308	296,250	Portulac -	448,948	324,775	404,834	379,111
6 head -	25,712	39,223	115,711	133,311	Pulls -	68,513	75,504	68,473	86,121
codilla -	46,729	80,723	59,891	60,131	Rhubarb -	2,091	604	259	681
Yarn -	7,290	3,769	1,444	340	Seeds, aniseed -	1,183	1,199	1,199	710
Furs, squirrel -	189	74	219	1,083	Must, rye -	3,850	7	3,850	3,850
kins -	83	263	1,159	760	hempsack -	12	64	33	176
Gins -	32,703	27,249			linseed -	225,564	297,492	266,000	480,708
Grain -	105,501	6,480	16,988	2,028	wormseed -	4,579	1,448	1,448	1,448
rye -	2,521	8	19	19	Shins, calf -	9,658	3,721	1,418	1,418
wheat -	818	6	16,969	2,009	Stuffed -	3,850	30	30	261
Gum ammoniac, pods -	75	990	4,765	1,314	ladger -	1,961	1,679	1,679	1,679
Hdr, camel -	117,537	1,098,270	925,442	581,007	cat -	1,164	1,218	1,218	1,218
goat -	369,677	903,299	421,813	327,869	ermine -	30,480	18,167	62,130	141,697
and raw -	658,560	401,749	335,609	271,991	hare, grey -	91,819	138,610	95,267	40,213
Hemp, clean -	49,103	22,603	30,404	4,729	white -	6,040	97,190	1,267	1,267
half-clean -	1,775,367	1,098,270	925,442	581,007	squirrel -	1,059,766	608,008	1,059,448	715,924
half-clean -	658,560	401,749	335,609	271,991	Snake -	5,902	2,519	1,008	2,223
Yarn -	49,103	22,603	30,404	4,729	Sole leather -	5,902	2,519	1,008	2,223
Hides, raw cow -	64,101	104,848	85,198	103,729	Squirrel tails -	1,856,899	2,350,550	1,028,245	997,775
raw horse -	19,930	35,174	39,485	11,598	Tallow -	5,709,403	3,460,129	3,510,213	3,704,016
raw sa -	379	1,129	1,127	3,244	candles -	7,014	11,725	6,202	4,190
red -	11,737	24,965	28,922	15,814	Wax, white -	198	1,203	709	1,000
black -	1,352	2,574	1,563	1,038	yellow -	228	1,203	709	1,000
dressed -	189	60	87	6	Wools, battens, pieces -	144,265	116,235	169,736	100,194
Horse manes -	15,329	15,311	10,217	13,874	deas -	362	619	619	619
sails -	7,407	9,000	10,200	10,844	deas -	714,928	604,256	640,312	478,527
Iron, in bars -	713,667	415,861	539,706	407,727	Jalwood -	23,795	61,243	61,727	39,283
in blocks -	1,108	6,629	6,629	6,629	Wool, sheep -	89,397	81,263	64,784	81,678
in sheets -	73,573	64,206	62,864	47,540	Woolen yarn -	8,781	2,076	4,570	4,794
old -	36,890	37,041	33,017	30,272	Sundries, val. roubles -	449,103	580,227	754,000	781,843
Ironing -	1,418	2,259	2,259	2,259	Total value -	39,725,717	36,556,810	37,200,677	25,250,381
Iron, Dc. Samov -	1,081	1,563	731	1,710					

VI. Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Native Produce and Manufacture exported from Russia in 1841, specifying the Quantities exported by each Custom-House, and their Total Value. — (From the Official Returns for 1841, p. 10.)

Articles	Petersburg.	Riga.	Archangel.	Olessa.	Taganrog.	Radat-wilow.	Astrakian.	Orrenburg.	Kiechta.	Other Custom-houses.	Total.	
											Quantity.	Value.
Corn, viz. -												
Wheat, chertwets -	18,988	9	9,900	720,378	334,957	297			7,311	424,214	1,614,049	Roubles.
Hye, chertwets -		19,856	4,711			81				48,222	73,170	463,553
Barley, chertwets -		13,827		10,894		1,306				69,215	85,162	517,001
Oats, chertwets -		112,599	32,400	10,894		4,139				423	4,801	10,668
Dist. sorts, chertwets.												26,083
Wax, pods -	909	11		3,010		18,459	20			4,2134	37,094	871,001
Leather, pods -	40,303				1,231	27,240	4,047	11,288		69,378	1,054,191	350,037
manufact., pods -												
unmanufact., pods -	96,086	10,087	326	15,930	1,024	5,434	1,609			106,869	1,027,200	1,408,736
Flax, pods -	401,804	1,631,181	250,248							1,562,023	18,270	8,676,061
Hemp, pods -	1,438,747	997,166	19,970	10,317		80				4,079,000	3,000,822	7,411,711
Wood, pods -										4,079,000	3,000,822	7,411,711
Potash, pods -	404,934	479	750	15,852						12,518	434,361	481,798
Itemseed oil, pods -	133,531	22,953	14	1,687	355	31	13			15,968	174,024	471,296
Metals, brass, pods -	112,599							833	488	113	1,102,408	1,109,210
Iron, pods -	649,119	3,217	9,450	5,044	604	69,839	22,013			446,198	955,680	1,294,175
Tallow, pods -	5,310,969	23,114	375,829	2,414	2,538				1,425	15,572	5,730,194	10,511,068
Lined, chertwets -	366,089	348,953	309,151	11,172	3,033					1,102,408	6,015,501	10,511,068
Wood, pods -	89,274	3,408	135,042		2,961					178,646	436,181	5,879,931
Hristles, pods -	50,217	70	113							5,047	55,028	608,900
Curtage, pods -	147,639	5,824	11,163	35,085	25,483	2,974				51,246	377,027	608,900
Linen sails, ends -	25,910	2,741	83		2,768					3,472	60,978	98,843
Coarse, ends -	64,360	1,038								1,098	69,399	100,000
Butch, ends -	59,210	229	144							53	65,457	100,000
Cattle, oxen &c., num. -						4,252				48,246	22,301	96,711
other sorts, num. -											43,200	96,711
Horses, number -	3	1		8		191	4	1,465	1,648	8,968	22,248	102,623
Cloth of Russian manufacture -										1,648	1,648	1,648
Furs -												
Horse skins, pods -	669	113		65		9,073				383	10,517	10,517
Other articles -												
Total value -												85,885,501
Transit -												496,730
												86,382,231

VII. Ac

VIII. Ac

IX. Ac

X. Ac

XI. Ac

XII. Ac

XIII. Ac

XIV. Ac

XV. Ac

XVI. Ac

XVII. Ac

XVIII. Ac

XIX. Ac

XX. Ac

XXI. Ac

XXII. Ac

XI. Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to Russia during each of the Five Years ending with 1841.

Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.								
Beer and ale - - - - - tons	478	9,132	463	9,009	510	10,818	582	10,889	5724	10,318
Bacon, printed - - - - - tons	88	1,536	87	1,508	755	2,548	735	2,050	840	4,015
Cloth, cutim, and cinders - - - - - tons	58,738	18,960	68,051	20,168	73,035	23,300	83,370	28,014	77,158	23,260
Cotton manufactures, entered by the yard - - - - - yards	1,126,559	47,705	1,719,018	59,137	1,706,579	61,307	3,114,029	39,921	1,691,659	37,895
Hosiery, laces, and small wares - - - - - lbs.	4,108,593	9,100	4,108,593	9,100	4,108,593	9,100	4,108,593	9,100	4,108,593	9,100
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought - - - - - tons	844	10,810	880	12,490	633	14,355	802	16,461	1,029	30,411
Lead and shot - - - - - tons	1,759	29,586	1,577	24,419	3,927	37,178	1,896	24,127	5,076	32,749
Machinery and mill-work - - - - - tons	15,454	15,454	18,714	18,714	30,011	30,011	54,029	54,029	29,820	29,820
Salt - - - - - bushels	1,999,740	32,492	1,368,547	28,051	1,015,729	28,749	1,581,990	25,124	1,495,560	36,107
Sugar, refined - - - - - cwt.	15,544	26,037	10,808	19,801	11,113	21,397	15,163	29,121	26,900	69,072
Tin, unwrought - - - - - lbs.	2,825	12,239	8,473	9,816	7,610	29,825	5,802	21,092	2,780	10,313
Woolen and worsted yarn - - - - - lbs.	190,841	37,615	144,308	27,321	141,534	25,380	166,039	25,650	183,899	17,074
Woolen manufactures entered by the piece - - - - - yards	36,613	95,912	26,823	89,745	48,235	117,017	57,488	190,400	53,418	99,175
Woolen manufactures entered by the yard - - - - - yards	50,578	67,587	46,033	61,411	81,760	78,590	70,432	100,038	70,033	70,033
All other articles - - - - -										
Totals - - - - -		2,046,592		1,665,843		1,776,438		1,608,748		1,807,175

XII. Account of the Quantities or Values of the Principal Articles of Russian Produce and Manufacture imported from Russia into the U. Kingdom during each of the Five Years ending with 1847. — (Cont. Paper, No. 583, Sess. 1848.)

Articles.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Brittles - - - - - lbs.	1,784,370	1,777,916	1,608,169	1,504,711	1,278,570
Corn, Wheat - - - - - quarters	35,565	101,523	33,768	304,359	643,142
Harley - - - - -	4,653	25,471	8	1,612	35,734
Oats - - - - -	45,832	69,377	148,247	338,174	299,481
Indian - - - - -			8,205	15,548	41,160
Flax and tow, or codlins of hemp and flax - - - - - cwt.	1,089,266	1,112,024	859,237	740,396	691,167
Hemp, unwrought - - - - -	483,061	655,384	603,266	620,636	642,837
Hides, untanned - - - - -	38,905	45,608	29,333	42,513	5,774
Iron, in bars, unwrought - - - - - tons	1,628	9,849	4,228	4,450	6,636
Isinglass - - - - - cwt.	941	1,159	801	1,015	780
Wool, entered by square yards - - - - -	28,238	106,994	2,098		
Wool, entered by square yards - - - - -	89,656	9,600	200	6,150	
Linen, plain and diaper - - - - - pieces	5,008	7,596	5,717		14,520
Value of - - - - - value £	5,353	6,583	7,017	27,404	
Mats - - - - -	96,196	16,780	22,649	33,834	31,491
Peas - - - - - cwt.	15,744	34,710	13,667	15,161	15,570
Quills, goose - - - - - number	11,132,400	26,670,100	16,735,000	13,221,000	9,818,000
Seeds, linseed and flax - - - - - quarters	318,614	448,393	525,209	404,212	553,900
Soap - - - - -	8,305	5,737	19,333	7,153	1,929
Tallow - - - - - cwt.	979,798	865,481	925,288	985,695	939,946
Tin - - - - - lbs.	9,985	9,114	8,794	9,897	9,656
Wool, lathwood - - - - - last.	8,819	8,660	4,165	3,656	4,206
not sawn or split - - - - - loads	16,603	22,410	27,284	15,830	35,059
deals, batens, &c., sawn or split - - - - -	130,413	166,583	186,706	147,288	180,431
Wool, sheep and lambs' - - - - - lbs.	5,211,916	3,402,098	9,706,124	4,765,537	2,940,778
Yarn, linen, raw - - - - - lbs.	1,618	8,605	4,298	1,989	318

Of the above Articles the following Quantities were imported from Russian ports on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff.

Corn, Indian - - - - - quarters	2,540	6,905	6,892	42,160
Wheat - - - - -	30,377	101,603	24,247	464,897
Hemp, unwrought - - - - - cwt.	1,414	6,491		
Seeds, linseed and flax - - - - - quarters	64,829	140,317	208,813	147,518
rape - - - - -	3,805	5,737	2,311	1,133
Tallow - - - - - cwt.	199,329	158,512	189,407	145,514
Wool, sheep and lambs' - - - - - lbs.	2,964,623	3,216,204	3,329,280	3,079,922

Exports of Wool from Russia.

From 1800 to 1815, average annual exportation,	Poods.	In 1841, average annual exportation,	Poods.
1814 - 1825,	35,173	1843,	436,121
1824 - 1835,	111,546	1844,	844,184
1834 - 1837,	200,107	1845,	783,288
1838 - 1841,	375,680	1846,	498,768

In compiling this article, we have consulted *Schmitzer, Essai d'une Statistique Générale de la Russie*, pp. 133-157; and his *Russie, Pologne, et Finlande*, pp. 187-280.; *Richard, Traité Général du Commerce*, ed. 1781, li. pp. 268-317.; *Tooke's View of Russia*, book 12.; *Coze's Travels in the North of Europe*, 8vo ed. lii. pp. 382-358, &c.; *Clark's Russian Trader's Assistant*, a valuable and useful work; *Supplément au Journal de St. Petersburg*, for 1842.; *Consular Returns* from Petersburg and Odessa; but we have derived our principal information from the official returns published by government, and private communications of eminent Russian merchants.

PEWTER (Ger. Zinn, Zinngeisserzinn; Fr. Etain; It. Stagno; Sp. Estano, Petrel; Rus. Olowo), a factitious metal used in making plates, dishes, and other domestic utensils. It is a compound, the basis of which is tin. The best sort consists of tin alloyed with about 1-20th or less of copper, or other metallic bodies, as the experience of the workmen has shown to be most conducive to the improvement of its hardness and colour, such as lead, zinc, bismuth, and antimony. There are 3 sorts of pewter, distinguished by the names of plate, trifle, and ley-pewter. The 1st was formerly much used for plates and dishes; of the 2d are made the pints, quarts, and other measures for beer; and of the ley-pewter, wine measures and large measures. — (Ure.)

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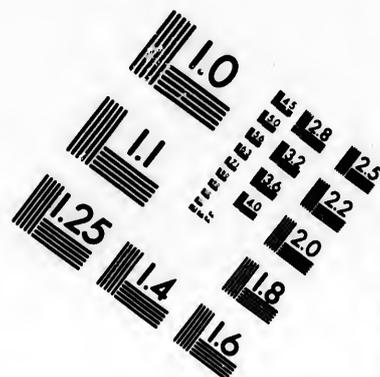
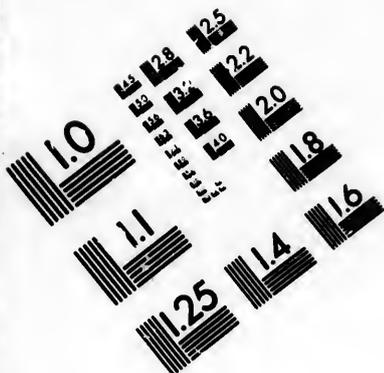
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Total - - -

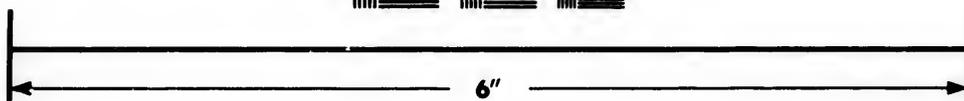
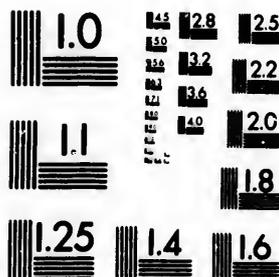
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Years. W
1838 318
1839 443
1840 774
1841 462
1842 408
1843 408
1844 526
1845 729
1846 983
1847 912





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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Rates of Commission recommended for general Adoption, and allowed by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, when no Agreement subsists to the contrary, established at a stated Meeting on the 10th of March, 1823.

	Foreign.		Domestic.		
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	Per Cent.	
Merchandise, sales	5	3	5	3	on gross amount.
Purchase and shipment or accepting bills for purchases	5	3	5	3	on cost and charges.
Landing and re-shipping goods from vessels in distress	5	3	5	3	on current value.
Receiving and forwarding	5	3	5	3	on ditto.
Securities	5	3	5	3	on responsibilities incurred.
Vessels, sale or purchase	5	3	5	3	on gross amount.
Procuring freight or chartering to proceed to another port	5	3	5	3	on ditto.
Collecting freights or general averages	5	3	5	3	on amount collected.
Paying outfit or disbursements	5	3	5	3	on aggregate amount.
Marine insurances, effecting, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent.	5	3	5	3	on amount insured.
When the premium exceeds 10 per cent.	5	3	5	3	on amount of premium.
Adjusting and collecting losses without litigation	5	3	5	3	on amount recovered.
Fire insurances, effecting	5	3	5	3	on amount of premium.
Adjusting and collecting losses	5	3	5	3	on amount recovered.
Foreign and inland bills of exchange and notes of hand, drawing or indorsing and negotiating, in all cases	5	3	5	3	on the proceeds.
Purchase without indorsing	5	3	5	3	on cost and charges.
Sale ditto	5	3	5	3	on the proceeds.
Collecting	5	3	5	3	on amount collected.
Paying over the amount	5	3	5	3	on amount paid over.
Remitting	5	3	5	3	on amount remitted.
Public stocks, specie, bank notes, or drafts not current, sale	5	3	5	3	on proceeds.
Purchase	5	3	5	3	on cost and charges.
Collecting dividends on public stock	5	3	5	3	on amount collected.
Advances in money, or by coming under acceptance, in all cases	5	3	5	3	on amount advanced.
Accounts, collecting disputed or litigated accounts, or claims on insolvent estates	5	3	5	3	on amount recovered.
Monies, receiving, from which no other commission is derived	5	3	5	3	on amount received.
Paying ditto	5	3	5	3	on amount paid.
Paying and receiving ditto	5	3	5	3	on amount received.
Guarantee, in all cases	5	3	5	3	on the amount guaranteed.

On bills remitted for collection under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, $\frac{1}{2}$ commission to be charged. In consignment of merchandise to be re-shipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances & responsibilities incurred, and $\frac{1}{2}$ commission on the current value of the residue. On sales of merchandise originally consigned to another house, but withdrawn, and where no responsibilities are incurred, only $\frac{1}{2}$ commission to be charged on the current value.

The current value in all cases to be settled by certificates of a respectable merchant, auctioneer, or broker. The above commissions to be exclusive of guarantee, brokerage, storage, and every other charge actually incurred. The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is, in all cases, to be borne by the proprietor of the goods.

PHOSPHORUS, a substance of a light amber colour, and semi-transparent; but, when carefully prepared, nearly colourless and transparent. When kept some time, it becomes opaque externally, and has then a great resemblance to white wax. It may be cut with a knife, or twisted to pieces with the fingers. It is insoluble in water; its specific gravity is 1.77. When exposed to the atmosphere, it emits a white smoke, and is luminous in the dark. When heated to 148° it takes fire, and burns with a very bright flame. When phosphorus is inflamed in oxygen, the light and heat are incomparably more intense; the former dazzling the eye, and the latter cracking the glass vessel. — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

PIASTRES, or **DOLLARS**, Spanish and American silver coins in very extensive circulation. Value, at an average, about 4s. 2d. sterling. — (See **COINS.**)

PILCHARDS, fishes closely resembling the common herring, but smaller, and at the same time thicker and rounder. They are rarely found on the British shores, except on the coasts of Cornwall and Devon, particularly the former, where they are taken in great numbers from the middle of July to the end of November, or even the middle of December. It is a saying of the Cornish fishermen, that the pilchard is the least fish in size, most in number, and greatest for gain, taken from the sea.

Pilchard fishery.—This is carried on along the coasts of Cornwall and Devon, from the Bolt Head in the latter, round by the Land's End to Padstow and Bossiney in the former. Its principal seats are St. Ives, Mount's Bay, and Mevagissey. The fish usually make their appearance in vast shoals in the early part of July, and disappear about the middle of October; but they sometimes reappear in large quantities in November and December. They are taken either by *seams* or by drift nets, but principally, perhaps, by the former. A seam is a net, varying from 200 to 300 fathoms in length, and from 10 to 14½ do. in depth, having cork buoys on one edge and lead weights on the other. Three boats are attached to each seam, viz. a boat (*seam boat*), of about 15 tons burden, for carrying the seam; another (*follower*), of about the same size, to assist in mooring it; and a smaller boat (*worker*), for general purposes. The number of hands employed in these 3 boats varies from about 13 to 18, but may be taken, at an average, at about 15. When the shoals of fish come so near the shore that the water is about the depth of the seam, it is employed to encircle them; the fishermen being directed to the proper places for casting or shooting the nets by persons (*suers*) stationed for that purpose on the cliffs and in the boats. The practice is to row the boat with the seam on board gently round the shoal; and the seam being, at the same time, thrown gradually into the water, assumes, by means of its buoys and weights, a vertical position, its loaded edge being at the bottom, and the other floating on the surface. Its 2 ends are then fastened together; and, being brought into a convenient situation, it is moored by small anchors or grapnels; sometimes, however, one or two smaller seams are employed to assist in securing the fish. At low water, the enclosed fish are taken out by a *tuck net*, and carried to the shore. A single seam has been known to enclose at once as many as 4,300 hogs-

* The tunny fish in the Archipelago was caught in a similar way:—"Ascendebat quidam (Anglicè *Auer*, Græcè *thamocopa*) in altum promontorium, unde thunnorum gregem specularetur, quo viso, aliquid plectoribus dabat, qui retribus totum gregem includebant." — (*Bishop of London's Notes on the Pervers of Æschylus*, quoted by Dr. Forster, in his *Orville to Mount's Bay*, p. 150.)

heads (1,900 tons) of fish! But this was the greatest quantity ever taken, and it is but seldom that as many as 1,800 hogheads are caught at a time. The "lake," in fact, depends on so many accidental circumstances, that while one seann may catch and cure in a seann from 1,000 to 2,000 hogheads, others in the neighbourhood may not get a single fish. In some places, the lides are so strong as to break the seans and set the fish at liberty. When the quantity enclosed is large, it requires several days to take them out, as they must not be removed in greater numbers than those who salt them can conveniently manage.

Drift nets are usually about $\frac{1}{2}$ mile in length by about $\frac{1}{4}$ fathoms in depth; they are shot in the open sea, and entangle the fish in their meshes in the same way as the herring nets. The fish thus taken are said to be superior to those taken by the seans, though it be doubtful, from their being strangled in the nets, whether they are so good for curing.

As soon as the fish are brought on shore, they are carried to cellars or warehouses, where they are piled in large heaps, having a sufficient quantity of salt interpersed between the layers. Having remained in this state for about 35 days, they are, after being carefully washed and cleaned, packed in hogheads, each containing, at an average, about 9,000 fish; they are then subjected to a pressure sufficient to extract the oil, of which each hoghead yields, provided the fish be caught in summer, about 3 gallons; but those that are taken late in the season do not yield above half this quantity. This oil usually sells for from 12 to 15 per cent. under the price of brown seal oil. The broken and refuse fish and salt are sold to the farmers, and are used as manure with excellent effect. The skimmings which float on the water in which the pilchards are washed are called *drags*, and are chiefly sold as grease for machinery.

The fresh fish in a hoghead weighs about 6 cwt., and the salt about 31 cwt.; but the weight of the hoghead when cured and pressed is reduced to about $\frac{1}{2}$ cwt.; including the weight of the cask, from 20 to 24 lbs. We subjoin

An Account of the Exports of Pilchards during each of the Ten Years ending with 1842; specifying the Places for which they were exported, the Quantity shipped for each, the Places at which they were taken and cured, and their Price at the Port of Shipment.

Years.	Genoa.	Legh- horn.	Civita Vecchia.	Naples.	Ancona, Venice, Trieste.	Malta.	Total.	Where taken and cured.				Prices paid on shore.
								Mat of Lizard.	Mounts Hay.	St. Ives.	New- quay.	
1833	817	1,485	560	3,889	3,689	-	9,094	785	4,140	4,099	-	50s 30 hhd.
1834	9,556	6,199	1,457	8,441	8,136	803	35,081	9,990	8,009	12,418	1,798	55s. 6d. to 35s.
1835	1,079	5,881	3,198	8,819	9,994	509	35,814	8,375	4,803	6,556	1,990	41s. to 55s.
1836	917	1,519	567	4,154	4,154	-	18,118	5,750	3,309	4,329	5,851	41s. — 55s.
1837	-	4,171	-	6,334	4,750	-	12,261	438	1,134	15,292	400	58s. — 41s.
1838	800	746	-	550	4,900	-	7,507	1,495	2,760	3,692	-	55s. — 60s.
1839	840	1,040	-	1,018	4,470	-	13,994	5,510	508	6,006	-	58s. — 50s.
1840	800	5,920	1,028	7,907	10,460	-	35,519	5,403	3,765	10,063	-	7s. — 60s.
1841	480	708	-	1,068	5,068	-	18,608	8,967	1,728	6,806	-	50s. — 52s.
1842	1,048	4,007	981	6,001	8,140	811	50,714	1,845	434	17,710	1,387	58s. — 60s.
Total	8,201	39,048	6,448	57,598	81,840	1,506	266,384	35,033	31,451	91,244	6,186	

N.B. — Of the quantity sent to the Adriatic full 8-10ths have been sold in Venice, and the remainder chiefly in Ancona.

The export of pilchards has been rather declining of late years. This has been ascribed to various causes, such as the withdrawal of the bounty of 8s. 6d. a hoghead formerly paid on their export, the relaxed observance of Lent in the countries to which they are principally exported, and the imposition of a heavy duty on their importation into Naples. The falling off in the demand of the latter has, however, been in a great measure compensated by the increased demand at Venice.

Pilchards are not used in England, except in Cornwall and Devon, where about 3,000 hnds. a year may at present be made use of. We believe, however, that their consumption in these counties has begun to increase with considerable rapidity.

The seann fishery employs about 1,500 hands regularly throughout the season, and a vast number more when any considerable shoals are enclosed. There are at present (1843) about 260 seans afloat, of which no fewer than 186 belong to St. Ives. The first cost of a seann on the South coast is about 450*l.*; but a St. Ives seann does not cost above 300*l.* The drift fishery employs, during the season, from 500 to 1,000 men, and about 250 boats; the cost of each boat and nets amounting to about 200*l.* The labour in the cure of the fish may be taken at about 6s. a hoghead. The total capital embarked in the fishery, in 1832, was estimated by those engaged in it at from 400,000*l.* to 500,000*l.*, and it has not varied materially in the interval.

The drift fishermen employ themselves, when not engaged in the pilchard fishery, in the mackerel, herring, and hook-line fisheries. The seann fishermen consist principally of agricultural labourers, miners, &c., attracted to the business in the expectation (in which, however, they are not unfrequently disappointed) of making a comparatively large sum by a few weeks' exertion. But there are always 3 or 4 individuals of the crew of each seann who are regularly bred, expert fishermen.

Four fifths of the persons employed on shore in the salting, curing, packing, &c. of the fish, are women.

The wages of those employed in the fishery are made sometimes to depend on the number of fish taken; but in other instances they are independent of any such contingency.

The fishery at St. Ives is carried on under a particular act of parliament, passed in 1841. The extraction of a tithe of the fish is a very serious burden on the fishery; sometimes it is taken in kind, but is more generally compounded for. — (*Dr. Parr's Guide to Mount's Bay and the Land's End*, 2d ed. pp. 146—150. *Statistics of England and Wales*, vol. II. p. 471.) but we are principally indebted to private information obtained from the most authentic sources, and obligingly communicated, by Mr. Coulson, of Fensance.)

PILOTS AND PILOTAGE. The name of pilot or steersman is applied either to a particular officer, serving on board a ship during the course of a voyage, and having the charge of the helm and the ship's route; or to a person taken on board at any particular place, for the purpose of conducting a ship through a river, road, or channel, or from or into a port.

It is to the latter description of persons that the term pilot is now usually applied; and pilots of this sort are established in various parts of the country by ancient charters of incorporation, or by particular statutes. The most important of these corporations are those of the Trinity House, Deptford Strand; and the fellowship of the pilots of Dover,

† Mr. Pennant inadvertently states the number of fish in a hoghead at 35,000. — (*British Zoology*, III. 344. ed. 1775.) Trusting to his authority, we fell into the same error in the 1st edition of this work.

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Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, commonly called the *Cinque Port Pilots*; and the Trinity houses of Hull and Newcastle. The 5 Geo. 4. c. 73. established a corporation for the regulation and licensing of pilots in Liverpool.

The principle of the law with respect to pilots seems to be, that where the master is bound by act of parliament to place his ship in charge of a pilot, and does so accordingly, the ship is not to be considered as under the management of the owners or their servants, and they are not to be liable for any damage occasioned by the mismanagement of the ship, unless it be proved that it arose from the negligence or misconduct of the master or men; but when it is in the election or discretion of the master to take a pilot or not, and he thinks fit to take one, the pilot so taken is to be considered as the servant of the owners, who are to be responsible for his conduct. — (*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part ii. c. 5.)

The statute of 6 Geo. 4. c. 125. has consolidated the laws with respect to the licensing, employment, &c. of pilots. It is of great length; but all its provisions of any material importance may be embraced under the following heads: —

1. *Appointment of Pilots.* — The corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond are required to appoint and license fit and competent persons, duly skilled, to act as pilots for the purpose of conducting all ships or vessels navigating the Thames, the Medway, and the several channels, creeks, and docks thereof, between Orfordness and London Bridge, as also from London Bridge to the Downs, and from the Downs westward as far as the Isle of Wight, and in the English Channel from the Isle of Wight up to the London Bridge; and all ships and vessels sailing as aforesaid (except as herein-after mentioned) shall be conducted and piloted within the aforesaid limits by such pilots, and by no other person whatsoever.

No person shall be licensed by the said corporation as a pilot, who has not served as mate for 3 years on board of, or been for 1 year in the actual command of, a square-rigged vessel of not less than 80 tons register tonnage, as to licences for the *North Channel*, *Queen's Channel*, *South Channel*, or other channels downwards; or who shall not have been employed in the pilotage or buoyage service of the said corporation for 7 years, or who shall not have served an apprenticeship of 5 years to some pilot vessel licensed under the act passed in the 33d year of the reign of George III., or under this act; and no person so licensed shall take charge as a pilot of any ship or vessel drawing more than 14 feet water, in the river Thames or Medway, or any of the channels leading thereto or thereupon, until such person shall have acted as a licensed pilot for 3 years, and shall have been after such 3 years, on re-examination, approved of in that behalf by the said corporation, on pain of forfeiting 10*l.* for every such offence; and the person employing or permitting such pilot to take charge of such ship or vessel is also to forfeit 10*l.* — § 3.

Every pilot licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond is to pay an annual licence of 3*l.* 8*s.*, and 6*d.* in the pound upon his earnings; which sums are to be applied to the uses of the pilots' fund of the said corporation. — § 4.

The said corporation are further authorised to appoint competent persons, not more than *six*, nor less than *three*, at such ports and places as they may think fit (except within the liberty of the *Cinque Ports*, and such other ports and places as may have been specially provided for by act of parliament, or by charter, for the appointment of pilots), to be called sub-commissioners of pilotage, who are to take the following oath: —

"I, *A. B.*, do swear, that I will diligently and impartially examine into the capacity and skill of the art of piloting ships and vessels into the roadstead, port, or harbour, upon the coasts following; and will make true and speedy return thereof to the corporation of Trinity House of Deptford Strond, without favour, affection, fee, or reward, other than such fee or reward as is allowed by the by-laws or regulations duly established in that behalf. So help me God."

And upon the recommendation of such sub-commissioners, the Trinity House Corporation may grant licences to pilots. — § 5.

Notices of the appointment of pilots are to be put up in writing at the Trinity House and Custom-house, London, and at the Custom-houses of the ports for which they are licensed, and are to be published in the *London Gazette*. — § 7.

No person shall take charge of any ship or vessel as a pilot belonging to the *Cinque Ports*, before he be examined by the master and two fellows, or by four wardens of the society or fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, touching his abilities, and shall be approved and admitted into the said society by the Lord Warden of the *Cinque Ports*, or his lieutenant; and any person presuming to act as a pilot belonging to the said society or fellowship, without having been so examined, approved, and admitted, shall for the first offence forfeit 10*l.*, for the second 20*l.*, and for every other offence 40*l.* — § 15.

No person licensed by the aforesaid society or fellowship is to take charge of any ship or vessel drawing more than 11 feet 6 inches water, until he has acted as a pilot for 3 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 14 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 5 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 17 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 7 years; when he is to be again examined; and if he shall be approved of and licensed upon such second examination, he may take charge of ships of any draught of water. — § 16.

The number of *Cinque Port* pilots used to be fixed at 140; but during peace, no more than each alternate vacancy is to be filled up, unless the number be reduced below 120. — § 24.

All bodies politic and corporate, and all persons authorised to appoint or license pilots for any port or place in England, shall, upon any such appointment being made, forthwith transmit to the Trinity House, London, and to the commissioners of customs, London, the Christian name and surname, age, and place of residence, of every pilot so appointed, distinguishing the limits in which he is to act, and by whom appointed. And the said bodies politic, &c. are to transmit lists, corrected up to the 21st day of December in each year, either on that day, or within a month after, to the said Trinity House and commissioners of the customs, of the names and residences of all the pilots within their respective jurisdictions; stating all the alterations that may have been made within the year in the rates of pilotage charged, and in the rules and regulations for governing pilots within their respective districts. — § 33.

The commissioners of the customs are to transmit to their principal officers, at the different ports, the names and places of residence of all the pilots residing within the limits of each port, as far as they are acquainted with the same; and every pilot is to be furnished with copies of all proclamations and orders in council respecting the performance of quarantine. — § 36.

A particular description of the person of every pilot is to be written upon the back of his licence; and no person shall take charge of any ship or vessel, or in any manner act as a pilot, or receive any compensation for acting as a pilot, until his licence shall have been registered by the principal officers of the Custom-house of the place at or nearest to which such pilot shall reside (which officers are hereby required to register the same without fee or reward), nor without having his licence at the time of his so acting in his personal custody, and producing the same to the master of any ship or vessel, or other person

who shall be desirous of employing him as a pilot, or to whom he shall offer his services, on pain of forfeiting a sum not exceeding 30*l.* nor less than 10*l.* for the first offence; and for the second or any subsequent offence, a sum not exceeding 50*l.* nor less than 30*l.*; and upon further pain, as to any person licensed as aforesaid, of forfeiting his licence, or being suspended from acting as a pilot, by and at the discretion of the corporation or other authority from which such pilot's licence was derived, either for the first, second, or any subsequent offence.—§ 65, 66.

2. *Government of Pilots.*—All persons licensed to act as pilots by the Trinity House are subject to the government of the said corporation, which is empowered to make by-laws, rules, &c. specifying what sums shall be paid by such pilots to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for their examination, and for granting or renewing or confirming their licences from time to time, and annexing such reasonable penalties and forfeitures for the breach of such by-laws as to them shall seem expedient. But no such by-law, regulations, &c. shall have any force till they have been examined, sanctioned, and approved by the chief justice of the Court of King's Bench, or the chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas.—§ 11. (The by-laws of the Trinity House, Deptford Stroud, sanctioned by Lord Tenterden, are annexed to this article.)

Copies of any proposed by-laws are to be transmitted to the privy council and the commissioners of customs, 3 months before they are submitted to any chief justice for approval; and the commissioners of the customs are to cause such proposed by-laws to be hung up in the several Custom-houses of the principal ports of Great Britain, for the inspection of all parties having an interest therein. And when such by-laws shall have been sanctioned, they shall be hung up in the several Custom-houses within the limits of which the pilots respectively shall be licensed, and also at the Trinity House in London.—§ 12, 13.

The Cinque Port pilots are to be subject to the rules and regulations framed by the Lord Warden of the said ports, or his deputy, with the assent of the majority of the commissioners of *Loadnage* (master and wardens of the fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet). The privy council may, however, amend, correct, or enlarge such rules or regulations, if they shall appear to them, upon the representation of any person having an interest therein, to be in any material point erroneous, insufficient, or defective.—§ 21.

The Trinity House Corporation are authorised and required to establish, vary, and alter, from time to time, as circumstances may require, the rates of pilotage performed by pilots licensed by the said corporation, according to the size and draught of water of the vessels, the distance piloted, the detention and responsibility of the pilot, and such other circumstances as they may think fit to take into account. Tables of these rates are to be hung up at the several Custom-houses of the ports to which they apply; and no greater or less rates, or other reward or emolument for such pilotage, shall, under any pretence whatever, be demanded, solicited, paid, received, or offered, on pain of forfeiting 10*l.* for every such offence, as well by the party offering as by the party accepting or soliciting the same. Ships returning by stress of weather, contrary winds, or on account of accident, into ports in the district of the Isle of Wight, Plymouth, and Falmouth, shall be subject to pay half the common pilotage in such ports.—§ 8.

If the majority of the pilots licensed by the Trinity House Corporation in any port or place, or any ship owner in the same, be dissatisfied with the rates, they may appeal to the privy council, who may decide upon the matter as they think fit.—§ 9.

Every person applying for a licence to act as a pilot, shall, before any such licence be granted to him, execute a bond in a penal sum, at the discretion of the Trinity House Corporation, or of the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, not exceeding 100*l.* for the better securing his due obedience to the by-laws, rules, regulations, &c. to be made by competent authority.—§ 27.

Licences may be annulled, suspended, or adjudged forfeited, at the pleasure of the foresaid corporation and Lord Warden; but pilots whose licences are so annulled, suspended, &c. may appeal to the privy council, who are authorised to make such adjudication in the premises as they may think fit.—§ 29, 30.

3. *Licences of Pilot Boats.*—The Trinity Corporation and the fellowship of the Cinque Ports pilots are authorised to license pilot vessels of such size and description as may appear to them to be proper for having pilots constantly in attendance in such vessels at sea; and the licensed pilots are authorised to form themselves into companies, with consent of the corporations aforesaid, for providing and maintaining such pilot vessels, such companies and vessels being at all times subject to such rules and regulations as shall from time to time be sanctioned by the said corporate bodies.—§ 31.

Pilot boats or vessels are to be distinguished by being at all times and on every station fitted with black sides, and having the upper streak next the gunwale painted white; they are, while afloat, to carry a flag of large dimensions, proportioned to the size of the vessel, at the mast head, or on a squit or stary in some conspicuous situation, which flag shall be half red and half white, in horizontal stripes, the white uppermost. The name of the pilot on board is to be painted in large white letters (3 inches long) on a black ground on the stern, and on each bow the number of the licence of such pilot; and the concealment of such name or number, or the evasion of any of the before-mentioned provisions, incur a penalty of 20*l.* to be paid by the senior pilot on board, who is answerable for their observance. Any pilot carried off in a boat other than a pilot boat, is to hoist a flag as previously ordered, on pain of forfeiting 20*l.* unless he show reasonable cause for having omitted it.—§ 32.

The owners or master of any boat or vessel carrying a pilot's flag, without having a licensed pilot on board, shall for every such offence forfeit 100*l.*—§ 33.

The Trinity House Corporation, the Court of *Loadnage* of the Cinque Ports, and all other corporations and persons authorised to manage or direct pilots in any part of England, shall, on the 1st of January in each year, or within the month next following, transmit to the officer of the sixpenny duty in the port of London, a list of all the vessels of every description employed by them or by those under them, for the purposes of pilotage, with the number of men and boys belonging to or serving in such vessels.—§ 37.

4. *Duties of Pilots.*—In order to secure the due performance of his important duties by the pilot, it is enacted that every pilot, duly licensed, who shall, without sufficient cause, refuse or decline going off to any vessel wanting a pilot, upon signal being made by the same, or upon being required to do so by the master of such ship, or by any person interested therein as principal or agent, or by any officer of the corporation to which such pilot shall belong, or by any principal officer of the customs; or who shall, on any frivolous pretext, quit any ship or vessel, or decline piloting thereof, after he has been engaged to pilot the same, or after going alongside thereof, without leave of the master, shall, for every such offence, forfeit not more than 100*l.* nor less than 10*l.*—§ 72.

Any licensed pilot employing or making use of, or compelling or requiring any person having the charge of any ship or vessel to employ or make use of, any boat, anchor, or cable, &c. beyond what is actually necessary, shall forfeit and pay for every such offence not more than 50*l.* and not less than 10*l.*, and shall also be deprived of his licence, or suspended, at the discretion of those by whom he was licensed.—§ 73.

If any licensed pilot shall lend his licence to an unlicensed person, to assist him in acting or claiming to act as pilot, and if such unlicensed person shall by drunkenness render himself incapable of conducting any ship or vessel, or negligently or wilfully lead, decoy, or betray any ship into danger, or shall unnecessarily or improperly cut away cable or cables belonging to any vessel; or if any such person shall, by wilful misrepresentation of any circumstances upon which the safety of the vessel shall appear naturally to depend, obtain or endeavour to obtain the conduct of such vessel, then, and in every such case, the person so offending, or pilot shall be liable to a licence to an unlicensed person, to assist him in acting or claiming to act as pilot, and if such unlicensed person shall, by drunkenness render himself incapable of conducting any ship or vessel, or negligently or wilfully lead, decoy, or betray any ship into danger, or shall unnecessarily or improperly cut away cable or cables belonging to any vessel; or if any such person shall, by wilful misrepresentation of any circumstances upon which the safety of the vessel shall appear naturally to depend, obtain or endeavour to obtain the conduct of such vessel, then, and in every such case, the person so offending, or pilot shall be liable to damages at the suit of the party grieved, forfeit and pay a sum of not more than 100*l.*, and not less than 20*l.*; and if the person offending be a pilot, he shall be liable to be deprived of his licence, at the discretion of those by whom he was appointed.—§ 74.

Pilots keeping public-houses, or selling wine, spirituous liquors, tobacco, or tea (unless authorised by the competent authorities), or being concerned in any fraud or offence against the revenue laws, or in

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relation to any branch of their duty, shall, over and above all mulcts, penalties, &c. for such offences, be adjudged to forfeit their licence, or to be suspended, at the discretion of those by whom they are licensed. — § 68.

A pilot, when taken on board, shall enter his name in the log-book of every ship entering the port of London requiring to be piloted under this act, and if any pilot or other person insert a false name, he is to forfeit 20*l.*; and the name or names of the pilot or pilots so entered in the log-book and employed in piloting the vessel, are to be inserted in the *entry* or *report* of such vessel inwards; and this insertion is to be made (without fee or reward) by the proper officer of the customs, who shall report the same daily to the Trinity House, and monthly to the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. The principal searcher or officer of the customs at Gravesend is to demand and take the name or names of the pilot or pilots of all vessels clearing outwards, and shall transmit monthly lists thereof to the Trinity House, on pain of forfeiting a sum not more than 10*l.* nor less than 5*l.*, to be paid by each and every of the persons foresaid who shall neglect to comply with any of the foresaid regulations. — § 43.

Pilots quitting any vessel in the Thames or Medway before she has arrived at the place to which she was bound, without the consent of the captain or other person in command, and unless some other duly qualified person shall with such consent come on board and take charge of the ship, shall forfeit for such offence all pay or reward they might be entitled to, and shall also be subject to such other penalty or punishment as may legally affect them in consequence of any by-law, &c. — § 40.

Pilots neglecting or refusing to obey the orders of the different dock masters within their respective jurisdictions incur a penalty of not more than 50*l.* and not less than 20*l.* for each offence, and may be dismissed or suspended. — § 75.

Licensed pilots may supersede unlicensed ones. And if any unlicensed person shall act after a duly licensed pilot has offered to come on board and take charge of the ship, she being at the time within the limits for which he is qualified, such unlicensed person shall forfeit not more than 50*l.* and not less than 20*l.* — § 70.

But unlicensed persons may act so long as no licensed pilot offers to take charge of the ship, or makes a signal for that purpose, or where and so long as the ship shall be in distress. — § 71.

Licensed pilots who have executed the bond before mentioned shall not be liable to any action for damages on account of neglect or want of skill, at the suit of the party grieved, in any greater sum than the amount which shall have been specified by way of penalty in such bond, and the pilotage payable to him in respect of the voyage during which the neglect or want of skill are alleged to have been exhibited. — § 57.

5. Fees of Pilotage. — The charge on account of pilotage is regulated in various places by usage or statute, and generally increases in proportion to the depth of water which the vessel draws. The Trinity House Corporation and the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports have authority, as before mentioned, to fix the rates on account of pilotage to be charged by all pilots licensed by them. — (Subjoined to this article are Tables of the present rates.)

Any pilot carried to sea beyond the limits of his district without his free consent, except in cases of absolute necessity, shall, over and above his pilotage, receive 10*l.* 6*s.* a day, to be computed from and inclusive of the day next after the day on which the vessel shall pass the limit to which the pilot was engaged to conduct her, and until he shall be returned to the port or place where he was taken on board, or be discharged for a sufficient time to enable him to return there. — § 38.

Pilots are to qualify themselves for conducting vessels in and out of Ramsgate harbour, and the harbours of Dover, Sandwich, and Margate, and shall be entitled to and receive for such pilotage at the rate of 6*s.* for every foot of the draught of water of every vessel so piloted. — § 39, 40.

Ships bound to the Thames, respecting the coasting trade, or other place appointed for the performance of *quarantine*, are to pay the full charges of pilotage to such place, and a further sum of 6*s.* a day for the days the pilot shall be obliged to remain on quarantine.

Any boat or vessel running before a ship or vessel, not having a licensed pilot on board, when such ship or vessel cannot be boarded, for the purpose of directing her course, the pilot on board such boat or vessel, or, if no pilot be on board, the person having the command thereof, and who shall run before such ship at the request or by the direction of the master, shall be entitled to full pilotage for the distance run. — § 34.

All the sums which shall become due to any licensed pilot for the pilotage of foreign ships or vessels trading to or from the port of London may be recovered from the owners or masters of such ships or vessels, or from the consignees or agents thereof, who shall have paid, or made themselves liable to pay, any other charge for the ship or vessel in the port of her arrival or delivery as to pilotage inwards, and in the port whence she shall clear out or sail as to pilotage outwards; and may be levied in like manner, according to the amount, as a penalty may be recovered and levied by virtue of the act, demand thereof being made in writing at least, *fourteen* days before such levy. And the master or other person having the charge of ships or vessels, *not having British registers*, which shall enter into or sail from the port of London, and which are by law required to be piloted by persons licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House, or the consignees or agents thereof, are to pay at the Trinity House, in London, to persons appointed by the corporation of the Trinity House, the full pilotage inwards and outwards; viz. as to pilotage outwards, the amount for the distance which the ship is by law required to be piloted; as to pilotage inwards, where a pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance piloted by him, if greater than that which she shall be required to be piloted; if less, or if no pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance which she was by law required to be piloted: the pilotage inwards may be levied, &c. upon the master or other person in charge, consignee, or agent, in the same manner as in the case of ships *having British registers*, if such pilotage inwards be not paid within *fourteen* days from the day of the ship's reporting inwards. — § 44, 46.

The pilotage outward upon foreign vessels is to be calculated according to the scale or amount of tonnage upon which such ships or vessels are rated in the port of London for payment of light and other dues, or according to the draught of water thereof, as the Trinity House may think most proper. — § 49.

In order to prevent controversies with respect to the draught of water of ships not having British registers, the Trinity House is empowered to appoint an officer to measure the draught of water of ships with respect to which there is any controversy, such officer receiving 1*l.* for his trouble if the ship be below the entrance to the London Docks, and 10*l.* 6*s.* if above such entrance, from the party against whom he may decide. If arriving inwards, appointment of such officer must be made within 12 hours after the ship has come to her moorings, and before she begin to unlash; and before quitting her moorings, if clearing outwards. — § 50.

The Trinity House are empowered to take measures for the relief of foreign vessels coming to the port of London with fish, corn, and other provisions on board, either from the whole or a part of the charges on account of pilotage that would fall upon them under this act. — § 51.

No foreign vessel shall be cleared outwards until a certificate, signed by the person appointed for that purpose by the Trinity House, that the pilotage has been paid, has been produced; the corporation pay the pilot employed, on proof that he has duly performed his service, the pilotage, after deducting the 6*s.* duty. — § 47.

The consignees or agents of any ship or vessel are authorized and empowered to retain in their hands respectively, out of any monies which they may have received or shall thereafter receive for or on account of such ship or vessel, or the owner or owners thereof, so much as shall be sufficient to pay and discharge such pilotage, and any expenses attending the same. — § 45.

6. Responsibility, &c. of Masters. — Ships coming from the westward, bound to any place in the Thames

or Medway, not having a duly qualified Cinque Port pilot on board, shall, on arriving at *Dungeness*, and until they have passed the south buoy of the *Brake*, display and keep flying the usual signal for a pilot to come on board; and the master shall heave to and shorten sail, so as to facilitate the entry of the pilot. Persons not displaying such signal, &c. shall forfeit and pay double the amount of the sum that the charge for pilotage would have amounted to. And it is further provided, that all masters of vessels acting themselves as pilots, or employing any unlicensed person as such, or any licensed person out of the limit of his qualification, after any licensed and qualified pilot shall have offered to come on board, or made a signal for that purpose, shall forfeit double the sum that would have been legally demandable as pilotage, and an additional penalty of 5*l.* for every 50 tons burden of the ship, if the *Trinity House* or Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, as the case may be, shall think it proper to certify the same.

But the master of any of the following vessels may pilot the same, so long as he is not assisted by any unlicensed pilot or other person than the ordinary crew; viz. the master of any collier, or of any ship or vessel trading to *Norway*, or to the *Categat* or *Baltic*, or round the *North Cape*, or into the *White Sea*, or on their inward or outward voyages, or of any constant trader inwards, from the ports between *Bowling* inclusive, and the *Beltie* (and such ships or vessels having *British* registers, and coming up by the *North Channel*, but not otherwise), or of any *Irish* trader using the navigation of the rivers *Thames* and *Medway*, or of any ship or vessel employed in the regular coasting trade of the kingdom, or of any ship or vessel wholly laden with stone from *Guernsey*, *Jersey*, *Alderney*, *Sark*, or *Man*, and being the production thereof, or of any ship or vessel, not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and having a *British* register (or not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and not having a *British* register, if authorised so to do by an order of the privy council), or of any other ship or vessel whatsoever, whilst the same is within the limits of the port or place to which she belongs, the same not being a port or place in relation to which particular provision had heretofore been made by any act or acts of parliament, or by any charter or charters for the appointment of pilots. — § 59, 60.

The master or mate of any vessel, being the owner or part owner thereof, and residing at Dover, Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, shall not be liable to any penalty for conducting or piloting his own ship or vessel up or down the rivers *Thames* or *Medway*, or into or out of any place within the jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports. — § 62.

This act shall not extend, or be construed to extend, to subject the master or owner of any ship or vessel, to any of the penalties of this act, for employing any person or persons whomsoever, as a pilot or pilots, and for the assistance of such ship or vessel, in and for the same shall be liable to distress or seizure thereof, or under any circumstances which shall have rendered it necessary for such owner or master to avail himself of the best assistance which at the time could be procured. — § 61.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whatsoever, from or by reason or means of no licensed pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board, unless it shall be proved that the want of such licensed or qualified pilot or pilots, or the want of such pilot or pilots, was caused by any refusal to take such licensed or qualified pilot on board, or from the wilful neglect of the master of such ship or vessel in not heaving to, or using all practicable means, consistently with her safety, for the purpose of taking on board thereof any pilot who shall be ready, and offer to take charge of the same. — § 53.

Nothing in this act shall extend, or be construed to extend, to make the owner of any ship or vessel liable in any such case, for any loss or damage beyond the value of such ship or vessel and her appurtenances, and the freight due, or to grow due, for and during the voyage wherein such loss or damage may happen or arise. — § 54.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whomsoever, from or by reason or means of any neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any licensed pilot, acting in the charge of any such ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, where and so long as such pilot shall be duly qualified to have the charge of such ship or vessel, or where and so long as no duly qualified pilot shall have offered to take charge thereof. — § 55.

Nothing in this act shall be construed to extend to deprive any person or persons of any remedy or remedies upon any contract of insurance, or of any other remedy whatsoever, which he or they might have had if the act had not been passed, by reason or on account of the neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any pilot duly acting in the charge of any ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, or by reason or on account of no pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board of any such ship or vessel, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot arises from a refusal on the part of the master to take such pilot on board, or to heave to for him. — § 56.

All masters or other persons having the command of any ship, who shall report, or be privy to any one reporting, a false account of the draught of water of such ship, shall, besides the full pilotage, forfeit double the amount thereof; and any master or other person having any interest, share, or property in any vessel, who shall fraudulently alter any marks on the stem or stern post thereof, diminishing the draught of water, or shall be privy or consent thereto, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*

7. Recovery of Penalties. — Penalties incurred under this act, not exceeding 50*l.*, are to be recovered before a justice by prosecution within six months; and penalties above 50*l.* by action of debt in any of the courts of record at *Westminster*, to be commenced within twelve months; but if it shall be made to appear, as soon after as the circumstances of the case will admit, that the commencement of the prosecution or action has been delayed by reason of the absence of any party or parties, whether offending or complaining, or of any necessary witness, then, upon such circumstances being stated by affidavit, made before any judge of any of his Majesty's courts of record at *Westminster*, any such judge may order or authorise the commencement of the prosecution or action within such further time as he shall think fit to limit.

It is, however, provided that nothing therein contained shall affect or impair the jurisdiction of the Court of *Loadnam*, or High Court of *Admiralty*, nor the right of the city of *London*, nor (in general) any separate jurisdiction established under any act of parliament or charter. — § 76, 77, 87, 88, 89.

BY LAWS, REGULATIONS, AND ORDINANCES AS TO PILOTS, framed by the *Trinity Corporation*, and sanctioned by Lord *Tenterden*, 19th of April, 1826.

I. Annuls the previous regulations.

II. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall be ordered to proceed on his Majesty's service, by any order signed by the deputy master or secretary of the said corporation, or by the officer for the time being for the said corporation at *Yarmouth*, or elsewhere, duly authorised to act in matters of pilotage, or who shall be so ordered, in writing or otherwise, by any officer in his Majesty's service, shall immediately proceed thereon; and every pilot who shall fail so to do, or shall evade the receipt of any such order, or who shall quit or decline such service, shall for the first offence forfeit 5*l.*, and for the second and every subsequent offence 10*l.* each.

III. It is ordained, that every pilot engaged in the charge of any ship employed by government in the transport service, shall observe particularly if any unnecessary delay take place on the part of the master in proceeding towards his destination; and if any delay does take place, such pilot shall, on his return, report the same to the secretary of the said corporation, and upon going on board, such pilot shall give notice to the master that he has orders so to do.

IV. It is ordained, that no pilot having the charge of a merchant ship shall stop the same alongside the

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moorings of his Majesty's ships at Deptford, or elsewhere, or between the Round Tree and Bathing-house, Gravesend (except in either of such cases there be an extreme necessity for so doing, or leave be obtained for that purpose from the proper officer or officers in that behalf), and all pilots licensed by the said corporation are at all times to be particularly careful to steer clear of the king's ships in passing them.

V. It is ordained, that every pilot, when called upon or required to pilot any ship or vessel, shall, if under engagement to any other ship, forthwith make known such engagement, and specify the particulars thereof truly and faithfully to the person calling for or requiring such pilot's service; and in case of any concealment, misrepresentation, or falsehood, in respect of such alleged previous engagement, the pilot offending shall forfeit 10*l*.

VI. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall have taken charge of any ship from the river Thames to the Downs, or elsewhere, shall, without any additional compensation in that behalf, wait on board for the space of 3 complete days while such ship may be detained at Gravesend, or elsewhere, for want of seamen, or by any other casualty; nor shall he at the end of 3 complete days be at liberty to quit such ship, or receive any additional compensation, if he shall be further detained by winds, weather, or tides; and should the ship be detained beyond 3 complete days on any other account except wind, weather, or tides, the pilot having the charge thereof shall nevertheless still (if required so to do) remain in the charge of her, provided a compensation of 6*s*. per day be offered to him in that behalf by the master or owner.

VII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall in all cases demean himself civilly and respectfully towards all persons who may require his service, and towards all officers in his Majesty's navy, and shall maintain a strict temperance and sobriety in the exercise of his office, and shall use his utmost care and diligence for the safe conduct of every ship which he shall be intrusted with the charge of, and to prevent her doing damage to others.

VIII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall undertake the charge of any ship downwards, shall, before his departure, leave, or cause to be left, notice thereof, in writing, at the proper office at the Trinity House in London, with one of the clerks there attending, and shall be considered as disengaged until he shall have done so; and upon such pilot's return, he shall immediately, in his own person, attend at the said office, and make and sign such entry, in a book there kept for that purpose, as the said corporation shall from time to time direct or require.

IX. It is ordained, that every pilot licensed by the said corporation shall, from time to time, and at all times, in obedience to the order or summons of the said corporation, under the hand of the secretary thereof for the time being, duly delivered or offered to such pilot, or left a reasonable time at the usual or last known place of residence of such pilot, attend the said corporation, at their courts, by-boards, or committees, or their secretary for the time being, at the Trinity House in London; and that every pilot licensed by the said corporation, upon a certificate of qualification from sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, in like manner, attend the sub-commissioners of the port or place for which such pilot shall be so licensed, in obedience to the order or summons of the said sub-commissioners, under their hands, or the hands of the major part of them, duly delivered, offered, or left as aforesaid, to answer to any charges brought against such pilots respectively, or for the performance of any public service, or for any other purpose whatsoever; and in default of such attendance, every pilot so offending shall forfeit for the first offence 40*s*., and for the second and every subsequent offence 5*l*. each.

X. It is ordered, and hereby directed, that every pilot licensed or to be licensed by the said corporation, upon their receiving a certificate of examination by any sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, for such examination, and for granting the licence thereon, pay the sum of 2 guineas to the said sub-commissioners of pilotage by whom he shall be examined, or to one of them; and shall also, for the receiving or confirming such licence from time to time, pay to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for the time being, at or for the port or place specified in such licence, or to 1 of them, the annual sums following; (that is to say,) every pilot so licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for the ports of Plymouth, Portsmouth, or Cowes respectively, the annual sum of 2 guineas; and every pilot licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for any other port or place, the annual sum of 1 guinea, unless the pilots at or for such port or place shall be divided into 2 classes, and in that case the pilots of the 1st class are to pay the annual sum of 2 guineas each, and pilots not of the 1st class the annual sum of 1 guinea each.

XI. It is ordained, that no pilot shall add to or in any way alter his licence, or make or alter any endorsement thereon, nor shall he be privy to any such licence or endorsement being altered.

XII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall observe any alteration in any of the sands or channels, or that any of the buoys or beacons of the said corporation are driven away, broken down, or out of place, shall forthwith deliver or send a correct statement thereof, in writing, to the secretary of the said corporation for the time being.

XIII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall, whenever he comes to an anchor, carefully observe the settings of the tide, and the force of the stream; and if it shall happen that he comes near to a sand or other object or cause of danger, and there be any other ships or ship in company likely to fall in therewith, such pilot shall immediately give notice thereof to the captain or principal officer of the ship under his care, that he may make a signal to such other ship or ships for avoiding the same.

XIV. It is ordained, that no pilot shall, on any pretence, aid or assist, either in his own person or with his boat or servants, or by any other means whatever, the landing, removing, or secreting any seaman, from any merchant ship or vessel, to avoid serving in his Majesty's navy, or escape the impress for the same.

XV. It is ordained, that every pilot shall from time to time conform himself strictly to all directions which shall be given to him by any of the harbour masters authorised by act of parliament, under the corporation of the city of London, touching the mooring, unmooring, placing or removing of any ship or vessel under his charge as long as such ship or vessel shall be lying and situate within the limits of the authority of such harbour master.

XVI. It is ordained, that each and every pilot belonging to a licensed pilot vessel shall be at liberty to entertain one apprentice and no more.

XVII. It is ordained, that for any work done on the rivers Thames or Medway by men in boats, being less than the work for the whole tide, the pay shall be, for half a tide's work 4*s*. to each man, and so in proportion for any time less than a whole tide, the pay for which is settled by the said act of the 6th year of the reign of his present Majesty at 8*s*.

XVIII. It is ordained, that in all cases where pecuniary penalties and forfeitures are annexed to the breach of the foregoing by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances, the said corporation of Trinity House may mitigate and reduce the same to 1-4th part at their discretion.

XIX. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall offend against any or either of the foregoing by-laws, orders, regulations, and ordinances, shall, for every such offence (whether the same shall subject him to any pecuniary penalty or not, and in addition to such penalty if any), be liable to have his licence annulled and forfeited, or suspended, at the discretion of the said corporation.

N.B. — Beides conforming themselves diligently to the above-by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances, the pilots licensed by the corporation of Trinity House are, of course, in all things to observe and obey the same enactments and provisions relating to such pilots contained in the said act of parliament made and passed in the 6th year of the reign of his Majesty King George the Fourth, a copy of which act has been delivered to each of the said pilots.

¶ The following Tables of the charges on account of pilotage, &c. are the most complete that have hitherto been published. They have all been derived from official sources, so that their accuracy may be depended upon.

On all vessels anchoring in Cowes Roads; viz. the sum of 4s. 6d. per vessel, on all foreign vessels; and the sum of 1s. on all British vessels; payable to the gunner of Cowes castle.

Ballast.—There are no regular charges for ballast within this port, each captain of a vessel employing whom he may choose, and paying such price as they may agree for.

Cons.

Tonnage:—	£ s. d.
On every vessel reporting at custom-house, except coasters and colliers	— per ton
Callers	— 0 0 8
Vessels from any port in Ireland	— 0 0 1
Ballast:—	
Other than limonstone	— 0 1 0
Limonstone	— 0 1 6
For every ton of ballast taken from any vessel, if by lighter	— 0 0 1
Otherwise	— 0 0 4
Anchorage:—On vessels calling for orders or refuge	0 0 1

Pilotage.—During summer months, British vessels outside the limits of Cork Harbour, by special agreement.

COASTERS.

Channel Dues on all Vessels, whether in the Coastwise or Foreign Trade.	Pilotage Charges.	Ballast Charges.	Observations.
Vessels belonging to the port, under 50 tons, charged 1s. per ton; above 50 tons, 2d. per ton.	1s. 6d. per foot from East Head to Freshet, and 1s. per foot from Freshet into the harbour, collected under the authority of the Trinity Board.	From 1s. to 1s. 6d. per ton, according to the description of ballast required; collected by consuls, being private property.	The charge on vessels taking refuge in the harbour is 1s. per vessel for anchorage, and collected by prescriptive right.
Vessels not belonging to the port, under 50 tons, 7d. per ton; above 50 tons, 5d. per ton.			
Vessels with coal, culm, and cinders, 6s. per ton on the quantity delivered, by the act 31 Geo. 3, Sept. 1811.			

DARTMOUTH.

Dues and Charges levied by Corporation of Dartmouth under License from Duchy of Cornwall.	£ s. d.
On vessels going upon the ground	— 0 1 0
On vessels anchoring	— 0 0 6
By prescription:—	
On vessels graving their bottoms	— 0 2 6
On vessels going alongside the quays	— 0 1 0
By consent:—	
On vessels passing the Castle	— 0 0 6

Dues and Charges levied by Corporation of Dartmouth under License from Duchy of Cornwall.

On all vessels taking in ballast, per ton	£ s. d.
On all vessels taking in ballast, per ton	— 0 0 2 1/2
Dues and Charges levied under Act 9 Geo. 4, c. 125.	
Pilotage. —All ships, if boarded without the run of the Newswine East or the Blackstone West, are to pay as follows, viz.:	£ s. d.
— Drawing 10 feet water and under, per foot	— 0 2 6
— 10 to 12 feet	— 0 3 0
— 12 to 14 feet	— 0 3 6
— 14 to 16 feet	— 0 4 0
— 16 feet and upwards	— 0 5 0

All ships, if boarded within that line, are to pay 4 parts less.

All ships boarded within the Castle are to pay only 4 pilotage.

In carrying ships out of the harbour, the pilotage is to be in all cases 1/2 less than the inward pilotage.

Dover.

Charges on Vessels when delivering Cargo in whole or in part.	
Foreign Vessels.	
Dover harbour duty, per act 9 Geo. 4, c. 31, 5d. per ton.	
Ramsgate harbour duty, per acts 38 Geo. 3, c. 74, and 55 Geo. 3, (1815), payable in respect of vessels which have passed that port on their voyages, viz. vessels privileged as British, if 20 tons, and not exceeding 500 tons, 2d. per ton.	
Ditto, exceeding 500 tons, 4d. per ton.	
On vessels not privileged as British, if 20 tons and not exceeding 500 tons, 4d. per ton.	
Ditto, exceeding 500 tons, 1s. per ton.	

Light Dues, payable for each Light as have been passed on the Voyages.

Barque money, to fund for coast-way steamer, by prescription, 1s. per vessel.

Water-bailiff's fee, by prescription, 1s. per vessel.

Dunoon.

Nature of the Dues and Charges.	Date.	Particulars and Rates of the several Charges and Dues.	In what manner charged.	Amount.
City dues	Corporation cannot trace the date, but very old.	On every vessel arriving with cargo	per vessel	£ s. d.
		Anchorage	per vessel	0 3 1
		Shippage	per vessel	0 0 11
		On every vessel, if under 40 tons register	per vessel	—
		Anchorage	per vessel	0 1 10 1/2
		On vessels with coals	per vessel	0 3 1
		Anchorage	per vessel	0 0 11
		Shippage	per vessel	2s. 3d.
		Lord Mayor	per vessel	5s. 6d.
		Water bailiff	per vessel	0 7 10 1/2
		With coals under 40 tons; anchorage	per vessel	0 1 10 1/2
		In addition to the above charges, on such vessels, once in every year, for chapter and guild	per vessel	—
		On all vessels with foreign cargo, whether delivering in whole or in part	per vessel	0 3 0
		Invoice or report inwards	per ton	0 0 4
		On ballast or tonnage	per ton	0 0 8
		Ditto on vessels not privileged	per ton	0 0 8
		Anchorage, &c.	per vessel	0 7 6
		Invoice or report outwards	per vessel	0 3 0

From the outward Limits of Cork Harbour into Cove, Passage, and Cork; 1/2 per vessel.

	Cove.	Passage.	Cork.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
British vessels			
Under 50 tons	0 4 0	0 6 0	0 12 0
50 to 120	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 16 0
120 to 150	0 10 0	0 12 0	0 18 0
150 to 200	0 12 0	0 17 0	0 20 0
200 to 300	0 16 0	0 20 0	0 24 0
300 to 400	0 20 0	0 24 0	0 28 0
400 and upwards, ditto	1 15 0	3 5 0	—
Coasters and colliers			
Under 50 tons	0 5 0	0 7 0	0 10 0
50 to 120	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 12 0
120 and upwards, ditto	1 10 0	0 10 0	0 15 0
One-fourth additional in winter months, and one-fourth additional on vessels not British registered.			

The whole of the foregoing charges are levied by the Cork Harbour Commissioners, established by local act 1 Geo. 4, c. 52.

Harbour-master's fee, by prescription, 3s. per vessel.

British Vessels.

Dover harbour duty, per act 9 Geo. 4, c. 31, 5d. per ton.

Ramsgate harbour duty, per acts 38 Geo. 3, c. 74, and 55 Geo. 3, (1815), payable in respect of vessels which have passed that port on their voyages, viz. if 20 tons and not exceeding 500 tons, 2d. per ton.

Ditto, exceeding 500 tons, 4d. per ton.

Light Dues, payable for each Light as have been passed on the Voyages.

Water-bailiff's fee, by prescription, 6d. per vessel.

Harbour-master's fee, by prescription, 1s. per vessel.

Coasting Vessels, when not laden with Coals or Stone.

Dover harbour duty, per act 9 Geo. 4, c. 31, payable once only during the year, 5s. per vessel.

Ramsgate harbour duty, per acts 38 Geo. 3, c. 74, and 55 Geo. 3, (1815), payable once only during the year, 3s. 9d. per ton.

Coasting Vessels, when laden with Coals or Stone.

Dover harbour duty on coals, 11d. per chaldron.

Ditto on stone, 1d. per ton.

Ramsgate harbour duty on coals, 1d. per chaldron.

Ditto on stone, 1d. per ton.

Light Dues, payable for each Light as have been passed on the Voyages.

Water-bailiff's fee, by prescription, 6d. per vessel.

Harbour-master's fee, by prescription, 1s. per vessel.

Vessels taking refuge in the harbour only are liable to the above-mentioned charges, except light dues, and except also Dover harbour duty when in ballast.

N. B.—Vessels belonging to Dover are exempt from water-bailiff's and harbour-master's fees. Vessels belonging to the following ports are exempt from Dover harbour dues, and water-bailiff's and harbour-master's fees; viz. Great Yarmouth, Ramsgate, Sandwich, Weymouth, and Melcombe Regis, Lyme Regis, and Arundel. And vessels belonging to Dover, Weymouth, Melcombe Regis, Lyme Regis, Great Yarmouth, and Arundel, are exempt from Ramsgate Harbour dues.

Charge for Pilotage, per Act 6 Geo. 4, c. 125.

Per foot draught of water, in, 5s.

Ditto out, 5s.

Vessels are not compelled to employ pilots.

Charge for ballast, per chaldron under the Lord Warden and Assistant of Dover harbour, 1s. 3d. per ton.

N. B.—Vessels belonging to Dover are exempt from water-bailiff's and harbour-master's fees. Vessels belonging to the following ports are exempt from Dover harbour dues, and water-bailiff's and harbour-master's fees; viz. Great Yarmouth, Ramsgate, Sandwich, Weymouth, and Melcombe Regis, Lyme Regis, and Arundel. And vessels belonging to Dover, Weymouth, Melcombe Regis, Lyme Regis, Great Yarmouth, and Arundel, are exempt from Ramsgate Harbour dues.

Dues and Charges

Tonnage

Ballast

Quay wall

Nature of Dues and Charges.

Pilotage

DUNOON: registered in New York

Ballast.—British

Foreign Vessels taking registry in British

British an

Registered

80 and under

60

40

20

10

5

2 1/2

1 1/2

7/8

3/4

1/2

1/4

1/8

1/16

1/32

1/64

1/128

1/256

CHARGES ON SHIPPING.

1005

Charges and Dues payable by Shipping to the Corporation, for procuring and improving the Port.

Dues and Charges.	Particulars and Rates of the several Dues and Charges.	Tonnage Duty.	Ballast put on Board.	Quay Walls.
Tonnage	Foreign vessels not privileged under treaties of reciprocity.	1s. 4½d. per ton measurement.	2s. 6½d. per 21 cwt.	1½d. per ton measurement.
	Foreign vessels privileged under treaties of reciprocity.	8½d. ditto	1s. 6½d. ditto	1½d. per ton register.
Ballast	British vessels from Foreign ports, or from Colonies of Great Britain.	8½d. per ton register.	ditto	1½d. per ton register.
	Colliers, British and Irish coasting vessels.	5½d. ditto	ditto	ditto.
Quay walls	All vessels in distress, or seeking refuge, or calling for orders.	Exempt.		

Nature of the Dues and Charges.	Particulars and Rates of the several Dues and Charges.	From outside Banks over Bar.	From inside Banks over Bar.	From the Bay over Bar.	From Footlock to Basin, Docks, or Quays.	Outwards.
Pilotage	Foreign vessels not privileged.	5s. 6½d. per foot.	5s. 8½d. per foot.	2s. 9½d. per foot.	1s. 4½d. per foot.	1s. 10½d. per foot.
	Foreign vessels privileged.	2s. 9½d. per foot.	1s. 10½d. per foot.	4½d. per foot.	1½d. per foot.	1s. 10½d. per foot.
	British vessels from Foreign ports.	1s. 10½d. per foot.	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
	Colliers and coasters.	1s. 10½d. per foot.	1½d. per foot.	1½d. per foot.	5½d. per foot.	5½d. per foot.
	Vessels in distress, seeking refuge, or calling for orders, exempt from dues.					

DUNDEE. — Tonnage Duty. — Sailing vessels, 6d. per ton registered tonnage.
 Steam Vessels, 1½d. per ton, registered tonnage.
Ballast. — British vessels, 1s. 2d. per ton, on quantity delivered on board.
 Foreign vessels, 1s. more on quantity delivered on board.
Fees for taking Refuge. — British and Foreign, 5s. per 50 tons registry, 5s. per vessel.
 British and Foreign, 50 and under 100 tons registry 10s. per vessel.
 British and Foreign, above 100 tons registry 20s. per vessel.
Pilotage.

Registered Tonnage.	Vessels not having British Registers, arriving from or calling on the Foreign Voyage.		Vessels with British Registers, arriving from or from a Port in the U. Kingdom.		Vessels not Steamer, trading to or from a Port in the U. Kingdom.	
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
20 and under 40	0 12 0	0 9 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 6 0
40	0 15 0	0 11 0	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 7 6
50	0 18 0	0 13 6	0 9 6	0 9 6	0 9 6	0 9 6
60	0 21 0	0 16 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 10 0
70	0 24 0	0 18 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 12 0
80	0 27 0	0 20 0	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6	0 13 6
90	0 30 0	0 22 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 15 0
100	0 33 0	0 24 0	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6	0 16 6
110	0 36 0	0 26 0	0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0	0 18 0
120	0 39 0	0 28 0	0 19 6	0 19 6	0 19 6	0 19 6
130	0 42 0	0 30 0	0 21 0	0 21 0	0 21 0	0 21 0
140	0 45 0	0 32 0	0 22 6	0 22 6	0 22 6	0 22 6
150	0 48 0	0 34 0	0 24 0	0 24 0	0 24 0	0 24 0
160	0 51 0	0 36 0	0 25 6	0 25 6	0 25 6	0 25 6
175	0 57 0	0 40 0	0 28 0	0 28 0	0 28 0	0 28 0
200	0 66 0	0 46 0	0 32 0	0 32 0	0 32 0	0 32 0
225	0 75 0	0 51 0	0 36 0	0 36 0	0 36 0	0 36 0
250	0 84 0	0 56 0	0 40 0	0 40 0	0 40 0	0 40 0
275	0 93 0	0 61 0	0 44 0	0 44 0	0 44 0	0 44 0
300	0 102 0	0 66 0	0 48 0	0 48 0	0 48 0	0 48 0
325	0 111 0	0 71 0	0 52 0	0 52 0	0 52 0	0 52 0
350	0 120 0	0 76 0	0 56 0	0 56 0	0 56 0	0 56 0
375	0 129 0	0 81 0	0 60 0	0 60 0	0 60 0	0 60 0
400 and upwards	0 138 0	0 86 0	0 64 0	0 64 0	0 64 0	0 64 0

N.B. — Steam vessels do not at present come within 1 mile of the quays. No distinction between coasting and foreign trade as to tonnage duty.

DUNDEE. — Tonnage Rates and Duties. Per Register Ton. £ s. d.

For all vessels navigating to the southward of the tropic of Capricorn - 0 1 6
 Between the equator and the tropic of Capricorn - 0 1 2
 Between the equator and the equator - 0 1 0
 To and from any port in North America, Greenland, Davis Straits fisheries, and all within the Straits of Gibraltar - 0 0 8
 To and from any port in Europe to the north of Drontheim, in Norway, and to or from the Azores, Madeira, or the Azores Islands, and the west coast of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Straits of Gibraltar - 0 0 7
 To and from any port on the coast of Europe, between Gibraltar and Drontheim, in Norway, including both these ports, and all ports in the Baltic - 0 0 6
 To or from any port in Great Britain or Ireland, including the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, the Shetland Islands, and Orkney - 0 0 3
 All vessels loaded with coal, lime, or manure only, from any port in Great Britain, &c., excepting Scotland - 0 0 2
 All vessels loaded with coal, lime, or manure only, from any port in Scotland - 0 0 1
 All vessels employed in the River Tay, carrying goods and entering the precincts of the port or harbour of Dundee - 0 0 1
 All steam vessels from any port in Great Britain or Ireland, including the Islands of Guernsey, Jer-

sey, Alderney, Sark, Man, the Shetland Islands, & Orkney, carrying passengers and their luggage exclusively - 0 0 5
 All steam vessels from any port in Great Britain employed on the River Tay, carrying passengers and their luggage exclusively, and vessels trading from the harbour, or carrying passengers to any port within the precincts - 0 0 1
 All steam vessels carrying goods and passengers to pay the same rates as sailing vessels.
 All vessels from any part of the River Tay, not exceeding 30 tons register, with stones, and having no other goods on board, and delivering their cargoes in the precincts of the said harbour, to pay 4s. each voyage in name of tonnage dues, and 1s. for every 20 tons, or part of 20 tons, additional.
 All vessels from any part of the river Tay with sand, and having no other goods on board, to pay 1s. for each trip in name of tonnage dues.
 It shall be in the option of the trustees to charge either the tonnage dues on the voyage inwards, or on the voyage outwards, at the rates specified in the above schedule; and if the charge be made on the voyage outwards, there shall be deducted from it the amount of the dues that may have been previously paid on the voyage inwards; but if such vessels sail in ballast, they shall be charged with dues on the inward voyage only.
 All vessels launched within the harbour of Dundee, or precincts thereof, to pay half dues on the voyage outwards, if sailing in ballast; but if loaded in whole or in part, or taking passengers, to pay full dues.
 All vessels to be permitted to enter the harbour of Dundee for safety, by payment of one-half of the tonnage dues; but if such vessels shall remain in the harbour, or any of the docks, beyond the space of 21 days, or shall take goods on board (stores for their own use excepted), or break bulk, they shall be liable in the full tonnage dues.
 All vessels remaining in harbour to pay, after 2 months, 1d. per register ton per month in advance, when they are lying in any of the tide-basins, and 1½d. per ton when lying in any of the docks.
 Each vessel, with the exception after-mentioned, entering the harbour and loading or unloading goods or ballast within the same, or performing both operations, before leaving the harbour, to pay, in name of plank-money (whether a plank is used or not) as follows:—
 Vessels not exceeding 20 tons - £ s. d. 0 0 1 0
 Vessels exceeding 20 tons and not exceeding 50 0 1 6
 50 100 0 2 0
 100 150 0 2 6
 150 200 0 3 0
 200 250 0 3 6
 250 300 0 4 0
 300 350 0 4 6
 350 400 0 5 0
 400 tons and upwards 0 6 0
 All vessels loaded with lime, coals, or manure only, and discharging their cargoes within the precincts of the harbour, to the westward of the Road Yards, or to the westward of the Magdalen Yard, to pay one-half of the dues in the above schedule.
 Vessels with fish of any kind for curing, per ton register, or admeasurement, 2d. Exemptions.
 All vessels leaving the harbour for the purpose of taking on board ballast in any part of the River Tay, and returning to the said harbour, or precincts thereof, with ballast, shall not be liable in shore dues for such return the harbour or precincts.
 Any vessel sailing from the port of Dundee, and put back by stress of weather, or any other cause, without having accomplished her voyage, shall not be liable in additional dues for such return.
 Vessels partly loaded with coal, lime, or manure, or in ballast, but having dunnage (decks, stow-wood on board, which have been used as such, and are intended to be unloaded; or having goods on board, which are neither to be landed nor re-shipped into any other vessel within the harbour or precincts, shall be charged the same dues as vessels wholly loaded with coal, lime, or manure.
 All vessels arriving in ballast for the purpose of being repaired in the graving-dock, or on the patent slip, and departing in ballast, shall be exempted from tonnage dues, provided such vessels enter for the dock or slip immediately on arrival, and sail within 1 month after leaving such graving-dock or patent slip; otherwise to be charged 1d. per register ton per month in advance, when they are lying in any of the tide-harbours, and 1½d. per ton when lying in any of the docks.
 Vessels with cargoes, arriving for the express purpose of

being repaired in the graving-dock, or on the patent slip, shall not be liable in shore dues, provided they neither take goods on board (stores for their own use excepted) nor break bulk, except to lighten for getting into the dock, or upon the slip, and that they shall again re-load all the goods so landed.

All vessels loading or unloading goods within the precincts of the harbour of Dundee, to the eastward of the Flood Yards, and the westward of the Magdalen Yard, shall be exempted from payment of plank-money.

All vessels not carrying passengers arriving in the harbour in ballast, and departing again in ballast, shall be subject only in half dues; but if such vessels, after arriving in ballast, shall take in cargoes, or north cargoes, before their departure, they shall be liable in full dues.

Table of Rates for Pilots licensed by the Trustees of the Harbour of Dundee.

For vessels to or from foreign, boarded at the distance of not more than 3 miles outward of the Fairway Buoy of Tay, or at any point between that distance and the said buoy, and from thence to and including the harbour of Dundee, 3s. 6d. per foot, according to the draught of water.

For vessels to or from foreign, boarded between the Fairway Buoy of Tay and the buoy on the Elbow-end, marked No. 3, and from thence to and including the harbour of Dundee, 2s. 6d. per foot.

For vessels to or from foreign, boarded between the Elbow-end Buoy, No. 3, and Broughty Castle, and from thence to and including the harbour of Dundee, 1s. 5d. per foot.

All coasting vessels boarded at the respective distances above mentioned, to pay as follows: viz. vessels boarded not more than 2 miles outward of the Fairway Buoy of Tay, to pay 3s. per foot; between the Fairway Buoy of Tay and the Elbow-end Buoy, No. 3, 2s. per foot; and between the Elbow-end Buoy and Broughty Castle, to and including the harbour, 1s. per foot.

All vessels, whether foreign or coasting, boarded above Broughty Castle, to and including the harbour, 1s. per foot.

In the event of vessels having to stop in Carrick Roads for want of water in the harbour, or otherwise, the master of the vessel shall have it in his option either to dispense with the services of the pilot, or detain him on board till the vessel can enter the harbour. In the former case the pilot shall be entitled to full pilotage dues; in the latter, the pilot shall be EXETER.—Rivera Exa.

Harbour Dues.	Canal Dues.	Ballast.	Pilotage.	
One halfpenny per vessel, provided the proceeds above Fowham payable to municipal corporation by prescription.	All vessels entering and passing through the canal, not otherwise, if less than 10 tons (burthen), 5s. each; if 100, and less than 110 tons, 6d. per ton; if above 110 tons 9d. per ton each, up and down.	4d. per ton, payable to the lord of the manor.	As per annexed rate, established under act 6 Geo. 4, c. 183, but amended under sanction of the Trinity Board of 6th May, 1833.	Vessels coasting, or in the foreign trade, are liable to the same charges, except pilotage. Vessels taking shelter only, are not liable to any charge beyond pilotage.
One penny per ton for every British vessel, and 2d. per ton if foreign, and not privileged as British.	-	-	As per annexed rate, established under act 6 Geo. 4, c. 183, but amended under sanction of the Trinity Board of 6th May, 1833.	Vessels coasting, or in the foreign trade, are liable to the same charges, except pilotage. Vessels taking shelter only, are not liable to any charge beyond pilotage.

Table of Pilotage for Vessels in and over Ermouth Bay, to the Moorings in the Bight of Ermouth, and out again to the Bar.

	Inwards.		Outwards.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
Coasters.				
If above per register:				
60 tons, and not exceeding 80 tons	0	3 4	0	1 8
80	0	3 0	0	1 4
90	0	1 0	0	1 4
100	0	1 0	0	1 10
125	0	1 5	0	0 6
150	0	1 7 5	0	4 8
175	0	3 0	0	2 8
200	0	2 5	0	2 10
250	0	3 0	0	2 8
300	0	4 0	0	4 8
Ships from Foreign Ports.				
If above, per register or measurement:				
60 tons, and not exceeding 80 tons	0	4 4	0	2 2
80	0	1 0	0	2 2
100	0	1 5	0	3 2
150	0	2 0	0	3 2
200	0	2 5	0	4 2
250	0	3 0	0	4 2
300	0	4 0	0	4 2
Foreign vessels, not privileged as British, one-fourth extra.				

Fairways.

	On Foreign Vessels.		On Vessels in the Foreign Trade.		On Vessels in the Coasting Trade.	
	Loading or Unloading.	Rate per Ton.	Loading or Unloading.	Taking Refuge only.	Loading or Unloading.	Taking Refuge only.
Wire Harbour Dues	-	Rate per Ton. 3d.	-	Rate per Ton. 3d.	-	Rate per Ton. 3d.
Wire Lights	-	3d.	-	3d.	-	3d.
Wirey Lights	-	3d. per ann.	-	3d. per ann.	-	3d. per ann.
Pilotage inwards	-	From 1s. 6d. to 3s. per foot, according to distance.	-	1d. per Voyage.	-	1d. per Voyage.
Ditto outwards	-	4s. per foot.	-	-	-	2s. per foot.

Vessels wholly in ballast are exempt from Wire Light duties.

mentioned, besides these dues, to be, for each day, or part of a day, in case of river fees.

When pilots attend the river on board vessels bound for places above Dundee, the river or sea pilotage, including the harbour, shall be payable in full by such vessels when moored or off Carolina Roads.

All vessels boarded between 3 miles and 6 miles beyond the Buoy of Tay, to pay 1s. for additional for distance-money; and vessels boarded 6 miles beyond said Buoy of Tay, to pay 1s. of distance-money.

In case of dispute, the distance to be ascertained by the bearings of the different headlands when the vessel was boarded.

Tay Light Duties (toons).

The "Fraternity of Masters and Seamen of Dundee, incorporated by Royal Charter," possess the right, by charter, to levy, *inter alia*, the following dues on vessels arriving within the Frith of Tay, being the whole charges presently made in respect of said right; and those for and in name of the expense of erection and maintenance of 4 lighthouses owned exclusively by said Fraternity, 3 of which are situated on the north side and 1 on the south side of said Frith; and of certain buoys placed in the Fairway thereof.

On every British ship coming within the entrance of the Frith of Tay, whether with cargo on board or in ballast, or driven there within by stress of weather or otherwise, at the rate of 1s. for every 10 tons register; and 10 tons, charged at the same rate.

On every foreign ship, privileged, the same rate of dues when in either of the above situations; but the Trinity House makes good an equal amount to the said incorporation, in consequence of the half charge being only made on foreign vessels so privileged.

On every foreign ship, unprivileged, situated as above, the rate of charge is 2s. for every 10 tons register; and 10 tons charged at this rate.

No dues are levied on British ships, nor on foreign vessels privileged or otherwise, leaving the Tay on their outward voyage, whether laden or in ballast, excepting in the case of new ships built within the ports of Dundee and Perth respectively, which pay the above dues on British shipping when leaving on their first voyage, whether foreign or coasting.

Coasters.

All vessels carried up from the Bight, at Ermouth, to the Sands, 4s. 6d.; back, 2s. 4d. extra.

All vessels under 100 tons, carried up to Topham quay, 14s.; back, 7s. extra.

All vessels under 100 tons, carried up to Turf, 9s. 4d.; back, 4s. 6d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Topham, per ton, 2d.; back, 1d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Turf, per ton, 1 1/2d.; back, 3/4d. extra.

Ships from Foreign parts.

All vessels carried up from the Bight, at Ermouth, to the Sands, 4s. 6d.; back, 2s. 4d. extra.

All vessels under 100 tons, carried up to Topham quay, 14s.; back, 7s. extra.

All vessels under 100 tons, carried up to Turf, 9s. 4d.; back, 4s. 6d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Topham quay (British, per ton) 2d.; back, 1d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Topham quay (foreign, per ton) 2 1/2d.; back, 1 1/2d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Turf, (British, per ton) 1 1/2d.; back, 3/4d. extra.

All vessels upwards of 100 tons, carried up to Turf, (foreign, per ton) 1 1/2d.; back, 3/4d. extra.

Pilots to provide a boat and crew in assist over the bar to a mooring berth, for which they shall be paid, over and above the pilotage, 2s. 6d. for each man or our employed for this purpose.

If above 60 tons 100 120 200 300

Foreign Pilots to mooring be the pilotage purpose. Masters of

FALMOUTH

Upon vessels cargoes in part from countries.

Upon vessels piloted. Upon coasting. Upon coasting taking refuge.

Definition of river vessels, and places within

From

Sea & pilot

Do. do. Carrick road over road

Masters of vessels from the M. D. D. from the Mill Rock D. D. a mile Point D. D. of the L. Gainsborough

Nature

Anchorage

Buoyage and

A fine

Pilotage

CHARGES ON SHIPPING.

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Rate of Pilotage for Vessels in and over Teignmouth Bay.

	Inwards.		Outwards.			Inwards.		Outwards.	
	£	s. d.	£	s. d.		£	s. d.	£	s. d.
<i>Contra.</i>									
If above, per register (60 tons, and not exceeding 100 tons)	0	2	4	0	1	2	0	2	4
100	—	1	5	0	2	8	0	1	4
150	—	2	3	0	3	2	0	1	6
200	—	3	0	0	3	6	0	1	0
250	—	3	10	0	2	0	0	3	0
300	—	4	0	0	2	0	0	3	0
					Per foot draught of water.				
					300	—	3	0	0
					350	—	3	0	0
					400	—	4	0	0
					450	—	4	0	0
					500	—	5	0	0

Foreign vessels, not privileged as British, one-fourth extra. Pilots to provide a boat and crew to assist over the bar to a mooring berth, for which they shall be paid, over and above the pilotage, 2s. 6d. for each man or crew employed for that purpose.

Masters of ships taking a pilot off the Bill of Portland or the

FALMOUTH.

	Pilotage.	Harbour Dues.	Ramsgate Harbour Dues.	Dover Harbour Dues.	Ballast.
Upon vessels delivering cargoes in whole or in part from foreign countries.	As per rates annexed.	2s. 6d. $\frac{1}{2}$ vessel.	If or about to be passed not exceeding 300 tons, 2s. $\frac{1}{2}$ ton; above 300 tons, $\frac{1}{2}$ per ton.	If or about to be passed; not exceeding 300 tons, 1s. $\frac{1}{2}$ ton; above 300 tons, free.	Ballast is put on board any vessel, from alongside the quay, as set, per ton, and in the harbour, affoot, at 1s. per ton. These charges are not regulated by any authority whatsoever.
Upon vessels taking refuge.	ditto	ditto	Nil.	ditto	
Upon coasting vessels.	Nil.	2s. $\frac{1}{2}$ vessel.	If passing, 2d. per ton per annum.	If passing, 11d. per ton per annum.	
Upon coasting vessels, taking refuge only.	Nil.	ditto.	Nil.	Nil.	

Definition of limits.—From the Dodman and the Lizard and from the Manacles to and from the Manacles and out of all ports and places within those limits.

start (which is optional to them) are in pay, beyond the pilotage, from the Lizard, or Lyme, as follows, viz:—
 Coilers and coasters - - - - - 2l. 2s.
 Ships from foreign parts - - - - - 2l. 2s.
 And proportionately for intermediate distances.

Rate of Pilotage for piloting Ships within the Falmouth District.

From	To	£	s.	d.	8 to 10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
Sea & vice versa	Carrick Road, Falmouth, & St. Mawes Harbour, & St. Just Town	2	4	0	24	30	35	42	48	50	55	60	67	75	84	94	105	120
Do. do.	Hefford Harbour	2	1	0	21	24	27	30	34	38	42	47	52	60				
Carrick roads, & vice versa	Falmouth, & St. Mawes Harbour, & St. Just Town																	

Masters of vessels taking a pilot at sea, are to pay—
 For putting a pilot on board without a line drawn from the Manacles to the Dodman - - - - - 2 2 0
 Ditto, from the entrance of Hefford Harbour to the full Rock - - - - - 1 1 0
 Ditto, a mile without the Shag Rock, or Fendennis Point - - - - - 0 10 6
 Ditto, of the Lizard, or in the parallel of the Lizard,

or meeting a vessel there, and running before her, £ s. d. not being able to put a pilot on board, provided the master of the vessel consents to receive a pilot at that distance - - - - - 2 3 0
 All vessels belonging to the port of Truro, bound to or from foreign parts, are to pay no more than one half of the above rates of pilotage, when navigating within the limits of this port, on their passage to or from Truro; otherwise to pay the usual rates.

GATHEBOROUGH.

Nature of Dues.	Rates.	Under what Authority.
Anchorage	On alien ships - - - - - £ s. d. If under 100 tons, per ship - - - - - 0 1 6 100 and under 300 - - - - - 0 2 0 300 and upwards - - - - - 0 3 0 British ships, from foreign or coastwise: - - - - - If 40 tons and under 45, per ship - - - - - 0 1 0 45 - - - - - 100 - - - - - 0 1 4 100 - - - - - 200 - - - - - 0 2 0 300 and upwards - - - - - 0 2 6 On all British vessels from or to foreign parts, or coastwise, indent - - - - - 0 2 0 and an additional 6d. for every 10 tons. Foreign vessels, in or out-indent: - - - - - under 50 tons, per vessel - - - - - 0 11 0 50 and under 135 - - - - - 0 12 0 135 and under 170 - - - - - 0 17 0 170 - - - - - 180 - - - - - 1 0 0 180 - - - - - 190 - - - - - 1 0 0 190 - - - - - 300 - - - - - 1 2 0 and for every additional 10 tons - - - - - 0 1 0	Payable each voyage to Trinity House, Hull, and the authority is derived from them. Foreign vessels entitled to reciprocity are charged the same as British; but the difference is afterwards claimed of government by the Trinity House, Hull.
Buoyage and beaconage	On alien vessels on board goods for foreign parts, per ship - - - - - £ 13 4 On importing goods - - - - - 1 0 0	Payable to the Trinity House, Hull, under their authority. Vessels entitled to reciprocity are exempt; but the charge is afterwards claimed of government.
A fine	On alien vessels on board goods for foreign parts, per ship - - - - - £ 13 4 On importing goods - - - - - 1 0 0	Payable to the Trinity House, Hull, under their authority. Vessels entitled to reciprocity are exempt; but the charge is afterwards claimed of government.
Pilotage	All vessels arriving from foreign parts, with cargoes, are subject to sea pilotage up to Hull, of from 2s. 6d. to 5s. per foot, depending on the place where the pilot is taken on board. British vessels and foreign vessels entitled to reciprocity, loading outwards for foreign parts, are charged with pilotage of, per foot 0 4 0 ditto in ballast - - - - - 0 3 8 On foreign vessels not entitled to reciprocity, with goods, - - - - - 0 5 0 in ballast - - - - - 0 3 4	These dues are received under the authority of the pilot office at Hull; but their authority for levying them is not known.

Nature of Dues.	Rates.	Under what Authority.
	Vessels drawing less than 8 feet water are not liable. A further pilotage on vessels proceeding from (a) all to Linnestown, or departing from thence to foreign parts	A receiver (not in the custom-house) is appointed, under the authority of the pilot office as afloat, to collect these rates.
	On British vessels: not exceeding 8 feet per foot 0 3 0 8 feet and not exceeding 8 feet 0 4 0 8 feet and not exceeding 10 feet 0 4 6 10 feet and upwards constant, if piloted 0 5 0 Foreign vessels: not exceeding 8 feet per foot 0 4 4 8 feet and not exceeding 8 feet 0 5 0 8 feet and not exceeding 10 feet 0 5 12 10 feet, and upwards 0 5 3	
Dover harbour	On British or foreign vessels passing Dover Harbour: 50 to 500 tons, per ton 0 0 1	Payable on foreign and British vessels from foreign parts each voyage, and on coastwise ones a year, under the authority of 2 Geo. 4, c. 51.
Ramsgate harbour	British ships and foreign ships entitled to reciprocity: under 500 tons, per ton 0 0 3 above 500 tons, 0 0 0 1/2 Foreign ships not entitled to reciprocity: under 500 tons, per ton 0 0 4 above 500 tons, 0 0 1	Payable each voyage on passing Ramsgate, except on coastwise vessels, which pay once a year, under the authority of 52 Geo. 3, c. 74.

GALWAY.

Dues payable to the Harbour Commissioners on all Vessels, whether British or Foreign, entering the Harbour, whether for Refuge or to discharge their Cargoes in whole or in part, or in Ballast.

Vessels, Coasting or Foreign, delivering whole or part of cargo.	Vessels taking Refuge.	Lights.	Ballast.	Authority.
Sixpence per ton register.	No charge, except in using the docks and quays in such case as set out in Register.	No charge.	No charge.	11 Geo. 4, sec. 1830.

Pilotage on all Vessels entering the Harbour, whether in Ballast, or with Cargoes, to discharge same in whole or part, or for Refuge.

Tons, Register Tonnage.							
20 to 50.	50 to 100.	100 to 150.	150 to 200.	200 to 250.	250 to 300.	300 to 350.	350 to 400.
£ s. d. 0 15 0	£ s. d. 1 1 0	£ s. d. 1 10 0	£ s. d. 1 12 0	£ s. d. 1 12 0	£ s. d. 2 0 0	£ s. d. 2 0 0	£ s. d. 2 5 0

GLASGOW.

Harbour, Quay, or Wharfage Dues.		Local Lights and Beacons, per Ton.		Charges for Pilotage into and out of the Harbour upon Vessels both in Foreign and Coasting Trade.	Charges for Ballast.
Upon Vessels both in delivering or receiving Cargo.	Upon Vessels taking Refuge only.	Foreign Trade.	Coasting Trade.		
<p>For Ton, 1d. on arrival, and 1d. per ton per week upon vessels remaining in the harbour for any period exceeding 14 lawful days; no other charge made on departure.</p> <p>Steam vessels making a direct voyage to or from ports or places only in the Firth of Clyde or adjacent locks, and situated anywhere between and with-in Glasgow and a line drawn from east to west across the channel of the Clyde at the Cumrany lighthouse, including all such ships passing through the Caledonian Canal, 1d.</p>	<p>The same charges as upon vessels trading to the harbour; but no vessel ever make use of this harbour for refuge.</p>	<p>1d. per ton on arrival; 1d. per ton on departure.</p>	<p>1d. per ton on arrival, if they have passed the lighthouse on the island of Little Cumrany, in the Firth of Clyde; and the same sum on departure, if they will pass the said lighthouse in the course of the voyage.</p>	<p>From Greenock to Glasgow, or Glasgow to Greenock, for all vessels not exceeding 6 feet draught of water, 18s., and 3s. additional per foot for vessels not exceeding 80 tons. 3s. 6d. additional per foot for vessels exceeding 80 tons and not exceeding 100 tons. 4s. additional per foot for vessels exceeding 100 tons and not exceeding 110 tons. 5s. additional per foot for vessels exceeding 110 tons; odd inches to be paid in proportion. Vessels lying on the river, towed by steam, to be charged at two-thirds of the above rates. Vessels starting from Port Glasgow upwards, or stopping at Port Glasgow Harbour downwards, to be charged 3s. less than the sum payable by the preceding rates. Vessels to or from Dumbar-ton for Bowling Bay are charged at one-half of the above rates.</p>	<p>None.</p>
<p>British vessels, 1d.; foreign vessels, 1d.</p>	<p>1d. on passenger ships only, and in those cases only where they receive on board from the wharf 2 or more passengers.</p>	<p>Ditto.</p>	<p>Ditto.</p>	<p>Ditto.</p>	<p>None.</p>
	<p>6d. for every 50 tons per vessel for lighting the harbour.</p>	<p>Ditto.</p>	<p>Ditto.</p>	<p>One-half of the above rates.</p>	<p>None.</p>

Chas. P. Floe
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Rates of Duty.		Rate.
Foreign Trade.		
Harbour dues on vessels inward with cargo		d. Per Ton.
Harbour dues on vessels outward with cargo		7
Harbour dues on vessels inward in ballast		7
Harbour dues on vessels outward in ballast		2 1/2
Coasting Trade.		
Harbour dues on vessels trading between Glasgow and the Craig of Ailsa	Inwards	2
	Outwards	2
Harbour dues on vessels to or from ports beyond the Craig of Ailsa, with full cargoes	Inwards	5
	Outwards	5
Harbour dues on vessels to or from ports beyond the Craig of Ailsa, with part cargoes	Inwards	2
	Outwards	2
Anchorage on vessels generally		From 6d. to 5s. per vessel, according to size, inwards and outwards.
Charge for ballast		nil.
Pilotage into and out of the harbour (Pilotage from sea to this port) (British ships)		2 1/2
Pilotage from this port to sea (British ships)		2 1/2
Vessels sailing under foreign flags to pay one-half more than British ships.		nil.
Vessels taking refuge.		nil.
Creek of Dumbarton.		2
Vessels of all descriptions		2

GRANTON, ANCHORAGE LIGHTS.

Classes of Voyages.	Per Registered Ton.			
	Foreign Vm- sels, &c.		British Vm- sels, &c.	
	d.	s.	d.	s.
Class 1.—To or from any port or place in the river or Frith of Forth to the westward of St. Ab's Head, not exceeding excepting vessels coming or going through the Forth and Firth Canals, not exceeding	0	0	4	0
Class 2.—To or from any other port or place in Scotland, and to or from Newcastle and the River Tyne in England, or any other port or place in England to the north of the River Tyne, not exceeding	0	0	4 1/2	0
Class 3.—To or from any port or place in Great Britain or Ireland, excepting those in classes first and second, not exceeding	0	0	0	4
Class 4.—To or from any port or place in Europe, excepting those in the preceding classes, not exceeding	0	1	0	0
Class 5.—To or from other parts of the world, not exceeding	0	1	6	0

A voyage shall comprehend an arrival at and departure from the pier or its boundaries, so that a vessel paying tonnage dues at its arrival shall not pay these dues at its departure, and vice versa.

All vessels performing more than 10 voyages in one year shall pay the above rates and dues for each of the first 10 voyages only, and for each of the remaining voyages within the year, if these remaining voyages shall not exceed 50, they shall pay only half dues; and for all voyages above 100 in the year they shall not pay any fourth dues.

All vessels performing more than one voyage in one day shall only be charged for one voyage that day.

The charges at Granton are not levied under any Board.

Glasgow.

Harbour Rates.	Per Reg. Ton.	
	Inw.	Outw.
Class 1. All British vessels, of every description, arriving at or departing from the Port of Greenock in or from Glasgow, or any of the intermediate ports on the river Clyde	d.	d.
Class 2. To or from any place inside of the Dumbrae Head; also from or to all places on the Forth and Clyde Canals, west of Greenmouth, including the Union and other canals leading into it	1	1
Class 3. To or from all places between the Dumbrae on the north and the Mull of Galloway and Kintyre on the south, including Lochryan, Lochfine, &c. in these limits; also by the Forth and Clyde Canal to or from places on the Frith of	1	1

Harbour Rates.

Per Reg. Ton.	Per Reg. Ton.	
	Inw.	Outw.
Forth, extending from Strirling to Fifeness on the north side, and Dunbar on the south; likewise by the Orinon canal to or from all ports and places in the Highlands, sit. ad betwist West Loch Tarbert on the south, and the north end of the Isle of Skye, including Skye, Mull, Coll, Tiree, Islay, Jura, and other islands betwist these and the mainland	d.	d.
Class 4. To or from any place situated betwist the Mulls of Galloway and St. David's Head on the British side of St. George's channel, including the Isle of Man, and, on the Irish side, from Taster along the east and north coasts of the island to Torry; and from the Mull of Kintyre to Cape Wrath, including all the Hebrides; also by the Forth and Clyde Canal to or from places betwist Fifeness and Kilmald's Head, and betwist Dunbar and Flamborough Head	1 1/2	1 1/2
Class 5. To or from all places in Ireland extending from Torry along the west and south coasts of the island to Taster; and in England and Wales, betwist the Land's End and St. David's Head; also in Scotland, betwist Cape Wrath and Kilmald's Head, including the Orkney and Shetland Islands; likewise to or from places north of Flamborough Head navigating otherwise than by the canal.	2	2
Class 6. To or from all places on the east and south coasts of England extending from Flamborough Head to the Land's End, including Scilly Islands	2	2
Class 7. To or from any port or place in Europe, or island in the European seas	4	4
Class 8. To or from any port or place in the British province of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Iceland, the Greenland and Davis' Straits Fisheries, and all ports or places on the south coast of the Mediterranean Sea	4	4
Class 9. To or from all ports or places in the United States of America, West Indies, and east coast of America, north of the river Amazon; also the west coast of Africa, from the Straits of Gibraltar to the equator, including the islands of these coasts.	5	5
Class 10. To or from any port, place, or island lying betwist the River Amazon and Cape Horn in South America, and between the equator and Cape of Good Hope on the west coast of Africa	5	5
Class 11. To or from all ports, places, or islands south and east of the Cape of Good Hope and west of Cape Horn	6	6

Class 12. All vessels navigating under foreign flags to pay double the foregoing rates, corresponding to their respective voyages.

Class 13. All vessels, British or foreign, arriving at or departing from the port of Greenock in ballast, and all steam-packets employed solely in carrying passengers, to be charged only a moiety of the rates, corresponding to their voyages.

Class 14. Whenever any vessel propelled by steam, whether employed in carrying goods, partly goods and passengers, or passengers solely, shall have entered inwards and cleared outwards so frequently as to have paid 13s. 4d. per ton of port charges, viz. of harbour rates, police dues, unchorage, and water money, inclusive, as chargeable to shipping; or when any sailing vessel shall have entered inwards and cleared outwards so often as to have paid 6s. 8d. per ton, including the above enumerated dues, such vessels shall be exempt from further payment of port charges, during whatever part of 12 current months may be unexpired from the date of making payment of first portion of said 13s. 4d. or 6s. 8d., as the case may be. Owners or masters of either description of shipping, wishing to save trouble, may have a clearance of 12 months, by paying at the Harbour Dues Office 13s. 4d. per ton for steamers, and 6s. 8d. per ton for sailing vessels. The sums arising from vessels computing as before-mentioned will fall to be allocated among the different trusts interested.

Class 15. All vessels not bound to or from the port of Greenock, but taking shelter in either of the harbours thereof, to pay, in addition to the anchorage dues, 1s. per ton.

Class 16. All vessels at clearing outwards shall pay the rate applicable to the most distant port of their intended voyage.

Class 17. All vessels outward bound for foreign ports from any other port in the river or channel, coming to anchor in the conditions of this harbour for stores only, shall be exempt from harbour dues.

Class 18. All vessels outward bound for foreign ports from any other port in the river or channel, touching at the quay of this harbour for stores merely, and not taking in any cargo here, shall be admitted on payment of 1/2d. per ton of harbour dues.

Class 19. All vessels outward bound for foreign ports, partly laden at any other port or ports in the river or channel, and taking on board goods from this port, not exceeding one-third of a full cargo, shall pay 3d. per ton of harbour dues.

Class 20. All vessels coming into the port of Greenock to try up for any space not exceeding 3 days, shall on arrival pay 4d. per ton, and on departure pay the like sum of 4d. per ton.

Class 21. All vessels discharging a cargo or part cargo of lime, or limestone, or Blithstone, to be charged inwards as if arriving in ballast.

Class 22. All lighters from and for Glasgow and intermediate places are charged with harbour dues, when with

CHARGES ON SHIPPING.

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HULL.

Payable to the Trustees for the Maintenance of Dover Harbour under Act 9 Geo. 4.	Payable to the Trustees for the Maintenance of the Royal Harbour of Ramsgate, under Act 38 Geo. 5.	Payable to the Commissioners for the Maintenance of Scarborough Pier, under the Act 45 Geo. 5.
On vessels under 200 tons burthen, for each time of passing, if laden, 1s. 6d. per ton.	On all vessels passing, whether laden or in ballast, if above 200 tons burthen, 4s. per ton; if under 200 tons, 2s. per ton. Coasters to pay only once a year.	On all coasters, if laden, for each time of passing Scarborough Pier, 1s. 6d. for every five tons burthen.

Dock and Harbour Dues payable to the Dock Company of Kingston-upon-Hull.

For every ship or vessel coming to or going between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull, and any port to the northward of Yarmouth, in Norfolk, or any port to the southward of the Holy Island, for every ton, the sum of	0 0 2
For every ship or vessel coming to or going between the port of Kingston-upon-Hull, and any port or place between the North Foreland and Sbeiland, on the east side of England, except as above, for every ton, the sum of	0 0 5
For every ship or vessel trading between the said port of Kingston-upon-Hull, and any other port or place in Great Britain, not before described, for every ton, the sum of	0 0 6
For every ship or vessel trading between the said port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any port or place in the Baltic Seas, and all other ports or places above the Sound, for every ton, the sum of	0 1 5
For every ship or vessel trading between the said port of Kingston-upon-Hull, and any port or place in Denmark, Sweden, or Norway, below Elsinore, or any port or place in Germany, Holland, Flanders, France to the eastward of Ushant, Ireland, the Islands of Guernsey and Jersey, for every ton, the sum of	0 1 10
For every ship or vessel trading between the said port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any island or port or place of Europe to the westward of Ushant, without the Straits of Gibraltar, for every ton, the sum of	0 1 5
For every ship or vessel trading between the said port of Kingston-upon-Hull and any port or place in the West Indies, North or South America, Africa, Greenland, or any place to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, for every ton, the sum of	0 1 5

A Scale of ancient and usual Dues payable to the Corporation of Hull, upon Ships and Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Outwards, Foreign and Coastwise.

Alien Ships.	£ s. d.	British Ships.	Jettage.
Anchorage.		Anchorage.	
If under 100 tons burthen -	0 1 6	If under 40 tons burthen -	0 1 0
100 to 200 tons -	0 2 0	40 and not 45 tons -	0 1 0 0 2 0 0 1 0 0
200 and upwards -	0 3 0	45 - 50 -	0 1 6 0 2 0 0 1 6 0
Jettage.		50 - 100 -	0 2 0 0 3 0 0 2 6 0
If under 100 tons -	0 13 6	100 - 150 -	0 2 0 0 3 0 0 3 6 0
loads out more -	0 3 6	150 - 200 -	0 2 0 0 4 0 0 4 0 0
100 to 200 tons -	0 17 0	200 - 300 -	0 2 0 0 6 0 0 5 0 0
loads out more -	0 5 0	300 and upwards -	0 2 6 0 6 0 0 6 0 0
200 tons and upwards -	1 0 0		
loads out more -	0 7 0		
Hoisting.			
per each pound sterling of the freight inwards -	0 0 2		
and among the officers, per ship -	0 0 0		
Ballast.			
per each ton taken outwards -	0 0 2		

Freemen are exempt from anchorage; but freemen, as well as non-freemen, pay jettage. The charge for jettage is not made unless with goods landed at or taken in at Hull, or within the harbour. The British ships pay no hoisting, and nothing for ballast. The above charges are payable to the corporation by prescription and charter. No charge made on vessels coming into port in distress, unless they lie in cargo.

Alien Vessels not in Reciprocity.	British Vessels and Aliens in Reciprocity.	Alien Vessels not in Reciprocity.	British Vessels and Aliens in Reciprocity.
Inwards.	Inwards.	Outward.	Outward.
£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
3 0 per foot.	3 0 per foot.	3 0 per foot.	3 0 per foot.
5 0 -	4 0 -	5 0 with goods.	4 0 with goods.
4 5 -	3 6 -	3 4 per foot with ballast.	2 8 per foot with ballast.
1 11 -	1 6 -		
Stone ballast -			
Ditto -			
Send Ballast -			

Dock Dues on Vessels entering or departing from the Port, laden.

Vessels under 50 tons -	0 0 1
from 50 to 60 tons -	0 0 2
" " 60 to 70 -	0 0 3
" " 70 to 80 -	0 0 4
" " 80 to 90 -	0 0 5
" " 90 to 100 -	0 0 6

North Cape of Norway, all places within the Straits of Gibraltar, and all islands and places in the ocean to the southward of Cape St. Vincent, not hereinbefore named, for every ton, the sum of 0 1 9

For every foreign ship coastwise coming to or going (with merchandise) from any of the above-named ports or places, double the rates, tonnage, or duties here mentioned, unless the said ships belong to British owners.

For every ship or vessel sailing coastwise or otherwise, or coming into the said haven in ballast to be laid up, for every ton (coasting duty included), the sum of 0 0 6

N.B.—River craft using the docks and harbour at Hull are not charged any tonnage dues, except in cases where they come from any port to other ports.

Notes.—It is important to note here, that the dues here given include any period of time during which a vessel may lie in the docks. It may also be stated that there is no trans-shipping duty on goods at Hull. There is no general dock-charge on goods; but for merchandise landed on the quay, wharfage is charged. The importers, however, must procure goods by lighters, &c., without placing them on the quays; and the quays are perfectly open to the merchant's labourers, if he chooses to land them there, so that the charge of the company may, if the merchant and shipowner so desire, be strictly limited to the tonnage rates on the vessel, as stated in the above table.

An Account of Charges levied on Shipping by the Corporation of Hull.

Burysage and becausage on British vessels.	£ s. d.
Vessels under 20 tons -	0 0 0
And for every additional 10 tons -	0 0 6
Burysage and becausage on Alien vessels	
Vessels under 25 tons -	0 11 0
25 tons, and under 135 tons -	0 17 0
135 - 170 -	1 0 0
170 - 180 tons -	1 0 0
And for every additional 10 tons.	0 1 0

The above duty of burysage and becausage is payable on all goods during the voyage, coastwise or foreign, either inward or outward for the maintenance of the buoys, beacons, lighthouses, and vessels erected and placed to and about the river, wharves, by the corporation of the Trinity House, L.L.L.

Fine on alien vessels importing a cargo, or part of a cargo - 1 18 4

Fine on alien vessels exporting a cargo, or part of a cargo - 6 15 4

Vessels taking refuge in the port are chargeable only with the burysage and becausage.

Authority—Charter.

A Scale of ancient and usual Dues payable to the Corporation of Hull, upon Ships and Vessels Entering Inwards and Clearing Outwards, Foreign and Coastwise.

Alien Vessels.	£ s. d.	British Ships.	£ s. d.
Vessels from 110 to 130 tons -	0 0 7		
" " 130 to 150 -	0 0 8		
" " 150 to 175 -	0 0 9		
" " 175 to 200 -	0 10		
" " 200 to 250 -	0 11		
" " 250 to 300 -	0 1 0		
" " 300 tons and upwards -	0 1 6		

Foreign vessels, unprivileged, double the above rates.

All vessels bringing coals only, and departing in ballast only, half rates. All colliers bringing goods are charged full tonnage duty for the quantity of goods on board, in proportion to the coals bear to the register tonnage of such vessel.

Pilotage. The charges for pilotage, which are levied under the dock commissioners, are as follows: From the dock entrance to Downham Reach, for British vessels with one mast - 0 1 0 For every British vessel with 2 or more masts - 0 1 3 From Downham Reach to Levington Creek, and vice versa - 0 0 6 From Levington Creek to Harwich Harbour - 0 0 6 Inwards from Harwich Harbour to Downham Reach - 0 1 0 Outwards from Downham Reach to Harwich Harbour - 0 1 0 For every foreign ship, double the aforesaid rates.

Ballast. The charge for ballast is, for Ipswich vessels, 11d. per ton, and 1s. 6d. per ton to all other vessels, which must be taken from the dock commissioners' ballast wharf, under the authority of 1 Vict. c. 74.

Water Ballast's Due. This is a charge of 1s. 6d. for every vessel not belonging to the port, under charter of corporation.

London.

Port of Dock Duties.—The following rates are received by the officers of this port on all vessels, whether British or foreign, entering inwards or clearing outwards, except in ballast, under the authority of act 2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 78. 1. and the amount so received is paid into the chamber of the city of London, in conformity with the 6th section of the said act; viz. From or to Denmark, Norway or Lapland, Holstein, Hamburg, Bremen, or any other part of Germany bordering on or near the German Ocean, Holland, or any other of the United Provinces, Brabant, Antwerp, Flanders, the Netherlands, France (within Utrecht), Finland, Russia (whether or within the Baltic Sea), Livonia, Courland, Poland, Prussia, Sweden, or any other country, or place within the Baltic Sea, 1d. per ton.

From or to all other places, 1d. per ton. Remanque Harbour Duty (per act 22 Geo. 3. c. 74.), chargeable on all Vessels trading to or from Foreign Ports or Places passing the Harbour, Ladsen or in Ballast.

For every British vessel, or vessel belonging to foreign states under treaties of reciprocity— Above 300 tons - - - - - 2d. per ton. Under 300 tons - - - - - 1d. —

For every vessel belonging to foreign states not under treaties of reciprocity— Under 300 tons - - - - - 4d. per ton. Above 300 - - - - - 1d. —

For every British vessel trading coastwise passing the harbour, the British rates are not higher than once a year. Also 1d. per chaldron on coals, and 1d. per ton on stone payable for each voyage.

Dover Harbour Duty (per act 6 Geo. 4.), chargeable on all Vessels, British or Foreign. From 20 to 300 tons burthen returning over-sea, for each time passing the harbour, if laden, 1 1/2d. per ton; also the like sum for arriving at the harbour.

Coasters.—The passing and entering, duty once a year; also 1d. per chaldron on coals, and 1d. per ton on stone, each time making.

Cinque Ports Surplus Pilgrage Rates (per act 53 Geo. 3. c. 39.), chargeable on all foreign vessels not under treaties of reciprocity.

Not having corn or provisions for the greater part of the cargo, having come through the Cinque Port water, a fourth part of the Cinque Port pilgrages rates.

Reestonburgh Pier Duty, chargeable on coasting vessels. If laden, passing the pier, one-fifth of a penny per ton.

TONNAGE.—Collected under 2 & 3 Will. 4. Foreign ships, 1d. per ton; British ships from Foreign, 5d. per ton; coasters, 2d. per ton; vessels in distress, or taking refuge from stormy weather, free; vessels in ballast, free; vessels under 20 tons, free; no deduction on vessels delivering their cargo in part.

Pilgrage.—Collected under 2 & 3 Will. 4., and reduced by bye-laws to the following rates, viz. British Ships of every Description, or Steam-Boats.

Table with 2 columns: Depth (7 feet and under to 15 feet and upwards) and Rate (per foot, inch, and in proportion).

Table with 2 columns: Depth (7 feet and under to 15 feet and upwards) and Rate (per foot, inch, and in proportion).

Allien Ships of every Description, or Steam-Boats. Inward.

Table with 2 columns: Depth (7 feet and under to 15 feet and upwards) and Rate (per foot, inch, and in proportion).

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Vessels of 30 tons burthen, per register, and under, shall pay 10s. in ward pilotage, and 6s. outward pilotage; above 30 tons and not exceeding 40 tons, if bound coastwise, and sailing in ballast, only 6s. outwards. Boats which have discharged notices, under 20 tons, 3s. 6d. outward pilotage, if British.

Wind-bound vessels half pilotage in and half pilotage out, to or from Merville or Quigley's Point. Vessels towed by steamers 1-5th off, if demanded by the master or owner, or by any person for them, on producing a proper order.

All vessels laden with bark, under 120 tons, to pay 6d. per foot extra; 120 tons and not exceeding 150 tons, 5d.; exceeding 150 tons, 1s. per foot extra. All British ships from foreign ports, or, if bound to foreign ports, having on board half their

registered tonnage of cargo, or with passengers, to pay 1d. per foot extra, in addition to the above charges.

Vessels which have cleared the Pilots, and are bound to weather obliged to return—It is hereby directed that as three vessels have paid the full amount of pilotage, they shall pay 1st 1-3rd in, and 1-3rd out, of the amount of their outward pilotage to be ascertained by the master's account from the collector of pilotage.

Pilots detained on board vessels, the sum of 2s. 6d. per day if when the measurement exceeds 120 tons, 5s. 6d. per day if detaining them unnecessarily in there, the like amount.

Ballast.—Collected under the 2 & 3 Will. 4. Masters of vessels may procure their own ballast to the ton and cheapest manner; but those who may wish to be supplied by the Ballast office pay, for gravel, 1s. 3d. per ton (as or sufficient ballast, 1s. per ton).

Anchorages.—Collected from three immemorial. Vessels with one mast, 1s. 6d.; Vessels with 2 masts or more, 2s. 6d. Vessels, unless they come to the ship quays, are not charged.

Merchant's Quay.—Vessels arriving or sailing with a cargo are free; the owners of the quays pay the wharfage.

Vessels coming to the quays for the purpose of discharging or taking in ballast, pay 1d. per ton on the quantity discharged or taken in.

Vessels arriving in ballast for the purpose of taking passengers, pay 3d. per ton on the register tonnage, for the berth and use of the quays, and the passengers' luggage is free.

Vessels that have discharged their cargo, and take in ballast for the purpose of taking passengers, pay 1d. per ton on their register tonnage; the ballast and the luggage are free.

LYONS. Tonnage Dues, Foreign and Coasting Vessels. 1. Encumbrance, per ton delivered - - - - - 0 1 1/2

2. Encumbrance, ditto - - - - - 0 1 1/2

3. Anchorage, per vessel - - - - - 0 6

4. Ballast, per vessel, to foreign parts and not belonging to Lyons - - - - - 8 4

5. Ballast, 1/2 every 3 tons delivered. Vids Ballast. - - - - - 0 4

6. Unpriviledged vessels: Encumbrance, per ton in addition - - - - - 0 0 1/2

7. Nuisance, ditto - - - - - 0 0 1/2

8. Ballast—double. In addition to these charges, there is also a due of 4d. per chaldron (of 35 cwts.) of coals, payable by vessels not belonging to Lyons.

This due is collected with the town dues. It is understood to be paid to the courts of guardians of the poor and the produce of it is paid to the said guardians, and applied in relief of the poor (as in the bill of the poor rates).

These dues are not payable from vessels taking refuge or discharging their cargoes for the purpose of repairs, and are under the superintendance of the corporation.

Mooring Dues. 2d. per ton delivered) unpriviledged vessels double. Not chargeable upon vessels taking refuge, &c.

Under the control of the commissioners under the pilot act. Pilotage. 2s. 6d. per foot. Exceeding 10 feet to 12 feet - - - - - 1 6 per foot.

12 to 14 feet - - - - - 2 0 per foot. 14 to 16 feet - - - - - 2 6 per foot. 16 to 18 feet - - - - - 3 0 per foot. 18 to 20 feet - - - - - 3 6 per foot. 20 to 22 feet - - - - - 4 0 per foot. 22 to 24 feet - - - - - 4 6 per foot. 24 to 26 feet - - - - - 5 0 per foot. 26 to 28 feet - - - - - 5 6 per foot. 28 to 30 feet - - - - - 6 0 per foot. 30 to 32 feet - - - - - 6 6 per foot. 32 to 34 feet - - - - - 7 0 per foot. 34 to 36 feet - - - - - 7 6 per foot. 36 to 38 feet - - - - - 8 0 per foot. 38 to 40 feet - - - - - 8 6 per foot. 40 to 42 feet - - - - - 9 0 per foot. 42 to 44 feet - - - - - 9 6 per foot. 44 to 46 feet - - - - - 10 0 per foot. 46 to 48 feet - - - - - 10 6 per foot. 48 to 50 feet - - - - - 11 0 per foot. 50 to 52 feet - - - - - 11 6 per foot. 52 to 54 feet - - - - - 12 0 per foot. 54 to 56 feet - - - - - 12 6 per foot. 56 to 58 feet - - - - - 13 0 per foot. 58 to 60 feet - - - - - 13 6 per foot. 60 to 62 feet - - - - - 14 0 per foot. 62 to 64 feet - - - - - 14 6 per foot. 64 to 66 feet - - - - - 15 0 per foot. 66 to 68 feet - - - - - 15 6 per foot. 68 to 70 feet - - - - - 16 0 per foot. 70 to 72 feet - - - - - 16 6 per foot. 72 to 74 feet - - - - - 17 0 per foot. 74 to 76 feet - - - - - 17 6 per foot. 76 to 78 feet - - - - - 18 0 per foot. 78 to 80 feet - - - - - 18 6 per foot. 80 to 82 feet - - - - - 19 0 per foot. 82 to 84 feet - - - - - 19 6 per foot. 84 to 86 feet - - - - - 20 0 per foot. 86 to 88 feet - - - - - 20 6 per foot. 88 to 90 feet - - - - - 21 0 per foot. 90 to 92 feet - - - - - 21 6 per foot. 92 to 94 feet - - - - - 22 0 per foot. 94 to 96 feet - - - - - 22 6 per foot. 96 to 98 feet - - - - - 23 0 per foot. 98 to 100 feet - - - - - 23 6 per foot.

The rate is the same whether loaded or in ballast, and is chargeable each time up and away, as well as on vessels taking refuge or in distress. The company of pilots is under the control of the commissioners under the pilot act.

Ballast is supplied to vessels by private individuals at 1s. 3d. per ton. This charge is independent of that of ballast, under the head of Town Dues, which is payable from all vessels not belonging to freemen of the borough of King's Lynn.

MORRISONS. Dues and Charges levied under the 1st Victoria, cap. 39. Vessels from Foreign Parts.

For all vessels navigating to the southward of the Tropic of Capricorn, per register ton - - - - - 0 1 6

Between the Equator and the Tropic of Capricorn - - - - - 0 1 0

Between the Tropic of Cancer and the Equator - - - - - 0 1 0

To and from any port in North America, (Westward), David's Straits Fisheries, and all within the Straits of Gibraltar - - - - - 0 0 8

To or from any port to the north of Drontheim, in Norway, or from Azores, Madeira, or Tenerife's Islands - - - - - 0 0 7

To or from any port between Gibraltar and Dunkirk, including Dunkirk, and from any port in the Baltic, per register ton - On Coasting Vessels. - - - - - 0 0 5

To or from any port in Great Britain or Ireland, including the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Man, the Hebrides, Islands, and Orkney - - - - - 0 0 5

All vessels loaded with coals or lime only, from any port in Great Britain, &c., excepting Scotland - - - - - 0 0 5

All vessels loaded with coals or lime only, from any port in Scotland, and all vessels engaged in the herding trade - - - - - 0 0 1

All steam vessels from any port in Great Britain, or places enumerated in No. 7, carrying passengers and their luggage exclusively - - - - - 0 0 1

All steam vessels carrying goods and passengers, to pay the same rates as sailing vessels.

It is in the option of the harbour trustees to charge either the tonnage dues on the voyage inwards, or the voyage outwards, at the rates specified in the above schedule, according to the distance; and if the charge be made on the voyage outwards, there shall be deducted from it the amount of the dues that may have been previously paid on the voyage inwards; but if such vessels sail in ballast, they shall be charged with duties on the inward voyage only.

All vessels launched at this port pay half tonnage dues on the voyage outwards, according to the distance of the port to which they are bound, such vessels only, provided they take goods on board, but if they sail in ballast no dues shall be charged.

All vessels with cargoes are permitted to enter this harbour

Vertical text on the right edge of the page, including 'The Harbours of the...', 'New...', 'D...', 'Harb...', 'Boya...', 'Recon...', 'Pilotage', 'Duke of...', 'Ballast, in ballast, Ballast-c...', 'Ground...', 'plank...', 'Ballast, once a Ballast-c board of and al- under c curstion congre- sited. Sand, in Thalk, & Harbour c', 'Newprov...', 'Vessels in ton register Vessels in', 'From N...', 'the med...', 'ties very Vessel w...', 'Vessels 18 ft', '15 ft', 'ward', 'From Na', 'Umney or an', 'Ship, with', 'Vessels', 'Vessels 18 ft', '15 ft'.

CHARGES ON SHIPPING.

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for safety or convenience by payment of one-half of the carriage dues; but if they shall take goods on board (except for their own use excepted), or break bulk, they shall pay full tonnage dues.

All vessels remaining in harbour pay, after 2 months, 1d. per register ton per month in advance.

Plankage.

Each vessel entering the harbour, and loading or unloading goods or ballast within the same, or performing both operations before leaving the harbour, pay, in name of plank money (whether a plank be used or not), as follows, viz. —

On vessels amounting to and not exceeding 50 tons	£	s.	d.
— exceeding 50 and not exceeding 100	0	1	0
— 100	0	1	6
— 150	0	2	0
— 200	0	3	0
— 250	0	4	0
— 300	0	5	0
— 350	0	6	0
— 400 and upwards	0	6	6

Local Lights and Beacons.

The harbour trustees are empowered by the before-mentioned act to charge at the rate of 6d. per ton on vessels, for the support of the harbour lights and beacons, but finding that a less rate would cover the expenditure, they reduced it to 4d. per ton.

Pilots.

By virtue of the powers conferred on the harbour trustees, the following rates of pilotage were fixed by them, viz.:

Tons Register.	First Boat.		Second Boat.	
	Inwards.	Outwards.	Inwards.	Outwards.
All under 10 tons	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
40 and under 50	0 7 0	0 6 0	0 5 0	0 4 0
50	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 6 0	0 5 0
60	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 7 0	0 6 0
70	0 10 0	0 9 0	0 8 0	0 7 0
80	0 11 0	0 10 0	0 9 0	0 8 0
90	0 12 0	0 11 0	0 10 0	0 9 0
100	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 11 0	0 10 0
150	1 0 0	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 7 6
200	1 5 0	1 3 0	0 11 0	0 8 6
250	1 7 6	1 5 0	0 12 0	0 9 0
300	1 10 0	1 7 6	0 13 0	0 9 6
350	1 12 6	1 10 0	0 14 0	0 10 0
400 and upwards.	1 0 0	1 10 0	0 16 0	0 11 8

The third boat is paid the same as the second, and the pilot-master's charge is 6d. per mast on each vessel entering the harbour.

Ballast.

The charge for ballast at this port is 1s. per ton, 2d. of which is paid to the magistratus and town council for the privilege of removing the sand, and 10d. for the cartage thereof.

NEWCASTLE.

Description of Dues, &c.	Rates.			
	British and Privileged Vessels.		Unprivileged Vessels.	
Harbour light dues	On each vessel under 100 tons	0 11	On each vessel	0 0
	On ditto above 100 — and under 200	1 1		
	On ditto above 200 — and under 300	1 3		
	On ditto above 300 —	1 5		
Booys	On each vessel under 50 tons	0 4	On each vessel	1 6
	On ditto above 50 — and under 100	0 6		
	On ditto above 100 — and under 200	0 11		
	On ditto above 200 — and under 300	1 1		
	On ditto above 300 —	1 3		
Beacons	On each vessel under 200 tons	0 2	On each vessel under 200 tons	0 2
	On ditto above 200 —	0 3	On each vessel above 200 tons	0 3
	Notes. — A vessel with a cargo inwards, and another outwards, pays double the above. In any other case she pays as above.			
Pilotage	Each vessel into or out of Shields Harbour, from 1st April to 1st October, 1s. 3d. per foot on ship's draught; and from 1st October to 1st April, 1s. 6d. per foot.		Each vessel 6d. per foot more than those privileged, viz. 1s. 9d. or 2s., according to the season.	
Dues of Northumberland			Each vessel entering over Shields Bar	1 0
Ballast, ship and bunk	Each vessel with ballast, per voyage	3 2	Each vessel with ballast, per voyage	3 4
Ballast-office dues	Each vessel without ballast, per voyage	2 2	Each vessel without ballast, per voyage	2 4
	Each vessel with ballast, per voyage	2 6	Each vessel with ballast, per voyage	2 8
	Each vessel with chalk, sand, loam, stones, &c., per voyage, in addition	3 6	Each vessel with chalk, dung, sand, stones, &c., per voyage, in addition	1 0
Groundage and plankage	Each vessel with a cargo, either whole or in part, per voyage	1 4	Each vessel with a cargo, either whole or in part, per voyage	1 4
Ballast, for conveyance and deposit.	Per ton, on quantity delivered	1 4	Per ton, on quantity delivered	1 4
Ballast delivered on board of other ships, and also delivered under certain circumstances, not conveyed and deposited.	Per ton	0 6	Per ton	0 6
Sand, loam, stones, Chalk, &c.	Per ton	0 1	Per ton	0 1
Harbour dues	On each ship entering the port for refuge, without delivering any part of the cargo	3 2	On each ship entering the port for refuge, without delivering any part of the cargo	4 10
	Notes. — The above dues are the same, whether the voyage be foreign or coastwise.			

NEWPORT. — Harbour Dues.

Vessels in the coasting trade, with cargo. — 1 farthing per ton register inwards, and 1 farthing per ton register outwards.
Vessels in the foreign trade, with cargo. — 1 halfpenny per ton register inwards, and 1 halfpenny per ton register outwards.

Vessels not privileged, double dues. Vessels coming in in ballast pay only on the outward cargo.

Pilotage Dues.

	Coasting, per Foot.	Foreign, per Foot.		Coasting, per Foot.	Foreign, per Foot.
From Newport to Pillgwenly to the mouth of the River Ux, or vice versa:	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Vessels drawing 12 ft., and under 15 ft.	0 1 9	0 2 0
Vessels under 9 feet draught of water	0 0 9	0 1 0	wards — 15 ft. and upwards	0 2 0	0 2 6
Vessels drawing 9 ft., and under 12 ft.	0 1 0	0 1 3	From Newport or Pillgwenly to Penarth, or Kingroad, or vice versa, (provided no Bristol pilot should offer this side the Newport district):		
15 ft., and under 15 ft.	0 1 3	0 1 6	Vessels under 9 feet draught of water	0 1 6	0 1 9
wards — 15 ft. and upwards	0 1 6	0 2 0	Vessels drawing 9 ft., and under 12 ft.	0 1 9	0 2 0
From Newport or Pillgwenly to Hamney River, or Redwick Pill, or any place outside of the River Ux, within the district, or vice versa:			15 ft., and under 15 ft. and upwards	0 2 0	0 2 6
Vessels under 9 feet draught of water	0 1 3	0 1 6	wards — 15 ft. and upwards	0 2 3	0 2 0
Vessels drawing 9 ft., and under 15 ft.	0 1 6	0 1 9	Vessels not privileged to pay one-fourth more than British or privileged vessels.		

Pilots employed on tides work on board vessels:

Under 50 tons	1	0	0
50 tons, and under 100	2	0	0
100	3	0	0
150	4	0	0
200	5	0	0
300 tons and upwards	7	0	0

Harbour-master's fee, received under the authority of the sub-commissioners, for pilotage:

For vessels under 50 tons	0	0	0
50 tons, and under 100	0	0	0
100	1	0	0
200	1	0	0
300	2	0	0
500 tons, and upwards	3	0	0

Doek Dues. First Class:—Vessels Entering with Cargo or Departing with Cargo.

There is a charge made for what is called a heaving, of 1d. per ton, upon the number of tons of goods shipped or landed, paid by custom, and under the authority of the merchants. This is paid by the masters of vessels on clearing, and is believed to be very generally charged to the ship.

Ballast Charge, levied by Harbour Commissioners, under act 8 Will. 4. c. 66.

Vessels coming in in ballast pay only on the outward cargo. The dues levied on vessels for discharging, their ballast on the west side of the river are 1d. per ton register on vessels coming from any place westward of the Hoe on (Islands) and 1d. per ton on those from places eastward of the Hoelmen.

	Inwards.		Outwards.			Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Per Ton.	Per Ton.	Per Ton.	Per Ton.		Per Ton.	Per Ton.	Per Ton.	Per Ton.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.		£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Vessels from or to any part of Great Britain, Ireland, the Isle of Man, or any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, not exceeding 100 tons measurement	0	0	0	0	From or to any port or place in Europe, round the North Cape, any port or place within the limits of Gibraltar, whether in Europe, Asia, or Africa	0	0	0	0
For vessels exceeding 100 tons measurement	0	0	0	0	Refr after 4 weeks, as before, 1s. per ton, per week.	0	0	0	0
Refr after two weeks from date of entrance, 1d. per ton, per week.	0	0	0	0	From or to any port or place in British America, except the West Indies, and any port or place in United States	0	0	0	0
Vessels from or to any other part of Europe, except places within the Straits of Gibraltar, and round the North Cape	0	0	0	0	Refr after 4 weeks, as before, 1d. per ton, per week.	0	0	0	0
Refr after 4 weeks, as before, 1d. per ton, per week.	0	0	0	0	From or to any port or place in any other part of the world	0	0	0	0
					Refr after 4 weeks, as before, 1d. per ton, per week.	0	0	0	0

For every vessel, with a cargo, which shall enter the said dock and depart therefrom, without breaking bulk, or which shall discharge, and afterwards take on board and depart with the same cargo, per ton measurement, 6d.

Entering and departing in ballast, per ton, 3d.

Refr after 1 week from date of entrance, 1d. per ton per week.

Every vessel of less burthen than 20 tons measurement to be rated at 20 tons measurement.

For removing and taking away the ballast, a charge of 2d. per ton is made on the register tonnage.

Ballast discharged at various private wharves on the west side of the river, costs from 1 1/2d. to 3 1/2d. per ton register, from any place whatever, varying according to the nature of the ballast, whether gravel or limestone; payable by custom or consent.

Navy.

Description of Charge.	How levied.	Rate.
Harbour dues	Anchorage on a smack, coasting trade	£ s. d.
	Ditto ditto, foreign	0 5 0
	Ditto schooner, coasting	0 4 0
	Ditto ditto, foreign	0 5 0
	Ditto brig, coasting	0 10 0
	Ditto ditto, foreign	0 10 0
Pilotage	Dockage per ton on the registered measurement	0 0 1 1/2
	From the bar of Cowlingford	0 2 6
	If the vessel is 5 miles at sea	0 10 0
	On the river, up and down, per foot on the draught of water	0 1 0
Canal dues	Each vessel on goods	0 1 1
	Charge for each horse towing or tracking a vessel	0 9 0

PLYMOUTH.

Salutary Dues.

1s. per vessel of every description (except Spanish), whether taking refuge in the harbour only, or to deliver the cargo, or whole or in part.

6s. per vessel, Spanish, ditto.

SUTTON POOL.

Dues payable to the Sutton Pool Company.—Tolls on Ships.

For all ships or vessels belonging to foreign subjects, coming within the said harbour of Sutton Pool, 4d. per ton.

For all ships or vessels belonging to H. M.'s subjects, coming from foreign parts, 2d. per ton.

For all ships and vessels belonging to H. M.'s subjects employed in the coasting trade, or coming from Ireland, above 50 tons, 1d. per ton.

For all such ships or vessels of 50 tons, or under, 1d. per ton.

All vessels employed in fishing, and belonging to the port, 11. 1s. per annum.

All barges, lighters, and other craft above 20 tons, 11. per annum.

All barges, lighters, and other craft under 20 tons, 16s. per annum.

All ships or vessels lying within the said harbour more than 3 calendar months, (unless under repair at a shipwright's yard) shall pay, at the expiration thereof, the same dues as if she had again entered the harbour; and so on at the expiration of every 3 months she shall continue therein.

For the Use of the Graving Dock.

For every ship or vessel of 60 tons, and under 80 tons, 2s. per week.

Of 80 tons and under 100 tons, 2s. 6d. per week.

Of 100 tons and under 200 tons, 5s. per week.

Of 200 tons or upwards, 8s. per week.

For the Use of the Mowing Channel.

For every ship under 20 tons, 5s. per week.

Above 20 tons and under 50 tons, 4s. per week.

Above 50 tons, 5s. per week.

For the anchorage and groundage of every ship or vessel entering or coming into Sutton Pool, 1s. 6d.

For moorage, 1d.

(The foregoing charges are levied per acts 51 Geo. 3. and 8 Will. 4.)

DANFORTH.

Dues charged on Vessels entering Milton Cove, New Passage, and Nonchess Quay.

Foreign ships, per ton register, 4d.

British ships of 80 tons register, each, 5s.

British ships under 80 tons, 4s. 6d.

British sloops, 5s. 6d.

British barge or hoy 20 tons, and not exceeding 40 tons register, 1s.

British boats or vessels under 20 tons, laden, 6d.

For vessels lying up, per week, 2s. 6d.

For the use of the graving dock, 3s.

(Levied, by prescription, by the lord of the manor.)

Rate for Pilotage.

- All British ships of 14 feet water and upwards, except East Indians, if boarded without the land off Penze Point or the Mawtens, which must be known by the western end being open off the Ram Head, shall pay 6s. per foot pilotage, if carried into the harbour of Hamoaze, Calverley, or Sutton Pool.
- British ships under 14 feet water down to 8 feet, boarded as above stated, are to pay 4s. per foot for the like service.
- Ships above 14 feet, within that line, are to pay only 4d. per foot; and ships under 14 feet, boarded as above, only 3s. per foot for the like service.
- All ships under 8 feet water are to pay as above stated, as if the vessel was of that draught.
- All the above rates are to be paid in proportion for every half foot water, but no allowance is to be made for any draught of water less than half a foot.
- In carrying ships to sea from the said harbour, the pilotage is to be in all cases the same as the inward pilotage.

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CHARGES ON SHIPPING.

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7. All ships which may anchor on their arrival either in the Custom Bay or Plymouth Sound, are to pay only 1/2 of the before-mentioned rates of pilotage.

8. All pilots employed to carry ships from any one of the harbours to anchor, is to be paid the same pilotage as if the said ship had been boarded within the headlands since her arrival. Provided any ship above 17 feet water be boarded within the western land be cast off the Stern 1/2 day by one of the second rate pilots, and by twice the above fee for in a matter of the houses on the Harbour or Wharf, and in those supervised by one of the first class, he shall be entitled to 1/2 of the pilotage.

10. Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea

3 leagues without a line drawn from the Head	s. d.
to the Merston, are to pay	3 3 0
6 leagues ditto	4 4 0
10 leagues ditto	6 6 0

and proportionally for intermediate distances.

11. Ships not having British registers are to pay 1/2 more than ships having British registers, except when such first-mentioned ships shall, by any order of H. M.'s most honourable privy council, be permitted to enter the ports of this kingdom, upon paying the same duties of tonnage as are paid by British ships, in which case such ships and vessels not having British registers shall pay the like rates of pilotage only so far as they shall be liable to British registers.

12. If a tender chance be taken or supplied a pilot whilst at anchor, the rate for the lay-dock is to be 1/2 s. a day not including the day running in or going out.

The foregoing rates are levied by authority of the Trinity Board, under an act of parliament, 6 Geo. 1. c. 12.

There are no charges levied for local lights or beacons at this port.

There is no regulated charge for ballast, nor any Board appointed for its supply; the parties shall fit on the best terms they can from different quarters, the quantities here abounding with matter fit for the purpose.

POSTAGE.

Harbour Dues payable to the Corporation of the Borough of Portsmouth, per act 5 Vict. in respect of all Ships or other Vessels arriving and casting Anchor, or making fast in the Harbour of Portsmouth, for each and every time each Ship or other Vessel shall enter or come into the Harbour —

Under 30 tons	1s. per ship.
30 and under 60 tons	2s. —
60 — 150 —	3s. —
150 — 300 —	4s. —
300 — 400 —	5s. —
400 and upwards	10s. —

Beams-boats to be charged only once a day.

Exemptions. — Pilot boats, fishing vessels, boats not decked, and ships and vessels arriving in distress.

Tonnage dues payable in respect of all ships, boats, or other vessels, sailing or unloading, upon or from the wharf and quays or other works, or in the Custom, within a line drawn from the north-east angle of Mr. Lindley's Store, to the south-west angle of the New Gun Wharf.

To or from Rye or Salcombe, or any port or place between them, 1/2d. per ton.

To or from parts (foreign), 4d. per ton.

General Exemption.—H. M.'s ships, vessels, or boats, or any ship, vessel, or boat in the service or employ of H. M.'s Customs or Excise, or Board of Ordnance.

No charge for local lights and beacons at this port.

Pilotage into and out of Portsmouth Harbour, per Act 6 Geo. 4. c. 12.

Vessels drawing not exceeding 17 feet water, 2s. per foot above 17 feet water, 2s. per foot.

On unprivileged ships, 1/2 more than the above rates.

FAIRWAYS.

	On Foreign Vessels.	On Vessels in the Foreign Trade.		On Vessels in the Coasting Trade.	
	Loading or Unloading.	Loading or Unloading.	Taking Refuge only.	Loading or Unloading.	Taking Refuge only.
Ribble Sea Line	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.
Ribble Middle Line	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.
Ribble Harbour Line	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.	6d.

Vessels navigating the River Ribble for the conveyance of goods and passengers, 6d. per ton.

Vessels under 10 tons burthen, and wholly employed in fishing, the sum of 1s. 6d. per ton per annum.

Vessels wholly in ballast are exempt from the above charges.

Pilotage 1s. per foot.

RAUSGATE.

	Harbour Dues.		Pilotage, 6 Uo. 6.	Ballast.	Town Dues.	Other Charges.	Observations.
	Taking Refuge.	Delivering Cargoes.					
Foreign vessels, unprivileged	4d. per ton.	4d. per ton, in and out.	1s. per foot on the draught of water, in and out.	1s. per ton, and 1/2 s. 6d. per ton, (ballast) 4s. 1/2 load, flint.	2s. 1/2 ton.		These coasters pay a yearly bill of 6d. per ton to Rausgate Harbour.
English and foreign, of 50 tons, and not exceeding 200 tons	4d. —	4d. per ton, in and out.	1s. per foot, in and out.	1s. 6d. per ton, (ballast) 4s. 1/2 load, flint.			
All above 200 tons	4d. —	4d. per ton, in and out.	1s. per foot, in and out.	1s. 6d. per ton, (ballast) 4s. 1/2 load, flint.			
Coasting vessels—coastwise	nil.	nil.	nil.	nil.			
All others	nil.	nil.	nil.	nil.			

Other Charges under Rausgate Harbour Act —

For use of dry docks, 30 tons and under 200, 4s. 3s., and 10s. every day after 10, 15s., and 10s. —

Wharfage for pitch and tar, 9s. per barrel.

For putting in a rig, under 50 tons, 3s. 6d. — 100 — 7 0 — 200 — 14 0 — and upwards 20 0

REMARKS.

Denomination and Description of Dues and Charges.	On Vessels taking Refuge only.	On Vessels delivering Cargoes from Foreign Parts.	On Vessels delivering Cargoes Coastwise.
Harbour light duty	10s. per mast, unless have built any of the other duties levied by the act.	10s. per mast.	3d. per ton on Sunderland ships only.
Harbour dues	6d. to 1s. 6d. on each ship.	6d. to 1s. 2d. on each ship.	3d. per ton on Sunderland ships only.
Pilotage into the harbour and out of ditto.	From 1s. to 30s. each vessel.	From 20s. to 30s. each vessel.	1d. for every 5 tons, except with coals.
Charge for ballast	1s. per ton, including the labour of heaving into the vessel.	1s. per ton, including the labour of heaving into the vessel.	6d. to 1s. 2d. on each ship.
Harbour dues	1s. 6d. on each ship.	1s. 6d. on each ship.	From 15s. to 20s. each vessel.

CHARGES ON SHIPPING

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Dues and Charges.	Rate.		
	Vessels taking Refuge in the Harbour.	Vessels delivering Cargo, in Whole or in Part.	Vessels in the Foreign and Coasting Trade.
Whitby Pier duty	-	-	1d. per chaldron on all coals and cinders, outwards; all ships alike.
Bridlington Pier duty	-	-	1d. per 24 tons of coals, outwards; a passing toll; all ships alike.
Dover Harbour duty	-	1d. per chaldron on coals; 1 1/2d. per register ton on vessels carrying goods; a passing toll; all ships alike.	The same.
Hammgate Harbour duty	-	1d. per chaldron on coals; 2d. per register ton on vessels carrying goods; a passing toll; all ships alike.	The same.
Dues of the Newcastle Trinity-House	-	-	Under 100 tons, 11d. per ship; Under 200 tons, 1s. 1d. per ship; Under 300 tons, 1s. 3d. per ship; Above 300 tons, 1s. 6d. per ship, outwards, with cargoes. Unprivileged ships, 5s. per ship. The same.
Fair Way buoys	-	1s. per ship, paid each way, passing with a cargo; all ships alike.	The same.
Pilotage	-	From 1st April to 1st October, 1s. 5d. per foot. From 1st October to 1st April, 1s. 6d. per foot. Unprivileged ships 6d. per foot extra. No charge.	The same.
Ballast	-	-	-

SWANSEA.

Port or Creek.	Harbour Dues, &c.	Local Lights.	Charges for Ballast, &c.	Whether under any Board, &c.
Port of Swansea	1d. per ton register harbour dues on all vessels, whether foreign or British, or engaged in foreign or the coasting trade, or in ballast. And further for keelage and layage, each vessel: under 100 tons, 1s. 8d. ea. above 100 tons, loaded or not, 2s. ea. above 100 tons, bound foreign, 3s. 6d. ea. above 100 tons, foreign ship, 7s. ea. If carrying coals under with copper ore, 1d. per ton on cargo extra.	NIL.	1d. per ton register at the West Pier. 1d. if at the East Pier, or if the ballast be discharged into another vessel.	Trustees of the Harbour.
Creek of Neath	1d. per ton, and 1s. 6d. each vessel. 3d. per ton on all vessels.	NIL.	No specific charge.	Ditto.
Creek of Port Talbot	2d. per ton on all ships.	NIL.	6d. per ton of ballast.	Ditto.
Creek of Porthcawl	And further for the use of the pilot boat: 1s. if under 50 tons. 2s. if above 50 tons. 3s. if above 100 tons.	NIL.	-	Ditto.

N.B. — Vessels entering the harbour of Swansea in distress are charged 2d. per ton register only, but in respect to other dues the full charge.

Pilotage.

Swansea.		Neath.				Port Talbot.				Porthcawl.	
Register Tonnage.	In or Out.	Register Tonnage.	Over the Bar, to or from the Crane, &c.	Over the Bar, to or from the Coal Bank, the Copper Works, &c.	Over the Bar, to or from Neath Innyrdan Wharf or Neath Bridge.	Register Tonnage.	To their Destinations, if in the Tide in 3 1/2 hours.	To Sea, from their Berths, if in the Tide in 3 1/2 hours.	Register Tonnage.	In or Out.	
30 to 50	2 s. 6 d.	10	4 0 0	4 6 0	6 0 0	25 to 40	4 0 0	3 0 0	Under 30	2 6 0	
under 25	0 9 0	50	6 0 0	6 6 0	7 0 0	under 50	4 0 0	3 0 0	30 to 50	3 0 0	
—	100 0 11 6	—	6 0 0	7 0 0	8 0 0	—	5 0 0	4 0 0	—	7 0 0	
—	125 0 12 0	—	6 6 0	7 6 0	8 6 0	—	6 0 0	5 0 0	—	100 0 0	
—	150 0 13 6	—	7 0 0	8 0 0	9 0 0	—	6 6 0	5 6 0	—	125 0 0	
—	175 0 14 6	—	7 6 0	8 6 0	9 6 0	—	7 0 0	6 0 0	—	150 0 0	
—	200 0 15 0	—	8 0 0	9 0 0	10 0 0	—	7 6 0	6 6 0	—	175 0 0	
—	250 1 0 6	—	8 6 0	9 6 0	10 6 0	—	8 0 0	7 0 0	—	200 0 0	
—	300 1 5 6	—	9 0 0	10 0 0	11 0 0	—	8 6 0	7 6 0	—	250 0 0	
—	350 1 10 0	—	9 6 0	10 6 0	11 6 0	—	9 0 0	8 0 0	—	300 0 0	
—	400 1 15 0	—	10 0 0	11 0 0	12 0 0	—	9 6 0	8 6 0	—	350 0 0	
—	—	above 300	30 0 0	33 0 0	36 0 0	—	350 40 0	40 0 0	—	400 0 0	

TACON.

Vessels under 12 tons register	-	0 0 1 0
12 tons and under 15, per ton	-	0 0 1 4
15	-	0 0 1 8
20 and upwards	-	0 0 2

All vessels, whether in the coasting or foreign trade, whether with or without cargoes, or put into the harbour for refuge, pay the above rates.

Charges levied by the Duke of Portland.

Wharf Dues, per 20 tons register	-	0 0 6
Discharging ballast, per ton	-	0 0 4
Discharging limestone, per ton	-	0 0 6

HAWSER MONEY ON EACH VESSEL, AS FOLLOWS: viz.

Vessels under 20 tons register	-	0 0 3
20 tons and under 50	-	0 0 6
50 tons and under 100	-	0 0 1 0
100	-	0 0 1 4
200	-	0 0 1 8
300	-	0 0 2
400	-	0 0 2 6
500	-	0 0 3 0
600 tons and upwards	-	0 0 3 6

Double the above rates are charged if the hawser is used.

Pilotage: 1d. per ton register on all vessels above 45 tons register.
 No charge for local lights.
 Foreign vessels are charged double these rates.

WATERFORD.

Tonnage Duty.

On British vessels with goods or ballast, 5d. per ton register, on British vessels coal taken, 2d. per ton register, on British vessels, 50 tons register and upwards, from any port in Ireland, 1d. per ton register. On all foreign vessels, double the above rates.

Ballast Dues.

For every ton of ballast brought alongside by lighters 1s. per ton. 1s. 10d. per ton, discharged by lighters - 5d. - 1s. 4d. - delivered at ballast quay - 5d. - 1s. 6d. - discharged at ditto - 5d. - 1s. 4d. - limestone supplied - 1s. 6d. - 1s. 4d. -

Pilotage. - Every vessel entering the harbour of Waterford, between the 25th day of March and 29th day of September, drawing 12 feet and upwards, for every foot of her draught pays as follows: - vis.

Taking Pilots at the following Places.		Above Arden Head, and no further than Passage.		To Check Point, or Glasshouse Reach, and no further.		Above Glasshouse Reach, or up to Waterford.	
		British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Westward.	Eastward.						
Great Newtown Head	Salterns - - -	1 4	2 8	2 5	4 1	3 5	5 3
Foliskirt - - -	Bag and Bun Head -	1 0	2 5	1 11	3 8	3 1	4 9
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Foliskirt or Bag and Bun Head.		0 8	1 9	1 8	2 2	2 0	4 4
Every vessel of the above class entering said harbour between the 29th September and 25th March, pays for every foot of her draught as follows: - vis. -							
Great Newtown Head	Salterns - - -	1 0	2 2	2 8	4 7	3 10	5 8
Foliskirt - - -	Bag and Bun Head -	1 4	2 8	2 3	4 1	3 5	5 3
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Foliskirt or Bag and Bun Head.		1 0	2 5	1 11	3 8	3 1	4 9
Every vessel entering said harbour between the 25th March and 29th September, which shall draw more than 5 feet and less than 12 feet water, shall pay as follows: - vis. -							
Great Newtown Head	Salterns - - -	0 10	2 3	1 7	3 2	2 7	4 4
Foliskirt - - -	Bag and Bun Head -	0 8	1 9	1 5	2 8	2 5	3 10
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Foliskirt or Bag and Bun Head.		0 8	1 6	0 10	2 5	2 2	3 5
Every vessel of the above class entering said harbour between the 29th September and 25th March, shall pay for every foot of her draught the following rates: - vis. -							
Great Newtown Head	Salterns - - -	1 4	2 8	2 0	3 8	3 1	4 9
Foliskirt - - -	Bag and Bun Head -	1 0	2 5	1 5	3 2	2 11	4 4
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Foliskirt or Bag and Bun Head.		0 10	1 9	1 8	2 8	2 7	3 10

Vessels taking refuge in this harbour are subject to no other charge than pilotage, at the above-named rates. Vessels not exceeding 50 tons register, arriving from or sailing to any port in Ireland, are not required to take pilots or pay tonnage duty. Vessels laden, two-thirds laden, or having 20 tons potatoes, with any other goods on board, arriving at the port of Waterford, and retailing same at the quay, are not charged any of the above-named rates and duties.

Water Bailiff's Fees.

Late Currency. Tonnage dues on British and foreign vessels 1d. per ton. Anchorage for vessels not exceeding 50 tons register - 1s. 6d. each vessel. Ditto, exceeding 50 and not exceeding 50 tons register - 2s. 6d. Ditto, exceeding 50 tons register, and upwards - 5s.

Collars requiring the use of beams, scales, and weights, are supplied with same at the following rates: - vis. - For every vessel not exceeding 50 tons register, for use of each set of beams, scales, and weights - 3 0 Ditto, exceeding 50 and not exceeding 100 tons register, ditto - 4 0 Ditto - 100 - 150, ditto, ditto - 5 0

Waterford.

Dues and Charges.	Tonnage.	Ballast.	Pilotage.
	Per Ton.	Per Ton.	Per Ton.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
For every vessel which shall enter within the limits of said harbour, and be entitled to the privileges of a British ship, upon every ton such vessel shall measure - - -	0 0 5		
For every vessel not so entitled - - - - -	0 1 0		
For every ton of ballast taken in by any vessel (though the act be 1s. 5d. per ton), there is however at present only levied - - - - -		0 0 10	
For every ton of ballast discharged from any vessel - - - - -		0 0 2	
For every vessel discharging and receiving cargo, upon every ton such vessel shall measure - - - - -			0 0 5
For every vessel that shall enter into the harbour or leave the same in ballast, or shall discharge her cargo, or any part thereof, without taking in any new cargo, or shall, without discharging her cargo or any part thereof, take in new cargo, then, in any of these cases, for every ton such vessel shall measure - - - - -			0 0 4
For every vessel taking refuge in the harbour - - - - -			0 0 2
Steam vessels liable only to one half the forsaidd rates of pilotage.			

Waterford.

Charges on Vessels in the Foreign and Coasting Trade.

Harbour Tonnage Dues. Inwards. On vessels with goods, in whole or in part, or in ballast, viz: From any port of Great Britain, Ireland and Isle of Man, per ton register - 0 0 5d From any other port of Europe, the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, the Faro Isles, and Iceland, per ton register - 0 0 10 From any part of Asia, Africa, or America, to the northward of the river La Plata inclusive, and to the northward of the Cape of Good Hope, the

Ilands of St. Helena, Ascension, Cape de Verde & d. Azores, Newfoundland, Greenland, and Davis' Straits, per ton register - 0 1 2d From any part of South America to the southward of the La Plata, in the Pacific Ocean, in Africa and Asia, to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, per ton register - 0 1 7 Outwards. To any part of Great Britain and Ireland and Isle of Man - nil. To any other part of the world, viz: With goods, per ton register - 0 0 4d With ballast, per ton register - 0 0 2d

For every ton of ballast...
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Pilotage.
Inwards and outwards.
There are no established charges, but made by verbal agreement with the pilots, and vary from 1*l.* to 3*l.*, according to the size of the vessel.

Ballast.
For every ton discharged, either from foreign or coastwise, 6*d.*
Outwards - nil.
Local Lights and Beacons. - nil.
2*d.* per ton register per annum, foreign or coastwise.

Harbour Boat.
Inwards, foreign.
For each vessel under 120 tons register - 2*s.* 6*d.*
For ditto above 120 tons register - 0*s.* 7*d.*
Coasters, inwards.
For every vessel 120 tons register and upwards and less in proportion. - 0*s.* 5*d.*
Outwards - nil.

Charges on Vessels taking Refuge only.
Harbour Tonnage Dues.
From any port of Great Britain, Ireland, and Isle of Man, per ton register - 0*s.* 0*d.* 3*d.*
From any other part of Europe, the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, the Faro Isles, and Iceland, per ton register - 0*s.* 0*d.* 7*d.*

From any part of Asia, Africa, or America, to the northward of the river La Plata inclusive, and to the northward of the Cape of Good Hope; the Islands of St. Helena, Ascension, Cape de Verde Islands, Canaries, Western Islands, Madeira, Azores, Newfoundland, Greenland, and Java's Straits, per ton register - 0*s.* 0*d.* 10*d.*
From any part of South America to the southward of Rio La Plata, in the Pacific Ocean, in Africa and Asia, to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope - 0*s.* 1*d.* 1*d.*

Pilotage.
There are no established charges, but made by verbal agreement with the pilots, and vary from 1*l.* to 3*l.*, according to the size of the vessel.

Local Lights and Beacons.
2*d.* per ton register per annum, either foreign or coastwise.

Harbour Boat.
Inwards, foreign.
For each vessel under 120 tons register - 0*s.* 5*d.* 0*d.*
For ditto above 120 tons register - 0*s.* 7*d.* 0*d.*
Coasters, inwards.
For every vessel 120 tons register and upwards and less in proportion. - 0*s.* 5*d.* 0*d.*
Outwards - nil.

Wharves.

Rates of Dues.		Vessels, with their Tonnage.	Harbour Dues to Trustees of the Pier.	Harbour Dues to the Lord of the Manor.	Pilotage In and Out.	Ballast.	Total.
Vessels in Foreign and Coasting Trade, with or without Cargoes.							
Harbour Dues.			Vessels with Cargo In, and Ballast out.				
Per vessel -	1 0	300	£ 2 0	0 0	£ 2 4	0 0	£ 4 4
Per ton -	0 4	300	0 1 8	0 1 4	1 19 0	3 11 -	7 9 3
Per ship, loaded -	1 4	100	0 1 8	0 1 4	1 13 0	3 10 0	5 6 0
Per ship, light -	0 8	50	0 1 0	0 1 4	0 6 0	1 10 0	3 18 0
Pilotage.							
In the winter months, draught of water, per foot -	1 6	300	0 2 0	0 0 8	1 10 0	-	1 18 8
In summer, per foot -	1 3	300	0 1 8	0 0 8	1 10 0	-	1 6 4
Ballast.							
Sand taken from the harbour with the sanction of the lord of the manor and trustees of the pier, and a charge made of 1 <i>s.</i> per ton to pay the expense.		50	0 1 4	0 0 8	1 1 0	-	1 3 0
			0 1 0	0 0 8	0 15 0	-	0 10 8
No charge for local lights or beacons.							

Wares.

Nature of the Dues.	Particulars and Rates.
Harbour dues -	On every vessel in the Foreign or Coasting trade, being British, or Foreign privileged: £ s. d. If under 15 tons, per ton - 0 0 1 If 15 to 45 tons, per register ton - 0 0 2 45 tons and upwards, per register ton - 0 0 3 Vessels in ballast, per ton - 0 0 3 Foreign vessels not privileged, double rates - 0 0 6
Pilotage -	All vessels, in and out, per ton register - 0 0 3
Lights -	The same rates for Scotch, English, and Irish lights as at other ports. No local lights.

YARMOUTH.

Dues upon Vessels delivering Cargoes.
3*d.* per ton hitherto per register of such vessel, and an additional 6*d.* per ton upon her first entry in each and every year, and also 1*s.* for every vessel for the use of the pier-master.

N.B.— Fishing vessels, with their catch of fish, are exempted (except fishing vessels not belonging to the port of Great Yarmouth, which shall pay 1*s.* for the use of the pier-master). Foreign vessels to pay double the duties, except such as are privileged, which pay the like rates only as are payable by vessels having British registers.

Dues upon Vessels taking Refuge.
3*d.* per ton hitherto per register of such vessels, and an additional 6*d.* per ton upon her first entry in each and every year, to be paid but once in respect of the same voyage on which the first dues have been paid by such vessel, and 1*s.* for the pier-master.

Foreign vessels to pay double the duties, except such vessels as are privileged by His Majesty's most honourable privy council to enter ports of the Kingdom upon paying the same duties of tonnage as are paid by British vessels, in which case such vessels shall pay the like rates only as are payable by vessels having British registers.

Fishing vessels (except fishing vessels belonging to the port of Great Yarmouth) to pay 1*s.* only for the use of the pier-master.

Charges for Pilotage in and out of the Haven, and also the Gateways or Channels.
Into and Out of the Haven. Per Foot. £ s. d.
Vessels drawing 8 feet water and under 9 feet - 0 1 6
- - - - - 0 1 9

Vessels drawing	feet water and under	£ s. d.
9	feet water and under 10 feet	0 0 0
10		0 0 0
11		0 0 0
12		0 0 0
13		0 0 0
14		0 0 0
15		0 0 0

And an additional 2*l.* 10*s.* per cent. above the above rates.

Ships not having British registers to pay one-fourth more than ships with British registers, except vessels privileged by His Majesty's privy council, in which case such vessels not having British registers shall pay the like rates of pilotage only as are payable by ships having British registers.

From sea through	any of the channels into Yarmouth	14 feet draught of water	£ s. d.
From sea through any of the channels into Yarmouth		5 5 0	5 5 0
From sea through any of the channels into Yarmouth	under 14	-	3 10 0
Outwards from the roads	under 14	-	3 10 0
	under 14	-	3 10 0

Charges for Ballast.
5*d.* per ton for every ton of ballast which is brought alongside of the vessel in lighters, and if it is put on board by the lightermen, an additional 6*d.* per ton for heaving.

Local lights and beacons - nil.

PIMENTO, ALLSPICE, or JAMAICA PEPPER (Fr. *Poivre de Jamaïque*; Ger. *Nelkenpfeffer*; It. *Piment*), the fruit of the *Myrtus pimenta*, a beautiful tree which grows in great plenty on the hills on the north side of Jamaica. The berries are spherical, and, when ripe, of a black or dark purple colour. But, as the pulp is in this state moist and glutinous, the berries are plucked when green; and being exposed in the sun to dry, they lose their green colour, and become of a reddish brown. They are packed in bags and hogsheds for the European market. The more fragrant and smaller

they are, the better are they accounted. They have an aromatic, agreeable odour, resembling that of a mixture of cinnamon, cloves, and nutmegs, with the warm, pungent taste of the cloves. Pimento is used in medicine; but its principal use is in the seasoning of soups and other dishes.

"The returns," says Mr. Bryan Edwards, "from a pimento walk in a favourable season are prodigious. A single tree has been known to yield 100 lbs. of the raw fruit, or 100 lbs. of the dried spice; there being commonly a loss in weight of $\frac{1}{4}$ in curing; but this, like many other of the minor productions, is exceedingly uncertain, and perhaps a very plentiful crop occurs but once in 3 years. The price in the British market, as may be supposed, fluctuates accordingly; but I believe its average for some years past may be set down at 7d. per lb., exclusive of the duty (3d.)." — (Vol. II. p. 372. ed. 1819.) The price of pimento in bond, in the London market, has varied in late years from 4d. to 5½d per lb.

At the period when Kilward's work was published, the annual imports of pimento from Jamaica, which supplies more than 9-10ths of the pimento brought to England, amounted to about 672,000 lbs., and were decreasing every year — (*loc. cit.*). But at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the annual imports were 2,349,863 lbs.; and in 1833 they amounted to 4,844,973 lbs.; since then, however, there has been a considerable falling off in the imports, which in 1841 were only 1,013,400 lbs. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Pimento entered for Consumption in the U. Kingdom, during each of the 3 Years ending with 1842, and of the Amount of the Duties thereon.

Quantities.			Duties.		
1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Cwts. 3,031	Cwts. 4,654	Cwts. 4,074	£ 4,377	£ 5,900	£ 1,846
			s. d. 9 7	s. d. 19 1	s. d. 1 4

The duty on pimento, which amounted, when the former edition of this work was published, to 5d. per lb., was reduced in 1830 to 3d. per lb., and in 1842 to 2s. a cwt. Its price averages in the London market from 2½d. to 3d. per lb., ex. duty.

PINCHBECK (Ger. *Tomback*; I. u. *Tombak*; Fr. *Tambac*, *Similor*; It. *Tombacco*; Sp. *Tambac*, *Tumbatga*), a name given to one of the many imitations of gold. By melting zinc in various proportions with copper or brass, some alloys result, the colours of which approach more or less to that of gold. This composition is frequently employed as a substitute for gold, in the formation of watch-cases, and various other articles of a like description. Pinchbeck is sometimes called *Tambac*, and sometimes *Similor*, and *Petit-or*.

PINE, or **FIR**, a species of forest tree, next, if not superior, to the oak, in point of utility and value. There are above 20 species of pine. They do not bear flat leaves, but a species of spines, which, however, are real leaves. They are mostly, though not all, evergreens; but the numberance of the tree, as well as the quality of the timber, varies with the species, and also with the situation in which it grows. Generally speaking, the timber is hardest and best in exposed cold situations, and where its growth is slow. We shall only notice those species, the timber of which is most in use in this country.

1. **SCOTCH PINE** (*Pinus sylvestris*) is a native of the Scotch mountains, and of most northern parts of Europe; being common in Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Lapland. It is straight, abruptly branched, rising in favourable situations to the height of 80 or 90 feet, and being from 3 to 4 feet in diameter. It is at perfection when 70 or 80 years old. The colour of the wood differs considerably; it is generally of a reddish yellow, or of a honey yellow, of various degrees of brightness. It has no larger transverse septa, and it has a strong resinous odour and taste. In the best timber, the annual rings are thin, not exceeding $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch in thickness; and the dark parts of the rings of a bright reddish colour; the wood hard and dry to the feel, neither leaving a woolly surface after the saw, nor filling its teeth with resin. The best Norway is the finest of this kind, and the best Riga and Memel are not much inferior. The inferior sorts have thick annual rings; in some, the dark parts of the ring are of a honey yellow, the wood heavy, and filled with a soft resinous matter, feels clammy, and chokes the saw. Timber of this kind is not durable, nor fit for bearing strains. In some inferior species, the wood is spongy, contains less resinous matter, and presents a woolly surface after the saw. Swedish timber is often of this kind.

Scotch fir is the most durable of the pine species. It was the opinion of the celebrated Mr. Brindley, "that red Riga deal, or pine wood, would endure as long as oak in all situations." Its lightness and stiffness render it superior to any other material for beams, girders, joists, rafters, &c. It is much used in joiners' work, as it is more easily wrought, stands better, is much cheaper, and is nearly, if not quite, as durable as oak.

Scotch fir is exported from Norway and Sweden, under the name of *redwood*. Norway exports no trees above 18 inches diameter, consequently there is much sapwood; but the heart wood is both stronger and more durable than that of larger trees from other situations. Riga exports a considerable quantity under the name of *masts* and *spar*: pieces from 18 to 25 inches diameter are called *masts*, and are usually 70 or 80 feet in length; those of less than 18 inches diameter are called *spar*s. — (See **ROA**.) Yellow

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deals and planks are imported from various parts of Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Russia, &c. Tar, pitch, and turpentine are obtained from the Scotch fir. — (See these titles.) When the tree has attained to a proper age, it is not injured by the extraction of these products.

2. **SPRUCE PINE.** — Of this there are 3 species: the Norway spruce, or *Pinus abies*; white spruce, or *Pinus alba*; and black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*. These are noble trees, rising in straight stems from 150 to 200 feet in height. They yield the timber known by the name of *white fir*, or *deal*, from its always being imported in deals or planks.

Deals imported from Christiania are in the highest estimation. — (See CHRISTIANIA.) The trees are usually cut into 3 lengths, generally of about 12 feet each: and are afterwards cut into deals by saw-mills, each length yielding 3 deals. The Norway spruce thrives very well in Britain, and produces timber little inferior to the foreign: it is somewhat softer, and the knots are extremely hard.

The white spruce, or *Pinus alba*, is brought from British North America. The wood is not so resinous as the Norway spruce: it is tougher, lighter, and more liable to twist in drying.

The black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*, is also an American tree; but it is not much imported into this country. The black and white spruce derive their names from the colour of the bark; the wood of both being of the same colour.

The colour of spruce fir, or white deal, is yellowish or brownish white; the hard part of the annual ring a darker shade of the same colour; it often has a silky lustre, especially in the American and British grown kinds. Each annual ring consists of two parts; the one hard, the other softer. The knots are generally very hard. The clear and straight-grained kinds are often tough, but not very difficult to work, and stand extremely well when properly seasoned. White deal, as imported, shrinks about $\frac{1}{3}$ th part in becoming quite dry.

3. **WYMOUTH PINE, OR WHITE PINE (*Pinus strobus*),** is a native of North America, and is imported in large logs, often more than 2 feet square and 30 feet in length. It is one of the largest and most useful of the American trees, and makes excellent masts; but it is not durable, nor fit for large timbers, being very subject to dry rot. It has a peculiar odour.

4. **SILVER FIR (*Pinus picea*)** is a native of the mountains of Siberia, Germany, and Switzerland, and is common in British plantations. It is a large tree, and yields the Strasburg turpentine. The wood is of good quality, and much used on the Continent both for carpentry and ship building. The harder fibres are of a yellow colour, compact, and resinous; the softer nearly white. Like the other kinds of fir, it is light and stiff, and does not bend much under a considerable load; consequently, floors constructed of it remain permanently level. It is subject to the worm. It has been said to last longer in the air than in the water; and, therefore, to be fitter for the upper parts of bridges, than for piles and piers.

5. **LARCH (*Pinus larix*).** There are 3 species of this valuable tree; 1 European, and 2 American. The variety from the Italian Alps is the most esteemed, and has lately been extensively introduced into plantations in Great Britain. It is a straight and lofty tree, of rapid growth. A tree 79 years of age was cut down at Blair Athol, in 1817, which contained 252 cubic feet of timber; and one of 80 years of age, at Dunkeld, measured 300 cubic feet. The mean size of the trunk of the larch may be taken at 45 feet in length, and 33 inches diameter. The wood of the European larch is generally of a honey yellow colour, the hard part of the annual rings of a redder cast; sometimes it is brownish white. In common with the other species of pine, each annual ring consists of a hard and a soft part. It generally has a silky lustre; its colour is browner than that of the Scotch pine, and it is much tougher. It is more difficult to work than Riga or Memel timber; but the surface is better when once it is obtained. It bears driving bolts and nails better than any other species of resinous wood. When perfectly dry, it stands well; but it warps much in seasoning.

It is in all situations extremely durable. It is useful for every purpose of building, whether external or internal; it makes excellent ship timber, masts, boats, posts, rails, and furniture. It is peculiarly adapted for flooring boards, in situations where there is much wear, and for staircases: in the latter, its fine colour, when rubbed with oil, is much preferable to that of the black oaken staircases to be seen in some old mansions. It is well adapted for doors, shutters, and the like; and, from the beautiful colour of its wood when varnished, painting is not necessary. — (We have abstracted these particulars from Mr. Tredgold's excellent work, *The Principles of Carpentry*, pp. 209—217.)

PINE-APPLE, OR ANANAS, though a tropical fruit, is now extensively cultivated in hothouses in this country, and is well known to every one. When of a good sort and healthy, it is the most luscious, and, perhaps, the best fruit that this country produces; and when carefully cultivated, is superior in point of quality to that produced in the West Indies. A pine-apple raised at Stackpool Court, Pembrokeshire, and

served up at the coronation dinner of George IV., weighed 14 lbs. 8 oz. — (*Vegetable Substances*, p. 379., *Lib. Entert. Knowledge*.)

PINT, a measure used chiefly in the measuring of liquids. The word is High Dutch, and signifies a little measure of wine. The English pint used to be of 2 sorts; the one for wine, the other for beer and ale. Two pints make a quart; 2 quarts a pottle; 2 pottles a gallon, &c. The pint, Imperial liquid measure, contains 34·659 cubic inches.

PIPE, a wine measure, usually containing 105 (very nearly) Imperial, or 126 wine gallons. Two pipes, or 210 Imperial gallons, make a tun. But, in practice, the size of the pipe varies according to the description of wine it contains. Thus, a pipe of port contains 138 wine gallons, of sherry 150, of Lisbon and Bucellas 140, of Madeira 110, and of Vidonia 120. The pipe of port, it is to be observed, is seldom accurately 138 gallons, and it is usual to charge what the vessel actually contains.

PIPE-CLAY, a species of clay abounding in Devonshire, and other parts of England, employed in the manufacture of various sorts of earthenware, and in bleaching.

PIRACY, consists in committing those acts of robbery and violence upon the seas, that, if committed upon land, would amount to felony.

Pirates hold no commission or delegated authority from any sovereign or state, empowering them to attack others. They can, therefore, be only regarded in the light of robbers or assassins. They are, as Cicero has truly stated, the common enemies of all (*communes hostes omnium*); and the law of nations gives to every one the right to pursue and exterminate them without any previous declaration of war; but it is not allowed to kill them without trial, except in battle. Those who surrender, or are taken prisoners, must be brought before the proper magistrates, and dealt with according to law.

By the ancient common law of England, piracy, if committed by a *subject*, was held to be a species of treason, being contrary to his natural allegiance; and, by an *alien*, to be felony only: but since the statute of treasons (25 Edw. 3. c. 2.), it is held to be only felony in a subject. Formerly this offence was only cognisable by the admiralty courts, which proceed by the rules of the civil law; but it being inconsistent with the liberties of the nation that any man's life should be taken away, unless by the judgment of his peers, the statute 28 Hen. 8. c. 15. established a new jurisdiction for this purpose, which proceeds according to the course of common law.

It was formerly a question whether the Algerines, and other African states, should be considered pirates: but, however exceptional their conduct might have been on many occasions, and however hostile their policy might be to the interests of humanity, still, as they had been subjected to what may be called regular governments, and had been admitted to enter into treaties with other powers, they could not be treated as pirates.

Pirates having no right to make conquests, or to seize upon what belongs to others, capture by them does not divest the owner of his property. At a very early period of our history, a law was made for the restitution of property taken by pirates, if found within the realm, whether belonging to strangers or Englishmen: but any foreigner suing upon this statute must prove that, at the time of the capture, his own sovereign and the sovereign of the captor were in mutual amity; for it is held that piracy cannot be committed by the subjects of states at war with each other.

Piracy was almost universally practised in the heroic ages. Instead of being esteemed infamous, it was supposed to be honourable. — (*Latrocinium maris gloria habebatur*. — *Justin*. lib. xliiii. c. 3.) Menelaus, in the *Odyssey*, does not hesitate to inform his guests, who admired his riches, that they were the fruit of his piratical expeditions — (lib. iv. ver. 90.); and such, indeed, was the way in which most of the Greek princes amassed great wealth. — (*Goguet*, *Origin of Laws*, vol. i. p. 383. Eng. trans.)

The prevalence of this piratical spirit in these early ages may, perhaps, be explained by the infinite number of small independent states into which the country was divided, and the violent animosity constantly subsisting amongst them. In this way ferocious and predatory habits were universally diffused and kept alive; and it is not to be supposed that those who were at all times liable to be attacked by hosts of enemies, should very accurately examine the grounds upon which they attacked others. According, however, as a more improved system of government grew up, Greece, and a few states, as Athens, Corinth, &c., had attained to distinction by their naval power, piracy was made a capital offence: but though repressed, it was never entirely put down. Cilicia was at all times the great stronghold of the pirates of antiquity: and in consequence of the decline of the maritime forces of Athens, Rhodes, &c., which had kept them in check, they increased so much in numbers and audacity as to insult the majesty of Rome herself; so that it became necessary to send Pompey against them, with a large fleet and army, and more extensive powers than had been ever previously conferred on any Roman general.

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During the anarchy of the middle ages, when every baron considered himself a sort of independent prince, entitled to make war on others, piracy was universally practised. The famous Hanseatic League was formed chiefly for the purpose of protecting the ships of the confederated cities from the attacks of the pirates by which the Baltic was then infested. The nuisance was not finally abated in Europe till the feudal system had been subverted, and the ascendancy of the law everywhere secured. In more modern times, some of the smaller West India islands have been the great resort of pirates: latterly, however, they have been driven from most of their haunts in that quarter. They are still not unfrequently met with in the Indian seas east of Sumatra.

Besides those acts of robbery and depredation upon the high seas, which, at common law, constitute piracy, some other offences have been included under that term. Thus, by the stat. 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7., if any natural-born subject commits any act of hostility upon the high seas against others of his Majesty's subjects, under colour of a commission from any foreign power, this, though it would only be an act of war in an alien, shall be construed piracy in a subject. And further, any commander or other seafaring person betraying his trust, and running away with any ship, boat, ordnance, ammunition, or goods, or yielding them up voluntarily to a pirate, or conspiring to do these acts; or any person assaulting the commander of a vessel, to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship, or confining him, or causing or endeavouring to cause a revolt on board, shall for each of these offences be adjudged a pirate, felon, and robber, and shall suffer death, whether he be principal, or merely accessory by setting forth such pirates, or abetting them before the fact, or receiving them, or concealing them or their goods after it; and the stat. 4 Geo. 1. c. 2. expressly excludes the principals from the benefit of clergy. By the stat. 8 Geo. 1. c. 24., the trading with known pirates, or furnishing them with stores or ammunition, or fitting out any vessel for that purpose, or in any wise consulting, combining, confederating, or corresponding with them; or the forcibly boarding any merchant vessel, though without seizing or carrying her off, and destroying or throwing any of the goods on board, shall be deemed piracy; and such accessories to piracy as are described by the statute of King William are declared to be principal pirates, and all pirates convicted by virtue of this act are made felons without benefit of clergy. To encourage the defence of merchant vessels against pirates, the commanders and seamen wounded, and the widows of such seamen as are slain in any engagement with pirates, are entitled to a bounty, to be divided among them, not exceeding the one-fiftieth part of the value of the cargo saved; and the wounded seamen are entitled to the pension of Greenwich Hospital. — (11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7.; 8 Geo. 1. c. 24.) The first of these statutes also enacts, that if any master or inferior officer of any English ship decline or refuse to fight when commanded by the master, or shall utter any words to discourage the other mariners from defending the same, he shall lose all the wages due to him, together with such goods as he hath in the ship, and be imprisoned and kept to hard labour for 6 months.

The 8 Geo. 4. c. 49. enacts that a bounty shall be paid to the officers and crews of such of his Majesty's ships of war as may be engaged in the actual taking, sinking, burning, or otherwise destroying any vessel or boat manned by pirates, of 20*l.* for each pirate taken or killed during the attack, and of 5*l.* for every other man of the crew not taken or killed, who shall have been alive on board the said piratical vessel at the attack thereof.

The same statute (§ 3.) enacts that vessels and other property taken from pirates, proved to have belonged to any of his Majesty's subjects, are to be delivered up to them, on their paying a sum of money as salvage, equal to 1-8th part of the true value of the same.

PISTACHIA OR **PISTACHIO NUTS** (Ger. *Pistachens*; Du. *Pistajujs*; Fr. *Pistaches*; It. *Pistacchi*, *Fastucchi*; Sp. *Afocigos*; Lat. *Pistacia*), the fruit of the *Pistachia vera*, a kind of turpentine tree. It grows naturally in Arabia, Persia, and Syria; also in Sicily, whence the nuts are annually brought to us. They are oblong and pointed, about the size and shape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greenish colour, covered with a yellowish or reddish skin. They have a pleasant, sweetish, unctuous taste, resembling that of sweet almonds; their principal difference from which consists in their having a greater degree of sweetness, accompanied with a light grateful flavour, and in being more oily. Pistachias imported from the East are superior to those raised in Europe. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

PITCH (Ger. *Pech*; Fr. *Poir*, *Brai*; It. *Pece*; Sp. *Pez*; Rus. *Smola gustija*), the residuum which remains on inspissating tar, or boiling it down to dryness. It is extensively used in ship building, and for other purposes. Large quantities are manufactured in Great Britain; but exclusive of these, 13,284 cwts. imported from foreign countries were entered for consumption in 1841; and as the duty, which was then 10*l.* a cwt., was reduced in 1842 to 6*l.*, a farther increase of consumption may be anticipated.

An allowance is to be made for tare on pitch, of 33 lbs. each on Archangel casks, 3*l* lbs. each on Swedish do., and 56 lbs. each on American do.

PLANE, a forest tree, of which there are 2 species; the Oriental plane (*Platanus Orientalis*), and the Occidental plane (*Platanus Occidentalis*.)

The Oriental plane is a native of the Levant, and other Eastern countries, and is considered one of the finest of trees. It grows to about 60 feet in height, and has been known to exceed 8 feet in diameter. Its wood is much like beech, but more figured, and is used for furniture and such like articles. The Occidental plane is a native of North America, and is one of the largest of the American trees, being sometimes more than 12 feet in diameter. The wood of the Occidental plane is harder than that of the Oriental. It is very durable in water.

The tree known by the name of plane in England, is the sycamore, or great maple (*Acer pseudo-platanus*). It is a large tree, grows quickly, and stands the sea spray better than most trees. The timber is very close and compact, easily wrought, and not liable either to splinter or warp. It is generally of a brownish white or yellowish white colour, and sometimes it is very beautifully curled and mottled. In this state it

takes a fine polish, and bears varnishing well. It is chiefly used in the manufacture of saddle trees, wooden dishes, and a variety of articles of furniture and machinery. When kept dry, and protected from worms, it is pretty durable; but it is quite as liable as beech to be attacked by them. — (*Tredgold*, p. 196.)

PLANKS (*Ger. and Du. Planken; Da. Planker; Sw. Plankor; Fr. Planches, Bordages; Rus. Tolstils clostks*), thick strong boards, cut from various kinds of wood, especially oak and pine. Planks are usually of the thickness of from 1 inch to 4. They are imported in large quantities from the northern parts of Europe, particularly from the ports of Christiania, Dantzic, Archangel, Petersburg, Narva, Revel, Riga, and Memel, as well as from several parts of North America.

PLANTAIN, or **BANANA**, the pulpy fruit of the *Musa paradisiaca*, an herbaceous plant, extensively cultivated in most intertropical countries, but especially in Mexico. It is not, like most other fruits, used merely as an occasional luxury, but is rather an established article of subsistence. Being long and extensively cultivated, it has diverged into numerous varieties, the fruit of which differs materially in size, flavour, and colour. That of some is not above 2 or 3 inches long, while that of others is not much short of a foot; some sorts are sweet, and of a flavour not unlike nor inferior to that of a good mellow pear; but the larger kind are, for the most part, coarse and farinaceous. The latter are either used fresh or dried in the sun, in which latter state they are occasionally ground into meal and made into bread. In Mexico, the sweeter sorts are frequently pressed and dried, as figs are in Europe; and, while they are not very inferior to the last mentioned fruit, they are infinitely cheaper.

"I doubt," says M. Humboldt, "whether there be any other plant that produces so great a quantity of nutritive substance in so small a space. Eight or 9 months after the sucker is planted, it begins to develop its cluster. The fruit may be gathered in the 10th or 11th month. When the stalk is cut, there is always found, among the numerous shoots that have taken root, a sprout (*pimpollo*), which, being 2-3ds the height of its parent plant, bears fruit 3 months later. Thus a plantation of bananas perpetuates itself, without requiring any care on the part of man, further than to cut the stalks when the fruit has ripened, and to stir the earth gently once or twice a year about the roots. A piece of ground of 100 square metres of surface will contain from 30 to 40 plants. During the course of a year this same piece of ground, reckoning the weight of the cluster at from 15 to 20 kilog. only, will yield 2,000 kilog., or more than 4,000 lbs. of nutritive substance. What a difference between this product and that of the cereal grasses in most parts of Europe! The same extent of land planted with wheat would not produce above 30 lbs.; and not more than 90 lbs. of potatoes. Hence the product of the banana is to that of wheat as 133 to 1, and to that of potatoes as 44 to 1." — (*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. ii., p. 388, 2d. ed.)

The banana forms a principal part of the food of the people of Mexico; and the apathy and indolence of the natives in the *tierras calientes*, or hot regions, has been ascribed, and probably with good reason, to the facility with which it supplies them with subsistence. It is by no means in such extensive use in tropical Asia; and comes nowhere in it into competition with corn as an article of food.

PLATE, the denomination usually given to gold and silver wrought into articles of household furniture.

In order partly to prevent fraud, and partly for the purpose of collecting a revenue, the manufacture of plate is placed under certain regulations. Those who carry it on are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually on the 31st of July. Assay offices are established in different places; and any one selling any article previously to its having been assayed and marked, forfeits 50*l.* — (*24 Geo. 3. c. 53.*) No plate is passed at the assay offices, unless it be of the fineness of the old standard or 11 oz. and 2 dwts., or of the new standard of 11 oz. and 10 dwts. Gold plate, with the exception of gold watch-cases, is to pay a duty of 1*7s.* an oz., and silver plate a duty of 1*s. 6d.*; but watch-cases, chains, tipplings, mountings, collars, bottle tickets, teaspoons, &c. are exempted. The 52 Geo. 3. c. 143. made the counterfeiting, or the transference from one piece of plate to another, of the marks, stamps, &c. impressed on plate by the assayers, felony without the benefit of clergy. But the offence is now punishable by transportation or imprisonment only. — (*1 Will. 4. c. 66.*)

The subjoined account (from *Porter's Progress of the Nation*, iii. 25.) gives a very complete view of the plate manufacture from 1800 downwards. It appears from it that the annual consumption of silver plate has increased from about 800,000 oz. at the commencement of the century, to about 1,050,000 oz. at present. Most persons may, perhaps, be inclined to think that this is not so great an increase as might have been anticipated from the increased wealth and population of the country. But it should be borne in mind that this account refers only to articles of standard silver and gold, and that the great consumption of the precious metals consists in plated and gilt articles, which are now made of a very superior quality. Owing also to the fact of old plate being held in the greatest estimation, but little of it is melted down to be remanufactured, so that the principal consumption is by new families. The returns for the year 1826, in the subjoined Table, afford a striking proof of this. During a considerable portion of that year a crowd of speculators, most of whom were previously worth little or nothing, believed they had made large fortunes, and launched out, with the proverbial ostentation of *parvenus*, into all sorts of lavish expenditure. Hence the wonderful increase in the demand for plate in the course of that year. No doubt, also, the consumption of plate appears less than it really is, from the facility with which the duties are evaded. We subjoin

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Account of the Number of Ounces of Gold and Silver Plate upon which Duty was paid, and for which Drawback was allowed, showing the Quantity retained for Home Use in each Year, from 8th January, 1800, to 8th January, 1841.

Year ended 8th January,	Duty paid on		Drawback allowed on		Retained for Home Use.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
1801	5,351	809,966	777	142,703	5,174	760,991
1802	4,819	965,966	19	114,923	4,600	811,259
1803	5,137	986,591	66	106,574	5,071	839,566
1804	5,445	1,048,969	91	99,993	5,433	948,574
1805	4,254	927,785	30	114,889	4,433	787,959
1806	4,406	1,056,933	9	120,083	4,399	934,511
1807	5,372	1,044,923	45	181,608	5,293	968,917
1808	6,055	1,141,419	20	131,850	6,036	1,009,999
1809	6,189	1,199,412	16	97,516	6,171	1,098,696
1810	6,381	1,471,968	53	86,998	6,328	1,471,092
1811	7,433	1,541,994	102	92,943	7,333	1,494,138
1812	6,812	1,194,738	34	60,334	6,778	1,093,436
1813	5,891	990,923	19	94,434	5,872	896,493
1814	6,115	917,897	34	85,518	6,081	830,899
1815	6,779	974,843	99	69,696	6,750	915,927
1816	7,498	1,047,968	19	108,174	7,479	916,484
1817	7,092	910,902	838	85,143	6,186	825,660
1818	5,227	1,080,949	2,001	106,417	3,229	974,139
1819	5,841	1,263,946	2,207	98,772	3,634	1,194,709
1820	6,037	1,230,104	1,807	116,007	4,230	1,113,907
1821	5,641	1,081,310	2,735	114,294	3,918	967,006
1822	5,932	1,069,761	1,438	189,830	5,298	969,539
1823	5,997	1,077,722	1,370	64,783	5,237	904,161
1824	6,316	1,073,814	80	87,016	6,496	978,228
1825	7,669	1,436,626	28	70,493	7,644	1,365,778
1826	8,486	1,585,454	81	112,017	8,405	1,473,237
1827	7,878	1,847,881	10	71,495	7,108	1,776,587
1828	7,266	1,807,897	10	60,610	7,256	1,747,777
1829	7,106	1,501,332	8	85,157	7,104	1,427,175
1830	6,841	1,571,988	16	109,907	6,829	1,461,415
1831	8,716	1,078,878	6	84,444	8,710	999,336
1832	4,274	886,032	9	100,127	4,265	735,393
1833	4,199	927,062	18	79,059	4,174	848,437
1834	4,434	879,117	2	73,003	4,432	807,112
1835	6,116	1,050,838	-	102,231	6,116	947,961
1836	6,878	1,071,098	16	107,847	6,862	963,719
1837	7,966	1,272,940	-	146,064	7,966	1,108,566
1838	6,811	1,179,568	4	177,359	6,807	1,002,099
1839	6,784	1,183,453	21	161,458	6,763	1,020,023
1840	6,873	1,470,390	7	135,923	6,868	1,334,467
1841	6,998	1,309,265	7	179,904	6,983	1,029,368

PLATINA, a metal which, in respect of scarcity, beauty, ductility, and indestructibility, is hardly inferior to gold, was unknown in Europe till about the middle of last century, when it began to be imported in small quantities from South America. It has since been discovered in Estremadura in Spain, and, more recently, in the Ural Mountains in Asiatic Russia, where it is now raised in very considerable quantities.

Platina is of a white colour, like silver, but not so bright, and has no taste or smell. Its hardness is intermediate between copper and iron. Its specific gravity is about 21.5, that of gold being 19.3; so that it is the heaviest body with which we are acquainted. It is exceedingly ductile and malleable; it may be hammered out into very thin plates, and drawn into wires not exceeding 1-1940th of an inch in diameter. In these properties it is probably superior to gold, but it seems to surpass all the other metals. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of platina 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 274.31 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. It is one of the most infusible of all metals; but pieces of it may be welded together without difficulty when heated to whiteness. It is not in the smallest degree altered by the action of air or water. — (Thomson's Chemistry.)

The late Dr. Wollaston discovered a method of fusing platina, and consequently, of rendering it easily available in the arts. The Russians have, within these few years, issued platina coins of the value of 3, 6, and 20 silver roubles. Platina first began to be an object of attention in Russia in 1824, when 1 pood 33 lbs. were collected. In 1836, the produce amounted to 138 poods 42 lbs. In 1831, a piece of native platina was discovered at Demidoff's gold mines, weighing 20 lbs. 24 zolts. — (Official Statements published by the Russian Government.)

PLATTING, slips of bast, cane, straw, &c. woven or plaited for making into hats, &c. — (See HATS, STRAW.)

PLUMS, the fruit of the *Prunus domestica*, are too well known to require any description. They were introduced into England in the 15th century, and are cultivated in all parts of the country. There are said to be nearly 300 varieties of plums.

PLUMBAGO. See BLACK LEAD.

POMEGRANATE, POMEGRANATES (Ger. *Granatäpfel*; Fr. *Grenades*; It. *Granati*, *Melagrani*; Sp. *Granadas*), the fruit of the pomegranate tree (*Punica granatum*). This tree, which grows to the height of 15 or 20 feet, appears to be a native of Persia, whence it has been conveyed, on the one side, to Southern Europe, and on the other to the tropical parts of Asia, and eventually to the New World. The fruit is a pulpy, many-seeded berry, the size of an orange, covered with a thick, brown, coriaceous rind. The pulp has a reddish colour, and a pleasant subacid taste. The value of the fruit depends on the smallness of the seed and the largeness of the pulp. The finest, called by the Persians, *badana*, or seedless, is imported into India from Caubul and Candahar, where the pomegranate grows in perfection. The tree thrives all the way to the equator; but, within the tropics, the fruit is hardly fit for use. The pomegranates brought to England from the south of Europe and the West Indies are very inferior to those of Persia. — (Private information.)

POPLAR (Ger. *Pappel*, *Pappelbaum*; Du. *Popelier*; Fr. *Peuplier*; It. *Poppa*;

Sp. *Alamo*; Lat. *Populus*). Of the poplar (*Populus* of botanists) there are about 15 species described; of these 5 are common in England; viz. the common or *White*, the *Black*, the *Aspen* or trembling poplar, the *Albata* or great white poplar, and the *Lombardy* poplar. In most favourable situations, the white poplar grows with great rapidity, sometimes sending forth shoots 16 feet long in a single season. The wood is soft, and not very durable unless kept dry; but it is light, not apt either to swell or shrink, and easily wrought. The Lombardy poplar grows rapidly, and shoots in a complete spire to a great height; its timber does not differ materially from that of the white poplar. It is very light; and is, therefore, well adapted for the manufacture of packing-cases. None of the species is fit for large timbers.—(*Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry; Veget. Sub., Lib. of Entert. Knowledge.*)

POPULATION. It would be quite inconsistent with the objects and limits of this work, to attempt giving in this place any explanation of the laws which regulate the progress of population. It may, indeed, be thought that the word has no business here. However, as it is frequently of importance in commercial questions, and in others affecting commercial interests, to be able to compare the consumption of an article with the population, we believe we shall gratify our readers by laying before them the following Tables, showing the results of the different censuses that have been taken of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, and showing also the increase in the population of the principal British cities.

I. Population of Ireland, as determined by the Censuses taken in 1813, 1821, 1831, and 1841, showing its Amount at each Period in each County, with the Rates of Increase.

Counties, &c.	1813.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.	Increase per Cent.	1841.
Leinster.							
Carlow -	89,566	13	78,928	4	81,086	5	86,928
Dublin County -	110,437	25	156,011	41	180,167	15	140,947
City -	176,610	5	185,861	13	380,167	5	437,706
Kildare -	85,138	16	99,063	9	106,484	4	114,466
Kilkenny (city not included in 1813)	134,664	25	189,046	6	193,680	4	207,000
King's County -	113,426	15	131,098	10	144,363	3	149,437
Lancaster -	95,917	18	107,475	6	116,556	2	119,411
Louth (Drogheda included)	119,129	5	119,129	5	134,066	3	139,811
Meath -	112,479	11	150,183	11	176,808	4	183,798
Queen's County -	115,857	17	134,373	9	144,851	3	150,000
Westmeath -	9	0	138,119	6	136,374	3	141,500
Wexford -	83,109	22	170,906	7	183,713	11	209,033
Wicklow -	83,109	22	110,767	10	131,507	5	136,143
Total	-	-	1,757,498	9	1,909,713	3	1,973,731
Munster.							
Clare -	160,603	29	208,089	21	236,328	11	266,501
Cork -	288,330	21	295,141	11	310,739	5	324,118
Kerry -	178,628	21	216,183	19	263,126	12	285,880
Limerick (city not included in 1813)	103,865	107	227,427	14	315,533	5	330,000
Tipperary -	220,531	12	216,896	16	209,263	8	235,000
Waterford -	144,924	8	156,521	13	177,654	11	190,187
Total	-	-	1,933,618	15	2,227,158	8	2,363,161
Ulster.							
Antrim -	237,684	14	270,883	20	293,015	11	360,275
Armagh -	121,419	69	197,427	11	220,153	6	233,293
Cavan -	9	0	129,076	17	222,633	7	245,138
Down -	9	0	248,270	10	269,149	3	290,448
Fermanagh -	297,290	13	325,640	8	339,012	3	361,116
Londonderry -	111,250	17	150,997	14	149,768	4	156,641
Londonderry -	166,181	4	192,869	15	222,412	13	244,174
Monaghan -	140,433	24	174,697	6	193,500	8	200,112
Tyrone -	250,746	4	261,563	16	304,479	5	312,936
Total	-	-	1,996,494	14	2,260,668	4	2,363,373
Connaught.							
Galway -	163,679	103	337,374	23	414,584	6	410,108
Leitrim -	84,065	32	121,765	13	141,684	9	153,292
Mayo -	237,371	23	293,112	23	360,398	6	368,982
Roscommon -	156,410	24	208,749	16	243,615	1	253,589
Sligo -	9	0	146,969	17	171,768	6	181,608
Total	-	-	1,110,289	21	1,343,914	5	1,418,975
SUMMARY.							
Provinces.	1813.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.	Increase per Cent.	1841.
Leinster -	-	-	1,757,498	9	1,909,713	3	1,973,731
Munster -	-	-	1,933,618	15	2,227,158	8	2,363,161
Ulster -	-	-	1,110,289	21	1,343,914	5	1,418,975
Connaught -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	-	-	6,801,827	14	7,767,401	8	8,175,838

It is somewhat singular that no such table as the above should be found amid the myriads published in the Report on the Irish census of 1841.

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Kinross
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beautifully coloured and gilt; is insuflable, and not subject to break by the sudden application of heat or cold. The Chinese term for the article is *tes-ki*. But the Portuguese, by whom it was first brought in considerable quantities into Europe, bestowed on it the name of porcelain, from *porcello*, a cup.

Common earthenware, sometimes of a very good quality, is manufactured in Canton, Fokien, and several other provinces of China. But it is a curious fact, that the beautiful porcelain imported into Europe is made only in the town of Kingtsing, in the province of Kyangsi. Its manufacture is fully described by Thunberg, in his account of the island of Formosa and China wara. The porcelain of Japan is decidedly inferior to that of China; very little is imported, and it is valued only as a curiosity.

After porcelain began to be imported, its beauty soon brought it into great request, notwithstanding its high price, and a demand for the houses and tables of the rich and the great. The emulation of European artists was in consequence excited. Very little information was, however, obtained as to the mode of manufacturing porcelain till the early part of last century, when the process was developed in a letter from a French Jesuit in China, who had found means to make himself pretty well acquainted with the subject. The knowledge that thus transpired, and the investigations of Reaumur and other chemists, prepared the way for the establishment of the manufacture in Europe. It was first commenced at Dresden, which has been famous ever since for the beauty of its productions; but the finest and most magnificent specimens of European china have been produced at Sévres, in France, in the factory carried on at the expense of the French government.

British Porcelain Manufacture.—This, though unable to boast of such fine specimens of costly workmanship as have been produced at Sévres and Dresden, is of much greater national importance. Instead of exclusively applying themselves to the manufacture of articles fitted only for the consumption of the rich, the artists of England have exerted themselves in preference to produce China ware suitable for the middle classes; and have succeeded in producing articles at once excellent in quality, elegant in form, and cheap. We are principally indebted for the improvements made in this important manufacture to the genius and enterprise of the late Mr. Josiah Wedgwood. This extraordinary man owed some of his success to fortuitous circumstances. Turning his mind to patent investigation, and sparing neither pains nor expense in accomplishing his aims, he gathered round him artists of talent from different countries, and drew upon the stores of science for aid in pursuing the objects of his praiseworthy ambition. The early and signal prosperity that attended his efforts served only as an incentive to urge him forward to new exertions, and as a means for calling forth and encouraging talent in others, in a manner calculated to promote the welfare of his country. Previously to his time, the potteries of Staffordshire produced only inferior fabrics, flimsy as to their materials, and void of taste in their forms and ornaments; the best among them being only wretched imitations of the grotesque and unmeaning scenes and figures portrayed on the porcelain of China. But such have been the effects resulting from the exertions and example of this one individual, that the wares of that district are now not only brought into general use in this country, but the exclusion of all foreign goods, which had been largely imported, but English pottery has since been sought for and celebrated throughout the civilised world, and adopted even in places where the art was previously practised. An intelligent foreigner, M. Faujas de St. Fond, writing on this subject, says,—"His excellent workmanship, its solidity, the advantage which it possesses of sustaining the action of fire, its fine glaze impervious to acids, the beauty and convenience of its form, and the cheapness of its price, have given rise to a commerce so active and so universal, that, in travelling from Paris to Petersburg, from America to the farthest part of Sweden, and from Denmark to the extremity of the south of France, one is served at every inn upon English ware. Spain, Portugal, and Italy are supplied with it; and vessels are loaded with it for both the Indies and the continent of America."—See the quotation in the *Account of the Porcelain Manufacture*, p. 16, in *Lardner's Cyclopædia*; for the statistical details with respect to the manufacture, see the article *EARTHENWARE* in this work.

The British porcelain manufacture is principally carried on at the potteries in Staffordshire, and at Worcester, Derby, Coblenck Dale, and other places.

Murrhine Cups.—It was long a prevalent opinion among modern critics, that the *osca murrhina*, so famous in Roman history, were formed of porcelain. Pompey was the first who brought them to Rome from the East, about 64 years before the Christian era. They were used as drinking cups, and fetched enormous prices; Nero having given, according to the common method of interpreting, 58,000*l.* for a single cup! The extravagance of the purchaser here, in this instance, is supposed to have increased the price; so that the degree of estimation in which these cups were held may be more accurately inferred from the fact, that, of all the rich spoils of Alexandria, Augustus was content to select one for his share.—(Sueton. lib. ii. c. 71.) Pliny (lib. xxxvii. c. 2.) says they were made in Persia, particularly in Karamazla. But those who contend that they were China ware, chiefly found on the following line of Peroptius:—

Marrheque in Parthia pocula cocta rocis.—(Lib. iv. Eleg. 5. lin. 26.)

In despite, however, of this apparently decisive authority, Le Bland and Larcher have, in two very learned dissertations (*Almanach de L'Étranger*, tom. xliii.), which Dr. Robertson has declared are quite satisfactory, endeavoured to prove that the *osca murrhina* were formed of transparent stone, dug out of the earth in some Eastern provinces, and that they were imitated in vessels of coloured glass.—(Robertson's *Dissertation on India*, note 30.) Dr. Vincent (*Commerce and Navigation of the Antients*, vol. ii. p. 723.) inclines to the opposite opinion; but the weight of authority is evidently on the other side. At all events, it is plain that if the murrhine cups were really porcelain, it had been exceedingly scarce at Rome, as their price would otherwise have been comparatively moderate. But it is most probable that the ancients were wholly unacquainted with this article; which, indeed, was but little known in Europe till after the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope.—(For some further details on this question, see *Kipping's Antiq. Rom.* lib. iv. c. 3.)

PORK, the flesh of the hog. Salted and pickled pork forms a considerable article of export from Ireland to the West Indies and other places.

Pork and Bacon exported from Ireland in the under-mentioned Years.

Years.	Pork.		Bacon.		Years.	Pork.		Bacon.	
	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.		Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.
	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>		<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>£</i>
1815	151,710	414,996	236,549	317,859	1821	111,411	295,559	366,209	507,079
1816	165,361	419,843	237,058	315,036	1822	160,507	441,965	353,890	480,000
1817	153,095	404,905	191,025	261,499	1823	127,016	166,218	345,675	479,800
1818	116,515	308,809	114,020	297,051	1824	106,545	147,021	275,788	411,173
1819	120,211	314,181	141,181	310,510	1825	108,411	149,754	283,978	501,615
1820	149,451	397,819	202,736	265,297					

Most part of the bacon is exported to England.—(See *Bacon*),—and also a good deal of the pork. The account cannot be brought further down than 1825, the trade between Great Britain and Ireland having since then been placed on the footing of a rearing trade.

PORT. See WINE.

PORT-AU-PRINCE, the capital of Hayti, or St. Domingo, in lat. 19° 33' 42" N., lon. 72° 27' 11" W. Population variously estimated, probably from 18,000 to 20,000. It is situated on the west coast of the island, at the bottom of a large and deep gulph. It was founded in 1749; since which, with few intervals, it has been the capital of French St. Domingo, as it is now of the entire island. It is partially fortified; the harbour being protected by a battery on a small island at a little distance from the shore. The country round is low and marshy; and the heat in the summer months being excessive, the climate is then exceedingly unhealthy. The buildings are principally of wood, and seldom exceed 2 stories in height.

Harbour.—The entrance to the harbour is between White Island and the southern shore. The depth of water varies from about 18 feet at ebb to about 21 do, at full tide. It is customary, but not compulsory, to employ a pilot in entering the harbour. They are always on the look-out. Ships moor head and stern, and from 100 to 500 yards from shore; loading and unloading by means of boats, as there are neither docks nor quays to assist these operations. The harbour is perfectly safe, except during hurricanes, which may be expected from August to November.

Hayti is, next to Cuba, the largest of the West India islands. It was discovered by Columbus, on the 5th of December, 1492. Its greatest length may be about 400 miles, and its greatest breadth 155. Its superficies is estimated at about 29,500 square miles. Three principal chains of mountains (from which emanate smaller mountain arms) run from the central group of Cibao. The whole of these are described as fertile and susceptible of cultivation, even to their summits; affording great variety of climate, which, contrary to what is the fact in the plains, is remarkably healthy. The soil of the plains is, in general, a very rich vegetable mould, exceedingly fertile, and well watered. There are several large rivers, and an immense number of smaller streams, some tributary and others independent. The ports are numerous and good. The harbour of Cape St. Nicholas, the fortifications of which are now in ruins, is one of the finest in the West Indies; being inferior only to the Fyannah. Timber of the finest description is most abundant; and mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, and rock salt, besides other natural productions, are said not to be wanting. The French were therefore fully justified in designating this magnificent island, *La Reine des Antilles*. The principal towns, besides Port-au-Prince, are Cap Haïtien, formerly Cap François, on the north coast, St. Domingo on the south, Les Cayes, and Jaemel.

Previously to the revolt of the blacks, Hayti was divided in unequal portions between the French and Spaniards; the former possessing the west, and the latter the eastern and larger portion of the island. The revolution began in 1789; and terminated, after the most dreadful massacres, and the destruction of a vast deal of property, in the total abolition of slavery, and the establishment of an independent black republic. The Spanish part of the island and the French were finally consolidated in 1822.

Population.—In 1789, the French part of Hayti was by far the most valuable and flourishing colony in the West Indies. The population was estimated at 524,000; of which 31,000 were white, 27,500 people of colour, and 465,500 slaves. The Spanish part of the island was much less densely peopled; the number in 1785 being estimated at 152,640; of which 122,640 were free people of all colours, mostly mulattoes, and the rest slaves. The population of the entire island, in 1827, was estimated by Humboldt at 820,000, of whom 30,000 were whites; but there are good grounds for thinking that that estimate was exaggerated, and that the present population does not exceed 600,000 or 700,000.

Exports.—There has been an extraordinary decline in the quantity and value of the articles exported from Hayti since 1789. Sugar, for example, has fallen off from 141,000,000 lbs. to almost nothing; coffee from about 77,000,000 lbs. to little more than 25,000,000 lbs.; cotton from 7,000,000 lbs. to perhaps 650,000 lbs.; indigo from 758,000 lbs. to nothing, &c. Mahogany is almost the only article the exports of which have increased of late years. The following table illustrates what has now been stated. —

A General Table of Exports from Hayti, during the Years 1789, 1801, and from 1818 to 1826, both inclusive.

Yrs.	Clayed Sugar.	Muscovado Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cacao.	Indigo.	Mulasses.	Ive Woods.	Tobacco.	Castor Oil.	Mahogany.	Cigars.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Gal.	Fret.	
1789	47,516,531	83,373,300	76,835,219	7,034,274	-	758,628	35,749	-	-	-	5,217	-
1801	16,400	18,518,373	43,490,370	3,800,344	618,318	608	69,419	6,768,634	-	-	-	-
1818	1-80	5,445,567	36,065,203	474,118	434,368	-	-	6,819,300	10,140	121	129,000	-
1819	157	5,790,143	39,240,910	416,103	370,139	-	-	5,094,102	39,268	711	141,577	-
1820	2,787	5,214,509	35,137,750	316,830	356,131	-	-	1,215,749	97,600	137	149,509	-
1821	-	609,934	39,595,955	320,363	264,792	-	-	3,728,186	76,400	-	55,000	-
1822	-	300,151	34,235,322	292,368	464,134	-	111,527	3,235,000	385,957	-	3,692,277	279,000
1823	-	14,020	33,929,837	336,246	335,540	-	-	6,607,508	347,014	-	3,305,047	303,000
1824	-	5,106	41,309,084	1,029,043	461,694	1,240	-	3,858,151	718,679	-	3,181,747	175,000
1825	-	3,270	36,034,264	815,692	339,057	-	-	3,548,190	505,485	-	3,296,409	-
1826	-	52,064	33,165,781	620,372	437,394	-	-	3,507,743	310,983	-	3,150,081	179,000

Cum Gualecum, in 1822, 7,338 lbs. — 1823, 13,056 lbs. — 1824, 64,692 lbs.

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Imports.—The principal articles of import are provisions; such as flour, rice, mess and cargo beef, fish, &c., and timber, from the U. States; cotton goods of all sorts, Irish and Scotch linens, earthenware, cutlery, ammunition, &c. from England; wines, satins, liquors, jewellery, toys, haberdashery, &c. from France; and linens, canvass, gin, &c. from Holland and Germany.

The destruction caused by the excesses which accompanied the revolution explains a part of this extraordinary falling off: but the greater part is to be accounted for by the change in the condition of the inhabitants. The blacks, being no longer compelled to labour, and regarding with abhorrence the culture of sugar and the other occupations in which they had been principally engaged, sunk into a state of idleness and apathy. The condition of all the great branches of industry that were formerly carried on became, in consequence, most deplorable, and the commerce of the island was reduced within the narrowest limits. Its successive rulers have endeavoured, though with little success, to bring about a revival of industry. The *Code Rural*, enacted for this purpose by Boyer in 1826, is exceedingly stringent, its principal provisions being in fact copied from the regulations as to slaves embodied in the *Code Noir*. But even this code has had little influence; and as a proof of the low state of industry in the island, we need only state that sugar has wholly disappeared from the list of exports, and that the exports of coffee and most other articles seem to be diminishing. And this result is, after all, only what should have been anticipated. To expect that half-civilised Africans, under a burning sun, and without the wants or desires of Europeans, should be equally industrious, is to expect what is contradictory, and all but absurd. We subjoin

A Statement of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Hayti during each of the 3 Years ending with 1837.

Articles.	Quantities exported.		
	1835.	1836.	1837.
Coffee - - - - - lbs.	48,553,571	37,662,671	30,845,100
Logwood - - - - - "	13,285,757	6,767,002	6,056,233
Cotton - - - - - "	1,649,717	1,073,555	1,013,171
Mahogany - - - - - feet	5,435,716	4,951,911	4,798,262
Cocoa - - - - - lbs.	397,321	620,481	-
Tobacco, &c. - - - - - "	2,086,606	1,322,716	-
Cheese - - - - - "	8,500	35,000	-
Sugar - - - - - lbs.	1,097	16,189	-
Hides - - - - - No.	21,951	14,891	-
Old rags - - - - - lbs.	21,192	77,275	-
Wax - - - - - "	10,993	15,630	-
Ginger - - - - - "	8,769	15,303	-

The trade of this country with Hayti is comparatively inconsiderable, the value of the exports from the U. Kingdom (thither, in 1841, having amounted to only 251,979*l.*, of which more than 3-4ths consisted of cottons and linens; the imports consist of coffee, tobacco, and cotton wool; but the quantities of the last two articles are very trifling.

Port Charges.—The charges on a native and foreign ship of 300 tons are the same, and as follows:—

	Dollars.
Tonnage duty - - - - -	500
Administrator - - - - -	12
Commandante de place - - - - -	12
Commissaire de guerre - - - - -	12
Commissaire de port - - - - -	12
Director of customs - - - - -	12
Interpreter - - - - -	12
Treasurer - - - - -	12
Doctor - - - - -	12
Stamps for entry and clearing - - - - -	16 50
Quintan tax - - - - -	40
Pilotage - - - - -	2
Total, currency - - - - -	431 50

Custom-house Regulations.—On arrival, the master of the vessel proceeds to the Custom-house with the interpreter, where he makes his declaration whether he discharges his cargo in the port. If he discharges, his invoices are translated, and the goods verified in the presence of the consignee, who is allowed to land and store them. On clearing outwards, the merchant pays the duties on the cargo both ways, and exhibits a receipt at the office of the commissaire de guerre, commissaire de place, and commissaire de port, who sign a certificate that the vessel may depart.

Warehousing.—The warehousing and bonding system is established by law, but there are at present no buildings appropriated to the reception of bonded goods. If at very recently, goods were permitted to be bonded under this law in the merchants' stores; a line order has, however, suspended that indulgence. The rate is 1 per cent. per year, and no allowance made for waste or loss. Goods exported in the same vessel they arrive in, pay, if landed, 3 per cent. and wharfage fees.

Money.—The weight of the dollar is 216 grains; the 3/4 and 1/2 dollar being in proportion. But nearly 3/4 the weight of the coin consists of tin or other alloy so that the value of the dollar does not exceed 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling.

Weights at Hayti are divide, as in avoirdupois and apothecaries weight; but they are about 8 per cent. heavier than British weights.

Measures.—Same as those used in France.

Regulations as to Trade.—It is enacted, that all persons exercising any trade or profession, excepting that of cultivating the soil, must be provided with a patent or licence to carry on such trade or profession; and that strangers admitted as mer-

chants into the republic must, in the first place, procure the permission of the president to take out a patent, which, when obtained, only authorises them, under heavy penalties, to carry on a wholesale business, not with each other, but with the Haytiens, in the open ports, which are Port-au-Prince, Les Cayes, Cap Haïtien, Port-a-Piate, Santo Domingo, Jacmel, Les Cayes, and Jérémie. The minimum quantity of goods that may be sold are fixed by the same law. The Haytian customs may be also a retailer, on taking out a corresponding patent. A charge of 4,000 dollars is made for each patent to a foreigner trading to Port-au-Prince; 1,500 for Les Cayes, Cap Haïtien, and Jacmel; and 1,000 for each of the remaining ports.

Duties.—The duties on all imported commodities consigned to foreign merchants are 12 1/2 per cent. on an established tariff; whether they be brought in native or foreign ships, with the exception of those from the United States, which pay an additional 10 per cent. on the amount of the duties. Goods consigned to native merchants pay only 16 1/2 per cent.

The following articles are duty free in all bottoms:—Shot of all sizes, grenades, howitzers, bomb-shells, and other projectiles of artillery; iron and bronze cannon, mortars, muskets and bayonets, carbines, pistols, and cavalry sabres, bayonets, or short swords for infantry; machines and instruments for simplifying and facilitating the cultivation of the soil, and the preparation of its produce; horses and cattle, mules, asses, gold and silver coin; classified and elementary works, sewed in boards, or bound in parchment, for the instruction of youth.

The following is a list of articles absolutely prohibited, without reference to their place of growth:—Mahogany, logwood, lignum vite, fustic, coffee, cotton wool, cacao, raw and tanned skins, rum, tafia, syrup, molasses; cane, white and black betellas, containing a worm, silicious, or other arms; books and other works, opposed to good morals.

Besides the exports, there is also territorial duty levied equally on the produce of the soil, whether exported in national or foreign ships.

The export of the following articles is strictly prohibited:—gold and silver coin, silk and fine arms, manillas, and other articles of war; old or new iron and copper; lures, broad knives, nails, axes, and wool for ship building. The coasting trade is entirely confined to Haytian citizens. The commerce of Port-au-Prince is carried on by various classes of persons. The imports from Europe and America are principally consigned to European and North American commission houses, besides a few Haytian establishments. The capital is one of the ports to which foreign merchants are confined by the law of patents; but they are, or at least were during the time of my residence, restricted by heavy penalties

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1034 PORTERS AND PORTERAGE. — PORT LOUIS.

to wholesale business. Of course they cannot deal with the consumers, but with the native retailers, who are chiefly women, styled "marchandes"; these employ hucksters, also women, who traverse the country, attend the markets, and give an account of their transactions to their employers, either every evening, once a week, or once a month, according to their character for integrity.

At the payments of the importer are generally in money, and there is only one important article of export—coffee—the purchase for return can only be made after the crops have been gathered; and these are effected by brokers, who often bargain with a class of natives called coffee speculators, their dealing for the chance of the market with the cultivators, and either sell to the best advantage, or fulfil contracts previously entered into.

Among the respectable *marchandes* there is said to be much good faith; but with the great body of the customers, I believe the merchants are obliged to use the utmost circumspection.

All the ordinary tradesmen, such as tailors and shoemakers, and even a water-proof hat manufacturer, are to be found at Fort-au-Frince. And I confess I was struck with the respectable appearance of several booksellers' shops, having looked in vain for such things both in *Belediades* and *Antigua*. The

PORTERS AND PORTERAGE. Porters are persons employed to carry messages or parcels, &c.

In London, they are divided into different classes. It is enacted by 39 Geo. 3. c. 48, that the following rates shall be the maximum charge upon all parcels not exceeding 56 lbs. weight in London, Westminster, Southwark, and the suburbs; viz.:

	s.	d.
For any distance not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile	0	3
Not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	0	4
Not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	0	5
Not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	0	8
Not exceeding 2 miles	0	10

And so in like manner the additional sum of 3d. for every other distance not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile.

Tickets to be made out at the Inns, and given to the porters, who are to deliver them with the parcels; and any innkeeper not making out such tickets to forfeit not exceeding 40s. nor less than 2s.; porters not delivering, or defacing the same, to forfeit 40s.; and if they make any overcharge they are to forfeit 20s. Parcels brought by coaches to be delivered *within six hours*, under a penalty not exceeding 40s. nor less than 10s. Parcels brought by wagons to be delivered *within twenty-four hours*, under a like penalty. Parcels directed to be left till called for, to be delivered to those to whom the same may be directed, on payment of the carriage, and 2d. for warehouse room, under like penalty. If parcels be not sent for till the expiration of a week, 1d. more for warehouse rent may be charged. Parcels not directed to be left till called for, to be delivered on demand under the above penalty. Misbehaviour of porters may be punished by a fine not exceeding 20s. nor less than 1s. The porters of London have the exclusive privilege of taking up and carrying goods within the city, and the employment of any one else may be punished by fine.

PORT LOUIS, OR NORTHWEST PORT, the capital of the Mauritius, at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is rather difficult, in lat. $20^{\circ} 9' 56''$ S., lon. $57^{\circ} 28' 41''$ E. Every vessel approaching the harbour must hoist her flag and fire 2 guns; if in the night, a light must be shown; when a pilot comes on board, and steers the ship to the entrance of the port. It is a very convenient port for careening and repairing; but provisions of all sorts are dear. In the hurricane months, the anchorage in Port Louis is not good; and it can then only accommodate a very few vessels. The houses are low, and are principally built of wood. The town and harbour are pretty strongly fortified. Almost all the foreign trade of the island is carried on here.

The Mauritius was so called by the Dutch in honour of Prince Maurice: but it was first settled by the French in 1720; and is indebted for most part of its prosperity to the skilful management of its governor, the famous M. de la Bourdonnais. It was taken by the English in 1810; and was definitively ceded to us in 1814.

Exports and Imports, &c.—Mauritius is pretty fertile, a considerable part of the surface being, however, occupied by mountains. Its shape is circular, being about 150 miles in circumference. The climate is healthy, but subject to hurricanes. The principal product of the island is sugar, which is now cultivated to the almost total neglect of every thing else; but it also produces excellent coffee, indigo, and cotton. The blackwood or ebony of the Mauritius is very abundant, and of a superior quality. Very little corn or grain of any kind is raised in the island; most articles of provision being imported. Previously to 1825, the sugar and other articles brought to Great Britain from the Mauritius were charged with the same duties as the like articles from India: but in the above-mentioned year this distinction was done away, and it was enacted (6 Geo. 4. c. 111, § 44.), that all goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Mauritius, should, upon importation into any port of the U. Kingdom, be subject to the same duties and regulations as the like goods being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British colonies in the West Indies; and that the trade with the Mauritius should be placed as nearly as possible on the same footing as that of the West India islands.

This was a great boon to the Mauritius, and the exports of sugar from it have since rapidly increased. According to Milburn (*Oriental Commerce*, II. 268.), they amounted, in 1812, to about 5,000,000 lbs. In 1818, they amounted to about 8,000,000 lbs.; and in 1824, to 23,334,563 lbs. Since 1826, nine tenths of

books are generally elementary, French publications, and romances. The works of Voltaire, Rousseau, and others of the same class, abound.

There are also two printing presses; one at which the government Gazette *La Télégraphe* is printed, and the other from which the *Feuille de Commerce* issues. The former rarely contains more than the documents issued by the government; the latter occasionally some spirited papers, and is conducted by M. Courtois, who was for a short time director of the post-office.

The apothecaries' shops are numerous, as they ought to be in such a horrible climate, and are well supplied with all the contents of the French Pharmacopœia. There are also some tanneries, in which the bark of the mangrove is used as the tanning material. As far as I could ascertain, the great bulk of the border people were either of that class of Europeans, called in the French time "*petits blancs*," or people of colour.

The labourers in town and country are generally black. With the exception already referred to, we have derived these details with respect to Havil partly from the communications to government, and the published *Notes* of Charles Mackenzie Esq., late consul in that island; and partly from consular returns.

PORTERS (TACKLE-BOURS), are regulated by the city of London. They have the privilege of performing the labour of unshipping, landing, carrying, and hoisting the goods of the South Sea Company, the East India Company, and all other goods, except from the East country, the produce of the British plantations and Ireland, and all goods consigned to the city for 500*l.* to make restitution in case of loss or damage, and are limited to rates fixed by the corporation.

Porters (TICKETS), are appointed by the city of London, and have granted to them the exclusive privilege of unshipping, loading, and hoisting pitch, tar, soap, ashes, wine-coal, fir, poles, masts, deela, oars, chests, cables, lica and hemp, brought to London from the East country; also iron, cordage, and timber, and all goods of the produce of Ireland and the British plantations, and all goods consigned, except lead. They are freemen of the city, give security in 100*l.* for fidelity, and have their names and numbers engraved on a metal badge. They are under the tackle porters; who may, in performing the business of the port, employ other labourers, if ticket porters be not at hand.—(*Metcalf's Dictionary*.)

Any person may hire goods into the city of London; but he is liable to a fine if he either take up, or carry, any within the city. It is astonishing that such absurd regulations should be still kept up; why should not the merchants of London, as well as those of Manchester, be allowed to employ any one else in the conveyance of goods? Does any one doubt that competition would, in this, as in every thing else, be productive of the greatest advantage? The regulations in question merely tend to keep up oppressive privileges, injurious to the public interests, and disadvantageous even to those to whose favour they are enacted.

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the sugar raised in the Mauritius has been shipped for the U. Kingdom. Its wonderful increase is seen in the following table:—

I. Account of the Quantities of Sugar imported into the U. Kingdom from the Mauritius during each of the 18 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Quantities.	Years.	Quantities.	Years.	Quantities.	Years.	Quantities.
1825	10,198,976	1830	51,309,589	1835	62,222,544	1840	61,041,008
1826	20,919,584	1831	57,065,536	1836	55,997,256	1841	80,304,544
1827	29,886,528	1832	60,678,240	1837	60,251,632	1842	77,905,520
1828	40,468,400	1833	59,897,424	1838	67,235,152		
1829	83,371,296	1834	64,256,320	1839	68,619,652		

II. Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of Native Produce exported from the Mauritius in 1836, specifying the Countries to which they were exported and the Quantities sent to each.

Articles.	Great Britain.	France.	Cape of Good Hope.	Madagascar.	Bourbon.	Asia.	Australia.	Familiarchy.	China.	United States of America.	Total.	
											Quantities.	Value.
Arreck and rum - - - gal.	2,221	60									2,281	860 4 0
Ebony - - - lbs.	104,209	70,804	1,115,948			165,438	3,067		324,224		664,369	2,198 4 11
Cotton - - - "		1,835									1,835	21 7 9
Portulac shall - - "		1,073			368						1,511	1,090 2 0
Claves - - - "		2,570	5,628			6,016			8,255		23,358	692 11 10
Sugar - - - "	53,268,914	5,10,289	9,017,388			43,371,594	5,945,017	96		1,452,239	63,357,317	788,250 10 6
												2791,132 4 11

The cultivation of sugar being found more profitable than that of coffee, the latter has been all but wholly abandoned. The exports of cotton are also inconsiderable. The exports of ebony in 1826 amounted to 2,002,783 lbs., of the estimated value of 9,017*l.*; but, as seen above, they had sunk in 1836 to 664,369 lbs. The principal imports consist of provisions, particularly grain and flour; the supply required for the use of the island being almost entirely derived from the Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, India, Bourbon, &c. Earthenware, machinery, furniture, hardware, piece goods, wine, &c. are also largely imported. The total declared value of the exports from the U. Kingdom to the Mauritius in 1836 amounted to 244,922*l.*

In 1836, the population of the Mauritius amounted to 92,147 souls; of whom between 9,000 and 10,000 were whites (exclusive of the king's troops). The population of the Seychelles — small islands dependent on the Mauritius — amounted at the same time to near 8,000.

Monies, Weights, and Measures. — According to the regulations of government, the franc is deemed equal to 10*l.*, and the Spanish dollar to 4*s. 4d.* The government accounts are kept in sterling money; but merchants, shopkeepers, &c. keep their accounts in dollars and cents, and dollars, livres, and sous.

The measures and weights are those of France previously to the Revolution. 100 lbs. French = 108 lbs. English; the French foot is to the English foot as 100 to 98*·*85, but in practice they are supposed to be as 16 to 15. The velle = 1 gallon 7*·*8 pints English; but in commercial transactions it is always taken at 2 gallons.

Duties, &c. — A duty of 6 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods imported for consumption in British vessels from all quarters of the world. The duties on the goods imported in foreign ships are, for the most part, also 6 per cent. A duty of 2*s.* cents, or 1*s. 1*d.**, per cwt., is laid on all sugar exported in British bottoms, to all places except Bourbon; and an additional duty of 8 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods exported in foreign bottoms. The charges for pilotage, wharfage, &c. are fixed by government, and may be learned at the Custom-house. For the most part they are very moderate.

It will be seen that the Mauritius has not suffered nearly so much from the emancipation of the blacks as the West India islands, though there has been a very great falling off in the imports of sugar in 1843. The continued cultivation of the Mauritius, despite the emancipation of the slaves, has been principally owing to the importation of hill-coolies and other labourers from India; who, in fact, are enticed away by the same arts that were employed to entice the blacks from Africa, and are substantially slaves.

PORTO-RICO, the capital of the valuable Spanish island of the same name, on the north side of the island, on a peninsula joined to the main land by a narrow isthmus, lat. 18° 29' 10" N., lon. 66° 13' 15" W. The fortifications are very strong; the town, which stands on a pretty steep declivity, is well built, clean, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

Harbour. — The harbour of Porto-Rico has a striking resemblance to that of the Havanna, to which it is but little inferior. The entrance to it, about 300 fathoms in width, has the Morro Castle on its east side, and is defended on the west side by forts erected on 2 small islands. Within the harbour expands into a capacious basin, the depth of water varying from 5 to 6 and 7 fathoms. On the side opposite to the town there are extensive sand banks; but the entrance to the port, as well as the port itself, is unobstructed by any bar or shallow.

The island of Porto-Rico lies in the same latitude as Jamaica. Though the smallest of the greater Antilles, it is of very considerable size. Its form is that of a parallelogram; being about 100 miles in length from east to west, with a mean breadth of about 38, containing an area of 3,750 square miles. Surface pleasantly diversified with hills and valleys; soil generally fertile. It has, however, suffered much from hurricanes; those of 1742 and 1825 having been particularly destructive. Since the breaking up of the old Spanish colonial system, the progress of Porto-Rico has hardly been less rapid than that of Cuba. Her population, which in 1778 was estimated at 80,650, amounted, according to a census taken in 1836, to 357,086, of whom 188,869 were whites, and only 41,818 slaves. It is obvious from this statement that a large proportion of the free inhabitants are coloured; but the law knows no distinction between the white and the coloured *roturier*; and this circumstance, as well as the

rapidly increased. 600,000 lbs. in 5, nine tenths of

whites being in the habit of freely intermixing with people of colour, has prevented the growth of those prejudices and deep-rooted antipathies that prevail between the white and the black and coloured population in the U. States, and in the English and French islands.

Trade.— Sugar and coffee are by far the greatest articles of export. Next to them are molasses, tobacco, cotton, rum, &c. The imports consist principally of flour, fish, and other articles of provision, lumber, &c. from the U. States; cottons, hardware, machinery, &c. from England; wines, silks, jewelry, perfumery, &c. from Spain and France; linen from the Hanse Towns; iron from Sweden, &c. Large quantities of rice, maize, &c. are raised in the island. The pasture lands in the north and east are superior to any in the West Indies for breeding and fattening cattle.

Previously to 1816, Porto-Rico, being excluded from all direct intercourse with other countries, excepting Old Spain, was either stationary or but slowly progressive, the entire value of the exports in that year having amounted to only \$5,274 dollars! But at that epoch a royal decree appeared, which exempted the trade between Spain and the Spanish colonies and Porto-Rico from all duties for 15 years; and she was then, also, permitted to carry on a free trade, under reasonable duties, with other countries. In consequence principally of these wise and liberal measures, but partly, also, of a considerable immigration of rich Spanish colonists from S. America, Porto-Rico has latterly made a most extraordinary progress. Great improvements have been effected in the police and internal administration, and roads have been constructed in all parts of the island.

The following statements as to the trade of Porto-Rico in 1839, taken from the *Balanza Mercantil*, published in the capital, afford the most conclusive proofs of the advancing prosperity of the island.

Account of the Value of the Imports into and of the Exports from Porto-Rico in 1839, specifying the Values of those Imported and Exported under different Flags.

Flags.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Dolls.	Cts.	Dolls.	Cts.
Spanish (from Spain)	729,740	40	400,401	86
Spanish coasters from St. Thomas	1,351,617	81	114,392	31
American	1,192,070	87	2,288,482	51
English	145,823	80	247,892	81
French	65,989	40	209,054	69
Hamburg, Altona, and Bremen	234,671	53	478,453	7
Dutch	8,615	47	10,965	
Portuguese	683	75	832	
Swedish			119	25
In transit	4,350,258	5	4,534,198	3
	1,111,818	93	982,413	57
Total	5,462,066	96	5,516,611	60

Account specifying the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported from Porto-Rico in 1839.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Cotton	11,840 cwt.	\$10,153-76
Sugar	697,104 "	\$423,612-40
Coffee	87,781 "	\$55,816-40
Molasses	5,311,700 gallons	496,757-99
Tobacco	43,263 cwt.	172,513-58
Rum	650 punche.	15,211-66
Hides	6,734 cwt.	60,614-92
Horses and mules	303 "	11,363-80
Cattle	3,558 "	120,303-00
Timber		41,536-10
Rice, salt, &c.		28,506-51
Spice		150,889-00
		4,926,521-68
Coals, cottons, and other imported goods and exported		988,079-72
		5,916,611-60

Arrivals of Shipping in Porto-Rico in 1839.

Flags.	Vessels.	Tons.
Spanish	675	28,976
American	459	63,033
English	114	9,536
French	88	6,204
Danish	47	4,577
Swedish	2	81
Dutch	9	449
Hanse Town	15	2,705
Portuguese	8	157
	1,392	116,598
Custom-house duties on imports	751,761-31	do.
Do. exports	241,062-08	do.
Do. dues on shipping	84,728-85	do.
Total	1,064,582-24	

PORTS. See HARBOURS.

POSTAGE AND POST-OFFICE. Postage is the duty or charge imposed on letters or parcels conveyed by post; the Post-office being the establishment by which such letters or parcels are conveyed.

1. *Establishment of Post-offices.*— Regular posts or couriers were instituted at a very early period, for the safe, regular, and speedy transmission of public intelligence. Herodotus informs us (lib. viii. c. 98.), that in Persia, men and horses, in the service of the monarch, were kept at certain stations along the public roads; and that the despatches, being given to the first courier, were by him carried to the second, and so on, with an expedition that neither snow, nor rain, nor heat, nor darkness, could check. A similar institution, under the name of *cursum publicum*, was established at Rome by Augustus, and was extended and improved by his successors. Horses and carriages were kept in readiness at the different stations along the public roads, not only for the transmission of despatches, but also for the conveyance of official personages, or others who had obtained an order from authority allowing them to travel post. By this means government was speedily apprised of whatever took place in the remotest corners of the empire; and instructions or functionaries could be sent to, or recalled from, the most distant provinces, with a celerity that would even now appear considerable.

— (*Bergier, Histoire des Grand Chemins*, liv. iv. c. 4.; *Bouchaud sur la Police des Romains*, pp. 136—151.)

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Posts appear to have been established, for the first time, in modern Europe, in 1477, by Louis XI. They were originally intended to serve merely, as the ancient posts, for the conveyance of public despatches, and of persons travelling by authority of government. Subsequently, however, private individuals were allowed to avail themselves of this institution; and governments, by imposing higher duties or rates of postage on the letters and parcels sent through the Post-office than are sufficient to defray the expense of the establishment, have rendered it productive of a considerable revenue. Nor, while the rates of postage are confined within due limits, or not carried so high as to form any serious obstacle to correspondence, is there, perhaps, a more unobjectionable tax.

English Post-office. — The Post-office was not established in England till the 17th century. Postmasters, indeed, existed in more ancient times; but their business was confined to the furnishing of post-horses to persons who were desirous of travelling expeditiously, and to the despatching of extraordinary packets upon special occasions. In 1635, Charles I. erected a letter office for England and Scotland; but this extended only to a few of the principal roads, the times of carriage were uncertain, and the postmasters on each road were required to furnish horses for the conveyance of the letters at the rate of 2½d. a mile. This establishment did not succeed; and at the breaking out of the civil war, great difficulty was experienced in the forwarding of letters. At length a post-office, or establishment for the weekly conveyance of letters to all parts of the kingdom, was instituted in 1649, by Mr. Edward Prideaux, attorney-general for the Commonwealth; the immediate consequence of which was a saving to the public of 7,000*l.* a year on account of postmasters. In 1657, the Post-office was established nearly on its present footing, and the rates of postage that were then fixed were continued till the reign of Queen Anne. — (*Black. Com. book i. c. 8.*)

From the establishment of the Post-office by Cromwell, down to 1784, mails were conveyed either on horseback, or in carts made for the purpose; and instead of being the most expeditious and safest conveyance, the post had become, at the latter period, one of the slowest and most easily robbed of any in the country. In 1784, it was usual for the diligences between London and Bath to accomplish the journey in *seventeen* hours, while the post took *forty* hours; and on other roads their rate of travelling was in about the same proportion. In consequence of this difference in point of despatch, a very great number of letters were sent by those conveyances; the law being very easily evaded, by giving them the form of small parcels.

Under these circumstances, it occurred to Mr. John Palmer, of Bath, afterwards comptroller general of the Post-office, that a very great improvement might be made in the conveyance of letters, in respect of economy, as well as of speed and safety, by contracting with the proprietors of the coaches for the carriage of the mail; the latter being bound to perform the journey in a specified time, and to take a guard with the mail for its protection. Mr. Palmer's plan encountered much opposition, but was at length carried into effect. The consequences have proved most beneficial: the use of mail-coaches has extended to every part of the empire; and while the mail is conveyed in less than half the time that was required under the old system, the coaches by which it is conveyed afford, by their regularity and speed, a most desirable mode of travelling. Mr. Palmer was the author of several other improvements in the economy of the Post-office; nor is there any other individual to whose exertions this department owes so much. — (*Macpherson's Hist. of Commerce, anno 1784.*)

The Scotch Post-office was established on its present footing in 1710; but, owing to the backward state of Scotland, the limited amount of its trade and population, and the extreme badness of the roads — (see *ROADS*), — it was very defective in most parts of the country till after the American war. In proof of this, we may mention that the first mail-coach, from London to Glasgow direct, arrived at the latter on the 7th of July, 1788. Previously to that period, the course of post from London to Glasgow was five days; this, however, is not to be entirely ascribed to the slowness of the conveyance by horseback; for the mail came round by Edinburgh, and was detained there *twelve hours*, or till the usual Edinburgh despatch was made up for Glasgow in the evening!

The construction of railways between most of the great towns of the empire has, within these few years, gone far to supersede the use of mail-coaches on the principal lines of road, and has added prodigiously to the facilities of correspondence and travelling. The journey from London to Liverpool, which had been accomplished by the mail, when in its most improved state, in about 20 or 22 hours, is now accomplished by railway in 9 or 10 hours! and on other roads in the same proportion. The principal expense of the Post-office consists, however, not so much in the conveyance of letters from place to place, though that amounts to a very large sum, as in their previous collection and their subsequent distribution. This necessitates the establishment of a vast number of subordinate offices in the remoter parts of the kingdom, many of which do not repay their expenses. This is particularly the case in Ireland, and in the Highlands and islands of Scotland.

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It does not really seem, though the contrary has been sometimes contended, that the Post-office could be so well conducted by any one else as by government. It is indispensable to its satisfactory working that it should be conducted with the greatest regularity and precision; and that all the departments should be made subservient to each other, and conducted on the same plan. It is plain that such results could not be obtained in any extensive country otherwise than by the agency of government; and the interference of the latter is also required to make arrangements for the safe and speedy conveyance of letters to, from, and through foreign countries.

The organisation of the Post-office supplies one of the most striking examples of the advantages resulting from the division and combination of employments. "Nearly the same exertions that are necessary to send a single letter from Falmouth to New York will send 50,000. If every man were to effect the transmission of his own correspondence, the whole life of an eminent merchant might be passed in travelling, without his being able to deliver all the letters which the Post-office forwards to him in a single evening. The labour of a few individuals devoted exclusively to the forwarding of letters, produces results which all the exertions of all the inhabitants of Europe could not effect, each person acting singly." — (*Senior on Political Economy.*)

Rates of Postage.—Previously to the introduction of the new system of a uniform penny rate of postage in 1839, under the provisions of the act 2 & 3 Vict. cap. 52., the following rates of postage, increasing progressively according to the distance, were charged on all letters (not privileged) conveyed by post from place to place in Great Britain and in Ireland, and from places in Great Britain to places in Ireland, and conversely.

GREAT BRITAIN.		Postage of a Single Letter in Pence.	IRELAND.		Postage of a Single Letter in Pence.
From any post-office in Great Britain to any place not exceeding 8 miles from such office -		2	From any post-office in Ireland to any place within the same, not exceeding 7 Irish miles from such office -		2
For any distance above			Exceeding 7 and not exceeding 15 Irish miles		4
15	30	5	15	25	5
20	50	6	25	45	6
30	80	7	45	65	7
40	100	8	65	85	8
50	120	9	85	105	9
60	140	10	105	125	10
70	160	11	125	145	11
80	180	12	145	165	12
90	200	13	165	185	13
100	220	14	185	205	14
110	240	15	205	225	15
120	260	16	225	245	16
130	280	17	245	265	17
140	300	18	265	285	18
150	320	19	285	305	19
160	340	20	305	325	20
170	360	21	325	345	21
180	380	22	345	365	22
190	400	23	365	385	23
200	420	24	385	405	24
210	440	25	405	425	25
220	460	26	425	445	26
230	480	27	445	465	27
240	500	28	465	485	28
250	520	29	485	505	29
260	540	30	505	525	30
270	560	31	525	545	31
280	580	32	545	565	32
290	600	33	565	585	33
300	620	34	585	605	34
310	640	35	605	625	35
320	660	36	625	645	36
330	680	37	645	665	37
340	700	38	665	685	38
350	720	39	685	705	39
360	740	40	705	725	40
370	760	41	725	745	41
380	780	42	745	765	42
390	800	43	765	785	43
400	820	44	785	805	44
410	840	45	805	825	45
420	860	46	825	845	46
430	880	47	845	865	47
440	900	48	865	885	48
450	920	49	885	905	49
460	940	50	905	925	50
470	960	51	925	945	51
480	980	52	945	965	52
490	1000	53	965	985	53
500	1020	54	985	1005	54
510	1040	55	1005	1025	55
520	1060	56	1025	1045	56
530	1080	57	1045	1065	57
540	1100	58	1065	1085	58
550	1120	59	1085	1105	59
560	1140	60	1105	1125	60
570	1160	61	1125	1145	61
580	1180	62	1145	1165	62
590	1200	63	1165	1185	63
600	1220	64	1185	1205	64
610	1240	65	1205	1225	65
620	1260	66	1225	1245	66
630	1280	67	1245	1265	67
640	1300	68	1265	1285	68
650	1320	69	1285	1305	69
660	1340	70	1305	1325	70
670	1360	71	1325	1345	71
680	1380	72	1345	1365	72
690	1400	73	1365	1385	73
700	1420	74	1385	1405	74
710	1440	75	1405	1425	75
720	1460	76	1425	1445	76
730	1480	77	1445	1465	77
740	1500	78	1465	1485	78
750	1520	79	1485	1505	79
760	1540	80	1505	1525	80
770	1560	81	1525	1545	81
780	1580	82	1545	1565	82
790	1600	83	1565	1585	83
800	1620	84	1585	1605	84
810	1640	85	1605	1625	85
820	1660	86	1625	1645	86
830	1680	87	1645	1665	87
840	1700	88	1665	1685	88
850	1720	89	1685	1705	89
860	1740	90	1705	1725	90
870	1760	91	1725	1745	91
880	1780	92	1745	1765	92
890	1800	93	1765	1785	93
900	1820	94	1785	1805	94
910	1840	95	1805	1825	95
920	1860	96	1825	1845	96
930	1880	97	1845	1865	97
940	1900	98	1865	1885	98
950	1920	99	1885	1905	99
960	1940	100	1905	1925	100

And so in proportion; the postage increasing progressively 1d. for a single letter for every 100 miles.
Letters containing 1 enclosure charged with 2 single rates. Letters containing more than 1 enclosure, and not exceeding 1 ounce, charged with 3 single rates. Letters exceeding 1 ounce, whatever the contents may be, were charged with 4 single rates; and for every 3/4 of an ounce above that weight, an additional rate was chargeable.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

Rates of Postage taken in the Currency of the United Kingdom for the Port and Conveyance of Letters and Packets by Post, from any Place in Great Britain to any Place in Ireland, or from any Place in Ireland to any Place in Great Britain.

Distance.	Single Letter.		Double Letter.		Trebble Letter or other under an Ounce Weight.		For every Ounce Weight, and for every 1/2 oz. not exceeding an Ounce in Weight.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	1.	d.
Not exceeding 15 miles, British measure	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	4
Exceeding 15, and not exceeding 30 such miles	0	5	0	10	1	3	1	8
30	0	6	1	0	1	6	2	0
40	0	7	1	2	1	9	2	4
50	0	8	1	4	2	0	2	8
60	0	9	1	6	2	3	3	2
70	0	10	1	8	2	6	3	6
80	0	11	1	10	2	9	4	0
90	0	12	1	12	3	0	4	4
100	0	13	1	14	3	3	4	8
110	0	14	1	16	3	6	4	12
120	0	15	1	18	3	9	4	16
130	0	16	1	20	4	0	5	0
140	0	17	1	22	4	3	5	4
150	0	18	1	24	4	6	5	8
160	0	19	1	26	4	9	5	12
170	0	20	1	28	4	12	5	16
180	0	21	1	30	4	15	5	20
190	0	22	1	32	4	18	5	24
200	0	23	1	34	4	21	5	28
210	0	24	1	36	4	24	5	32
220	0	25	1	38	4	27	5	36
230	0	26	1	40	4	30	5	40
240	0	27	1	42	4	33	5	44
250	0	28	1	44	4	36	5	48
260	0	29	1	46	4	39	5	52
270	0	30	1	48	4	42	5	56
280	0	31	1	50	4	45	5	60
290	0	32	1	52	4	48	5	64
300	0	33	1	54	4	51	5	68

Exclusive of an additional charge for the packets plying between the two countries.

On comparing the number of non-privileged letters conveyed by the general post with the gross amount of postage, it appears that of late years they had paid an average rate of about 7d. or 7½d. each.

Exclusive, however, of these rates of postage, letters posted in London and other large towns for delivery in such towns, were charged 2d. each in London, and 1d. each in the other towns in which such local posts were established.

In addition, too, to the letters on which postage was charged, all the principal officers of government, and the members of both houses of parliament, enjoyed (either to a greater or less extent) the privilege of "franking," or of sending and receiving letters by the post free of postage, and this privilege was very extensively exercised.

Post-Office Revenue.—The gross produce, deducting overcharges, of the post-office revenue of Great Britain, exclusive of Ireland, in the undermentioned years, has been—

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They neither reduced the old rates of postage, nor attempted to give any increased facilities for the conveyance of letters by post. And it happened in this, as it all but invariably happens on similar occasions, that those who decline making reasonable and necessary concessions at the outset, are, in the end, compelled to concede a great deal more than would at first have been satisfactory. Such, at all events, was the case in this instance. The clamour for a uniform penny rate became too powerful to be resisted; and parliament, whether it were so inclined or not, was obliged to lend its sanction to the measure. The act 2 and 3 Victoria, cap. 52., for regulating the duty on postage, did not indeed enact that the charge for conveying letters of a given weight should, in all cases, be reduced to 1*d.*; but it was introduced for the avowed purpose of enabling the Treasury to take the necessary steps to bring the change about with the least inconvenience to all parties. In this view it gave the Treasury power to alter and reduce the rates of postage, without reference to the distance which letters may be conveyed, according to the weight of the letters, and not to the number or description of their enclosures: it also gave them power to adopt such regulations as they might think expedient as to stamped covers or envelopes; to suspend parliamentary franking, &c.

In virtue of the powers so conveyed, regulations have been issued (rendered permanent by the act 3 & 4 Vict. c. 96.) by which all inland letters, without regard to the number of enclosures or the distance conveyed, provided they be paid when posted or despatched, are —

If not exceeding $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. weight, charged 1*d.*; 1 *ns.* 2*d.*; 2 oz. 4*d.*; 3 oz. 6*d.*; and so on, 2*d.* being added for every additional ounce up to 16 oz., beyond which, with the following exceptions, no packet, whether subject to postage or not, is received: —

1. Parliamentary petitions and addresses to her Majesty.
2. Parliamentary proceedings.
3. Letters and packets addressed to or received from places beyond sea.
4. Letters and packets to and from public departments.
5. Deeds, if sent open, or in covers open at the sides. They may be tied with string and sealed, in order to prevent inspection of the contents, but they must be open at the sides, that it may be seen that they are entitled to the privilege.
6. Bankers' parcels, despatched from London, and specially delivered at the General Post Office, under certain regulations.

With these exceptions, all packets above the weight of 16 oz. will be immediately forwarded to the Dead Letter Office.

All letters not paid when they are posted or despatched are charged *double the above rates*. All parliamentary and official franking has been put an end to; but members of either house of parliament are entitled to receive petitions and addresses to her Majesty, and petitions to parliament, free of charge, provided such petitions and addresses be sent in covers open at the ends, and do not exceed 32 oz. weight.

The punctual delivery of letters may be insured by getting them *registered* when posted. A fee of 1*s.* is charged for the registration of each letter over and above the rate of postage to which it may be liable.

To facilitate the working of the plan, government furnish adhesive stamps of 1*d.* &c. each, which being pasted on letters, they are of course delivered to those to whom they are addressed free of any further charge for postage; and it also furnishes stamped envelopes at the low rate of 2*d.* for 2*s.* 3*d.*, the 3*d.* being for the paper and manufacture. Hence, as any quantity of stamps or of stamped envelopes may, in most parts of the country, be procured beforehand, the necessity that must otherwise have existed of paying the postage at the moment when letters are posted, has been pretty generally obviated.

Such are the more prominent features of the new system; and no doubt it has the recommendations of simplicity (if we may apply such a phrase to a uniform charge for services costing widely different sums) and cheapness in its favour, and has greatly facilitated correspondence. But it may, notwithstanding, be easily shown that its adoption was most unwise. It is, no doubt, very convenient for merchants, bankers, riddlemen, retail dealers, and indeed for most persons, to get letters for 1*d.* that previously cost them 7*d.* or 7½*d.*; but their satisfaction is not the only thing to be attended to in forming a fair estimate of the measure. The public exigencies require that a sum of about fifty millions a year should be raised, one way or other; and so long as we are pressed by an unreasoning necessity of this sort, it is not much to say in favour of the repeal or diminution of any tax, that those on whom it fell with the greatest severity are delighted with the reduction. Sugar has, in England, become a necessary of life; and its consumption, to say the least, is quite as indispensable to the bulk of the people, and especially to the labouring classes, as the writing of letters. But would it, therefore, be a wise measure to repeal the duty of sugar, or to reduce it to 1*s.* a cwt.? It has been alleged, indeed, that taxes on the transmission of letters are objectionable on principle, and should therefore be repealed, independently altogether of financial considerations! But it is easier to make an allegation of this sort than to prove it. All taxes, however imposed, if they be carried (as was the case with the old rates of postage) beyond their proper limits, are objectionable; but provided these be not exceeded, we have yet to learn why a tax on a letter should be more objectionable than

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a tax on the paper on which it is written, on the food of the writer, or on fifty other things.

It was contended, when the plan was under discussion, that there would be no loss of revenue, and that the increase of correspondence growing out of the reduction of the postage would be so vast as fully to balance the reduced rate of charge! But though there has been a great increase in the number of letters, it has fallen far short of this. Notwithstanding all that has been said about the *furor scribendi*, letter-writing is generally looked upon as a duty rather than a pleasure; and it does not follow, when the expense of postage is reduced, that the occasions for writing letters are proportionally increased.

The total gross receipt of the Post-office revenue of the U. Kingdom, deducting overcharges and returned letters, amounted in 1838 (before the late changes began) to 2,346,278*l.*, while the expenses of the establishment for the same year amounted to 686,768*l.*, leaving a net revenue of 1,659,510*l.* In 1842, however, two years after the new system had been in full operation, the gross receipt of the Post-office revenue amounted to only 1,578,146*l.*, while the expenses of the establishment for the same year amounted to 977,505*l.*, leaving a net revenue of only 600,641*l.*, being no less than 1,058,869*l.* under its amount in 1838. This, however, is not all. Of the Post-office revenue in 1838, 45,156*l.* consisted of postage paid by public offices, which, being a mere charge by one government department against others, must be deducted in order to learn the nett available revenue produced by the Post-office. Owing, however, to the abolition of franking, the postage charged against government departments is now greatly increased, and in 1842 amounted to no less than 122,161*l.* Hence it will be found, on deducting these sums, that in 1838 the Post-office produced to government, over and above all charges, a clear available income of 1,614,354*l.*, which in 1842 was sunk to 478,480*l.*, being a nett diminution of 1,135,874*l.* The subjoined account sets these important particulars in the clearest point of view.

An Account showing the Gross and Nett Post Office Revenue, and the Cost of Management, for the United Kingdom, for each of the Years ending 5th January 1839, 1840, 1841, 1842, and 1843, excluding from the Account, whether of Gross Revenue or Cost of Management, any Advances that may have been made by the English to the Irish Post Office, and Advances to the Money Order Office.

Year ending	Gross Revenue.*			Cost of Management. †			Nett Revenue.			Postage charged on the Government Departments.			Nett Revenue, exclusive of Charges on the Government Department.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
5th January 1839 -	2,316,278	0	93	686,768	5	61	1,629,509	37	21	45,156	0	11	1,614,353	16	58
" 1840 -	2,340,783	10	11	756,999	7	4	1,583,784	3	98	44,577	13	4	1,589,486	8	54
" 1841 -	1,734,604	5	2	834,677	0	51	899,927	4	83	90,761	3	2	395,166	1	61
" 1842 -	1,495,549	9	08	984,168	19	74	511,381	9	64	122,161	15	10	441,115	13	72
" 1843 -	1,578,146	16	73	977,504	10	3	600,641	6	44	122,161	8	9	478,479	17	23

* Namely, the gross receipts, after deducting the returns for "refused letters," &c.
 † Includes over and above what are properly the expenses of collection, all payments out of the revenue, in its progress to the Exchequer, amounting to about 10,000*l.* a year in pensions to the Duke of Marlborough and others, except advances to the money order office.
 ‡ This year includes one month of the fourpenny rate.

It is plain, therefore, that the adoption of the new Post-office system has occasioned the sacrifice of above 1,100,000*l.* a year of revenue. And though it be true that a sacrifice of this amount might not, under other circumstances, have been of much consequence, it is to be borne in mind that it was incurred when the revenue was already inadequate to meet the expenditure, and when, consequently, the deficiency had to be otherwise provided for, though probably in some more onerous way. We should not, however, have thought the loss of revenue, nor even the miserable quackery of a uniform penny rate, a valid objection to the new plan, had there been no means other than its adoption of getting rid of the inconveniences attached to the old system. But such was not the case. All its defects might have been effectually obviated without any, or with but a very inconsiderable, loss of revenue. Had franking been abolished, and the old rates of postage so reduced that the average charge might have been about 2½*d.* or 3*d.* a letter, the revenue would not probably have lost any thing, while every really advantageous object effected by the present system would have been secured. Indeed, we see no good reason why the present rates of postage should not, and very many why they should, be doubled, or increased to 2*d.* for a letter weighing ½ oz., 4*d.* for one weighing 1 oz., and so on. We are well convinced that, were this done, and the troublesome practice of forcing the prepayment of letters abandoned, the revenue would be nearly doubled, with little or no inconvenience to the public.

It will redound nothing to the credit of the new system should the Post-office revenue increase while it is maintained; for this will necessarily follow from the increasing population, wealth, commerce, and education of the country. The revenue would increase quite as fast under any reasonably well contrived system; all taxes on ar-

sion of printed notes and proceedings in parliament for any space not exceeding 24 hours from the time at which the same would otherwise have been forwarded.

Stamps.—The date shows when the letters were received at the post office.

The circular stamp of black ink, at the back of the letter, is used when the postage is paid on the letter, or the date of the letter of the ink, on the face of the letter, with the word "Paid," when the postage has been paid at the time of posting the letter.

Ship Letters.—The single uniform rate on letters between the U. Kingdom and places beyond sea, when conveyed by private ships, is 3d. With the following exceptions, viz.:—to or from Hamburg, Lubek, Bremen, and the Duchy of Oldenburg, the rate is 6d.; to or from France, 1s. 1d.; and to or from Holland, 1s. (the letters forwarded by private ships the postage must be paid in advance, except to France and Holland, to which countries the payment is optional). The respective rates of 1d. to France and of 1s. to Holland includes the French and Dutch postage to destination.

The rates of postage on ship as on other letters are taken by weight:—

- Not exceeding 1 oz. - - - Single.
- Not exceeding 1/2 oz. - - - Double.
- Not exceeding 3/4 oz. - - - Quadruple.
- Not exceeding 2 oz. - - - Sixtuple, and so on.

Persons exempted from Ship Letter Postage.—The owners, charterers, or consignees (resident in the U. Kingdom), and

the owners, consignees, and shippers of goods on board vessels (ward bound), are entitled to receive their letters free from sea postage, to the extent collectively of 6 ounces in weight, by any vessel to any 3d person. In the case of vessels coming from India, the Mauritius, the East Indies, or the Cape of Good Hope, for an owner, charterer, or consignee, of such vessel, the letters may be collectively twenty ounces in weight. The user, charterer, or consignee must be described as such on the address and superscription; and in the case of owners, charterers, or consignees of goods, it must also appear by the ship's manifest that they have goods on board the vessel. Such persons are entitled to have their letters which come within the above conditions forwarded before the master, for he delivers the other letters in his charge to the post-office.

Every person who shall, with intent to evade any duty of postage, falsely superscribe a letter as being the owner, or the charterer, or the consignee of a vessel conveying the same, or as the owner, or the shipper, or the consignee of goods shipped in such vessel, shall for every such offence forfeit 10s.

Mails made up in London.—Letters (except those for India and Mauritius, which must be posted at the same hours as inland letters) for the foreign mails are received at the branch offices, Charing Cross, Old Cavendish Street, and 106, Blackman Street, Borough, until 10 o'clock at night, on Tuesday and Friday, and till 10 at St. Martin's Island and Lombard Street; at St. Martin's Island only they will be received after 11 o'clock on payment of a fee of 1d. and after 11 until half past 11 p. m., on payment of a fee of 6d.

When made up in London. When due.

France	Belgium	Holland	Hamburg, Sweden, and Norway	Dublin	Waterford	Inangladee	Cornwall and Jersey	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton	Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar
Daily	Daily	Tuesday and Friday	Tuesday and Friday	Tuesday and Friday	Tuesday and Friday	Tuesday and Friday	Tuesday and Friday	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily	Daily
Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday and Thursday	Tuesday and Saturday, but will arrive on previous day.	Tuesday and Saturday, but will arrive on previous day.	Tuesday and Saturday, but will arrive on previous day.	Tuesday and Saturday, but will arrive on previous day.	Tuesday and Saturday, but will arrive on previous day.	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday	Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, & Friday

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton. Every Thursday morning.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar. Twice in each month, viz.:—On the first morning of every month, and on the Thursday morning nearest to the 15th of every month.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton. 1st Tuesday in each month.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar. 3rd and 15th of every month, except in the winter months, December, January, February, and March, and then on the 3rd only.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton. Last day of each month.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Gibraltar. 2nd and 17th morning of every month.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton. 2nd morning of every month.

Spain, Portugal, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Ionian Islands, via Southampton. Every Thursday morning. Twice in each month, viz.:—On the first morning of every month, and on the Thursday morning nearest to the 15th of every month. 1st Tuesday in each month. 3rd and 15th of every month, except in the winter months, December, January, February, and March, and then on the 3rd only. Last day of each month. 2nd and 17th morning of every month. 2nd morning of every month.

The mails despatched every Thursday for Vigo, Oporto, Lisbon, Cadix, and Gibraltar are forwarded by steam vessels from Southampton to Gibraltar.

The mails for the Azores, Madeira, and the Ionian Islands, despatched from London on the Thursday nearest to the 15th of the month, are conveyed from Gibraltar to Malta by her Majesty's steam packets employed in the Mediterranean.

The mail of the 1st day in each month is forwarded by the same packet from Southampton to Alexandria; leaving mails at Malta.

The mails for Greece and the Ionian Islands are conveyed from Malta every fortnight, by steam packets, which start after the arrival of the mails from England.

The mails for Egypt, India, and China are forwarded direct from Southampton on the 1st of each month by steam packets.

From August to January inclusive, the packet touches at Pernambuco and Bahia, on her outward passage to Rio Janeiro, and the other 6 months on her homeward.

North America and British and Foreign India, from Liverpool.—The mails for North America are forwarded by steam packets, which leave Liverpool twice a month immediately after the arrival of the London mails of the 3d and 16th, unless either of these should fall on a Sunday, and then on the succeeding day. During the winter months, viz. December, January, February, and March, but one mail, that of the 3d, is despatched.

American and West Indian Letters.		Rates, paying the Postage optional, excepting Places marked with *, which must be paid with.		
		Not exceeding 1/2 Oz.	Not exceeding 1 Oz.	Not exceeding 2 Oz.
		s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
North America, viz.:—Quebec, Montreal, and all parts of Canada, Nova Scotia (Halifax excepted), Prince Edward's Island, and New Brunswick, conveyed direct by the contract packets (i.e. packet postage, and 3d. uniform internal colonial rate)		1	2	4
† forwarded via Boston, the above places are charged.		1	2	0
Halifax, Newfoundland, * New York, the Bermudas, and the * United States		1	0	4
British West Indies, &c., including Barbadoes, New Providence, Turk's Island, Bahamas, Antigua, Berlics, Carriacou, Demerara, Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Nevis, St. Vincent's, St. Kitt's, Tobago, Tortoise, Trinidad, and the port of Kingston in Jamaica		1	0	2
Jamaica (port of Kingston excepted)		1	2	4
Foreign West Indies, including * Guadeloupe, * Martinique, * St. Thomas, * Curacao, * Surinam, * St. Martin's, * St. Croix, Porto Rico, and Hayti		1	5	2

Postage on letters to the British West Indies (Jamaica excepted), 1s. for each single letter, and so on in proportion for all parts of the U. Kingdom, without any charge for inland postage.

On letters to Jamaica (with the exception of Kingston, the packet post, to which the postage is 1s. only) the uniform rate is 1s. 3d. the single letter.

All letters addressed to North America are forwarded by the contract steam packets, and charged accordingly, unless the words "By Private Ship" be plainly written on them.

N.B.—Letters for Canada, conveyed by the North American packets from Liverpool, if specially addressed via Boston, will be forwarded by that route, in the United States Mails, provided the packet postage be paid in advance.

Rates of Postage within British North America.—Letters forwarded to or from British North America by the Liverpool packets, or by private ships, passing direct between the U. Kingdom and British America, are charged with a uniform colonial rate of 3d. the half ounce when posted or delivered at any other towns than the ports of Halifax, Nova Scotia, or St. John's Newfoundland.

When not conveyed direct between the U. Kingdom and British America, but forwarded through the United States, they are liable to the full internal rate, according to distance

Letters via France.—A large portion of the letters to and from India, as well as to various parts in Europe, are now sent through France; and a convention has lately been negotiated with that country, by which the transit rate on letters weighing under 2 oz. passing through France, has been fixed at 3d. and the British rate on such letters not exceeding 1/2 oz. When conveyed beyond the French frontier the additional foreign postage has of course to be paid.

India Letters.—Mails for India are made up on the 4th of every month, and despatched via Mauritius, whence they are forwarded by British steamers to Alexandria, and again by steamers from Suez to Bombay. All letters are sent by this route unless otherwise addressed. Postage paid in advance 1s. 10d. to Bombay for a letter under 2 oz., and 2s. 3d. for one under 3 oz. Mails for India are also forwarded via Southampton on the 1st of every month, at the rate of 1s. 10d. for a letter not exceeding 1/2 oz. Letters intended to go by Southampton must be addressed "via Southampton."

Russia.—Mails for Russia and the north of Europe are despatched every Tuesday and Friday, via Hamburg. Postage 1s. 3d. not exceeding 1/2 oz. Letters for Russia may also be sent through France and Holland.

Holland.—Letters forwarded every Tuesday and Friday, paid or unpaid, at the rate of 1s. on letters not exceeding 4 oz. The British rate of 6d. on letters passing to Germany must be paid in advance.

Letters for the following states are forwarded through the office of the Prince of Tour and Taxis, when sent *via* France. A List of the Northern States of Europe, and the German States, which are served by or forwarded through the office of the Prince of Tour and Taxis.

Northern States.

Hanover	Mecklenburg	Saxony
Denmark	Silesia	Sweden
Hannover	Oldenburg	Switzerland
Mecklenburg	Schwerin	Sweden and Norway.

Bremen	Free cities	Germany, Ratis.
Frankfurt		Nass-Aachen
Hamburg		Nass-Bonn
Lubeck		Nass-Meinungen
Hesse Darmstadt		Nass-Weimar
Hesse (Electoral)		Schleswig-Lippe
Hesse Homburg		Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt
Lippe-Deimold		Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt
		Wurtemberg

Portugal and Spain.—Mails are despatched *via* Southampton every Thursday morning. Postage in Portugal, which may be paid in advance, is 10d. for a letter not exceeding 4 oz. to Spain &c. Letters for the Peninsula may also be sent daily through France. For further details as to foreign and other postage see *our Directory*.

Statement of the Number of Letters delivered in the United Kingdom in one Week of each Calendar Month of 1842 and 1843.

Weeks ending	England and Wales.				Total Ireland.	Total Scotland.	Total United Kingdom.
	Country Offices.	London, Island, Foreign, and Ship.	London District Post.	Total England and Wales.			
1842.							
25 January	2,165,383	567,656	481,896	3,214,935	421,273	427,245	4,068,665
21 February	2,041,971	591,971	392,414	3,026,356	416,000	417,768	3,850,124
21 March	2,100,170	560,433	418,193	3,118,804	405,714	411,708	3,936,246
24 April	2,061,679	579,332	435,279	3,076,290	428,782	431,441	3,936,513
22 May	2,110,120	541,190	485,330	3,136,640	409,181	411,019	3,956,840
19 June	2,015,639	549,953	467,371	3,034,963	412,689	412,698	3,858,350
24 July	2,005,027	556,463	431,377	3,092,867	411,022	411,044	3,909,933
21 August	2,083,269	548,113	480,674	3,112,056	401,019	401,019	3,914,043
25 September	2,159,975	556,099	392,191	3,098,265	420,078	425,700	3,944,043
23 October	2,156,126	561,187	400,074	3,117,387	419,113	423,048	3,961,548
30 November	2,222,024	535,446	446,241	3,203,711	417,031	416,000	4,026,742
25 December	2,205,521	576,367	496,560	3,278,448	416,534	416,000	4,100,489
1843.							
29 January	2,274,241	583,393	485,376	3,342,910	469,148	448,132	4,250,190
19 February	2,240,420	585,929	466,940	3,293,389	489,081	464,717	4,247,227
19 March	2,271,513	599,972	481,181	3,352,666	451,102	473,221	4,276,989
25 April	2,113,858	567,328	486,699	3,168,885	425,846	430,221	4,024,952
21 May	2,102,426	612,665	465,408	3,180,499	411,866	411,866	4,003,631
21 June	2,161,723	573,698	492,367	3,247,788	427,204	426,846	4,097,838
21 July	2,222,024	586,766	477,697	3,286,487	419,108	446,829	4,158,511
21 August	2,243,560	590,513	418,390	3,252,463	425,558	440,712	4,147,508
21 September	2,269,969	580,386	393,756	3,244,111	415,041	444,033	4,173,147
21 October	2,265,211	566,266	490,338	3,321,815	417,523	446,875	4,225,213
21 November	2,296,190	629,730	475,476	3,401,396	478,941	468,677	4,340,713

Newspapers and Supplements to Newspapers.—It is not compulsory to send newspapers or the supplements to the post, but those that are intended to be so transmitted, and are entitled to pass free, must be put into the receiving houses before 5 a.m.; at the branch post-offices, before half-past 5 a.m., or at the general post-office, St. Martin's le Grand, before 6 a.m. Newspapers for the colonies and foreign countries cannot be received after 6. All newspapers must be sent in covers, open at the ends, and no words or communication may be printed on such papers after their publication, nor must there be any writing or marks upon any newspaper, or cover, other than the name and address of the person to whom it is sent; nor any paper or thing enclosed or conveyed in it, nor any private words or communication on the cover, except that new vendors only may print their names and addresses thereon. Newspapers may be examined by the officers of the Post-office; and if there be any breach of the above regulations, the packet is chargeable with treble the amount of postage which a letter of the same weight would have been liable to. And any person who shall write or enclose any thing in any newspaper or its cover, or shall print any words or communication on a newspaper, after it has been published, to be sent by the post, or any person who shall knowingly send, or cause to be sent, by the post, a newspaper in respect of which any one of these offences has been committed, may be prosecuted for a misdemeanour.

A.R.—As the mere affixing a newspaper stamp on any newspaper publication will not entitle it, as a matter of course, to pass free by the post, those who may be desirous to publish, for the first time, any such paper, should submit a copy to the

postmaster general, in order that it may be determined whether the publication is of a nature that will entitle it to pass free of postage, it being provided by the act 11 Geo. 4. c. 31. s. 2. "That in all cases in which a question shall arise, whether a printed paper is entitled to the privilege of a newspaper or other publication hereby privileged, the question shall be referred to the determination of the postmaster general, whose decision, with the concurrence of the members of the treasury, shall be final."

Newspapers from the British colonies are delivered free of postage at any place within the British dominions. Newspapers may be forwarded to the British colonies and possessions by her Majesty's packet boats, free of the duty of postage, provided they be duly stamped and made up open at the ends, and put into the post-office within 4 days after the day of publication.

Newspapers may also be forwarded to the colonies by private ships for a postage of 1d. each, to some foreign port free, and to others for a postage of 2d. each, to be paid at the time of putting in, under the same regulations as to date, &c. Newspapers printed in the colonies and brought in Great Britain or Ireland by packet boats, if made up without covers, or in covers open at the ends, are delivered in the U. Kingdom free of postage.

Newspapers to the East Indies and China are forwarded by the East India Company, on payment of 3d. each. The mail is received on the 4th of every month, except it happens to fall on a Sunday, when it is made up on the following day.

List of Colonies and Foreign Parts to which Newspapers may be sent by Packet free of Postage.

British Colonies.			Foreign Parts.		
Aden	Grenada	Nevis	Brazil	Haiti, or	St. Domingo
Antigua	Halifax	New Brunswick	Bremen	St. Domingo	
Barbadoes	Hull	Newfoundland	Buenos Ayres	Lubeck	
Berberice	Islanders	Nova Scotia	Copenhagen	New Granada	
Bermuda	Hong Kong, <i>via</i> South-	Quebec	Denmark	Persia	
Canada	Amoy	St. Kitt's	France	Supra	
Canton	India, ditto	St. Lucia	Greece	Venezuela	
Demerara	Ionian Islands, ditto	St. Vincent's	Hamburg		
Dominica	Jamaica, ditto	Tobago			
Gibraltar	Malta, ditto	Toronto			
	Montserrat	Trinidad			

Foreign Parts to which a Postage of 2d. on each Newspaper must be paid when it is posted.

United States of America	Continent of Europe	With the exception of Holland, and those places mentioned in the preceding list of "foreign parts" as "sent free of postage."
Holland		
Martinique		
Burman		
St. Croix		
St. Thomas		
St. Martin's		
Cuba		
Esperia		
Syria		
	South America	
		With the exception of
		Brazil
		Buenos Ayres
		Persia
		New Granada
		Venezuela

The rate on newspapers to or from Holland, or to or from countries through Holland, is 1d.; Greece, Italy, France, Id.; Spain, *via* France, Id.; the Mediterranean, Egypt, the East Indies, and China, by the closed mail, *via* St. Malo, 3d.

* The refuse to

Newspapers to France are forwarded free of charge to the sender. A rate of 4 pence (nearly equivalent to 1d.) is charged upon delivery in France.
 Newspapers from abroad.—Newspapers arriving from those foreign parts in which newspapers are published free, and delivered free of postage, except those from France, which are charged 1d. each. From those parts, from which they are not dispensed from, newspapers are charged here as except as stated in the above paragraph. All newspapers must be printed in the language of the country from which they are sent, unless specially exempted by the laws of the treasury.
 Newspapers by private ships.—If put into the office within 7 days after publication, are forwarded to the Cape of Good

Hope, Mauritius, or Isle of France, Hong Kong, Sydney, New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, South Australia, Chili, Peru, Guatemala, and the Western Coast of America, and the East Indies, on payment of 1d. with each paper; to St. Helena and the Western Coast of Africa, viz., St. Mary's, St. Helena, Sierra Leone, Cape Coast Castle, Fernando Po, and Ascension (Isle), at the same rate; to China (Hong Kong excepted) and places not British, on payment of 3d. each, under the above regulations as to date, &c.
 R.B.—All newspapers forwarded through the Ship Letter Office, except those between ports in Great Britain, and Ireland, must be paid for when put in.

Offences against the Post-Office.—The laws relative to offences against the Post-office were consolidated by the act 1 Vict. c. 36., of the more important parts of which we subjoin an abstract.

Contracting the Privilege of Post-Office.—Every person who shall convey otherwise than by the post a letter not exempted from the exclusive privilege of the postmaster general shall for every letter forfeit 5s., and every person who shall be in the practice of so conveying letters not so exempted, shall for every week during which the practice shall be continued forfeit 100l.; and every person who shall perform otherwise than by the post any services incidental to conveying letters from place to place, whether by receiving, taking up, collecting, ordering, dispatching, carrying, or delivering a letter not exempted from the exclusive privilege of the postmaster general, shall forfeit for every letter 1s.; and every person who shall be in the practice of so performing any such incidental services shall for every week during which the practice shall be continued, forfeit 100l.; and every person who shall send a letter not exempted from the exclusive privilege of the postmaster general otherwise than by the post, or shall cause a letter not so exempted to be sent or conveyed other than by post, or shall tender or deliver a letter not so exempt in order to be sent otherwise than by post, shall forfeit for every letter 5s.; and every person who shall be in the practice of committing any of the acts last mentioned shall for every week during which the practice shall be continued, forfeit 100l.; and every person who shall make a collection of exempted letters for the purpose of conveying or sending them otherwise than by the post, or by the post, shall forfeit for every letter 1s.; and every person who shall be in the practice of making a collection of exempted letters for either of those purposes, shall forfeit for every week during which the practice shall be continued 100l. And be it declared, that the term post shall herein include all post communications by land or by water (except by outward-bound vessels not employed by the post-office or the admiralty to carry post letters); and the above penalties shall be incurred whether the letter be sent singly or together with some other letter or thing; and in any prosecution for the recovery of any such penalty the onus shall lie upon the party prosecuted to prove that the act in respect of which the penalty is alleged to have been incurred was done in conformity to the post-office laws.—§ 3.

Ship Letters retained after delivery of Letters to Post-Office.—Every person, being either the master of a vessel inward-bound, or one of the officers, or one of the crew, or a passenger thereof, who shall knowingly have any letter in his possession not exempted from the privilege of the postmaster general, after the master shall have sent any part of his ship's letters to the post-office, shall forfeit for every letter 5s.; and every such person who shall detain any such letter after demand made, either by the officer of the customs or by a person authorised by the postmaster general to demand ship's letters, shall forfeit for every letter 10s.—§ 3.

Clause 4. relative to the abuse of the privilege of franking, and is no longer of importance.
Penalties on Masters of Ships not taking Letter Bags.—Every master of a vessel bound to Ceylon, the Mauritius, the East Indies, or the Cape of Good Hope, who shall refuse to take a post letter bag delivered or tendered to him by an officer of the post-office for conveyance, shall forfeit 200l.; and every master of a vessel who shall omit a sealed letter bag, with which he shall be intrusted for conveyance, shall forfeit 200l.; and every master of a vessel who shall take out of a letter bag with which he shall have been intrusted for conveyance a letter or any other thing shall forfeit 200l.; and every master of a vessel who shall not duly deliver a letter bag with the contents at the post-office on his arrival in port, without willful or unavoidable delay after his arrival, shall forfeit 200l.; and every person to whom letters may have been intrusted by the master of a vessel to bring on shore who shall break the seal, or in any manner willfully open the same, shall forfeit 200l.; and every master of a vessel who shall refuse or willfully neglect to make declaration of having delivered his ship's letters to the post-office, shall forfeit 50l.; and every collector, comptroller, or officer of the customs who is required by the act 1 Vict. c. 34. to prohibit any vessel departing until the requisites of such act have been complied with, who shall permit such vessel to depart before the requisites of such act shall have been complied with, shall forfeit 50l.; and every master of a vessel (not having been able to send his letters ashore previous to his arrival at the port where the vessel is to report) who shall break bulk or make entry before all letters on board shall be sent to the post-office shall forfeit 200l.; and every master of a vessel, or any other person on board any ship liable to the performance of quarantine, who shall neglect or refuse to deliver to the person or persons appointed to superintend the quarantine all letters in his possession, shall forfeit 200l.—§ 4.

Penalties on the Carelessness of Persons engaged or employed in carrying, conveying, &c. Letters.—Every person employed to convey or deliver a post letter bag or a post letter who shall, whilst so employed, or whilst the same shall be in his custody, care, or possession, leave a post letter bag or a post letter, or suffer any person, not being the guard or person employed for that purpose, to ride in the place appointed for the guard in or upon any carriage used for the conveyance of a post letter bag or post letter, or to ride in or upon a carriage so used and not licensed to carry passengers, or upon a horse used for the conveyance on horseback of a post letter bag or a post letter, or if any such person shall be guilty of any act of drunkenness, or of carelessness, negligence, or other misconduct, whereby the safety of a post letter bag or a post letter shall be endangered, or who shall collect or receive, or convey or deliver, a letter otherwise than in the ordinary course of the post, or who shall give any false information of an assault or attempt at robbery upon him or who shall bring on the road or passage, or willfully mislead his time so as to retard or delay the progress or arrival of a post letter bag or a post letter, or who shall not use due and proper care and diligence safely to convey a post letter bag or a post letter at the rate of speed appointed by and according to the regulations of the post-office for the time being, being thereof convicted, shall forfeit 200l.—§ 7.

Clause 8. to 24. inclusive impose penalties on hackney carriages plying for hire opposite the general post-office in London or Dublin; exempt mail coaches from toll; and direct how penalties shall be sued for.

Opening or delaying Post Letters a Misdemeanour.—Every person employed by or under the post-office who shall, contrary to his duty, open or procure or suffer to be opened a post letter, or shall willfully detain or delay, or procure or suffer to be detained or delayed, a post letter, shall in England and Ireland

* The 3 & 4 Vict. c. 101. extends this penalty to the master of every vessel outward bound who shall refuse to take a post letter bag delivered or tendered to him for conveyance.

be guilty of a misdemeanor, and in Scotland of a crime and offence, and being convicted thereof shall suffer such punishment by fine or imprisonment, or by both, as to the court shall seem meet: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to the opening or detaining or delaying of a letter returned for want of a true direction, or of a letter returned by reason that the person to whom the same is directed is dead or cannot be found, or shall have refused the same, or shall have refused or neglected to pay the postage thereof; nor to the opening or detaining or delaying of a post letter in obedience to an express warrant in writing under the hand (in Great Britain) of one of the principal secretaries of state, and in Ireland under the hand and seal of the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

Embezzlement, &c. of any Letter or Packet, Felony.— Every person employed under the post-office who shall steal, or shall for any purpose whatever embezzle, secrete, or destroy a post letter, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of felony, and in Scotland of a high crime and offence, and shall, at the discretion of the court, either be transported beyond the seas for the term of 7 years, or be imprisoned for any term not exceeding 5 years; and if any such post letter so stolen or embezzled, secreted or destroyed, shall contain therein any chattel or money whatsoever, or any valuable security, every such offender shall be transported beyond the seas for life. — § 26.

Stealing Money, &c. from or out of Letters, Felony.— Every person who shall steal from or out of a post letter any chattel or money, or valuable security, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of felony, and in Scotland of a high crime and offence, and shall be transported beyond the seas for life.

Persons stealing Post Letter Bags, &c. to be transported for Life.— Every person who shall steal a post letter bag, or a post letter from a post letter bag, or shall steal a post letter from a post-office, or from an officer of the post-office or from a mail, or shall stop a mail with intent to rob or search the same, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of felony, and in Scotland of a high crime and offence, and shall be transported beyond the seas for life.

Persons stealing Post Letters to be transported for 14 Years.— Every person who shall steal or unlawfully take away a post letter bag sent by a post-office packet, or who shall steal or unlawfully take a letter out of any such bag, or shall unlawfully open any such bag, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of felony, and in Scotland of a high crime and offence, and shall be transported beyond the seas for any term not exceeding 14 years.

Receivers of Property sent by Post stolen or embezzled, guilty of Felony.— Every person who shall receive any post letter or post letter bag, or any chattel or money or valuable security, the stealing or taking or embezzling or secreting whereof shall amount to a felony under the Post Office Acts, knowing the same to have been feloniously stolen, taken, embezzled, or secreted, and to have been sent or intended to be sent by the post, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of felony, and in Scotland of a high crime and offence, and may be indicted and convicted either as an accessory after the fact or for a substantive felony, and in the latter case, whether the principal felon shall or shall not have been previously convicted, or shall or shall not be amenable to justice; and every such receiver, howsoever convicted, shall be liable to be transported beyond the seas for life.

Fraudulently retaining, after Delivery thereof, &c.— Every person who shall fraudulently retain, or shall wilfully secrete or keep or detain, or being required to deliver up by an officer of the post-office, shall neglect or refuse to deliver up a post letter which ought to have been delivered to any other person, or a post letter bag or post letter which shall have been sent, whether the same shall have been found by the person secreting, keeping, or detaining, or neglecting or refusing to deliver up the same, or by any other person, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of a misdemeanor, and in Scotland of a crime and offence, and on conviction shall be liable to be punished by fine and imprisonment.

Stealing, &c. printed Votes or Proceedings in Parliament, &c.— Every person employed in the post-office who shall steal, or shall for any purpose embezzle, secrete, or destroy, or shall wilfully detain or delay in course of conveyance or delivery thereof by the post, any printed votes or proceedings in parliament, or any printed newspaper, or any other printed paper whatever sent by the post without covers, or in covers open at the sides, shall in England and Ireland be guilty of a misdemeanor, and in Scotland of a crime and offence, and on conviction shall suffer such punishment by fine or imprisonment, or both, as the court shall direct.

Forging the Handwriting of the Receiver General in England or Ireland, Felony.— Every person who shall knowingly and wilfully forge or counterfeit, or cause or procure to be forged or counterfeited, the name or handwriting of the receiver general for the time being of the general post office in England or Ireland, or of any person employed by or under him, to any draft, instrument, or writing whatsoever, for or in order to the receiving or obtaining of any money in the hands or custody of the governor and company of the bank of England or Ireland on account of the receiver general of the post-office, or shall forge or alter, or shall offer, utter, dispose of, or put off, knowing the same to be forged or altered, any draft, warrant, or order of such receiver general, or of any person employed by or under him, for money or for payment of money, with intent to defraud any person whomsoever, shall be guilty of felony, and on conviction shall be transported beyond the seas for life.

Clause 34. relates to the forging or altering franks.
The remaining clauses relate to the punishment of accessories, determine the mode in which the postage duties shall be sued for, define terms, &c.

Irish Post-office.— The most gross and scandalous abuses were long prevalent in every department of the Irish post-office. The commissioners of Revenue Inquiry exerted themselves to abate the nuisance; but, as it would appear from the evidence of the Duke of Richmond before the committee of the House of Commons on public salaries, without much effect. His Grace, however, laboured with laudable activity and zeal to introduce something like honesty, order, and responsibility into this department. The gross revenue of the Irish post-office amounted, in 1842, to 128,984*l.*, the expenses of collection for the same year being 127,856*l.*; so that it may be fairly said that under the new system Ireland pays no postage.

UNITED STATES.— We subjoin an account of the number of post-offices, the extent of post roads, the rates of postage, &c. in the United States.

POST-OFFICES AND POSTAGE.		
Post-offices in 1790	751	extent of post roads in miles, 875
— 1801	905	— 90,917
— 1810	4,240	— 36,416
— 1820	4,501	— 74,492
— 1829	4,814	— 115,000
— 1842	15,733	— 149,752

RATES OF POSTAGE.		
For Single Letters, composed of One Piece of Paper —		
Any distance not exceeding 30 miles, 6 cents.		
Over 30, and not exceeding 80	—	10
— 80	—	15
— 100	—	18
— 150	—	25

Double letters, or those composed of 2 pieces of paper, are charged with double the above rates.
Triple letters, or those composed of 3 pieces of paper, are charged with triple the above rates.
Quadruple letters, or those composed of 4 pieces of paper, are charged with quadruple the above rates.
All letters weighing 1 ounce avoirdupois, or more, are charged at the rate of single postage for each of an ounce, or quadruple postage for each ounce, according to their weight; and no letter can be charged with more than quadruple postage, unless its weight exceeds 1 ounce avoirdupois.
The postage on single letters, delivered at the office when the vessel arrives, is 5 cents if conveyed by post, 6 cents in addition to the ordinary postage.
Newspaper Postage.— For each new-paper, not carried out of

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(the state in which it is published, or if carried out of the state but not carried over 100 miles, 1 cent.

Over 100 miles, and out of the state in which it is published, 1½ cents.

Magazines and Pamphlets.—If published periodically, distance not exceeding 100 miles, 1½ cent per sheet.

— over 100 — — — 2½ — — — 100 miles, 4 cts. per sheet
If not pub. period. dist. not exceed. 100 miles, 4 cts. per sheet
over 100 — — — 6 — — —

Small pamphlets, containing not more than a ½ sheet royal, are charged with ½ the above rates. Eight pages quarto are rated as one sheet, and all other sizes in the same proportion.

The number of sheets in a pamphlet sent by mail must be printed or written on one of the outer pages. When the number of sheets is not truly stated, double postage is charged.

Every thing not coming under the denomination of newspaper or pamphlet is charged with letter postage.

The total post-office revenue of the United States, in the year ended the 30th June 1842, amounted to 4,546,246 dollars, the expenditure during the same year being 4,235,052 dollars.—(*American Almanac for 1844.*)

POST ENTRY. When goods are weighed or measured, and the merchant has got an account thereof at the Custom-house, and finds his entry, already made, too small, he must make a *post* or additional *entry* for the surplussage, in the same manner as the first was done. As a merchant is always in time, prior to the clearing of the vessel, to make his post, he should take care not to over-enter, to avoid as well the advance, as the trouble of getting back the overplus. However, if this be the case, and an over-entry has been made, and more paid or bonded for customs than the goods really landed amount to, the land-waiter and surveyor must signify the same, upon oath made, and subscribed by the person so over-entered, that neither he, nor any other person, to his knowledge, had any of the said goods over-entered on board the said ship, or anywhere landed the same without payment of custom; which oath must be attested by the collector or comptroller, or their deputies, who then compute the duties, and set down on the back of the certificate, first in words at length, and then in figures, the several sums to be paid.

POTASH (Da. *Potaske*; Fr. *Potasse*; Ger. *Pottasche*; It. *Potassa*; Pol. *Potasz*; Rus. *Potash*). If vegetables be burned, the ashes lixiviated, and the solution boiled to dryness in iron vessels, the mass left behind is the *potash* of commerce—the impure carbonate of potass of chemists. It is intensely alkaline, solid, and coloured brown by the admixture of a small portion of vegetable inflammable matter, which generally becomes moist. When potash is calcined in a reverberatory furnace, the colouring matter is destroyed, it assumes a spongy texture, and a whitish pearly lustre; whence it is denominated *pearl-ash*. The latter generally contains from 60 to 83 or 84 per cent. of pure carbonate of potass.

The ashes of those vegetables only which grow at a distance from the sea are employed in the manufacture of potash. Herbaceous plants yield the largest portion, and shrubs more than trees. It is principally manufactured in America, Russia, and Poland, the vast forests of which furnish an inexhaustible supply of ashes.

Potash is of great importance in the arts, being largely employed in the manufacture of flint glass and soft soap, the rectification of spirits, bleaching, making alum, scouring wool, &c. At an average of 1840 and 1841, the entries of pot and pearl ashes for home consumption, amounted to 82,381 cwt. a year. Of 99,295 cwt. imported in 1840, 98,260 cwt. were brought from the British possessions in North America. The ashes of the U. States are the purest, and bring the highest price.

Ashes from Canada are duty free; those from Russia and the United States used pay a duty of 6s. a cwt., which was reduced, in 1842, to 6d.

POTATOES (Ger. *Kartoffeln*; Du. *Aardappelen*; Fr. *Pommes de terre*; It. *Patate*, *Pomi di terra*; Sp. *Patatas manchegas*; Rus. *Jabluki semlenie*), the roots of the *Solanum tuberosum*, of innumerable varieties, and too well known to require any description.

1. *Historical Notice.*—The potato, which is at present to be met with everywhere in Europe, and forms a principal part of the food of a considerable proportion of its inhabitants, was entirely unknown in this quarter of the world till the latter part of the 16th century. It is a native of America, but whether of both divisions of that continent is doubtful.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 9.) Some authors affirm that it was first introduced into Europe by Sir John Hawkins, in 1545; others, that it was introduced by Sir Francis Drake, in 1573; and others, again, that it was for the first time brought to England from Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1586. But this discrepancy seems to have arisen from confounding the common, or Virginian potato (the *Solanum tuberosum* of Linnæus), with the sweet potato (*Convolvulus batatas*). The latter was introduced into Europe long before the former, and it seems most probable that it was the species brought from New Granada by Hawkins. Sweet potatoes require a warm climate, and do not succeed in this country; they were, however, imported in considerable quantities, during the 16th century, from Spain and the Canaries, and were supposed to have some rather peculiar properties. The kissing comfits of Falstaff, and such like confections, were principally made of *batatas* and eringo roots.—(See Collins' elaborate note to *Troilus* and *Cressida*, act. v. scene 2.) On the whole, we are inclined to think that we are really indebted for the potato (as well as for tobacco) to Sir Walter Raleigh, or the colonists planted by him in Virginia. Gerarde, an old English botanist, mentions, in his *Herbal*, published in 1597, that he had

planted the potato in his garden at London about 1590; and that it succeeded there as well as in its native soil, Virginia, whence he had received it. Potatoes were at first cultivated by a very few, and were looked upon as a great delicacy. In a manuscript account of the household expenses of Queen Anne, wife of James I., who died in 1618, and which is supposed to have been written in 1613, the purchase of a very small quantity of potatoes is mentioned at the price of 2s. a pound. The Royal Society, in 1663, recommended the extension of their cultivation, as a means of preventing famine. Previously, however, to 1684, they were raised only in the gardens of the nobility and gentry; but in that year they were planted, for the first time, in the open fields in Lancashire, — a county in which they have long been very extensively cultivated.

Potatoes, it is commonly thought, were not introduced into Ireland till 1610, when a small quantity was sent by Sir Walter Raleigh to be planted in a garden on his estate in the vicinity of Youghal. Their cultivation extended far more rapidly than in England; and have long furnished from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the entire food of the people of Ireland!

Potatoes were not raised in Scotland, except in gardens, till 1728, when they were planted in the open fields by a person of the name of Prentice, a day labourer at Kilsyth, who died at Edinburgh in 1792.

The extension of the potato cultivation has been particularly rapid during the last 40 years. The quantity that is now raised in Scotland is supposed to be from 10 to 12 times as great as the quantity raised in it at the end of the American war; and though the increase in England has not been nearly so great as in Scotland, it has been greater than during any previous period of equal duration. The increase on the Continent has been similar. Potatoes are now very largely cultivated in France, Italy, and Germany; and, with the exception of the Irish, the Swiss have become their greatest consumers. They were introduced into India some 70 or 80 years ago; and are now successfully cultivated in Bengal, and have been introduced into the Madras provinces, Java, the Philippines, and China. But the common potato does not thrive within the tropics unless it be raised at an elevation of 3,000 or 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, so that it can never come into very general use in these regions. This, however, is not the case with the sweet potato, which has also been introduced into tropical Asia; and with such success, that it already forms a considerable portion of the food of the people of Java, and some other countries. So rapid an extension of the taste for, and the cultivation of, an exotic, has no parallel in the history of industry; it has had, and will continue to have, the most powerful influence over the condition of mankind. — (For further details with respect to the history of the potato, see *Sir F. M. Eden on the State of the Poor*, vol. i. p. 508.; *Humboldt, Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, iii. 460—465. 2d ed.; *Sir Joseph Banks on the Introduction of the Potato*; *Phillips's History of Cultivated Vegetables*, vol. ii. art. *Potato*.)

2. *Influence of the Cultivation of the Potato on the Number and Condition of the People.* — There is a considerable discrepancy in the statements of the best authors as to the number of individuals that might be supported on an acre of land planted with potatoes, as compared with those that might be supported on an acre sown with wheat; some stating the proportion as high as six to one, and others at only two to one. According to Mr. Arthur Young, 1 lb. of wheat is about equal in nutritive power to 5 lbs. of potatoes. But Mr. Newenham, who has carefully investigated this subject, states that "3 lbs. of good mealy potatoes are, undoubtedly, more than equivalent to 1 lb. of bread," — (*Newenham on the Population of Ireland*, p. 340.); and his estimate is rather above Mr. Wakefield's. Supposing, however, that 1 lb. of wheat is fully equal to four lbs. of potatoes, still the difference in favour of the superior quantity of food derived from a given quantity of land planted with the latter is very great. According to Mr. Young, the average produce of potatoes in Ireland may be taken at 82 barrels the Irish acre; which, at 20 stone the barrel, is equal to 22,960 lbs.; and this being divided by four, to bring it to the same standard, in point of nutritive power, as wheat, gives 5,740 lbs. Mr. Young further estimates the average produce of wheat, by the Irish acre, at 4 quarters; which, supposing the quarter to weigh 480 lbs., gives in all 1,920 lbs., or about $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the solid nourishment afforded by an acre of potatoes. — (*Tour in Ireland*, Appen. pp. 12. 24. &c. 4to ed.) This estimate must, however, be somewhat modified, when applied to Great Britain; the soil of which, while it is better adapted to the growth of wheat, is generally supposed not to be quite so suitable for the potato as that of Ireland. But it notwithstanding admits of demonstration, that even here, "an acre of potatoes will feed double the number of individuals that can be fed from an acre of wheat." — (*General Report of Scotland*, vol. i. p. 571.)

It is clear, therefore, on the most moderate estimate, that the population of a potato-feeding country may become, other things being about equal, from 2 to 3 times as dense as it would be, were the inhabitants fed wholly on corn. But it is exceedingly

doubtful whether an increase of population, brought about by the substitution of the potato for wheat, be desirable. Its use as a subordinate or subsidiary species of food is attended with the best effects — producing both an increase of comfort and security; but there are certain circumstances inseparable from it, which would seem to oppose the most formidable obstacles to its advantageous use as a *prime* article of subsistence. The discussion of this subject can hardly be said properly to belong to a work of this sort; but its importance may, perhaps, excuse us for making a few observations with respect to it.

It is admitted on all hands, that the rate of wages is principally determined by the species of food made use of in a country. Now, as potatoes form that species which is produced at the very least expense, it may be fairly presumed, on general grounds, that wages will be reduced to a minimum wherever the labouring classes are mainly dependent on potatoes; and the example of Ireland shows that this conclusion is as consistent with fact as with principle. It is clear, however, that when the crop of potatoes happens to be deficient in a country thus situated, the condition of its inhabitants must be in the last degree unfortunate. During a period of scarcity, men cannot go from a low to a high level: if they would elude its pressure, they must leave the dearer and resort to the cheaper species of food. But to those who subsist on potatoes this is not possible; they have already reached the lowest point in the descending scale. Their wages being determined by the price of the least expensive sort of food, they cannot, when it fails, buy that which is dearer; so that it is hardly possible for them to avoid falling a sacrifice to absolute want. The history of Ireland abounds, unfortunately, in examples of this sort. Nothing is more common than to see the price of potatoes in Dublin, Limerick, &c. rise, because of a scarcity, to 5 or 6 times their ordinary price, and the people to be involved in the extreme of suffering; and yet it rarely happens, upon such occasions, that the price of corn is materially affected, or that any less quantity than usual is exported to England.

It may be said, perhaps, that had potatoes not been introduced, wheat, or barley, or oats would have been the lowest species of food; and that, whenever they happened to fail, the population would have been as destitute as if they had been subsisting on potatoes. It must, however, be observed, that the proportion which the price of wheat, or any species of grain, bears to the price of butcher's meat, tea, beer, &c., is always decidedly greater than the proportion which the price of potatoes bears to these articles; and it therefore follows, that a people who have adopted wheat, or any species of corn, for the principal part of their food, are not so able to make occasional purchases of butcher's meat, &c.; and will, consequently, be more likely to have their habits elevated, so as to consider the consumption of a certain quantity of animal food, &c. as indispensable to existence. And hence it appears reasonable to conclude, that a people who chiefly subsist on corn would, in most cases, subsist partially on butcher's meat, and would enjoy a greater or less quantity of other articles; so that it would be possible for them, in a period of scarcity, to make such retrenchments as would enable them to elude the severity of its pressure.

But, though the population in corn-feeding countries were dependent on the cheapest species of grain, not for a part only, but for the whole, of their food, their situation would, notwithstanding, be less hazardous than that of a population subsisting wholly on potatoes.

In the *first* place, owing to the impossibility, as to all practical purposes at least, of preserving potatoes, the surplus produce of a luxuriant crop cannot be stored up or reserved as a stock to meet any subsequent scarcity. The whole crop must necessarily be exhausted in a single year; so that, when the inhabitants have the misfortune to be overtaken by a scarcity, its pressure cannot be alleviated, as is almost uniformly the case in corn-feeding countries, by bringing the reserves of former harvests to market. Every year is thus left to provide subsistence for itself. When, on the one hand, the crop is luxuriant, the surplus is of comparatively little use, and is wasted unprofitably; and when, on the other hand, it is deficient, famine and disease necessarily prevail.

In the *second* place, the general opinion seems to be, that the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land planted with potatoes are greater than the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land on which wheat, or any other species of grain, is raised.

And *lastly*, owing to the great bulk and weight of potatoes, and the difficulty of preserving them on shipboard, the expense of conveying them from one country to another is so very great, that a scarcity can never be materially relieved by importing them from abroad. In consequence, those who chiefly depend on potatoes are practically excluded from participating in the benevolent provision made by nature for equalising the variations in the harvest of particular countries by means of commerce, and are thrown almost wholly on their own resources.

We should, therefore, be warranted in concluding, even though we were not possessed

of any direct evidence on the subject, from the circumstance of the potato being a crop that cannot be kept on hand, from its natural sickleness, and from the incapacity of importing it when deficient, or of exporting it when in excess, that the oscillations in its price must be greater than in the price of wheat; and such, in point of fact, is the case. The oscillation in wheat is thought great when its price is doubled; but in a scarce year the potato is not infrequently six times as dear as in a plentiful one!—(*Minutes of Evidence taken before the Agricultural Committee of 1821*, p. 212.) And the comparatively frequent recurrence of scarcities in Ireland, and the destitution and misery in which they involve the population, afford but too convincing proofs of the accuracy of what has now been stated.

It is, therefore, of the utmost consequence to the well-being of every people, and to their protection in years of scarcity, that they should not subsist principally on the potato. In this country, the pressure of a scarcity is evaded by resorting to inferior species of food, such as potatoes, and a lower standard of comfort; but if our people were habitually fed on the potato, this would be impracticable. The chances of famine would thus be vastly increased; while, owing to the low value of the potato as compared with most other things, the labourers would have less chance of preserving or acquiring a taste for animal food, or other necessaries and luxuries; and, consequently, of changing at any future period their actual condition for a better.

It is not easy to form any very accurate estimate of the profit and loss attending the cultivation of potatoes to the farmer, as compared with other crops. This is a point as to which the statements of those best qualified to give an opinion differ very considerably. Mr. Loudon says, "they require a great deal of manure from the farmer; while, generally speaking, little is returned by them; they are a bulky, unhandy article, troublesome in the lifting and carrying processes, and interfering with the seed season of wheat,—the most important one to the farmer. After all, from particular circumstances, they cannot be vended unless when raised in the vicinity of large towns; hence they are in most respects an unprofitable article to the agriculturist. To him, the real criterion is the profit which potatoes will return in feeding beasts; and here we apprehend the result will be altogether in favour of turnips and rutabaga, as the most profitable articles for that purpose."

It seems difficult to reconcile this statement with the rapid progress of the potato cultivation: but those who assent to what has been previously advanced with respect to the mischievous consequences that arise from the mass of the population becoming dependent on the potato as a principal article of food, will not regret though it should turn out to be accurate.

Dr. Colquhoun estimated the entire value of the potatoes annually consumed in Great Britain and Ireland at the end of the late war at sixteen millions sterling. But it is needless to say that there are no materials by which to form an estimate of this sort with any pretensions to accuracy. The one in question has been suspected, like most of those put forth by the same learned person, of exaggeration: and we incline to think that, had he estimated the value of the yearly produce of potatoes in the empire at twelve millions, he would have been nearer the mark. But on a point of this sort it is not possible to speak with anything like confidence.

POUND, the name given to a weight used as a standard to determine the gravity and quantity of bodies. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

POUND, a money of account, = 20s.

POWDER, GUN. See GUNPOWDER.

PRECIOUS METALS, a designation frequently applied to gold and silver. We have given, under the articles GOLD and SILVER, a short account of each metal; and we now propose laying before the reader a few details with respect to their supply and consumption.

To enter fully into this interesting and difficult subject would require a long essay, or rather a large volume. Mr. Jacob published, in 1831, an "Historical Inquiry into the Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals," in which he takes up the subject at the earliest period, and continues it to the above epoch. And, though neither so complete nor satisfactory as might have been expected, this work contains a good deal of valuable information, and deserves the attention of all who take an interest in such inquiries. We confess, however, that several of the learned author's statements and conclusions seem to us to be not a little wide of the mark. We shall notice one or two of them in the course of this article.

1. *Supply of the Precious Metals*. — Since the discovery of America, the far greater part of the supplies of gold and silver have been derived from that continent. Previously to the publication of Humboldt's great work, *Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, several estimates, some of them framed by individuals of great intelligence, were in circulation, of the quantities of gold and silver imported from America. They, however, differed widely from each other, and were all framed from comparatively limited

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sources of information.* But these have been wholly superseded by the more extensive and laborious investigations of Humboldt. This illustrious traveller, besides being acquainted with all that had been written on the subject, and having ready access to official sources of information unknown to the writers already alluded to, was well versed in the theory and practice of mining, and critically examined several of the most celebrated mines. He was, therefore, incomparably better qualified for forming correct conclusions as to the past and present productiveness of the mines, than any of those who had hitherto speculated on the subject. His statements have, indeed, been accused of exaggeration; and we incline to think that there are grounds for believing that this charge is, in some measure, well founded, particularly as respects the accounts of the profits made by mining, and of the extent to which the supplies of the precious metals may be increased. But this criticism applies, if at all, in a very inferior degree, to the accounts Humboldt has given of the total produce of the mines, and the exports to Europe. And making every allowance for the imperfection inseparable from such investigations, it is still true that the statements in question, and the inquiries on which they are founded, are among the most valuable contributions that have been made to statistical science.

According to Humboldt, the supplies of the precious metals derived from America have been as follows:—

		Dollars a Year at an Average.			Dollars a Year at an Average.
From 1492 to 1500	- - -	250,000	From 1600 to 1700	- - -	16,000,000
- 1500 — 1545	- - -	3,000,000	- 1700 — 1750	- - -	22,500,000
- 1545 — 1600	- - -	11,000,000	- 1750 — 1808	- - -	35,300,000

(*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, iii. 428, 2d ed.)

The following is Humboldt's estimate of the annual produce of the mines of the New World, at the beginning of the present century:—

Annual Produce of the Mines of America at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century.

Political Divisions.	Gold.		Silver.		Value of the Gold and Silver in Dollars.
	Marcas of Castile.	Kilogs.	Marcas of Castile.	Kilogs.	
Viceroyalty of New Spain	7,000	1,699	2,338,280	537,512	23,000,000
Viceroyalty of Peru	3,400	782	511,090	140,478	6,840,000
Captain-generalship of Chili	12,212	2,807	39,700	6,827	2,060,000
Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres	2,000	506	481,830	110,764	4,850,000
Viceroyalty of New Granada	20,505	4,714	- - -	- - -	2,990,000
Brazil	39,900	5,575	- - -	- - -	4,260,000
Total	75,217	17,291	3,460,840	795,581	43,500,000

Taking the dollar at 4s., this would give 8,700,000l. as the total annual produce of the American mines. Humboldt further estimated the annual produce of the European mines of Hungary, Saxony, &c., and those of Northern Asia, at the same period, at about 1,000,000l. more.

The quantity of gold produced in America at the beginning of the century, was to the quantity of silver as 1 to 46; in Europe, the proportions were as 1 to 40. The value of equal quantities of gold and silver were then in the proportion of 15 or 15½ to 1. Latterly, the quantity of gold produced has increased, as compared with the quantity of silver.

From 1800 to 1810, the produce of the American mines was considerably increased; but in the last-mentioned year the contest began, which terminated in the dissolution of the connection between Spain and the South American colonies. The convulsions and insecurity arising out of this struggle; the proscription of the old Spanish families, to whom the mines principally belonged, who repaired, with the wrecks of their fortunes, some to Cuba, some to Spain, and some to Bordeaux and the south of France; caused the abandonment of several of the mines, and an extraordinary falling off in the amount of their produce. There are no means of accurately estimating the precise extent of this decline; but according to Mr. Jacob, who collected and compared all the existing information on the subject, the total average produce of the American mines, inclusive of Brazil, during the 20 years ending with 1829, may be estimated at 3,036,838l. a year: being less than ¼ their produce at the beginning of the century!—(*Jacob*, ii. 267.)

Since the publication of Mr. Jacob's work, some farther light has been thrown on the

* Humboldt has brought these estimates together as follows:—

Authors.	Epochs.	Dollars.	Authors.	Epochs.	Dollars.
Utaria	1492—1724	3,536,000,000	Gerboux	1724—1800	1,000,000,000
Salorzano	1492—1628	1,500,000,000	The Author of the <i>Recherches sur le Commerce, Amst.</i> 1772.	1492—1775	5,072,000,000
Moncadi	1492—1595	2,000,000,000			
Navarete	1519—1617	1,536,000,000			
Raynal	1492—1780	5,154,000,000			
Robertson	1492—1725	8,800,000,000			
Necker	1763—1777	304,000,000			

(*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii p. 41.)

subject, principally by the publication of returns transmitted by the British consuls in South America and elsewhere. And notwithstanding the anarchy in which most of the new states in that quarter of the world have been unceasingly involved, the returns in question show that there has been of late years a considerable increase in the produce of the mines. Probably it is all but needless to add, that all investigations into matters of this sort are liable to be affected by so many sources of error, that, even when they are most skilfully and cautiously conducted, their results are not always to be depended on. But these remarks do not apply to the following

Account of the Coinage in Gold and Silver of the Mints of the Mexican Republic in 1840 and 1841. — (*Parl. Paper No. 476. Sess. 1843.*)

Mints.	Gold.		Silver.		Totals.	
	1840.	1841.	1840.	1841.	1840.	1841.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	<i>D. Bars.</i>	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Mexico	71,307	97,628	1,917,617	2,151,496	1,988,924	2,249,121
Zacatecas	-	-	4,056,310	4,386,641	4,066,310	4,386,641
Guanaxuato	437,168	440,240	3,459,500	3,296,000	3,896,668	3,736,240
Durango	243,082	165,140	747,907	823,348	990,989	978,488
Chihuahua	-	63,050	172,406	259,000	172,406	422,050
San Luis	-	-	1,137,867	1,110,347	1,137,867	1,110,347
Guadaluajara	-	-	881,646	635,015	881,646	635,015
	751,467	756,058	12,383,153	12,781,747	13,134,610	13,537,805

It is well known, however, that a very considerable quantity of gold and silver is raised and exported without being brought to the mints to be coined. Of this no account can be taken, though perhaps we may not be far wrong in estimating it at about 4,000,000 doll., making the entire produce of the Mexican mines about 17,500,000 doll. a year.

Mr. B. H. Wilson, consul for Peru, estimates the produce of the Peruvian mines at about 5,210,000 dollars a year. — (*Parl. Paper No. 476. Sess. 1843, p. 27.*) And he farther supposes that of this sum, about 3,500,000 dollars are exported on English account, and that about 500,000 dollars more are exported on French, German, Spanish, &c. account.

It appears from the consular returns, that the coinage of gold and silver in the Bolivian mints in 1837, and the three preceding years amounted to about 2,300,000 doll. a year; so that, making allowance for the metal raised and not coined, their entire produce can hardly have been under 3,000,000 doll.

The produce of the Chilian mines probably exceeds at this moment the estimate of their produce given by Humboldt. At all events it appears from the statements furnished by the consul, that the exports of silver from the republic amounted in 1841, (taking the marc at 8½ doll.) to 1,191,046 doll.; and those of gold, taking the marc at 144.4 doll., including the amount coined at the mint, to 613,779 doll. And adding to these the quantities retained for home use and clandestinely exported, we shall probably be within the mark in estimating the produce of the Chilian mines at about 2,500,000 doll. a year. — (*Parl. Paper No. 476. Sess. 1843, p. 36.*)

We regret there are no returns, on which any dependence can be placed, from any other part of South or Central America. Considerable quantities of gold are produced in New Granada and Panama: but though there are mines of the precious metals in Ecuador, they are not wrought. Perhaps, on the whole, 1,000,000 doll., principally gold, may be annually exported from Colombia and Central America.

The produce of the Brazilian mines and washings has been supposed to amount, of late years, to about 1,500,000 doll. a year; a sum which is not more than adequate to meet the demands of the country.

The mines that formerly belonged to La Plata, or Buenos Ayres, are now principally included in those of Bolivia; but the produce of those that still belong to the former republic continues to be considerable; and may be moderately estimated at 1,200,000 dollars a year. The above results, when brought together, give —

Estimated Produce of the American Mines, in 1840.

Mexican	-	-	-	17,500,000	Panama	-	-	-	1,000,000
Peruvian	-	-	-	5,210,000	Brazil	-	-	-	1,500,000
Bolivian	-	-	-	3,000,000					
Chilian	-	-	-	2,500,000					
								Total	30,710,000

We are pretty well satisfied that, speaking generally, these estimates are rather under than over the mark; and that the export of the precious metals from South America and Mexico may, at present (1843), be safely estimated at 28,000,000 doll. or (taking the dollar at 4s.) 5,600,000l. a year.

Besides the sources now mentioned, a good deal of gold has of late years been ob-

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tained from washings in Carolina, Georgia, and other parts of the U. States. Since 1835, however, the supply from this source has been diminished, and it is doubtful whether it will ever be very considerable. We subjoin

An Account of the Value of the Gold annually produced in the U. States, and sent to the different Mints of the Union to be coined, since 1828.

		Dollars.			Dollars.
1828	-	46,000	1835	-	698,600
1829	-	140,000	1836	-	467,000
1830	-	465,000	1837	-	282,000
1831	-	520,000	1838	-	435,000
1832	-	678,000	1839	-	385,900
1833	-	868,000	1840	-	426,185
1834	-	898,000	1841	-	542,117

But, exclusive of the late gradual increase in the produce of the S. American and Mexican mines, there has been an unprecedented increase in the produce of the Russian mines and washings, particularly the latter. This is evident from the following

Account of the Produce in Gold of the Washings in Siberia, carried on upon account of the Crown, and of Individuals, from 1830 to 1842, both inclusive.

		Poods, Livres, Zoloténicks.					Poods, Livres, Zoloténicks.		
1830	-	82	53	3	1838	-	193	8	47
1831	-	10	18	35	1839	-	183	8	161
1832	-	21	34	68	1840	-	255	27	26
1833	-	26	32	53	1841	-	358	33	14
1834	-	65	18	90	1842	-	631	6	21
1835	-	93	12	46	Total	-	2,093	38	46
1836	-	105	9	41					
1837	-	132	30	5					

But in addition to the above quantity of 631 poods obtained from washings in Siberia in 1842, the silver obtained from the mines of Kolyan yielded, in the course of the same year, 30 poods of gold, while the washings and mines of the Oural mountains yielded no fewer than 310 poods; making the total produce 971 poods; equal to 35,030 lbs. avoirdupois, or 42,571 lbs. Troy, which at 46l. 14s. 6d. per lb. is equivalent to 1,989,128l. 11s. — (*Supplement au Journal de l'Interieur* for 1842, p. 16.)

It is necessary, however, to bear in mind that the Russian government imposes a duty, varying, according to circumstances, from 20 to 25 per cent., on the produce of the mines and washings; and there can be no doubt that the temptation to avoid so heavy a duty, and the speculation on the part of the agents for the crown, must give rise to a great deal of smuggling. Perhaps, under such circumstances, we should not be far wrong if we estimated the metal of which no account is taken at 1/4th part of the above; but taking it at only 1/8th part, we have a sum of no less than 2,386,000l. for the produce of the Russian gold mines and washings in 1842.

It may be supposed, perhaps, that it would be wrong to take the produce of the Russian washings and mines in 1842 as a fair criterion of their future produce, seeing that the produce of the washings in that year was not far from being twice as great as it had been in any previous year. But it is to be observed, that the produce in question has been progressively and rapidly augmenting during the 13 years ending with 1842; and it is stated in the official journal whence we have borrowed these details, that *selon toute probabilité, et à moins qu'on ne manque d'ouvriers, le chiffre de l'année 1843, offrira de nouveau sur celui de l'année dernière un excédant très considérable.*

In addition to this vast quantity of gold, Russia produces a quantity of silver which may, perhaps, be estimated, at an average, at about 1,300 poods a year, worth, at 5s. 2d. an ounce, 193,440l.

We have seen no very recent accounts of the produce of the Saxon, Hungarian, and other European mines on which it would be at all safe to place much reliance. We incline, however, to think that their produce may be safely estimated at about 750,000l. a year.

Hence, supposing we are nearly right in these estimates, the total available produce of the American, European, and Russo-Asiatic mines will be, S. American and Mexican, 5,600,000l.; U. States, 100,000l.; European, 750,000l.; Russo-Asiatic, 2,600,000l.; making in all, 9,050,000l. And therefore, should these estimates be not very wide of the mark, it may be concluded, in opposition to the commonly received opinions on the subject, that the supply of the precious metals is at present but little inferior to what it amounted to when the American mines were most productive.

2. *Consumption of the Precious Metals.* — Gold and silver serve either as coin, or are made use of in the arts. There are no means whatever by which to discover the proportion in which they are applied, at any given period, to these purposes; and the proportion is perpetually varying with the varying circumstances of each country; as, for

* We have since learned, as this article was going to press, that the produce of the Russian gold mines and washings in 1843 amounted to no less than 1842 poods being equivalent, adding 1-8th for the quantity not brought to account, to 3,298,962l. 11s. 1d. sterling; an increase which is altogether extraordinary, and will have the most powerful influence.

example, with the greater or less abundance of paper money, and the degree in which the use of coins is saved by the various devices resorted to by means of banking and otherwise for economising currency, the greater or less wealth of the inhabitants, the fashion as to plate, the feeling of security at the moment, and a thousand other circumstances, — all of which are liable to great and sometimes sudden changes.

According to Mr. Jacob, the value of the precious metals annually applied to ornamental and luxurious purposes in Europe, may be estimated as follows: viz. Great Britain, 2,457,221*l.*; France, 1,200,000*l.*; Switzerland, 350,000*l.*; remainder of Europe, 1,608,499*l.*; making in all, 5,612,711*l.* And adding to this the sums directly applied to the same purposes in America, the whole will be about 5,900,000*l.*

The data upon which this estimate has been founded, were necessarily vague and unsatisfactory. It can hardly, indeed, be looked upon as any thing better than a mere guess, and, as such, we do not know that it was a very happy one. Chabrol (whose researches are far more worthy of confidence than those of Chaptal, to which Jacob refers) estimated the consumption of gold and silver in the arts in Paris at 14,552,000 francs a year — (*Récherches Statistiques sur la Ville de Paris*, 1823, Tab. No. 85.); which corresponds with the elaborate estimate of Benoiston de Châteauneuf — (*Récherches sur les Consommations de Paris en 1817*, 2de partie, p. 78.). Both these authorities agree that the consumption of the precious metals in the arts in Paris is double that of the rest of France; so that we have 21,828,000 francs, or 866,190*l.* for the consumption of the whole kingdom; and allowing for the increase in the interim, the consumption may now be taken at 1,000,000*l.*

Probably, at the time when Jacob's work was printed, his estimate of the consumption of the precious metals in the U. Kingdom might not have been very far from the mark; but during the last dozen years there has been a greatly increased expenditure on the gilding of houses and furniture, as well as on plate, jewellery, and hardware, harness, bookbinding, &c.; so that, making allowance for this increase, we are not disposed to estimate the present consumption of the U. Kingdom at less than 2,500,000*l.* a year.

The manufacture of gold and silver watches, jewellery, &c. is carried on in Switzerland upon a very large scale; so much so that, notwithstanding its poverty, the consumption of bullion in it may be fairly estimated at 450,000*l.* or 500,000*l.* a year.

There are no means by which to form anything like a correct estimate of the consumption of the other European countries; but, considering the rapid progress of population, wealth, and refinement in Russia, Prussia, Germany, &c., Mr. Jacob's estimate for these countries may now, perhaps, be safely adopted, or even increased.

Mr. Jacob estimated the consumption of the precious metals in the U. States and Canada at 300,000*l.* a year; but their wealth and population have more than doubled in the interval, and we shall certainly be within the mark in estimating their consumption at 500,000*l.* a year.

According to this view of the matter, the present annual consumption of the precious metals in the arts will be — the U. Kingdom, 2,500,000*l.*; France, 1,000,000*l.*; Switzerland, 450,000*l.*; the rest of Europe 1,600,000*l.*; in all, 5,550,000*l.* To which adding 500,000*l.* for the consumption of N. America, the total consumption will be 6,050,000*l.*

Those who are inclined to defer to the authority of Humboldt may, perhaps, be disposed to regard this estimate as exaggerated. In the 2d ed. (iii. 464.) of his *Nouvelle Espagne*, he estimated the total consumption of the precious metals in Europe, for other purposes than those of coin, at only 87,182,800 fr., equal, at the exchange of 25*rs.* to 3,459,714*l.* But we incline to think that it would not be difficult to show that this estimate was at the time considerably below the mark; and, independently of this, it was made a dozen years ago, and there has been a very great increase of population and wealth in the interval, and a proportionally great increase in the consumption of gold and silver.

It is material to observe that a portion of the gold and silver annually made use of in the arts is derived from the fusion of old plate, the burning of lace, picture frames, &c. Here, however, we have to lament the impossibility of ascertaining the proportion the supply from this source bears to the total quantity wrought up. Jacob estimates it at only $\frac{1}{10}$ th part, or 2½ per cent.; but so small a sum seems to be quite out of the question. Most part of the precious metals employed in plating, gilding, &c. is destroyed; but the quantity of metal so made use of is admitted by every one to be decidedly less than the quantity used in the manufacture of plate, watch-cases, and other articles of that description. And these, when they either become unfashionable, or are broken or injured, are, for the most part, sent to the melting pot. According to the statement of Necker, quoted and sanctioned by Humboldt, a half of the gold and silver used in France by goldsmiths and others in the arts, is supposed to be obtained from the fusion of old plate, &c. — (*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 467.)

But, notwithstanding the high authority by which this estimate is supported, we believe that it is quite as much above the mark as Jacob's is certainly below it.

Assuming, therefore, that, at a medium, 20 per cent, or $\frac{1}{5}$ th part of the precious metals annually made use of in the arts is obtained from the fusion of old plate, we shall have, by deducting this proportion from the 6,050,000*l.* applied to the arts in Europe and America, 4,840,000*l.* as the total annual appropriation of the new gold and silver dug from the mines to such purposes, leaving about 4,200,000*l.* a year to be manufactured into coin, and exported to India, Australia, &c.

It is not much more easy to determine the consumption of the precious metals when manufactured into coin, than when in plate. Jacob has entered into some curious details (vol. ii. c. 28.) to determine the abrasion or loss of coins from wear, which he estimates at $\frac{1}{100}$ th part a year for gold, and $\frac{1}{200}$ th part for silver coins. This, however, does not give the total wear and tear of the coins. To determine the latter, the quantities lost by fire, shipwrecks, and other accidents must be taken into account. The loss from these sources can only be guessed at; but adding it to the loss by abrasion, perhaps we shall not be far wrong in estimating the whole at 1 per cent. And if we estimate the value of the entire metallic currency of Europe and the U. States at 160 millions sterling, 1,600,000*l.* a year will, on this hypothesis, be required to maintain it at its present level.

It is singular that, in estimating the consumption of gold and silver, Jacob should not have made the slightest allusion to the practice which has uniformly prevailed in all countries harassed by intestine commotions, or exposed to foreign invasion, of burying treasure in the earth. Of the hoards so deposited, a very considerable proportion has been altogether lost; and there can be no doubt that this has been one of the principal means by which the stock of the precious metals has been kept down to its present level. Every one is aware that, during the middle ages, *treasure trove*, or money dug from the ground by chance finders, belonged to the Crown, and formed no inconsiderable part of the royal revenue of this and other countries. The practice has always prevailed to a very great extent in the East. — (*Bernier, Voyage de Mogol*, Amst. 1710, tome i. p. 209.; *Scrafton on the Government of Hindostan*, p. 16, &c.) But it is not confined to that quarter. Wherever property is insecure, it is invariably resorted to. Mr. Wakefield tells us that it used to be common in Ireland. (*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 593.); and we believe it is still pretty prevalent in that country. It has always been acted on to a considerable extent in Russia and France; and in the latter, during the revolutionary anarchy, immense sums were buried, of which it is abundantly certain a large proportion will never be resuscitated. The wars and convulsions by which Europe was desolated for more than 20 years extended the practice to all parts of the Continent; withdrawing, in this way, from circulation a very considerable part of the increased produce of the mines. — (*Storch, Economie Politique*, tome i. p. 221. Paris, 1823.) And no doubt considerable sums are still disposed of in this way.

3. *Exportation of the Precious Metals to the East.* — It must be well known to all our readers, that from the remotest æra down to a comparatively late period bullion formed one of the principal and most advantageous articles of export to the East. Humboldt estimated that, of the entire produce of the American mines at the beginning of this century, amounting, as already seen, to 43,500,000 dollars, no less than 25,500,000 were sent to Asia, 17,500,000 by the Cape of Good Hope, 4,000,000 by the Levant, and 4,000,000 through the Russian frontier. — (*Nouvelle Espagne*, iii. 443.) Latterly, however, this immense drain has been very much diminished, and in 1832 and 1833 it actually began to set in an opposite direction. — (See *antè*, p. 206. for an account of the exports and imports of bullion from and into India from 1814–15 to 1839–40.) In so far, however, as respects India, the drain has since recovered its old direction; the excess of the imports of bullion into that country over the exports having amounted during the 3 years ending with 1839–40 to above 2,000,000*l.* a year. — (See *ubi supra*.)

We believe, however, that the great import of bullion into India has been a good deal influenced by the peculiar state of the Indian trade, and that the probability is that it will decline. — (See *ubi supra*.) There has latterly, also, been a very considerable increase in the exportation of bullion from China. We do not now allude to the remittances on account of the payments stipulated in the late treaty, but to the shipments of bullion that were previously made in the ordinary course of trade. These amounted, in 1838, after deducting the imports, to 8,223,341 dollars, or 1,644,668*l.*, partly shipped for Europe, but principally for India. — (See *antè*, p. 235.) A considerable part of this large export consists of native silver, of which there are mines in several provinces. China has also mines of gold; and in some late years her exports of that metal have been rather extensive; she is, however, an importer as well as an exporter of gold, having for a lengthened period drawn considerable supplies of that metal from Borneo, Celebes, and the Malay peninsula. A few years ago, the efflux of bullion from Russia to China, by way of Kiachta, which had continued for a lengthened period, wholly ceased. — (*Jacob*, ii. 320.) But since bullion began to increase so

rapidly in Russia, it is most probable that it is again exported by this route. Indeed, the Russian official accounts of the trade of the empire for 1841 (Таблѣ XI. p. 51.) admit that the value of the imports from, exceeds the value of the exports to, China.

4. *Influence of the Productiveness of the Mines on Prices.*—It has been customary in this country to ascribe almost the whole fall that has taken place in the price of most commodities since the peace, to the diminished supply of bullion from the mines, which existed down to a recent period. But we doubt whether this circumstance was not fully counterbalanced by others, and whether it had any influence in the way now mentioned. The great diminution of the drain to the East, even admitting that Humboldt over-rated its amount, would of itself have gone far to countervail the decreased productiveness of the mines; and in addition to this, the greater security and tranquillity enjoyed on the Continent since the peace, has not only checked that burying of money, formerly so prevalent, but has caused the bringing to light of a good many of the subterranean hoards. The institution of savings banks, now so common every where, has also, no doubt, tended to prevent hoarding, and to bring a good deal of coin into circulation, that would otherwise be locked up. These circumstances, coupled with others that might be mentioned, such as the cessation of the demand for military chests, the greater employment of bills in mercantile transactions, &c., afford good grounds for doubting whether the quantity of the precious metals applicable to the purposes of circulation was not about as great in 1825 and 1830 as in 1809 or 1810, when the American mines were at the acmé of their productiveness. No doubt, however, had the produce of the mines continued stationary at their reduced rate, there could hardly have failed to be, in the end, a material rise in the value of bullion. But instead of continuing stationary, or falling off, there has latterly been a very rapid increase in the produce of the mines; and there is no longer any ground for apprehending a rise in the value of the precious metals, but the reverse. The augmentation, as we have seen, has been principally in gold; and should its production continue to increase for a few years more, in any thing like the ratio it has done during the last half dozen years, its value will necessarily sink; and were it to sink to any considerable extent, the circumstance would exercise a powerful and, we believe, a salutary influence over the condition of this and such other countries as have adopted gold for the standard of their currency. These, however, are prospective and contingent results which may never be realised, and on which it would be wrong to lay any considerable stress.

We believe that the increase in the supply of bullion has continued for too short a time, and been too limited, to have hitherto had any sensible influence over prices; but, however this may be, we have no hesitation in affirming that there is not, without any exception whatever, a single commodity that has fallen in price since 1814, the fall of which may not be satisfactorily accounted for without reference to the diminished supply of bullion from 1810 to 1837. — (See *anté*, p. 80.) Multiplied proofs of what is now stated will be found in various articles throughout this work. And we have little doubt that those who investigate this matter with any degree of care, will agree with us in thinking, that were the influence of the former decreased productiveness of the mines on prices estimated at from 3 to 5 per cent., it would be very decidedly beyond the mark. Its influence was, in fact, hardly perceptible.

5. *Probable future Supply of Gold and Silver.*—Little can be added under this head, to what has previously been stated. On the whole, however, we should think that there are not merely probable but good grounds on which to anticipate a large future increase of the annual produce of the mines and washings in most parts of the world. The late increase of the latter in Russia has been quite extraordinary; and if it should go on for any considerable period, it would have a powerful influence over the value of gold, and would not only sink it as compared with silver, but as compared with all other things not produced with the same increased facilities. It is reasonable, also, to suppose that the produce of the South American mines should be gradually increased. The anarchy which has so long disgraced and desolated the country cannot continue for ever; and means have lately been taken for reducing the price of quicksilver, the high cost of which has latterly contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else to paralyse the efforts of the miners.

PREMIUM. See INSURANCE.

PRICES. By the price of a commodity is meant its value estimated in money, or, simply, the quantity of money for which it will exchange. The price of a commodity rises when it fetches more, and falls when it fetches less money.

1. *Price of freely produced Commodities.*—The exchangeable value of commodities—that is, their power of exchanging for or buying other commodities—depends, at any given period, partly on the comparative facility of their production, and partly on the relation of the supply and demand. If any 2 or more commodities respectively required the same outlay of capital and labour to bring them to market, and if the supply of each were adjusted exactly according to the effectual demand—that is, were they all in

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sufficient abundance, and no more, to supply the wants of those able and willing to pay the outlay upon them, and the ordinary rate of profit at the time — they would each fetch the same price, or exchange for the same quantity of any other commodity. But if any single commodity should happen to require less or more capital and labour for its production, while the quantity required to produce the others continued stationary, its value, as compared with them, would, in the first case, fall, and in the second, rise; and, supposing the cost of its production not to vary, its value might be increased by a falling off in the supply, or by an increase of demand, and conversely.

But it is of importance to bear in mind that all variations of price arising from any disproportion in the supply and demand of such commodities as may be *freely produced in indefinite quantities*, are *temporary only*; while those that are occasioned by changes in the cost of their production are *permanent*, at least as much so as the cause in which they originate. A general mourning occasions a transient rise in the price of black cloth: but supposing that the fashion of wearing black were to continue, its price would not permanently vary; for those who previously manufactured blue and brown cloths, &c. would henceforth manufacture only black cloth; and the supply being in this way increased to the same extent as the demand, the price would settle at its old level. Hence the importance of distinguishing between a variation of price originating in a change of fashion or other accidental circumstance — such, for example, as a deficient harvest — and a variation occasioned by some change in the cost of production. In the former case, prices will, at no distant period, revert to their old level; in the latter, the variation will be lasting.

When the price of a freely produced commodity rises or falls, such variation may evidently be occasioned either by something affecting its value, or by something affecting the value of money. But when the generality of commodities rise or fall, the fair presumption is that the change is not in them, but in the money with which they are compared. This conclusion does not, however, apply in all cases; and we believe that most part of that fall in the price of commodities, which has taken place since the peace, and which has been so generally ascribed to a rise in the value of money, occasioned by a decline in the productiveness of the mines, has been caused by the increased productiveness of industry, arising from the abolition of oppressive restraints on commerce, the opening of new and more abundant sources of supply, and the discovery of new means and improved methods of production. — (See *PRECIOUS METALS*.)

2. *Price of monopolised Commodities.* — Exclusive, however, of the commodities now alluded to, there is a considerable class, whose producers or holders enjoy either an *absolute* or a *partial* monopoly of the supply. When such is the case, prices depend entirely or principally on the proportion between the supply and demand, and are not liable to be influenced, or only in a secondary degree, by changes in the cost of production. Antique statues and gems; the pictures of the great masters; wines of a peculiar flavour, produced in small quantities, in particular situations; and a few other articles; exist under what may be called absolute monopolies; — their supply cannot be increased; and their price must, therefore, depend entirely on the competition of those who may wish to buy them, without being in the slightest degree influenced by the cost of their production.

Monopolies are sometimes established by law; as when the power to supply the market with a particular article is made over to one individual or society of individuals, without any limitation of the price at which it may be sold; which, of course, enables those possessed of the monopoly to exact the highest price for it that the competition of the buyers will afford, though such price may exceed the cost of production in any conceivable degree. Monopolies of this sort used to be common in England, particularly in the reign of Elizabeth: but they were finally abolished by the famous act of the 21 Jac. 1. c. 3. — an act which, by establishing the freedom of competition in all businesses carried on at home, has been productive of the greatest advantage. — (See *MONOPOLY*.)

The corn laws establish a partial monopoly of the supply of Great Britain with corn in favour of the agriculturists; but, as competition is carried to as great an extent in agriculture as in any other business, this monopoly does not enable them to obtain a higher price for their produce than is sufficient to pay the expenses of its production, though, owing to the peculiar circumstances under which this country is placed, this price is higher than the price in the surrounding countries. Hence it results that the monopoly is injurious to the public, without being of any advantage to those engaged in the business of agriculture. Neither, indeed, can it be truly said to be advantageous to the landlords. — (See *antè*, p. 404.)

The rights conveyed by patents sometimes establish a valuable monopoly; for they enable the inventors of improved methods of production to maintain, during the continuance of the patent, the price of the article at a level which may be much higher than is required to afford them the ordinary rate of profit. This advantage, however, by stimulating invention, and exciting to new discoveries, of which it is the natural and appropriate reward, instead of being injurious, is beneficial to the public. — (See *PATENTS*.)

There are also partial monopolies, depending upon situation, connexion, fashion, &c. These, and other inappreciable circumstances, sometimes occasion a difference of 30 per cent. or more in the price of the same article in shops not very distant from each other.

Generally speaking, the supply of monopolised commodities is less liable to vary than the supply of those which are freely produced; and their prices are commonly more steady. But there are various exceptions to this rule, and of these the corn monopoly is one. The great variations in the harvests of particular countries, and their average equality throughout the world, exposes a nation which shuts foreign corn out of its ports to destructive vicissitudes of price, from which it would enjoy a comparative exemption were the ports open. — (See *anté*, p. 401.) Sometimes the expiration of a monopoly — a patent, for example — has occasioned a sudden and extraordinary increase of supply, and consequent fall of price; entailing, of course, a serious loss on the holders of large stocks of goods produced under the monopoly.

3. *New Sources of Supply.* — The effects on prices produced by the opening of new markets, or new sources of supply, are familiar to every one. The fall that has taken place in the price of pepper, and of most sorts of commodities brought from the East, since the opening of the trade in 1814, is a conspicuous proof of what is now stated.

4. *Influence of War on Prices.* — The effect of war in obstructing the ordinary channels of commercial intercourse, and occasioning extreme fluctuations in the supply and price of commodities, is well known. In this respect, however, the latter part of the late war is, perhaps, entitled to a pre-eminence. We had then to deal with an enemy who had extended his sway over most part of the Continent; and who endeavoured, by every means in his power, to shut us out of the Continental markets. Mr. Tooke has given, in his elaborate and valuable work on *High and Low Prices*, a variety of details which strikingly illustrate the effect that the regulations then adopted by the belligerent powers had on prices. "Among the means," says Mr. Tooke, "devised by the ingenuity and enterprise of adventurers to elude or overcome the obstacles presented by the decrees of the enemy, one in particular, which was resorted to on an extensive scale, deserves mention, as illustrating in a striking manner the degree in which those obstacles were calculated to increase the cost to the consumer. Several vessels laden with sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton twist, and other valuable commodities, were despatched from England, at very high rates of freight and insurance, to Salonica, where the goods were landed, and thence conveyed on mules and horses through Servia and Hungary to Vienna, for the purpose of being distributed over Germany, and, possibly, into France. Thus it might happen that the inhabitants of that part of the Continent most contiguous to this country could not receive their supplies from us, without an expence of conveyance equivalent to what it would be, if they were removed to the distance of a sea voyage twice round the globe, but not subject to fiscal and political regulations." And in consequence of these, and other causes of the same sort, Mr. Tooke mentions that the price of sugar in France, and other parts of the Continent, during the latter years of the war, was as high as 5*s.* and 6*s.* a pound; that coffee rose to 7*s.*, indigo to 18*s.*, and so on.

But the sums charged for freight and insurance were the most extraordinary. Mr. Tooke states that he has known instances in which the licence, freight, and other charges on account of a vessel of about 100 tons burden, making a voyage from Calais to London and back, have amounted to the almost incredible sum of 50,000*l.*! A ship, of which the whole cost and outfit did not amount to 4,000*l.*, earned during the latter period of the war, a gross freight of 80,000*l.* on a voyage from Bordeaux to London and back! The freight of indigo from London to the Continent does not at present exceed 1*d.* a pound; whereas it amounted, at the period referred to, to about 4*s.* 6*d.* — (*High and Low Prices*, 2d ed. p. 212.)

5. *Influence of Taxes on Prices.* — It is unnecessary to dilate on a topic so familiar to every one. When a tax is laid on a commodity, its price necessarily rises in a corresponding proportion; for otherwise the producers would not obtain the ordinary rate of profit, and would, of course, withdraw from the business. The rise in the price of several of the articles in the annexed table is principally to be ascribed to the increase of taxation.

These statements will probably suffice to give our readers a general idea of the principles which determine the value of commodities. To go deeper into the subject would involve us in discussions that belong to political economy, and are among the most intricate in that science. The influence of speculation on prices must not, however, be passed over in a work of this sort.

6. *Influence of Speculation on Prices.* — It very rarely happens that either the actual supply of any species of produce in extensive demand, or the intensity of that demand, can be exactly measured. Every transaction in which an individual buys produce in order to sell it again, is, in fact, a speculation. The buyer anticipates that the demand for the article he has purchased will be such, at some future period, either more or less

distant, that he will be able to dispose of it with a profit; and the success of the speculation depends, it is evident, on the skill with which he has estimated the circumstances that must determine the future price of the commodity. It follows, therefore, that in all highly commercial countries, where merchants are possessed of large capitals, and where they are left to be guided in the use of them by their own discretion and foresight, the prices of commodities will frequently be very much influenced, not merely by the actual occurrence of changes in the accustomed relation of the supply and demand, but by the anticipation of such changes. It is the business of the merchant to acquaint himself with every circumstance affecting the particular description of commodities in which he deals. He endeavours to obtain, by means of an extensive correspondence, the earliest and most authentic information with respect to every thing that may affect their supply or demand, or the cost of their production; and if he learned that the supply of an article had failed, or that, owing to changes of fashion, or to the opening of new channels of commerce, the demand for it had been increased, he would most likely be disposed to become a buyer, in anticipation of profiting by the rise of price, which, under the circumstances of the case, could hardly fail of taking place; or, if he were a holder of the article, he would refuse to part with it, unless for a higher price than he would previously have accepted. If the intelligence received by the merchant had been of a contrary description,—if, for example, he had learned that the article was now produced with greater facility, or that there was a falling off in the demand for it, caused by a change of fashion, or by the shutting up of some of the markets to which it had previously been admitted,—he would have acted differently: in this case he would have anticipated a fall of prices, and would either have declined purchasing the article, except at a reduced rate, or have endeavoured to get rid of it, supposing him to be a holder, by offering it at a lower price. In consequence of these operations, the prices of commodities, in different places and periods, are brought comparatively near to equality. All abrupt transitions, from scarcity to abundance, and from abundance to scarcity, are avoided; an excess in one case is made to balance a deficiency in another, and the supply is distributed with a degree of steadiness and regularity that could hardly have been deemed attainable.

It is obvious, from what has now been stated, that those who indiscriminately condemn all sorts of speculative engagements, have never reflected on the circumstances incident to the prosecution of every undertaking. In truth and reality, they are all speculations. Their undertakers must look forward to periods more or less distant; and their success depends entirely on the sagacity with which they have estimated the probability of certain events occurring, and the influence which they have ascribed to them. Speculation is, therefore, really only another name for foresight; and though fortunes have sometimes been made by a lucky hit, the character of a successful speculator is, in the vast majority of instances, due to him only who has skilfully devised the means of effecting the end he had in view, and who has outstripped his competitors in the judgment with which he has looked into futurity, and appreciated the operation of causes producing distant effects. Even in the securest businesses, such as agriculture and manufactures, there is, and must be, a great deal of speculation. An unlooked for change of season frequently disappoints the apparently reasonable expectations of those who undertake the former; while the equally capricious variations of fashion have to be encountered by those engaged in the latter; and each is, besides, liable to be affected by legislative enactments, by new discoveries in the arts, and by an endless variety of circumstances which it is always very difficult, and sometimes quite impossible, to foresee. On the whole, indeed, the gains of the undertakers are so adjusted, that those who carry them on obtain, at an average, the common and ordinary rate of profit. But the inequality in the gains of individuals is most commonly very great: and while the superior tact, industry, or good fortune of some enable them to realise large fortunes; the want of discernment the less vigilant attention, or the bad fortune of others, frequently reduces them from the situation of capitalists to that of labourers.

The great cotton speculation of 1825 took its rise partly and chiefly from a supposed deficiency in the supply of cotton, partly from an idea that there was a greatly increased demand for raw cotton in this country and the Continent, and partly from a belief that the stocks on hand were unusually low. Now it is obvious that the success of those who embarked in this speculation depended entirely on two circumstances; viz. *first*, that they were right in the fundamental supposition on which the whole speculation rested, that the supply of cotton was no longer commensurate with the demand; and *second*, that their competition did not raise the price so high as to diminish the consumption by the manufacturers in too great a degree to enable them to take off the quantity to be actually brought to market. If the merchants had been well founded in their suppositions, and if their competition had not raised the price of cotton too high, the speculation would certainly have been successful. But, instead of being well founded, the hypothesis on which the whole thing rested was perfectly visionary. There was no deficiency in the supply of cotton, but, on the contrary, a great super-

An Account of the Contract Prices of the following Articles of Provision, &c. at the Royal Hospital, by the Authorities

Years.	Flour, per Cwt.	Bread, per Lb.	Flour, per Sack.	Butter, per Lb.	Cheese, per Lb.	Pork, per Bushel.	Outmeal, per Bushel.	Salt, per Bushel.	Malt, per Quarter.	Hops, per Cwt.	Beer, per Barrel.
1789	1 3 8	Average. 1d. for 10 1/2 oz.	-	0 4 1/2	0 3 1/2	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 9 0	3 5 0	-
1790	1 3 8	1d. for 14 oz.	-	0 5	0 3 1/2	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 0 6	4 5 10	0 3 9
1791	0 16 11	1d. for 12 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 0 3	3 9 6	0 4 1 1/2
1740	1 8 0	1d. for 9 1/2 oz.	-	0 5	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 7 3 1/2	2 10 7 1/2	0 5 3 1/2
1745	1 2 3	1d. for 15 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 3 1	3 11 1	0 5 1 1/2
1750	1 6 8	1d. for 13 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 0	3 5 4 0	0 5 3 1/2
1755	1 7 3 1/2	1d. for 14 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 2 0	2 13 0	0 4 5 1/2
1760	1 11 6	1d. for 15 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 9	4 13 4	0 5 7 1/2
1765	1 7 3	1d. for 9 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 10 8	7 3 6	0 7 3 1/2
1770	1 8 6	1d. for 11 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	4 3	0 4 9	4 8	1 8 3	3 16 4	0 5 10 1/2
1775	1 13 5	1d. for 9 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 17 3	4 16 6	0 7 1 1/2
1780	1 12 6	1d. for 11 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 11 1	3 14 8	0 7 3 1/2
1785	1 17 6 1/2	1d. for 10 1/2 oz.	-	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	3 0 3	3 6 4	0 8 3 1/2
1790	1 16 10	-	2 3 4	0 6 1/2	0 4	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 15 6	6 13 8	0 8 7 1/2
1795	3 2 10	-	3 5 8	0 3 1/2	0 3 1/2	8 6	0 6 4 1/2	6 1 1/2	8 3	7 7 10	0 10 4 1/2
1800	3 4 4	-	4 16 0	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 5	0 14 0	14 0	4 4	18 13 9	1 0 4 1/2
1803	3 0 4	-	4 2 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	7 9	0 12 0	15 10 1/2	4 5 7	6 11 6	0 17 8 1/2
1806	3 1 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	7 9	0 10 3	15 9 1/2	3 18 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1807	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	14 4 1/2	0 10 3	15 9 1/2	3 18 1/2	6 10 0	0 17 10 1/2
1808	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 9 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1809	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1810	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1811	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1812	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1813	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1814	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1815	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1816	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1817	3 3 0	-	4 3 8	0 1 1/2	0 3 1/2	13 10 1/2	0 11 7 1/2	15 9 1/2	3 16 1/2	6 10 0	0 16 5 1/2
1818	3 17 1	d. for 2 1/2	3 8 5 1/2	0 11	0 6 3 1/2	0 13 5 1/2	19 9	4 1 8 1/2	3 8 0	0 19 11 1/2	5
1819	3 4 3	- 1 1/2	2 17 3	0 11	0 8 7 1/2	0 12 9	19 9	3 18 11 1/2	4 18 0	0 13 3 1/2	5
1820	3 10 4 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 15 1	0 10 1/2	0 7 7 1/2	0 13 4 1/2	19 9	3 8 8 1/2	4 0 0	0 13 10 1/2	5
1821	2 16 10	- 1 1/2	2 5 5 1/2	0 8 1/2	0 5 9	0 8 2 1/2	19 9	3 1 11 1/2	5 18 0	0 18 10 1/2	5
1822	1 19 5 1/2	- 1 1/2	1 17 3 1/2	0 7 1/2	0 5 5 1/2	0 8 6	18 0	2 18 8 1/2	3 10 0	0 11 5 1/2	5
1823	2 2 7 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 2 3	0 7 1/2	0 6 5 1/2	0 8 6	18 0	2 19 11 1/2	3 19 0	0 11 5 1/2	5
1824	2 2 8 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 0 9	0 8 1/2	0 4 1/2	5 11 1/2	17 1/2	3 2 1	7 5 0	0 14 10 1/2	5
1825	2 19 6 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 15 4	0 10 1/2	0 5 1/2	11 1/2	0 17 6	2 10 3 11 1/2	23 0 0	0 16 6 1/2	5
1826	2 17 8	- 1 1/2	2 3 2 1/2	0 9 1/2	0 6 1/2	11 0	0 19 0	1 10 3 1/2	13 5 0	0 17 5 1/2	5
1827	1 13 4 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 3 6	0 8 1/2	0 5 1/2	10 6	1 3 0	1 8 3 4 1/2	10 0 0	0 15 8 1/2	5
1828	2 10 7 1/2	- 1 1/2	2 0 0 1/2	0 8 1/2	0 5 1/2	9 6	0 18 6	1 10 3 1/2	7 -	0 15 1 1/2	5
1829	2 6 5 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 15 10 1/2	0 8	0 5 8 1/2	9 0	0 18 6	1 8 3 1 1/2	5 9 6	0 13 4	5
1830	2 8 6	- 2 1/2	2 10 11 1/2	0 6 1/2	0 4 8 1/2	8 0	0 16 11	1 8 1 1/2	5 -	0 11 6 1/2	5
1831	2 4 2 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 0 5 1/2	0 9 1/2	0 4 1/2	9 0	0 17 8	1 8 3 10 1/2	5 11 0	0 16 6 1/2	5
1832	2 6 5 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 15 1	0 8 1/2	0 5 8 1/2	8 9	0 27 0	1 8 1 1/2	8 6 15 0	0 18 1 1/2	do.
1833	2 6 8	- 2 1/2	2 4 11 1/2	0 8 1/2	0 4 1/2	9 0	0 19 0	1 6 1 1/2	6 -	0 19 2	do.
1834	2 3 9	- 2 1/2	1 17 6 1/2	0 7 1/2	0 4 8 1/2	8 6	0 16 6	1 6 1 1/2	5 1 0	0 18 2 1/2	do.
1835	2 0 7 1/2	- 2 1/2	1 11 0 1/2	0 7 1/2	0 4 8 1/2	8 0	0 14 6	1 3 3 1 1/2	5 11 0	0 13 9 1/2	do.
1836	2 1 5 1/2	- 2 1/2	1 13 1 1/2	0 9 1/2	0 4 1/2	7 8	0 14 6	1 3 3 8 1/2	-	0 14 0	do.
1837	2 10 11 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 1 11 1/2	0 10 1/2	0 4 1/2	3 9	0 18 6	1 3 3 6 1/2	4 10 0	0 13 1 1/2	do.
1838	2 9 5	- 2 1/2	2 0 1	0 9 1/2	0 5 7 1/2	8 0	0 15 0	1 3 3 0 1 1/2	3 19 0	0 15 0 1/2	do.
1839	2 7 7 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 11 9	0 10 1/2	0 8 9 0	1 0 6	1 3 3 9 5 1/2	3 19 0	3 19 0	0 14 7	do.
1840	2 14 0	- 2 1/2	2 11 9 1/2	0 10 1/2	0 4 8 1/2	8 0	1 3 3 8 1/2	3 18 0	3 18 0	0 14 3	do.
1841	2 16 0	- 2 1/2	2 12 9 1/2	0 11 1/2	0 5 7 1/2	7 6	0 14 6	1 3 3 5 1/2	7 13 0	0 15 1 1/2	5
1842	2 12 3 1/2	- 2 1/2	2 5 5 1/2	0 8 1/2	-	5 9	0 18 0	1 6 3 1 1/2	-	0 14 7	5

It may be right to observe, that in the infancy of the Institution, the cloths and bedding were constructed for in suits; and it is very inferior to the ancient pattern. In the case of ensconcers' ages, from 1836 to 1842, the rates were subject to a-

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abundance; and though there had been such a deficiency, the excess to which the price was carried must have checked consumption so much as to occasion a serious decline. The falling off in the imports of cotton from America, in 1824, seems to have been the source of the delusion. It was supposed that this falling off was not accidental, but that it was a consequence of the price of cotton having been for a series of years so low as to be inadequate to defray the expenses of its cultivation. The result showed that this calculation was most erroneous. And besides, in entering on the speculation, no attention was paid to Egypt and Italy,—countries from which only about 1,400,000 lbs. of cotton were obtained in 1824, but from which no less than 23,800,000 lbs. were obtained in 1825! This unlooked-for importation was of itself almost enough to overturn the combination of the speculators; and, coupled with the increased importation from America and other countries, actually occasioned a heavy glut of the market.

The risk to which merchants are exposed, when they either sell off any commodity at a reduced price in anticipation of a fall, or buy at an advanced price in anticipation of a future rise, is a consequence principally of the extreme difficulty of ascertaining the true state of the fact with respect to the grounds on which an abundant or a deficient supply, or an increasing or decreasing demand, may be expected. Rules can here be of no service; every thing depends upon the talent, tact, and knowledge of the party. The questions to be solved are all practical ones, varying in every case from each other; the skill of the merchant being evinced by the mode in which he conducts his business under such circumstances, or by his sagacity in discovering coming events, and appreciating their character and the extent of their influence. Priority, but, above all, accuracy of intelligence, is, in such cases, of the utmost consequence. Without well authenticated data to go upon, every step taken may only lead to error. The instances, indeed, in which speculations, apparently contrived with the greatest judgment, have ended in bankruptcy and ruin, from a deficiency in this essential requisite, are so very numerous, that every one must be acquainted with them. Hence the importance of selecting acute and cautious correspondents; and hence, also, the necessity of maturely weighing their reports, and of endeavouring, by the aid of information gleaned from every authentic accessible source, to ascertain how far they may be depended upon.

When a few leading merchants purchase in anticipation of an advance, or sell in anticipation of a fall, the speculation is often pushed beyond all reasonable limits, by the operations of those who are influenced by imitation only, and who have never, perhaps, reflected for a moment on the grounds on which a variation of price is anticipated. In speculation, as in most other things, one individual derives confidence from another. Such a one purchases or sells, not because he has any really accurate information as to the state of the demand and supply, but because some one else has done so before him. The original impulse is thus rapidly extended; and even those who are satisfied that a speculation, in anticipation of a rise of prices, is unsafe, and that there will be a recoil, not unfrequently adventure, in the expectation that they will be able to withdraw before the recoil has begun.

It may, we believe, speaking generally, be laid down as a sound practical rule, to avoid having any thing to do with a speculation in which many have already engaged. The competition of the speculators seldom fails speedily to render an adventure that might have been originally safe, extremely hazardous. If a commodity happen to be at an unusually reduced price in any particular market, it will rise the moment that different buyers appear in the field; and supposing, on the other hand, that it is fetching an unusually high price, it will fall, perhaps far below the cost of production, as soon as supplies begin to be poured in by different merchants. Whatever, therefore, may be the success of those who originate a speculation, those who enter into it at an advanced period are almost sure to lose. To have been preceded by others ought not, in such matters, to inspire confidence; on the contrary, it ought, unless there be something special in the case, to induce every considerate person to decline interfering with it.

The maintenance of the freedom of intercourse between different countries, and the more general diffusion of sound instruction, seem to be the only means by which those miscalculations, that are often productive of great national as well as private loss, can be either obviated or mitigated. The effects consequent to such improvident speculations being always far more injurious to the parties engaged in them than to any other class, the presumption is that they will diminish, both in frequency and force, according as the true principles of commerce come to be better understood. But, whatever inconvenience may occasionally flow from them, it is abundantly plain, that instead of being lessened, it would be very much increased, were any restraints imposed on the freedom of adventure. When the attention of many individuals is directed to the same line of speculation; when they prosecute it as a business, and are responsible in their

own private fortunes for any errors they may commit; they acquire a knowledge of the various circumstances influencing prices, and give by their combinations a steadiness to them, which it is easy to see could not be attained by any other means. It is material, too, to bear in mind, as was previously stated, that many, perhaps it might be said most, of those who press so eagerly into the market, when any new channel of commerce is opened, or when any considerable rise of price is anticipated, are not merchants, but persons engaged in other businesses, or living, perhaps, on fixed incomes, who speculate in the hope of suddenly increasing their fortune. This tendency to gambling seldom fails to break out upon such occasions; but, fortunately, these are only of comparatively rare occurrence; and in the ordinary course of affairs, mercantile speculations are left to be conducted by those who are familiar with business, and who, in exerting themselves to equalise the variations of price caused by variations of climate and of seasons, and to distribute the supply of produce proportionally to the effective demand, and with so much providence that it may not at any time be wholly exhausted, perform functions that are in the highest degree important and beneficial. They are, it is true, actuated only by a desire to advance their own interests; but the results of their operations are not less advantageous than those of the agriculturist who gives greater fertility to the soil, or of the mechanist who invents new and more powerful machines.

7. *Tables of Prices.* — It is superfluous, perhaps, to observe, that the precious metals are liable to all the variations of value already alluded to. Not only, therefore, are prices, as was already remarked, affected by variations in the cost and supply of commodities, but they are also affected by changes in the cost and supply of gold and silver, whether arising from the exhaustion of old, or the discovery of new mines, improvements in the art of mining, changes of fashion, &c. Hence it is, that *Tables of the prices of commodities* extending for a considerable period, communicate far less solid information than is generally supposed, and, unless the necessary allowances be made, may lead to the most unfounded conclusions. The cost or real value of any commodity depends on the quantity of labour required for its production; but supposing that we were to set about inferring this cost, or the ultimate sacrifice required to obtain the commodity, from its price, it might happen (had the quantity of labour required for its production declined, but in a less degree than the quantity required to produce gold and silver) that its value would appear to rise, when it had really been diminished. When, however, the rate of wages, as well as the price of commodities, is given upon authentic data, a *Table of prices* is valuable, inasmuch as it shows the extent of the command over the necessaries and conveniences of life enjoyed by the bulk of the community during the period through which it extends. The foregoing *Table* (pp. 1012, 1013,) of the prices of various commodities, and of the wages paid to different descriptions of tradesmen, at Greenwich Hospital, for the last 100 years, is the most complete of the sort that has been published; and is one of the few that are founded upon data the accuracy of which cannot be questioned. Unfortunately, it applies only to a small part of the country. But many important conclusions may, notwithstanding, be deduced from it. The reader will find, under the more important articles described in this work, pretty ample accounts of their prices. Sometimes, as in the case of corn, these accounts go back to a very distant period.

Those desirous of detailed information as to the prices of commodities in Great Britain, in remoter ages, may consult the elaborate *Tables* in the 3d volume of Sir F. M. Eden's work on the *Poor*; and the 4th volume of *Macpherson's Annals of Commerce*. *Arbutnot's Tables of Ancient Coins, Weights, Measures, Prices, &c.* are well known; but the statements are not much to be depended upon. The *Traité de Métrologie* of M. Paucton, 4to, Paris, 1780, is the best work on this curious and difficult subject.

PRICE CURRENT; a list or enumeration of the various articles of merchandize, with their prices, the duties (if any) payable thereon when imported or exported, with the drawbacks occasionally allowed upon their exportation, &c. Lists of this description are published periodically, generally once or twice a week, in most great commercial cities and towns. — (For examples, see the articles *GENOA, HAVRE, TRIESTE, &c.* in this work.)

PRIMAGE, is a certain allowance paid by the shipper or consignee of goods to the mariners and master of a vessel for loading the same. In some places it is 1*d.* in the pound; in others 6*d.* for every pack or bale; or otherwise, according to the custom of the place.

PRINTS, impressions on paper, or some other substance, of engravings on copper, steel, wood, stone, &c., representing some particular subject or composition.

Prints, like paintings, embrace every variety of subject; and differ very widely in the manner in which they are engraved. Their prices vary according to the style of the engraving, the fineness of its execution, the goodness of the impression, its rarity, &c. The art seems to have taken its rise in the 15th century. But, as a dissertation on one of the most beautiful of the fine arts would be singularly out of place in a work of this

sort, we have introduced it for the purpose merely of stating the law with respect to the copyright of prints.

This is laid down in the acts 8 Geo. 2. c. 13, 7 Geo. 3. c. 38, and 17 Geo. 3. c. 57. By these acts, the copyright of all sorts of prints, including maps and charts, is secured to the engraver, or author, for twenty-eight years. The last-mentioned act declares that every individual who shall, within the said 28 years, engrave, etch, or work, or in any other manner copy, in the whole or in part, by varying, adding to, or diminishing from the main design; or shall print, reprint, or import for sale, or shall publish, sell, or otherwise dispose of any copy of any print whatever, which has been or shall be engraved, etched, drawn, or designed in Great Britain, without the express consent of the proprietor thereof first obtained in writing, signed by him with his own hand, in the presence of, and attested by, two or more credible witnesses, then every such proprietor may, by a special action upon the case to be brought against the person so offending, recover such damages as a jury, on the trial of such action, or on the execution of a writ of inquiry thereon, shall give or assess, together with double costs of suit.

In questions as to the piracy of prints, the courts proceed upon the same principles that are followed in those with respect to the piracy of books. — (See BOOKS; see also Mr. Godson's excellent work on the *Law of Patents and Copyright*, pp. 287—301.)

Regulations as to Importation. — Where prints or maps are contained in and form part of a book, and serve merely to explain or illustrate the subject of such book, they are to be deemed a part of the work, and are charged with duty, by weight, as books; but when prints or maps are bound or stitched together without letter-press, or when the letter-press is merely descriptive of the prints or maps, then they are to be charged with duty by tale, as prints or maps. — (*Min. Com. Cas.* 5th of Sept. 1829.) But if satisfactory proof be adduced, that prints or maps, although imported separately, do really form part of a work, they may be charged with the book duty by weight; but in other cases they are to be charged with duty by tale. — (*Treas. Order*, 4th of June, 1831.)

Pictures, sketches, and drawings, brought from the Continent, and accompanied by the proprietor, are to be admitted to entry free of duty, upon proof, by oath of the proprietor, that the same were wholly executed by him for his amusement, and not intended for sale in this country. — (*Treas. Order*, 5th of Aug. 1817.)

PRISAGE, or BUTLERAGE, was a right of taking 2 tons of wine from every ship importing into England 20 tons or more; which was changed by Edward I. into a duty of 2s. for every ton imported by merchant strangers, and called butlerage, because paid to the king's butler. The term is now fallen into disuse. — (*Blackstone*.)

PRIVATEERS, ships of war fitted out by private individuals, to annoy and plunder the public enemy. But before commencing their operations, it is indispensable that they obtain letters of marque and reprisal from the government whose subjects they are, authorising them to commit hostilities, and that they conform strictly to the rules laid down for the regulation of their conduct. All private individuals attacking others at sea, unless empowered by letters of marque, are to be considered pirates; and may be treated as such, either by those they attack, or by their own government.

1. *Policy of Privateering.* — The policy of this system is very questionable. It seems to be a remnant of that species of private war exercised by all individuals in early ages, but which gradually disappears as society advances. In wars carried on by land, the property of the peaceable inhabitants who take no part in the operations of the armies is uniformly protected; and it is difficult to discover any solid grounds why the same rule should not be followed at sea. Privateers rarely attack ships of war. Their object is merely to plunder and destroy merchantmen. They cause an infinite deal of mischief to individuals, and aggravate all the miseries of war, without having the slightest influence on the result of the contest. Experience has also shown that it is not possible, whatever precautions may be adopted, to prevent the greatest abuses from being perpetrated by privateers. The wish to amass plunder is the only principle by which they are actuated; and such being the case, it would be idle to suppose that they should be very scrupulous about abstaining from excesses. A system of this sort, if it be ever useful, can be so only to nations who have little trade, and who may expect to enrich themselves during war by fitting out privateers to plunder the merchant ships of their enemies. In all other cases it seems to be productive only of mischief; though it is, of course, most injurious to those states that have the greatest mercantile navy. Instead, therefore, of encouraging the practice of privateering, we think that a due regard to the rights and interests of humanity would suggest to the great powers the expediency of abolishing it altogether. A few efforts have, indeed, been already made towards this desirable object. Thus, it was stipulated in the treaty between Sweden and the U. Provinces, in 1675, that neither party should, in any future war, grant letters of marque against the other. In 1767, Russia abstained from licensing privateers; and in the treaty between the U. States and Prussia, in 1785, a stipulation was inserted as to privateers, similar to that in the treaty between Sweden and the U. Provinces in 1675. But nothing short of a convention and agreement to that effect amongst the great powers will be able to effect this desirable object. — (*Martens, Essai concernant les Armateurs*, 1704.)

2. *Appointment of Privateers.* — The captain of a privateer is nominated by the owners, who may dismiss him at pleasure. The commission or letters of marque given to the owners, authorises them to attack and seize the ships of the power or powers specified therein; but they are not to look upon them as their property, or to appropriate them, or any part of them, to their own use, till they have been legally condemned. Besides the stimulus afforded by the hope of booty, government has been in the habit of allowing them £. for every man on board such enemy's ships of war or privateers as they may capture. — (*33 Geo. 3. c. 66.*) A privateer cruising under letters of marque against one state may, on obtaining authentic information of hostilities being commenced by her government against another, capture its ships

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with full advantage to herself. The king has in all cases the right to release any prize previously to its condemnation; this being an implied exception in the grant of prizes by the Crown.—(Chitty on Commercial Law, vol. i. c. 8.)

In some privateering adventures, the crew are engaged on the terms of no prize no pay; and, in such cases, the proceeds of whatever prize may be taken goes half to the ship (for the owners), and half to the men, divided among them according to the articles of agreement; but when the men sail for wages, the captures belong entirely to the owners, except a small share, which is commonly stipulated to be given to the crew, over and above their wages, in order to stimulate their enterprise. Both ways of arming are regulated by the articles entered into between the owners and crews.

Privateers are forbidden from doing any thing contrary to the law of nations, as to assault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be friend, ally, or neutral; for the peace of such place must be preserved inviolable.—(Molloy, De Jure Maritimo, book i. c. 3.)

When letters of marque are granted, it is usual, in most countries, to exact security that the regulations with respect to the conduct of privateers shall be observed. In Great Britain, a bond for 1,000, must be given by responsible persons, not concerned in the ship, for all ships carrying less than 150 men, and 2,000, for every ship carrying more, that they will give full satisfaction for any damage or injury they may commit at sea, contrary to the regulations under which they are to act, and to their duty as privateers.

If privateers willfully commit any spoil, depredation, or other injury, on friendly or neutral ships, or on the ships or goods of their fellow subjects, they are to be punished, according to the crime, either with death, or otherwise; and the vessels are subject to forfeiture.

Whether a ship taken be lawful prize, or not, shall be tried in the admiralty; and no ship or cargo, or part of a ship or part of a cargo, is to be sold, or disposed of in any way, till after judgment has been obtained.

If 2 ships with letters of marque accidentally meet with a prize at sea, though only one attack and take her, yet the other, being in sight, shall have an equal share of the prize, though he afforded no assistance in the capture; because his presence may be presumed to have struck terror into the enemy, and made him yield; which perhaps he would not have done, had his conqueror been single: so that all ships that are in sight, though they cannot come up to assist in the engagement, are entitled by the common law to a share of the prize.—(Beaumont, Les Mercatoris, art. Privateers.)

If those to whom letters of marque are granted, should, instead of taking the ship and goods appertaining to that nation against which the said letters are awarded, willfully take or spoil the goods of another nation in amity with us, this would amount to piracy; and the person so offending would, for such fault, forfeit their vessel, and the penalties in which their securities are, according to custom, bound on taking out such letters. But unless the captures were made in a piratical manner. For if the circumstances incident to the captured vessel were such as to afford a strong presumption that she really belonged to the country against which the letters were granted, the captors would not be liable to punishment, though they might be to damages. "It being impossible," says Beawes, "always to determine an affair of this sort at sea, it is allowable to bring a dubious capture into port, in order to make a trial and just scrutiny and inspection; otherwise the goods of an enemy would often escape. However, to guard against unlawful seizures, the government have wisely directed sufficient caution to be given (as before mentioned) for the due observance of the letters according to law, before they permit their issuing; and when there is a breach committed, the penalties are inflicted."—(Les Mercatoris, art. Privateers.)

3. Regulations for the Government of Privateers, &c.—The following instructions to privateers were issued under an order in council, at the commencement of the last war with France, 16th of May, 1803—

Art. I. Against what, and where, Letters of Marque may act lawfully.—It shall be lawful for the commanders of ships authorised by letters of marque and reprisal for private merchandise, to set upon, board, and subdue and take the men, war, ships and vessels, goods, wares, and merchandises, belonging to the French republic, or to any person being subjects to the French republic, or inhabitants within any of the territories of the French republic; but so that no hostility be committed, nor prize attacked, seized, or taken within the harbours of princes or states in amity with us in their ports, or roads, within the shot of their cannon, unless by permission of such prince or state, or their commanders or governors in chief of such places.

Art. II. Captures to be brought into Port.—The commanders of the ships and vessels so authorised as aforesaid, shall bring all ships, vessels, and goods, which they shall seize and take, into such port of England, or some other port of our dominions, as shall be most convenient for them, in order to have the same legally adjudged by our High Court of Admiralty of England, or before the judge of any other admiralty court, lawfully authorised, within our dominions.

Art. III. Conduct of the Captors after the Capture is brought into Port.—After such ships, vessels, and goods shall be taken and brought into any port, the captain, or one of his chief officers, or some other person present at the capture, shall be obliged to bring on board, as soon as possibly may be, 3 or 4 of the principal officers (whether of the rigger, supercargo, mate, or boatswain, to be always 2) of every ship or vessel so brought into port, before the judge of our High Court of Admiralty of England, or his surrogate, or before the judge of such other admiralty court as within our dominions, lawfully authorised aforesaid, or such as shall be lawfully commissioned in that behalf, to be sworn and examined upon such interrogatories as shall tend to the discovery of the truth, concerning the interest or property of such ship or ships, vessels, and goods, and the prizes, merchandises, and other effects found therein; and the taker shall be further obliged, at the time he produces the command and letters of marque and reprisal, to be produced to be sworn, to bring in and deliver into the hands of the judge of the High Court of Admiralty of England, his surrogate, or the judge of such other admiralty court within our dominions, lawfully authorised as aforesaid, all such papers, passes, sea-briefs, charterparties, bills of lading, contracts, letters of marque and reprisal, and writings, which shall be delivered up or found on board any ship; the taker, or one of his chief officers, or some other person who shall be present at the capture, and who shall be sworn and examined, shall deliver up, or otherwise found on board at the time of the capture, making oath that the said papers and writings are brought and delivered in as they were received and taken, without any fraud, addition, subtraction, or embezzlement whatever, or otherwise to account for the same upon oath to the satisfaction of the court.

Art. IV. Not to break bulk before Judgment.—The ships, vessels, goods, wares, merchandises, and effects taken by the commanders of ships and vessels so authorised as aforesaid, shall be kept and preserved, and no part of them shall be sold, spoiled, wasted, or diminished, and the bulk thereof shall not be broken, before judgment be given in the High Court of Admiralty of England,

or some other court of admiralty lawfully authorised in that behalf, that the ships, goods, or merchandises are lawful prizes.

Art. V. Privateers to assist Ships in Distress.—If any ship or vessel belonging to us, or our subjects, shall be found in distress by being in sight set upon or taken by the enemy, or by reason of any other accident, the commanders, officers, and company of such merchant ships or vessels as shall have letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall use their best endeavours to give aid and succour to such ship and ships, and shall to the utmost of their power, labour to free the same from the enemy, or any other distress.

Art. VI. Application in the Admiralty for Letters of Marque.—The commanders or owners of such ships and vessels, before the taking out letters of marque and reprisals, shall make application in writing, subscribed with their hands, to our high admiral of Great Britain, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or the lieutenant or judge of the said High Court of Admiralty, or his surrogate, and shall therein set forth a particular, true, and exact description of the ship or vessel for which such letters of marque and reprisals is requested, specifying the burden of each ship or vessel, and the number and nature of the guns, and what other vessels furniture and equipment are on board the same, to what place the ship belongs, and the name or names of the principal owner or owners of such ship or vessel, and the number of men intended to be put on board the same, and for what time they are victualled; also the names of the commanders and officers.

Art. VII. Correspondence with the Admiralty.—The commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid shall hold and keep, and are hereby enjoined to hold and keep, a correspondence, by all conveniences, and upon all occasions, with our high admiral of Great Britain, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or their secretary, so as from time to time to render or give him or them, not only an account or intelligence of their captures and proceedings by virtue of such commission, but also whatever else shall seem unto them, or be directed or declared to them, or found out by them, or by examination of, or conference with, any officers or passengers of or in the said ships or vessels taken, or by any other ways or means whatsoever, touching or concerning the designs of the enemy, or any of their fleets, ships, vessels or parties, and of the stations, ports, harbours, and places, and their intestine threats, and designs or vessels of the enemy bound out or home, or where cruising, as they shall hear of; and of what else material in these cases may arrive at their knowledge, so that the end of such course may be therein taken, and such orders given, as may be required.

Art. VIII. What Colours a Privateer is to bear.—No commander of any ship or vessel having a letter of marque and reprisals as aforesaid shall presume, as they will answer it at their peril, to wear any flag, pennon or other signal or colours usually borne by our ships; but, besides the colours usually borne by merchant ships, they shall wear a red jack, with the union jack described in the caution, at the upper corner thereof, near the mast.

Art. IX. Not to ransom any Captives.—No commander of any ship or vessel, having a letter of marque and reprisals as

afraid, shall ransom, or agree to ransom, or quit or set at liberty, any ship or vessel, or their cargo, which shall be seized and taken:

Art. X. To deliver their Prisoners to the proper Commissioners. — All captains or commanding officers of ships having letters of marque and reprisals shall send an account of, and deliver over, what prisoners shall be taken on board any prizes, to the commissioners appointed, or to be appointed, for the exchange of prisoners of war, or the persons appointed in the sea-port towns to take charge of prisoners, and such prizes shall be subject only to the orders, regulations, and directions of the said commissioners; and no commander or other officer of any ship, having a letter of marque and reprisals, shall be presumed, upon any pretence whatsoever, to ransom any prisoner.

Art. XI. Commissions forfeited for acting contrary hereto. — In case the commander of any ship, having a letter of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall act contrary to these instructions, or any such further instructions of which he shall have due notice, he shall forfeit his commission to all intents and purposes, and shall, together with his bail, be proceeded against according to law, and be condemned to costs and damages.

Art. XII. Copies of Journals. — All commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, by every opportunity, send exact copies of their journals to the secretary of the admiralty, and proceed to the commendation of the prize as soon as may be, and without delay.

Art. XIII. To observe all Orders. — Commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, upon due notice being given to them, observe all such other instructions and orders as we shall think fit to direct from time to time, for the better carrying on this service.

Art. XIV. Violating these Instructions. — All persons who shall violate these or any other of our instructions, shall be severely punished, and also required to make full reparation to persons injured contrary to our instructions, for all damages they shall sustain by any capture, embossment, demurrage, or otherwise.

Art. XV. Bail to be given. — Before any letter of marque or reprisal for the purposes aforesaid shall issue under seal, bail shall be given with sureties, before the lieutenant and judge of our High Court of Admiralty of England, or his surrogates, in the sum of 3,000L sterling, if the ship carries above 150 men; and if a less number, in the sum of 1,500L sterling; which bail shall be to the effect and in the form following:—
Which day, time and place, personally appeared _____ and _____ who submitting themselves to the jurisdiction of the High Court of

Admiralty of England, obliged themselves, their heirs, executors, and administrators, unto our Sovereign Lord the King, in the sum of _____ pounds of lawful money of Great Britain, to this effect; that is to say, that whereas _____ is daily authorized by letters of marque and reprisals, with the ship called the _____ of the burthen of about _____ tons, whereof he the said _____ hath a good master, by force of arms to attack, surprise, seize, and take all such and various goods, wares, and merchandise, chattels and being subjects of the French republic, or to any persons any of the territories of the French republic, or only within the harbours or roads within shot of the castles of prizes and states in amity with his Majesty. And whereas he the said _____ hath a copy of certain instructions, approved of and passed by his Majesty in council, as by the tenor of the said letters of marque and reprisals, and instructions thereto relating, more at large appeareth; if therefore nothing be done by the said _____ or any of his officers, mariners, or company, contrary to the true meaning of the said instructions, and of all other instructions which may be issued in like manner hereafter, and whereof due notice shall be given him; but that such letters of marque and reprisals aforesaid, and the said instructions, shall in all particulars be well and duly observed and performed, as far as they shall the said ship, master, and company any way concern; and if they shall give full satisfaction for any damage or injury which shall be done by them or any of them to any of his Majesty's subjects of foreign states in amity with his Majesty, and also shall duly and truly pay, or cause to be paid, to his Majesty, or the customs or officers appointed to receive the same for his Majesty, the usual customs due to his Majesty, of and for all ships and goods as aforesaid taken and adjudged as prize; and shall moreover if the said _____ shall not take any ship or vessel, or any goods or merchandise, belonging to the enemy, or otherwise liable to confiscation, through consent or clandestinely, or by collision, by force, colour, or pretence of his said letters of marque and reprisals, that then this bail shall be void and of none effect; and unless they shall so do, they do all hereby severally consent that execution issue forth against them, their heirs, executors, and administrators, goods and chattels, whatsoever the same may be found, to the value of the sum of _____ pounds before mentioned; and in testimony of the truth thereof they hereunto subscribed their names.

By his Majesty's command, (Signed) _____

PROMISSORY NOTES. See BANKS AND BANKING.

PROTECTION, in mercantile navigation, a privilege granted to certain descriptions of seamen, by which they are protected from impressment. — (See IMPRESSMENT.)

PROVISIONS. Under this term, taken in its most extensive sense, in reference to man, may be comprised all those articles used as food by the inhabitants of this and other countries; but among British merchants and in parliamentary language, it is understood to comprise only fresh and salted butchers' meat, hams, and bacon, butter and cheese, eggs, and a few other articles. We shall, however, avail ourselves of this opportunity to give, in addition to the details of the recent importation of the above articles, an account of the recent importation of cattle.

Our readers are aware that previously to the 9th of July, 1842, the importation of cattle, sheep, and hogs, and of all sorts of fresh butchers' meat, was prohibited; and that a duty of 12s. a cwt. was imposed on all foreign salt meat when entered for consumption, and of 28s. a cwt. on bacon and hams. But in the tariff act of 1842, which came into operation at the above date, the prohibition of importing foreign cattle, sheep, hogs, and fresh meat was repealed, and their entry for home consumption admitted under fair and reasonable duties; the duty on salted meat being, at the same time, reduced from 12s. to 8s., and that on bacon and hams from 28s. to 14s. a cwt. We have already (art. CATTLE) endeavoured to show that this wise and liberal measure, which will always reflect high credit on the administration of Sir Robert Peel, would not, as was generally supposed, occasion either a large importation of provisions or of cattle, and would, most probably, have but little influence over prices. And the experience of the period that has elapsed since the tariff took effect fully justifies these conclusions. In fact, though we expected nothing great, we are a good deal surprised at the limited extent of the importation, which sets in the most striking point of view the fallacy of the statements so frequently made of the comparatively high price of provisions in this country. We have already seen (anté, p. 257.) that from the 9th of July, 1842, when the new system came into operation, down to the 5th of January, 1843, only 4,277 head of cattle, including calves, were imported, and only 648 sheep and lambs: and though the Continental graziers have in the interim become better acquainted with the British markets, and the imports of cattle and sheep have been materially increased during the current year, (1845,) they continue to be comparatively inconsiderable. Contrary to what was generally

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expected by well-informed parties, the imports of bacon, beef, and hams have not been perceptibly augmented, and are quite trifling.

Account of the Numbers of Cattle, Sheep, Hogs, &c., and of the Quantities of Provisions, Imported and entered for Consumption in the U. Kingdom, with the Rates of Duty on the same, in the 10 Months from the 5th of January to the 5th of November, 1845.

Articles.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Rates of Duty.	
			From Foreign Countries.	From British Possessions.
			With the 5 per Cent. added.	
	Number.	Number.	L. s. d. Each.	L. s. d. Each.
From 5th January, to 5th November, 1845; 10 months.				
Oxen and bulls	-	8,188	1 1 0	0 10 6
Cows	-	4,600	0 15 9	0 7 10 1/2
Calves	-	565	0 10 6	0 5 2
Sheep	-	8,283	0 3 1 1/2	0 1 6 1/2
Hogs	-	656	0 5 3	0 3 7 1/2
Lambs	-	112	0 2 1	0 1 0 1/2
Eggs	-	66,803,780	Per 100. 0 0 10	Per 100. 0 0 2 1/2
Bacon	-	43	0 14 8 1/2	0 3 8
Beef, salted, not corned, of British possessions	-	4,674	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1
Ditto, foreign	-	60,441	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1
Beef, fresh or slightly salted	-	1,847	1 1 0	0 5 3
Butter	-	206,035	0 11 0 1/2	0 2 7 1/2
Cheese	-	201,089	0 14 8 1/2	0 3 8
Hams	-	4,697	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1
Meat, salted or fresh, not otherwise described	-	110	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1
Pork, salted, British possessions	-	1,484	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1
Ditto, foreign	-	31,927	0 8 4 1/2	0 2 1

It is impossible to say in how great a degree these importations may be increased in time to come; but it is most probable that they will be gradually augmented according as foreigners become better acquainted with the qualities suitable for our markets. We have, however, no idea that they will ever amount to any considerable proportion of our supply. The truth is, that the cheapness of cattle and provisions in foreign markets, of which we used to hear so much, was in great part imaginary; and that, where it did occur, it depended more on the difficulty of conveying them to other markets, or on their inferiority, than on any thing else. The imports of fat cattle from Holstein and Holland, and of beef from Hamburg, with which our markets were to be glutted, have not hitherto done our graziers the smallest injury, and would not injure them though they were increased in a tenfold proportion; and the importation of lean cattle, so far from being injurious, is highly for their interest. The imports of American pork have hitherto been too insignificant to deserve notice.

PRUNES AND PRUNELLOES, a species of dried plums, of which there are many varieties. The finest are imported from France, in the south of which this fruit is very abundant. The best prunes are packed in hampers or baskets made of white osiers, weighing from 6 to 10 lbs. each; the second quality in quarters, and the third in puncheons. The duty on prunes, which was previously fixed at the extravagant rate of 27s. 6d. a cwt., was most properly reduced in 1834 to 7s. a cwt. This reduced duty produced, in 1840, 5,776l., showing that 16,563 cwts. had been entered for consumption. Previously to the reduction of the duty, the entries seldom exceeded 6,000 cwt.

Prunes, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption except in British ships or ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are exported, on penalty of the forfeiture thereof and of 100l. by the master of the ship. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 1 2. 22.)

PRUSSIAN BLUE, or PRUSSIAN IRON (Ger. *Berlinerblau*; Fr. *Bleu de Prusse*; It. *Azzurro Prussiano*; Sp. *Azul de Prussia*; Rus. *Lasor Berlinshaja*), a beautiful deep blue powder, accidentally discovered at Berlin in 1710. It is of considerable importance in the arts, being extensively used by painters: it is manufactured in this country. Many attempts have been made to render Prussian blue available for the dyeing of broad cloths, but without much success. The difficulty is to diffuse the colour equally over the surface; for, from its extraordinary vivacity and lustre, the slightest inequalities strike and offend the eye. Prussian blue resists the air and sun extremely well; but it cannot be used in the dyeing of cottons, or any sort of stuff that is to be washed with soap, as the alkali contained in the soap readily dissolves and separates the colouring matter. — (*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 60—94.)

Blue is a favourite colour with the Chinese, and in 1810-11 the imports of Prussian blue into Canton from England amounted to 1,899 pleils, or 253,200 lbs. But, for some years past, the Chinese have not imported a single pound weight. The cause of the cessation of the trade deserves to be mentioned. A common Chinese sailor, who came to England in an East Indiaman, having frequented a manufactory where the drug was prepared, learned the art of making it; and on his return to China, he established a

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similar work there, with such success that the whole empire is now amply supplied with native Prussian blue! The West has derived many important arts from the East; but we incline to think that this is the first well authenticated instance of any art having ever been carried from the West to the East, by a native of the latter. But, in all that respects industry, ingenuity, and invention, the Chinese are incomparably superior to every other people to the east of the Indus.

PRUSSIAN or GERMAN COMMERCIAL UNION. Next to the efforts of the Prussian government to diffuse the blessings of education, their efforts to introduce a free commercial system into Germany constitute their best claim to the gratitude and esteem of their own subjects, and of the world. Germany, as every one knows, is divided into a vast number of independent, and mostly petty, states. Until a very recent period, every one of these states had its own custom-houses, and its own tariff and revenue laws; which frequently differed very widely indeed from those of its neighbours. The internal trade of the country was, in consequence, subjected to all those vexatious and ruinous restrictions that are usually laid on the intercourse between distant and independent states. Each petty state endeavoured either to procure a revenue for itself, or to advance its own industry, by taxing or prohibiting the productions of those by which it was surrounded; and customs officers and lines of custom-houses were spread all over the country! Instead of being reciprocal and dependent, every thing was separate, independent, and hostile: the commodities admitted into Hesse were prohibited in Baden, and those prohibited in Wirtemberg were admitted into Bavaria. It is admitted on all hands that nothing has contributed so much to the growth of industry and wealth in Great Britain, as the perfect freedom of internal industry we have so long enjoyed, and that intimate correspondence among the various parts of the empire, which has rendered each the best market for the products of the other. How different would have been our present condition had each county been an independent state, jealous of those around it, and anxious to exalt itself at their expense! But, until within these few years, this was the exact condition of Germany; and, considering the extraordinary obstacles such a state of things opposes to the progress of manufactures, commerce, and civilisation, the wonder is, not that they are comparatively backward in that country, but that they should be so far advanced as they really are.

But, thanks to the intelligence and perseverance of Prussia, this selfish anti-social system has been well nigh suppressed; and the most perfect freedom of commerce is now established among the great bulk of the Germanic nations. The disadvantages of the old system had long been seen and deplored by well-informed men; but so many interests had grown up under its protection, and so many deep-rooted prejudices were enlisted in its favour, that its overthrow seemed to be hopeless, or, at all events, exceedingly distant. The address and resolution of the Prussian government have, however, triumphed over every obstacle. Being fully impressed with a strong sense of the many advantages that would result to Prussia and Germany from the introduction of a free system of internal intercourse, they pursued the measures necessary to bring it about with an earnestness that produced conviction, and with a determination, *coute qui coute*, to carry their point.

The first treaties in furtherance of this object were negotiated by Prussia with the principalities of Schwarzburg Sondershausen and Schwarzburg Rudolstadt, in 1818 and 1819, on the principle that there should be a perfect freedom of commerce between these countries and Prussia; that the duties on importation, exportation, and transit, in Prussia and the principalities, should be identical; that these should be charged along the frontier of the dominions of the contracting parties; and that each should participate in the produce of such duties, in proportion to its population. All the treaties subsequently entered into have been founded on this fair and equitable principle; the only exceptions to the perfect freedom of trade in all the countries comprised within the league or tariff alliance being confined, 1st, to articles constituting state monopolies, as salt and cards, in Prussia; 2d, to articles of native produce, burdened with a different rate of duty on consumption in one state from what they pay in another; and, 3d, to articles produced under patents conferring on the patentees certain privileges in the dominions of the states granting the patents. With these exceptions, which are not very important, and are daily decreasing, the most perfect freedom of commerce exists among the allied states.

Since 1818, when the foundations of the alliance were laid, it has progressively extended, till it now comprises more than three fourths of the Germanic states, exclusive of Austria. Ducal Hesse joined the alliance in 1828, and Electoral Hesse in 1831; the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wirtemberg joined it afterwards, as have Baden, Nassau, and almost all the smaller states by which it had not been previously joined, with the exception of Mecklenburg Schwerin, and Mecklenburg Strelitz, Hanover is not included within the league.

In December, 1840, the tariff alliance comprised —

PRUSSIAN OR GERMAN COMMERCIAL UNION. 1069

	Germans Sq. Miles.	Population.
Prussia, without Neuchâtel, but inclusive of the small parcels of other territories surrounded by her sides	5,188	15,376,582
Havaria and her detached territories	1,896	4,375,586
Saxony (Kingdom of)	478	1,708,878
Wurtemberg and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	346	1,208,858
Hesse (Electoral)	808	704,598
Hesse (Duchy of) and Homberg	184	821,007
The Thuringian States	237	824,914
Baden (Duchy of) and part of Hohenzollern	378	1,891,131
Brunswick (Duchy of)	36	187,007
Nassau	85	398,093
Frankfort	2	66,558
Totals	8,236	27,416,502

Throughout the whole extent of this immense country, from Aix-la-Chapelle, on the confines of the Netherlands, eastward to Tilsit, on the confines of Russia, and from Stettin and Dantzic southwards to Switzerland and Bohemia, there is nothing to interrupt the freedom of commerce. A commodity, whether for consumption or transit, that has once passed the frontier of the league, may be subsequently conveyed, without let or hindrance, throughout its whole extent. Instead of being confined within the narrow precincts of their own territories, the products of each separate country of the alliance may now be sent to every one else; each will, in consequence, apply itself, in preference, to those departments in which it has some natural or acquired advantage; and each will have to depend for its success, not on the miserably resource of customs regulations, but on its skill and industry. The competition thence arising will be most salutary; and, should the peace of Europe be preserved, we run little risk in saying, that all sorts of industry will make more progress among the states comprised within the tariff alliance, during the next ten years, than they have done during the previous half century.

An assembly of representatives from the allied states meets annually, to hear complaints, adjust difficulties, and make such new enactments as may seem to be required. The Prussian tariff has been adopted, with certain modifications. The duties are received into a common treasury, and are apportioned according to the population of each of the allied states. In addition to its other advantages, the new system has reduced the cost of collecting the duties to a mere trifle, compared with its former amount; and has enabled hundreds of custom-houses, and thousands of customs officers, to be employed in the different departments of industry.

The existing discrepancy in the weights and measures used in different parts of Germany occasions considerable inconvenience; and we are glad to observe that the equalisation of weights and measures, and their reduction to a common standard in all the allied states, is declared to be one of the objects of the league.

It is also expressly provided that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall, in all cases, whether they belong to the public or to private individuals, be limited to the sums required to keep the roads in a proper state of repair; and that the tolls existing in Prussia shall be considered as the highest that are to be levied, and shall not in any case be exceeded.

It was at first supposed by many persons in this country, and the opinion is not yet entirely abandoned, that the Prussian league was in some degree directed against us, and that, at all events, it threatened to be very injurious to our trade with Germany; we do not, however, believe that there is any foundation whatever for either of these opinions. The alliance was planned, and brought to its present advanced state, in the view, and with the intention, of putting down the galling and innumerable restraints by which the intercourse of the German states with each other was formerly interrupted; and not with the intention of throwing any obstacles in the way of the trade of the alliance with foreign countries: it is, indeed, quite absurd to suppose that it should have this effect. The freedom of internal commerce will do ten times more to promote the industry and prosperity of the allied states than any other measure, or system of measures, that their governments could have adopted; and, as population increases, and the inhabitants become more industrious and wealthy, there will, no doubt, be an augmented demand for foreign products. The league is now no new thing. It was formed several years since, and has been progressively augmented: but, hitherto, it has not had the slightest influence in diminishing our intercourse with Germany; our exports to it, including Holland and Belgium, being greater at present than at any former period!—(See *anté*, p. 691.) Generally speaking, the duties on imports are reasonable; at least, on all the finer descriptions of goods. It never, in fact, can be the policy of the alliance to make them oppressive; for, though certain states might erroneously suppose that their interests would be promoted by such means, others would undoubtedly be of a different opinion, and would resist any attempt to carry them beyond a reasonable amount. It is a mistake to suppose that Prussia has an overwhelming influence in the assembly. She must conciliate the other states, and carry them along with her; and this can only be

done by acting on liberal principles, and with a view to the common interest of the alliance.

Besides, if any of the existing duties be exorbitant, or if any of them, that are at present moderate, should be subsequently raised to an exorbitant pitch; does any one suppose that the over-taxed articles would not be immediately smuggled into all parts of the league? We, who occupy an island, and have revenue cruisers and coast guards on all the seas and shores most accessible to the smuggler, know from experience that it is not possible to hinder over-taxed commodities from making their way, in immense quantities, into our markets. But the facilities for smuggling into the territories of the league are incomparably greater. It has a land frontier of several thousand miles; and though the whole Prussian army were employed for that purpose, it would be found that it was utterly impotent to prevent the territories of the league from being deluged with such over-taxed commodities as were in demand by the inhabitants.

It must be admitted that we have done not a little to provoke Prussia, and that we had no reason to be surprised had she manifested symptoms of irritation. She has only three great staple articles of export—corn, timber, and wool. Now, of these, we admit only the last on anything like fair terms; in ordinary years we entirely exclude corn, and we lay a duty of no less than 25s. and 92s. a load on Prussian timber, while we admit the inferior timber of N. America on payment of a duty of 1s. and 2s. 1/2. Had, therefore, the Prussian tariff been levelled against us, we should have had but slender grounds for complaint; but such is not really the case. It may, indeed, be fairly inferred, that, by agreeing to lower the oppressive duties on timber and corn, we might prevail on Prussia to use her influence to get the alliance duties on cotton stuffs, hardware, &c. abated; but, till we consent to moderate our duties on the articles in question, it is not to be supposed that Prussia will pay much attention to the exceptions we may take to any of the duties.

We are glad to be able to strengthen our view of the influence and objects of the Prussian commercial league, by laying before the reader the following extract from a work printed by order of the House of Representatives of the American States. "Prussia," it is there said, "has evidently taken the lead in this wise and important measure, to which the smaller states have gradually acceded. The whole commercial policy of this enlightened power has been distinguished for its liberality, being founded on the desire of placing her intercourse with all nations on the basis of reciprocity. The commercial league of Germany is intended to carry out this principle, and not to be directed, as has been supposed, against any particular nation; as it is well known that Prussia, in her treaties with maritime powers, has invariably adopted the system of reciprocity, to whatever extent those with whom she negotiates are willing to carry it. The establishment of this community of commercial interests forms a part of the fundamental compact, by which the new Germanic confederation was created, after the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine; to be subsequently adopted, however, at the option of such of the co-states as should choose to accede to it. Its effects cannot fail to promote commerce, and every other branch of industry, as it removes all those vexatious and endless difficulties which previously obstructed the freedom of intercourse. Navigable rivers and highways are now opened to the unfettered use of the German people; the custom and toll houses, with their officers and barriers, have been withdrawn from the interior, and the whole intercommunication resembles that of the subjects of any one of the states within its own territories. To these benefits may be added the assured prospect of improvement in the finances of the great and smaller sovereignties composing the league. This advantage will grow out of the simplicity or unity of the new system, a saving in the cost of collection, and from the increased consumption which renovated industry and progressive prosperity so invariably cause."—(*Digest of Customs Laws*, vol. iii. p. 227.)

Prussian Duty on Cottons.—The duty on cotton goods being that in which we are most interested, we have taken some pains to ascertain its real influence. This duty amounts (see *post*) to 50 rix-dollars per Prussian quintal on all cotton goods, without respect to quality or price; and, taking the quintal at 115 lbs. avoirdupois, and the rix-dollar at 3s., it is equal to 7l. 10s. per 115 lbs. Now, we have learned from statements obligingly furnished to us by a large wholesale house in the city,—

1st. That a quintal (115 lbs.) of *coarse shirting*, worth 4d. per yard, contains 497 yards; it consequently costs 8l. 6s., and the Prussian or tariff alliance duty of 7l. 10s. on it, therefore, equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 90 per cent.

2d. That a quintal of *superior shirting*, worth 1s. a yard, contains 457 65 yards; it consequently costs 22l. 17s. 7d., making the Prussian duty on such goods 32d. per cent.

3d. That a quintal of *printed cottons*, worth 1s. 6d. a yard, contains 633 yards; it consequently costs 47l. 9s., making the Prussian duty on such goods 15d. per cent.

4th. That a quintal of *fine printed cottons*, worth 2s. 6d. a yard, contains 678 yards; it consequently costs 84l. 15s., making the Prussian duty on such goods 8d. per cent.

It is plain, therefore, that, except on the coarsest and cheapest species of goods, the

Prussian or tariff alliance duty is very far from being oppressive; and, as the value of coarse goods is principally dependent on the cost of the raw cotton and the wages of labour, being but little influenced by superiority of machinery, it is not very probable that we should export them largely to Prussia, even were the duty materially reduced. No doubt, however, it would conduce greatly to the interests of the people comprised within the league, though we do not know that it would sensibly affect us, were the duty assessed on an *ad valorem* principle, and made 20 or 30 per cent. on all goods; and we should think that this might be done without any material difficulty.

The subjoined translation of the more important clauses of the customs treaty of the 22d of March, 1833, sets the principles on which the alliance is founded in the clearest point of view.

Customs Treaty, concluded the 22d March, 1833, between the Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, on the one part; and the King of Prussia, the Prince Electoral Co-regent of Hesse, and the Grand Duke of Hesse, on the other part.

I. The existing customs unions between the states above named shall henceforth constitute a general Union, united by a common system of customs and commerce, embracing all the countries comprised therein.

II. In this general re-union are also comprised the states which have already adhered, either for the whole of their territory, or for a part, to the system of customs and commerce of one or other of the contracting states, having regard to their special relations, founded upon the conventions of adhesion concluded with the states which have intervened.

III. But there will remain excluded from the general re-union the parts separated from the countries of the contracting states which, because of their situation, are not yet included either in the re-union of the Bavarian or Wirtemberg customs, nor in those of Prussia and Hesse. Nevertheless, the regulations now in force to facilitate the commerce of these territories with the principal country will be maintained. Other favours of this kind cannot be accorded without the unanimous consent of the contracting states.

IV. In the contracting states there shall be established uniform laws for the duties of import, of export, and of transit, except such modifications as, without injury to the common object, result necessarily from the particular legislation of each contracting state, or from local interests.

Thus, exceptions and modifications to the common tariff may take place, as to rates of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, (according as the direction of the routes of commerce may require,) established upon articles recognised as of minor consequence in extensive commerce; provided always, that these modifications be preferred by separate states, and that they shall not be disadvantageous to the general interests of the Association.

The administration of the duties of import, export, and transit, as well as the organisation of the authorities which are engaged therein, in all the states of the Association, shall be established upon a uniform footing, having regard, however, to the particular relations existing in those countries. The laws and ordinances which, according to those principles, ought to be uniform in the contracting states, and which are to constitute the law of the tariff and the regulations of the customs, shall be considered as an integral part of the present treaty, and shall be published at the same time.

V. There can neither be alterations, or additions, or exceptions, to the acts above mentioned (Art. IV.), but by the unanimous consent of all the contracting parties, and in the form required for the making (confection) of the laws.

The preceding articles equally to all the ordinances which would establish, for the administration of the customs, dispositions entirely different.

VI. Liberty of commerce, and community of the receipts of customs, as regulated by the following article, will commence simultaneously with the operation of the present treaty.

VII. Dating from this epoch, all duties of import, of export, and of transit shall cease on the common frontier of the Bavaro-Wirtemberg and Prusso-Hessian customs re-unions. All articles of free commerce in one of those territories may be imported freely and without duty into all the others, except only as follows:—

A. Articles monopolised by the states (playing cards and salt) conformably to Articles IX. and X.
B. Indigenous articles, now subject in the interior of the contracting states to different duties, or exempted from all duty in one state, and imported into another, and which according to article II. ought consequently to be subject to a duty of compensation.

Finally, C. Articles which, without prejudice to patent rights or conceded privileges in one of the contracting states, cannot be imitated or imported, and ought consequently to be excluded during the existence of the patents and privileges from importation into the state which has granted them.

VIII. Notwithstanding the freedom of commerce, and the exemption from duties, established by

Article VII., the transport of articles of commerce, subject by the common tariff to duties of import or export on the frontiers of the Association, cannot take place between the states of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, and the states of Prussia, of Electoral Hesse, or of Grand Ducal Hesse, and reciprocally, except by the public roads, military routes, and navigable rivers. For this purpose there shall be established, on the interior frontiers, common *bureaux* of verification, to which the conductors of merchandise must, on exhibiting their licences, declare what are the articles which they are employed to transport from one territory to another.

This disposition will not be applicable to retail commerce in raw materials, nor to the petty commerce of the frontiers or the fairs, nor to the effects of travellers. Process for the verification of merchandise will go no farther than is required for security of the duties of compensation.—(See Art. VII. B.)

XIII. The contracting parties reciprocally renew their adhesion to the principle, that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall only be sufficient to defray the expense of maintenance and repairs of the roads; whether the tax be for the state or for private rights. It was thus that has been approved the supplement to the duty of customs, created in Bavaria and Wirtemberg, to replace the duty of tolls, paving, causeways, bridges, and generally of all analogous taxes.

The tolls, &c. now existing in Prussia, according to the general tariff of 1828, shall be considered as the highest rates, and shall not be exceeded in any of the contracting states.

In accordance with the principle thus announced, the individual duty for closing the gates of the cities shall be abolished; as also the duty of paving of causeways, where it still exists; and all paved roads will be considered as causeways of a description liable only to the duty on causeways established by the general tariff.

XIV. The contracting governments agree to unite their efforts to introduce into the states a uniform system of coin, weights and measures; to commence immediately the requisite negotiations for this purpose; and, subsequently, to direct their efforts towards the adoption of uniform custom-house weights.

The contracting states, in the impossibility of establishing this uniformity before this treaty goes into operation, agree, for facilitating the forwarding of merchandise where it has not already been done, to revise their tariff as to weights and measures, assuming for a basis the tariff of the other contracting

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states. They will cause such modifications to be published, for the government of the public and of their custom-house service.

The common tariff (Art. IV.) shall be divided into two principal divisions, according to the system of weights, measures, and monies of Bavaria, and that of Prussia.

The declaration of the weights and measures of articles subject to duty shall, in Prussia, be according to Prussian weights and measures; in Bavaria and Wirtemberg, according to those of Bavaria; and in the two Hesses, according to the weights and measures there legally established.

In expediting custom-house acts, the quantity of merchandise must be expressed according to the two principal divisions of the common tariff.

Until the contracting states agree upon a system of common money, the payment of duties in each state shall be made in the same currency as is in use for payment of its other taxes.

But, from the present time, the gold and silver coins of all the contracting states, with the exception of small money (*kleinwäsz*), shall be received in all the *barsacs* of receipt of the Association; and for this purpose, tables of value shall be published.

XV. The duties of navigation upon the rivers, comprising therein those which apply to vessels, shall always be mutually acquitted according to the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or of special conventions, upon all the rivers to which these regulations apply, unless other determinations be adopted in this respect.

The contracting states agree to enter, without delay, into negotiations for that which particularly regards the navigation upon the Rhine and the neighbouring streams, in order to effect an arrangement by which the import, export, and transit of the productions of all the states of the Union upon said streams shall be, if not absolutely free, at least relieved as far as possible from duties of navigation, under the reserve of charges of reconnoissance.

All the advantages granted by one state of the Union to its subjects, in the exercise of the navigation upon said streams, shall extend equally to the navigation of the other associated states.

Upon the other streams to which neither the acts of the Congress of Vienna, nor any other treaties apply, the duties of navigation shall be according to the special regulations of the governments interested. Nevertheless the subjects of the contracting states, their merchandise and vessels, shall throughout be treated equally to the streams with perfect equality.

XVI. Dating from the day on which the general custom-house regulations of the Union shall come into operation, the duties of public stores (*Stapes*), and of trans-shipments (*umschlagrechte*), which still exist in the territories belonging to the Association, shall cease, and no one shall be liable to forced duty, nor to the discharging and storage of his merchandise, except in cases authorised by the common regulations of the customs or navigation.

XVII. No duties shall be claimed for canals, locks, bridges, ferries, cranes, weighing and storage; and the establishments destined to facilitate commerce shall not be allowed rent, except when actually used. Charges cannot be increased; and the subjects of the other contracting states shall be on a perfect equality with the subjects of the country having those establishments.

If the establishments for weighing and cranes are only used by the custom-houses, no charge shall be made, if the articles have been previously weighed at a custom-house.

XVIII. The contracting states engage to continue their common efforts for the encouragement of industry by the adoption of uniform regulations, so that the subjects of each state may enjoy, as extensively as possible, the privilege of seeking work and occupation in every other state.

From the coming into operation of the present treaty, the subjects of any one of the contracting states, trading or seeking employ on the territory of any other of those states, shall not be subject to any impost which does not equally affect the native similarly employed. Manufacturers and merchants who are only making purchases for their trade, or travellers who have not goods with them, but simply patterns for the purpose of soliciting commissions, shall not, when thus employed, have any duty to pay in another state, if authorised to carry on such commerce in the state where they have their domicile; or if employed in the service of native manufacturers or merchants.

When trading in the markets and fairs, or when they are selling the produce of the soil and fabrics, in any one of the states of the Association, the subjects of the other contracting states shall be treated in all respects as subjects of the same states.

XIX. The seaports of Prussia shall be open for commerce to all the subjects of the states of the Union, on payment of the same duties as are paid by Prussian subjects, and the consuls of the several states in the seaports or places of foreign commerce, shall be bound, in cases of need, to assist with their advice and support the subjects of the other contracting states.

XX. To protect against contraband their common custom-house system, and to insure the regular payment of the duty of consumption in the interior, the contracting states have concluded a reciprocal tariff, which shall be enforced as soon as possible, but, at the farthest, at the same time with the present treaty.

XXI. The community of receipts of the contracting states, stipulated by the present treaty, shall comprehend the product of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, in the Prussian states, the Kingdoms of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the Electorate, and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, comprising therein those countries which have down to the present time acceded to the custom-house system of the contracting states.

The following are excluded from the community of receipts, and remain reserved for the particular benefit of the respective governments:—

1. The imposts collected in the interior of each state on indigenous products, comprising therein the compensatory duties reserved in Article XI.

2. The toll on rivers, to which are applicable the regulations of the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or special conventions. (Article XV.)

3. Duties of paying, of causeways, of bridges, of ferries, of canals, of locks and ports, charges of weighing and storage, as well as similar receipts, whatever may be their name.

4. The fines and confiscations which, beyond the part allowed to informers, remain the property of each government throughout its territory.

XXII. The produce of the duties received into the common treasury shall be divided among the states of the Association, in proportion to the population which may be found in the Union, subject to deduction, 1st, of the expenses specified in Article XXX.; 2d, of the restitution of erroneous receipts; 3d, of the restoration of duties and diminutions made in consequence of special common conventions.

The population of every state which has entered or may enter into the Association, by treaty with one or other of the contracting states, under the engagement made by the latter, to make an annual contribution, for the participation of the former to the common revenue of the customs, shall be added to the population of the states which make this contribution.

There shall be made every three years, dating from a period to be hereafter fixed, an exact enumeration of the population of the associated states: the states shall reciprocally communicate the results thereof.

XXIII. All restitutions of duties not authorised by the legislation of the customs, shall remain charged to the treasury of the government which shall have granted it.

Conventions, hereafter to be concluded, will regulate in what cases similar restitutions may be accorded.

XXIV. In conformity with the object of this association of customs tending to facilitate a freer and more natural commercial intercourse, the favours accorded for the payment of custom-house duties at certain places in which fairs are held, especially the privileges of abatement (*rabat privilegien*), cannot be extended to those states of the Association where they do not exist; on the contrary, they shall be

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restricted and abolished as far as possible, regard being had to the means of subsistence of the places heretofore favoured, and to the commercial relations which they have with foreigners; but others can on no account be granted without the general consent of the contracting parties.

XXXIII. There shall every year, on the 1st day of June, be an assembly of plenipotentiaries of the governments of the Union empowered generally to deliberate; and each state may send thither a duly authorized representative.

The plenipotentiaries will choose from among themselves a president, who, however, shall have no pre-eminence over the other members.

The first assembly shall be held at Munich.

At the close of each annual assembly, the place of next meeting will be determined, having reference to the nature of those subjects which will then come under discussion.

XXXIV. The assembly of plenipotentiaries will have under its consideration the following subjects:—

A. To consider the complaints which may have arisen in any of the states of the Association, concerning the execution of the general treaty, of special conventions, of the law, and of custom-house regulations; also of the tariff, when these shall not have been adjusted during the year by correspondence between the different ministers.

B. The definitive repatriation among the states of the Union of the total common receipts, based upon the observations made by the superior authorities, and verified by the central bureaux, as may be rendered necessary by the common interest.

C. To deliberate upon propositions and suggestions made by the governments for the perfection of the administration.

D. Discussions upon alterations demanded by any of the contracting states, in the laws, tariffs, and custom-house regulations, as well as in the organization of the administration, and in general upon the development and perfection of the national system of customs and commerce.

XXXV. If, in the course of the year, when the plenipotentiaries are not in session, extraordinary incidents should occur, which require prompt decision on the part of the states of the Union, the contracting parties will consult upon these through their diplomatic agents, or they will order an extra sitting of their plenipotentiaries.

ROYAL TARIFF OF THE PRUSSIAN STATES, AND OF THE GERMAN CUSTOMS UNION.

To be in force from the 1st January, 1843.

I. Articles not liable to any Duty.

Trees for transplantation, and vines; bee-hives with live bees; blood of slaughtered cattle, both in a liquid and dry state; gas of brandy (thegnach); animal and other sorts of manure; eggs; clay and ore, not specifically charged with duty, as basalt, pumice-stone, hematite, brown-iron, plaster, yellow clay, &c.; agricultural produce, and cattle (as in article separated by the frontier) fresh fish and oysters; grain, rudder, and hay; fresh garden produce, — as, flowers, vegetables, saucery (not dried), potatoes and turnips, eatable roots, &c.; poultry, and small game of every kind; pottery (see calculation); gold and silver, unworked, in bars and fragments, including foreign small coin of silver; furniture and effects, worn clothes and furs, tools that have been used by individuals settling in the country; also, by particular permission, new clothes, shoes and effects, if they belong to persons settling in the country through marriage; wood (both for fuel and timber), if transported by land and not destined for shipping; copper rods and iron-ore, and willow for baskets; travellers' and women's cloths and linen, and travellers' cut-glass, wafers, and boxes, for transporting persons and goods; furniture of metals, and porcelain used for travelling; instruments, and patterns carried by travellers for their own use only; pens and tin (see list); milk; fresh fruit; paper, clippings and written papers (not, waste paper, &c.); seeds of forest trees, above &c.

The Prussian dollar, of 30 silver groschen, is equal to about 2s. 11½d. sterling; but in estimating duties it is usually taken at 3s. The quintal or cental is 110 lbs. in weight.

grain, reeds for roofing, &c. refuse wool; stems, horns and rough, chaff, straw, flies and bricks, mill and grindstones transported by land, and not destined for shipping; straw, chaff; cut straw; a skin of animals for which no duty is mentioned in the tariff; turf and charcoal; husks of grain and of grapes.

II. Articles which are liable to Duty on Importation or Exportation.

Fifteen silver groschen, or half a dollar, is the general duty on importation for one quintal (hundred weight) Prussian gross weight; and no further tax on consumption is levied in the country, nor then when the article is re-exported.

Exceptions, however, occur with all articles, which either, according to the preceding regulations, are entirely exempt from duty, or, according to the following sections, are liable to duty, &c.

Articles subject to a higher or lower import duty than half a dollar for one quintal; or

Articles subject to a duty on exportation.

The following are those articles on which the affixed duties are levied:—

[We subjoin a note of the duties imposed on some of the principle articles of import. *]

Names of Articles.	Unit	Duty on				Reduction for Tax on the Quintal, gross Weight.	Names of Articles.	Unit	Duty on				Reduction for Tax on the Quintal, gross Weight.
		Importation.		Exportation.					Importation.		Exportation.		
		R. Doll.	Gros.	R. Doll.	Gros.				R. Doll.	Gros.	R. Doll.	Gros.	
Beer of all sorts	Quint.	1	10	-	-	25 lbs. in boxes, 18 in barrels, 7 lbs. in double casks.	Cotton stuff, and cotton and linen goods, without any admixture of silk and wool; stockings, lace, buttons, and fancy articles; shawls, and galoons of tinsel and cotton, or cotton and linen, without any admixture of silk, wool, iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, steel, and other materials.	1	50	-	-	20 lbs. in barrels and chests, 6 lbs. in sales.	
Brandy, rum, and arrack	l	0	-	-	28 lbs. in barrels and cases, 14 lbs. in baskets, in bags.								
Cocoa, ground, chocolate, and chocolate suucery	l	11	-	-	-	14 lbs. barrels of oak and other hard woods.	Copper and brass:— Brass and copper in plates, crude or black copper, pure or rose copper, old pieces of copper and brass, as also shavings of copper and brass, bell metal, copper, and other small coin for melting (the latter on special permission), may be imported on paying the general importation duty.	1	6	-	-	15 lbs. in barrels and chests, 6 lbs. in baskets, 4 lbs. in sales.	
Cocoa, Cakes and coffee suucery	l	0	10	-	-	10 lbs. barrels of soft wood, and in baskets, 4 lbs. in bags, 1½ lbs. in casks.							
Cheese	l	0	00	-	-	Wrought rolled, and cast copper and brass for rivets, &c.; also copper ketles as they came from under the hammer, brass plates, common and plated wire with polished, rolled, and plated files, and plates.	1	6	-	-	-	-	
Coal	l	-	11	-	-								
Cotton and cotton goods:— Raw cotton	l	Pre.	-	-	10								
Cotton yarn, unbleached, of 7 and 8 threads, and wadding, warp, plaid or straight, (Duchies, twisted thread (thread, knitting yarn) & all sorts of dyestuffs, also bleaching parts	l	0	-	-	-	14 lbs. in barrels and boxes, 7 lbs. in sales.							

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.	Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
		Importation.		Exportation.					Importation.		Exportation.		
		R. Doll.	Cent.	R. Doll.	Cent.				R. Doll.	Cent.	R. Doll.	Cent.	
Manufactured goods, as, kettles, pans, &c. &c.; all other articles of copper and brass, candlesticks, bells, brass-work for harness, &c., &c., if they are not combined with the precious metals; also painted (spanned copper and brass wares).	Quin.					iron wire connected with woods, goods of the same description which are tinned but not polished; as, axes, sword blades, files, hammers, hatchets, hinges, screws, flax combs, scythes, roosters and mills, chains, machines of iron, nails, pans, shovels, locks, buckles, iron rings (not polished), vices, scy, as, sickles, chisels, bone combs, steeple blocks, scissors, balances, leavens, tongs, &c. &c.	Quin.						
Fancy articles (Birmingham ware, quincalliers), manufactured wholly or partly of gold, silver, platinum, similar or other admixtures of precious metals, inlaid with gold or silver (brass) (plated), mother of pearl, coral & precious stones; articles in connection with snuff-baiter, amber, ivory, walrus, &c., plaster of Paris, glass, wood, horn, bone, conque, varnish, leather, marble, Turkish tobacco, pipe clay, base metals, tortoise-shell, and false stones, &c. &c.; perfumes, cases for instruments, &c., watches, clocks, and pendulums, luxures of bronze, plated with gold or silver, superlative wares of metals (japaned), or pasteboard (paper mache), umbrellas, parasols, fans, artificial flowers, plumes of feathers, locks, periwig, &c. &c. In fine, all kinds of fancy wares (quincalliers), unless otherwise specified, with articles spun of cotton, linen, silk, wool, which are connected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; for instance, caps of cloth, and other stuff, combined with leather, buttons, tassels, &c. &c.	1	10	-	-	13 lbs. in chests 6 lbs. in buckets, 4 lbs. in bales.	Herrings - - - Iron and steel - - Bar and bolt iron, not manufactured, and iron ore of every kind, oil iron, iron filings, hammering, &c. - Note. - Iron ore is exempted from exportation duty in the western provinces.	1	6	-	-	10 lbs. in casks and chests, 6 in bales.		
Glass and articles of glass: - Green bottle glass - Note. - When loosely packed, 3/4 cubic feet are estimated as 1 quintal. White bottle glass, cut or with cut bottoms (Hilfencandels), brims, and table glass, without distinction of colour - Cut glass, gilt, painted, &c., with all kinds of iron and cast glass, except for chandeliers, knobs, brads, and emblems - Looking glasses, with or without quicksilver - Case; if the piece do not measure more than 1 square foot - Bows; if the piece do not measure more than 4 sq. ft., like table glass - Case; if the piece measure 1 1/2 to 2 1/2 sq. inches - Case and without distinction - (Glass wares connected with common metals and other materials not woven; also looking glasses of every kind.)	1	50	-	-	20 lbs. in casks & chests.	Cast iron; as, bar scrolls, flat, rolled, or hammered, hoop, locks, &c. &c.; as also blistered and soldering steel, cast and refined steel, also rails for railways - Exemptions: - Unmanufactured steel, imported exclusively from the Russian frontiers to the mouth of the Vistula, is subject only to the general importation duty. Hammered iron, which has been manufactured into finer sorts under the stretch and cut works, as also black iron sheeting and iron plates - White iron sheeting, as also iron rivets, anchors, and anchor chains - Lead - Lead, unwrought, in blocks - Course articles of lead; as, kettles, pipes, shot, plates, &c. &c. - Flux articles of lead; as, toys, &c., wholly or partly of lead; also japaned articles of lead - Molasses - Paper and articles of pasteboard - Grey blotting and packing paper, general importation duty is paid. Finest or thin printing paper, coarse white and coloured packing paper, and pasteboard	1	30	-	-	90 lbs. in casks and chests, 15 in bales, 9		
Gunpowder	1	2	-	-	11 lbs. in casks.	Lead - Lead, unwrought, in blocks - Course articles of lead; as, kettles, pipes, shot, plates, &c. &c. - Flux articles of lead; as, toys, &c., wholly or partly of lead; also japaned articles of lead - Molasses - Paper and articles of pasteboard - Grey blotting and packing paper, general importation duty is paid. Finest or thin printing paper, coarse white and coloured packing paper, and pasteboard	1	5	-	-	11 in casks and chests, 7 in bales.		
Hardware: - Common cast articles; as, stores, plates, railings, &c. - Common goods made of cast iron, iron, and steel, iron plates, steel, and	1	1	-	-		Lead - Lead, unwrought, in blocks - Course articles of lead; as, kettles, pipes, shot, plates, &c. &c. - Flux articles of lead; as, toys, &c., wholly or partly of lead; also japaned articles of lead - Molasses - Paper and articles of pasteboard - Grey blotting and packing paper, general importation duty is paid. Finest or thin printing paper, coarse white and coloured packing paper, and pasteboard	1	1	-	-	7 in casks and chests.		

Names of the Articles.

All oil

Note. - (Hilfencandels) ruled (Hilfencandels) state for livestock, to those mentioned

Paper

Bookish paper also of every weight (prime tier)

Pepper, pimento, vanilla, &c.

Pottery of various manufactures

Common stones (Singles)

Earthenware

Painted, or silver ware

White china ware

Coloured or white stripes, gilt -

Crockery or earthenware

White china ware, common

The same with gold lines, similar admixtures, as at china ware with fine metals

Silk and silk

Dyed and white silk (twisted)

of raw silk

Silk stuffs, cloth, lace, blond buttons, &c.

work, and articles of wool and cotton with metal connected glass, wood, brass, or nally, all wares made silk (baurre)

All the above mixed with ven materials - chest 14 in bales.

12 lbs. in bales.

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Names of the Articles.	Weight or Measure.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.	Names of the Articles.	Weight or Measure.	Duty on				Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
		Importation.		Exportation.					Importation.		Exportation.		
		R. Doll.	Cent.	R. Doll.	Cent.				R. Doll.	Cent.	R. Doll.	Cent.	
All other sorts of paper	Quin.	1	5	-	-	18 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.	Ten - Sugar - - - -	1	11	-	-	85 lbs. in chests, 14 lbs. in bales.	
<i>Note.</i> - Paper which is lithographed, printed, or ruled (to be used in this case for accounts, labels, invoices, &c. &c.) belongs to those sorts of papers mentioned above.							Refined and brown sugar - - - -	1	10	-	-	10 lbs. in chests, 10 lbs. in other sorts, 18 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.	
Paper tapestry	1	10	-	-	-	18 in chests, 14 in baskets, 7 lbs. in bales.	Raw sugar for inland sugar houses, under control of the proper officers	1	5	-	-	8 lbs. in baskets, 14 lbs. in chests, 10 lbs. in sacks of soft wood.	
Bookbinders' work of paper and pasteboard, also coarse japanned wares out of such prime materials (matters)	1	10	-	-	-	18 in chests, 14 in baskets, 7 in bales.	Raw sugar, and farina and sugar meal	-	9	-	-	10 lbs. in chests of gilt, and white 15 lbs. in chests under quintals.	
Pepper, pimento, saffron, vanilla, cinnamon	1	2	20	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 18 lbs. in barrels, 14 baskets, and 4 in bales.	Tin and articles of tin: - Coarse (in wares) as, dishes, plates, spoons, kettles, pots, and other vessels, pipes, and plates	1	2	-	-	11 in chests, 7 in baskets.	
Potters' clay and potters wares	1	Free.	-	-	1	25 lbs. in chests, 14 lbs. in baskets.	Fine and japanned tin wares, toys, &c. &c. Note. - Tin in blocks, and old tin, pays the general importation duty.	1	10	-	-	28 in chests, 14 in baskets.	
Potters' clay for China manufactures	1	Free.	-	-	1	25 lbs. in chests, 14 in baskets.	Tobacco leaves	1	5	15	-	-	18 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in baskets, 7 lbs. in bales.
Common potters' floor stones and crucibles - (Single) coloured or white crockery wares, earthen pipes	1	-	10	-	-	25 lbs. in chests, 14 in baskets.	Tobacco - Manufactured	1	11	-	-	-	18 lbs. in barrels, 15 in baskets, 6 in bales.
Painted, printed, gilded, or silvered, crockery wares	1	5	-	-	-	25 lbs. in chests, 14 lbs. in baskets.	Wool and woollen goods: - Raw sheep's wool	1	Free.	-	2	-	17 lbs. in chests and chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
White china	1	10	-	-	-	25 lbs. in chests, 14 in baskets.	White threefold or manifold twisted woollen and camel yarn, and all other sorts of dyed yarn	1	-	-	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Coloured china, and also white with coloured stripes, painted or gilded	1	25	-	-	-	25 lbs. in chests, 14 in baskets.	Woolen cloths, and hosiery cloths, shawls, fitted goods, cords, buttonry, net and fancy woolsens, mixed with iron, glass, wood, leather, bronze and steel, also with wild animals' hair, or wool with any materials except silk	1	30	-	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Crockery and other earthenware, and white china and enamel, connected with the base metals	1	10	-	-	-	22 lbs. in chests, 15 lbs. in bales.	Unmilled woolsens and mixed wares of cotton and wool, if painted, embroidered, or worked, &c.	1	50	-	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
The same connected with gold, silver, platinum, similar and other admixture of fine metals, as also all other china wares combined with fine or common metals	1	50	-	-	-	22 in chests, 15 in bales.	Carpets of wool and other animals' hair mixed with linen	1	20	-	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Silk and silk goods: - Dyed and white or forest silk (twisted and untwisted), also thread of raw silk	Quin.	1	2	-	-	22 in chests, 15 in bales.	Note. - Oil cloths made of horse hair pay the general importation duty.						
Silk stuffs, and stockings, cloth, shawls, ribbons, lace, blond lace, gauze, hatters' &c., needle-work, and milliners' articles; worn silk and salmon, mixed with metal thread, unconnected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; finally, all the above wares made of forest silk (barris de sole) or silk	Lb.	1	1	-	-	22 in chests, 15 in bales.							
All the above articles mixed with other woven materials exclusive of silk, as, wool, or other hair, of animals, cotton, and linen	1	15	-	-	-	22 in chests, 15 in bales.							

N.B. - The duty on wheat, beans, and peas, imported into Prussia from Poland by the Vistula and the Nemen and exported by Danzig, &c., has recently been raised to 5 silver gros, per scheffel; clo. on rye, barley, and oats, 5 silver do. Formerly it was only half as much. This increase of duty, intended to operate as a retaliation on Russia, shows pretty conclusively that in commercial affairs Russian influence does not go for much in Prussia.

PUBLICANS, are persons authorised by licence to retail beer, spirits, or wines. Under the term publicans are comprised innkeepers, hotel keepers, alehouse keepers, keepers of wine vaults, &c. An inn differs from an alehouse in this, - that the former is a place intended for the lodging as well as the entertainment of guests, whereas the latter is intended for their entertainment only. If, however, ale or beer be commonly sold in an inn, as is almost invariably the case, it also is an alehouse; and if travellers be furnished with beds, lodged, and entertained in an alehouse, it also is an inn. It is not material to the character of an innkeeper that he should have any sign over his door;

Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.

10 lbs. in chests and chests, 8 baskets, 1 in bales.

20 lbs. in chests and chests, 13 in sacks, 9 in bales.

11 in chests and chests, 7 in baskets, 4 in bales.

22 in chests and chests, 11 in baskets, 12 lbs. in barrels.

it is sufficient that he makes it his business to entertain passengers and travellers, providing them with lodgings and other accommodations.

1. *Licensing of Publicans.* — The provisions with respect to the licensing of public houses are embodied in the 9 Geo. 4. c. 61., of which we subjoin an abstract.

General Meetings. — There shall be annually holden in county divisions, cities, and towns, a special session of justices, to be called the "General Annual Licensing Meeting," for the purpose of granting licences to persons keeping or about to keep inns, alehouses, &c.; such meetings to be held, in Middlesex and Surrey, within the first 10 days of the month of March; and in every other place between the 20th of August and the 14th of September, both inclusive.

Notice of General Meeting. — Within every division, 21 days before the annual licensing meeting, a petty session of justices to be held, a majority of whom shall fix the day and hour for holding the general annual meeting; and shall direct a precept to the high constable, requiring him, within 8 days after the receipt thereof, to order the petty constables to affix on the door of the church, chapel, or other public place, a notice of such annual meeting, and give or leave at the dwelling-house of each justice acting for the division, and of each person keeping an inn, or who shall have given notice of his intention to apply for a licence to keep an inn, a copy of such notice. — § 2.

The annual meeting may be adjourned, but the adjourned meeting is not to be held on any of the 5 days immediately following the adjournment; and every adjournment to be held in the month of March in Middlesex and Surrey, and in August or September in every other county. — § 3.

Sessions for Transfer of Licences. — At the annual meeting, justices to appoint not less than 4 nor more than 8 special sessions, to be held as near as possible at equidistant periods, for the purpose of transferring licences. — § 4.

Notice of holding any adjourned meetings, or of any special session for the transfer of licences, to be given in the same manner and to the same parties as mentioned above. — § 5.

Justices disqualified. — No justice who is a common brewer, distiller, maker of malt for sale, or retailer of malt or any exciseable liquor, shall act or be present at any annual licensing meeting, or adjournment, or special session for transferring licences, or take part in the adjudication upon any application for a licence, or upon an appeal thereon, in the case of licensing any house, of which he is owner, or agent of the owner, or of any house belonging to any common brewer, maker of malt, &c. to whom he shall be, either by blood or marriage, the father, son, or brother, or with whom he shall be partner in any other trade; in any of these cases knowingly or wilfully to act, subjects to a penalty of 100*l.* But disqualification does not arise, where a justice, having no beneficial interest in a house licensed or about to be licensed, holds only the legal estate therein as trustee or for a charitable or public use. — § 6.

When in any liberty, city, or town, 2 qualified justices do not attend, the county justices may act. — § 7.

The power given to county justices not to extend to the Cinque Ports. — § 8.

Questions respecting licences to be determined, and licences to be signed, by a majority of the justices present. — § 9.

Application for a Licence. — Persons intending to apply for a licence to a house not before licensed, to affix a notice on the door of such house, and on the door of the church or chapel of the parish, and, where there shall be no church or chapel, on some other conspicuous place within the parish, on three several Sundays, between the 1st of January and the last day of February in the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, and elsewhere between the 1st of June and the last day of July, at some time between the hours of 10 in the forenoon and 4 in the afternoon, and shall serve a copy of such notice upon one of the overseers of the poor, and upon one of the constables or peace-officers of the parish, within the month of February in the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, and elsewhere within the month of July, prior to the annual meeting; such notice to be in a legible hand, or printed and signed by the applicant. The application must state the Christian and surname of the party, with the place of his residence, and his trade or calling during the 6 months previous to the serving of the notice. — § 10.

Notice to transfer Licence. — Persons desirous of transferring a licence, and intending to apply to the next special sessions, must, 5 days previously, serve a notice upon one of the overseers and one of the constables of the parish. Persons hindered, by sickness or other reasonable cause, from attending any licensing meeting, and proof thereof adduced on oath, may authorise another person to attend for them. — § 12.

Licences to be in force, in Middlesex and Surrey, from the 8th of April; elsewhere from the 10th of October, for one whole year. — § 13.

Provision for Death or other Contingency. — If any person licensed shall die, or become incapable, or a bankrupt or insolvent, or if he or his heirs, executors, or assigns, shall remove or neglect to apply for a continuation of his licence, the justices at special session may grant a licence to the heirs, executors, or assigns of such party, or to any new tenant; or if any man's house should be, or be about to be, pulled down for a public purpose, or rendered, by fire, tempest, or other unforeseen calamity, unfit for the purposes of an inn, licence may be granted to the occupier, if he intend to open another house as an inn. Such transferred licences shall continue only in force to the end of the year; and in case of removal to another house, notice must be given on some Sunday, within 6 weeks before the special session, in the manner and form before described. — § 14.

Fees for Licences. — The clerk of the justices may lawfully receive from every person to whom a licence is granted, for trouble and all expenses, the following sums —

	s.	d.
For constable or officer serving notices	-	1 0
For clerk of justices for licence	-	5 0
For precept to the high constable, and notices to be delivered by the petty constable	1	6

Clerks demanding or receiving more than these fees, to forfeit 5*l.* — § 15.

No sheriff's officer, or officer executing the process of any court of justice, qualified to hold or use any licence under this act. — § 16.

Excise Licences. — No licence for the sale of any exciseable liquors, to be consumed on the premises, shall be granted by the excise to any person, unless such person be previously licensed under this act. — § 17.

Penalties. — Any person without a licence selling or exchanging, or for valuable consideration disposing of, any exciseable liquor by retail, to be consumed in his premises; or with a licence, and in selling in premises other than those specified in his licence, shall for every offence, on conviction before a justice, forfeit not exceeding 20*l.* nor less than 5*l.* with costs; but the penalty not to attach in case of death or insolvency, and sale by the heir or assigns, prior to the next special sessions. — § 18.

Every licensed person shall, if required, sell all liquors by retail (except in quantities less than a ½ pint) by the gallon, quart, pint, or ½ pint, ased according to the standard; in default thereof to forfeit the illegal measure, and pay not exceeding 4*l.* with costs, to be recovered within 30 days before a justice. — § 19.

In cases of riot, or probability of riot, houses licensed in the neighbourhood may be closed by the order of 2 justices. — § 20.

Any person convicted of a first offence, before 2 justices, against the tenour of his licence, to forfeit not exceeding 5*l.* with costs; guilty of a second offence within three years of the first, to forfeit not exceeding 10*l.* with costs; and guilty of a third offence within 3 years, to forfeit not exceeding 50*l.* with costs; or

the case in the last instance may be adjourned to the petty sessions, for the annual meeting, or the general quarter sessions; and if the offender is found guilty by a jury, he may be fined 100*l.*, or adjudged to forfeit his licence or both, and rendered incapable of selling any exciseable liquor in any inn kept by him for 3 years. — § 21.

Proceedings at the session in certain cases may be directed by the justices to be carried on by the constable, and the expenses defrayed out of the court's account. — § 22.

Witnesses refusing to attend without lawful excuse may be fined not more than 10*l.* — § 23.

Penalties against justices may be sued for in any court of Westminster; a moiety to the king and a moiety to the party suing. — § 24.

Penalties adjudged by justices may be recovered by distress or the party imprisoned 1, 2, or 6 calendar months. — § 25.

The next sections relate to the mode of prosecuting actions. The last section of the act bears that the word "inn" shall include any inn, alehouse, or victualling house, in which is sold by retail any exciseable liquor, to be drunk or consumed on the premises; and the words exciseable liquor are to include all such fermented or spirituous liquors as may now or hereafter be charged with any custom or excise duty. — § 27.

The act does not affect the Universities, nor the privileges of the Vintners' Company, except those freemen who have obtained their freedom by redemption; and it does not alter the time of granting licences in the city of London.

Innkeepers are bound, by the tenour of their licence, to keep order in their houses, to prevent drunkenness and disorderly conduct, and gambling. If they fall in these respects, they forfeit their licence, and subject themselves to the penalties mentioned before. Allowing seditious or immoral books to be read in an inn, also forfeits the licence, and subjects to penalties. — (39 Geo. 3. c. 79. § 31.)

2. *Duties of Innkeepers.* — Innkeepers are bound by law to receive guests coming to their inns, and they are also bound to protect their property when there. They have no option to reject or refuse a guest, unless their house be already full, or they are able to assign some other reasonable and sufficient cause. Neither can they impose unreasonable terms on such as frequent their houses: if they do, they may be fined, and their inns indicted and suppressed. An innkeeper who has stables attached to his premises, may be compelled to receive a horse, although the owner does not reside in his house; but he cannot, under such circumstances, be compelled to receive a trunk or other dead thing. By the annual Mutiny Act, constables, or, in their default, justices of the peace, may quarter soldiers in inns, livery-stables, alehouses, &c., under the conditions and regulations set forth in the statute.

3. *Responsibility of Innkeepers.* — An innkeeper is bound to keep safely whatever things his guests deposit in his inn, or in his custody as innkeeper; and he is civilly liable for all losses, except those arising from irresistible force, or what is usually termed the act of God and the king's enemies. "It has long been holden," says Sir William Jones, "that an innkeeper is bound to restitution, if the trunks or parcels of his guests, committed to him either personally or through one of his agents, be damaged at his inn, or stolen out of it by any person whatever (except the servant or companion of the guest); nor shall he discharge himself of this responsibility by a refusal to take care of the goods, because there are suspected persons in the house, for whose conduct he cannot be answerable; it is otherwise, indeed, if he refuse admission to a traveller because he really has no room for him, and the traveller, nevertheless, insist upon entering, and place his baggage in a chamber without the keeper's consent. Add to this, that if he fail to provide honest servants and honest inmates, according to the confidence reposed in him by the public, his negligence in that respect is highly culpable, and he ought to answer civilly for their acts, even if they should rob the guests that sleep in their chambers. Rigorous as this law may seem, and hard as it may actually be in one or two particular instances, it is founded on the great principle of public utility, to which all private considerations ought to yield; for travellers, who must be numerous in a rich and commercial country, are obliged to rely almost implicitly on the good faith of innholders, whose education and morals are usually none of the best, and who might have frequent opportunities of associating with ruffians or pilferers, while the injured guest could never obtain legal proof of such combinations, or even of their negligence, if no actual fraud had been committed by them. Hence the praetor declared, according to Pomponius, his desire of securing the public from the dishonesty of such men; and by his edict gave an action against them, if the goods of travellers or passengers were lost or hurt by any means except by inevitable accident (*damno fatali*): and Ulpian intimates, that even this severity could not restrain them from knavish practices or auspicious neglect." — (*Essay on the Law of Bailments*, 2d ed. pp. 95, 96.)

Even if an innkeeper bid the guest take the key of his chamber and lock the door, telling him that he cannot undertake the charge of the goods, still, if they be stolen, he is held to be responsible. In all such cases it is not competent to the innkeeper to plead that he took ordinary care, or that the force which occasioned the loss was truly irresistible. A guest is not bound to deliver the goods in special custody to the innkeeper, nor, indeed, to acquaint him that he has any. If he have property with him, or about his person, the innkeeper must be responsible for it without communication. But the innkeeper may require that the property of his guest be delivered into his hands, in order that it may be put into a secure place; and if the guest refuse, the innkeeper is not liable for its safety. The guest exonerates the innkeeper from liability when he takes upon himself the exclusive custody of the goods, so as to deprive the innkeeper of having

any care over them; thus, if a guest demand and have exclusive possession of a room, for the purpose of a shop or warehouse, he exonerates the landlord from any loss he may sustain in the property which he keeps in that apartment: but it is otherwise if he have not the *exclusive possession of the room*. The innkeeper cannot oblige the guest to take charge of his own goods; for this, in effect, would be a refusal to admit them into the inn. And it is no excuse for an innkeeper to say that he delivered the key of the chamber whence the property was stolen to the guest, who left the door open. A case of this sort occurred a few years ago, at Brighton. A lady having left the door of her bed-room, of which she had the key, open for a few minutes, 50*l.* were abstracted from her reticule. The innkeeper contended that the plaintiff, by selecting particular apartments, and taking the key, had exonerated him from his liability. The jury found for the plaintiff; and upon a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said,—"By the common law of this country, and also by the civil law, the principle of the liability of innkeepers was founded on two reasons: first, to compel the landlord to take care that no improper company was admitted into his house; and, secondly, to prevent collusion. — The principle, as stated in the civil law, was this — '*Ne, quisquam putet graviter hoc in eos constitutum esse; nam est in ipsorum arbitrio nequam recipiant; et nisi hoc esset statutum, materiam daretur cum furibus, adversus eos quos recipiunt, coeundi: cum ne nunc quidem abstant hujumodi fraudibus.*' It was true that, in the present state of society, it was very difficult to prevent the intrusion of improper company into inns. But still the principle was such as he had stated it to be, and it would be dangerous to relax it; and he did not think that the taking rooms in this way was sufficient to discharge the landlord. Then, as to the objection that the cases did not extend to money, it was clear that money was as much within the principle as goods, and that no substantial distinction could be made. He was therefore of opinion that the verdict was right."— Rule refused.

A landlord may exempt himself from liability, if he can show that the loss was occasioned by the misconduct of the guest; as, if his goods are stolen by his own servant or companion.

It has been decided that a man is a guest at an inn, if he leave his horse at it, though he has not gone into it himself. If a man come to an inn, and make a contract for lodging for a set time, and do not eat or drink there, he is no guest, but a lodger, and, as such, not under the innkeeper's protection; but if he eat and drink, or pay for his diet there, it is otherwise. Any innkeeper or alehouse keeper, knowingly receiving and harbouring any person convicted of an offence against the revenue laws, for which he has been in prison, or for which he has fled, shall forfeit 100*l.*, and have no licence for the future.

4. Remedy of an Innkeeper against his Guest. — An innkeeper may, without any agreement to that effect, detain the person of a guest who has eaten in his house, until payment; and he may do the same by the horses in his stable.

An innkeeper is not entitled to recover for spirits supplied to his guests, of the value of 20*l.* and upwards, unless supplied or contracted for at one time. — (23 *Geo.* 2. c. 40.)

By the custom of London and Exeter, if a man commit a horse to an hostler, and the expense of his keep become equivalent to his price, the hostler may appropriate the horse to himself upon the appraisement of four of his neighbours, or may have him sold. But innkeepers in other parts of the country have no power to sell horses detained by them.

A horse committed to an innkeeper cannot be detained as a security for the board of his master. It is enacted by 11 & 12 *Will.* 3. c. 15, that innkeepers, alehouse keepers, &c. refusing to specify in an account the number of pints or quarts for which demand is made, or selling in unmarked measures, shall have no power to detain any goods or other things belonging to the person from whom demand is made, but shall be left to their action for recovery of the same.

PUMICE-STONE (Ger. *Bimstein*; Fr. *Pierre ponce*; It. *Pietra pomice*; Sp. *Pietra pomez*; Lat. *Pumex*), a light, spongy, vitreous stone, found usually in the neighbourhood of volcanoes. It is used for polishing metals and marble, and smoothing the surface of wood and pasteboard. It is said to form a good glaze for pottery. The lighter pumice stones swim on water, their specific gravity not exceeding .914. The island of Lipari, in the Mediterranean, is chiefly formed of pumice stone, and may be said to be the magazine whence all Europe is supplied with this useful article. There are several species of pumice stones; but those only that are light and spongy are exported. The price varies in the London market from 8*l.* to 10*l.* a ton.

PUTCHOCK. An article of this name is imported in considerable quantities from the north-west coast of India into China, and is regularly quoted in the Canton price currents. It is the root of a plant that grows abundantly in Sindh. When burned, it yields a fine smoke, and a grateful and diffusive smell. The Chinese beat it into a fine powder, which they burn as incense in the temples of their gods. — (*Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 126.)

Q.

QUARANTINE, a regulation by which all communication with individuals, ships, or goods, arriving from places infected with the plague, or other contagious disease, or

supposed to be peculiarly liable to such infection, is interdicted for a certain definite period. The term is derived from the Italian *quaranta*, forty; it being generally supposed, that if no infectious disease break out within 40 days, or 6 weeks, no danger need be apprehended from the free admission of the individuals under quarantine. During this period, too, all the goods, clothes, &c. that might be supposed capable of retaining the infection, are subjected to a process of purification. This last operation, which is a most important part of the quarantine system, is performed either on board ship, or in establishments denominated *lazarettos*. — (See *post*.)

Policy of Quarantine. — The regulations as to quarantine are entirely precautionary; they have their origin in the belief that various diseases, but especially the plague, are contagious; and supposing such to be the case, the propriety of subjecting those coming from an infected or suspected place to a probation is obvious. Indeed, no government could, until the belief in question be proved to be ill founded, abstain from enforcing precautionary measures, without rendering itself liable to the charge of having culpably neglected one of its most important duties, — that of providing, by every means in its power, for the safety of its subjects. Latterly, however, it has been contended that the plague is never imported; that it is always indigenous; originating in some peculiar state of the atmosphere, or in something peculiar in the condition of the people; and that, consequently, quarantine regulations merely impose a heavy burden on commerce, without being of any real utility. But though there does not seem to be any reason for doubting that infectious diseases have originated in the way described, the fact that they have, in innumerable instances, been carried from one place to another, seems to be established beyond all question. Even if the evidence as to the importation of infectious diseases were less decisive than it is, or the opinions of medical men more divided, it would not warrant the repeal of the restraints on the intercourse with suspected ports. This is not a matter in which innovations should be rashly introduced; wherever there is doubt, it is proper to incline to the side of security. In some cases, perhaps, quarantine regulations have been carried to a needless extent; but they have more frequently, we believe, been improperly relaxed.

Institution of Quarantine. — The notion that the plague was imported from the East into Europe, seems to have prevailed in all ages. But it would appear that the Venetians were the first who endeavoured to guard against its introduction from abroad, by obliging ships and individuals from suspected places to perform quarantine. The regulations upon this subject were, it is most probable, issued for the first time in 1484. — (*Beckmann, Hist. of Invent.* vol. ii. art. *Quarantine*.) They have since been gradually adopted in every other country. Their introduction into England was comparatively late. Various preventive regulations had been previously enacted; but quarantine was not systematically enforced till after the alarm occasioned by the dreadful plague at Marseilles in 1720. The regulations then adopted were made conformably to the suggestions of the celebrated Dr. Mead, in his famous "Discourse concerning Pestilential Contagion."

Lazarettos or Pest-houses are establishments constructed to facilitate the performance of quarantine, and particularly the purification of goods. They have usually a port in which ships from a suspected place may anchor; and, when perfect, are provided with lodgings for the crews and passengers, where the sick may be separated from the healthy; and with warehouses, where the goods may be deposited; all intercourse between the lazaretto and the surrounding country being, of course, interdicted, except by permission of the authorities. The lazarettos at Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles are the most complete of any in Europe. The facilities they afford to navigation are very great; for, as ships from suspected places may discharge their cargoes in the lazaretto, they are not detained longer than they would be were there no quarantine regulations. The goods deposited in the lazaretto, being inspected by the proper officers, and purified, are then admitted into the market.

Comparal with these, the quarantine establishments in this country are exceedingly defective. There is not, even in the Thames, a lazaretto where a ship from a suspected place may discharge her cargo and refit: so that she is detained, frequently at an enormous expense, during the whole period of quarantine; while, if she have perishable goods on board, they may be very materially injured. It is singular that nothing should hitherto have been done to obviate such grievances. The complaints as to the oppressiveness of quarantine regulations are almost wholly occasioned by the want of proper facilities for its performance. Were these afforded, the burdens it imposes would be rendered comparatively light; and we do not know that many more important services could be rendered to the commerce of the country, than by constructing a proper quarantine establishment on the Thames.

Bills of Health. — The period of quarantine varies, as respects ships coming from the same place, according to the nature of their bills of health. These are documents, or certificates, signed by the consul or other competent authority in the place which the

ship has left, describing its state of health at the time of her clearing out. A *clean bill* imports that at the time of her sailing, no infectious disorder was known to exist. A *suspected*, or, as it is more commonly called, a *touched bill*, imports that rumours were afloat of an infectious disorder, but that it had not actually appeared. A *foul bill*, or the *absence of clean bills*, imports that the place was infected when the vessel sailed. — (See *BILLS OF HEALTH*.) The duration of the quarantine is regulated by the nature of these instruments. They seem to have been first issued in the Mediterranean ports in 1665, and are obviously of great importance.

Quarantine Regulations. — The existing quarantine regulations are embodied in the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 78., and the different orders in council issued under its authority. These orders specify what vessels are liable to perform quarantine; the places at which it is to be performed; and the various formalities and regulations to be complied with. The publication in the *Gazette* of any order in council with respect to quarantine is deemed sufficient notice to all concerned; and no excuse of ignorance is admitted for any infringement of the regulations. To obviate, as far as possible, any foundation for such plea, it is ordered that vessels clearing out for any port or place with respect to which there shall be at the time any order in council subjecting vessels from it to quarantine, are to be furnished with an abstract of the quarantine regulations; and are to furnish themselves with quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and with materials and instruments for fumigating and immersing goods. The following are the clauses in the act as to signals: —

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel liable to quarantine, shall, at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within 2 leagues of the coast of the U. Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal to denote that his vessel is liable to quarantine; which signal shall in the day time, if the vessel shall have a clean bill of health, be a large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head; and if such vessel shall not have a clean bill of health, then a like yellow flag, with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to 2 breadths of bunting; and in the night time, the signal shall in both cases be a large signal lantern with a light therein (such as is used on board his Majesty's ships of war), at the same mast-head; and such commander, master, or other person, shall keep such signals hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessel, or within 2 leagues of the said coast or islands, and while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel so liable to quarantine shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure whereof, such commander, master, or other person shall forfeit 100l. — § 8.

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel on board whereof the plague or other infectious disease highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects shall actually be, shall at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within 2 leagues of the coast of the U. Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal, to denote that a vessel has the plague or other infectious disease; which signal shall be in the day time a flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head; and in the night time, the signal shall be 2 large signal lanterns, commonly used on board ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast-head; and such commander, master, or other person shall keep such signal hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessel, or within 2 leagues of the coast or islands aforesaid, while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure whereof, such commander, master, or other person shall forfeit 100l. — § 9.

If any commander, master, or other person, knowing that the same is not liable to the performance of quarantine, shall hoist such signal, by day or night, such commander or other person shall forfeit 50l. — § 10.

But, instead of printing the act, and the various orders in council that have grown out of it, it will be sufficient to lay the following abstract of them before the reader. This abstract has been prepared by the Custom-house; and contains a distinct summary of the various rules and regulations to be complied with.

ABSTRACT OF QUARANTINE REGULATIONS.

It is in the first place to be observed, that all persons are presumed to know and are bound to take notice, not only of the quarantine regulations established by act of parliament (as they are of any other public act), but likewise of every order in council made for the performance of quarantine, and published in the *London Gazette*; and as it is easily in their power to inform themselves of such regulations, and particular care is taken by this and other means to promulgate such of them as apply to their respective situations, *precisely to their being actually put under quarantine*, when they will receive directions for their guidance from the quarantine officers, no plea of ignorance will be admitted as an excuse for any neglect, breach, or violation thereof; but, for the sake of example, and for the security of the public health, the pains, penalties, and punishments of the law will be enforced with the utmost severity.

Duty of Commanders and Masters of Vessels.

Upon arrival off the coast of the U. Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man,

To deliver to the pilot who shall go on board, a written paper, containing a true account of the name of the place at which his ship loaded, and of all the places at which he touched on the homeward voyage.

Neglecting or refusing to deliver such papers, or making any false representation or wilful omission therein, subjects him to a penalty of 100l.

Upon entering or attempting to enter any port, and being spoke by any quarantine officers,

To give a true answer in writing or otherwise, and upon oath or not upon oath (according as he shall be required), to the preliminary questions put to him by such quarantine officer, for the purpose of ascertaining whether his vessel is or is not liable to quarantine. Neglecting or refusing to bring his vessel to anchor as it can be done with safety, in obedience to the regulation of the quarantine officer, subjects him to a penalty of 100l.

Refusing to answer such questions, or giving any false answer thereto (if not upon oath), subjects him to a penalty of 200l.

If upon oath, to the punishment for wilful and corrupt perjury.
 If any infectious disease shall appear on board, the master is to repair to such place as his Majesty shall direct, and make known his case to the officer of customs, and he is to remain at that place until directions are given by the Lords of the Privy Council. He is not to permit any of the crew or passengers on board to go on shore, and he, his crew and passengers, are to obey such directions as are received from the Lords of the Privy Council.

Not acting in conformity to the regulations herein directed, or acting in disobedience to such directions as shall be received from the privy council, he incurs the penalty of 100*l*.

If informed by the pilot, that his vessel has become liable to quarantine, by reason of any proclamation made subsequent to his departure, to hoist and keep hoisted a like signal, under the same penalty of 100*l*.

To give to the pilot coming on board a written paper containing a true account of the different articles composing his cargo. Neglecting or refusing to do so, or making a false representation or wilful omission, subjects him to a penalty of 50*l*.
 Masters of vessels liable to quarantine, and other persons on board them or having communication with them, are to repair to the appointed quarantine stations, and may be compelled to do so by force.

The master of any vessel having disease on board, on meeting with any other vessel at sea, or within 2 leagues of the coast of the U. Kingdom, or the Islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, is to hoist a signal to denote that his vessel has such disease on board, and is to keep such signal hoisted during such time as he shall continue within sight of such vessel, or within 2 leagues of the coast or islands aforesaid, while so in sight or within such distance, until the vessel shall arrive at the port where she is to perform quarantine, and until she shall be legally discharged from the performance thereof. Failing herein, the master incurs the penalty of 100*l*.

If he shall refuse or omit to disclose the circumstances of such infection prevailing either at any place at which he has been, or on board his vessel, in his answers to the preliminary questions put to him by the quarantine officer, or if he shall wilfully omit to hoist, and to keep hoisted, the proper quarantine signal to denote that his ship is liable to quarantine, he incurs the penalty of 300*l*.

Upon attempting to enter any port, which is not the port at which he ought to perform quarantine, he may be compelled to return thither, in order that he may proceed to the proper quarantine ports, by guns being fired upon the ship, or any other kind of force being used that may be necessary for the attainment of that object.

Quitting or knowingly suffering any seamen or passenger to quit his ship, by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat, before discharged from quarantine, or Not repairing to the proper quarantine station within a convenient time after due notice given, incurs a penalty of 100*l*.

To repair in all cases to the proper quarantine port, as herein-after stated in the Appendix, according as he shall or shall not be furnished with a clean bill of health, and according to the port or place to which he shall be bound, as herein stated.

But if through ignorance, or by stress of weather, damage, loss, or accidents of the seas, he shall have passed the proper quarantine port, he may (having a clean bill of health on board, and upon giving satisfactory proof thereof upon oath, and by the oath of the pilot, if any on board, and that the same was not wilfully or intentionally done or occasioned) be permitted to proceed to some other quarantine port, in the discretion of the quarantine officer, keeping the proper quarantine signal hoisted during the whole time.

Upon his arrival at the proper quarantine port, to give true answers upon oath to all the quarantine questions, and to make oath to the truth of his log-book, and the times at which the entries were therein made: failing herein, he incurs the penalty of wilful and corrupt perjury.

He is also to repair to the particular station which shall be appointed by the quarantine officer for the said ship or vessel.

To deliver up to the quarantine officer his bill of health, manifest, log-book, and journal.

Wilfully refusing or neglecting so to do, subjects him to a penalty of 100*l*.

If not bound to any port of the U. Kingdom, or the Islands aforesaid, and attempting to enter any port thereof (except to wait for orders, or in consequence of stress of weather or accidents of the seas), he shall give satisfactory proof thereof to the quarantine officer, and give true answers upon oath to the preliminary questions, and strictly conform to all such directions as he shall receive from the quarantine officer, touching his continuance at such port, or departure from thence, or repairing to any other; and also with respect to all other quarantine regulations; in default of which, he may be compelled to proceed to sea by any means or by any kind of force that shall be necessary for that purpose.

Having performed quarantine in any foreign lazaret, the vessel is to be put under quarantine at some of the ports herein-after appointed, until the master shall produce to the quarantine officer the proper documents in proof thereof; upon production whereof the said vessel shall not be obliged to perform quarantine, but shall remain at such station until released by order in council.

Unshipping, or moving in order to unship, any goods from on board any vessel liable to quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 500*l*.

Clandestinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any letter, goods, or other articles, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 100*l*.

Note. — Every commander or master of any vessel clearing out or about to sail for any port or place in the Mediterranean, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or for any port or place respecting which there shall at the time be any order of his Majesty in council in force, subjecting vessels coming from thence to quarantine, is to receive from the principal officer of the customs at such port or place, this printed Abstract of the Quarantine Regulations, which such commander or master is to cause to be affixed in some convenient and conspicuous part of his said vessel, and to remain so affixed until his return with his said vessel to some port or place in the U. Kingdom or the Islands aforesaid.

And every such commander and master is likewise to provide and take on board at least of each of the ports or quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and likewise materials and instruments for fumigation and disinfection, and to keep the same on board, to be used upon his return to the U. Kingdom or the Islands aforesaid.

Duty of Pilots.

Pilots are strictly to observe the following directions: —

To receive an account in writing from every commander or master of any vessel coming from foreign parts, of the places at which his vessel loaded, and at which he touched on his said homeward voyage.

To give notice to such commander or master of any proclamation, or order in council, made after the departure of such vessel from the U. Kingdom or the Islands aforesaid, and then in force, by which vessels coming from any place mentioned in such account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

To give a like notice of any proclamation then in force, by which vessels having on board any of the articles mentioned in the master's account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice, subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

To remain on board in the same manner as any of the officers, crew, or passengers, and not to quit the said vessel before or after the arrival, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until she is regularly discharged from quarantine; and they may be compelled by any persons whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the same. If they offend herein, they incur a penalty of 300*l*. and 6 months' imprisonment.

Not to bring any such vessel into any port or place other than the port or place appointed for the reception of vessels so liable to quarantine as stated in the Appendix, unless compelled by stress of weather, adverse winds, or accidents of the sea, of which the pilot, as well as the commander or master of the vessel, is to give satisfactory proof upon oath. If they offend herein, they incur a penalty of 500*l*.

To bring the ship to, as soon as it can be done with safety, in obedience to the regulation of the quarantine officer. Failing herein subjects them to a penalty of 100*l*.

Duty of other Persons.

When any infectious disease actually appears on board any vessel, all persons on board are to obey the direction of the privy council, under a penalty of 100*l*.

Not to quit such vessel, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until regularly discharged from quarantine; and if they quit the ship, they may be compelled by any persons whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the same; and are also liable to a penalty of 300*l*. and 6 months' imprisonment.

Whether liable to quarantine, or actually performing quarantine, or having had any intercourse or communication with any such persons so liable to or under quarantine, all persons are to obey all such orders as they shall receive from the quarantine officer, and to repair to the lazaret, vessel, or place appointed for the performance of quarantine. Willfully refusing or neglecting to repair forthwith, when required so to do by such officers, or escaping from or out of such lazaret, vessel, or place may be compelled to repair or return thereto by any kind of necessary force, and are subject to a penalty of 200*l*.

Landing or unshipping, or moving in order to the landing or unshipping, of any goods, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, books, letters, or any other articles whatever, from vessels liable to quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 500*l*.

Clandestinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any goods, letters, or other articles as aforesaid, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, or from the lazaret or other place where such goods or other articles shall be performing quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 100*l*.

Having quitted or come on shore from any vessel liable to or under quarantine, or having escaped from any lazaret or other place appointed in that behalf, may be seized and apprehended by any constable or other peace officer, or by any other person whatever, and carried before a justice of the peace, who may grant his warrant for conveying such person to the vessel, lazaret, or other place from which he shall have escaped, or for confining him in any place of safe custody (not being a public gaol) until directions can be obtained from the privy council.

Knowingly and wilfully forging or counterfeiting, interloping, erasing, or altering, or procuring to be forged, &c., any certificate directed by any order in council touching quarantine, or publishing the same as true, or uttering any such certificate with intent to obtain the effect of a true certificate, knowing its contents to be false, are guilty of felony.

What Vessels are liable to Quarantine.

All vessels (as well ships of war as all others) with or without clean bills of health, coming —

From or having touched at any place in the Mediterranean, or the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean.

From any other place from which his Majesty shall from time to time adjudge it probable (and shall so declare by proclamation or order in council) that the plague, or any other infectious disease or distemper highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects, may be brought.

Note. — They are considered as liable to quarantine from the time of their leaving any of the said places.

All vessels having communication with any of the before-mentioned ships or vessels, or receiving —

Any person whatever from or out of such vessel, whether such person shall have come from any of the said places, or shall have gone on board of such vessel, either in the course of her voyage, or upon her arrival off the coast of the U. Kingdom, &c. — Or,

Any goods, wares, or merchandise, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, goods, letters, or any other articles whatever, from or out of such ship or vessel.

Note. — They are liable to quarantine from the time of their receiving any such persons or goods.

All vessels coming from any port or place in Europe without the Straits of Gibraltar, or on the continent of America, and having on board —

Any of the articles enumerated (a list of which articles see in the Appendix);

And not producing a declaration upon oath, made by the owner, proprietor, shipper, or consignee, stating either that such articles are not the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or stating of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture.

All vessels and boats receiving —

Any of the said goods, wares, and merchandise, or other articles enumerated.

Signals.

For vessels with the plague or other highly infectious disease actually on board —

In the day time — A flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 8 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time — Two large signal lanterns, with a light therein, such as are commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast-head.

For vessels with clean bills of health —

In the day time — A large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time — A large signal lantern, with a light therein, such as is commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, at the same mast-head.

For vessels without clean bills of health —

In the day time — A large yellow flag, with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to 2 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time — Same as for vessels with clean bills of health.

Note. — Every commander or master of a vessel about to sail for the Mediterranean, or for any place respecting which an order in council shall be in force, subjecting vessels coming from thence to quarantine, to be provided with the quarantine signals above mentioned, and to keep the same on board, to be used on his return to the U. Kingdom.

Any commander or master hoisting either of the said quarantine signals, by day or night, knowing that his vessel is not liable to quarantine, incurs a penalty of 50*l*.

APPENDIX. — A List of Articles enumerated considered as most liable to Infection.

Apparel of all kinds	Canvass	Feathers
Artificial flowers	Carmenial wood	Flax
Hat or any articles made thereof	Carpets	Furriers' waste
Beads, bracelets, or necklaces in strings	Carriage not larded	Guaits' hair
Beds and bed ticks	Cotton wool	Gold or silver on thread, cotton, hair, wool, or silk of any other substance herein-before mentioned
Books	Cotton yarn	Groggins
Rooms of all kinds	Cotton thread	Hats, caps, or bonnets of straw, chip, cane, or any other material
Brushes of all sorts	All articles wholly made of or mixed with cotton, silk, wool, thread, or yarn	
Burlets	Down	
Canvases		

Hemp
Horns
Horn and horn tips
Hair of all sorts
Leather
Linen
Lace strings, bairings or hairy strings
Mats
Mattresses
Mats and matting
Mohair yarn
Nets new or old
Paper

Packthread
Parachutes
Pelts
Feeling of best, chip, cane, straw, or horse hair
Quills
Leads
Sails and sail cloths
Sails, viz.—scares, and stiffens, boats and knibs, raw silk, thrown and or-ganize silk, waste silk, wrought silk
Skins, hides, and furs, and parts or pieces of skins, hides, and furs, whether un-

dressed, or in part or wholly tanned, tawed, or dressed
Sponges
Stuffs or any article made or mixed with straw
Stockings of all sorts
Thread, laces, velvets, whisks, wool whether raw or anywise wrought
Yarn of all sorts
And all other goods whatsoever, if they shall have arrived in or on packages consisting wholly or in part of any of the said articles.

QUARANTINE PORTS.—For Vessels liable to Quarantine not coming from any Place actually infected, nor having any Infection actually on Board.

Without clean Bills of Health.

All vessels, ships, or war, &c. as herein-after specified, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek* or *Milford Haven*.
Ships of war, transports, or other ships in the actual service of government, under the command of a commissioned officer in the service of his Majesty's navy, whithersoever bound, to perform quarantine at *the Mohrstrand, near Fortmouthe*, at a place marked out by yellow buoys.

With clean Bills of Health.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek* —
London, Rochester, Faversham, or any creeks or places be- longing to or within any of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Whitehoth Road*, between *Hull* and *Grimsby* :—

Leigh	Witch beach
Maldon	Boston
Cochester	Ilmaby
Harwich	Hull
Ipwich	Hillington
Rockbridge	Southborough
Aldborough	Whitby
Southwold	Stockton
Yarmouth	Sunderland
Hickney and Clay	Newcastle
Wells	Berwick
Lynn	

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Banister Ford* near *Liverpool*, or *Milford Haven* :—

Carlisle	Liverpool
Whitehaven	Chester
Lancaster	Bosomars
Fleeton	Isle of Man

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *the Mohrstrand, near Fortmouthe* :—

Nantwich	Arundel
Chichester	Portsmouth
Dover	Southampton
Rye	Cowes
Newhaven	
Shoeburgh	

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *St. Just's Pool*, within the mouth of the harbour of *Falmouth* :—

Polze	Poway
Weymouth	Palmouth
Lynn	Gweek
Exeter	Penryn
Dartmouth	Turo
Plymouth	Fenance
Loos	Scilly

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *King Road* and *Portshaw Pill* :—

Bridgewater	Cherbury
Milford	Carlisle
Bristol	Swansea

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Milford Haven* :—

St. Ives	Ilanelly
Padstow	Fembroke
Budeford	St. Austine
Barnstaple	Carlillon
Ilfracombe	Aberystwith

Or any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, in perform quarantine at *the Mohrstrand, near Fortmouthe*, or *St. Just's Pool*, within the mouth of the harbour of *Falmouth* :—

Jersey	Sark
Guernsey	Alderney

Or either of them, or any part of them, or either of them.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Inverkeithing Bay* :—

The eastern creeks of Scotland, comprehending the ports of Leith

Hurrostoness	Prestonpan
Alloa	Dundee
Dunbar	Perth
Rickaby	Aberdeen

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Holy Loch*, in the *Firth of Clyde* :—
The western coast of Scot- land, comprehending the ports of Glasgow
Glasgow
Greenock
Inver
Campbell Town
Oban

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Inverkeithing Bay* :—
The northern ports of Scot- land, comprehending the ports of Inverness
Zetland

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to per- form quarantine at *Holy Loch*, in the *Firth of Clyde* :—
The south-west ports of Scotland, comprehending the ports of Inverness and Kilmalcolm, or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

Preliminary Questions.

1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of the com- mander or master?
2. Are you the commander or master? Where does she be- long?
3. From whence do you come?
4. To what place are you bound?
5. At what ports have you touched since you left the port of your landing on your homeward voyage?
6. What vessels have you had intercourse or communication with on your passage, and from whence did they come?
7. Did the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper prevail in any degree at the place from whence you sailed on your homeward voyage, or at any of the places at which you have touched? If at any, say at which, and when. Are any persons on board your ship suffering under any infectious disease? or have any persons who have been ill of a disease of that nature on the homeward pas- sage? and if any, what number? And if any have died, or been ill of such disease, were their bedding and clothes destroyed.

[If the vessel shall have sailed from any port in Europe without the Straits, or on the continent of America.]

8. Have you on board any goods enumerated in this list [Handing up a list of articles enumerated.]
If you have, specify the same, and whether they are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West In- diana on the Atlantic Ocean, or of what other place? Have you any declaration to prove of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture?

[If the vessel comes from the Mediterranean, or from any other place resembling which there is any order in council in force concerning quarantine.]

9. Have you any, and what bill of health?

10. What number of officers, mariners, and passengers have you on board?
[And in cases of vessels coming from or having touched at any port or place on the continent of America, or the islands adjacent thereto, or coming from or having touched at any ports in the West Indies, the following questions are to be put, in addition to the foregoing questions.]

11. In the course of your voyage have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind? What was the nature of such sickness? and when did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? and have any of them died in the course of the voyage?
12. How long after sailing from your port of calling, or having touched at any port on the continent of America or the islands adjacent thereto, or any of the ports in the West Indies, was the first appearance of disease observed?
13. How had the persons attacked been employed before they came on board?
14. Had they been employed in loading or unloading the vessel before they left the port?
15. Had the place which they inhabited, before they sailed, the reputation of being healthy? or was it subject particularly in the fever incident to the country?
16. Had the fever been frequent in the place before the vessel sailed?
17. Had the persons who were ill on board your vessel sick nearly about the same time, or within a few days of each other? Or, did the disorder spread successively from one to another, and increase considerably? Or, did it abate gradually, and cease to multiply as the distance from the ports you sailed from or touched at as aforesaid increased?
18. What was the greatest number of persons ill at the most sickly period of your voyage?
19. What was the whole number of persons on board your vessel when you sailed?
20. What is the whole number of persons now ill on board your vessel?

21. Can you state what were the symptoms of illness with which your crew were first attacked; and what was the daily succession and change in them till their death?
22. Whether any and what medicines have been used? and what methods have been adopted to prevent its spreading among the crew?
23. Whether attention has been paid to cleanliness and ventilation on board your vessel?
24. When did you sail from the port or place from whence you took on board your outward cargo? and at what place did you touch before you arrived at the port or place where you took in your present cargo?
25. Did you carry any bill of health with you to the port or place where you took in the cargo you have now on board? From what place? Were the said bills of health clean, unclean, or suspected?

Quarantine Questions.

1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of her commander or master?
2. Are you the commander or master?
3. To what port or place does she belong?
4. When did you sail from the port or place from whence you took on board your outward cargo? and at what place did you touch before you arrived at the port or place where you took in your present cargo?
5. Did you carry any bill or bills of health with you to the port or place where you took in the cargo you have now on board? From what places? Were the said bills of health clean, unclean, or suspected?
6. From what port or place does she now come? When did you sail from such port or place? and at what place or places have you touched in the course of the voyage?
7. Have you any bill or bills of health on board? From what place or places? Are the same clean, unclean, or suspected? Produce them.

[If the vessel shall have sailed from any port or place in Europe without the Straits, or to the continent of America.]

8. Of what articles does your cargo consist? Have you on board any goods enumerated in this Act?
[Handing up a list of articles enumerated.]
If you have, specify the same, and whether they are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa, within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Indies, or in the Atlantic Ocean, or of what other place. Have you any declaration in proof of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture?
9. At what place or places was the cargo or any part thereof taken on board? In what day did you arrive at the place or places where you took in the whole, or any and what part of the cargo? And on what day did you sail from such place or places? And what part of your cargo was taken in at such place, and when?
10. Did the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper prevail in any degree at the place from whence you sailed, or at any of the places at which your cargo was taken on board, or at which you touched? If at any, say at which, and when.
11. Did you hear of any report, or are you aware of any suspicion having existed, at the time of your sailing, that the plague or any other infectious disease prevailed at the place from whence you sailed, or at any other place in the Mediterranean (or in America or the West Indies, as the case may be)?
12. What number of officers, mariners, passengers, or other persons have you on board? Describe the number of each. At what port did you take on board your passengers?
13. Were their residences at that place, or had they been embarked as passengers on board any other vessel from any other place? and from what place and at what time?
14. Do the said officers, mariners, passengers, and other persons consist of the same individuals as were on board at the port from which you sailed upon your homeward voyage? If any other persons have been taken on board, or if any of your officers, crew, or passengers came on board your vessel since you sailed from such port, or before your arrival at this place, or if any other alterations in that respect have taken place, specify the same, the causes and the time or times of such alterations.

15. What number of persons (if any) have died on board during the voyage outwards and homeward, or at any port at which you have touched? When, and in what part of the voyage did such person or persons die? Of what disease or distemper?
16. Have any of your officers, mariners, or other persons of your crew, who sailed with you on your outward voyage, died or left the vessel?
17. In the course of your voyage outwards or homeward, or at any port at which you have touched, have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind? What was the nature of such sickness? When did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? Are there any communications on board? If so, are all persons on board at present in good health?
18. Were any of those who died, or who have been sick in the course of the voyage, or any part at which you have touched, affected, or supposed to have been affected, by any infectious disease or distemper? Were the bedding and clothes of such diseased and sick persons destroyed? If so, when and in what manner were any of the persons immediately employed about the sick after their death? If so, of what disease? and in how many days after having been so employed?
19. At what precise times did such deaths happen? In how many days after being laid aboard did the sick die? What were the most obvious appearances of the disease?
20. Have you spoken to or otherwise had any communication with any vessels at sea, during the voyage? What were the names of such vessels? and to what country, port, or place did they belong? Were they sailing to or from the same port or place as yours? Were they coming, or at what ports or places had they touched on their voyage? and to what country, ports, or places were they bound? What was the nature of the communication held? What do you know respecting the state of health on board such vessels?
21. Have there been any letters, parcels, or other articles delivered out of or received into your vessel, from any vessel or coast met with on the voyage, or before or since your arrival at this place? And what were such letters, parcels, or articles? And where were the same delivered or received? and into or out of what vessel or vessels?
22. Have you any packages or parcels which you have taken charge of? If so, what are their contents? and when and where did you take them on board?
23. What pilots or other persons from the shores of the U. Kingdom, or from the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, Jersey, Guernsey, Man, or Men, have been on board your vessel, or have had any communication whatever with the ship's company, or any of the passengers, during the voyage homeward, or before or since your arrival at this place? If any such pilots or other persons have come on board, and have afterwards quitted your vessel, specify the names of such persons, and the time, manner, and circumstances of their so quitting your vessel.
24. Did you leave any British vessels at any of the ports you sailed from? If you did, mention their names and the names of their commanders.
25. Were such vessels loading? Were they near their departure? and whither were they bound?
26. Did you meet with any British vessels at any of the places you touched at? If you did, say when, where, and what were the names and destinations out of such vessels; and to what ports or places did they belong?
27. Do you know whether any foreign vessels loading at the port from which you sailed, were bound beyond the Straits of Gibraltar? And if so, what were they? and whither were they bound?
28. Do you know whether any person whatever employed in loading your vessel, or in bringing any articles into it, or having any communication on board thereof, was taken ill during such employment or communication? or whether, by the absence of such person or persons in the course of such employment, any suspicion was entertained of their having been ill? If so, of what disease?
29. Do you know whether or not your cargo, or any part thereof, had been long in warehouses before its being taken on board? If you do, say how long. Have you any knowledge of its being packed or handled on shore, or conveyed from shore, or stowed on board, by persons affected with the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper?

QUASSIA (Ger. *Quassienholz*; Fr. *Bois de quassia*; Sp. *Leno de quassia*), a beautiful tall tree (*Quassia amara*), growing in North and South America, and the West Indies. The wood is of a pale yellow colour, and inodorous; it, as well as the fruit and bark of the tree, has a place in the materia medica. Its taste is intensely bitter. It is said to have been sometimes used by the brewers in the preparation of beer, instead of hops; but the use of it for this purpose is prohibited, under severe penalties.—(See **ALE AND BEER**.) The price of quassia in hound varies from *ll. 4s. to ll. 6s.* a cwt. The duty is *8s. 17s. 6d.*; it is, of course, intended to be prohibitory; and is one of the few imposed for such a purpose, against which no good objection can be urged.

QUEBEC, the capital of Canada, and of the British possessions in North America, on the north-west bank of the river St. Lawrence, about 340 miles from its mouth, in lat. $46^{\circ} 48' 49''$ N., lon. $71^{\circ} 10' 45''$ W. Population, in 1842, 31,809.

Quebec is situated on a ridge, or promontory, formed by the St. Lawrence on the S. and W., and the river St. Charles on the E. The extremity of this headland, called Cape Diamond, is about 345 feet above the level of the water, and on it the citadel is built. The town extends from the citadel, principally in a north-east direction, down to the water; and is, from the difference of elevation, divided into the upper and lower towns. The fortifications, which are very strong, extend across the peninsula; the circuit within them being about 23 miles. From their situation, many of

the streets are uneven; they are also, for the most part, narrow; but they are either well paved or Macadamised. The greater number of the houses are built of stone, with shingle roofs. Some of the public buildings are elegant, and well adapted for their purposes. The harbour, or basin, lies between the town and the island of Orleans. It is safe and commodious; the water is about 28 fathoms deep, with a tide rising from 17 to 18 feet; and at springs from 23 to 25 ditto. Quebec was founded by the French in 1608. In 1629, it was taken by the English; but was restored in 1632. It was again taken by the English under General Wolfe, who fell in the engagement, in 1759; and was finally ceded to us by the treaty of Paris in 1763.

The rapid increase of population in, and of emigration to, Upper Canada has occasioned a proportional increase of intercourse between Quebec and Montreal, and the Canadian ports on Lakes Ontario and Erie, &c. The first steam boat that plied on the St. Lawrence was launched in 1812; but there are now a great number of steamers, some of them of large burden, employed in the conveyance of goods and passengers between Quebec and Montreal; and in the trade between Quebec and Halifax in Nova Scotia. And by means of the Rideau and Welland canals, an uninterrupted line of steam communication is formed between the Atlantic and Amherstburgh, one of the remote settlements of Upper Canada, — a distance of more than 1,500 miles; which we may soon expect to see extended to the head of lake Huron, and eventually to the western extremity of lake Superior, about 700 miles beyond Amherstburgh; giving to Quebec a command of internal navigation inferior only to that of New Orleans. The navigation at Quebec closes at the end of November or beginning of December, and opens in April. Below Quebec the river is seldom frozen over; but the masses of floating ice, kept in constant agitation by the flux and reflux of the tide, render navigation impracticable. The waters of the St. Lawrence are very pure; and in point of depth and magnitude it is one of the noblest rivers in the world. — (*Bouchette's British Dominions in America*, vol. i. p. 272.) Quebec is a free warehousing port.

Immigration. — The conveyance of emigrants to Quebec is a principal part of the trade with Canada, and is the only one, perhaps, that is not forced and factitious. The vast extent of this trade is evident from the following

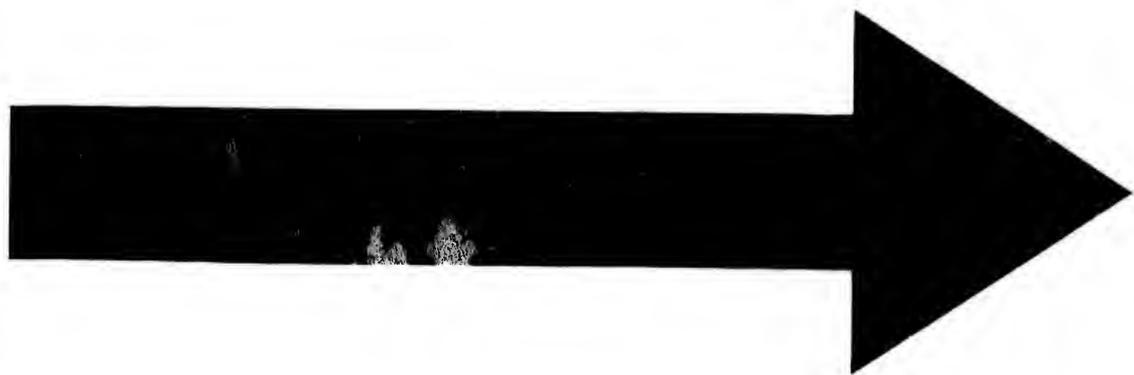
Account of the Number of Immigrants that have annually arrived at Quebec, since 1829, specifying the Countries whence they emigrated, and the Number of Immigrants from each. — (*Parl. Paper No. 109. Sess. 1843, p. 11.*)

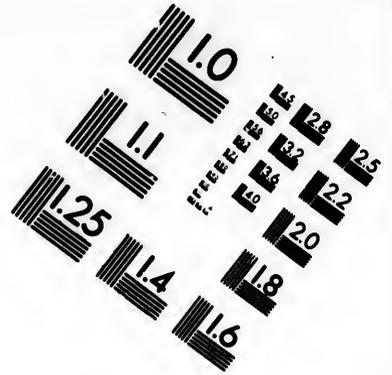
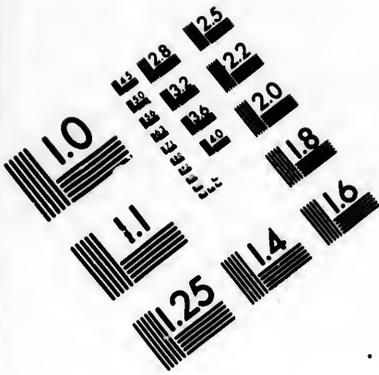
Places of Departure.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	Total.
England and Wales	5,568	6,799	10,345	17,481	5,198	6,799	5,087	12,188	3,580	990	1,586	4,567	5,970	12,191	96,324
Ireland	-	-	5,914	18,306	24,133	26,204	19,613	19,269	7,108	12,590	14,536	1,456	5,113	16,391	118,217
Scotland	-	-	2,643	3,400	5,356	2,500	4,106	4,291	2,127	3,224	1,208	567	485	1,144	22,434
New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and ports on the river St. Lawrence	-	193	451	424	648	345	339	225	275	274	273	255	239	810	4,518
Continental ports	-	-	-	-	15	-	-	485	-	-	-	-	-	-	500
Total	-	15,945	29,000	50,254	51,746	21,732	20,935	19,527	27,772	21,901	3,266	7,439	22,254	28,086	44,574

This immense mass of emigrants proceed principally to Upper Canada, whence large numbers are in the habit of re-emigrating to the U. States. A tax of 5s. currency was imposed in 1842 on all adult emigrants arriving in the ports of the colony, the produce of which is expended in affording assistance to the poorer descriptions of immigrants.

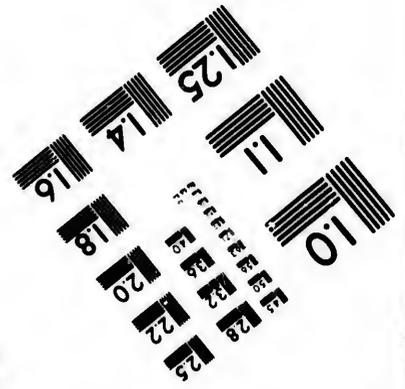
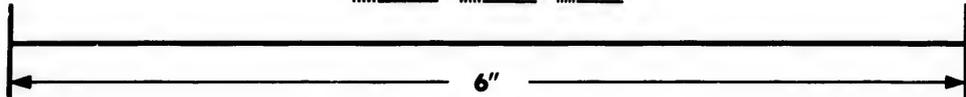
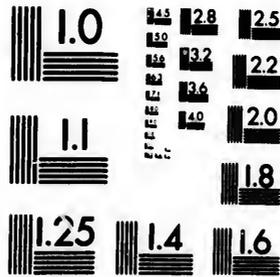
The average length of the voyages made by the ships with emigrants from the U. Kingdom to Quebec, in 1841, amounted to very near 45 days; and in 1842 to 46½ days. The shortest passage made in the two years was 24, and the longest 78 days.

Exports and Imports. — The trade with Canada is, as already seen, (see *anté*, p. 322.) in great part, a consequence of the high discriminating duties laid on the importation of timber and other products from the North of Europe. The influence of this system in forcing importation from Canada, is evident from the subjoined statement, which shows that of the total value of the exports from Canada in 1837, amounting to 908,702*l.*, timber made no less than 651,786*l.* though, had the duty in England on this timber been the same as on that brought from the Baltic, it is more than doubtful whether the export would have reached 200,000*l.* The only other articles of any importance exported from Canada, down to a very late period, have been potashes, furs, and fish. Within the last 9 or 4 years, however, a good deal of flour has been brought from Canada; and it is not improbable that its importation may be increased under the provisions of the late act. — (See *anté*, p. 398.)





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Account of the Quantities of Ashes, Wheat and Wheat Flour, and Fish, imported from the British North American Colonies into the U. Kingdom, and entered for Consumption, in each of the 15 Years ended with 1842.

Years.	Ashes, Peat and Pot.		Wheat.		Wheat Flour.		Fish.	
	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.	Imported.	Entered for Consumption.
1828	169,401	168,254	189,734	109,448	96,295	32,417	68,277	68,277
1829	178,928	179,156	88,817	161,663	104,784	37,640	68,277	68,277
1830	169,949	165,828	75,410	58,532	73,891	48,326	117,211	117,211
1831	84,937	84,937	44,907	42,288	40,580	44,771	107,889	107,889
1832	129,543	129,543	16,395	14,804	9,158	26,810	107,889	107,889
1833	141,539	141,536	-	17,754	16,923	14,488	107,889	107,889
1834	141,818	120,215	-	22,111	9,248	19,710	107,889	107,889
1835	129,011	129,011	-	7,635	39,838	43,866	107,889	107,889
1836	118,562	118,459	37	37	27,087	27,018	107,889	107,889
1837	98,911	98,405	8,192	4,703	47,978	86,889	107,889	107,889
1838	89,571	89,271	28,559	24,743	228,567	250,710	107,889	107,889
1842	116,304	116,304	23,275	37,874	818,029	261,288	107,889	107,889

We have already given (see *ante*, p. 338.) sundry statements as to the amount and value of the trade and navigation of Canada, and our other possessions in North America. The acts 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 59., regulating the colonial trade and the duties upon the different articles imported into Canada and the other colonies, are also given (*ante*, pp. 339—347.) But the following statements illustrate some of these points in detail, while others refer particularly to the trade, charges, &c. peculiar to Quebec and the St. Lawrence.

Statement showing the Coins chiefly in use in the British North American Colonies, with their Values in the respective Colonies, in Halifax Currency (Fractions omitted).

Coins.	Eastern (Lower) Canada.		Western (Upper) Canada.		Nova Scotia.		New Brunswick.		Newfoundland.		Prince Edward's Island.	
	£ s. d.	¢	£ s. d.	¢	£ s. d.	¢	£ s. d.	¢	£ s. d.	¢	£ s. d.	¢
British sovereign	1 0 0	100	1 0 0	100	1 0 0	100	1 0 0	100	1 0 0	100	1 0 0	100
British guinea	1 1 0	110	1 1 0	110	1 1 0	110	1 1 0	110	1 1 0	110	1 1 0	110
American eagle, coined before July 1. 1834	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210
Do, coined since	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210	2 10 0	210
Spanish milled dollar	3 14 6	3146	3 14 6	3146	3 14 6	3146	3 14 6	3146	3 14 6	3146	3 14 6	3146
British crown (half-crown in proportion)	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58
Shilling (expressed in proportion)	0 1 1	11	0 1 1	11	0 1 1	11	0 1 1	11	0 1 1	11	0 1 1	11
French crown	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58	0 5 8	58
French half-crown	0 2 9	29	0 2 9	29	0 2 9	29	0 2 9	29	0 2 9	29	0 2 9	29
American dollar	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50
Spanish milled dollar	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50
South American dollar	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50
Mexican dollar (coined in 1851, 1852, or 1853)	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50	0 5 0	50
Platagon	0 0 10	10	0 0 10	10	0 0 10	10	0 0 10	10	0 0 10	10	0 0 10	10
French six-franc piece	0 4 6	46	0 4 6	46	0 4 6	46	0 4 6	46	0 4 6	46	0 4 6	46

Account of the Quantities and Value of the various Articles of Merchandise exported from Lower Canada, in 1837.

Description of Goods.	Quantities.	Value in Sterling Money.		Description of Goods.	Quantities.	Value in Sterling Money.	
		£	s.			£	s.
Ashes, pot and pearl - cwts.	143,169	-	180,971	Live stock, horses - number	16,401	-	8,000
Saicon and hanna - lbs.	2,121	-	651	Oil, tallow and sperm-oil - gallons	16,401	-	2,797
Beef and pork, British and colonial - barrels	4,259	-	19,467	Spice, bread - "	1,000	-	1,000
Beer and ale - gallons	7,094	-	321	Tea - "	1,000	-	1,000
Bread and biscuits - barrels	249	-	573	Tobacco, unmanufactured - "	2,500	-	2,500
Butter - "	148	-	239	Vegetables of all sorts - value	-	-	80
Cheese - "	82	-	86	Wood and lumber, - oak timber - "	92,169	77,010	-
Corn, other than wheat - bushels	1,119	166	56	pine timber - "	92,169	77,010	-
wheat flour, colonial - "	7,794	18,179	-	elm - "	92,169	77,010	-
other sorts of meal, colonial - "	30	56	18,531	spruce, birch, &c. - "	92,169	77,010	-
Total value of corn and meal - "	4,953	5,880	-	oak, - "	92,169	77,010	-
Fish, cod, dry - quintals	4,028	548	-	deals and deal ends, bottom - "	92,169	77,010	-
herring - "	368	398	-	boards and planks - "	92,169	77,010	-
machery - "	436	1,430	-	shingles - "	92,169	77,010	-
other sorts - "	-	30	-	masts, yards, &c. - number	92,169	77,010	-
Total value of fish - "	-	6,149	-	lathwood - "	92,169	77,010	-
Fruit of all sorts - "	-	29,081	-	staves - number	92,169	77,010	-
Fern - "	-	205	-	other sorts - value	92,169	77,010	-
Hides and skins, - seal skins No. other sorts - "	2,800	205	-	Total value of wood - value	92,169	77,010	-
Iron, wrought - "	-	59	-	Manufactures articles - "	92,169	77,010	-
Total value of exports from the colony - "	-	206,709	-	Spice - "	92,169	77,010	-

Upper Currency. - There is no established government bank in the province; but there are several private chartered banks, of which the Quebec Bank is the principal. We subjoin a statement of the affairs of this institution.

General Statement of the Affairs of the Quebec Bank in the 31st May, 1843.

By.	£	s.	d.
To capital stock paid in	94,599	10	0
Amount of notes in circulation	81,269	8	0
Dividend pay able for June, 1843 - Contingent fund at credit	7,664	8	1

of profit and loss and exchange accounts	£	s.	d.
Less dividend reserved	2,846	8	8
Balance due to other banks	2,598	18	8
Balance due on exchange	6,706	18	8
Cash deposited in	11,110	8	8
Bearing interest	11,110	8	8
Not bearing interest	99,778	8	8
Total	119,110	10	11

Account of the Quantities and Value of the various Articles of Merchandise imported from the British North American Colonies into the U. Kingdom, and entered for Consumption, in each of the 15 Years ended with 1842.

From the British North American Colonies

From the United States

From the West Indies

From the Cape of Good Hope

From the East Indies

From the Mauritius

From the Mauritania

From the Senegal

From the Sierra Leone

From the Liberia

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From the East Indies

From the West Indies

By amount of current notes and gold and silver bullion	23,514 14 8		
Bank notes and checks of other banks	9,824 18 11		
Value of buildings and other real estate belonging to the corporation	38,139 11 4		
Balance due on exchange transactions in New York	5,496 10 11		
Provincial securities in debentures	1,636 14 1		
Balance due by other banks and amount of debts owing to the corporation, viz.:	3,850 9 0		
Discounted notes	955 18 1		
Mortgages and other securities	158,410 18 10		
	5,561 19 8		
		129,972 18 6	
		479,161 10 11	

Accounts kept in Halifax currency

Weights same as in England.

Measures — Standard wine gallon, liquid measure of the province. The Canada miter for all grain, &c. except where specially agreed upon to the contrary; and this measure is about 1/8th larger than the Winchester bushel. The English Winchester bushel, when specially agreed for. The Paris foot, for all measures of lands granted previous to the conquest, and all measures of length, except an agreement is made to the contrary. The English foot for measure of lands granted since the conquest, and where specially agreed upon. The standard English yard for measuring all cloths or stuffs, sold by the yard or measure of length. The English ell, when specially agreed upon.

Rate of Pilgrage for the River St. Lawrence.

From Bic to Quebec (158 miles distance) —	Per Foot.	
From the 2d to the 10th April, inclusive	0 1 0	
From the 1st May to the 18th Nov., inclusive	0 15 9	
From the 11th to the 18th November, inclusive	1 3 0	
From the 19th Nov. to the 1st March, inclusive	1 8 0	
From Quebec to Bic —		
From the 2d to the 30th April, inclusive	0 18 0	
From the 1st May to the 18th November, inclusive	0 15 9	
From the 11th to the 18th November, inclusive	1 0 9	
From the 19th Nov. to the 1st March, inclusive	1 8 9	
Rates of pilot water and passage on pilot money are payable at the Naval Office, by masters and commanders of vessels, viz. —		
For every foot of water for which masters or commanders of vessels are bound to pay their pilots, from Bic to Quebec, and from Quebec to Bic, &c. currency per foot —		

For vessels going to Three Rivers or Montreal, &c.
 Of 100 to 150 tons, inclusive - - - - - 1 currency.
 Of 150 to 200 tons, inclusive - - - - - 2 - - -
 Of 200 to 250 tons, inclusive - - - - - 3 - - -
 Of 250 tons and upwards - - - - - 4 - - -
 On settling with pilots, masters or commanders of vessels, or the consignees of such vessels, are to deduct 10c. in the pound for the amount of the same to be paid for pilorage, which will be enacted by the naval officer at clearing out; the same being funded by law, under the direction of the Trinity House, for the relief of distressed pilots, their widows and children.

Regulations for the Payment of Pilgrage above Bic to Quebec.
 At or above the anchorage of the Brandy Point, 2-3/4 of the present rate for a full pilorage.
 Above the point of St. Roch, 1-3/4 do.
 Above the Point aux Pins, on the Ile aux Grues, and below Patrick's Hole, 1-4th do.

At and above Patrick's Hole - - - - - 1 1/4
 For shifting a vessel from one wharf to another, between Brabant's wharf and Point a Carca or from or to the stream, from or to any of the above wharfs
 For shifting a vessel from the stream, or from either of the above wharfs to St. Patrick's Hole, or to the basin of Montmorency, or to the ballast-ground, the basin of the Chaudiere, Wood's Cove, and as far as the River Cap Rouge - - - - - 1 3/4

Rates above the Harbour of Quebec.

From Quebec to Port Neuf, 41-currency.	For vessels of regular measurement not exceeding 300 tons	Port Quebec, 2/10c. currency.
- 6c.	If above 300 and not exceeding 350 tons	- 3s. 10c.
- 6c.	If above 350 tons	- 4s. 6c.
To Three Rivers or above Port Neuf, 41-currency.	For vessels not exceeding 300 tons	From Three Rivers and above Port Neuf, 41-currency.
- 7c.	If above 300 tons and not exceeding 350 tons	- 4s. 10c.
- 8c.	If above 350 tons	- 5s. 10c.
To Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 11-currency.	For vessels not exceeding 300 tons	From Montreal and above Three Rivers, 7s. 10c. currency.
- 13c.	If above 300 tons and not exceeding 350 tons	- 8s. 10c.
- 15c.	If above 350 tons	- 10s. 12c.
	Pilots are at liberty to leave vessels 48 hours after they arrive at the place of their destination.	Quebec Almanac for 1841.

Account of the Quantities and Value of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to the British North American Colonies during each of the Five Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantity.	Declared Value.								
Apparel, cloths, and haberdashery &c.	-	175,700	-	156,555	-	260,846	-	230,151	-	295,975
Raw and copper manufactures &c.	3,723	19,398	5,801	29,678	6,651	33,509	6,128	30,957	5,478	29,957
Codage - - - - -	29,009	80,039	35,678	68,313	45,939	97,337	24,080	103,520	99,149	76,974
Other manufactures entered by the yard	14,270,749	383,393	14,935,496	371,336	19,348,371	686,405	54,139,691	650,927	25,416,390	581,924
History, lace, and small wares &c.	-	39,068	-	31,640	-	53,748	-	69,894	-	60,985
Trix and yarns - - - - -	860,738	14,507	369,590	14,241	855,427	21,066	604,470	15,518	464,888	17,798
Hardware of all sorts - pieces	3,469,988	37,091	8,446,631	93,773	1,637,006	36,835	5,978,458	44,725	4,076,014	41,682
Iron entered by weight - cwt.	30,359	831,55	17,907	39,367	16,858	38,361	34,944	41,028	37,078	49,851
Hardware and cutlery - - -	15,190	106,382	16,497	75,794	94,000	144,103	31,636	151,898	36,726	153,508
Flax, beaver and felt - dozen	4,975	14,267	3,812	13,316	4,468	14,031	6,860	16,590	4,404	14,631
Iron and steel, wrought and cast. tons	11,493	156,343	13,139	183,491	19,241	249,431	25,007	328,800	25,663	325,640
Iron, wrought and cast. lbs.	450,833	86,859	336,918	44,007	553,169	64,661	587,741	71,419	649,199	79,880
Iron manufactures entered by the yard	3,367,428	88,017	8,640,983	95,476	5,844,104	125,518	5,860,578	143,488	5,296,294	199,758
Wool manufactures - - - yards	-	76,998	-	74,561	-	136,750	-	123,890	-	93,162
Wool and cordage - lbs.	3,408,091	39,931	3,476,986	58,773	4,036,818	77,861	5,948,700	67,991	5,844,077	54,843
Woolenry of all sorts - - -	-	27,453	-	27,453	-	40,708	-	46,001	-	46,624
Wool, refined - - - - -	13,603	35,863	24,507	47,732	36,343	80,104	30,127	66,248	51,768	67,781
Woolen manufactures entered by the piece	86,400	297,943	86,978	284,103	121,926	379,159	119,284	333,530	133,206	260,263
Wool by the yard - yards	874,768	64,544	829,680	84,179	1,119,037	61,830	1,016,030	73,071	1,335,989	116,265
Woolenry of all sorts - lbs.	-	51,546	-	51,546	-	35,500	-	35,519	-	45,485
Woolenry and small wares &c. at other articles - - - - -	-	546,437	-	813,525	-	95,428	-	412,514	-	384,100
Totals	-	9,141,033	-	1,993,457	-	9,047,671	-	9,247,913	-	9,247,061

Total value of Exports to British North American Colonies in 1841, 42,533,923.

MONTREAL, the second town of Canada, is situated on the south side of an island of the same name. In the St. Lawrence, about 180 miles above Quebec. In lat. 45° 31' N., lon. 73° 25' W. Population, in 1842, 40,308, being very considerably greater than that of Quebec, or of any other town in British America. The harbour is not large, but it is safe and commodious; the facilities for navigation afforded by the noble river on which it is situated being such, that vessels of 600 tons burden may ascend thence without difficulty. The North American fur trade principally centres in Montreal, which also enjoys the principal share of the commerce between Canada and the U. States. It is increasing faster than Quebec, or than any city in British America. Imports and exports included in those of Quebec.

QUERCITRON BARK, the bark of a species of oak growing in many parts of North America. It is used in dyeing yellow colours. — (See BARK.)

QUILLS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Posen, Federkiel*; It. *Penna da scrivere*; Rus. *Stiroki*; Sp. *Canones para escribir*), the hard and strong feather of the wings of geese,

ostriches, swans, turkeys, crows, &c. used in writing. They are classified according to the order in which they are fixed in the wing; the second and third quills being the best. Crow quills are chiefly used for drawing. The goodness of quills is judged partly by the size of the barrels, but more by the weight; hence the denomination of quills of 14, 15, &c. loths per mille, each mille consisting of 1,200 quills. The duty on goose quills, which was then 2s. 6d. per 1,000, produced, in 1840, 2,753*l.*, showing that 22,024,000 quills had been entered for home consumption in that year. In 1842, the duty was reduced to 6d. per 1,000. Quills are principally imported from Riga and other ports on the Baltic; but those imported by the Hudson's Bay Company and sold at their sales are superior to all others. We subjoin an

Account of the Prices of the various Descriptions of Quills in the London Markets in January, 1844.

	£	s.	d.	per	1,000
Undressed goose quills, imported from the Baltic and assorted into lots	0	6	0	to 3	0 per mille.
Swan quills, imported from the Baltic and assorted into lots	0	5	0	to 1	0 per 100.
Goose quills, mixed, imported by the Hudson's Bay Company					
					and sold at their annual sale
					0 10 0 to 5 0 0 per mille.
					8 0 0 —; 0 0 —
					0 0 6 —; 0 1 0 per lb.
					0 5 0 —; 0 13 0 per mille.
					0 4 0 —; 0 7 0 —
					0 4 0 —; 0 7 0 —
					0 2 6 —; 0 4 0 —

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RAGS (Du. *Lumpen, Vadden*; Fr. *Chiffes, Chiffons, Drapeaux, Drilles*; Ger. *Lumpen*; It. *Stracci, Strazze*; Rus. *Treppe*; Sp. *Tropos, Harapos*), shreds or fragments of worn linen, woollen, or cotton cloth. Though commonly held in little estimation, rags are of great importance in the arts, being used for various purposes, but especially in the manufacture of paper, most of which is entirely prepared from them. As the mode in which British rags are collected must be well known to every one, the following statements apply only to the trade in foreign rags.

Woollen Rags. — Woollen and linen rags are imported in considerable quantities from the continent of Europe, and from Sicily. The woollen rags are chiefly used for manure, especially in the culture of hops; but rags of loose texture, and not too much worn or decayed, are unravelled and mixed up with fresh wool in the making of yarn; a practice more favourable to the cheapness than to the strength and durability of the fabrics into which this old wool is introduced. Woollen rags are also used for making flocks or stuffing for beds, &c.: this process is performed chiefly by the aid of the same kind of engines that prepare pulp for paper; these wash the rags thoroughly, at the same time that they grind and tear them out into separate threads and fibres. The chief importation of woollen rags is from Hamburg and Bremen; and there are some got from Rostock, but the quantity is trifling. The total average importation may be taken at 1,100 tons, and the price ranges from 5*l.* to 6*l.* per ton, duty (6*d.*) and freight paid on such as are used for manure; and from 10*l.* to 13*l.* for coloured woollens of loose texture, and 15*l.* to 18*l.* for white of the same description.

Linen Rags are principally imported from Rostock, Bremen, Hamburg, Leghorn, Ancona, Messina, Palermo, and Trieste. Their export from Holland, Belgium, France, Spain, and Portugal, is strictly prohibited. The imports usually amount to about 10,000 tons; worth, at an average, from 20*l.* to 21*l.* per ton, duty (6*d.*) and freight included. Exclusive of the very large quantity collected at home, all the rags imported were, until very recently, employed in the manufacture of paper; but the Americans, who have for some years been large importers from the Mediterranean and Hamburg, occasionally come into the London market, and purchase large quantities: a circumstance sufficiently indicative of the languid state of the paper manufacture in this country. — (See PARZA.)

The imported rags are coarser and inferior in appearance to the English; but, being almost exclusively linen, they are stronger, and bear a price disproportioned to the apparent difference in quality: this disproportion has been materially augmented since the introduction of the process of boiling the rags in ley, and afterwards bleaching them with chlorine, has rendered foreign rags fit for making fine paper, and indeed, in some respects, preferable for that purpose, by their affording greater strength of texture combined with equal whiteness of colour.

There is considerable variety in the appearance of rags from different ports; but, in general, those from the north of Europe are darker and stronger than those from the Mediterranean ports. The latter are chiefly the remains of outer garments, and have become whitened by exposure to the sun and air; but since the improvements in bleaching, this does not enhance their value in the British market. The rags shipped from Trieste are chiefly collected in Hungary. It is only within these few years that we have brought rags from this port, which now furnishes us with considerable supplies. Most part of the rags collected in the Tuscan states, to the extent of 10,000 or 12,000 bags a year, goes to America.

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Freights are, at an average, about — Hamburg and Bremen, linen 15s. per ton, woollen, 20s. 1 Rostock, 20s. 1 Ancona and Leghorn, 25s. to 30s. 1 Trieste and Sicily, 25s. to 30s. Linen rags are almost all selected and assorted previously to their shipment from the foreign port. Their distinguishing marks and prices per cwt. in the London market, January, 1844, were as follows: viz.

Rostock.	Bremen.	Hamburg.	Trieste.	Leghorn.
S P F F - 35s.	N P F F - 36s.	S P F F, 24s. to 25s.	S P F F, 25s.	Finos, 12s. to 21s.
S P F - 35s.	S P F F - 35s. 6d.	S P F F - 31s. to 31s. 6d.	S P F F - 20s. to 25s. 6d.	Secomils, 12s. to 15s.
P F - 32s.	P F F - 31s.	P F F - 18s. to 19s.	S P F F - 17s. to 21s.	Thrifas, 15s. to 14s. 6d.
P X - 15s. to 16s. 6d.	P X - 15s.	P X - 12s. 6d. to 15s.	S P F F - 15s. to 17s. 6d.	Sicily, 16s. to 17s.

RAIL-ROAD, TRAM or WAGGON ROAD, a species of road having tracks or ways formed of iron, stone, or other solid material, on which the wheels of the carriages passing along it run. The object in constructing such roads is, by diminishing the friction, to make a less amount of power adequate either to impel a carriage with a greater velocity, or to urge forward a greater load.

Construction of Rail-roads.—The friction on a perfectly level rail-road, properly constructed, is estimated to amount to from $\frac{1}{11}$ th to $\frac{1}{4}$ th only of the friction on an ordinary level road; so that, supposing the same force to be applied in both cases, it would move a weight from 10 to 7 times as great on the former as on the latter. But if there be a very moderate ascent, such as 1 foot in 50, which in an ordinary road would hardly be perceived, a great increase of power on the rail-road is required to overcome the resistance that is thus occasioned. The reason is, that the ordinary load on a level rail-road is about seven times as great as on a common turnpike road; so that when the force of gravity is brought into operation by an ascending plane, its opposing power, being *proportioned to the load*, is 7 times as great as on a common road. Hence the vast importance of having rail-roads either level or as nearly so as possible.

It is also of great importance that rail-roads should be straight, or, at least, free from any abrupt curves. Carriages being kept on the road by *flanges* on the wheels, it is obvious, that where the curves are quick, the friction on the sides of the rails, and consequent retardation, must be very great. In the Manchester and Liverpool rail-road, the curves form segments of a circle which, if extended, would embrace a circumference of 15 miles.

Iron rail-roads, the kind now generally used, are of 2 descriptions. The *flat rail*, or *tram road*, consists of cast-iron plates about 3 feet long, 4 inches broad, and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or 1 inch thick, with a flaunch, or turned up edge, on the inside, to guide the wheels of the carriage. The plates rest at each end on *sleepers* of stone or wood, sunk into the earth, and they are joined to each other so as to form a continuous horizontal pathway. They are, of course, double; and the distance between the opposite rails is from 3 to 4 feet, according to the breadth of the carriage or waggon to be employed. The *edge rail*, which is found to be superior to the tram rail, is made either of wrought or cast iron; if the latter be used, the rails are about 3 feet long, 3 or 4 inches broad, and from 1 to 2 inches thick, being joined at the ends by cast metal sockets attached to the sleepers. The upper edge of the rail is generally made with a convex surface, to which the wheel of the carriage is attached by a groove made somewhat wider. When wrought iron is used, which is in many respects preferable, the bars are made of a smaller size, of a wedge shape, and from 12 to 18 feet long; but they are supported by sleepers, at the distance of every 3 feet. In the Liverpool railroad the bars are 15 feet long, and weigh 95 lbs. per lineal yard. The waggons in common use run upon 4 wheels of from 2 to 3 feet in diameter. Rail-roads are either made double, 1 for going and 1 for returning; or they are made with *slidings*, where the carriages may pass each other.—(See the able and original *Essays on Rail-roads*, by Charles Muclaren, Esq., in the *Scotman* for 1824; see also Mr. Booth's Pamphlet on the *Liverpool and Manchester Rail-road*; the articles on *Railways*, in the *Encyc. Britannica*, the *Fansy Cyclopaedia*, &c.)

Speed of Carriages on Rail-roads, &c.—The effect of rail-roads in diminishing friction is familiar to every one; and they have long been used in various places of this and other countries, particularly in the vicinity of mines, for facilitating the transport of heavy loads. But it is only since the application of locomotive engines as a moving power, that they began powerfully to attract the public attention, and that their value has been fully appreciated. These engines were first brought into use on the Darlington and Stockton rail-road, opened on the 27th of December, 1825; but it was not till the opening of the rail-way between Manchester and Liverpool that the vast importance of this novel means of intercourse was fully perceived. This splendid work, though now far surpassed in magnitude by other rail-roads, cost nearly a million sterling. It has the advantage of being nearly level; for, with the exception of a short distance at Rainhill, where it is inclined at the rate of 1 foot in 96, there is no greater inclination than in the ratio of 1 foot in 880. The length of the railway is about 31 miles; and it was usual

from its opening to perform this journey in handsome carriages attached to the locomotive engines, in 1½ hours, or less! So far, indeed, as respects the facility of passing from the one to the other, this railway has brought Manchester and Liverpool as near to each other as the western part of London is to the eastern part!

The opening of this railway having more than verified the most sanguine anticipations as to the success of such undertakings, and gone far, in fact, to strike time and space out of the calculations of the traveller, gave an extraordinary stimulus to similar undertakings in all parts of the country; and, in no long period, there were hardly any two considerable places in Great Britain, how distant soever, which it was not proposed to connect by railways. An immense number of companies were formed, and a very large amount of capital subscribed, for carrying out these undertakings; and though, as was to be anticipated, not a few of them appear to have been commenced without due consideration, and hold out very indifferent prospects to the subscribers, there can be no doubt that the country has profited very largely by the railway system, the facility of intercourse having been prodigiously extended, at the same time that the greater number of the principal lines of road have proved, in a pecuniary point of view, exceedingly beneficial to the parties engaged in them.

Among the greater lines of railway now (1843) existing, may be specified that from London to Manchester and Liverpool, which has been already extended to Lancaster, and will probably, at no distant period, be farther prolonged to Glasgow; but, taking it as it now stands, it is one of the greatest public works ever executed in any country, and is a striking result of the wealth, science, and civilisation of modern times. The railway from London to Bath and Bristol is also a magnificent work; and is, in some respects, superior to any other in the kingdom. Among the other lending railways may be specified those from London to Southampton, Brighton, and Dover; the Eastern Counties, Midland, North Midland, and North of England railways; and those from Carlisle to Newcastle, from Edinburgh to Glasgow and Ayr, with a host of others.

Railway Legislation.—But, notwithstanding the vast advantages which the opening of so many new and improved lines of communication have conferred on the country, we cannot help thinking that these advantages might have been much greater, and that, in the instance of railway legislation, the public interests have been overlooked to a degree that is not very excusable. It is, we admit, no easy matter to decide how far the interference of government should be carried in matters of this sort. But, at all events, this much is obvious, that when parliament is called upon to pass an act authorising private parties to execute a railway or other public work, it is bound to provide, in as far as practicable, that the public interests shall not be prejudiced by such act, and that it should be framed so that it should not, either when passed, or at any future period, stand in the way of the public advantage. We believe, however, that a little consideration will serve to satisfy most persons that this important principle has, in the case of railways, and indeed of most descriptions of public works, been, in this country, all but wholly neglected.

The practice is for a railway act to authorise the company in whose favour it is granted, to appropriate a certain line of road, and to charge certain specified rates of toll on the passengers and goods to be conveyed by such road, not for 15, 20, or even 50 years, but *in all time to come!* Now, as it appears to us, this is a singularly injudicious arrangement on the part of the public. There is, between any two or more places that may be named, a certain railway line that is preferable to any other that can be pointed out. The probability is that this line will in all cases be the first to be selected; and the act that gives it up to a company confers on the latter a virtual and substantial monopoly. The rates of charge imposed by the act are calculated to remunerate the projectors, supposing every thing to remain on its present footing. But the probability is that manufactures and population, in the places communicating by most lines of railway, will continue to increase in time to come, as they have done in time past; and it is all but certain that great improvements will be effected in the construction of roads and engines. Whatever, therefore, may be the chances of success at the outset, the fair presumption is, that most great lines of road will in the end be exceedingly productive. But, if we continue to abide by the present system, the public will be effectually excluded from all participation in these prospective advantages; and a few private associations will be able to make enormous profits, by monopolising improvements, and keeping up the expense of transit at an exorbitantly high level. It is idle to trust to competition to remedy a grievance of this sort. There may only be one practicable line of railway between two places; and if so, no other can, of course, come into competition with it. But though this were not the case, a company in possession of the best line might, if an opposition were threatened, reduce its rates till the opposition was defeated, and then raise them to the old level. Supposing, however, that a second road is made, its managers would most likely come to an understanding with the first,

so that the tolls, instead of being reduced by the instrumentality of the new road, may be raised; and were it otherwise, the question is, was the second road really necessary? Could not the first road have sufficed for the whole traffic to be carried on by both lines? If this be the case, it is clear the second road has been merely resorted to as a device for reducing the tolls charged on the first; as a means, in fact, for doing that, by an outlay of some hundreds of thousands, or, it may be, millions of pounds, which might have been quite as effectually done by limiting the duration of the act authorising the first road, or by inserting a clause in it providing for the periodical revision of the tolls.

We are clear, indeed, that no act, authorising a private association to construct a railway or canal, to lay down gas pipes, to convey water into a town, or for any such purpose, should ever be passed without reserving to parliament power periodically to revise the tolls granted under it. Such revision would secure to the public a participation in future improvements, not in the contemplation of the parties when the project was entered upon; and it would do this without in any degree clogging the spirit of enterprise. Undertakings of this sort are not engaged in because there is a vague expectation, or even a considerable probability, of their yielding 20 or 30 per cent. profit some 30 or 40 years hence; but because it is believed that they will immediately, or in the course of a few years, yield a reasonable profit; that is, a return of 8, 10, or 12 per cent. The chances of realising more than this at the distance of 20 or 25 years are rarely taken into account, and are worth very little indeed. This, however, is all that would be taken away by the revision in question; and, while a reservation of this sort would not stand in the way of any legitimate enterprise, the history of several of our existing companies shows that it may come to be of essential service to the public. Had this principle been formerly acted upon in the formation of companies for the execution of public works, the charges on some of the principal lines of canal might, long since, have been reduced to less than half their present amount; and the water brought into the city of London by the New River Company might have been sold for less than one fourth part of what it now costs; and so in a vast number of cases.

It has been objected to the proposal now made, that the reserving to the public of power to revise the charges on railways, and other public works, would be of no use, inasmuch as the parties would contrive so to swell their charges as to make their revenue appear not more than a fair return on their outlay. And such, most probably, would be the case, were the statements of the parties to be taken without examination. But who ever proposed that this should be done? If charges are to be revised, government must be authorised to appoint parties to inquire carefully into the management of all concerns with which it is proposed to interfere: and it would be the duty of such parties to proscribe every useless expense; and to ascertain how the railway could be carried on, supposing it were wrought under a system of open competition, and at the least expense, and to frame their report accordingly.

We do not even know that it is now too late to interfere with existing railways, in some such way as has been here suggested. Suppose it were enacted that it should be lawful for government to revise the rates of charge, and to lay down new regulations for the government of all railways, at 25 or 30 years hence, very little injury would be done to the existing interests of individuals, at the same time that provision would be made for securing those of the public. The fact that the rates of charge on the Birmingham and Great Western railways were to be revised, and most probably reduced, in 1869 or 1874, would have little or no influence over the present value of shares in these concerns; and such being the case, the proposed reduction could entail no real injury on the railway proprietors, inasmuch as those who may not choose to be subject to future revision may withdraw at present from the concerns, with little or no loss.

The well-informed author of an elaborate pamphlet on "Railway Reform," proposes that government should buy up all the railways at the prices of the day, take them into its own charge, and subject them to a uniform and economical system of administration. But, were it really desirable, which is by no means clear, it is needless to say there is not the smallest prospect of any such sweeping change being ever effected in our railway system. And it would be most unwise, by wasting our energies in attempting to bring about unattainable reforms, to miss the good that may be within our reach.

Regulations for the Prevention of Accidents.— Considering the great extent of railways in this country, and the vast number of passengers conveyed by them, the fewness of accidents is most remarkable. Indeed their greater security appears to be nowise inferior to their greater speed. Still, however, this is a matter in which as little as possible should be left to accident or individual discretion; and considering the immense number of persons frequently conveyed by a single train, and the tremendous consequences that might ensue from a collision or other accident, we do think that a carefully drawn up code of regulations should be enacted with a view to secure the

RAIL-ROADS.

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Account of the Length in Miles, Cost, present Value, Revenue, Expenditure, &c. of some of the principal British Railways in 1843.

Railways.	Miles in Length.	Cost per Mile.	Total Cost.	Value.	Receipts for 1843.	Expenditure.	Net Profit.	Paid per Cent. per Annum.	£ s. d.
London and Birmingham	112½	£ 27,200	3,052,000	11,450,000	806,000	379,800	426,200	11 2 0	
Great Western	118½	25,250	2,992,000	8,205,000	870,000	377,100	492,900	7 0 0	
South Western	203	37,750	7,645,000	2,560,000	1,100,000	1,100,000	0 0 0	6 10 0	
Grand Junction	83½	32,740	2,716,000	4,840,000	415,000	169,800	245,200	10 0 0	
Chester and Crewe	16½	49,200	811,800	8,649,000	327,000	110,000	217,000	10 0 0	
Liverpool and Manchester	30	64,370	1,931,100	2,016,000	106,500	77,400	29,100	4 0 0	
London and Brighton	40½	59,900	2,426,050	2,434,000	228,000	101,400	126,600	5 10 0	
Manchester and Leeds	51	45,780	2,336,580	2,550,000	116,000	90,900	25,100	3 6 0	
North Midland	57	83,790	4,773,210	1,885,000	135,500	75,000	60,500	3 0 0	
Midland Counties	48	54,050	2,595,400	1,498,000	95,700	30,800	64,900	3 0 0	
Edinburgh and Glasgow	40	24,250	970,000	771,000	66,100	25,400	40,700	3 0 0	
Glasgow and Ayr	28	37,200	1,041,600	610,000	45,800	11,400	34,400	6 10 0	
North Union	35	28,400	989,800	275,000	67,000	37,000	30,000	3 0 0	
Stockton and Darlington	15	32,000	480,000	590,000	67,000	39,000	28,000	11 0 0	
Stockton and Hartlepool	17	24,110	409,870	1,110,000	25,000	29,700	55,300	15 0 0	
York and North Midland	60½	17,490	1,059,500	375,000	77,600	30,400	47,200	4 6 0	
Newcastle and Carlisle	6	56,860	341,316	354,000	44,400	30,800	13,600	8 0 0	
Dublin and Kingstown	23	18,900	433,000	385,000	31,000	10,900	20,100	4 0 0	
Ulster	35	12,400	434,000	410,000	40,600	16,300	24,300	5 0 0	
Birmingham Junction	14½	37,490	541,605	375,000	30,600	15,800	14,800	4 0 0	
Chester and Birkenhead	14	37,490	524,860	330,000	30,500	8,400	22,100	4 0 0	
Newcastle and North Shields	16	8,600	137,600	144,000	18,100	4,800	13,300	4 0 0	
Durdee and Arbroath	7½	8,470	63,525	85,000	16,700	10,900	5,800	6 0 0	
Sheffield and Rotherham	7	8,470	59,290	85,000	16,700	10,900	5,800	6 0 0	
Total	1,014		37,378,600	48,848,000	5,901,600	1,989,400	3,912,200	A. 5. 8	

A duty is paid to government, by the railway companies, of 5 per cent. of all the sums received by them for the conveyance of passengers. In 1843 this duty produced about 168,000*l.*; but about 140,000*l.* was repaid by government to the different railway companies for the conveyance of the mails. When the post-office and a railway company differ as to the sum to be paid to the latter for conveying the mail, the matter is referred to arbitration.

Continental Railways. — The railway system has made great progress on the Continent and in the U. States. Paris and Rouen have already been united by a railway, which is in the course of being extended to Havre. A railway has also been constructed from Paris to Orleans; and one is now being made from Paris to Lyons, which will most probably be prolonged to Marseilles. This last will be of peculiar importance to this country, from the influence it will have in facilitating the correspondence with the East. A large amount of English capital has been invested in the French railways; and some of them have been constructed by English engineers.

Belgium, as everybody knows, has numerous railways; and they have already been extended to a degree that one could hardly have anticipated. We subjoin a return taken from the *Algemeine Zeitung*, being

An Account of the various Railways open in Germany in September 1843, specifying their Length (in English Miles), the Number of Passengers conveyed along them to that Month, and in the Nine Months ending therewith.

Name.	Length.	Passengers in Sept.	Passengers in first 9 Months of 1843.	Name.	Length.	Passengers in Sept.	Passengers in first 9 Months of 1843.
Linz to Budweis (just opd.)	77½	2,195	15,104	Berlin to Frankfurt	49½	23,965	169,119
Linz to (Gmunden)	42½	16,094	105,720	Breslau to Oppeln	49½	24,170	181,544
Ferdinand's North Road	187½	68,705	609,112	Leipzig to Altenburg	24	23,068	180,878
Vienna to Glognitz	46	166,543	1,092,353	Leipzig to Dresden	47	47,335	318,513
Munich to Augsburg	37½	35,370	139,285	Magdeburg to Leipzig	57½	75,501	478,004
Nurnberg to Furth	39	42,761	193,709	Magdeburg to Halberstadt	33½	19,565	69,549
Frankfurt to Wiesbaden	36	109,502	614,348	Hannover to Oechersleben	59	37,192	235,864
Carlsruhe to Mannheim	49	90,128	608,947	Dusseldorf to Elberfeld	16	35,513	218,403
Hamburg to Bergedorf	10	25,136	163,109	Cologne to Aix la Chapelle	42	25,527	117,845
Berlin to Anhalt	23½	37,430	282,146	Total	1,083		
Hamburg to Potsdam	16	45,945	339,893				
Berlin to Stettin	62	49,548	170,941				

The number of passengers in September 1843 was 966,535. In September 1842 it was 761,866. The receipts in September 1843 were 1,538,934 *l.* or 125,000*l.* In September 1842 they were 90,000*l.* Other railways are now, also, in the course of being constructed in various parts of Germany, some of which are of great length and importance.

In a late number of the *Scotsman* some peculiarities of the German railways are noticed as follows: —

1st. A great number of them have been undertaken either directly at the expense of the state, or upon security being given by the state for 3 per cent. interest on the capital invested. To prevent jobbing in shares, a law has been enacted in most German states, that 10 per cent. of the sum must be paid forthwith after subscribing.

2d. German railways would appear to pay better than English ones. It is said that two yield 15 per cent. clear profit; others from 7 to 10 per cent.; and none has begun with less than 4 per cent. dividend. This, we presume, must be owing to the greater facility with which the railways have been constructed, and the all but total want of any other means of expeditious travelling.

The railways of the U. States are exceedingly numerous, and some of them are of

great length. But, speaking generally, they are not so substantially executed, and have not been nearly so expensive, as those of this country. Many of them consist only of a single pair of rails, with double pairs at certain intervals to admit of the trains passing.

RAISINS (*Fr. Raisins secs, ou passés; Ger. Rosinen; It. Uve passè; Por. Passas; Rus. Isuna; Sp. Pasas*), the dried fruit of the vine. They are produced from various species of vines; deriving their names partly from the place where they grow, as Smyrnas, Valencias, &c.; and partly from the species of grape of which they are made, as muscates, bloomns, sultanas, &c. Their quality appears, however, to depend more on the method of their cure than on any thing else. The finest raisins are cured in two methods; — either by cutting the stalk of the bunches half through, when the grapes are nearly ripe, and leaving them suspended on the vine till the watery part be evaporated, and the sun dries and candies them; or by gathering the grapes when they are fully ripe, and dipping them in a ley made of the ashes of the burnt tendrils; after which they are exposed to the sun to dry. Those cured in the first way are most esteemed, and are denominated raisins of the sun. The inferior sorts are very often dried in ovens. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Raisins are imported in casks, barrels, boxes, and jars. The finest come in jars and $\frac{1}{2}$ boxes weighing about 25 lbs. Some of the inferior sorts are brought to us in mats.

Malaga raisins are in the highest estimation. The muscates from Malaga fetch fully a third more than any other description of raisins. The Smyrna black is the cheapest variety, and may average from 27s. to 30s. a cwt., duty included; muscates vary from 35s. to 60s., duty included. But the price depends much on the season, and the year. — (*See MALAGA.*)

The duty on raisins, which formerly amounted to 20s. a cwt. on the inferior sorts, and to 42s. 6d. on the finest, was reduced in 1834 to 15s. a cwt. on all classes. This reduction has occasioned a very considerable increase of consumption; but the truth is, that the duty is still quite exorbitant, being no less than 100 per cent. *ad valorem* (and sometimes more) on the price of most descriptions. Raisins are a luxury that can at present be enjoyed only by the richer classes. But were the duty reduced, as it should be, to 5s. a cwt. on the cheapest sorts, and 10s. on the dearest, we are well assured that they would be very largely consumed by the middle and even lower classes. Nothing but the magnitude of the duties prevents them from becoming of very considerable importance as an article of food; and it is really quite monstrous, that the public should be debarred from the use of a desirable article, on the stupid pretence of its being necessary, in order to keep up the revenue, that it should be loaded with an oppressive duty. We admit the importance of keeping up the revenue; but so far from exorbitant duties having such an effect, they contribute more than any thing else to its reduction. They invariably limit the consumption of the articles on which they are laid to the very richest classes, or cause them to be clandestinely supplied, or force recourse to other articles; reducing the revenue as well as the consumption far below the level to which it would attain were the duties moderate. But it is needless to reason speculatively on such a point. Have we not seen the revenue derived from spirits increased, by reducing the duty from 5s. 6d. a gallon to 2s. 6d. ? and the revenue derived from coffee quadrupled by reducing the duty from 1s. 7d. per lb. to 6d. ? And, as most qualities of raisins are but little less overtaxed, have we not every reason to expect that a like effect would be produced by an adequate reduction of the duties by which they are burdened ?

Exclusive of raisins, a considerable quantity of undried grapes is annually imported from Spain and Portugal, in jars packed in sawdust. The duty on these grapes, which is 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, produced, in 1840, 1,696*l.*

Raisins, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are imported, on fortification of the goods and of 10*l.* by the captain of the ship. — (3 & 4 *Will. 4. c. 54. § § 2, 22.*)

No abatement of duty is made in account of any damage received by raisins. — (3 & 4 *Will. 4. c. 52. § 32.*)

Account of the Quantities of Raisins imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 7 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries whence they were brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Cwt.</i>	<i>Ton.</i>
Spain and the Balearic Islands	117,558	101,335	119,723	169,418	180,089	166,245	161,045
France and the Italian Islands	5,369	4,932	5,687	160	441	1,268	323
Turkey	47,589	71,347	45,094	38,918	22,050	54,335	52,079
All other countries	5,100	1,672	1,147	5,946	5,411	4,975	4,944
Total imported	169,366	182,286	169,990	195,466	205,911	224,781	216,741
Retained for consumption	160,844	156,194	152,162	155,174	179,335	178,116	210,887

The duty on raisins produced, in 1842, 147,031*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*

RANGOON, a commercial port and town of the Burmese dominions, about 26 miles from the sea, on the left bank of the eastern branch of the river Irawaddy, in lat. 16° 42' N., lon. 96° 20' E. The town and suburbs extend lengthwise about 1 mile along the bank of the river, being about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile in depth: but the houses are very unequally scattered over this area. The fort, or rather wooden stockade, which contains the town, properly so called, is a regular square about 14 feet high, composed of heavy beams of teak timber. It appears from a census, taken a short time previously to the commencement of the war in 1824, that the population was 18,000, which, probably, is not far from its present amount, though it has been stated considerably higher.

Rangoon is the chief, and, indeed, almost the only port of foreign trade in the Burmese dominions, which extend from between the 15th and 16th, up to the 26th and 27th degrees of N. lat., and from the 93d to the 94th degree of E. lon., containing an area of about 184,000 square miles, with a population of about 4,000,000. Its situation is extremely convenient for commercial purposes, being situated so near the sea, and commanding the navigation of the Irawaddy, which extends to Ava, the capital, a distance of

nearly 500 miles. Rangoon is accessible to ships of even 1,200 tons burden; the navigation, although somewhat intricate, being safe and practicable with the assistance of the ordinary native pilots.

The town has many advantages for ship building. At neaps the tide rises and falls about 18 feet; and at springs from 25 to 30 feet. The principal teak forests are, at the same time, at a comparatively short distance, and there is a water conveyance for the timber nearly the whole way. Ship-building has, in fact, been carried on at Rangoon since 1765, and in the 30 years which preceded our capture of it, there had been built 111 square-rigged vessels of European construction, the total burden of which amounted to above 35,000 tons. Several of these were of from 800 to 1,000 tons. Under the direction of European masters, the Burmese were found to make dexterous and laborious artisans; in this respect, greatly surpassing the natives of our Indian provinces.

There are 2 considerable markets, where the ordinary necessities of life, according to Burmese usage, are cheap and abundant: these are rice, excellent fish, and poultry.

Money.—The Burmese currency consists, for small payments, of lead; for larger ones, of gold and silver, but chiefly of the latter. There are no coins. At every payment, the metal must be weighed, and very generally assayed, — a rude and very inconvenient state of things. The weights used in the weighing of money are the same as those used on ordinary occasions; the *kyat* or tical, and the *palktha* or *vin*, being by far the most frequent. Silver may be considered as the standard. Gold is generally held to be about 17 times more valuable than silver. The weighing and assaying of the metals, used as currency, gives employment to a class of persons as brokers, money changers, and assayers. Every new assay costs the owner, if the metal be silver, 2½ per cent.; if gold, 1½ per cent. being the established commission of the assayers, while 1 per cent. is lost, or supposed to be lost, in the operation. If it be repeated 40 times, it follows that the original amount is wholly absorbed — a fact which shows the enormous waste of metal arising out of this rude substitute for coin.

Weights.—The weights in use at Rangoon, and throughout the Burman dominions, are as follow:—

2 Small <i>Rués</i> (red brass) = 1 Large <i>Rués</i> .	2 <i>Mus</i> = 1 <i>Math</i> .
4 Large <i>do.</i> = 1 <i>Mu</i> .	1 <i>Matha</i> = 1 <i>Kyat</i> , <i>saigo</i> Tical
2 <i>Bals</i> = 1 <i>Mu</i> .	100 <i>Kyats</i> = 1 <i>Palktha</i> , <i>saigo</i> <i>Vin</i> , = 365 the <i>avoir.</i>

Measures of capacity are as follow:—

2 <i>Lamets</i> = 1 <i>Lard</i> .	4 <i>Fields</i> = 1 <i>Pyil</i> .	2 <i>Satus</i> = 1 <i>Sen</i> .
2 <i>Lames</i> = 1 <i>Said</i> .	2 <i>Pyis</i> = 1 <i>Sarol</i> .	4 <i>Satus</i> = 1 <i>Ten</i> .

This last measure is what is usually called by us "a basket," and ought to weigh 16 *vis* of clean rice, or 58½ *lbs*. *avordupois*; it has commonly been reckoned at ½ a *cwt*. All grains, pulses, certain fruits, nutron, salt, and lime are bought and sold by measure; other commodities by weight.

Commercial Regulations.—The following commercial treaty, entered into between the government of England and the court of Ava, in 1826, regulates the intercourse between the two countries:—

Art. 1.—Peace being made, &c. &c. when merchants with an English certified pass from the country of the English ruler, and merchants from the kingdom of Burma pass from one country to the other, selling and buying merchandise, the sentinels at the passes and entrances, the established gate-keepers of the country, shall make inquiry as usual, but without demanding any money; and all merchants coming truly for the purpose of trade, with merchandise, shall be suffered to pass without hindrance or molestation. The governments of both countries, also, shall permit ships with cargoes to enter ports and carry on trade, giving them the utmost protection and security. And in regard to duties, there shall none be taken beside the customary duties at the landing places of trade.

Art. 2.—Ships whose breadth of beam on the inside (opening of the hold) is 8 royal Burman cubits, of 19½ English inches each, and all ships of smaller size, whether merchants from the Burmese country entering an English port under the Burmese flag, or merchants from the English country, with an English stamped pass, entering a Burmese port under the English flag, shall be subject to no other demands beside the payment of duties and 10 ticals, 25 per cent. (10 *steca* rupees), for a passport on leaving. Nor shall pilotage be demanded, unless the captain voluntarily requires a pilot. However, when ships arrive, information shall be given the officer stationed at the entrance of the sea. In regard to vessels whose breadth of beam exceeds 8 royal cubits, they shall remain, according to the 9th article of the treaty of Yandabo, without unshipping their rudders or landing their guns, and be free from trouble and molestation as Burmese vessels in British ports. Besides the royal duties, no more duties shall be given or taken than such as are customary.

Art. 3.—Merchants belonging to one country, who go to the other country and remain there, shall, when they desire to return, go to whatever country and by whatever vessel they may desire, without hindrance. Property owned by merchants they shall be allowed to sell. And property not sold, and household furniture, they shall be allowed to take away, without hindrance, or incurring any expense.

Art. 4.—English and Burmese vessels meeting with contrary winds, or sustaining damage in masts, rigging, &c., or suffering shipwrecks on the shore, shall, according to the laws of charity, receive assistance from the inhabitants of the towns and villages that may be near, the master of the wrecked ship paying to those that assist suitable salvage, according to the circumstances of the case; and whatever property may remain, in case of shipwreck, shall be restored to the owner.

Commerce.—A considerable intercourse is carried on between the Burmese and Chinese dominions by an annual caravan, of which the merchants are all Chinese. The imports from China consist of manufactured articles, the chief export from Burma being cotton wool. The trade with foreign countries seaward is carried on with the ports of Chittagong, Dacca, and Calcutta, in Bengal; Madras and Masulipatam, on the Coromandel coast; the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; Penang, in the Straits of Malacca; and occasionally with the Persian and Arabian Gulphs. The largest trade is with Calcutta, owing to the great consumption of teak timber in the latter, and the facility with which she supplies the demand of the Burmese for Indian and British cotton goods. The articles exported to foreign countries from Rangoon are the following:—Teak wood, terra Japonica, or catechu, stick lac, bees' wax, elephants' teeth, raw cotton, orpiment, commonly called in India *hural*, gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, and horses, or rather the small, hardy pony of the country, which is much esteemed, particularly at Madras. By far the most important of these commodities is teak timber; the quantity of this wood annually exported is said to be equal to 7,500 full-sized trees, which, for the most part, consist of what India ship-builders call *shéwa*, which are plants hewn out of the log with the side at an immense water. The teak forests of Pegu are by far the most abundant in India. The teak is nowhere to be found in the low alluvial lands to which the tide reaches, but abounds in the high lands beyond its influence. It seems to be very generally disseminated throughout the Burmese dominions. In the territory ceded to the British in Maratban, there are some fine forests, the timber of which is cut down for exportation, and where it is believed that saw-mills have very recently been established by some European settlers. The most accessible and extensive forests of Teak in the Burmese dominions are in the province of Sarawadi, about 150 miles to the north of Rangoon, with which there is a water communication. The principal imports into Burma are cotton piece goods from India and Britain, British woollens, iron, steel, quicksilver, copper, coriada, borax, sulphur, gunpowder, saltpeper, fire-arms, coarse porcelain, English glass, wine, opium, tobacco, cocon and areca nuts, sugar, and spirits. Of these, by far the most important is cotton piece goods. The Burmese have few cotton manufactures of their own, and appear, from very early times, to have been furnished with the principal part of their supply from the Coromandel coast. To these were afterwards added the cheaper fabrics of Bengal; and both are now, in a great measure, superseded by British manufactures, the use of which has spread very rapidly since the opening of the trade in 1814. In 1826-27, the exports and imports of the port of Rangoon

were estimated each at the rate of 300,000. — (We are indebted for this valuable article to our esteemed friend, John Crawford, Esq., who ascertained the particulars on the spot.)

RAPE, a biennial plant of the turnip kind (*Brassica napus* Lin.), but with a woody fusiform root scarcely fit to be eaten. It is indigenous, flowers in May, and ripens its seeds in July. It is cultivated in many parts of England, particularly in Lincoln and Cambridge; partly on account of its seed, which is crushed for oil, and partly for its leaves as food for sheep. The culture of rape for seed has been much objected to by some, on account of its supposed great exhaustion of the land; but Mr. Loudon says that, where the soil and preparation are suitable, the after-culture properly attended to, and the straw and offal, instead of being burnt, as is the common practice, converted to the purposes of feeding and littering cattle, it may, in many instances, be the most proper and advantageous crop that can be employed by the farmer. The produce, when the plant succeeds well, and the season is favourable for securing the seed, amounts to from 40 to 50 bushels an acre. The seed is sold by the last of 10 quarters; and is crushed in mills constructed for that purpose. — (*London's Ency. of Agriculture.*) We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of Rape Seed Imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 7 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries from which they were imported, and the Quantities drawn from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Russia	448,803	550,785	4,204	19,468	55,875	34,291	137,810
Denmark	860,551	165,751	717,731	501,268	680,810	465,392	348,098
German	51,497	65,040	81,944	47,408	66,558	36,241	61,466
All other countries							
Total imported	754,854	577,554	1,020,165	718,171	903,464	635,056	718,288
Retained for consumption	690,716	538,718	939,663	700,518	914,107	654,746	651,663

The duty on rapeseed was reduced in 1842 from 1s. to 1d. per quarter.

Rape-seed, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 84. § 2. 22.)

RARS CAXE, is the adhering masses of the husks of rape-seed, after the oil has been expressed. They are reduced to powder by a malt-mill or other machine; and are used either as a top-dressing for crops of different kinds, or are drilled along with turnip seed. Rapeseed oil pays a duty of 6s. a ton on importation.

RATTANS, or **CANES**, the long slender shoots of a prickly bush (*Calamus rotang* Lin.), one of the most useful plants of the Malay peninsula, and the Eastern islands. They are exported to Bengal, to Europe, and above all to China, where they are consumed in immense quantities. For cane work they should be chosen long, of a bright pale yellow colour, well glazed, and of a small size, not brittle, or subject to break. They are purchased by the bundle, which ought to contain 100 rattans, having their ends bent together, and tied in the middle. In China they are sold by the picul, which contains from 9 to 12 bundles. Such as are black or dark coloured, snap short, or from which the glazing flies off on their being bent, should be rejected. When stowed as dunnage, they are generally allowed to pass free of freight. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com. &c.*) The imports into this country are very considerable.

"The rattan," says Mr. Crawford, "is the spontaneous product of all the forests of the Archipelago; but exists in great perfection in those of the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, and of the Malayan peninsula. The finest are produced in the country of the *Bataks* of Sumatra. The wood-cutter, who is inclined to deal in this article, proceeds into the forest without any other instrument than his *parang* or cleaver, and cuts as much as he is able to carry away. The mode of performing the operation is this: — he makes a notch in the tree at the root of which the rattan is growing, and cutting the latter, strips off a small portion of the outer bark, and inserts the part that is peeled into the notch. The rattan now being pulled through as long as it continues of an equal size, is by this operation neatly and readily freed from its *epidermis*. When the wood-cutter has obtained by this means from 300 to 400 rattans, — being as many as an individual can conveniently carry in their moist and undried state, — he sits down, and ties them up in bundles of 100, each rattan being doubled before being thus tied up. After drying, they are fit for the market without further preparation. From this account of the small labour expended in bringing them to market, they can be sold at a very cheap rate. The Chinese junkies obtain them in Borneo at the low rate of 5 Spanish dollars per 100 bundles, or 5 cents for each 100 rattans, or 27 for 1d. The natives always vend them by tale; but the European residents and the Chinese sell them by weight, counting by piculs. According to their quantity, and the relative state of supply and demand, the European merchants dispose of them at from 1½ to 2½ dollars the picul. In China, the price is usually about 2½ dollars per picul, or 75 per cent. above the average prime cost. In Bengal they are sold by tale, each bundle of about 100 rattans bringing about 30d." — (*Asiatic Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 423.)

REAL, in the Spanish monetary system, is of two sorts; viz. a *real of plate*, and a *real vellon*. The former is a silver coin, varying in value from about 6½d. to 5d. — (*See Coins.*) A real vellon is a money of account, worth about ¼d.

REAM, a quantity of paper. The ream of writing paper consists of 20 quires, each of 24 sheets; but the ream of printing paper, or, as it is sometimes called, the *printer's ream*, extends to 21½ quires, or 516 sheets. Two reams of paper make a *bundle*.

RECEIPT, is an acknowledgment in writing of having received a sum of money, or other valuable consideration. It is a voucher either of an obligation or debt discharged, or of one incurred.

The 25 Geo. 3. c. 55. enacts, that every note, memorandum, or writing whatsoever, given to any person on the payment of money acknowledging such payment, on whatever account it be, and not being signed or made, shall be void, a receipt, and liable to a stamp duty.

And every person who shall write, or cause to be written, any receipt for money, or other valuable property, (except in cases otherwise expressed, cases heretofore mentioned,) or on a lower stamp than the proper one, shall forfeit 10*l.* for a sum under 10*l.*; if above, 50*l.*.

Using receipts for less than actually paid, writing off sums, or other fraudulent contrivances, penalty 50*l.*; but receipts may be stamped if brought within fourteen days after date, on payment of a penalty of 5*l.*, over and above the duty; and if brought within one calendar month, on payment of a penalty of 10*l.*, and the duty.

Any person refusing to give a receipt upon demand, or to pay the amount of the stamp, is liable to a penalty of 10*l.*.

Some Stamp Duties per 50 Geo. 3. c. 104.

Table with columns for amount and duty. Rows include: Receipt or discharge, given for or upon the payment of money, amounting to 5*l.* and under 10*l.*; 10*l.* and under 50*l.*; 50*l.* and under 100*l.*; 100*l.* and under 500*l.*; 500*l.* and under 1000*l.*; 1000*l.* and upwards.

And where any receipt be the main expressed to be received in full of all demands.

REGISTRY, in commercial navigation, the registration or enrolment of ships at the Custom-house, so as to entitle them to be classed among, and to enjoy the privileges of, British-built ships.

The registry of ships appears to have been first introduced into this country by the Navigation Act (12 Car. 2. c. 18. anno 1660). Several provisions were made with respect to it by the 7 & 8 Will. 3. c. 22.; and the whole was reduced into a system by the 27 Geo. 3. c. 19.

It may be laid down in general, that a vessel, in order to be admitted to registry, and consequently to enjoy the privileges and advantages that exclusively belong to a British ship, must be the property of her Majesty's subjects in the U. Kingdom or some of its dependencies; and that it must have been built in the said U. Kingdom, &c., or been a prize vessel legally condemned, or a vessel legally condemned for a breach of the revenue laws.

The great, and, perhaps, the only original object of the registration of ships, was to facilitate the exclusion of foreign ships from those departments in which they were prohibited from engaging by the navigation laws, by affording a ready means of distinguishing such as were really British. It has also been considered advantageous to individuals, by preventing the fraudulent assignment of property in ships; but Lord Tenterden has observed, in reference to this supposed advantage, that "the instances in which fair and honest transactions are rendered unavailable through a negligent want of compliance with the forms directed by these and other statutes requiring a public register of conveyances, make the expediency of all such regulations, considered with reference to private benefit only, a matter of question and controversy;"—(Law of Shipping, part i. c. 2.)

The existing regulations as to the registry of ships are embodied in the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 89., which, on account of its importance, is subjoined nearly entire.

ACT 8 & 9 VICT. c. 89., FOR THE REGISTERING OF BRITISH VESSELS.

Commencement of Act.—From the 4th of August, 1845.—§ 1. No vessel to enjoy Privilege until registered.—No ship or vessel shall be entitled to any of the privileges or advantages of a British-registered ship unless the person or persons claiming property therein shall have caused the same to have been registered in virtue of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 35., or of the act 6 G. 4. c. 110. intitled an act for registering British vessels, or of the act 4 G. 4. c. 41. intitled an act for the registering of British vessels, or until such person or persons shall have caused the same to be registered in manner hereinafter mentioned, and shall have obtained a certificate of such registry from the person or persons authorized to make such registry and grant such certificate as hereinafter directed, the form of which certificate shall be as follows:—viz.

"It is to certify, that in pursuance of an act passed in the session of parliament which began the 10th year of His Majesty Queen Victoria, intitled An Act (Here insert the title of this act, the name, occupations, and residence of the subscribing owners), having made and subscribed the declaration required by the said act, and having declared that (he or they) together with (names, occupations, and residence of non-subscribing owners) is (or are) sole owner (or owners) in the proportions specified on the back hereof of the ship or vessel called (the ship's name) of (place to which the vessel belongs), which is of the burden of (number of tons); and whereof (master's name) is master, and that the said ship or vessel was (when and where built, or constructed or purchased, referring to the owner's certificate, judge's certificate, or certificate of last registry, then delivered up to be cancelled), and (name and employment of surveying officer) having certified to us that the said ship or vessel has (number) decks and (number) masts, that her length

from the inner part of the main stem to the fore part of the stern post shall be (length), her breadth in the widest part is (breadth), her depth in hold at midships is (depth), that she is (how rigged) rigged, with (standing or running) bowsprit, is (description of stern) sterned, (square or clincher) built, has (whether any or not) galley, and (kind of head, if any) head; and the said subscribing owners having consented and agreed to the above description, and having caused sufficient security to be given as required by the said act, the said ship or vessel called (name) has been duly registered in the port of (name of port) on the (date) day of (name of month), in the year (year of date).

[Signed] Collector. [Signed] Comptroller.

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And on the back of such certificate of registry there shall be mentioned and described in such certificate, in the form and manner following:—

Names of the several owners
with addresses.

(Name)
(Name)
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(Name)

Number of sixty-fourth shares
held by each owner.

Twenty-five.
Sixteen.
Eight.
Eight.

[Signed] Collector. — § 2.

Persons authorized to make Registry, &c.—The persons authorized and required to make such registry and grant such certificates shall be the several persons herein-after mentioned and described; (that is to say),

The collector and comptroller of customs in any port in the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland and in the Isles of Man respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The principal officers of customs in the Islands of Guernsey or Jersey, together with the governor, Lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of those islands respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector and comptroller of customs of any port in the British possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, or the collector of any such port at which no appointment of a comptroller has been made, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector of duties at any port in the territories under the government of the E. I. Company, within the limits of the

charter of the said company, or any other person of the rank in the said company's service of senior merchant, or of 8 years standing in the said service, being respectively appointed to act in the execution of this act by any of the governments of the said company, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector of duties of any British possession within the said limits, and not under the government of the said company, and at which a custom house is not established, together with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of such possession, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of Malta, Gibraltar, and Heligoland respectively, in respect of vessels of ships to be there registered:

Provided always, that no ship or vessel shall be registered at Heligoland, except such as is wholly of the build of that place, and that ships or vessels registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland shall not be registered elsewhere; and that ships or vessels registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland shall not be entitled to the privileges and advantages of British ships in any trade between the said U. K. and any of the British possessions in America: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall be done or performed by, to, or with any collector and comptroller of customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the several persons respectively herein-before authorized and required to make registry and to grant certificates of registry as aforesaid, and according as the same act, matter, or thing is to be done or performed at the said several and respective places, and within the jurisdiction, of the said several persons respectively: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any place where any ship or vessel may be registered under the authority of this act, so far as such act, matter, or thing can be applicable to the registering of any ship or vessel at such place. — § 3.

Ships exercising Privileges before Registry to be forfeited.—In case any ship or vessel not being duly registered, and not having obtained such certificate of registry as aforesaid, shall exercise any of the privileges of a British ship, the same shall be subject to forfeiture, and also all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel to the same ship or vessel belonging, and shall and may be seized by any officer or officers of H. M.'s customs: provided always, that nothing in this act shall extend or be construed to extend to affect the privileges of any ship or vessel duly registered prior to the commencement thereof. — § 4.

What Ships are entitled to be registered.—No ship or vessel shall be registered, or having been registered shall be deemed to be duly registered by virtue of this act, except such as are wholly of the build of the said U. K., or of the Isle of Man, or of the Islands of Guernsey or Jersey, or of some of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, or of Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, which belonged to H. M., her heirs or successors, at the time of the building of such ships or vessels, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any competent court as forfeited for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and which shall wholly belong and continue wholly to belong to H. M.'s subjects duly entitled to be owners of ships or vessels registered by virtue of this act. — § 5.

Mediterranean Pass may be issued at Malta or Gibraltar.—No Mediterranean pass shall be issued for the use of any ship as being a ship belonging to Malta or Gibraltar, except such as be duly registered at those places respectively, or such as, not being entitled to be so registered, shall have wholly belonged, before the 10th of October 1827, and shall have continued wholly to belong, to persons actually residing at those places respectively as inhabitants thereof, and entitled to be owners of British ships there registered, or who, not being so entitled, shall have so resided upwards of 15 years prior to the said 10th of October 1827. — § 6.

Ships disqualified if Foreign Repairs exceed 20s. per Ton.—No ship or vessel shall continue to enjoy the privileges of a British ship after the same shall have been repaired in a foreign country, if such repairs shall exceed the sum of 20s. for every ton of the burden of the said ship or vessel, unless such repairs shall have been necessary by reason of extraordinary damage sustained by such ship or vessel during her absence from H. M.'s dominions, to enable her to perform the voyage in which she shall have been engaged, and to return to some port or place in the said dominions; and whenever any ship or vessel which has been so repaired in a foreign country shall arrive at any port in H. M.'s dominions as a British-registered ship or vessel, the master or other person having the charge or command of the same shall, upon the first entry thereof, report to the collector or comptroller of customs at such port that such ship or vessel has been so repaired, under penalty of 20s. for every ton of the burden of such ship or vessel according to the admeasurement thereof; and if it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that such ship or vessel was seaworthy at the time when she last departed from any port or place in H. M.'s dominions, and that a greater quantity of such repairs have been done to the said vessel than was necessary as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, upon a full consideration of all the circumstances, to direct the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel shall have arrived, or where she shall then be, to certify on the certificate of the registry of such ship or vessel that it has been proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that the privileges of the said ship or vessel have not been forfeited, notwithstanding the repairs which have been done to the same in a foreign country. — § 7.

Ships declared unseaworthy to be deemed Ships lost or broken up.—If any ship or vessel registered under the authority of this or any other act shall be deemed or declared to be stranded or unseaworthy, and incapable of being recovered or repaired to the advantage of the owners thereof, and shall for such reasons be sold by order or decree of any competent court for the benefit of the owners of such ship or vessel or other persons interested therein, the same shall be taken and deemed to be a ship or vessel lost or broken up in all intents and purposes within the meaning of this act, and shall never again be entitled to the privilege of a British-built ship for any purposes of trade or navigation. — § 8.

British Ships captured not to be again entitled to Registry.—No British ship or vessel which has been or shall hereafter be captured by and become prize to an enemy, or sold to foreigners, shall again be entitled to the privileges of a British ship: provided always, that nothing contained in this act shall

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entend to prevent the registering of any ship or vessel whatever which shall afterwards be condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or in any competent court, for breach of laws made for the prevention of the slave trade. — § 8.

Ships shall be registered at the Port to which they belong. — No such registry shall hereafter be made, or certificate thereof granted, by any person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry and grant such certificate, in any other port or place than the port or place to which such ship or vessel shall properly belong, as respects such ships or vessels as shall be condemned as prizes in any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Manx, which ships or vessels shall be registered in the ports herein-after directed; but all and every registry and certificate made and granted in any port or place to which any ship or vessel does not properly belong shall be utterly null and void to all intents and purposes, unless the officers aforesaid shall be specially authorised and empowered to make such registry and grant such certificate in any other port or place by the hands of his or their commissioners of customs, which order the said commissioners are hereby authorised and empowered to issue if they shall see fit; and at every port where registry shall be made in pursuance of this act a book shall be kept by the collector and comptroller, in which all the particulars contained in the form of the certificate of the registry herein-before directed to be used shall be duly entered; and every registry shall be numbered in progression, beginning such progressive enumeration at the commencement of each and every year; and such collector and comptroller shall forthwith, or within one month at the furthest, transmit to the commissioners of customs a true and exact copy, together with the number of every certificate which shall be by them so granted. — § 10.

Ports to which Vessels shall be deemed to belong. — Every ship or vessel shall be deemed to belong to some port as or near to which some or one of the owners, who shall make and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, shall reside; and whenever such owner or owners shall have transferred all his or their share or shares in such ship or vessel, the same shall be registered at some other port or place than the port to which the same shall then belong, or from any other port or place than the port or place to which the same shall then belong, or from any other territory, as the said port shall be in; provided always, that if the owner or owners of such ship or vessel cannot in sufficient time comply with the requisites of this act, so that registry may be made before it shall be necessary for such ship or vessel to sail or depart upon another voyage, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel may then be to certify upon the back of the existing certificate of such ship or vessel that the same is to remain in force for the voyage upon which the said ship or vessel is then about to sail or depart; provided also, that if any ship or vessel shall be built in any of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, to H. M. belonging, for owners residing in the U. K., and the master of such ship or vessel, or the agent for the owner or owners thereof, shall have produced to the collector and comptroller of the port at or near to which such ship or vessel was built the certificate of the builder required by this act, and shall have made and subscribed a declaration before such collector and comptroller of the names and descriptions of the principal owners of such ship or vessel, and that she is the identical ship or vessel mentioned in such certificate of the builder, and that no foreigner, to the best of his knowledge and belief, has any interest therein, the collector and comptroller of such port shall cause such ship or vessel to be surveyed and measured in like manner as if the certificate of the builder required by this act, or vessel, and shall give the master of such ship or vessel a certificate under their hands and seals, purporting to be under the authority of this act, and stating when and where and by whom such ship or vessel was built, the description, tonnage, and other particulars required on registry of any ship or vessel, and such certificate shall have all the force and virtue of a certificate of registry under this act, during the term of years, unless such ship or vessel shall sooner arrive at some place in the U. K.; and the collector and comptroller shall transmit a copy of such certificate to the commissioners of customs. — § 11.

Foreigners and Persons residing in Foreign Countries may not be Owners. — No person who has taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state, except under the terms of some capitulation, unless he shall afterwards become a denizen or naturalised subject of the U. K. by H. M.'s letters patent or by act of parliament, nor any person usually residing in any foreign country, nor any partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, shall be entitled to be the owner, in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, of any ship or vessel required and authorized to be registered by virtue of this act. — § 12.

Declaration to be made by subscribing Owners previous to Registry. — No registry shall henceforth be made or certificate granted until the following declaration be made and subscribed, before the person or persons herein-before authorized to make such registry and grant such certificate respectively, by the owner of such ship or vessel if such ship or vessel is owned by or belongs to one person only, or in case there shall be 3 joint owners, then by both of such joint owners if both shall be resident within 30 miles of the port or place where such registry is required, or by one of such owners if one or both of them shall be resident at a greater distance from such port or place, or, if the number of such owners or proprietors shall exceed 3, then by the greater part of the number of such owners or proprietors, if the greater number of them shall be resident within 30 miles of such port or place as aforesaid, not in any case exceeding 3 of such owners or proprietors, unless a greater number shall be desirous to join in making and subscribing the said declaration, or by one of such owners if all or all except one, shall be resident at a greater distance: —

"I, A. B. (of whose residence and occupation) do truly declare, that the ship or vessel (name) of (port or place), (whereof (master's name) is at present in command, being (kind of build, burden, or tonnage, as described in the certificate of the surveying officer), was (when and where built, or, if prize or forfeited, captured and condemned as such), and that I the said A. B. (and the other owners' names and occupations, if any, and where they respectively reside, viz. house, place, or parish, and county, or if members of or residing in any factory, foreign town, or city, any foreign town or city, being an agent for or partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, the name of such factory, foreign town, or city, and the names of such house or copartnership) am (or are) sole owner (or owners) of the said vessel, and that no other person or persons whatsoever hath or have any right, title, interest, share, or property therein or thereto; and that I the said A. B. (and the said other owners, if any) am (or are) truly and honestly

sole subject (or subjects) of Great Britain, and that the said A. B. hath not (nor have any of the other owners, to the best of my knowledge and belief) taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state whatever (except under the terms of some capitulation, describing the particulars thereof), or that since my taking (or his or their taking) the oath of allegiance to (naming the foreign state respectively to which he or any of the said owners shall have taken the same) I have (or he or they hath or have) become a denizen (or denizens, or naturalised subject or subjects, as the case may be), of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland by H. M.'s letters patent, or by an act of parliament (naming the times when such letters of declaration have been granted respectively, or the year or years in which such act or act, for naturalisation have passed respectively), and that no foreigner (directly or indirectly, but by any share or part interest in the said ship or vessel): —

Provided always, that if it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel belonging to any corporate body in the U. K., the following declaration in lieu of the declaration herein-before directed shall be taken and subscribed by the secretary or other proper officer of such corporate body: (that is to say),

"I, A. B., secretary (or officer) of (name of company or corporation), do truly declare, that the ship or vessel (name) of (port or place), (whereof (master's name) is at present in command, being (kind of build, burden, &c., as described in the certificate of the

surveying officer), was (when and where built, or, if prize or forfeited, captured and condemned as such), and that the same doth wholly and truly belong to (name of company or corporation). — § 13.

Addition to Declaration in case the required Number of Owners do not attend. — In case the required number of joint owners or proprietors of any ship or vessel shall not personally attend to make and subscribe the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, then and in such case such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, as shall personally attend and make and subscribe the

declaration aforesaid, shall further declare that the part owner or part owners of such ship or vessel then absent is or are not resident within 30 miles of such port or place, and hath or have not, to the best of his or their knowledge or belief, wilfully absented himself or themselves in order to avoid the making of the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, or is or are prevented by illness from attending to make and subscribe the said declaration. — § 14.

Persons to be surveyed previous to Registry. — In order to enable the collector and comptroller of customs to grant a certificate truly and accurately describing every ship or vessel to be registered in pursuance of this act, and also to enable the other officers of H. M.'s customs, on due examination, to discover whether any such ship or vessel is the same with that for which a certificate is alleged to have been granted, he it enacted that previous to the registering or granting of any certificate of registry as aforesaid some one or more person or persons appointed by the commissioners of H. M.'s customs (taking to his or their assistance, if he or they shall judge it necessary, one or more person or persons skilled in the building and measurement of ships,) shall go on board of every such ship or vessel as is to be registered, and shall strictly and accurately examine and measure every such ship or vessel as to all and every particular contained in the form of the certificate herein-before directed, in the presence of the master or of any other person, who shall be appointed for that purpose on the part of the owner or owners, or in his or their absence by the said master, and shall deliver a true and just account in writing of all such particulars of the build, description, and measurement of every such ship or vessel as are specified in the form of the certificate above recited to the collector and comptroller authorised as aforesaid to make such registry and grant such certificate of registry; and the said master or other person attending on the part of the owner or owners is hereby required to sign his name also to the certificate of such surveying or examining officer, in testimony of the truth thereof, provided such master or other person shall consent and agree to the several particulars so forth as described therein. — § 15.

N. B. The 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, and 22nd clauses of this act relating to the mode of ascertaining the tonnage of ships, are given under the word **TONNAGE**.

Bond to be given at the Time of Registry. — At the time of obtaining the certificate of registry as aforesaid sufficient security by bond or bonds to be given to her H. M., her heirs and successors, by the master and such of the owners as shall personally attend as herein-before directed, to make such registry and grant such certificate of registry, at the port or place in which such certificate shall be granted, in the penalties following; viz. if such ship or vessel shall be a decked vessel, or be above the burden of 10 tons, and not exceeding 50 tons, then in the penalty of 100*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 50 tons, and not exceeding 100 tons, then in the penalty of 200*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 100 tons, and not exceeding 300 tons, then in the penalty of 500*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 300 tons, and not exceeding 800 tons, then in the penalty of 900*l.*; and if exceeding the burden of 800 tons, then in the penalty of 1000*l.*; and the condition of every such bond shall be, that such certificate shall not be sold, lent, or otherwise disposed of to any person or persons whatever, and that the same shall be solely made use of for the service of the ship or vessel for which it is granted; and that in case such ship or vessel shall be lost or taken by the enemy, burnt or broken up, or otherwise prevented from returning to the port to which she belongs, or shall on any account have lost and forfeited the privileges of a British ship, or shall have been seized and legally condemned for illicit trading, or shall have been taken in execution for debt, and sold by due process of law, or shall have been sold to the crown, or shall under any circumstances have been registered *de novo*, the certificate, if preserved, shall be delivered up within one month after the arrival of the master in any port or place in H. M.'s dominions to the collector and comptroller of some port in Great Britain, or of the Isle of Man, or of the British plantations, or to the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief for the time being of the islands of Guernsey or Jersey; and that if any foreigner, or any person or persons for their use and benefit of any foreigner, shall purchase or otherwise become entitled to the whole or to any part or share of any interest in such ship or vessel, and the same shall be within the limits of any port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of the British colonies, plantations, islands, or territories aforesaid, then and in such case the certificate of registry shall, within 7 days after such purchase or transfer of property in such ship or vessel, be delivered up to the person or persons herein-before authorised to make registry, and grant certificate of registry, at such port or place respectively as aforesaid; and if such ship or vessel shall be in any foreign port when such purchase or transfer of property shall take place, then the certificate shall be delivered up to the British consul or other chief British officer resident at or near to such foreign port, or if such ship or vessel shall be at sea when such purchase or transfer of property shall take place, then that the certificate shall be delivered up to the British consul or other chief British officer at the foreign port or place in or at which the master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall first arrive after such purchase or transfer of property at sea, immediately after his arrival at such foreign port; but if such master or other person who had the command thereof at the time of such purchase or transfer of property at sea shall not arrive at a foreign port, but shall arrive at some port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of H. M.'s said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories, then that the certificate shall be delivered up in manner aforesaid within 14 days after the arrival of such ship or vessel, or of the person who had the command thereof in any port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of any of H. M.'s said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories; provided always, that if it shall happen that at the time of registry of any ship or vessel the same shall be at any other port than the port to which she belongs, so that the master of such ship or vessel cannot attend at the port of registry to join with the owner or owners in such bond as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for him to give a separate bond to the like effect at the port where such ship or vessel may then be, and the collector and comptroller of such other port shall transmit such bond to the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel is to be registered; and such bond, and the bond also given by the owner or owners, shall together be of the same effect against the master and owner or owners, or either of them, as if they had bound themselves jointly and severally in one bond. — § 20.

When Master is changed, new Master to give similar Bond. — When and so often as the master or other person having or taking the charge or command of any ship or vessel, registered in manner herein-before directed, shall be changed, the master or owner of such ship or vessel shall deliver to the person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry, and grant such certificates of registry, at the port where such change shall take place, the certificate of registry belonging to such ship or vessel, who shall thereupon endorse and subscribe a memorandum of such change, and shall forthwith give notice of the same to the proper officer of the port or place where such ship or vessel was last registered pursuant to this act, who shall likewise make a memorandum of the same in the book of registers which is hereby directed and required to be kept, and shall forthwith give notice thereof to the commissioners of H. M.'s customs; provided always, that before the name of such new master shall be endorsed on the certificate of registry he shall be required to give and shall give a bond in the like penalties and under the same conditions as are contained in the bond herein-before required to be given at the time of registry of any ship or vessel. — § 21.

Bonds liable to some Duties as Bonds for Customs. — All bonds required by this act shall be liable to the same duties of stamps as bonds given for or in respect of the duties of customs are or shall be liable to under any act for the being in force for granting duties of stamps. — § 22.

Certificate of Registry to be given up by all Persons. — If any person whatever shall at any time have possession of and wilfully detain any certificate of registry granted under this or any other act, which ought to be delivered up to be cancelled, according to any of the conditions of the bond herein-before

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and forthwith to give notice thereof to the commissioners of customs; and in case the collector and comptroller shall be desired so to do, and the bill of sale or other instrument shall be produced to them for that purpose, then the said collector and comptroller are hereby required to certify by endorsement upon the bill of sale or other instrument that the particulars before mentioned have been so entered in the book of registry, and endorsed upon the certificate of registry as aforesaid. — § 37.

Entry of Bill of Sale to be void, except in certain Cases. — When and so soon as the particulars of any bill of sale or other instrument by which a ship or vessel, or any share or shares thereof, shall be transferred, shall have been so entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, the said bill of sale or other instrument shall be valid and effectual to pass the property thereby intended to be transferred as against all and every person and persons whatsoever, and to all intents and purposes, except as against such subsequent purchasers and mortgagees who shall first procure the endorsement to be made upon the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel in manner herein-after mentioned.

When a Bill of Sale has been entered for any Shares, Thirty Days shall be allowed for endorsing the Certificate. — When and after the particulars of any bill of sale or other instrument by which any ship or vessel, of any share or shares thereof, shall be transferred, shall have been so entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, the collector and comptroller shall not enter in the book of registry the particulars of any other bill of sale or instrument purporting to be a transfer by the same vendor or mortgagor or vendors or mortgagors of the same ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, to any other person or persons, unless thirty days shall elapse from the day on which the particulars of the former bill of sale or other instrument were entered in the book of registry, or in case the ship or vessel was absent from the port to which she belonged at the time when the particulars of such former bill of sale or other instrument were entered in the book of registry, then unless thirty days shall have elapsed from the day on which the ship or vessel arrived at the port to which the same belonged; and in case the particulars of two or more such bills of sale or other instruments as aforesaid shall at any time have been entered in the book of registry of the said ship or vessel, the collector and comptroller shall not enter in the book of registry the particulars of any other bill of sale or other instrument as aforesaid, unless thirty days shall in like manner have elapsed from the day on which the particulars of the last of such bills of sale or other instrument were entered in the book of registry, or from the day on which the ship or vessel arrived at the port to which she belonged, in case of her absence as aforesaid; and in every case where there shall at any time happen to be 2 or more transfers by the same owner or owners of the same property in any ship or vessel entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, the collector and comptroller are hereby required to endorse upon the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel the particulars of that bill of sale or other instrument under which the person or persons claims or claim property, who shall produce the certificate of registry for that purpose within 30 days next after the entry of his said bill of sale or other instrument in the book of registry as aforesaid, or within 30 days next after the return of the said ship or vessel to the port to which she belongs, in case of her absence as aforesaid; and in case no person or persons shall produce the certificate of registry within either of the said spaces of 30 days, then it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller and they are hereby required to endorse upon the certificate of registry the particulars of the bill of sale or other instrument to such person or persons as shall first produce the certificate of registry for that purpose; it being the true intent and meaning of this act that the several purchasers and mortgagees of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, when more than one appear to claim the same property, or to claim security on the same property, in the same rank and degree, shall have priority one over the other, not according to the respective times when the particulars of the bill of sale or other instrument by which such property was transferred to them were entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, but according to the time when the endorsement is made upon the certificate of registry as aforesaid; provided always, that if the certificate of registry shall be lost or mislaid, or shall be detained by any person whatever, so that the endorsement cannot in due time be made thereon, and proof thereof shall be made by the purchaser or mortgagee, or his known agent, to the satisfaction of the commissioners of H. M.'s customs, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to grant such further time as to them shall appear necessary for the recovery of the certificate of registry for the registry of the said ship or vessel under the provisions of this act; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall make a memorandum in the book of registers of the further time so granted, and during such time no other bill of sale shall be entered for the transfer of the same ship or vessel, or for the same share or shares thereof, or for giving the same security thereon. — § 39.

Bills of Sale may be produced after Entry at other Ports than those to which Vessels belong, and Transfers endorsed. — If the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel shall be produced to the collector and comptroller of any port where she may then be after any such bill of sale shall have been recorded at the port to which she belongs, together with such bill of sale containing a notification of such record, signed by the collector or comptroller of such port as before directed, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of such other port to endorse on such certificate of registry (being required so to do) the transfer mentioned in such bill of sale, and such collector and comptroller shall give notice thereof to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs, who shall record the same in like manner as if they had made such endorsement themselves, but inserting the name of the port at which such endorsement was made: provided always, that the collector and comptroller of such other port shall first give notice to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs of such requisition made to them to endorse the certificate of registry, and the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs shall thereupon send information to the collector and comptroller of such other port whether any and what other bill or bills of sale have been recorded in the book of the registry of such ship or vessel; and the collector and comptroller of such other port having such information shall proceed in manner directed by this act in all respects to the endorsing of the certificate of registry as they would do if such port were the port to which such vessel belonged. — § 40.

If upon Registry de novo any Bill of Sale shall not have been recorded, it shall then be produced. — If it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel de novo, and any share or shares of such ship or vessel shall have been so transferred, and the transfer of such share or shares or shares shall not have been recorded and endorsed in manner herein-before directed, the bill of sale thereof shall be produced to the collector and comptroller of customs, who are to make registry of such ship or vessel, otherwise such sale shall not be noticed in such registry de novo, except as herein-after excepted; provided always, that upon the future production of such bill of sale, and of the existing certificate of registry, such transfer shall and may be recorded and endorsed as well after such registry de novo as before. — § 41.

Upon Change of Property Registry de novo may be granted if desired. — If upon any change of property in any ship or vessel the owner or owners shall desire to have the same registered de novo, although not required by this act, and the owner or proper number of owners shall attend at the custom house at the port to which such ship or vessel belongs for that purpose, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of H. M.'s customs at such port to make registry de novo of such ship or vessel at the same port, and to grant a certificate thereof, the several requisites herein-before in this act mentioned and directed being first duly observed and complied with. — § 42.

Copies of Declarations, &c., and of Extracts from Books of Registry, admitted in Evidence. — Whereas great inconvenience hath arisen from the registering officers being served with subpoenas, requiring them to bring with them, and produce on trials in courts of law relative to the owners (de in orig.) of vessels or otherwise, the oaths or declarations required to be taken by the owners thereof prior to the registering

thereof, and the books of registry or copies or extracts therefrom: and whereas it would tend much to the despatch of business if the attendance of such registering officers with the same upon such trials were dispensed with; be it therefore enacted, that the collector and comptroller of customs at any port or place, and the person or persons acting for them respectively, shall, upon every reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, produce and exhibit for his, her, or their inspection, and examination any oath or declaration sworn or made by any such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, and also any register or entry in any book or books of registry required by this act to be made or kept relative to any ship or vessel, and shall, upon every reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, produce and exhibit a copy or copies or an extract or extracts of any such register or registers, and that the copy and copies of any such oath or declaration, register or entry, shall, upon being proved to be a true copy or copies thereof respectively, be allowed and received as evidence upon every trial at law, without the production of the original or originals, and without the testimony or attendance of any collector or comptroller, or other person or persons acting for them respectively, in all cases as fully and to all intents and purposes as such original or originals, if produced by any collector, or collectors, comptroller or comptrollers, or other person or persons acting for them, could or might legally be admitted or received in evidence.— § 43.

If Vessels or Shares be sold in the Absence of Owners, without former Powers, Commissioners may permit Record of such Sales or Registry de novo, as the Case may require.— If the ship or vessel, or the share or shares of any owner thereof who may be out of the kingdom, shall be sold in his absence by his known agent or correspondent under his directions, either expressed or implied, and acting for his interest in that behalf, and such agent or correspondent who shall have executed a bill of sale to the purchaser of the whole of such ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall not have received a legal power to execute the same, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, upon application made to them, and proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealings of the parties, to permit such transfer to be registered, if registry *de novo* be necessary, or to be recorded and endorsed, as the case may be, in manner directed by this act, as if such legal power had been produced; and also if it shall happen that any bill of sale cannot be produced, or if, by reason of distance of time or the absence or death of parties concerned, it cannot be proved that a bill of sale for any share or shares in any ship or vessel had been executed, and registry *de novo* of such ship or vessel shall have become necessary, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, upon proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealings of the parties, to permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo*, in like manner as if a bill of sale for the transfer of such share or shares had been produced; provided always, that in any of the cases herein mentioned good and sufficient security shall be given to produce a legal power or bill of sale within a reasonable time, or to abide the future claims of the absent owner, his heirs and successors, as the case may be, and, at the future request of the party whose property has been so transferred without the production of a bill of sale from him or from his lawful attorney, such bond shall be available for the protection of his interest, in addition to any powers or rights which he may have in law or equity against the ship or vessel, or against the parties concerned, until he shall have received full indemnity for any loss or injury sustained by him.— § 44.

Transfer by way of Mortgage.— When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall be made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, either by way of mortgage or of assignment to a trustee or trustees for the purpose of selling the same for the payment of any debt or debts, then and in every such case the collector and comptroller of the port where the ship or vessel is registered shall, in the entry in the book of registry, and also in the endorsement on the certificate of registry in manner herein-before directed, state and express that such transfer was made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, or by way of mortgage, or to that effect; and the person or persons to whom such transfer shall be made, or any other person or persons claiming under him or them as a mortgagee or mortgagees, or a trustee or trustees only, shall not by reason thereof be deemed to be the owner or owners of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, nor shall the person or persons making such transfer be deemed by reason thereof to have ceased to be an owner or owners of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, nor shall the person or persons making such transfer be deemed by reason thereof to have ceased to be an owner or owners of such ship or vessel, any more than if no such transfer had been made, except in so far as may be necessary for the purpose of retaining the ship or vessel, share or shares, so transferred, available, by sale or otherwise, for the payment of the debt or debts for securing the payment of which such transfer shall have been made.— § 45.

Transfer of Ships for Security being registered, Rights of Mortgagee not affected by Bankruptcy of Mortgagee, &c.— When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall have been made as a security for the payment of any debt or debts, either by way of mortgage or of assignment as aforesaid, and such transfer shall have been duly registered, according to the provisions of this act, the right or interest of the mortgagee or other assignee as aforesaid shall not be in any manner affected by any act or acts of bankruptcy committed by such mortgagee or assignor, mortgagees or assignors, after the time when such mortgage or assignment shall have been so registered as aforesaid, notwithstanding such mortgagee or assignor, mortgagees or assignors, at the time he or they shall as aforesaid bankrupt or be bankrupt, shall have in his, her, or their possession, order, and disposition, and shall be reputed owner or owners of the said ship or vessel, or the share or shares thereof by him or them mortgaged or assigned as aforesaid, but such mortgage or assignment shall take place of and be preferred to any right, claim, or interest which may belong to the assignor or assignors of such bankrupt or bankrupts or such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, any law or statute to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.— § 46.

Governors of Colonies, &c. to be sworn in Oaths to be taken.— It shall and may be lawful for any governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any of His Majesty's colonies, plantations, islands, or territories, and the any justice of the peace, respectively authorized and required, if any suit, information, bill, or other prosecution or proceeding of any nature or kind whatever shall have been commenced or shall hereafter be commenced in any court wherever in any of the said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories respectively, for the offence and effect of any register required to any ship or vessel, upon a representation made to any such governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief, or justice of the peace, to be made, to be sworn in just cause so to do, until His Majesty's pleasure shall be known and certified to him by His Majesty and with the advice of His Majesty's principal secretaries of state, so be laid before His Majesty in council, on authentication copy of the proceedings in every such case, together with his reasons for causing the same to be stayed, and such documents (properly verified) as he may judge necessary, for the information of His Majesty.— § 47.

Penalty for making false Declaration or Delisting any Document.— If any person or persons shall give any false declaration to any of the officers herein-before required to be verified by declaration, or if any person or persons shall counterfeits, erase,

alter, or falsify any certificate or other instrument in writing required or directed to be obtained, granted, or produced by this act, or shall knowingly or wilfully make use of any certificate or other instrument so counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, or shall wilfully grant such certificate or other instrument in writing, knowing it to be false, such person or persons shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of £100.— § 48.

Owners of British Vessels to give Notice to Collectors of Customs of Loss, &c. of such Vessels.— The person or persons registered as owner or owners of any British ship or vessel which shall have been lost or taken by the enemy, or burnt or broken up, or otherwise prevented from returning to the port to which such ship or vessel belongs, or which shall on any account have lost or forfeited the privileges of a British ship, shall, immediately upon obtaining knowledge of any of the circumstances aforesaid, give notice in writing of such circumstances to the collector or comptroller of the customs at the port of registry of such ship or vessel.— § 49.

Or if Vessels absent from the Port of Registry for 3 Years to state Cause.— In all cases where any British-registered ship or vessel shall have been absent from the port of registry for the space of 3 years, the person or persons registered as the owner or owners of such ship or vessel shall, in the manner aforesaid, in writing to the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port, stating therein the cause of such absence, and that the said vessel has not forfeited her privileges as a British ship.— § 50.

Penalty to give such Notice, &c. to forfeit 50.— Every such owner or owners failing to give such notice in either of the cases aforesaid, or making any untrue statement in respect of such ship or vessel, shall forfeit the sum of 50.— § 51.

How forfeitures are to be recovered.— His Majesty's officers and officers-in-charge, and by such officers, means, and methods, as His Majesty's pleasure shall be known and certified to him by His Majesty and with the advice of His Majesty's principal secretaries of state, so be laid before His Majesty in council, on authentication copy of the proceedings in every such case, together with his reasons for causing the same to be stayed, and such documents (properly verified) as he may judge necessary, for the information of His Majesty.— § 52.

Penalty for making false Declaration or Delisting any Document.— If any person or persons shall give any false declaration to any of the officers herein-before required to be verified by declaration, or if any person or persons shall counterfeits, erase,

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REPORT. In commercial navigation, a paper delivered by the masters of all ships arriving from parts beyond seas to the Custom-house, and attested upon oath, containing an account of the cargo on board, &c. — (See *anté*, p. 669.)

REPRISALS. Where the people of one nation have unlawfully seized and detained property belonging to another state, the subjects of the latter are authorised, by the law of nations, to indemnify themselves, by seizing the property of the subjects of the state aggressing. This is termed making reprisals; and commissions to this effect are issued from the Admiralty. — (See **PRIVATEERS**.)

RESPONDENTIA. See **BOTTOMPY** AND **RESPONDENTIA**.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE. Though not properly belonging to a work of this sort, we believe we shall do an acceptable service to our readers by laying before them the following comprehensive Table of the revenue and expenditure of the United Kingdom in 1840, 1841, and 1842. — (See pp. 1057, 1058.) It contains more information in a brief space than most parliamentary papers. It was originally framed according to the suggestion, and printed upon the motion, of Mr. Pusey; and there are not very many members who can refer to so useful a memorial of their parliamentary career.

RHUBARB (Du. *Rhubarber*; Fr. *Rhubarbe*, *Rubarbe*; It. *Rabarbaro*, *Reo-barbaro*; Sp. *Ruibarro*; Rus. *Rewen*; Arab. *Rawend*; Chin. *Tu-woang*), the root of a plant, a native of China and Tartary. Three varieties of rhubarb are known in the shops; viz. Russian, Turkey, and East Indian or Chinese rhubarb. The first two resemble each other in every respect. They are, in fact, the same article, being both derived from Tartary. The portion destined for the Petersburg market being selected and sorted at Kinchta, acquires the name of Russian rhubarb; while the portion that is sent from Tartary to Smyrna and other places in Turkey is called Turkey rhubarb. The best pieces only are sent to Petersburg; and according to the contract with the government, on whose account it is bought, all that is rejected must be burnt; and that which is approved undergoes a second cleaning before being finally packed up for Petersburg. The best pieces of Russian and Turkey rhubarb are roundish, and perforated with a large hole, of a reddish or yellow colour on the outside, and when cut or broken exhibit a mottled texture, and alternate streaks of red and gray. Its odour is peculiar, and its taste nauseous, bitter, and astringent. It should not be porous, but rather compact and heavy. East Indian or Chinese rhubarb is in oblong flat pieces, seldom perforated; has a stronger odour, and is more nauseous to the taste, than the other; it is heavier, more compact, breaks smoother, and affords a powder of a redder shade. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*, &c.)

Of 95,701 lbs. of rhubarb imported in 1841, 43,640 were brought from China, 8,249 from the Philippines, 7,290 from the East Indies, and 33,710 from the U. States. Only 1,462 lbs. were brought from Russia. The entries for consumption amounted to 42,230 lbs. The duty on rhubarb is 3d. per lb.

RICE (Fr. *Riz*; It. *Riso*; Arab. *Arus*; Hind. *Chawl*), one of the most valuable of the cereal grasses, the *Oryza sativa* of botanists. It is raised in immense quantities in India, China, and most Eastern countries; in the West Indies, Central America, and the U. States; and in some of the southern countries of Europe. It, in fact, occupies the same place in most intertropical regions as wheat in the warmer parts of Europe, and oats and rye in those more to the north. Forming, as it does, the principal part of the food of the most civilised and populous Eastern nations, it is more extensively consumed than any other species of grain. It is light and wholesome, but is said to contain less of the nutritive principle than wheat. When rough, or in its natural state in the husk, it is called *paddy*. There is an immense variety in the qualities of rice. That which is principally exported from Bengal has received the name of *cargo* rice. It is of a coarse reddish cast, but is sweet and large grained, and is preferred by the natives to every other sort. It is not kiln-dried, but is parboiled in earthen pots or caldrons, partly to destroy the vegetative principle, so that it may keep better, and partly to facilitate the process of husking. Patna rice is more esteemed in Europe than any other sort of rice imported from the East. It is small grained, rather long and wiry, and remarkably white. But the rice raised on the low marshy grounds of South Carolina is unquestionably very superior to any brought from any part of India. It may, perhaps, be worth mentioning, that rice, like wheat, oats, and barley, is not indigenous to America. It was first raised in South Carolina from seeds brought from Madagascar, near the end of the 17th century. Its culture increased so rapidly that in 1724 no fewer than 18,000 tierces, or barrels, were exported. — (*Pittin's American Statistic*, 1835, p. 100.) According to the returns under the census of 1840, the total annual produce of rice in the U. States may be estimated at 80,841,422 lbs., or above 36,000 tons, of which about 3-4ths are raised in South Carolina. The value of the exports of rice from the U. States amounted, in 1839, to 2,460,198 dollars; in 1840, to 1,942,076 dollars; and in 1841, to 2,010,107 dollars.

The produce of lands naturally or artificially irrigated is, as far as rice is concerned, from 5 to 10 times greater than that of dry land having no command of water: and hence the vast importance of irri-

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

An Account of the Public Revenue and Expenditure of the U. Kingdom in 1845, 1846, and 1847, exhibiting in detail the various items embraced in the one and the other.—(Parl. Paper, No. 724. Sess. 1848.)

Heads of Income.	PUBLIC INCOME IN THE YEARS					
	1845.		1846.		1847.	
	£	s	£	s	£	s
Customs and Excise.						
Foreign	1,247,102	-	1,307,398	-	1,183,070	-
Spirits	1,102,300	-	1,219,233	-	1,316,140	-
British	5,700,043	-	5,949,161	-	5,835,480	-
Malt	4,914,004	-	5,064,630	-	4,456,738	-
Hops	337,447	-	366,965	-	440,405	-
Wine	1,801,304	-	1,892,212	-	1,700,310	-
Sugar and molasses	3,743,361	-	4,050,416	-	4,594,630	-
Tax	4,533,331	-	5,112,803	-	5,066,454	-
Coffee	717,874	-	756,838	-	746,436	-
Tobacco and snuff	4,802,131	-	4,319,068	-	4,363,702	-
		28,710,075		29,877,584		29,008,041
Butter	965,105	-	136,543	-	132,984	-
Cheese	140,576	-	88,289	-	90,937	-
Currants and raisins	406,863	-	470,263	-	427,889	-
Corn	507,031	-	723,600	-	13,919	-
Cotton wool and sheep's imported	82,708	-	-	-	-	-
Silks	328,985	-	235,377	-	317,615	-
Hides and skins	6,000	-	-	-	-	-
Paper	728,340	-	798,914	-	768,934	-
Soy	904,093	-	965,838	-	897,466	-
Candles and tallow	183,971	-	89,688	-	77,336	-
Cattle, non-horne	16,307	-	1,636	-	4,053	-
Glass	83,034	-	16,322	-	11,448	-
Beicks, tiles, and slates	541,867	-	638,422	-	681,339	-
Timber	1,064,109	-	1,133,674	-	993,463	-
Auctioneers	22,718	-	-	-	-	-
Excise licences	1,009,259	-	1,086,155	-	1,091,563	-
Post-horse duties	176,618	-	179,832	-	167,961	-
Hackney carriages	-	-	-	-	31,614	-
Stage carriages	-	-	-	-	83,223	-
Railways	-	-	-	-	61,948	-
Miscellaneous duties of Customs and Excise	1,092,526	-	845,706	-	804,466	-
		7,620,077		7,412,877		6,567,273
Total Customs and Excise		36,339,150		37,290,461		35,575,314
Mamps.						
Deeds and other instruments	2,135,071	-	1,969,101	-	1,964,639	-
Probates and legacies	2,226,204	-	2,210,202	-	2,264,273	-
Insurance (marine)	140,145	-	150,025	-	180,480	-
(fire)	1,032,159	-	1,056,430	-	1,077,012	-
Bills of exchange, bankers' notes	639,881	-	670,336	-	666,473	-
Newspapers and advertisements	477,697	-	549,050	-	547,489	-
Stage coaches	481,371	-	440,820	-	372,983	-
Receipts	181,392	-	181,369	-	191,969	-
Other stamp duties	401,827	-	651,198	-	606,007	-
		7,371,968		7,672,991		7,671,233
Assessed and Land Taxes.						
Land taxes	1,161,312	-	1,165,659	-	1,134,745	-
Windows	1,693,755	-	1,626,060	-	1,665,320	-
Servants	201,646	-	203,103	-	209,164	-
Horses	307,142	-	303,680	-	315,378	-
Carriages	421,127	-	419,623	-	429,739	-
Dogs	145,331	-	148,413	-	150,629	-
Additional 10 per cent.	291,843	-	264,262	-	292,047	-
Other assessed taxes	319,678	-	321,660	-	341,240	-
		4,441,745		4,474,468		4,533,862
Property and income tax	-	5,182,640	-	5,545,622	-	5,615,651
Post-office	-	1,875,437	-	1,963,857	-	2,181,017
Crown lands	-	447,406	-	394,422	-	430,763
Other ordinary revenue, and other resources	-	500,966	-	427,388	-	325,342
Money from China, under treaty of August, 1842	-	1,142,224	-	667,644	-	-
Total income		57,602,268		58,437,891		56,350,277
Excess of expenditure over income		-	-	-		2,880,138
		57,602,268		58,437,891		59,230,415

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

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Heads of Expenditure.	PUBLIC EXPENDITURE IN THE YEARS					
	1845.		1846.		1847.	
Revenue — Charges of Collection.						
Civil Customs	£ 652,143	-	£ 859,746	-	£ 675,704	-
Departments & Excise	755,513	-	727,237	-	710,282	-
Preventive service, land guard, revenue, police cruisers and harbour vessels	-	1,407,494	-	1,287,583	-	1,284,698
Stamps	-	569,249	-	536,577	-	553,974
Assessed taxes	-	1,969,737	-	1,923,980	-	1,938,667
Other ordinary revenues	-	153,054	-	153,937	-	153,845
Superannuation and other allowances	-	531,503	-	516,204	-	501,926
	-	58,688	-	59,373	-	59,027
	-	264,456	-	264,268	-	273,001
Total Revenue	-	2,876,614	-	2,817,777	-	2,848,494
Public Debt.						
Interest on permanent debt	£ 23,747,792	-	23,667,652	-	23,729,040	-
Terminable annuities	2,906,053	-	2,916,981	-	2,920,374	-
Management	89,492	-	74,024	-	70,222	-
Interest on Exchequer Bills	27,627,287	-	27,656,525	-	27,705,224	-
Total debt	-	28,333,874	-	28,077,987	-	28,141,559
Civil Government. Civil List. Privy Purses.						
Salaries of the household, and tradesmen's bills - The allowances to the several branches of the Royal Family, and to Leopold, King of the Belgiums	371,800	-	371,800	-	371,800	-
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's establishment - The salaries and expenses of the Houses of Par- liament (including printing)	291,005	-	290,000	-	290,000	-
Civil departments, including superannuation al- lowances	28,433	-	26,206	-	26,437	-
Other annuities, pensions and superannuation al- lowances on the consolidated fund and on the gross revenue	104,679	-	102,407	-	98,052	-
Pensions, Civil List	486,780	-	520,253	-	548,448	-
	273,045	-	262,255	-	260,096	-
	7,169	-	8,021	-	8,982	-
Total civil government	-	1,569,297	-	1,582,356	-	1,598,809
Justice.						
Courts of justice	568,678	-	598,244	-	642,924	-
Police and criminal prosecutions	281,295	-	232,927	-	261,753	-
Correction	413,715	-	464,189	-	568,678	-
Total Justice	-	1,263,798	-	1,295,360	-	1,473,355
Diplomatic.						
Foreign ministers' salaries and pensions	175,122	-	175,056	-	171,545	-
Consuls' salaries and superannuation allowances	131,448	-	138,222	-	133,622	-
Disbursements, outfit	46,432	-	37,140	-	41,948	-
Total diplomatic	-	353,070	-	350,818	-	347,115
Forces.						
Army	4,448,605	-	4,467,125	-	5,250,419	-
{ Non-effective charge	2,997,984	-	2,222,504	-	2,289,287	-
Total army	-	6,746,589	-	6,689,629	-	7,540,406
Navy	5,479,119	-	5,431,718	-	6,649,100	-
{ Non-effective charge	1,281,754	-	1,261,746	-	1,264,722	-
Total navy	-	6,800,873	-	7,693,464	-	7,913,822
Ordnance	1,944,082	-	2,107,823	-	2,780,216	-
{ Non-effective charge	166,928	-	165,871	-	187,058	-
Total ordnance	-	2,109,707	-	2,261,534	-	2,967,269
Opium compensation	10,664,169	-	16,864,627	-	18,002,149	-
Bounties, &c. for promoting fisheries	22,821	-	70	-	16,979	-
Public works	11,728	-	11,619	-	16,979	-
Payments out of the revenue of crown lands, for improvements and various public services	010,331	-	726,708	-	748,549	-
Post-office: charges of collection and other pay- ments	230,009	-	226,667	-	240,241	-
Quarantine and warehousing establishments	1,115,228	-	1,128,443	-	1,125,549	-
Miscellaneous, not classed under the foregoing heads	126,295	-	141,966	-	151,649	-
Total expenditure	-	21,668,451	-	21,899,093	-	23,775,235
Surplus of income over expenditure	-	2,729,202	-	2,854,286	-	29,230,416
	-	57,609,268	-	58,427,891	-	59,330,416

* No part of this income is at present paid for the use of King Leopold. The trustees, after discharging certain annuities and pensions to the servants and establishment of the late Princess Charlotte, repay the balance of the annuity to the Receiver: the sum so repaid in the last year was 26,000.

gation in all countries where this grain is cultivated. But it is worthy of remark, that, owing to the not unfrequent occurrence of severe droughts, there is a greater variation in the crops of rice than in those of any other species of grain. Those who, like the Hindoos, depend almost entirely on it for subsistence, are, consequently, placed in a very precarious situation. There can be no doubt that famines are at once more frequent and severe in Hindostan than in any other quarter.

A few years ago, England was principally supplied with cleaned rice from Carolina. Latterly, however, the imports of Carolina rice have been much reduced. An improved method of separating the husk, which throws out the grain clean and unbroken, has been successfully introduced into this country; and as the grain, when in the husk, is found to preserve its flavour and sweetness better during a long voyage than when shelled, large quantities are now imported rough from Bengal and the U. States. Unquestionably, however, the late oppressive discriminating duty of 14s. a cwt. on American and other foreign cleaned rice did more than any thing else to increase the imports of rough grain and the fact of the duty on paddy from Bengal being only 1s. per quarter, while that on paddy from Carolina was 2s. 6d. a bushel, sufficiently accounts for the increased imports from the former. But the duty on foreign cleaned rice having been reduced in 1842 to 6s. a cwt., and on rice in the husk to 7s. a quarter, it is probable that the imports from Carolina will be materially increased. Independently of duties, the consumption is materially dependent on the price of wheat, increasing when its price increases, and falling when it falls. In bad seasons, when wheat is soft and damp, it is usual to mix rice with it in grinding.

Account of the Quantities of Rice imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 7 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries whence it was brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Cwt.						
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	333,041	145,180	312,834	203,823	410,218	308,755	107,535
Burma and Java	11,310	47,384	30,143	31,931	145,056	113,572	45,064
United States of America	3,387	2,974	1,186	562	676	848	143
All other countries	2,990	11,288	820	2,038	12,003	8,748	2,153
Total imported	349,538	186,826	345,083	238,366	577,094	443,918	146,719
Retained for consumption	98,227	73,708	125,694	119,689	301,226	213,330	213,373

Account of the Quantities of Rice (in the Husk) imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 7 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries whence they were brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	Bushels.						
Western coast of Africa	12,916	13,390	4,975	116	1,576	-	2,285
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	39,486	1,704	17,451	15,080	8,938	4,539	1,336
United States of America	259,226	243,145	317,851	307,681	343,058	334,223	322,506
All other countries	623	108	-	2,360	132	389	143
Total imported	302,221	258,727	340,277	316,207	353,704	336,959	327,234
Retained for consumption	177,930	205,450	160,281	169,374	190,351	145,676	262,795

Prices of rice, per cwt., in the London market, on the

	31st December, 1843.		31st December, 1842.		Duties for Home Use.
	s.	d.	s.	d.	
Bengal, ordinary	9	0	10	6	6d. per cwt.
Do. middling and good	11	0	12	6	
Carolina, dressed	21	0	24	0	3s. per cwt.
Do. in bond	15	0	18	0	

RIGA, a city of European Russia, the capital of Livonia, on the Duna, about 9 miles from the sea, lat. 56° 56' 5" N., lon. 24° 0' 4" E. Population in 1838, including garrison, 71,228.

Harbour.—A light-house has been erected on Fort Comet, on the western side of the mouth of the river. It has 2 lights: the first, elevated about 104 feet (Englsh) above the level of the sea, may be seen, under favourable circumstances, at the distance of 4 leagues; and the second, elevated about 24 feet, may be seen at the distance of 2½ leagues. The bar at the mouth of the river has usually from 12 to 13 feet water; and vessels drawing more than this frequently load and unload part of their cargoes by means of lighters at Boldeera, a small town on the west side of the river, near its mouth. There is a fair-way beacon without the bar, in 5 fathoms water; and within, the channel is buoyed with black and white buoys; the black being left on the right or starboard side when entering, and the white on the larboard. Vessels bound for Riga take pilots at Boldeera, who carry them to their anchorage. No ballast is allowed to be discharged, except at Poderague. Regulations as to clearing, &c. similar to those at Petersburg. — (*Couleur sur les Phares*, 2d. ed.; and *Regulations published by the Russian Authorities*.)

Trade.—Owing to its advantageous situation near the mouth of a great navigable river, the trade of Riga is very extensive; being, of the Russian towns on the Baltic, in this respect second only to Petersburg. The trade is chiefly carried on by foreign merchants, particularly by the English. The principal exports are flax and hemp, linseed and hemp seed, timber, corn, tobacco, hides, wool, tallow, &c.; the imports are salt, sugar, coffee, and groceries of all sorts, herrings, indigo, dye woods, cotton and cotton twist, silks, wines, &c.

The mast trade is extensive. The burghers of Riga send persons who are called mast brokers into the U. provinces to mark the trees, which are purchased standing. They grow mostly in the districts which border on the Dnieper, are sent up that river to a landing place, transported 30 versts to the Duna, when, being formed into rafts from 50 to 300 pieces, they descend the stream to Riga. The tree which produces the largest masts is the Scotch fir. Those pieces which are from 18 to 25 inches in diameter are

called masts; under those dimensions, spars, or, in England, Norway masts, because Norway exports no trees more than 18 inches in diameter. Great skill is required in distinguishing those masts that are sound from those which are in the least internally decayed. They are usually from 70 to 80 feet in length.

The best kind of fax shipped from Riga is grown in White Russia, and is called *Druana rakitser*; its colour is very white, and the threads long, fine, and loose, but it has sometimes black spots; it is of a quality coming from the province of Trockia in Lithuania, is called Lithuanian rakitser, and is very little inferior to *Druana*, but its colour is a little brown; of this kind the best sort is *Thiesenhausen*. The best kind of Courland fax shipped from Riga is *Marienburg*; that grown in Livonia is inferior. There are two kinds of linned: that of the last crop, which is used for sawing; and that of former years, for crushing. To prevent deception, the year of its growth is stamped on the barrel by sworn inspectors (*brachters*). Hemp-seed is mostly shipped for Holland. Riga wheat is inferior to that of Danzig. Two descriptions are shipped — one the growth of Russia, the other of Courland; the last is the best, being larger bodied and of a brighter colour than the Russian; still, however, it makes but indifferent flour. Oats are of a good quality, and are largely exported; peas are also occasionally exported.

In shipping masts, the rest of the cargo generally consists of deals and wainscot logs; the latter are much exported to England, and are very superior.

Money. — For the monies of Riga, see *Perrassuaud*.

Weights and Measures. — The commercial pound is divided into 3 marcs, or 32 loths; and also into halves, quarters, &c. It contains 6,452 English grains. Hence 100 lbs. of Riga = 92.17 lbs. *svetirdupols* = 41.8 klog. = 89.33 lbs. of Hamburg = 84.64 lbs. of Amsterdam. The lipound = 20 lbs.; the shipbound = 20 lipounds.

The loof is the measure for grain; 48 loofs = 1 last of wheat, barley, or linned; 46 loofs = 1 last of rye; and 60 loofs = 1 last of oats, malt, and beans. According to Kelly, the loof = 1.0375 Winchester bushels; and, consequently, the last of wheat = 11.625 quarters. *Neikenbrecher* does not value the loof quite so high as Kelly.

The fuder, the measure for liquids, is divided into 6 ahms, 24 ankers, 120 quarts, or 720 stoofh. The anker = 10½ English wine gallons.

The foot of Riga = 10.79 English inches. The ell = 2 feet; the clafter = 6 feet.

The following accounts of the trade of Riga have been taken from the official statements given in the excellent articles on Riga, published in the *Supplement au Journal de l'Interieur* for 1843 (pp. 33—48.) a detailed official account of the imports into and exports from Riga in 1841 will be found in the art. *Perrassuaud*.

Account of the Value of the Imports into and Exports from the Port of Riga during each of the 19 Years ending with 1842, and of the Number and Tonnage of the Ships engaged in its Trade during each of these Years.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Value of Paper Rouble in Silver.	Ships.	Tonnage.
	<i>Paper roubles.</i>	<i>Paper roubles.</i>	<i>Cop.</i>		<i>Tons.</i>
1824	15,915,868	41,065,798	27	938	155,694
1825	16,897,020	45,160,537	27 1-7th.	1,002	24,187
1826	14,494,059	34,936,335	27 1-7th.	1,002	160,692
1827	16,410,876	40,666,078	27	998	199,098
1828	15,449,990	35,718,004	28½	1,168	157,374
1829	16,014,735	36,688,257	27 3-10th.	1,403	185,218
1830	15,747,489	41,126,500	27½	1,841	174,000
1831	11,684,006	37,246,121	27	1,579	172,798
1832	19,178,890	39,805,813	27 3-10th.	1,522	199,140
1833	11,726,651	35,588,368	27 7-10th.	1,529	187,118
1834	10,369,055	30,082,796	28	614	111,570
1835	11,837,171	30,629,779	28½	914	127,798
1836	12,426,907	44,038,979	28	1,033	169,192
1837	12,761,662	34,943,874	28½	1,140	192,666
1838	12,147,907	45,711,004	28 4-7th.	1,372	183,758
1839	16,438,141	35,397,180	ditto.	1,685	231,408
1840	13,815,018	36,364,339	ditto.	1,047	152,932
1841	13,973,435	40,092,104	ditto.	1,065	156,110
1842				1,213	

Account of the Exports of Corn from the Port of Riga in the Year 1817, and during each of the 10 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Total.
	<i>Chetverts.</i>	<i>Chetverts.</i>	<i>Chetverts.</i>	<i>Chetverts.</i>	<i>Chetverts.</i>
1817	126,735	997,350			1,124,145
1818	1,718	435	8,068	15,978	18,139
1819	13,227	1,991	25,759	17,960	69,947
1820	16,645	28,990	77,378	59,278	201,291
1821	11,839	97,471	5,905	35,157	150,372
1822	59,533	316,632	79,528	16,522	482,215
1823	234,507	205,718	62,018	92,600	694,844
1824	57,356	319,559	39,083	81,925	487,923
1825	181,242	515,699	95,480	216,034	1,008,455
1826	72,438,141	64,913	119,150	29,837	78,588
1827	5,691	74,617	10,348	4,973	85,629
1828	156	9,031	12,470		13,657
1829	604	1,08	3,848		5,511
1830	3,101	4,090	10,340	1,680	19,211
1831	784	96,939	11,536	107,951	110,697
1832	11,054	297,999	35,321	17,682	350,056
1833	55,837	498,244	109,934	264,271	928,286
1834	6,920	17,535	60,663	74,718	159,836
1841	8	19,836	13,837	6,513	45,235
1842	3,994	49,732	22,440	28,271	105,157

Statement showing the Quantities of the principal Articles of Merchandise imported into Riga during each of the 4 Years ending with 1841.

Principal Articles.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Sugar, raw	148,015	137,294	148,644	141,598
Coffee	14,768	14,543	14,159	15,844
Salt	1,778,742	1,015,696	1,841,441	1,696,118
Herrings	27,887	31,000	poods 61,636	
Wines	3,022	5,690	3,292	3,708
	57,093	65,411	75,534	89,787

Statement showing the Value of Timber and the Quantities of Hemp, with the Quantities and Values of the Flax, Lincseed, and Hempseed exported from Riga during the following Years.

Years.	Timber.		Hemp.		Years.	Flax.		Lincseed and Hempseed.		
	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.		Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	of both.
1816 to 1820 av.	1,257,605		608,437		1816 to 1827 av.	2,539,570		10,258,000		
1821 - 1825	9,065,303		623,178		1828 - 1837	1,496,455		506,317		
1836 - 1840	9,265,598		698,198		1838	1,539,570	18,235,790	988,820	10,258,000	7,527,088
1821 - 1835	5,509,513		749,861		1839	2,565,784	14,183,358	249,498	59,121	1,071,670
1836 - 1840	9,278,889		967,626		1840	1,498,754	10,980,817	197,478	45,209	6,817,807
1841	7,265,714		997,186		1841	1,611,684	17,569,864	348,989	25,165	10,970,363
1842	9,818,656		1,044,800		1842	1,792,009		357,801	100,254	cht.

We borrow from a different, but not less authentic source, the following details as to the trade of Riga in 1842.

No fewer than 416 British ships arrived at Riga in 1842. The value of merchandise exported in 1842 was 2,616,373*l.* *ss.* 4*d.*, being an increase of 290,671*l.* *ss.* 4*d.* over the previous year. The value of that shipped for the U. Kingdom was 1,967,710*l.* *ss.* 4*d.*, being more than a moiety of the total exports.

There have been shipped, in 1842, 89,171 tons of flax, and 824 tons codilla, the exportation to the U. Kingdom being—

Flax. Tons. 55,540
In 1841, 55,540 flax, 710 codilla
In 1841, 29,428 — 490 —

The exports of flax to France were 2,428 tons, to Spain about 500 tons, and to Portugal 767 tons. The flax in hand at the end of the shipping season was of the new growth, the quality of which, especially the Livonian flax, is generally approved. The last prices for fresh flax were—

F. T. N.	55	1	6	
F. T. N.	34	8	4	
F. T. N.	31	10	8	
N. T.	25	17	6	
Crown M.	36	3	6	
Superior H.	31	11	6	
H.	53	10	6	

There have been exported in—
Flax. Tons. 17,644
1841, 16,224 —
Hemp, and 4,165 codilla
1841, 1,685 —

Of these were shipped to the U. Kingdom—

Flax. Tons. 127,867
In 1842, 8,708 hemp; 1,099 codilla
1841; 10,471 — 263 —

The prices of hemp in January 1842 were—

R. H.	27	14	0
D. H.	28	2	0
F. H.	32	8	0

For ten free on board.

It may be well to mention that the hemp shipped for the British navy contract cut in many instances, from its superior quality, 4*ss.* and even 100*ss.* per ton more than the common *R. H.* as above quoted.

There was shipped to all countries 178,891 barrels of lincseed, of which 46,870 barrels were for the U. Kingdom. The exports of hempseed were 164,851 barrels, of which only 5,664 barrels went to the U. Kingdom.

The shipments of oats were—

Quarters. 9,777
1842, 4,532 wheat, 36,518 *rye*, 15,449 barley, 40,846 oats
1841, 13,514 — 7,943 — 18,313 —

3,777 quarters wheat, the whole of the oats (30,856 quarters) and barley (9,779 quarters) were shipped for the U. Kingdom. The exportation of all sorts of wool to the U. Kingdom was as follows:—

Years.	Waincoat Logs.			Pipe Hhd. Staves.	Deals.	Timber.		Spars and Bowspits.
	Square.	Round.	Square.			Round.		
1842	8,313	198	9,516	116,492	17,134	1,705	499	
1841	2,112	75	2,187	171,441	15,368	1,708	392	

The total exportation being—

Years.	Waincoat Logs.			Pipe Hhd. Staves.	Deals.	Timber.		Spars and Bowspits.
	Square.	Round.	Square.			Round.		
1842	9,260	272	373,561	215,854	79,999	4,280	1,610	
1841	3,796	121	290,160	316,677	67,589	3,407	1,947	

The quality of timber denominated "crown fir timber" has lately become very scarce, so that the greater part of the Riga exports consist of the second quality, or what is called "Verschiffungs brack timber." There is no essential dif-

ference in the quality of crown timber, and timber of the second quality, except that the latter is knottier than the former.

RIO DE JANEIRO, the capital of Brazil, on the Atlantic, in lat. 22° 54' 15" S., lon. 43° 15' 50" W. Population 200,000. The harbour of Rio is one of the finest in the world, both as respects spaciousness and security for all sorts of vessels. In coming from the N.E. it is usual to make Cape Frio, in lat. 23° 1' 18" S., lon. 42° 9' 19" W., being about 4 leagues nearly E. of Rio. The entrance to the harbour is marked by a remarkable hill in the form of a sugarloaf, 900 feet high, close to its west side; while on the east, or opposite side of the bay, at the distance of about 1½ mile, is the fort of Santa Cruz. But the wood-cut in the next page, taken from a chart published by order of the Brazilian authorities, gives a much better idea of this noble harbour than could be obtained from any description.

Entrance to the Harbour. — Vessels bound for Rio, coming from the N., should, after rounding Cape Frio, steer due W., keeping about 2 leagues from the coast, until they come within 5 or 6 miles of the *Illa Rasa*, or Flat island lying almost due S. from the mouth of the harbour, at the distance of about 3 leagues. A light-house, the lantern of which is said to be elevated nearly 300 feet above the level of the sea, was erected on this island in 1829. The light is a revolving one, finishing its revolution in 3 minutes, and exhibiting alternately a white and a red light. There is also a light-house in the fort of Santa Cruz, the light of which is fixed, and elevated about 50 feet above the level of the sea. — *Coulier sur les Phares*, (ed. ed.) Having got within 5 or 6 miles of the *Illa Rasa*, ships may enter by day or by night, the dotted line in the cut marking the fair-way into the harbour. There are no pilots to be met with; and as there are no hidden dangers of any kind, their services are not wanted. On entering, vessels must pass within half of Fort Santa Cruz, to be ready to answer any questions that may be put to them. They then proceed to Fort Vilaglion, below or opposite to which they must bring to, or come to anchor, allowing no boats to come alongside, but those of the government, until they have received *patentes*, when they will be permitted to proceed to the usual place of anchorage for the merchant shipping.

The sea breeze generally sets in about 11 a. m., and lasts till about sunset. It is strong enough to enable ships to overcome the ebb. High water at full and change at 2 in the afternoon.

Money, Weights, and Measures. — All payments are made in paper money, which has been over-issued, and is excessively depreciated. But in ordinary cases the par of exchange may now be assumed at about 3*d.* sterling per patriotic dollar, of 1620 reis paper. Weights and long measures are the same as those

of Lisbon, the arroba being 32½ lbs. avoirdupois; but measures of capacity are different, a medida being equal to 5064 Imperial galls., and an alquiere to 1'11 ditto.

Trade. — The trade of Rio is extensive, and has increased rapidly of late years. It is now by far the greatest mart for the export of coffee. The shipments of this important article, which in 1830 amounted to 396,785 bags, have increased with such unexampled rapidity, that, in 1846, they amounted to 1,511,096 bags, that is (taking the bag at

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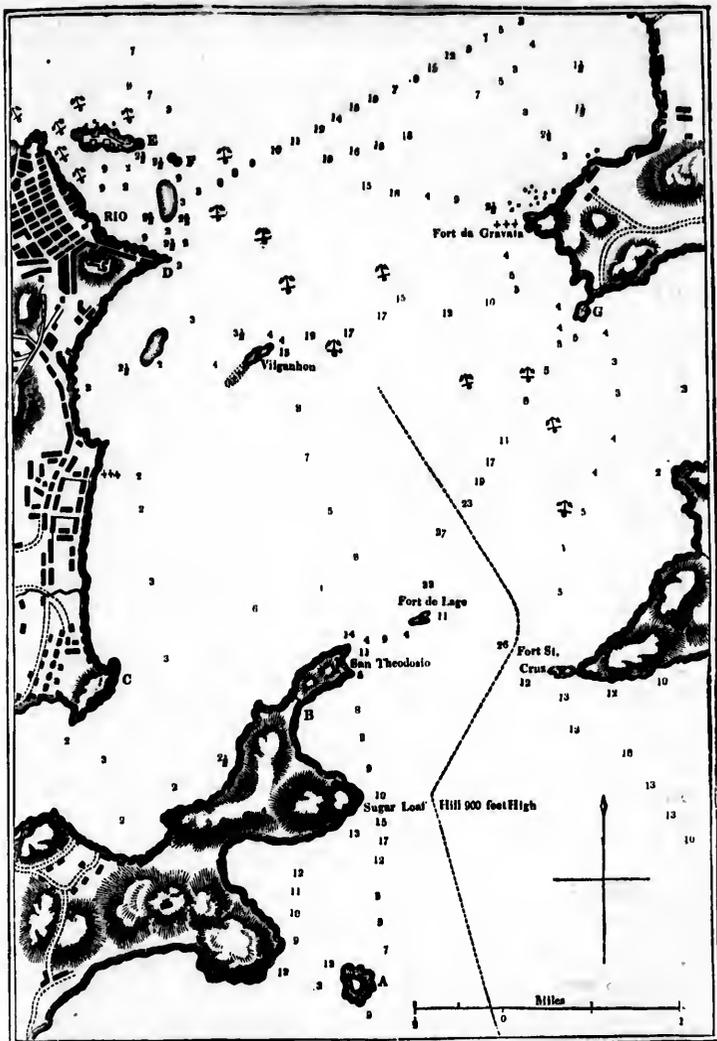
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References to Plan.—A, Ilha do Catunduba. B, Fort de St. Joao. C, Morro do Flamengo. D, Ponta do Calhabouco. E, Fort da Ilha das Cobras. F, Ilha dos Rattos. G, Fort da Boa Viagem.

154 lbs.), to 232,708,784 lbs., or 103,888 tons; being nearly equal to all the exports of coffee from all the other ports in the world! Sugar is also an important article of export from Rio, though latterly it has been decreasing, and hardly now exceeds 10,000 cases (13 cwt. each). The other great articles of export from Rio are hides, rice, tobacco, rum, tapioca, ipecacuanha, manioc flour, and other inferior articles. The export of cotton has almost entirely ceased; and that of gold, diamonds, &c. is mostly clandestine. Diamonds are principally exported from Bahia. We subjoin,

An Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Native Produce exported from Rio during each of the Five Years commencing with 1846; showing also the Increase or Diminution, in 1846, upon the Average of the Five Years.

Years.	Cleared outwards.		Coffee.	Sugar.	Hides.	Horns.	Tanned half hides.	Rice.	Rum.	Rose-wood.	Ipecacuanha.	Tobacco.	Tapioca.	
	Pcs.	Tons.												
1846	668	199,858	214,098	8,115	394,598	345,199	17,291	18,918	5,664	1,456	49,788	18,423	4,701	
1845	584	174,230	1,908,069	14,559	815,689	308,616	18,399	27,274	4,725	8,183	37,281	15,003	7,494	
1844	571	167,616	1,480,431	11,515	369,185	541,456	15,506	14,975	5,804	938	4,968	21,679	6,123	
1843	590	171,207	1,185,583	9,453	545,970	513,051	32,323	18,187	5,808	1,201	-	16,161	4,683	
1842	568	169,275	1,179,731	15,460	199,089	389,285	29,928	16,191	5,441	1,830	19,113	31,270	5,988	
Average 5 years	596	175,596	1,969,769	11,819	304,520	418,517	23,692	16,508	3,770	1,777	30,189	30,919	5,371	
Increase in 1846	72	23,467	841,587	-	90,066	-	-	-	-	81	39,599	-	-	
Decrease in 1846	-	-	-	-	2,897	-	73,218	3,401	2,995	106	-	-	9,436	871

The Coffee shipped in 1845 and 1846 was distributed as follows:—

Destination.	Bags.		Destination.	Bags.	
	1845.	1846.		1845.	1846.
Antwerp	79,553	56,047	Prussia	8,019	8,631
Bremen	26,946	25,085	Russia	15,965	15,108
Cape of Good Hope	18,533	23,169	Spain	-	1,401
England and Channel	75,019	84,550	Sweden	-	38,653
Denmark	31,134	40,261	Trieste	-	59,468
France	37,270	39,159	United States	-	551,276
Hamburg	145,869	177,536	Venice	-	3,469
Holland	-	-	Other ports	-	1,496
Mediterranean	131,604	168,469			
Portugal	13,410	19,018			
			Total	1,206,062	1,611,096

Account of the Arrivals and Departures of shipping, Coastwise and Foreign, during the Five Years commencing with 1846.

Years.	Coastwise.				Foreign.			
	Arrivals.		Departures.		Arrivals.		Departures.	
	Pcs.	Tons.	Pcs.	Tons.	Pcs.	Tons.	Pcs.	Tons.
1846	2,530	180,120	2,493	189,256	231	218,819	1,034	321,728
1845	2,273	168,272	2,382	178,136	878	904,266	681	974,555
1844	2,458	169,516	2,434	176,356	753	170,869	799	840,835
1843	2,659	156,611	2,769	186,581	854	122,305	849	255,983
1842	2,029	146,257	2,015	155,081	803	183,606	775	241,769
Average	2,536	185,275	2,290	168,976	844	123,975	868	867,045

The principal article of import consists of cotton goods, the value of which amounts to full one third of the total value of the imports. Next to cottons are woollen, linen, and silk manufactures, wines, jewellery, and ironmongery; flour, meat, fish, butter, and other articles of provision; spirits, salt, earthenware, paper, and a host of other articles.

The total direct importation of manufactured cottons, linens, silks, and woollens, since 1841, has been in 1842, 81,975 packages; 1843, 30,998; 1844, 35,579; 1845, 39,821; 1846, 36,766; giving an average, for the five years, of 34,908 packages.

Of the whole the cottons were, in 1842, 19,462 packages; 1843, 22,853; 1844, 25,779; 1845, 31,150; 1846, 30,086; being an increase, in 1846, upon the average of the five years, of 3,465 packages, or rather more than 15 per cent.

The following statement shows the quantities of cottons received from each of the principal contributing countries during each of the five years ending with 1846.

Imported from	Correns. — Packages.				
	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.
Great Britain	14,059	14,455	19,205	20,000	22,986
United States	5,327	7,356	4,554	8,831	4,866
France	1,317	1,109	1,296	1,527	1,242
Hanse Towns	678	677	827	402	404

The customs duties at Rio, in 1840, amounted to 1,929,822 rs. on imports, and to 1,920,406 rs. on exports. Of the 668 ships that cleared outwards from Rio in 1846 for foreign ports 67 were British, their total burden being 18,646 tons, the rest being Americana, French, &c.

The entire exports of sugar from Brazil may amount to from 90,000 to 25,000 tons a year: viz. from Rio, 8,000 tons; Bahia (the principal port for the export of sugar), 50,000 tons; Pernambuco, 30,000 tons; Santos, and other ports 7,000 tons; making, in all, 95,000 tons. But the exports have not increased within the last few

years; and now that labour is becoming scarcer and dearer, in consequence of the increasing difficulties thrown in the way of the importation of slaves, it is doubtful whether they will be maintained, and whether the exports of coffee will not also decline. The latter, indeed, is now selling at a price hardly sufficient to defray the cost of its production. The exports of cotton are not very extensive, and have for a lengthened period been nearly stationary. Hides are a very important article of export.

Port Regulations.—The captain of every ship entering Rio, or any other port of Brazil, is ordered by a law enacted in 1845:

1. To go directly with his vessel from the entrance of the harbour to the anchorage ground in *Praya Grande*; and if, on account of the tide, contrary wind, or any other just cause, he should be compelled to come to anchor, he shall remain anchored for twelve hours after sold hindrance are removed (except in case of being quarantined), he shall pay a fine of 100,000 reis, and shall be compelled, by the port, or by a government vessel of war, (whichever may be nearest,) to proceed immediately to the *Praya* anchorage ground.

2. He shall not suffer any kind of vessel to board him, nor any person to come on board, or to leave his vessel, before he has been visited from the custom-house, receiving first the pilot, health officer, the vessel officer at the entrance, when there is one, and in the case of shipwreck, or for the saving of lives.

3. Every after the custom-house visit on arrival, and until the vessel is discharged, he shall allow no person to come on board without a written permission from the officers of the customs; and this permission shall be given in the following cases, viz.:

A. To allow the buyers of goods to go on board to examine the cargo they wish to purchase, when sufficient specimens cannot be sent on shore.

B. To workmen and labourers necessary to put the cargo in order, taking care to have them examined when they go on board and return. In case of the infraction of the above regulations, a fine shall be imposed on him from 100,000 to 300,000 reis for every vessel he allows to board him, and of 500,000 for each person who shall enter, leave his vessel without licence, unless he be a passenger or belonging to the crew; and every other person who goes on board or leaves the vessel shall pay 100,000 reis for each time in custom duty payment is made. The one third part of these fines shall be paid to the nearest watchman or military who shall have taken up the offence.

C. He shall deliver to the *guarda-mor* (chief customs officer), when he makes his visit on arrival, his passport and cargo book.

D. He shall deliver to the commander of the guard-house without the port, if he be there, or at the *Frangia*, if he be there, the manifest as described below.

E. He shall enter at the custom-house within 24 hours after the *guarda-mor* has been on board, not counting the days on which the custom-house is shut, and present himself to the inspector, and swear, or affirm, that he has not on board of his vessel any merchandise other than what is described in the manifest for the day, and that he has no further declaration in risks; and if he do not enter within the 24 hours, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each day's delay additional.

F. If he shall detain his vessel at either of the anchorages more than 24 hours, when he shall be visited by the *guarda-mor*, or his representative, to remove thence, he shall pay 100,000 reis for every day he detains the vessel.

G. He shall discharge no part of his cargo but by an order in writing from the inspector; and if he land any without such order, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each package so landed.

H. He shall give notice to the officer attending the discharge of the vessel, as soon as his cargo is discharged, that he has nothing remaining on board. If he omit to do this on the same day, that the vessel may be immediately examined, he shall be fined 100,000 reis.

I. The master of every vessel going with a cargo to any part of the empire, must have two manifests of the cargo, exact copies of each other, exhibiting the name, class, and tonnage of the vessel; the name of the captain, whose signature must follow the date; the name of the port where the articles stated in the manifest were taken on board; the name of the port or ports for which the vessel is destined; the marks or number-marks and numbers of the packages, and their description, as boxes, casks, pipes, kegs, pipes, barrels, &c.; a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandise of each package, or several similar ones of the same mark, and also of what is on board in bulk; the names of the consignees, or to order; all to be written at length, except the numbers of the packages.

11. When the vessel has taken in her cargo at more than one port, there must be two manifests from each port.

12. At the end of the manifest, the captain shall declare the number of passengers, whether cabin or steerage, and the baggage for the use of each, and in addition any declaration necessary for his security; and in good faith he shall declare whether he has any package to add to the manifest, or whether any are deficient, with the reason of it, as no other declaration will relieve him from responsibility, for he will not be exempted upon the vague declaration of a manifest made, which do not account for deficiencies or differences.

13. The captain of any vessel bound to Brazil, when he has completed his cargo at the port or ports which he is to sail, and made the manifests, as required in the 9th article, shall present his documents to the Brazilian consul residing in the port, who shall examine them, and if agreeable to these regulations, certify them.

14. In those ports where there is no Brazilian consul or substitute, the manifests shall be certified by two Brazilian consular merchants or, if there be none, by two merchants of the place in either case, the signatures to be authenticated by legal authority.

15. Should any greater quantity of goods be found on board than are stated in the manifest or the declaration of the captain, the surplus shall be seized and divided amongst those who are seized upon, after paying the duties, and the captain shall pay a fine of half the value of the goods.

16. If there are any goods missing of those stated in the manifest or declaration of the captain, they shall be reputed to be concealed or smuggled, and he shall pay the value thereof to

those who have discovered the deficiency, and half the value to the national treasury. These condemnations shall take place on the simple fact of there being an overplus or deficiency of goods, without further proof being required.

17. For each difference in the quality or mark of the package, the captain shall pay 2,000 reis, although in every other respect the goods discharged may agree with the manifest.

18. The captain whose manifests are not conformable to these regulations, shall be fined from 100,000 reis to one *coto de reis*, at the will of the collector, and according to the degree of culpability that shall appear, and be accorded discharge until the fine is paid.

19. In case the captain brings on manifest, he may still be allowed to discharge, by paying 5 per cent. on the value of the cargo, in addition to the usual duties.

Frangia.—Vessels proceeding to Brazil, and when it is wished to dispose of their cargoes at different ports, must clear out for "Brazil and other ports," or for "Fernambuco, Rio de Janeiro, and other ports." They are then entitled to the privilege of *Frangia*, and may land a part of their cargoes at one port, paying duties only on the goods so landed, and proceeded with the remainder to other ports. But if they clear out for one port only, they are compelled to make a complete entry, and discharge the whole of the cargo.

In proceeding from one Brazilian port to another, it is necessary that a bill of health should be taken from the local authorities of each port; and where any part of the cargo is landed, the same must be noted on the original manifest by the customs officer of the port.

Anchorages.—Foreign vessels pay, in all ports of the empire, 10 reis per ton per day, from the 5th day after their entry.

Light-house.—The light-house duty, 100 reis per ton, for all vessels over 40 tons departing from ports where there is a light-house. Vessels under 40 tons are exempted from this duty.

Port-duty.—On all vessels not crossing the bar at the harbour of Rio de Janeiro, the following charges are levied, viz. of three masts, 18,800 reis; of two masts, 9,600 reis; and of one mast, 5,400 reis.

The duty is 40 reis for every written half-sheet.

Health.—Visit of the physician is fixed at 8,000 reis; but in case the vessel is made to perform quarantine, then another sum of 8,000 reis is payable on the admission of the vessel to free passage.

Expenses.—A vessel of three masts pays 6,000 reis; brig, corvette, and yacht, 4,000; pinasses, 1,500; bark, 1,200. Each one of the ship's company of vessels sailing for a foreign port pays 400 reis.

Weights of Merchandise.—It is customary that the expense of landing and shipping a cargo on freight should be paid by the vessel, unless the contrary be stipulated in the bills of lading.

When harts (Spanish) cigars are transported for, in contracts of freight, they should be so expressed in the instrument of contract, to prevent dispute.

Purchases of produce are paid for in cash, and sales are made on stipulated credits, but nominally for cash.

Bills on London are sent out for the purchase of produce in Brazil; the credit must have the co-operation of the London house.

Anchorages Dues in Brazil Ports.—The anchorage dues fixed by law of 23d October, 1835, are now superseded by a tax of 3 *ris-dollars* per ton, payable, one half on entering, and one half on sailing; by all merchant vessels on foreign trading, with the following restrictions:—

Ships arriving in ballast, and going away the same, will pay the said anchorage; if taking cargo, they will pay half the present dues.

Ships entering to get fresh provisions, or to "Praya Grande" to try the market, but do not discharge, pay only the said anchorage. If they merely discharge part of cargo, pay only half of present dues.

Ships entering under average or in distress, pay nothing if they do not discharge, or only discharge the necessary for repairing.

Ships carrying colonists subject to some modifications. Ships entering three times in one year, only pay anchorage dues the first two voyages.

The government is authorized to modify the import, as soon as the treaty with Great Britain expires, as may seem most suitable for the encouragement of the national shipping trade to foreign ports, or to the whole or part of the anchorage dues on foreign shipping may not be increased.

Rio, June 26, 1845.

Rate of Commission charged at Rio.

- 5 per cent. on sale of merchandise.
- 2½ per cent. on purchase of merchandise, with funds in hand, on amount of cost and charges.
- 2½ per cent. guarantee on amount of sales on credit.
- 2½ per cent. for ordering or indorsing, and negotiating bills.
- 2½ per cent. on purchase or sale of stocks by private contract.
- 2½ per cent. on amount of vessels condemned by surveys.
- 2½ per cent. for procuring or collecting freights.
- 2½ per cent. on disbursements of vessels in common cases, with funds in hand.
- 5 per cent. on disbursements of vessels when funds are advanced, or in case of condemnation, or in vessels entering for repairs only.
- 1 per cent. on receiving and forwarding goods; and
- 2½ per cent. on amount of responsibility incurred thereon.
- 1 per cent. on receiving and paying money on which no other commission is levied.
- ½ per cent. on purchase or sale of specie.

the exports of article of w exceeds are hides, cles. The is mostly

Rio during in 1846, upon

Tobacco.	Tea.
18,438	7,541
15,003	6,123
18,151	4,583
31,270	3,988
90,919	5,378
2,436	671

1846.
5,638
15,108
1,401
43,805
77,923
727,265
25,759
1,576
1,611,096

g the

Exports.	Value.
281,728	274,553
240,835	255,883
241,769	267,043

ch amounts ollen, linen, butter, and mer articles.

2,2489 pack- 31,100) 1846, the average of the than 10 per cent.

pal contribut-

1846.
25,965
4,866
1,242
404

ports, and to Rio in 1846

the rest being 25,000 tons of sugar, 7,000 tons; the last few

per cent. for effecting marine insurance on the amount insured; and when the premium exceeds 10 per cent., 2 per cent. on the amount of premium.
 2. In consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.

per cent. per month on all cash advanced.
 3. No interest allowed on money on deposit.
 4. No commission on all dry goods.
 5. In the case of discharging and reshipping the cargoes of vessels in distress, on the invoice amount, 14 per cent.
 6. No per cent., or half the commission charged on sales of merchandise, will be returned to supercargoes, but nothing on investments of other business.

Account showing the Quantities of the principal Articles of Brazilian Produce imported into the United Kingdom during the 10 Years ending with 1842, and showing, also, the Quantities of the same Articles entered for Consumption during these Years.

Articles.	1833.		1834.		1835.		1836.		1837.	
	Quantities imported.	Quantities entered for Consumption.								
Cocoa, lbs.	3,409,803	36,138	1,591,600	4,909	1,678,799	499	183,998	638	856,486	3,855
Coffee, lbs.	3,549,753	435	5,310,865	416	4,117,401	708	8,979,719	1,877	7,607,376	469
Hides, untanned, cwt.	28,508	21,571	49,799	17,551	18,487	20,830	18,709	18,709	16,006	7,388
India rubber, or caoutchouc, cwt.	5,594	8,818	1,530	9,995	999	1,174	107	493	836	604
Sarsaparilla, lbs.	15,077	19,777	28,803	12,461	99,987	16,909	1,718	1,831	12,842	2,426
Sugar, unrefined, cwt.	198,198	49	79,135	81	61,848	9	170,121	9	110,218	15
Teopica, cwt.	942	1,277	886	605	1,005	1,000	5,759	3,483	2,132	2,469
Brazil wood, tons	601	519	261	543	1,108	1,000	493	390	527	8
Rosewood, tons	447	1,049	1,569	1,077	9,781	3,800	1,010	1,775	1,717	1,307
Wool, cotton, lbs.	22,463,821	27,255,980	19,891,596	20,028,856	24,986,409	24,767,078	27,001,272	25,006,704	20,947,145	20,842,520

Articles.	1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Quantities imported.	Quantities entered for Consumption.								
Cocoa, lbs.	801,780	414	186,465	2,011	67,300	9	999,794	96	185,726	248
Coffee, lbs.	10,373,713	978	3,268,549	1,190	8,608,616	29,895	5,191,605	1,226	6,835,540	47,013
Hides, untanned, cwt.	28,465	16,627	27,961	18,725	24,190	14,569	13,615	14,801	44,897	21,523
India rubber, or caoutchouc, cwt.	1,714	1,804	4,254	5,574	4,590	4,716	4,999	4,615	1,986	4,787
Sarsaparilla, lbs.	-	11,078	9,494	4,141	4,603	780	1,800	663	3,573	5,637
Sugar, unrefined, cwt.	86,515	28	197,010	26	116,019	1,045	560,065	27	260,068	9
Teopica, cwt.	462	1,240	492	558	683	1,069	1,870	1,679	2,225	2,224
Brazil wood, tons	703	81	773	86	688	683	683	127	127	608
Rosewood, tons	964	1,790	1,737	1,456	1,491	1,544	2,408	1,623	1,069	1,890
Wool, cotton, lbs.	24,464,505	24,727,512	15,071,970	17,069,250	14,779,171	15,998,644	10,811,418	14,000,988	16,222,228	15,524,916

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the U. Kingdom to Brazil in each Year, from 1838 to 1842, both included.

Articles.	1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.								
Apparel, slops, haberdashery, &c.	-	11,076	-	13,667	-	15,991	-	16,129	-	14,630
Arms and ammunition	-	27,814	-	17,185	-	10,000	-	12,276	-	15,146
Beer and ale	548	7,009	658	11,595	8,917	19,635	6,464	14,381	16,801	
Brass and copper manufactures.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Butter and cheese	5,111	25,585	7,960	27,865	1,001	40,914	6,207	83,508	33,043	
Cotton manufactures, entered by the yard	80,454,079	1,599,906	75,065,681	1,618,088	76,848,489	1,651,548	73,878,410	1,408,738	-	
hosiery, lace, and small wares	-	27,906	-	31,506	-	33,564	-	68,470	-	
Earthenware of all sorts	4,575,137	35,275	4,028,598	35,011	6,199,780	30,424	6,368,699	38,163	38,276	
Glass entered by weight	15,782	19,317	10,535	17,090	17,109	17,686	19,031	19,106	21,145	
Hardware and cutlery	14,561	61,970	17,911	64,087	10,965	66,991	15,227	48,071	60,756	
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	3,568	50,287	3,848	59,271	4,356	69,290	4,491	69,303	53,013	
Linen manufactures, entered by the yard	6,626,555	165,424	7,094,830	111,658	8,446,171	131,661	8,075,594	845,927	132,454	
Machinery and mill-work	-	15,257	-	16,711	-	17,997	-	17,698	-	
Wife manufactures	-	18,609	-	16,000	-	16,000	-	20,217	-	
Soup and candles	-	4,024,075	-	4,456,435	-	67,816	-	8,763,593	-	
Woolen manufactures entered by the piece	76,056	204,371	76,697	211,668	80,490	278,899	106,614	298,893	-	
Do. do. by the yard	258,425	10,618	103,111	4,548	169,419	19,258	280,724	43,687	228,508	
hosiery and small wares	-	4,225	-	6,606	-	16,436	-	9,122	-	
All other articles	-	184,717	-	169,418	-	16,436	-	107,716	-	
Total	-	3,866,694	-	4,630,713	-	4,620,805	-	4,566,564	-	

Remarks on the Trade of Brazil. — The imports into Brazil, which are chiefly from Great Britain, consist principally of our cottons, woollens, linen, hardware, and other manufactures, amounting in all, in ordinary years, as seen above, to about 2,600,000. It is frequently, no doubt, said that our exports to Brazil amount to double that sum, or to more than 5,000,000. But there is no room or ground for any such statement. The return is not derived from Brazil, but from our own Custom-house; and there is no reason why the merchants should undervalue the exports to Brazil more than to any other country.

The duties on all imports have for several years past been 15 per cent. on the tariff value, which averages fully 20 per cent. or more on the real value of British goods.

There are, also, duties on exports, which vary on different articles, and at different ports. On coffee they amount to about 10, and on sugar to about 12 per cent. But it is unnecessary to enter into any lengthened statements with respect to these duties, as it is all but certain that they will speedily undergo very material changes. Indeed a commission was appointed on the 17th May, 1843, for the avowed purpose of framing a new tariff, in which the duties on most articles were to be fixed at from 24 to 60 per cent. *ad valorem!* Our readers are aware that the mission recently sent by the British government to Rio to negotiate a new commercial treaty in the place of that which expires in November next (1844), failed of its object. This failure was occasioned, as is alleged, by our declining to make any sufficient reduction in the present exorbitant duty on Brazil sugar. It is certain, however, that such reduction would be even more advantageous to us than to the Brazilians. It would not only give a great stimulus to our trade with Brazil, by allowing it to flow in a direct instead of forcing it into an indirect channel, but it would also be of signal advantage to all classes of people in this country.

A reduction of the duty on Brazil and other foreign sugar to 30s. or 32s. a cwt. would go far to enable us to get 2 lbs. of sugar for the same price we now pay for 1 lb. And we have elsewhere shown that it is mere drivelling to suppose we should give, by so doing, any greater encouragement to slavery in Brazil than we give to it by our present system.—(See art. *SUOAA.*) The existing exorbitant duty on Brazil sugar is good for nothing, unless it be to deprive our people of an adequate supply of a most important necessary, to narrow our exports to Brazil, to force us to carry our returns in the first place to Hamburg and other continental emporiums, instead of bringing them direct to England, and, consequently, by laying our merchants under difficulties, to give a bonus to the Americans, Hanseatics, Austrians, and other foreigners now engaged in the trade. The truth is, that in insisting upon an effectual reduction of the duty laid in this country on foreign sugar, the Brazilians insisted on that which was most for our advantage. If we but reduce the duty in question, we need give ourselves, in so far at least as this matter is concerned, no further trouble about any thing else. Should the Brazilian government enact an oppressive tariff, it will redound only to their own disadvantage, and will have little or no influence over our interests. It will not be more effectual than the edicts of the Chinese against the importation of opium. If we open our ports under reasonable duties to the peculiar produce of Brazil, we may be quite sure that our products will, despite every obstacle, find their way to the Brazilian markets.

The commerce of Brazil has sustained great injury from the wretched state of the currency and of the finances; the value of the former, which consists almost wholly of paper, being excessively depreciated and liable to extreme fluctuations, and the revenue being inadequate to meet the expenditure. Latterly, however, vigorous efforts have been made to increase the revenue; and it is hoped that, in the event of the finances being placed on a better footing, measures may also be taken to improve the currency.

Trade between Brazil and the Hanse Towns in 1842.

The following statement of the trade between Brazil and the Hanse Towns, Hamburg, and Bremen, for the year 1842, is derived from Brazilian official documents:—

Arrived from Hamburg, in the different ports of the empire, 66 vessels, measuring 19,122 tons, with 791 men as crews, and 124 passengers, of which 31 Hamburgers, 22 Danes, 5 Swedes, 7 Bretons, Lubec, and Prussia, 1 English, with cargoes of an official value of \$1,619,417. The exports to Hamburg were effected in 119 vessels, measuring 38,808 tons, and 1,480 men, of which 85 loaded at Rio Janeiro, 35 at Bahia, 10 at Pernambuco, 9 at Maranham and Rio Grande. Of these, 33 were Hamburgers, 24 English, 23 Danes, 17

Swedes, 10 Bretons, Dutch, and Prussian, 3 French, 3 Portuguese, 2 Russian, 2 American, 2 Austrian, 1191 with cargoes of an official value of \$7,734,201, showing an export in favour of Brazil of no less than \$5,615,536. This export consists of 844,345 bags, 168 bbls., coffee; 22,529 chests, 3,743 bbls., bags, boxes sugar; 56,934 pieces hides; 1,171 bales cotton; 1,116 bags cocoa; 295,746 cocoa nuts; besides Yachrawia wood, caoutchouc, roll tobacco, balsam copal, sarsaparilla, &c. Arrived from Bremen, 15 ships, 2,777 tons, 120 men, of which 3 American vessels and 12 ships sailed to Bremen, 2,960 tons, 139 men, of which 1 American, value of export \$849,700! import \$80,865.

"The quantity of precious stones shipped is now very considerable. In most cases they are sent to a losing market; being, in fact, more valuable in Brazil than in London or Paris. Aquamarines—(see *BRASIL*)—of a very large size has been found. In January, 1811, one was found in the Ilberero das lowing, one was discovered weighing 4 lbs. Topazes of fine quality, but seldom large, amethysts, and chrysolites, are also articles of exportation and, at times, some fine specimens of these gems are to be met with in the jewellers' shops.

"Correctly speaking, there are no trading companies in Rio de Janeiro: there is a society for effecting maritime assurances, but no other.

"The Bank of Brazil has had very extensive concessions made in its favour, and ought to be in a flourishing state. It has the power of issuing notes; and all disputed monies and property of the deceased and absent (*mortes e ausentes*) must be placed in its hands, and 2 per cent. per annum charged for the care and trouble. This, in addition to the interest which might be obtained for the deposit, would alone, in an active mercantile country, form no inconsiderable revenue. Specie is prohibited from being carried coastwise; merchants who wish to deposit cash in one of the northern ports, where the largest purchases are made, are therefore forced to take hand bills, and pay a premium for them, varying from 3 to 5 per cent.

"Some enormous capitals have been amassed; but generally the speculations of the native merchants are conducted on a very limited scale.

"The legal rate of interest is 6 per cent.; but money can seldom be obtained under 12."—(*Cold-cloth's Travels in South America*, vol. 1. p. 63—59.)

ROADS, pathways formed through the country with more or less art and care, for facilitating the transit of individuals, carriages, &c. between different places. They are

of vessels
sales of mer-
al nothing on

nd into the
Quantities

1837.	
Quantities entered for Consumption.	Quantities entered for Consumption.
46,458	5,855
37,575	452
16,006	7,288
936	604
2,844	2,496
10,210	15
1,142	2,489
927	8
1,717	1,307
40,145	20,822,502

1842.	
Quantities entered for Consumption.	Quantities entered for Consumption.
85,768	248
35,945	47,915
44,397	21,520
1,966	278
6,574	3,537
60,068	9
2,225	824
1,271	638
1,069	1,290
22,225	15,554,516

Manufacture
ided.

1842.	
Declared Value.	Declared Value.
16,189	14,630
12,276	15,148
12,331	16,501
25,503	35,083
66,223	65,156
406,758	819,530
68,470	39,976
28,183	38,976
19,196	21,415
48,071	50,756
59,300	55,013
243,997	159,441
17,098	24,011
39,217	31,896
10,116	45,284
998,225	858,208
23,037	
8,132	
107,714	187,139
4,586,564	1,756,800

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of every variety of form—from rude, narrow, rugged, and unformed paths, carried over mountains, interrupted by every petty rivulet, and almost impracticable to any but foot passengers, to smooth, broad, and level ways, formed of solid materials, winding round or cut through mountains, and carried over swamps and rivers at an immense expense, and admitting of the easy passage of carriages and of all sorts of goods.

The laying out of improved roads, and their construction, forms an important part of what is denominated the science of civil engineering. But as it would be quite foreign to our purpose to enter into any details as to the formation of roads, we shall satisfy ourselves with laying before the reader the following statements as to their importance in a commercial point of view.

Importance and Utility of improved Roads.—Next to the introduction of money, and weights and measures, the formation of good roads and bridges gives the greatest facility to commerce, and contributes more powerfully, perhaps, than any thing else to the progress of improvement. They have been denominated national veins and arteries; and the latter are not more indispensable to the existence of individuals, than improved communications are to a healthy state of the public economy. It were vain to attempt to point out in detail the various advantages derived from the easy means of communication that exist in Great Britain. There is not a single district that is not indebted to others for a large part of its supplies, even of some of the bulkiest commodities. Besides the coals, metals, minerals, timber, corn, &c. conveyed from one part of the empire to another by sea, immense quantities are conveyed from place to place in the interior, by roads and canals; and every improvement effected in the means of conveyance has obviously the same effect upon the cost of commodities that have to be conveyed, as an improvement in the methods by which they are raised or manufactured.

Wherever the means of internal communication are deficient in a country, the inhabitants must unavoidably disperse themselves over the surface. Cities were originally founded by individuals congregating more, perhaps, for the sake of mutual defence and protection, than for any other cause. But in countries where good government is established, and property is secure, men resort to cities only from a sense of the advantages they afford. The scale on which business is conducted in them presents facilities that cannot be elsewhere afforded for making a fortune; and the extent to which the subdivision of employments is carried opens a field for the exercise of all sorts of talent: at the same time that it improves and perfects all sorts of arts, whether subservient to industrious or scientific pursuits, or to those of pleasure and dissipation. It is this that attracts the aspiring, the industrious, the gay, and the profligate, to cities,—that fill them with the best and the worst part of the species. The competition that takes place in a great town, the excitement that is constantly kept up, the collision of so many minds brought into immediate contact, and all endeavouring to outstrip each other in their respective departments, develops all the resources of the human mind, and renders a great city a perpetually radiating focus of intelligence and invention. There are, however, considerable clogs upon the continued increase of cities. The food and fuel made use of by the inhabitants, and the raw products on which their industry is to be exerted, must all come from the country; and according as the size of a city increases, the distances from which its supplies have to be brought become so much the greater, that ultimately the cost of their conveyance may be so great as to balance or exceed the peculiar advantages resulting from a residence in town. Hence the impossibility of a large or even a considerable city existing any where without possessing extensive means of communication either with the surrounding country, or with other countries; and hence, too, the explanation of the apparently singular fact, of almost all large cities having been founded on a bay, near the sea, or a navigable river. Had London been an inland town, 50 miles from the shore, it is abundantly certain that she could not have attained to one third part her present size; but the facilities afforded, by her admirable situation on the Thames, for the importation of all sorts of produce from abroad, as well as from other parts of England, will enable her, should her commerce continue to prosper, to add to her colossal magnitude for centuries to come.

But all towns cannot be founded on the sea coast, or the banks of navigable rivers: and the growth of those in inland situations must, in all cases, depend on their means of communicating with the surrounding country. Without our improved roads, the great inland manufacturing towns with which England is studded, such as Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bolton, Preston, &c., could not exist. They enable the inhabitants to obtain the rude products of the soil and the mines almost as cheap as if they lived in country villages. There is thus nothing, or next to nothing, to detract from the advantages which the inventive and enterprising artisan may expect to realise from resorting to those great hives of industry. And, owing to the gigantic scale on which all sorts of industry are conducted in them, the scope afforded for the employment of the most powerful machines, and the appropriation of particular sets of workmen to

every separate process, however minute, manufacturing industry is carried to a degree of perfection that almost exceeds belief.

The influence that the growth of a large town has upon agriculture is great and striking. "In the neighbourhood," says Paley, "of trading towns, and in those districts which carry on a communication with the markets of trading towns, the husbandmen are busy and skilful, the peasantry laborious; the land is managed to the best advantage, and double the quantity of corn or herbage (articles which are ultimately converted into human provision) raised from it, of what the same soil yields in remoter and more neglected parts of the country. Wherever a thriving manufactory finds means to establish itself, a new vegetation springs up around it. I believe it is true, that agriculture never arrives at any considerable, much less at its highest, degree of perfection, when it is not connected with trade; that is, when the demand for the produce is not increased by the consumption of trading cities." — (*Moral Philosophy*, book vi. c. 11.)

But the fact of their being mainly conducive to the growth of cities, is not the only advantage which improved roads confer upon agriculture. Without their aid it would be impossible to carry to distant places sufficient supplies of such bulky and heavy articles as lime, marl, shells, and other manures necessary to give luxuriance to the crops of rich soils, and to render those that are poor productive. Not only, too, would inferior roads lessen the market for farm produce, and consequently the quantity raised, but a larger proportional number of horses or other cattle would be required to convey the diminished produce to market. It is plain, therefore, that good roads are both directly and indirectly a prime source of agricultural improvement; directly, by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of manure, and by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of conveying farm produce to market; and indirectly, by providing for the growth and indefinite extension of cities and towns, that is, of the markets for agricultural produce.

Increased speed of conveyance is one of the principal advantages that have resulted from the formation of good roads, the invention of steam packets, &c. Suppose that it takes 2 days to travel by an uneven, ill-made road between any 2 places; and that, by improving the road, the journey may be accomplished in 1 day; the effect is the same as if the distance were reduced $\frac{1}{2}$; and there is not only a great saving of time to travellers, but also a great saving of cost from the more speedy conveyance of commodities. This latter is a point of much more importance than is commonly supposed. It is not possible to form any correct estimate of the value of the products that are constantly in the act of being carried from place to place in Great Britain and Ireland. It is certain, however, that it is very great; and every additional facility of conveyance, by bringing such products more rapidly to their destination, and enabling them to be sooner applied to the purposes for which they are intended, renders large quantities of capital available for industrious purposes, that would otherwise be locked up.

Mode of defraying Costs of Roads. — Roads of one sort or other must, of course, exist in every country emerged from barbarism, — but in England, the statute of the 28th of Philip and Mary, which is still in force, is the first legislative enactment in which a regular provision was made for the repair of the roads. The preamble to this statute declares, that the roads were tedious and noisome to travel on, and dangerous to passengers and carriages; and therefore it enacts, that in every parish 2 surveyors of the high ways shall be annually chosen, and the inhabitants of all parishes obliged, according to their respective ability, to provide labourers, carriages, tools, &c. for *four* days each year, to work upon the roads, under the direction of the surveyors. This system, though in many respects exceedingly defective, was at the time justly considered a great improvement, and answered pretty well till the reign of Charles II., when, owing to the increase of carriages, particularly about London, it became necessary to adopt more efficient measures for the formation and repair of roads; and the plan of imposing tolls upon those who made use of them began then to be adopted. But this system was not carried into full effect, and placed upon a solid footing, till about 1767, when it was extended to the great roads to all parts of the country; the contributions of labour under the act of Philip and Mary being then appropriated entirely to the cross or country roads. A money payment is now, however, very frequently made, in the case of the latter, instead of a contribution in labour.

When the plan for extending turnpike roads from the metropolis to distant parts of the country was in agitation, the counties in the neighbourhood of London petitioned parliament against it, alleging that the remoter counties would be able, from the comparative cheapness of labour in them, to sell their produce in London at a lower rate than they could do; and that their rents would be reduced, and cultivation ruined, by the measure! Luckily this interested opposition proved ineffectual; and instead of being injurious to the counties adjoining the metropolis, the improvement of the roads has been quite as beneficial to them as to those at a distance, inasmuch as, by providing for the indefinite extension of the city, it has rendered it a far better market for their pecu-

liar productions, than it would have been had its growth been checked; which must have been the case long ago, had the improvements in question not been made.

The plan of making and repairing roads by contributions of labour is not peculiar to England, but was at one period general all over Europe. By an act of the Scotch parliament, passed in 1669, all persons engaged in husbandry were obliged to labour 6 days each year, before or after harvest, upon the public roads: the farmers and landlords being, at the same time, obliged to furnish horses, carts, &c. according to the extent of land occupied by them. The inconveniences of such a system are many and obvious. Those who get no pay for their work, and who perform it against their will, waste their time and industry; and there is, besides, a great loss incurred by the interruption of the regular pursuits of the labourer. A sense of these disadvantages led, in the early part of the reign of George III., to a commutation of the labour contribution for a money tax on land, rated according to its valuation in the cess books. This measure has been productive of the best effects. Previously to its taking place, the roads, even in the best cultivated districts of Scotland, were in the worst possible state, whereas they are now about the very best in Europe.

A similar system has been followed on the Continent. When Turgot entered on his administration, he sent a circular letter to the road surveyors and engineers of the different provinces of France, desiring them to transmit estimates, framed on the most liberal scale, of the sums of money for which the usual repairs might be made on the old roads, and the ordinary extent of new ones constructed. The average of the estimates showed that a money contribution of about 10,000,000 livres a year would suffice for these objects; whereas Turgot showed, that the execution of these repairs and constructions, by contributions of forced labour, or *corvées*, cost not less than 40,000,000 livres.—(Art. *Taxation*, *Ency. Brit.*)

There is still, however, a great deal of labour performed on the cross and country roads of England under the system established by the act of Philip and Mary. Its continuance is most probably to be ascribed to the want of any ready means for its commutation.

It is the duty of government to furnish assistance towards the formation of roads and bridges in parts of the country where they are necessary, and where the funds required for their formation cannot otherwise be obtained. But it is in such cases extremely desirable, in order to prevent government from being deceived by interested representations, that those more immediately concerned in the undertaking should be bound to contribute a considerable portion of its expense. This has been done in the case of the Highland roads. Down to a very recent period, large tracts in the Highlands were quite inaccessible, and were, consequently, in a great measure shut out from all improvement; while the rugged nature of the country and the poverty of the inhabitants rendered any attempt to construct improved roads an undertaking beyond their means. Under these circumstances, government came forward and engaged to advance the expense of making roads and bridges in certain districts, on condition that the landlords and others interested should advance the other $\frac{1}{2}$, and that the work should be executed under the direction of parliamentary commissioners and engineers. This arrangement has been highly beneficial. Through its means above 600 miles of excellent roads have been constructed; and, in consequence of the easy means of communication they afford, a spirit of improvement has been excited even in the wildest and least frequented districts.

Dr. Smith seems to have inclined to the opinion, that the roads of a country would be better attended to, and more economically managed, were they placed under the control of government, than when they are left to be planned and superintended by private individuals. But this opinion does not seem to rest on any good foundation. It is, perhaps, true that a few of the great roads between the principal towns of a country might be better laid out by government surveyors, than by surveyors appointed by the gentlemen of the different counties through which they pass. But these great roads bear but a very small proportion to the total extent of cross and other roads with which every country either is, or should be, intersected; and, besides, it is abundantly certain, that when the formation of the great roads is left, as in Great Britain, to the care of those who, either by themselves or their tenants, have to defray the greater part of the expense of their construction and repair, they will be managed, if not with greater skill, at least with far more economy, than if they were intrusted to the agents of government. M. Dupin has set this matter in the clearest point of view, in his remarks on the administration of the roads in France and England. In the former they are entirely under the control of government; and the consequence is, that while there is a useless expenditure upon a few great roads, the cross roads are almost entirely neglected, and the facilities of internal intercourse are incomparably inferior to ours.

Sir Henry Parnell, who published the best treatise on road-making in the English language, while he approves of the system of local trusts, proposes that measures should

be taken for increasing the responsibility of the trustees, and that every trust should be obliged to submit its accounts to the inspection of some public board. We have no doubt that this plan would be in several respects advantageous. Perhaps, however, the object in view, in making accounts be submitted to a public board, might be attained by the erection of local tribunals for their inspection. We should be extremely jealous of any plan, how advantageous soever in other respects, that might lead to the employment of government surveyors generally in the laying out of roads, or to any material abridgment of the powers of the private trusts.

Length of Roads, Cost, &c. — The total length of the different paved streets and turnpike roads in England and Wales amounts to about 20,000 miles. The expenditure by the trustees, on account of these roads, in 1841, amounted to 1,551,336*l.*; the revenue for the same year being 1,574,518*l.*: of the total expenditure, 302,182*l.* went to defray interest of debt. — (*Parl. Paper* No. 580. Sess. 1843.) The length of the various cross roads and other highways, exclusive of turnpikes, is estimated at about 95,000 miles.

Tolls. — In fixing the rate of tolls, great care should be taken to keep them as low as possible. When they are either too much multiplied, or too high, they have a very pernicious influence. They then operate as a most oppressive and unequal tax on commerce; and obstruct that intercourse they are intended to promote. The same remark is applicable to all sorts of dock and harbour dues, light-house dues, &c. When confined within due bounds, they cannot justly be objected to; for nothing can be fairer than that those who benefit by such increased facilities and security in the prosecution of their business should pay for them. But whenever they exceed the proper limits, they tempt the navigator to resort to ports where the charges are lower, and to direct his course through more insecure but less costly channels.

Improvement of Roads. — It is not easy for those accustomed to travel along the smooth and level roads by which every part of this country is now intersected, to form any accurate idea of the difficulties the traveller had to encounter a century ago. Roads were then hardly formed; and, in summer, not unfrequently consisted of the bottoms of rivulets. Down to the middle of last century, most part of the goods conveyed from place to place in Scotland, at least where the distances were not very great, were carried, not by carts or wagons, but on horseback. Oatmeal, coals, turf, and even straw and hay, were conveyed in this way! At that period, and for long previously, single-horse traffickers (cadgers) regularly plied between different places, supplying the inhabitants with such articles as were then most in demand, as salt, fish, poultry, eggs, earthenware, &c.: these were usually conveyed in sacks or baskets, suspended one on each side the horse. But in carrying goods between distant places, it was necessary to employ a cart, as all that a horse could carry on his back was not sufficient to defray the cost of a long journey. The time that the carriers (for such was the name given to those that used carts) usually required to perform their journeys seems now almost incredible. The common carrier from Selkirk to Edinburgh, *thirty-eight* miles distant, required a *fortnight* for his journey between the two places, going and returning! The road originally was among the most perilous in the whole country; a considerable extent of it lay in the bottom of that district called Gala-water, from the name of the principal stream, the channel of the water being, when not flooded, the track chosen as the most level, and easiest to travel in!

Even between the largest cities, the means of travelling were but little superior. In 1678, an agreement was made to run a coach between Edinburgh and Glasgow, a distance of 44 miles, which was to be drawn by six horses, and to perform the journey from Glasgow to Edinburgh and back again in six days. Even so late as the middle of last century, it took $1\frac{1}{2}$ day for the stage coach to travel from Edinburgh to Glasgow, — a journey which is now accomplished in $4\frac{1}{2}$ or 5 hours.

So late as 1763, there was but one stage coach from Edinburgh to London, and it set out only once a month, taking from 12 to 14 days to perform the journey. Previously to the late opening of the railway, by which they have been in a great measure superseded, there were, exclusive of steam packets, smacks, &c., 3 or 4 coaches which set out each day from Edinburgh for London, and conversely, performing the journey in from 45 to 48 hours. — (*Robertson's Rural Recol.* pp. 39—44.)

The effects of this extraordinary improvement in the means of travelling, especially since the introduction of railways, have been as striking on the manners as on the industry of all classes. The remark of Smith, that "man is the least transportable species of luggage," is no longer true as applied to Great Britain. During spring, the metropolis is crowded with visitors of all ranks and orders from the remotest provinces; and during summer and autumn vast numbers of the citizens are spread over the country. Hence it is, that manners, as well as prices, are reduced nearly to the same standard. A respectable family in Penzance or Inverness live very much in the same way as a respectable family in London. Peculiarities of all sorts have disappeared; every thing

is, as it were, brought to a level; the fashions and opinions of the metropolis are immediately diffused over every part of the country, while those that originate in the latter powerfully influence the former.

ROPE consists of hemp, hair, &c. spun into thick yarn, of which several strings are twisted together by means of a wheel. When made very small, it is called a cord; and when very thick, a cable. All the different kinds of this manufacture, from a fishing-line, or whip-cord, to the cable of a first-rate ship of war, go by the general name of cordage. — (See **CABLE**.)

ROSEWOOD (Ger. *Rosenholz*; Fr. *Bois du rose, de Rhode*; It. *Legno rodie*; Sp. *Leno de rosa*; Port. *Pao da rosado*) is produced in Brazil, the Canary Islands; in Siam, whence it is pretty largely exported by the Chinese; and in other places. It is in the highest esteem as a fine wood. The width of the log imported into this country averages about 22 inches, so that it must be the produce of a large tree. Rosewood has a slightly bitterish, somewhat pungent, balsamic taste, and fragrant smell, whence its name. It should be chosen sound, heavy, of the deepest colour, in the largest pieces that can be procured, and of the most irregular knotty grain. The small, light-coloured and large shivered pieces should be rejected. The more distinct the darker parts are from the purple red, which forms the ground, the more is the wood esteemed. It is usually cut into veneers of nine to an inch. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*, &c.)

Rosewood, which is one of the dearest as well as most beautiful of the fancy woods, is principally used in veneering. Its consumption has more than quintupled since 1820. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1822, the exports for home consumption were 277 tons a year, whereas they amounted, during the 3 years ending with 1841, to 1,307 tons a year! This increase is principally to be ascribed to the reduction of the duty, in 1830, from 20*l.* to 10*l.* a ton, and in 1836, to 6*l.* But we are glad to have to state that the duty was further reduced, in 1842, to 4*l.* per ton when imported from a foreign country, and to 2*l.* per ton when imported from a British possession.

ROSIN. "This substance is obtained from different species of fir; as the *Pinus abies*, *sylvestris*, *larix*, *balanuca*. It is well known that a resinous juice exudes from the *pinus sylvestris*, or common Scotch fir, which hardens into tears. The same exudation appears in the *pinus abies*, or spruce fir. These tears constitute the substance called *resin*, or frankincense. When a portion of the bark is stripped off these trees, a liquid juice flows out, which gradually hardens. The juice has obtained different names, according to the plant from which it comes. The *pinus sylvestris* yields common turpentine; the *larix*, Venice turpentine — (see **TURPENTINE**); the *balsamea*, balsam of Canada — (see **BALSAM**), &c. All these juices, which are commonly distinguished by the name of turpentine, are considered as composed of two ingredients; namely, oil of turpentine, and rosin. When the turpentine is distilled, the oil comes over, and the rosin remains behind. When the distillation is continued to dryness, the residuum is known by the name of common rosin, or *colophonium*; but when water is mixed with it while yet fluid, and incorporated by violent agitation, the mass is called *yellow rosin*. During winter, the wounds made in the fir trees become incrustated with a white brittle substance, called *barras* or *galipot*, consisting of rosin united to a small portion of oil. The yellow rosin, made by melting and agitating this substance in water, is preferred for most purposes, because it is more ductile, owing, probably, to its still containing some oil. The uses of rosin are numerous and well known." — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

ROSTOCK, the principal city of the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, on the Warnow, about 9 miles above where it falls into the Baltic, lat. 54° N., long. 12° 12' E. Population, in 1837, 18,067. A large fair for merchandise is annually held at Whitsuntide; and there are wool fairs at other seasons of the year.

The outport of Rostock is at Warnemunde, at the mouth of the Warnow. The depth of water at the latter varies from 10 to 12 feet; but when the west pier, now in the course of being constructed, has been completed, it is expected that the depth of water will be from 12 to 14 feet. The depth of water in the river from Warnemunde up to Rostock is usually from 8 to 9 feet; so that vessels drawing more than this must be lightened to get up to the latter. Rostock has a good harbour and commodious quays.

Money. — Rostock and all Mecklenburg reckon by six-dollars now, two thirds of 4*l.* shillings. The six-dollar contains 199½ grains pure silver, and is worth nearly 3*l.* 4*s.* 3*d.* sterling.

Weights. — The commercial weights are the same as those of Hamburg, which see. There are, however, other weights, introduced in 1751, which are 5 per cent. heavier than

the above. They are principally used in the trade with Russia. **Measures**. — The Rostock foot = 11.38 Eng. inches. The ell = 4 feet. The last contains 96 schellis; the last used in the measuring of oats = 144 imp. quarters = 42 hecolitres; the last used in the measuring of other grain = 144 imp. quarters or 37.5 hecolitres. — (*Ady's Commerc.*)

Imports. — The principal articles of import are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; cottons, woollens, and hardware, with coal, earthenware, salt, iron, horses, &c., from England; hemp, flax, tallow, oil, sail-cloth, &c., from Russia; alum, deals, timber, lime, tar, &c., from Sweden; herrings and fish oil from Norway; wine, brandy, molasses, drugs, &c., from France; with rice, rum, groceries, &c., from Copenhagen and Hamburg. The total value of the imports by sea may be estimated at about 250,000*l.*

Exports. — These consist chiefly of very good red wheat, barley, peas, rappeded, and a few oats; with wool, rags of a very superior quality, oil cake, rape oil, bones, &c. The exports of wheat amounted in 1840 to 97,562 quarters, and in 1841 to 124,267. In 1840, the exports of peas from Rostock only were 9,563 quarters; but from the duchy they amounted to 43,013 quarters; but at an average their export does not exceed from 30,000 to 35,000 quarters. The export of bones amounted during the same year to 1,550,000 lbs. At an average the value of the exports may be estimated at 300,000*l.*

Shipping. — The port of Rostock had, in 1840, 230 ships of the burden of 35,332 tons, which trade with most European nations, the U. States, and Brazil. In 1835, there entered the port 540 ships (burden not stated), of which 215 belonged to Mecklenburg, 152 (mostly small craft) to Denmark, 83 to Sweden, 27

to Hanover, 18 to Prussia, 12 to Russia, 19 to Holland, 10 to Lubek, 2 to Hamburg, and 1 each to France and England. It is only, in fact, when our ports are open to the importation of foreign corn that British ships are met with, in considerable numbers, in the ports of Mecklenburg.

Port Charges.—These are the same on native and privileged ships, among which are included those of England, France, America, Prussia, Norway, &c. The port charges on a vessel of 100 tons burden are as follow, viz. :—

	P.	1.	2.	Not privileged.
Inward with cargo	12	10	10	10
Outward ditto	12	10	10	10
Inward in ballast	12	6	12	6
Outward ditto	12	6	12	6
Ditto without either	17	12	12	12

Duties.—These are extremely moderate. On most imported articles they amount to only 3 per cent. *ad valorem*. An export duty of about 5d. per quarter is charged on corn, and of about 4d. per hhd. on wine. Wool is not subject to any duty on export. Goods imported in vessels not privileged pay 60 per cent. additional on the above duties; that is, they pay 4s. instead of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Wismar, the second sea-port town of Mecklenburg, at the confluence of the river Stör with the sea, in lat. 53° 49' 26" N., long. 11° 36' 15" E. Population 11,000. The harbour of Wismar is commodious and safe, being nearly land-locked by the islands of Poel and Wollsch. Close to the town there is from 8 to 8½ feet water; in the inner roads there is from 12 to 13 feet; and in the outer from 15 to 20 feet water. The port charges on a native or privileged vessel of 100 tons amount to about 30 rix-dollars. The articles of import and export are the same at Wismar as at Rostock; but owing to the proximity of Lubek, from which Wismar is not more than 27 miles distant, her foreign trade is comparatively limited. About 85 ships, of the burden of 4,800 tons, belong to this port. There cleared from it, in 1855, 277 ships, of which 11 were English. The duties at Wismar are somewhat higher than at Rostock, being 4½ per cent. *ad valorem* on colonial products, and from 4d. to 8d. per quarter on corn exported. It is believed, however, that they will shortly be reduced to the Rostock level.

General Remarks on the Trade of the Duchies.—Mecklenburg is essentially an agricultural, wool-growing, grazing, and breeding country. In some places it is sandy and barren; but it is for the most part very fertile, and the crops and pastures are both luxuriant. Having few manufactures, her imports necessarily consist principally, as already stated, of manufactured goods, and her exports of raw produce. Owing, however, to the circumstance of the south-western part of the province being bounded by the Elbe, and approaching to within about 30 miles of Hamburg, almost all the manufactured goods, as well as a very large proportion of the colonial products used by the population (550,000), are imported by way of Hamburg. Hence, in Mecklenburg, as in Prussia, the direct foreign trade carried on by the sea frontier forms but a very small part of the entire trade of the country. It is impossible, however, to form any precise estimate of what the latter may amount to. Probably there is no European country so little fettered by customs regulations as Mecklenburg. The duties on articles imported by sea amount only, as already stated, to about 3 per cent. *ad valorem*; and those entering by the land frontier are subject merely to a trifling charge, on account of toll, of which we have not seen any account. It is impossible, indeed, that any commercial system can be bottomed on more liberal principles; and this enlightened policy, and her situation near the mouth of the Elbe, and on the western frontier of the Prussian league, give to Mecklenburg far greater importance, as a commercial state, than is indicated by the amount of her population, or her internal consumption.

ROTTERDAM, on the north bank of the Maese, in lat. 51° 55' 19" N., lon. 4° 29' 14" E. Population, in 1840, 78,098. Rotterdam is the second commercial city of Holland. It is more advantageously situated than Amsterdam; being nearer the sea, and the canals which intersect it are so deep as to admit of the largest vessels coming up to the quays and warehouses of the merchants. Its commerce, during the last 15 years, has increased more rapidly than that of any town in Holland. The exports and imports are similar to those of Amsterdam. The white Zealand wheat shipped here is of a peculiarly fine quality; and it is the best market for madder and geneva. Our imports of madder from Holland in 1841 amounted to 35,334 cwt., most of which came from Rotterdam. — (See MADDER.) Geneva is sold by the aam; but, for the convenience of smuggling to England, it is divided into ankers and ½ ankers. The legitimate imports of geneva from Holland in 1841 amounted to 464,537 gallons.

N.E.—The channel from the sea to Rotterdam is exhibited in the chart of the Dutch coast in the map of Europe in this work.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—See the article AMSTERDAM, for an account of the current monies, weights, and measures of Holland.

Two different commercial lbs. were formerly used at Rotterdam: one was the Amsterdam weight, 100 lbs. of which = 100.85 lbs. avoirdupois; the other used by retailers, was 2 per cent. lighter, 100 lbs. of it being = 103.48 lbs. avoirdupois.

The Rotterdam bush of corn = 16.44 Winchester bushels. The same = 40 English wine gallons very nearly. A hoghead of fix-seed contains from 7½ to 8 Winchester

bushels. Rock salt is sold per great hundred of 404 masts, containing from 21 to 22 tons. Coals per hood = ¼ a chudron of Newcastle.

The liquid measures were divided in the same manner as at Amsterdam, but were larger; thus, 100 stooks of Rotterdam were = 57½ English wine gallons. Brandies were sold per 30 viersta; whale oil, per 90 stooks; vegetable oils per 300 stooks.

The ell is the same as at Amsterdam. 100 feet of Rotterdam = 109½ feet of Amsterdam, or 102 English feet.

Tares and Allowances.

	Tares.	Drafts.	Allowances.		Tares.	Drafts.	Allowances.
Coff. Surinam	3	6	per cent.	1	per ct.	1	per ct.
St. Domingo	10	10	per bale	1	—	1	—
Houboon	24	10	—	1	—	1	—
Niocha	24	10	—	1	—	1	—
Java	14	10	per bale	1	—	3	—
Sugar, Jamaica	18	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Surinam	30	10	—	1	—	1	—
East India bags	10	10	—	1	—	1	—
Have chests below	454	10	per chest	1	—	1	—
above	15	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Sugar—continued.							
Martinique	15	10	per cent.	1	per ct.	1	per ct.
St. Domingo	6	10	—	1	—	1	—
Cotton	6	10	—	1	—	1	—
Hides, Buenos Ayres	2	10	per hide	1	—	1	—
Tobacco, Virginia	3	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Logwood	3	10	—	1	—	1	—
Pimento	3	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Indigo	3	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Pepper	3	10	per bale	1	—	1	—
Whale oil	3	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—
Madders	3	10	per cent.	1	—	1	—

RUBY. — RUM.

Statement of Imports, Sales, &c. — continued.

	1859.			1860.			1861.			1862.			1863.		
	Impts.	Sales.	Stcks.	Impts.	Sales.	Stcks.									
Sugar (tons) —															
E. I. Rotterdam	20,908	14,513	5,923	18,000	23,011	814	29,746	19,594	5,566	18,756	19,073	2,029	20,450	18,316	4,023
W. India, Gc.	2,724	2,907	76	2,027	2,133	-	2,990	2,854	196	2,697	2,283	908	4,953	2,719	83
E. I. Amsterdam	37,368	18,036	8,692	20,519	23,948	2,890	27,483	27,031	3,724	33,460	28,036	4,024	26,599	29,709	2,415
W. India, do.	26,109	26,243	2,278	27,413	28,913	2,718	27,717	21,538	6,700	22,940	20,820	2,010	23,504	20,314	2,004
E. I. Middleburg	4,111	2,523	-	1,600	1,600	-	1,146	1,146	-	3,894	3,660	834	2,130	2,373	-
W. India, do.	168	449	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	77,687	73,426	16,139	74,018	84,859	5,259	92,068	85,139	14,208	73,197	74,084	9,305	76,087	76,226	9,563
Tee (gr. chests) —															
Rotterdam	8,030	9,660	7,700	1,791	6,617	3,874	2,703	4,183	2,394	7,900	10,094	270	7,784	7,488	818
Amsterdam	12,970	11,910	5,200	19,253	19,663	2,090	3,470	9,220	540	10,940	10,940	4,450	11,350	10,450	6,363
	20,300	21,900	10,900	17,344	18,860	9,964	6,173	13,403	2,734	18,840	16,874	4,700	29,104	26,018	9,489
Tin (stabs) —															
Banco, Roiter.	50,799	44,341	11,808	41,618	27,877	2,689	22,990	33,978	12,677	48,106	34,948	25,554	41,014	33,948	13,009
Do. Amster.	41,659	34,059	11,000	25,228	29,596	6,248	43,511	34,973	11,984	46,070	17,320	41,850	46,869	76,722	7,160
	92,458	78,310	22,808	66,870	57,183	14,295	76,391	84,940	23,941	98,729	52,268	67,404	88,376	135,666	10,069
Tobacco (hhds.) —															
Rotterdam	7,388	6,023	4,033	17,442	16,949	6,060	20,128	14,701	6,423	22,940	18,243	7,728	17,728	16,848	8,000
Amsterdam	6,289	6,200	2,928	14,412	10,678	4,373	6,858	6,282	4,296	14,953	14,623	4,768	12,278	11,187	7,947
	12,773	11,233	6,861	29,864	27,100	9,433	28,860	27,418	10,677	37,933	34,296	14,516	30,018	27,963	16,247

RUBY, a precious stone, very highly esteemed: but under this name a variety of minerals have not unfrequently been sold, which differ essentially in their characters.

The *Oriental Ruby* is, in fact, a red variety of the sapphire. When perfect, its colour is a cochineal red, presenting a richness of hue the most exquisite and unrivalled: it is, however, in general, more or less pale, and often mixed with blue; hence it occurs rose red, peach blossom red, and lilac blue, passing into the amethyst. It is harder than any other mineral, except the diamond. Easily frangible. Specific gravity from 3.916 to 4.283. Infusible before the blowpipe. Oriental rubies of 10 carats are extremely rare and valuable. One of 22 grains was sold for 160*l*. Rubies in lots, Indian cut, or small sizes, and of different qualities, are at all times to be had, and sell at from 1*5s*. to 6*5s*. a carat: but a perfect stone of a carat, or 6 grains, may be deemed rare, and falls little short of the value of the diamond: nay, in some cases, rubies of 2, 3, or 4 carats, if *very fine*, are much scarcer, and even more valuable, than diamonds of equal weight. The finest ruby in England, or perhaps, in Europe, is in the collection of the late Mr. Hope, author of "Anastasius."

There are two other species of ruby, the *Spinelle* and *Balaia*. When perfect, the Spinelle is a gem of great value and scarcity. Its colour is a fine full carmine or rose red, but it never presents that rich mellow tinge that attends the Oriental ruby. It is also inferior to the latter in hardness and specific gravity. Stones of 3 carats and upwards are very rare and valuable.

The *Balaia Ruby* is a pale variety of the spinelle. It varies in colour from light red to yellowish red. Though not so rare as the spinelle, it is by no means common. It is much admired for its agreeable tinge of colour; and, when pure and perfect, fetches a very high price; though considerably less than the other varieties.

Rubies are not found in any considerable quantity except in Ava. — (See *SAPPHIRE*.) — (*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. pp. 90. 101.; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

RUM, a well known and highly esteemed spirituous liquor imported from the West Indies, of which it forms one of the staple products. It is obtained, by means of fermentation and distillation, from molasses, the refuse of the cane juice, and portions of the cane, after the sugar has been extracted. The flavour and taste peculiar to rum are derived from the essential oils carried over in distillation. When the distillation has been carelessly performed, the spirit contains so large a quantity of the grosser and less volatile part of the oil as to be unfit for use till it has attained a considerable age. When it is well rectified, it mellows much sooner. Rum of a brownish transparent colour, smooth oily taste, strong body and consistence, good age, and well kept, is the best. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taste, is either too new, or mixed with other spirits. Jamaica rum is the first in point of quality; the Leeward Island rum, as it is called, being always inferior to it, both in flavour, strength, and value. The price of the latter is usually 20 per cent. below that of the former. We import all our rum in puncheons, containing from 84 to 90 gallons each. It is customary, in some of the West India islands, to put sliced pine-apples in puncheons of rum: this gives the spirit the flavour of the fruit; and hence the designation, *pine-apple rum*.

Rum is said to be much adulterated by the retail dealers in England, sometimes with corn spirit; but if done with molasses spirit, the tastes of both are so nearly allied, that the cheat is not easily discovered.

Consumption of, and Duties upon, Rum, &c. — The following Table shows the

quantity of rum consumed in Great Britain and Ireland since 1800, the rates of duty charged upon it, and the produce of the duties; the price of Jamaica rum in bond since 1814 is also given.

Account, stated in *Imperial Proof Gallons*, of the Rum annually entered for Home Consumption in the U. Kingdom, from 1800 to 1842, both inclusive, distinguishing England, Ireland, and Scotland, the Rates of Duty payable respectively thereon; the Produce of the Duties; and the Price of Rum in Bond since 1814. (This account has been prepared partly from published and partly from unpublished official documents. The column of prices has been supplied by Mr. Cook.)

Year.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.				Rate of Duty payable (Customs and Excise).		Net Produce of the Duties in Great Britain.	Net Produce of the Duties in Ireland.	Price of Jamaica Rum in Bond.
	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	In England and Scotland.	In Ireland.			
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Per Gal.	Per Gal.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	Per Gallon.
1800	1,045,966	329,913	964,111	5,049,550	9 0d	6 3d	990,827 6	4 983,353 0	6 8
1801	1,067,939	349,837	1,057,516	5,191,392	9 0d	6 3d	855,177 1	5 317,155 7	9
1802	2,024,997	458,103	637,093	3,110,065	9 0d	6 11d	1,439,989 11	5 906,361 9	10
1803	2,273,694	579,045	930,966	3,814,011	13 4d	8 9d	1,268,470 13	4 861,140 7	8
1804	1,506,999	324,218	190,999	1,615,736	13 5d	9 9d	1,054,699 11	5 699,399 8	8
1805	1,696,364	355,632	193,649	1,977,466	13 6d	9 9d	1,493,770 0	5 801 3	6
1806	1,857,311	388,411	160,148	2,096,940	13 6d	9 9d	1,373,996 5	5 78,019 0	9
1807	1,999,783	370,091	81,999	2,370,991	13 6d	9 9d	1,607,811 3	5 607,811 3	9
1808	2,174,751	379,885	845,333	3,210,247	13 6d	10 5d	1,873,473 16	5 161,716 9	9
1809	2,389,895	393,325	1,063,661	3,515,911	13 7d	10 5d	1,738,074 6	5 846,747 7	9
1810	2,708,718	336,569	336,569	3,570,936	13 7d	10 5d	9,059,410 0	7 178,884 8	9
1811	2,711,943	330,367	130,230	3,164,941	13 7d	10 5d	8,055,161 4	6 77,379 3	11
1812	3,035,165	390,569	853,133	3,773,169	13 10d	10 5d	8,266,578 9	10 84,871 6	11
1813	3,014,680	311,686	635,006	3,749,374	13 10d	10 5d	9,373,537 8	9 601,639 3	11
1814	3,336,189	390,495	41,124	3,705,855	13 10d	10 5d	9,215,578 7	7 65,080 6	6
1815	3,019,094	291,748	68,853	3,565,745	13 10d	10 5d	8,449,472 17	10 81,899 3	10
1816	2,291,233	163,874	21,293	3,079,300	13 10d	10 5d	1,636,786 13	10 12,317 6	9
1817	1,179,813	198,419	30,686	3,408,311	13 10d	10 5d	1,619,495 19	9 19,125 6	9
1818	1,106,096	302,551	21,266	3,631,283	13 10d	10 5d	1,775,718 19	9 15,387 13	4
1819	2,290,193	146,355	3,735	3,468,483	13 11d	10 5d	1,730,448 14	9 10,889 14	9
1820	3,785,733	144,997	90,300	4,189,129	13 11d	10 5d	1,694,495 7	8 32,981 3	8
1821	3,166,241	176,189	35,000	3,248,315	13 11d	10 5d	1,473,577 4	8 14,536 6	9
1822	2,100,325	130,729	15,000	3,116,309	13 11d	10 5d	1,216,643 11	6 9,257 6	9
1823	2,323,293	109,262	16,175	3,549,690	13 11d	13 11d	1,990,668 16	8 11,534 6	11
1824	2,107,907	125,000	1,643	3,251,646	13 7d	19 7d	1,640,997 6	6 6,097 2	11
1825	1,980,807	104,732	10,198	3,095,847	13 7d	19 7d	1,278,313 19	1 6,513 9	14
1826	3,989,033	395,503	47,708	4,052,216	9 6	8 6	1,817,108 2	3 11,770 6	3
1827	3,290,131	185,814	85,910	3,966,696	9 6	8 6	1,836,786 1	1 9,839 7	3
1828	3,069,856	198,089	84,708	3,277,653	9 6	8 6	1,383,694 19	3 10,928 17	3
1829	3,096,113	152,161	21,262	3,275,894	9 0	9 0	1,183,748 18	8 9,035 13	3
1830	3,503,144	136,600	19,896	3,639,974	9 0	9 0	1,201,838 11	6 8,499 19	3
1831	3,479,911	133,709	16,981	3,694,597	9 0	9 0	1,621,511 0	8 8,440 9	3
1832	3,377,607	119,078	24,328	3,513,965	9 0	9 0	1,669,402 10	10 10,577 16	9
1833	3,544,648	124,307	33,208	3,694,153	9 0	9 0	1,561,498 0	6 6,079 10	3
1834	3,296,650	111,189	27,566	3,245,177	9 0	9 0	1,492,848 10	10 18,897 5	9
1835	3,283,473	105,156	26,223	3,416,966	9 0	9 0	1,425,860 14	11 11,853 8	10
1836	3,104,698	104,982	24,373	3,214,749	9 0	9 0	1,484,216 17	9 11,820 11	4
1837	3,079,778	85,804	20,673	3,184,853	9 0	9 0	1,423,339 0	9 9,939 0	4
1838	3,079,490	86,460	19,701	3,153,551	9 0	9 0	1,492,201 0	8 8,863 0	4
1839	2,739,668	75,337	15,663	2,820,368	9 0	9 0	1,466,379 9	7 7,046 0	4
					To 3 May	9 0			0
1840	2,145,421	55,408	12,331	2,519,260	9 4	9 4	1,149,934 0	5 6,679 0	4 11 6 8
1841	2,817,073	48,583	18,574	2,873,970	9 4	9 4	1,057,313 0	5 3,378 0	6 0 6 7 3
1842	2,050,331	33,951	11,465	2,097,747	9 4	9 4	673,608 0	2,351 0	6 0 6 8 3 9

For an account of the number of gallons of rum imported into the U. Kingdom from the West India colonies, during each of the 11 years ending with 1841, see *and*, p. 331. Exclusive of the supplies from the West Indies, there were imported, in 1841, 95,510 gallons from the Mauritius, and 1,006,549 gallons from the E. India Company's territories. The latter, however, is more nearly allied to arrack than to rum.

Though rum has not been so much over-taxed as brandy, geneva, and wine, still it is obvious that even, in its case, taxation, has been carried far beyond its proper limits. During the 3 years ending with 1802, when the duty in Great Britain was about 9s. a gallon, and in Ireland 6s. 8½d., the consumption of the U. Kingdom amounted to 3,150,000 gallons a year; while, notwithstanding the great increase of population, during the 9 years ending with 1823, when the duty in Great Britain was 13s. 11½d. a gallon, and in Ireland 12s. 8½d., the annual consumption amounted to only 2,307,000 gallons! The reduction of the duty in 1826 to 8s. 6d. increased the consumption from about 2,500,000 to above 3,600,000 gallons in 1830. But 6d. having been added to the duty in 1830, the consumption, influenced, no doubt, partly by this, but probably also by other circumstances, has since greatly declined. The extraordinary demand for rum from 1811 to 1815, was occasioned chiefly by the high price and inferior quality of the British spirits that were then manufactured.

The decrease in the consumption of rum in Ireland is most striking. Unfortunately, however, this is not the only instance the sister kingdom affords of the destructive effects of oppressive taxes. The excessive additions made to the duties on brandy, wine, sugar, &c. since 1805, have had similar effects; the quantity of these articles consumed in Ireland being *decidedly less now than it was 30 years ago!*—(See BRANDY, SUGAR, &c.) Exorbitant taxes have gone far to deprive the Irish of a great variety of comforts; and, consequently, have taken from them some of the most powerful incentives to industry and good conduct. The poverty of the people has set at nought

the calculation of our finance ministers; every increase of taxation in Ireland having produced a diminution of revenue and an increase of crime! Surely it is high time to abandon so odious a system; particularly after the experience of the beneficial effects that have resulted from the diminution of the spirit duties.

Rum the produce of the British possessions in America is not liable to the duty charged on sweetened spirits, unless the actual strength exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer by more than 10 degrees per cent. and in lieu of such duty there shall be charged upon every degree per cent. more than 3 degrees, and not more than 10 degrees, by which the actual strength shall exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer, a duty of 5s. 6d.; provided, that if the importer cannot make a perfect entry thereof for payment of duty on the actual strength, he may demand in writing, upon the entry, that trial be made of the actual strength (he paying the expenses of such trial), instead of entering such rum for the payment of duty upon any stated number of such excessive degrees of strength; provided also, that all trials of actual strength of such rum shall be made by some skilful person appointed by the commissioners of customs for such purpose. — (7 Geo. 4. c. 48. § 31.)

Rum the produce of the British plantations must be imported in casks containing not less than 30 gallons. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52.) But rum in casks capable of containing 30 gallons may be imported on the officer being satisfied that the deficiency has been wholly occasioned by absorption or leakage, and not by abstraction. — (Customs Act, 24th of March, 1851.)

Rum in bonded warehouses may be drawn off into casks containing not less than 30 gallons each, as stores for ships, and may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any ship, without entry or payment of duty, the same being duly borne upon the victualling bill of such ships respectively. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57.)

Rum of the British plantations in bonded warehouses may also be drawn off into reputed quart or reputed pint bottles, for the purpose of being exported from the warehouse. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57.)

On applications referring to a former order allowing the admixture of rum of different strengths for exportation, and praying that the rum remaining in the vats after the operation of racking might be admitted for home consumption, the Board were of opinion that the request might be complied with, to the extent of an ullage of 30 gallons, the legal quantity allowed to be exported, and that the duty should be paid, according to the strength, at the time of delivery of the said rum. — (Min. Com. Cas. 27th of Sept. 1827.)

Before any rum shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession in America, or of the Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same must deliver a certificate of origin to the collector or comptroller, and subscribe a declaration that the goods are the produce of such place. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 37.; see *ante*, 563.)

RUSSIA COMPANY, a regulated company for conducting the trade with Russia. It was first incorporated by charter of Philip and Mary, sanctioned by act of parliament in 1566. The statute 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 6. enacts, that every British subject desiring admission into the Russia Company shall be admitted on paying 5*l.*; and every individual admitted into the Company conducts his business entirely as a private adventurer, or as he would do were the Company abolished.

Table of Duties payable to the Russia Company.

skins and furs, viz. —		c. d.	
Antelope	the cwt.	0	3
Beaver	the ton	0	9
Books, bound	the cwt.	0	2
" unbound	the cwt.	0	2
Bristles	the dozen lbs.	0	0½
Castoreum	the lb.	0	2
Caviare	the cwt.	0	2
Cordage	the cwt.	0	4
Down	the 100 lbs.	0	4
Festhers, bed	the cwt.	0	9
Flax	the ton	0	9
Hair, cow or ox	the cwt.	0	2
Hemp	the ton	0	7
Hides of cows or horses, undressed each	red or Miscory	0	0
Iron	the ton	0	5
Jungles	the cwt.	0	4
Linen drillings	the 120 ells	0	1½
narrow or diaper	the 120 ells	0	2
24 to 51	the 120 ells	0	2
51 to 65	the 120 ells	0	3
65 and upwards	the 120 ells	0	6
sail cloth	the quarter	0	3
Livewood	the hundred	0	4
Mats	the quarter	0	1
Oats	the last	0	2
Pitch	the lb.	0	1½
Rhubarb	the cwt.	0	1½
Rain	the cwt.	0	1½
Ratpelt	the cwt.	0	11
Seeds, garden	the 100 lbs.	0	3
Skins and furs, viz. —			
Armins or ermins	the skinner of 40 skins	0	9
Bear	each	0	4
Culbar	the skinner	0	4
Calf	the hundred	0	3
Fox	the hundred	0	4½
Hare	the 100 dozen	0	2
Sable	the skinner	0	2
Swan	each	0	1
Wolf	each	0	1½
Tallow	the ton	0	2
Tongues	the hundred	0	2
Tow	the ton	0	6
Wax, bees'	the cwt.	0	2
Wheat	the quarter	0	1
Woods, viz. —			
Balks above 5 inches sq.	the 120	0	4
" " " " "	under do.	0	3
Barrel boards	the 120	0	1
Beetens	the 120	0	1½
Capravens	the 120	0	3
Clap boards	the 120	0	1
Dens under 20 feet long	the 120	0	2
" " " " "	above do.	0	2
Fire wood	the fathom	0	1
Flint timber	the load	0	1
Hand-pikes	the 120	0	1½
Lathwood	the fathom	0	1½
Masts, great	each	0	2
" " " " "	all others	0	1
Oak boards	the 120	0	5
Plink	the load	0	3
Timber	the load	0	2
Oak	the 120	0	4½
Pelling boards	the 120	0	1
Pjars	the 120	0	2
Staves	the 120	0	1
Tar	the last	0	2
Walnut logs	the load	0	2

All goods not enumerated pay 1-5th per cent. ad valorem on the declaration of the importer.

RUSSIA LEATHER (Fr. *Cuir de Russie*; Ger. *Jufften*; It. *Cuojo di Russia*; Pol. *Jachta*; Rus. *Juft*, *Yuft*; Sp. *Moscovia*) the tanned hides of oxen and other kine, depomated by the Russians *youfto*, or *jufft*, — a designation said to be derived from their being generally manufactured in pairs. The business of tanning is carried on in most towns of the empire, but principally at Moscow and Petersburg. Russia leather is soft, has a strongly prominent grain, a great deal of lustre, and a powerful and peculiar odour. It is principally either red or black; the former is the best, and is largely used in this and other countries in bookbinding; for which purpose it is superior to every other material. The black is, however, in very extensive demand in Russia; large quantities being made up into boots and shoes. The process followed by the Russians in the preparation of this valuable commodity has been frequently

described; but notwithstanding this circumstance, and the fact that foreigners have repeatedly engaged in the business in Russia, with the intention of making themselves masters of its details, and undertaking it at home, the efforts made to introduce the manufacture into other countries have hitherto entirely failed. One of the best tests of genuine Russia leather is its throwing out a strong odour of burnt hide upon being rubbed a little. — (*Ricard, Traité Général du Commerce*, tome i. p. 275. ed. 1781.)

We borrow from Mr. Borrissow's work on the *Commerce of Petersburg* the following details with respect to this article:—Russia leather forms one of the principal export commodities of Petersburg. But since the ports of the Black Sea have been opened, the exports of leather from this port have considerably decreased; Italy, the principal consumer, supplying its wants from Odessa and Taganrog, more easily, cheaply, and expeditiously than from Petersburg. The chief exportation from the latter is to Prussia, Germany, and England. Frankfort on the Maine and Lelpsic are of great importance as respects the trade in Russia leather, on account of the fairs held in them.

Juffs are never bought on contract, but always on the spot at cash prices. It nevertheless often happens that agents, in order to secure a lot of juffs, pay a certain sum in advance, and settle for the amount at the first market prices; no prices being fixed in the months of January, February, March, and sometimes even April.

Juffs are assorted or *bracketed* when received, according to their different qualities, into *Gave, Rosnal, Malja, and Domashna*. The three first sorts are again divided into *heavy and light Gave, heavy and light Rosnal, &c.* Domashna is the worst, and consequently the cheapest sort. It often happens that juffs are bought unassorted, and then the prices are regulated according as the quantity of Domashna contained in the lot is greater or less. Persons well acquainted with the nature of Russia leather prefer purchasing it in this state.

Juffs are sold by the pood, which consists, as it is commonly expressed, of 4, 4½, 5, 5½, and 6½ hides. By this is understood, that so many hides make a pood, calculated upon the whole lot; and it is to be observed that the lightest juffs are esteemed the best in quality. Heavy juffs, or those of 4 and 4½ hides, are shipped for Italy; the Germans, on the contrary, prefer the lighter sort.

Juffs are packed in rolls, each containing 10 hides; and from 10 to 15 of these rolls are packed together in a bundle, which is well secured by thick matting. There are red, white, and black juffs; but the red are most in demand. Their goodness is determined by their being of a high red colour, of equal size, and unaltered with small hides: they must also be free from holes, well stretched, and equally thin. In a well finished lot, no thick head or feet parts should be found. If spots resembling flowers are seen on the red hides, it is an additional sign of their good quality; and they are then called *blomed juffs*. The inside should be clean, soft, and white, and, when taken in the hand, should feel elastic. The best connoisseurs of Russia leather can nearly determine the quality by the smell alone.

Great attention must be paid, in shipping juffs, to secure them from being wetted, as damp air alone is sufficient to injure them.

Sixty rolls of juffs make a last; 88 poods nett weight, when shipped for Italy, make a last; and 44 poods a ton in England.

The exports of juffs from Russia, in 1841, amounted to 177,838 poods, and 150,951 pieces, worth together 1,538,191 silver roubles. — (*Official Returns*, p. 13.)

RYE (*Ger. Roggen, Roeken; Du. Rog, Rogge; Fr. Seigle; It. Segale, Segala; Sp. Centeno; Rus. Rosch, Sel, Jar; Lat. Secale*), according to some, is a native of Crete; but it is very doubtful if it be found wild in any country. It has been cultivated from time immemorial, and is considered as coming nearer in its properties to wheat than any other grain. It is more common than wheat in many parts of the Continent; being a more certain crop, and requiring less culture and manure. It is the bread corn of Germany and Russia. In Britain it is now very little grown; being no longer a bread corn; and, therefore, of less value to the farmer than barley, oats, or peas. — (*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*.)

For the regulations as to the importation and exportation of rye, see CORN LAWS AND COAN TRADE.

S.

SABLE (*Ger. Zobel; Fr. Zibelline; It. Zibellino; Rus. Sokol*), an animal of the weasel tribe, found in the northern parts of Asiatic Russia and America, hunted for the sake of its fur. Its colour is generally of a deep glossy brown, and sometimes of a fine glossy black, which is most esteemed. Sable skins have sometimes, though very rarely, been found yellow, and white. The finer sorts of the fur of sables are very scarce and dear. — (See FUR TRADE.)

SADDLES (*Fr. Selles; Ger. Sattel; It. Selle; Rus. Sidla; Sp. Selles*), seats adapted to the horse's back, for the convenience of the rider. Those made in England are reckoned the best. Sherborne and Lynn are particularly remarkable for this manufacture. The hogskins, which when tanned, are used for the seat of the saddle, are mostly imported from Russia.

SAFFLOWER, or BASTARD SAFFRON (*Ger. Safflor; Du. Saffloer, Bastard Saffran; Fr. Curtaeme, Saffran batard; It. Zaffrone; Sp. Aluzor, Azafran, Azafrán; Rus. Pterroi, Prostoi schafraan*), the flower of an annual plant (*Carthamus tinctorius* Lin.) growing in India, Egypt, America, and some of the warmer parts of Europe. It is not easily distinguished from saffron by the eye, but it has nothing of its smell or taste.

The flowers, which are sometimes sold under the name of *saffron*, are the only parts employed in dyeing. They yield two sorts of colouring matter: one soluble in water, and producing a yellow of but little beauty; the other is *resinous*, and best dissolved by the fixed alkalies: it is in this last which alone renders safflower valuable in dyeing; as it affords a red colour exceeding in delicacy and beauty, as it does in costliness, any which can be obtained even from cochineal, though much inferior to the latter in durability. The colour of safflower will not bear the action of soap, nor even that of the sun and air for a long time; and being very costly, it is principally employed for liminating upon silk the fine scarlet (*ponceau* of the French) and rose colours dyed with cochineal upon woollen cloth.

The fine rose colour of safflower, extracted by crystallised soda, precipitated by citric acid, then slowly dried, and ground with the purest talc, produces the beautiful *rouge* known by the name of *rouge africaine*.

Safflower should be chosen in flakes of a bright pink colour, and of a smell somewhat resembling tobacco. That which is in powder, dark coloured, or oily, ought to be rejected.—(*Hasselquist's Voyages*, Eng. ed. p. 282; *Boissier's Permanent Colours*, vol. 1. pp. 286—289; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*) Of 3,392 cwt. of safflower imported in 1840, 5,110 came from the East Indies. The price of safflower in bond varies from 1*l.* to 7*l.* a cwt. The entries of safflower for home consumption amounted, at an average of the years 1840 and 1841, to 1,331 cwt. a year. The duty is 1*s.* a cwt.

SAFFRON (Ger. *Saffran*; Du. *Safran*; It. *Zafferano*; Sp. *Saffron*; Fr. *Azafran*; Rus. *Schafran*), a sort of cake prepared from the stigmas, with a proportion of the style, of a perennial bulbous plant (*Crocus sativus* Lin.) cultivated to a small extent in Cambridgeshire. It is also imported from Sicily, France, and Spain; but the English, as being fresher, more genuine, and better cured, is always preferred. When good, saffron has a sweetish, penetrating, diffusive odour; a warm, pungent, bitterish taste; and a rich, deep orange red colour. It should be chosen fresh, in close, tough, compact, cakes, moderately moist, and possessing in an obvious degree all the above mentioned qualities. The not staining the fingers, the making them oily, and its being of a whitish yellow or blackish colour, indicate that it is bad, or too old. Saffron is used in medicine, and in the arts; but in this country the consumption seems to be diminishing. It is employed to colour butter and cheese, and also by painters and dyers.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*.)

SAGAPENUM (Arab. *Sugbenfu*), a concrete gum-resin, the produce of an unknown Persian plant. It is imported from Alexandria, Smyrna, &c. It has an odour of garlic, and a hot, acrid, bitterish taste. It is in agglutinated drops or masses, of an olive or brownish yellow colour, slightly translucent, and breaking with a horny fracture. It softens and is tenacious between the fingers, melts at a low heat, and burns with a crackling noise and white flame, giving out abundance of smoke, and leaving behind a light spongy charcoal. It is used only in medicine.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

SAGO (Malay, *Sagu*; Jav. *Sagu*), a species of meal, the produce of a palm (*Metroxylon Sagu*) indigenous to and abundant in such of the Eastern islands as produce spices, where it supplies a principal part of the farinaceous food of the inhabitants.

The tree, when at maturity, is about 30 feet high, and from 18 to 22 inches in diameter. Before the formation of the fruit, the stem consists of an external wall about 2 inches thick, the whole interior being filled up with a sort of spongy medullary matter. When the tree attains to maturity, and the fruit is formed, the stem is quite hollow. Being cut down at a proper period, the medullary part is extracted from the trunk, and reduced to a powder like sawdust. The filaments are next separated by washing. The meal is then laid to dry; and being made into cakes and baked, is eaten by the islanders. For exportation, the finest sago meal is mixed with water, and the paste rubbed into small grains of the size and form of coriander seeds. This is the species principally brought to England, for which market it should be chosen of a reddish hue and readily dissolving in hot water into a fine jelly. Within these few years, however, a process has been invented by the Chinese for refining sago, so as to give it a fine pearly lustre; and the sago so cured is in the highest estimation in all the European markets. It is a light, wholesome, nutritious food. It is sent from the islands where it is grown to Singapore, where it is granulated and bleached by the Chinese. The export trade to Europe and India is now principally confined to that settlement.—(*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Crawford's East. Archip.* vol. i. pp. 383—393., vol. iii. p. 348; *Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal, &c.*)

The consumption of sago has increased very rapidly since 1820, having then amounted to only about 1,300 cwts. a year; whereas, during the years 1840 and 1841, no fewer than 43,664 cwts. were annually retained for consumption. This large increase is partly ascribable to the reduction in the interval of the oppressive duties by which the article was formerly loaded, and partly, and perhaps principally, to the fact of its being extensively used, along with potato flour, in the adulteration of sugar.—(See SUGAR.) The price of common sago in bond varies from 1*l.* to 1*l.*, while pearl sago fetches from 15*s.* to 1*l.* 10*s.* a cwt.; but the price is liable to great fluctuation.

SAIL, a coarse linen or canvass sheet attached to the masts and yards of ships, the blades of windmills, &c., to intercept the wind and occasion their movement.

Foreign sails, when imported by, and fit and necessary for, and in the actual use of any British ship, are exempted from duty; but when otherwise disposed of, they pay a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.—(0 Geo. 4. c. 73, § 12.)

Sails and cordage of British manufacture, exported from Great Britain to the colonies, and afterwards imported into the U. Kingdom, are in all cases, other than those in which they are imported by bill of lading, to be deemed foreign; and such sails and cordage, although not liable to duty so long as the vessel continues to belong to the colony, become subject to the duties in question as soon as the vessel becomes the property of persons residing in this country.—(*Treasury Order*, 25th of Jan. 1825.)

SALEP, a species of powder prepared from the dried roots of a plant of the orchis kind (*Orchis mascula* Lin.). That which is imported from India is in white oval pieces, hard, clear, and pellucid, without smell, and tasting like tragacanth. As an article of diet, it is said to be light, bland, and nutritious. The plant thrives in England,

but it is not cultivated to any extent; and very little is imported. — (*Atkins's Mat. Indica; Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SALMON (Ger. *Lachs, Salm*; Fr. *Saumon*; It. *Sermone, Salamone*; Sp. *Salmón*; Rus. *Lemga*). This excellent fish is too well known to require any description. It is found only in northern seas, being unknown in the Mediterranean and other warm regions. In this country it is an article of much value and importance. It is said to be exceedingly abundant in Japan and Kamtschatka.

"Salmon fisheries," Marshall observes, "are essential and constant sources of human food; they rank next to agriculture. They have, indeed, one advantage over every other internal produce, — their increase does not lessen other articles of human subsistence. The salmon does not prey on the produce of the soil, nor does it owe its size and nutritive qualities to the destruction of its compatriot tribes. It leaves its native river at an early state of growth (and going, even naturalists know not where, returns of ample size, and rich in human nourishment) exposing itself in the narrowest streams, as if nature intended it as a special boon to man. In every stage of savageness and civilisation, the salmon must have been considered as a valuable benefaction to this country."

Such salmon as are taken in estuaries or rivers are, of course, the property of those to whom the estuaries or rivers belong, the fisheries in them frequently letting for very large sums; but of late very considerable quantities of salmon have been taken in bays, and in the open sea, where the fishing is free to any one who chooses to engage in it. The London market, where the consumption is immense, has been, since 1790, principally supplied from the Scotch rivers. The Tweed fishery is the first in point of magnitude of any in the kingdom; the take is sometimes quite astonishing, several hundreds having been frequently taken by a single sweep of the net. Salmon are dispatched in fast sailing vessels from the Spey, the Tay, the Tweed, and other Scotch rivers, for London, packed in ice, by which means they are preserved quite fresh. When the season is at its height, and the catch great, much can be taken off fresh, it is salted, pickled, or dried for winter consumption at home, and for foreign markets. Formerly, such part of the Scotch salmon as was not consumed at home, was pickled and kitted after being boiled, and was in this state sent up to London under the name of Newcastle salmon; but the present method of disposing of the fish has arisen since its value, as to have nearly deprived all but the richer inhabitants of the environs of the duty of the use of salmon. Within the memory of many, now living, salted salmon formed a material article of household economy in all the farm-houses in the vale of the Tweed; henceforth, that inferior servants used to stipulate that they should not be obliged to take more than two weekly meals of salmon. Its ordinary price was then 2s. a stone of 19 lbs.; but it is now never below 12s., often 36s., and sometimes 42s. a stone. This rise in the price of the fish has produced a corresponding rise in the value of the salmon fisheries, some of which are very valuable. There are considerable fisheries in some of the Irish and English rivers; but inferior to those of Scotland. — (*General Report of Scotland*, vol. iii p. 327.) The Scotch salmon fisheries seem to have attained their maximum value towards the end of the last war, when the fisheries in the Tweed were let for from 15,000*l.* to 18,000*l.* a year; and those of the Tay, Dee, Spey, &c. were proportionally valuable. But the value of the Scotch salmon fisheries has, speaking generally, declined greatly of late years; in consequence, partly and principally, of a diminished supply of fish in the rivers, but in some degree, also, from the greater facility of the communication between London and Liverpool, and the consequent importation of Irish salmon into the London markets. We have been fortunate enough to obtain from a source on which every reliance may be placed, the following

Account of the Quantity of Salmon packed in for Imported into London, from Scotland, during each of the 8 Years ending with the 14th of October, 1841, and of the Wholesale Price of the same.

Years ending Oct. 14.	Weight of Fish.	Average Price, about	Total Value.	Years ending Oct. 14.	Weight of Fish.	Average Price, about	Total Value.
	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£</i>		<i>lbs.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£</i>
1834	3,452,800	94 per lb.	135,400	1838	2,396,000	101 per lb.	101,160
1835	4,210,000	9	177,800	1839	1,830,000	11	85,880
1836	2,518,800	9	140,800	1840	1,097,000	11	77,630
1837	3,517,000	10	157,500	1841	3,119,672	87	116,000

This, it will be observed, is independent of the pickled salmon brought from Scotland, the quantity and value of which varies as much as that of the fresh salmon. But we are well assured that, at an average of the last eight years, its value has not exceeded 12,000*l.* a year. At an average, the retail price of salmon in London may be taken at from 60 to 75 per cent. above the wholesale price.

We may remark, by the way, that as by far the largest portion of the salmon made use of in London comes from Scotland, the above statement shows that its consumption in the metropolis is not nearly so great as is generally supposed. In fact, it is little used, except by the more opulent classes; and nothing that is not generally used by the middle classes, or by them and the lower, is ever of much importance. The little influence over prices caused by a large increase of supply is also a striking feature in this return.

Decrease of the Supply of Salmon, Poaching, &c. — The decrease of salmon in the English and Scotch rivers, particularly of late years, is a fact as to which there can be no manner of doubt. — (*Report of Committee of House of Commons on Scotch Salmon Fisheries, in 1843.*) Much unsatisfactory discussion has taken place as to its causes, which are, probably, of a very diversified character. A good deal has been ascribed to the increase of water machinery on the banks of the different rivers; but we hardly think that this could have much influence, except, perhaps, in the case of the smaller class of rivers. Nets, or salmon traps, have also been much objected to; though, as we have been assured, with still less reason. On the whole, we are inclined to think that the falling off in the supply of this valuable fish is principally to be ascribed to the temptation to over fish the rivers, caused by the high price of salmon; and to the prevalence of poaching; and, more than all, to the too limited duration of the close time. In 1828, after a great deal of discussion and inquiry, an act was passed (9 Geo. 4. c. 39.), which has done a good deal to remedy these defects — in fact, at least, as respects the Scotch fisheries. The rivers are shut from the 14th of September to the 1st of February; and every person catching or attempting to catch fish during that period forfeits not less than 1*l.* and not more than 10*l.* for every offence, besides the fish, if he have caught any, and such boats, nets, or other implements, as he may have made use of. Pecuniary penalties are also inflicted upon poachers and trespassers; and provision is made for the watching of the rivers. We understand that this act has had a very good effect; though it is believed that it would be better were the close time extended from the 1st of September to the middle of February.

Previously to 1842 the importation of foreign salmon was prohibited; but among the important and beneficial changes effected by the tariff act of that year, the repeal of this prohibition, and the admission of foreign salmon to our markets on payment of a duty of 1*l.* 6*s.* (i.e. the 6 per cent.) a cwt., is one of the foremost. The importation has not, however, been nearly so great as was anticipated. It appears from the customs returns that during the 11 months ending the 31st of December, 1843, the total imports of foreign salmon amounted to 910 cwt. 2 qrs. and 7 lb., of which 824 cwt. 3 qrs. and 22 lb. (92,394 lbs.)

were entered for consumption. This salmon was almost wholly brought from Holland ; the anticipated imports from Norway and Sweden having turned out quite trifling. The official returns do not afford the means of discriminating between fresh and pickled salmon ; but we believe the larger portion by far of the imports made during last year (1843) was fresh.

Return showing the Export of Salmon from the Port of Bergen, in Norway, with the average Prices of the same free on board, in 1839, 1840, and 1841.

Articles.	Quantity exported.	English Weights and Measures.	Prices in Sterling at the Average Rate of Exchange.
1839. — Smoked, first quality	1,374 lbs.	per lb.	10s. to 8s.
Ditto inferior	Home consumption	per lb.	8s. — 5s.
Salted	264 barrels	per barrel nett 220 lb.	4l.
Fresh, first in season	-	-	10s. to 8s.
Ditto later in ditto	-	-	8s. — 6s.
1840. — Smoked, first quality	1,370 lbs.	per lb.	11s. to 9s.
Ditto inferior	-	-	8s. — 7s.
Salted	42 barrels	per barrel	4l.
Fresh, first in season	-	-	11s. to 9s.
Ditto later in ditto	-	-	8s. — 5s.
1841. — Smoked, first quality	1,170 lbs.	per lb.	12s. to 10s.
Ditto inferior	-	-	9s. — 8s.
Salted	26 barrels	per barrel	4l. 10s.
Fresh, first in season	-	-	12s. to 10s.
Ditto later in ditto	-	-	6s. — 5s.

Return of the Quantities of Salmon exported from Norway in each of the undermentioned Years.

Year.	Salted Salmon.	Smoked Salmon.	Year.	Salted Salmon.	Smoked Salmon.
1835	barrels 142	lbs. 6,508	1839	barrels 177	lbs. 3,832
1836	144	5,357	1840	568 1-15ths.	4,441
1837	106	4,758	1841	169	7,472
1838	8	4,353			

It is enacted by stat. 1 Geo. 1. st. 2. c. 18. that no salmon shall be sent to any fishmonger or fish-seller in England, of less than 6 lbs. weight, under a penalty of *h.* The 58 Geo. 3. c. 43. authorizes the justices at quarter sessions to appoint conservators of rivers, and to fix the beginning and termination of the *close time*. The penalty upon poaching and taking fish in *close time* is by the same act fixed at not more than 10*s.* and not less than 5*s.*, with forfeiture of fish, boats, nets, &c.

SALONICA, a large city and sea-port of European Turkey, at the north-east extremity of the gulph of the same name, in lat. 40° 38' 47" N., lon. 29° 57' 13" E. Population estimated at 70,000. There is no port at Salonica, but there is excellent anchorage in the roads opposite to the town. The access to them is by no means difficult. Pilots, however, are, for the most part, employed ; and of these, some are always on the look-out. During that period of the late war when the anti-commercial system of Napoleon was at its height, Salonica became a great *depôt* for British goods ; whence they were conveyed to Germany, Russia, and other parts of Europe. At all times, however, Salonica has a considerable trade. The exports principally consist of wheat, barley, and Indian corn, timber, raw cotton, wool, raw silk, wax, tobacco, and sesamum. The imports are sugar, coffee, dyewoods, indigo, muslins, calicoes, cotton twisits, iron, lead, tin, watches, &c. It is stated in a communication from Salonica, dated the 31st December, 1842, on which every dependence may be placed, that the demand for British cotton goods is rapidly increasing, and that they have "entirely superseded" all others. The value of the direct and indirect imports from England in 1842 was estimated at 73,165*l.*

Arrivals. — In 1842 the burden of the vessels that arrived at Salonica amounted to 41,596 tons. *Money, Weights, and Measures.* — Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or 120 aspers. The coins are those of Constantinople ; which see. The weights and measures are the same as those of Smyrna, except that the kistoz, killow, or corn measure of Salonica = 378 kistoz of Smyrna.

SALT (Ger. *Salz* ; Du. *Zout* ; Fr. *Sel* ; It. *Sale* ; Sp. *Sal*, Rus. *Sol* ; Lat. *Sal* ; Arab. *Melâ* ; Chin. *Yen* ; Hind. *Nimnuck* ; Per. *Nun*), the chloride of sodium of modern chemists, has been known and in common use as a seasoner and preserver of food from the earliest ages. Immense masses of it are found in this and many other countries, which require only to be dug out and reduced to powder. In that state it is called rock salt. The water of the ocean also contains a great deal of salt ; to which, indeed, it owes its taste, and the power which it possesses of resisting freezing till cooled down to 28°-5°. When this water is sufficiently evaporated, the salt precipitates in crystals. This is the common process by which it is obtained in many countries. There are various processes by which it may be obtained quite pure. Common salt usually crystallises in cubes. Its taste is universally known, and is what is strictly denominated *salt*. Its specific gravity is 2.125. It is soluble in 8.82 times its weight of cold water, and in 2.76 times its weight of boiling water. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Besides its vast utility in seasoning food, and preserving meat both for domestic consumption and during the longest voyages, and in furnishing muriatic acid and soda, salt forms a glaze for coarse pottery, by being thrown into the oven where it is baked ; it improves the whiteness and clearness of glass ; it gives hardness to soap ; in melting metals, it preserves their surface from calcination, by defending them from the air, and is employed with advantage in some assays ; it is used as a mordant, and for improving certain colours ; and enters more or less into many other processes of the arts. Many

contradictory statements have been made as to the use of salt as a manure. Probably it may be advantageous in some situations, and not in others.

Salt Mines, Springs, &c. — The principal salt mines are at Wielitka in Poland, Catalonia in Spain, Altemonte in Calabria, Looowir in Hungary, in many places in Asia and Africa, and in Cheshire in this country. The mines at Wielitka are upon a very large scale; but the statements that have frequently been published, of their containing villages inhabited by colonies of miners who never saw the light, are altogether without foundation. These mines have been wrought for more than 600 years. — (*Cox's Travels in the North of Europe*, vol. 1, 149, 8vo. ed.)

The salt mines in the neighbourhood of Northwich in Cheshire are very extensive. They have been wrought since 1670; and the quantity of salt obtained from them is greater, probably, than is obtained from any other salt mines in the world. In its solid form, when dug from the mine, Cheshire salt is not sufficiently pure for use. To purify it, it is dissolved in sea water, from which it is afterwards separated by evaporation and crystallisation. The greater part of this salt is exported.

Salt springs are met with in several countries. Those in Cheshire and Worcestershire furnish a large proportion of the salt made use of in Great Britain. The brine, being pumped up from very deep wells, is evaporated in wrought iron pans from 20 to 30 feet square and 10 or 12 inches deep, placed over a furnace.

Most of the salt used in Scotland, previously to the repeal of the duty, was obtained by the evaporation of sea water nearly in the way now mentioned; but most part of the Scotch salt works have since been relinquished.

In warm countries, salt is obtained by the evaporation of sea water by the heat of the sun; and the crystals of salt made in this way are more perfect, and purer, from the greater slowness of the process. French salt is manufactured in this mode, and it has always been in considerable demand in this and other countries; but the principal imports of foreign salt into Great Britain at present are from Portugal. They amount, at an average, to from 300,000 to 350,000 bushels a year.

Consumption of Salt. — The consumption of salt in this country is immense. Necker estimated the consumption in those provinces of France which had purchased an exemption from the *gabelle* (*Pays francs rédimés*) at about 19½ lbs. (Eng.) for each individual. — (*Administration des Finances*, tome 1, p. 12.) From all that we have been able to learn on the subject, we believe that the consumption of the people of this country may be estimated a little higher, or at 22 lbs.; the difference in our food and habits, as compared with the French, fully accounting for this increased allowance. On this supposition, and taking the population at 18,500,000, the entire consumption will amount to 407,000,000 lbs., or 181,696,900 tons.

Exclusive of this immense home consumption, we annually export very large quantities. Account of the Quantities and Value of the Salt exported from the U. Kingdom, during each of the 4 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries to which it was exported and the Quantity and Value of that sent to each.

Countries.	1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantities.	Declared Value.						
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>£</i>
Russia	1,358,517	28,053	1,213,792	26,599	1,381,900	23,132	1,495,569	26,107
Norway	142,460	2,843	183,070	3,266	129,372	2,038	75,590	853
Denmark	11,283	11,283	638,860	15,423	381,160	9,355	467,730	7,784
Prussia	845,141	17,108	1,143,580	22,258	946,900	16,013	1,309,710	22,883
Germany	317,673	6,229	285,242	5,125	358,845	6,102	294,798	5,136
Holland	486,192	6,885	798,160	11,553	1,102,940	14,823	1,111,054	18,257
Belgium	1,108,230	16,059	1,154,115	17,994	900,700	12,845	945,577	10,438
Western coast of Africa	275,640	7,317	388,574	9,518	311,740	6,680	397,150	7,931
British settlements in Australia	33,421	3,320	137,254	3,702	170,641	2,876	208,393	4,166
North American colonies	1,191,618	21,149	1,668,879	29,006	1,561,652	22,062	1,093,609	16,922
United States of America	4,614,980	94,410	3,319,990	67,512	4,961,152	89,828	3,012,784	54,301
Brazil	5,175	148	7,255	165	30,496	411	7,053	324
All other countries	357,690	8,741	385,807	8,544	278,778	6,864	305,903	6,673
Total	11,396,669	223,456	11,837,594	218,907	12,817,663	215,479	10,637,953	178,618

The cheapness of this important necessary of life is not less remarkable than its diffusion. Its present cost may be estimated, at a medium, at from 14s. to 16s. a ton.

Duties on Salt. — In ancient Rome, salt was subjected to a duty (*vectigal salinarum*; see *Burm. Dissertatio de Vectigaliis Pop. Rom. c. 6.*); and it has been heavily taxed in most modern states. The *gabelle*, or code of salt laws, formerly established in France, was most oppressive. From 4,000 to 5,000 persons are calculated to have been sent annually to prison and the galleys for offences connected with these laws, the severity of which had no inconsiderable share in bringing about the Revolution. — (*Young's Travels in France*, vol. 1, p. 598.) In this country, duties upon salt were imposed in the reign of William III. In 1799 they amounted to 5s. a bushel; but were subsequently increased to 15s. a bushel, or about *thirty times* the cost of the salt: So exorbitant a duty was productive of the worst effects; and occasioned, by its magnitude, and the regulations for allowing salt, duty free, to the fisheries, a vast deal of smuggling. The opinion of the public and of the House of Commons having been strongly pronounced against the tax, it was finally repealed in 1825.

That the repeal of so exorbitant a duty has been productive of great advantage, no one can doubt; but seeing that a large revenue must be raised, we question whether government acted wisely in totally relinquishing the tax. Had the duty been reduced to 2s. or 2s. 6d. a bushel, and no duty-free salt allowed for the fisheries, but a drawback given on the fish exported, a revenue of 1,000,000*l.* a year might have been derived from this source with little injury. It was not the nature of the salt tax, but the absurd extent to which it had been carried, that rendered it justly odious. When at the highest, it produced about 1,500,000*l.* a year.

SALTPETRE, or NITRATE OF POTASH (Ger. *Salpeter*; Fr. *Nitre*, *Salpêtre*; It. *Nitro*, *Salnitro*; Sp. *Nitro*, *Salitre*; Rus. *Senitra*; Lat. *Nitrum*; Arab. *Ukhir*; Hind. *Shorah*), a salt well known in commerce, and of very great importance. It may be regarded both as a natural and an artificial production; being found on the surface of the soil in many parts of India, Egypt, Italy, &c.; but in these and other places all that is known in commerce is obtained by an artificial process, or by lixiviating earth that has been formed into *nitre* beds. The saltpetre consumed in England is brought from Bengal in an impure state, but crystallised, in bags, each containing 164 lbs. Saltpetre forms the principal ingredient in the manufacture of gunpowder; and is used in various arts. It is also of great utility in the commerce of India, from its sur-

nishing a large amount of dead weight for the shipping engaged in it. Saltpetre possesses considerable antiseptic power. That which is of the best quality and well refined, is in long transparent crystals; its taste is sharp, bitterish, and cooling; it flames much when thrown upon burning coals; is very brittle; specific gravity 1.933. It is not altered by exposure to the air.

Beckmann contends, in a long and elaborate dissertation (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. iv. pp. 325-360, Eng. ed.), that the ancients were unacquainted with saltpetre, and that their *nitrum* was really an alkalic salt. But, as saltpetre is produced naturally in considerable quantities in Egypt, it is difficult to suppose that they could be entirely ignorant of it; though it would appear that they had confounded it with other things. It has been known in the East from a very early period. Beckmann conceives in opinion with those who believe that gunpowder was invented in India, and brought by the Arabs from Africa to the Europeans; who improved its manufacture, and made it available for warlike purposes. — (Vol. iv. p. 371.)

The consumption of saltpetre during periods of war is very great. Its price is consequently liable to extreme fluctuation. In remarking on the varieties in the price of saltpetre, Mr. Tooke observes, "It reached its greatest height in 1795, viz. 170s. a cwt.; in 1796, it fell at one time to 45s., and rose again to 96s. It seems to have been affected considerably by the scale of hostilities on the Continent. But in consequence of the discoveries in chemistry, by which the French were enabled to dispense with a foreign supply, and by the increased importation from India to this country, by which we were enabled to supply the rest of the Continent at a reduced cost, the price declined permanently after 1798-9, when it had reached 145s.; and never after was so high as 100s., except during the short interval of speculation in exports, during the peace of 1814, and again upon the breaking out of the war terminated by the battle of Waterloo." The price of saltpetre in the London market varies at this moment (January, 1844) from 94s. to 28s. a cwt. duty (6d.) included.

Account of the Quantities of Saltpetre Imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the Seven Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	Cwt. 177,339	Cwt. 232,606					
Chill	26,527	43,856	27,490	41,914	30,751	63,012	85,701
Peru	41,555	32,503	26,206	41,083	40,018	23,518	70,281
All other countries	5,397	23,802	73,591	80,708	10,021	7,286	986
Total	243,818	370,901	340,903	396,314	364,315	337,817	416,850
Retained for home consumption	204,580	231,154	210,522	230,890	214,023	209,801	240,773

But it is of importance to observe that the saltpetre said in this account to be imported from China and Peru is, in fact, nitrate of soda, consisting of nitric acid and soda, whereas saltpetre consists of nitric acid and potash. Like saltpetre, it is found native in various countries, but especially in the deserts of Tarapaca and Atacama, along the coast of Southern Peru. The deserts in question consist of a vast sandy plain extending between the shore and the foot of the Andes for between 400 and 600 miles. This plain is more than 3,000 feet above the level of the sea; no rain ever falls upon it; and except along the banks of a few streams by which it is intersected, it is quite sterile. In most parts, however, it abounds with nitrate of soda, which sometimes appears on the surface, but is more commonly covered with a stratum of clay and sand, with which the salt is frequently mixed. The principal mines are within about 24 miles of the Peruvian port of Iquique, in 21° 50' S. lat. and 71° 42' W. long. After being dug up, the salt is pulverised, dissolved in boiling water, and allowed to crystallise in shallow wooden troughs. Its price, free on board, including an export duty of about 4 per cent., varies from 2 to 3 or 3 doll. the quintal of 100 lbs. Having a tendency to attract moisture, it is not so suitable as saltpetre for the manufacture of gunpowder; but it is extremely serviceable in various departments of the arts, and is particularly valuable in a commercial point of view, from its affording a return cargo for ships which might otherwise have had to come home in ballast. We subjoin

A Return of the Destination, Quantity, and Price free on board, of the Nitrate of Soda exported from Iquique in each Year, from the Date of the first Shipment of the Article for Europe to the 31st of December, 1841. Exchange, 48d. per dollar.

Years.	England.	France and Italy.	Hamburg.	United States.	Valparaiso.	Other Countries.	Grand Total in Quintals.	Average Price free on board.	Value in Dollars.	Value in £ sterling.
1830	-	15,000	-	-	-	-	15,000	4 0	60,000 0	15,000 0 0
1831	-	35,825	-	-	-	4,800	40,625	4 0	162,500 0	35,748 0 0
1832	-	30,000	-	-	-	1,800	31,800	3 0	126,900 0	26,062 0 0
1833	60,000	32,300	-	-	-	6,800	99,100	3 0	377,100 0	74,025 0 0
1834	146,700	28,100	-	-	-	7,000	181,800	3 0	682,800 0	140,589 0 0
1835	66,700	57,000	11,260	11,900	5,780	4,960	175,500	3 0	626,250 0	130,108 10 0
1836	93,000	41,923	4,000	12,113	10,392	Lima 838	162,244	3 0	608,532 0	127,706 8 0
1837	111,500	48,500	5,700	1,000	1,000	Trasim 2,000	169,200	3 0	636,700 0	132,442 0 0
1838	73,510	35,870	15,130	3,600	0	France 3,500	129,610	3 0	478,910 0	100,844 0 0
1839	115,780	37,300	0	1,525	3,250	Denmark 3,841	149,276	3 0	567,132 0	117,838 0 0
1840	175,870	31,100	6,600	6,600	0	Denmark 2,300	222,370	3 0	845,121 0	175,870 0 0
1841	173,894	69,810	6,800	500	0	Denmark 2,300	253,204	3 0	962,011 0	199,838 4 0
Totals	1,020,307	436,968	81,090	39,028	19,122		3,629,614	-	13,373,128 0	2,750,085 10 0

The price of nitrate of soda in the London market, in January 1844, was, duty (6d.) included, about 1s. 6d. a cwt.; but it was then understood to be very much depressed.

SALVAGE, as the term is now understood, is an allowance or compensation made to those by whose exertions ships or goods have been saved from the dangers of the sea, fire, pirates, or enemies.

The propriety and justice of making such an allowance must be obvious to every one. It was allowed by the laws of Rhodes, Oleron, and Wisby; and in this respect they have been followed by all modern maritime states. At common law, the party who has saved the goods of another from loss or any imminent peril has a *lien* upon them, and may retain them in his possession till payment of a reasonable salvage.

1. *Salvage upon Losses by Perils of the Sea.*—If the salvage be performed at sea, or within high or low water mark, the Court of Admiralty has jurisdiction over the subject, and will fix the sum to be paid, and adjust the proportions, and take care of the property pending the suit; or, if a sale be necessary, direct it to be made; and divide the proceeds between the salvors and the proprietors according to equity and reason. And in fixing the rate of salvage, the court usually has regard not only to the labour and peril incurred by the salvors, but also to the situation in which they may happen to stand in respect of the property saved, to the promptitude and alacrity manifested by them, and to the value of the ship and cargo, as well as the degree of danger from which they were rescued. Sometimes the court has allowed as large a proportion as a *half* of the property saved as salvage; and in others, not more than a *tenth*.

The crew of a ship are not entitled to salvage, or any unusual remuneration for the extraordinary efforts they may have made in saving her; it being their duty as well as interest to contribute their utmost upon such occasions, the whole of their possible service being pledged to the master and owners. Neither are passengers entitled to claim any thing for the *ordinary assistance* they may have been able to afford to a vessel in distress. But a passenger is not bound to remain on board a ship in the hour of danger, provided he can leave her; and if he perform any *extraordinary services*, he is entitled to a proportional recompence.

In the case of valuable property, and of numerous proprietors and salvors, the jurisdiction and proceedings of the Court of Admiralty are well adapted to further the purposes of justice. But, as the delay and expense necessarily incident to the proceedings of a court sitting at a distance from the subject will often be very burdensome upon the parties, in cases where the property saved is not, perhaps, very considerable, the legislature has endeavoured to introduce a more expeditious and less expensive method of proceeding.

The first act for this purpose is the 12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 19. It appears from the preamble, that the infamous practice, once so common, of plundering ships driven on shore, and seizing whatever could be laid hold of as lawful property—(see *WASCK*).—had not been wholly abandoned; or that, if the property was restored to the owner, the demand for salvage was so exorbitant, that the inevitable ruin of the trader was the immediate consequence. To remedy those mischiefs in future, it was enacted, "that if a ship was in danger of being stranded, or being run ashore, the sheriff, justice mayor, constable, or officers of the customs, nearest the place of danger, should, upon application made to them, summon and call together as many men as should be thought necessary to the assistance, and for the preservation, of such ship in distress, and her cargo; and that if any ship, man-of-war, or merchantman, should be riding at anchor near the place of danger, the constables and officers of the customs might demand of the superior officers of such ship the assistance of her boats, and such hands as could be spared; and that, if the superior officer should refuse to grant such assistance, he should forfeit 100*l*."

Then follows the section respecting salvage. It enacts, "that all persons employed in preserving ships or vessels in distress, or their cargoes, shall, within 30 days after the service is performed, be paid a *reasonable reward* for the same, by the commander, master, or other superior officer, mariners, or owners, of the ship or vessel so in distress, or by any merchant whose vessel or goods shall be so saved; and, in default thereof, the said ship or vessel to saved shall remain in the custody of the officers of customs until all charges are paid, and until the officers of the customs, and the master or other officers of the ship or vessel, and all others employed in the preservation of the ship, shall be *reasonably gratified* for their assistance and trouble, or good security given for that purpose; and if any disagreement shall take place between the persons whose ships or goods have been saved, and the officers of the customs, touching the monies deserved by any of the persons so employed, it shall be lawful for the commander of the ship or vessel so saved, or the owner of the goods, or the merchant interested therein, and also for the officer of the customs, or his deputy, to nominate 3 of the neighbouring justices of the peace, who shall thereupon adjust the *quantum* of the monies or gratuity to be paid to the several persons acting or being employed in the salvage of the said ship, vessel, or goods; and such adjustment shall be binding upon all parties, and shall be recoverable in an action at law; and in case it shall so happen that no person shall appear to make his claim to all or any of the goods that may be saved, and that the chief officer of the customs of the nearest port to the place where the said ship or vessel was so in distress shall apply to 3 of the nearest justices of the peace, who shall put him or some other responsible person in possession of the said goods, such justices taking an account in writing of the said goods, to be signed by the said officer of the customs; and if the said goods shall not be legally claimed, within the space of 12 months next ensuing, by the rightful owner thereof, then public sale shall be made thereof; and, if perishable goods, forthwith to be sold, and, after all charges deducted, the residue of the monies arising from such sale, with a fair and just account of the whole, shall be transmitted to her Majesty's exchequer, there to remain for the benefit of the rightful owner, when appearing; who, upon affidavit, or other proof made of his or their right or property thereto, to the satisfaction of one of the barons of the chief of the exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same out of the exchequer."

By a subsequent statute (26 Geo. 2. c. 10.) it is enacted, "that in case any person or persons, not employed by the master, mariners, or owners, or other persons lawfully authorized, in the salvage of any vessel, or the cargo or provision thereof, shall, in the absence of the person so employed and authorized, save any such vessel, goods, or effects, and cause the same to be carried, for the benefit of the owners or proprietors, into port, or to any near adjoining custom-house, or other place of safe custody, immediately giving notice thereof to some justice of the peace, magistrate, or custom-house or excise officer, or shall discover to such magistrate or officer, where any such goods or effects are wrongfully bought, sold, or concealed, then such person or persons shall be entitled to a *reasonable reward* for such services, to be paid by the masters or owners of such vessels or goods, and to be adjusted, in case of disagreement about the *quantum*, in like manner as the salvage is to be adjusted and paid by 12th Ann. or else as follows:—

"And be it further enacted, that, for the better ascertaining the salvage to be paid in pursuance of the present act and the act before mentioned, and for the more effectually putting the said acts into execution, the justice of the peace, mayor, or sheriff, collector of the customs, or chief constable, who shall be nearest to the place where any ship, goods, or effects shall be stranded or cast away, shall forthwith give public notice for a meeting to be held as soon as possible, of the sheriff or his deputy, the justices of the peace, mayors, or other chief magistrates of towns corporate, coroners, or commissioners of the land tax, or any 5 or more of them, who are hereby empowered and required to give aid in the execution of this and the said former act, and to employ proper persons for the saving ships in distress, and such ships,

vessels, and effects, as shall be stranded or cast away; and also to examine persons upon oath, touching the same, or the salvage thereof, and to adjust the quantum of such salvage, and distribute the same among the persons concerned in such salvage, in case of disagreement among the parties or the said persons; and that every such magistrate, &c. attending and acting at such meeting, shall be paid $\$4$. a day for his expenses in such attendance, out of the goods and effects saved by their care or direction.

Provided always, that if the charges and rewards for salvage directed to be paid by the former statute and by this act, shall not be fully paid, or sufficient security given for the same, within 40 days next after the said services performed, then it shall be lawful for the officer of the customs concerned in such salvage to borrow or raise so much money as shall be sufficient to satisfy and pay such charges and rewards, or any part thereof then remaining, unpaid or not secured as aforesaid, by or upon one or more bill or bills of sale, under his hand and seal, of the ship or vessel, or cargo saved, or such part thereof as shall be sufficient, redeemable upon payment of the principal sum borrowed, and interest upon the same at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum.

An act of the 53 Geo. 3. c. 87. continued and extended by the 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 76. contains some regulations supplying defects in former statutes. They enact, that goods of a perishable nature, or so much damaged that they cannot be kept, may, at the request of any person interested or concerned in the same, or in saving thereof, be sold, with the consent of a justice, the money being deposited in the hands of the lord of the manor, and an account of the sale transmitted to the deputy vice-admiral. They also authorise the passage of horses, carts, carriages, &c. to the part of the sea coast where a vessel may be wrecked, over the adjoining lands, if there be no road leading as conveniently thereto, under penalty of 100*l.*, the damages to be settled by 2 justices in the event of the parties not agreeing. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. § § 27, 28, 30.)

It is ordered by the same statute, that no lord of the manor, or other person claiming to be entitled to wreck or goods, shall appropriate or dispose of the same until he shall have caused to be given in writing to the deputy vice-admiral of that part of the coast, or to his agents if they reside within 50 miles, if he then to the corporation of the Trinity House, a report containing an accurate and particular description of the wreck or goods found, and of the place where and time when found, and of any marks thereon, and of such other particulars as may better enable the owner to recover them, and also of the place where they are deposited, the deputy vice-admiral, or his agents, may claim any right to them, nor until the expiration of 1 whole year and a day after the expiration of such notice; the deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, is, within 48 hours of receiving such report, to transmit a copy thereof to the secretary of the corporation of the Trinity House, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect to transmit such account, 50*l.*, to any person who shall sue for the same; and the secretary is to cause such account to be placed in some conspicuous situation for the inspection of all persons claiming to inspect and examine it. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. § 25.)

It is further ordered by the same statute, that pilots and others taking possession of anchors, cables, or other wrecked or left materials upon the coast, or within any harbour, river, or bay, shall send notice thereof, within twenty-four hours, to the nearest deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, delivering the articles at such place as may be appointed, under pain of being deemed receivers of stolen goods. The deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, may be found and examined by any person claiming any right to them, nor until the expiration of 1 whole year and a day after the expiration of such notice; the deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, is, within 48 hours of receiving such report, to transmit a copy thereof to the secretary of the corporation of the Trinity House, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect to transmit such account, 50*l.*, to any person who shall sue for the same; and the secretary is to cause such account to be placed in some conspicuous situation for the inspection of all persons claiming to inspect and examine it. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. § 25.)

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Pilots, boatmen, or other persons, conveying anchors and cables to foreign countries, and disposing of them there, are to be adjudged guilty of felony, and may be transported for 7 years.

The same statute authorises 3 justices, or their nominee, to decide upon all claims made by boatmen, pilots, and other persons, for services of any jurisdiction (except pilotage) rendered by them to any ship or vessel, whether in distress or not.

Parties dissatisfied with the award of the justices or their nominee may appeal to the Court of Admiralty; but the justices are in such cases to deliver the goods to the proprietors, or their agent, on their giving good security for double the value. This does not extend to Scotland.

None of the previously mentioned acts have any force within the *Cinque Ports*; but the Lord Warden is directed by stat. 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 76. to appoint 3 or more substantial persons in each of these towns, who are authorised to decide upon all claims for services of any sort or description rendered to any vessel, or for saving or preserving, within the jurisdiction, any goods or merchandise wrecked, stranded, or cast away, or for bringing anchors or cables ashore, &c. No commissioner can act for any other place than that in which, or within a mile of which, he is resident. Either party may, within 8 days of the award, declare his intention of bringing the matter before some competent Court of Admiralty; selecting, as he may judge best, the Admiralty of England, or that of the Cinque Ports. The provisions in this statute have been justly enlarged by Lord Tenterden, for the cheap and easy means they afford for settling such questions.

It is impossible, as Mr. Justice Park has observed (*Law of Insurance*, c. 8.), to suppose 2 instances of loss by shipwreck, or other peril of the sea, so similar to each other, that the trouble, danger, and expense of the salvors should be exactly equal; and it would, consequently, be contrary to the first principles of justice to award the same sum for all possible cases of salvage. There was, therefore, no other resource but to appoint competent persons to decide as to the allowance due in any case of salvage that might arise, after taking the various circumstances with respect to it into account.

2. *Salvage upon Necessity*. — It was the practice of our courts, previously to any regulations on the subject, to order restitution of ships or goods, if retaken before condemnation, to be made to the original owners, on payment of a reasonable salvage to the receptors; but by stat. 42. c. 3. c. 160. it has been adjudged, that "if any ship or vessel taken as prize, or any goods therein, shall appear, in the Court of Admiralty, to have belonged to any of his Majesty's subjects, which were before taken by any of his Majesty's enemies, and any time afterwards retaken by any of his Majesty's ships, or any privateer, or other ship or vessel under his Majesty's protection, such ships, vessels, and goods shall, in all cases (save as hereafter excepted), be adjudged to be restored, and shall be accordingly restored, to such former owner or owners, he or they paying for salvage, if retaken by any of his Majesty's ships, one eighth part of the true value thereof, to the flag officers, captains, &c., to be divided as the same act directs; and if retaken by any privateer, or other ship or vessel, one sixth part of the true value of such ships and goods, to be paid to the owners, officers, and seamen of such privateer or other vessel, without any deduction; and if retaken by the joint operation of one or more of his Majesty's ships, and one or more private ships of war, the judges of the Court of Admiralty, or other court having cognisance thereof, shall order such salvage,

and in such proportions, to be paid to the captors by the owners, as he shall, under the circumstances of the case, deem fit and reasonable; but if such recaptured ship or vessel shall appear to have been set forth by the enemy as a ship or vessel of war, the said ship or vessel shall not be restored to the former owners, but shall in all cases, whether retaken by any of His Majesty's ships or any privateer, be adjudged lawful prize for the benefit of the captors."

This act is decidedly more favourable to the merchants than the old law, which adjudged that all ships recaptured after sentence of condemnation should be the property of the captors.

In the case of neutral ships captured by an enemy, and retaken by British men-of-war or privateers, the Courts of Admiralty have a discretionary power of allowing such salvage, and in such proportions, as, under the circumstances of each particular case, may appear just; but there is no positive law or binding regulation to which parties may appeal, for ascertaining the rate of such salvage. "The maritime law of England," says Lord Stowell, "having adopted a most liberal rule of restitution on salvage, with respect to the recaptured property of its own subjects, gives the benefit of that rule to its allies, till it appears that they act towards British property on a less liberal principle; in such a case it adopts their rule, and treats them according to their own measure of justice." — (1 Rob. Adm. Rep. 54.)

Salvage is one of those charges which are usually provided against by insurance. When, however, the salvage is very high, and the object of the voyage is so far defeated, the insured is, by the laws of this and all other maritime nations, allowed to abandon, and to call upon the insurer as for a total loss.—(See ABANDONMENT.)

For further information with respect to salvage, see *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part. iii. c. 10.; *Park on Insurance*, c. 8.; and *Marshall on Insurance*, book 1. c. 12. § 8.

SAMPLE, a small quantity of a commodity exhibited at public or private sales, as a specimen. Sugars, wool, spirits, wine, coffee, and, indeed, most species of merchandise, are sold by sample. If an article be not, at an average, equal to the sample by which it is sold, the buyer may cancel the contract, and return the article to the seller.

Subjoined is a list of most articles that may be warehoused, and of the quantities that may be taken out as samples.— (*Customs Min.* Oct. 11. 1825.)

Alkali or barilla	4 lbs. per pile 5 tons.
Alum	4 oz. per package.
Arum	4 lb. do.
Arrow root	4 lb. do.
Balsam capivi	2 oz. do.
Bark, Quina	4 lb. do.
in general	4 lb. do.
Beeswax	4 lb. do.
Bettnut, rough	4 lb. per pile.
in rolls	4 lb. per package.
Cassia	4 lb. do.
Cassia, white	4 lb. do.
Capers	4 lb. do.
Castilee	4 oz. do.
in dist.	4 oz. do.
Cocoa nut oil	4 pint each cask.
Collyer	4 oz. per bag.
Colocynthis	4 oz. per package.
Crocus (indian)	4 oz. do.
Custion	4 oz. do.
Cream of tartar	4 lb. do.
Currants	4 lb. do.
Essence of bergamot or lemon	4 oz. do.
Euorbium	4 lb. do.
Feathers, bed	4 lb. per lot 6 bags.
Felis	4 lb. do.
Fennel	4 lb. do.
Ginger	4 oz. do.
Glaucina, see Glaucina	
Gum Arabic	4 lb. per package.
Guaiacum	4 lb. do.
Hyacinth	4 oz. do.
Indigo	4 lb. do.
Any further quantity not	

exceeding 11	lb. to be
charged with	do.
pieces of	do.
livory of the	do.
packages	do.
Langiass	4 lb. per package.
Juice of lemons	4 pint do.
Lac dye	4 oz. do.
Lead, black	4 lb. do.
Lemon peel	4 lb. each emery.
Liquorice juice	4 lb. per package.
Madder, root	4 lb. do.
factured,	4 lb. do.
root	4 lb. do.
Oil of almonds	4 oz. do.
unmixed	4 oz. do.
ivy	4 oz. do.
Juniper	4 oz. do.
olive	4 pint per cask.
oil palm	4 pint do.
rosemary	4 oz. per package.
spike	4 oz. do.
thyme	4 oz. do.
Orange peel	4 lb. do.
Orichelia	4 oz. do.
Orice root	4 lb. do.
Pepper	4 oz. per bag.
Pimento	4 oz. do.
Nutts	contra.
yerva	4 oz. per package.
guilana	4 lb. per pile.
peccacane	4 oz. per package.
senecar	4 oz. do.
Halsina	4 lb. each mark.
Rhubarb	4 oz. per package.
Rice	4 lb. do.
saffron	4 oz. do.
Sago	4 lb. per pile.

Saltpetre	4 oz. per package.
Sassafras	4 lb. do.
Saltpetre	4 lb. do.
Seed, aniseed	4 oz. per package.
chervil	4 oz. do.
Caraway	4 oz. do.
inc	4 oz. do.
mustard	4 oz. do.
Senna	4 oz. do.
Siamensis	4 lb. per lot 10 bags.
Silk raw	4 oz. per package.
thrown	4 oz. do.
Wax	4 oz. do.
Rumex	4 oz. do.
Spirits	4 pint per cask.
and quality	
Sugar, foreign	4 oz. per box not exceeding 5 cwt.
not per box or chest	4 oz. per box or chest
exceeding 5 cwt.	4 lb. per bushel.
not per bushel	4 lb. per bushel.
British plantation	4 lb. per chest.
not per barrel	4 lb. per barrel.
4 lb. muscovado per hind.	
or cask.	
Tallow	4 oz. per lot 10 pcks.
Tapioca	4 oz. per package.
Tea	4 oz. of each description
Turmeric	4 lb. per pile.
Vanilla	4 lb. per lot.
Wax, bees'	4 lb. per package.
Wine	4 pint.
Wool, cotton	4 oz. per package.
sheep or lamb'	4 lb. do.
Spanish	4 lb. do.
Wool, mohair	4 lb. do.
cotton	4 lb. do.
Mother of pearl	4 lb. per lot 10 packages.
shells	4 lb. per package.
Vermicelli	4 oz. per package.

SANDAL WOOD, the wood of a tree (*Santalum album* Lin.) having somewhat of the appearance of a large myrtle. It is of a deep yellow colour, and yields an agreeable perfume. The tree, when cut down, is usually about 9 inches in diameter at the root, but sometimes considerably more. After being felled, it is barked, cut into billets, and buried in a dry place for about a couple of months, during which time the white ants eat off the outer wood, without touching the heart, which is the sandal. It is then taken up and sorted, according to the size of the billets. The deeper the colour, and the nearer the root, the higher is the perfume. Reject such pieces as are of a pale colour, small, decayed, or have white wood about them; and take especial care that it be not mixed with wood resembling sandal, but without its perfume.— (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

Sandal wood is extensively employed by the Hindoos as a perfume, in their funeral ceremonies. But the Chinese are its principal consumers. They manufacture it into fans, and small articles of furniture, and use it, when ground into powder, as a cosmetic. During the year ended the 30th of June, 1838, there were imported by British vessels into Canton, 6,166 piculs of sandal wood, valued at 147,964 dollars (see *ann.* p. 255.) and the imports in some years are more than twice this amount. The average importation into Calcutta is about 200 tons a year. It grows principally in Malabar, in the mountainous country at a little distance from the low sea coast; in Timor; and in the Feejee Islands in the South Sea. Calcutta is principally supplied from Malabar, while China derives the larger portion of her supplies from Timor and the other islands. It is seldom brought to Europe, except by individuals for their own use, or as presents for their friends.— (*Bel's External Com. of Bengal*, pp. 49, and 88.; *Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. i. p. 619, vol. iii. p. 421. &c.)

SANDARACH, a resinous substance, commonly met with in loose granules a little larger than a pea, of a whitish yellow colour, brittle, inflammable, of a resinous smell,

and acrid aromatic taste. It exudes, it is said, in warm climates, from cracks and incisions in the common juniper bush. It is used as a varnish, dissolved in spirits of wine. — (*Ainslie's Mat. Indica.*)

SANDWICH ISLANDS. This secluded, but interesting group, is situated in the midst of the Pacific Ocean, in about the 21st degree of N. lat., and the 157th of W. long. It comprises 8 inhabited and 2 uninhabited islands, of which Owhyhee, where Captain Cook was killed, is the most considerable. They are of volcanic formation, and mountainous, some of the peaks rising, in Owhyhee, to between 19,000 and 14,000 feet in height! The population in 1836 is said to have amounted to above 108,000, of which nearly 40,000 belonged to Owhyhee. The islanders are honourably distinguished among the Polynesian nations, by the advances they have made in civilisation; and particularly by their progress in manufactures, navigation, and commerce. Christianity was introduced by the American missionaries in 1820, and is now the religion of the state; schools have been established, churches have been built, and the forms of religion are at least pretty well observed. European usages have become fashionable; and the costume of the better classes, women as well as men, closely resembles that of the Americans.

The principal port is Honolulu or Honoruru, on the S. side of the island of Woahoo, in lat. 21° 18' 3" N., long. 157° 53' W. Population about 8,500, of whom about 450 are Englishmen, Americans, and other foreigners. The harbour, to which the place owes all its importance, has a narrow entrance, but it is easy of access at all times of the tide to vessels not drawing more than 18 ft. water. The bar at its mouth being narrow and composed of soft coral, it might easily be made accessible even for line-of-battle ships. We subjoin a

List of Merchant Vessels arrived at Honolulu during the Year 1842.

	Ships.	Tons.
From Chili and Peru	3	1,115
Mexico	22	4,277
Guatemala	2	258
China	1	212
New Zealand and Tahiti	4	450
England	2	636
U. States	5	1,095
Columbia River	5	1,272
	45	9,435

List of Whaling Vessels arrived at the same Port during the Year 1842 (second Visits of the same Vessels not included).

	No.	Tonnage.	Cargoes.	
			Sperm Oil, Tons.	Black Oil, Tons.
American	44	18,780	4,044	3,865
English	16	5,976	1,289	170
French	5	2,470	-	655
Danish	1	238	10	175
	66	25,462	5,323	3,865

About 14 or 15 vessels belong to the port, of which 3 are the property of the government, 3 of native chiefs, and the remainder of the resident foreigners.

A newspaper in the English language is published in the town, in which we have noticed advertisements of ladies' shoes from Paris, *Eau-de-Cologne*, laces, &c. The sovereignty of these islands was ceded, in February 1842, to the British; but the cession was declined by the admiral commanding in chief in the Pacific. — (*Geog. Dict. art. Polynesia; Simpson's Sandwich Islands.*)

SAPAN WOOD is obtained from a species of the same tree that yields the Brazil wood (*Cesalpinia Sapan* Lin.). It is a middle sized forest tree, indigenous to Siam, Pegu, the Philippine Islands, &c. It has been employed for dyeing in the greater part of Asia for many centuries. It found its way into Europe some time before the discovery of America; but very little is now imported. Its colouring matter differs but little from that of Brazil wood, but the best sapan wood does not yield more than half the quantity that may be obtained from an equal weight of Brazil wood, and the colour is not quite so bright. — (*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 329.) Its price in the London market varies from 7l. to 12l. a ton.

SAPPHIRE (*Ger. Sapphir; Du. Saffiersteen; Fr. Saphir; It. Zaffiro; Sp. Safiro, Safir; Rus. Jachant; Lat. Sapphirus*), a precious stone in very high estimation. Colours blue and red; also gray, white, green, and yellow. It occurs in blunt-edged pieces, in roundish pebbles, and crystallised. Varies from transparent to translucent. Refracts double. After diamond, it is the hardest substance in nature. The blue variety, or sapphire, is harder than the ruby, or red variety. Brittle. Specific gravity 4 to 4.2.

It is found in Bohemia, Saxony, France, &c.; but the red sapphire, or Oriental ruby, is not found in any considerable quantity anywhere except in Ava. Next to diamond, sapphire is the most valuable of the gems. The white and pale blue varieties, by exposure to heat, become snow white, and, when cut, exhibit so high a degree of lustre, that they are used in place of diamond. The most highly prized varieties are the crimson and carmine red; these are the Oriental *ruby* of the jeweller; the next is *sapphire*; and last, the yellow or Oriental *topaz*. The *asterias*, or star-stone, is a very beautiful variety, in which the colour is generally of a reddish violet, and the form a rhomboid, with truncated apices, which exhibit an opalescent lustre. — (*See Rubv.*)

Mr. Crawford gives the following details with respect to the sapphire and ruby mines of Ava: — "The precious stones ascertained to exist in the Burmese territory are chiefly those of the sapphire family,

* Professor Jameson says in his *Mineralogy*, that some peculiarly beautiful sapphires are found in the Capellan mountains, in Pegu. But we are not aware that there are any such mountains in any part of the world; and, in point of fact, there are no mountains in Pegu, nor have any precious stones been ever found in it.

and the spinelle ruby. They are found at 2 places, not very distant from each other, called Mogaht and Kyapian, about 8 days' journey from the capital, in an E. S. E. direction. From what I could learn, the gems are not obtained by any regular mining operations, but by digging and washing the gravel in the beds of rivulets or small brooks. All the varieties of the sapphire, as well as the spinelle, are found together, and along with them large quantities of corundum. The varieties ascertained to exist, are the Oriental sapphire; the Oriental ruby, or red stone; the opalescent ruby, or cat's eye ruby; the star ruby; the green; the yellow and the white sapphires; and the Oriental amethyst. The common sapphire is by far the most frequent, but, in comparison with the ruby, is very little prized by the Burmese, in which they agree with other nations. I brought home with me several of great size, the largest weighing no less than 3,630 grains, or above 907 carats. The spinelle ruby (*zebu-gong*) is not infrequent in Ava, but is not much valued by the natives. I brought with me to England a perfect specimen, both as to colour and freedom from flaws, weighing 22 carats. The sapphire and ruby mines are considered the property of the king; at least he lays claim to all stones that exceed in value a *vas* of silver, or 100 *cleats*. The miners, it appears, endeavour to evade this law by breaking the large stones into fragments. In the royal treasury there are, notwithstanding, many fine stones of both descriptions. The year before our visit, the king received from the mines a ruby weighing 124 grains; and the year preceding that, 8 good ones, but of smaller size. No stranger is permitted to visit the mines; even the Chinese and Mohammedans residing at Ava are carefully excluded. — (*Journal of an Embassy to the Court of Ava*, p. 442.)

SARCOCOLLA, a subviscid, sweetish, and somewhat nauseous gum resin. It is brought from Arabia and Persia in small grains of a pale yellow colour; the whitest, as being the freshest, is preferred. It is but seldom imported. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SARDINES, or **SARDINIAS** (Ger. *Sardellen*; Fr. *Sardines*; It. *Sardine*; Sp. *Sardinias*), a species of fish of the herring tribe, but smaller. They are taken in considerable quantities on our coasts, and are exceedingly plentiful on the coasts of Algarve in Portugal, Andalusia and Granada in Spain, and along the shores of Italy. The small sardines, caught on the coast of Provence, in France, are esteemed the best. From 1,000 to 1,200 fishing smacks are engaged in catching these fish on the coast of Brittany, from June to the middle of October. The French frequently cure them in red brine; and when thus prepared, designate them *anchovies*, or *anchovied sardines*. These are packed in vessels previously employed for holding wine, and exported to the Levant. When perfectly fresh, sardines are accounted excellent fish; but if kept for any time, they entirely lose their flavour, and become quite insipid.

SARDONYX, a precious stone, a variety of chalcedony.

The ancients selected this substance to engrave upon, no doubt, from its possessing two peculiar and necessary qualities, viz. hardness and tenacity; by which it is capable of receiving the finest touch or stroke of the tool without chipping, and showing the art of the engraver to the highest perfection. — (*Mace on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 121.)

SARSAPARILLA (Ger. *Sarsaparille*; Fr. *Salseparille*; It. *Salsapariglia*; Sp. *Zarzaparilla*), the root of the *Smilax Sarsaparilla*, a plant growing in South America and the West Indies. It is imported in bales. It is known in the London market by the names of Lisbon, Honduras, and Vera Cruz, but it is also brought from Jamaica. The Lisbon root, which is the produce of Brazil, has a reddish or dark brown cuticle, is internally farinaceous, and more free from fibre than the other kinds; the Honduras has a dirty brown, and sometimes whitish, cuticle; it is more fibrous, and has more ligneous matter, than the Lisbon and Vera Cruz. It is in long slender twigs, covered with a wrinkled brown cuticle, and has a small woody heart. The Jamaica differs from the others, in having a deep red cuticle of a close texture; and the red colour partially diffused through the ligneous part. The root is inodorous, and has a mucilaginous, very slightly bitter taste; the bark is the only useful part of the plant; the ligneous part being tasteless, inert, woody fibre. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The duty of 6d. per lb., with which it was then charged, produced, in 1840, 3,573*l.*, showing that 142,920 lbs. had been entered for consumption. In 1842 the duty was reduced to 1d. per lb.

SASSAFRAS (Ger. and Fr. *Sassafras*; It. *Sassafrasso*; Sp. *Sassafras*), a species of laurel (*Laurus Sassafras* Lin.), a native of the southern parts of North America, Cochin-China, and several of the Indian islands. Sassafras wood, root, and bark have a fragrant odour, and a sweetish aromatic taste. The wood is of a brownish white colour; and the bark ferruginous within, spongy, and divisible into layers. Their sensible qualities and virtues depend on an essential oil, which may be obtained separate by distilling the chips or the bark with water. It is very fragrant, hot, and penetrating to the taste, of a pale yellow colour, and heavier than water. It is used only in the materia medica. Very little is imported. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

SAUNDERS (RED) (Arab. *Sundul-ahmer*; Hind. *Ruckut-chundum*), the wood of a lofty tree (*Pterocarpus santalinus*) indigenous to various parts of India, Ceylon, Timor, &c. The wood is brought to Europe in billets, which are very heavy and sink in water. It is extremely hard, of a fine grain, and a bright garnet red colour, which brightens on exposure to the air. It is employed to dye lasting reddish brown colours on wool. It yields its colouring matter to ether and alcohol, but not to water. The quantity imported is but inconsiderable. The price in bond varies at this moment (November, 1843) from 6*l.* to 7*l.* a ton. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 236.)

SCAMMONY (Ger. *Skammonien*; Fr. *Scammonée*; It. *Scammonea*; Sp. *Escamonea*),

a gum-resin, the produce of a species of convolvulus, or creeper plant, which grows abundantly in Syria. When an incision is made into the roots, they yield a milky juice, which being kept, grows hard, and is the scammony of the shops. It is imported from Aleppo in what are called drums, weighing from 75 to 125 lbs. each; and from Smyrna in cakes like wax, packed in chests. The former is light and friable, and is considered the best; that from Smyrna is more compact and ponderous, less friable, and fuller of impurities. It has a peculiar heavy odour, not unlike that of old cheese; and a bitterish, slightly acrid taste. The colour is blackish or bluish grey, changing to dirty white, or lathering when the surface is rubbed with a wet finger. Its specific gravity is .1235. It is very liable to be adulterated; and when of a dark colour, heavy, and splintery, it ought to be rejected. It is used only in medicine. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The duty on scammony, which was formerly as high as 6s. 4d. per lb., was reduced in 1832 to 2s. 6d., and in 1842 to 6d.

SCULPTURES, figures cut in stone, metal, or other solid substance, representing or describing some real or imaginary object. The art of the sculptor, or statuary, was carried to the highest pitch of excellence in ancient Greece. Fortunately, several of the works of the Grecian sculptors have been preserved; and serve at once to stimulate and direct the genius of modern artists.

Models, are casts or representations of sculptures.

The act 51 Geo. 3. c. 56, vests the property of sculptures, models, copies, and casts in the proprietor for 14 years; provided he cause his name, with the date, to be put on them before they are published; with the same term in addition, if he should be living at the end of the first period. In actions for piracy, double costs to be given. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 107, prohibits the importation, on pain of forfeiture, of any sculptures, models, casts, &c. first made in the U. Kingdom.

SEAL (Lat. *Stigillum*), a stone, piece of metal, or other solid substance, generally round or elliptical, on which is engraved the arms, crest, name, device, &c. of some state, prince, public body, or private individual. It is employed as a stamp to make an impression on sealing wax, thereby authenticating public acts, deeds, &c., or to close letters or packets. Seals were very early invented, and much learning has been employed in tracing their history, and explaining the figures upon them. — See particularly the work of *Hopkinson, De Sigillorum Prisco et Novo Jure*, 4to, 1642.) They are now very generally used.

The best are usually formed of precious stones, on which the crest or the initials of the person's name are engraved, set in gold. But immense numbers are formed of stained glass, and set in gilt copper. They are manufactured at London, Birmingham, &c., and are extensively exported.

SEAL FISHERY. The seal, an amphibious animal, of which there are many varieties, is found in vast numbers in the seas round Spitzbergen, and on the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland. As it frequents the British shores, it is well known, and has been repeatedly described. Seals are principally hunted for their oil and skins. When taken in the spring of the year, when they are fattest, a full grown seal will yield from 8 to 12 gallons of oil, and a small one from 4 to 5 gallons. The oil, when extracted before putrefaction has commenced, is beautifully transparent, free from smell, and not unpleasant in its taste. The skin, when tanned, is extensively employed in the making of shoes; and when dressed with the hair on, serves for the covering of trunks, &c. For an account of the imports of seal-skins, see art. SKINS.

"To the Esquimaux the seal is of as much importance as bread to a European. Its flesh forms their most usual food; the fat is partly dressed for eating, and partly consumed in their lamps; the liver, which is esteemed, even among sailors, as an agreeable dish. The skin, which the Esquimaux dress by processes peculiar to themselves, is made waterproof. With the hair off, it is used as coverings, instead of planks, for their boats, and as outer garments for themselves; shielded with which, they can venture themselves and canoes in the water, without getting their bodies wet. It serves also for coverings for their tents, and for various other purposes. The jackets and trousers made of seal-skin by the Esquimaux are in great request among the whale fishers for preserving them from oil and wet." — (*Scrovelly's Arctic Voyages*, vol. 1. p. 310.)

Seals in the weather prefer the ice to the water, and vast herds of them are frequently found lying on the field ice; the places where they are met with being thence called "seal meadows." The seal hunters endeavour to surprise them while sleeping, and to intercept their retreat to the water. They attack them with muskets and bludgeons, but principally the latter, they being easily despatched by a blow on the nose.

The seal fishery has long been prosecuted to a considerable extent in the northern seas by ships from the Elbe and the Weser; but very few ships have been sent out for sealing only from England, though occasionally some of the whale ships have taken large quantities of seals. Lately, however, the seal fishery has been prosecuted on a large scale, and with extraordinary success, by vessels of from 80 to 120 tons each, having crews of from 16 to 30 men, fitted out from the ports of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, &c. The business is attended with a good deal of risk, and instances frequently occur of the vessels being crushed to pieces by the collision of the fields of ice. We borrow the following details from Mr. Bliss's tract on the *Trade, Statistics, &c. of Canada and our North American Possessions*.

"There is another department of the colonial fishery which has originated within no distant period, and is now of great extent and importance. The large fields of ice which, in the months of March and April, drift southward from the Polar seas, are accompanied by many herds of seals; these are found sleeping in what are called the seal meadows of the ice, and are there attacked and slaughtered in vast numbers. For this purpose the fishers of Newfoundland, from which island these voyages are principally made, without waiting till the return of spring shall have opened their harbours, saw channels through the ice for their vessels, and set sail in quest of those drifting fields, through the openings of which they work a passage, attended with great difficulties and dangers, till they encounter their prey on the seal

meadows. This bold and hazardous enterprise seems well compensated by its success. The number of seals thus taken is almost incredible, and is greatly on the increase."—(p. 70.) There were captured by the Newfoundland fishermen, in 1836, 375,361 seals; in 1839, 437,501. Large quantities are also taken by the Nova Scotia and Labrador fishermen.

See also *M'Gregor's British America*, 2d. edit. vol. 1. p. 197, &c. There is a good account of the seal in *Lea's Voyage to Spitzbergen*. For the price of seal oil, see Oil.

SEALING WAX (Ger. *Siegelwax*; Fr. *Cire d'Espagne*, *Cire à cacheter*; It. *Cera Laeca*, *Cera di Spagna*; Sp. *Lacre*; Rus. *Surgutsch*), the wax used for sealing letters, legal instruments, &c. It is a composition of gum 'ac, melted and incorporated with resin, and afterwards coloured with some pigment, as vermilion, verditer, ivory black, &c.

SEAMEN, the individuals engaged in navigating ships, barges, &c. upon the high seas. Those employed for this purpose upon rivers, lakes, or canals, are denominated watermen.

A *British Seaman* must be a natural born subject of her Majesty; or be naturalised by act of parliament; or made a denizen by letters of denization; or have become a British subject by the conquest or cession of some newly acquired territory; or (being a foreigner) have served on board her Majesty's ships of war, in time of war, for the space of 3 years.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54. s. 16.) But her Majesty may, by proclamation during war, declare that foreigners who have served two years in the royal navy, during such war, shall be deemed British seamen.—(s. 17.)

Various regulations have been enacted with respect to the hiring of seamen, their conduct while on board, and the payment of their wages. These regulations differ in different countries; but, in all, they have been intended to obviate the disputes that might otherwise arise between the master and seamen in regard to the terms of the contract between them, to secure due obedience to the master's orders, and to interest the seamen in the completion of the voyage, by making their earnings depend on its successful termination.

The more important particulars in the law of England in regard to seamen will, we believe, be found in the following article. In the first place it is necessary to inquire by whom they may be hired.

1. *Who may hire Seamen.*—Seamen have long been subjected to imposition from the fraudulent practices of persons offering to find them employment, by falsely representing themselves as agents for, or as having an interest in certain ships, and engaging or pretending to engage seamen to serve therein. In the view of obviating such practices in future, a statute was passed in 1845, the 8 & 9 Victoria, c. 116, which enacts, in substance, that from and after the 1st day of November that year no person except the owner, part owner, master or person in charge of a merchant ship, or the ship's husband, will be at liberty to hire, engage, supply, or provide seamen to be entered on board merchant ships, without a licence first obtained from the Lords of the Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council appointed for the management of trade and plantations. Application for such licences must be made by letter addressed to "The Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, Whitehall, London." The clauses in the statute are as follows:—

Board of Trade may license Persons.—The Board of Trade are empowered to license such persons as they may deem to be suitable and fit, and who may be desirous to take out such licences, to hire, engage, supply, or provide seamen to be entered on board merchant ships; and every such licence shall be granted for such period, upon such terms, and upon such security being given, and shall be revocable upon such conditions, as the Board may at any time or times appoint.—§ 1.

Manner of granting and revoking Licence.—Every such licence shall be granted, and every revocation thereof shall be made, by minute or resolution of the Board, and a copy of any such minute or resolution, certified and signed by one of the secretaries or assistant secretaries of said Board, shall be received as evidence of such licence or revocation, without further proof thereof.—§ 2.

No Person not duly licensed or interested in the Ship to be concerned in procuring Seamen to be engaged.—No person not duly licensed as aforesaid, or not being the owner, part owner, master, or person in charge of a merchant ship, or the ship's husband, shall hire, engage, supply, or provide a seaman to be entered on board any merchant ship; and no person, whether licensed or not, other than the owner, part owner, master, or person in charge of a merchant ship, or the ship's husband, shall demand or obtain the register ticket of any seaman for the purpose or under the pretence of engaging him on board of any merchant ship.—§ 3.

No Person interested in the Ship shall knowingly receive Seamen hired contrary hereto.—No owner, part owner, master, or person in charge of any merchant ship, or ship's husband, shall knowingly receive or accept to be entered on board the said ship any seaman who has been hired, engaged, supplied, or provided to be entered on board thereof contrary to the provisions of this act.—§ 4.

Penalty on every Person guilty of any of the Offences above described.—Every person guilty of any of the offences above described shall forfeit and pay for each and every seaman hired, engaged, supplied, or provided to be entered on board, and for every register ticket demanded or obtained contrary to the provisions of this act, or for every seaman knowingly received or accepted to be entered on board contrary to the provisions of this act, any sum of money not exceeding 20*l.* upon conviction thereof for each offence, although several seamen may be included in the same contract, or several tickets may be obtained, or several seamen may be received or permitted to remain at the same time.—§ 5.

Unlicensed Persons not to be employed for the Purpose of engaging Seamen.—It shall be unlawful for any person to employ any unlicensed person or persons for the purpose of engaging or providing seamen to be entered on board merchant ships; and any licensed person knowingly employing any unlicensed person for the purposes aforesaid shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 20*l.*, and, in addition thereto, shall forfeit and lose his licence.—§ 6.

No Advance Note or Wages to be given or paid to any Seaman until after the Ship's Articles have been duly signed.—The owner, part owner, master, or person in charge of any merchant ship, or ship's hus-

band, shall not pay or advance, nor give any note in writing or otherwise in the nature of and purporting to be an advance note for any part of the wages of any seaman hired, engaged, supplied, or provided to be entered on board the said ship, until six hours after the ship's articles have been duly signed by the said seaman on board the said ship, and by the master or owner of the said ship, and then only to the said seaman himself, unless such wages or advance of wages be paid in money, in which case the payment thereof may be made to the said seaman himself at any period most convenient after the signing of the said ship's articles as aforesaid; and all payments of wages contrary to the provisions of this act shall be and are hereby declared to be null and void, and the amount thereof shall be recoverable by the said seaman as if they had not been paid or advanced. — § 7.

Penalty for receiving Remuneration for Hiring Seamen, &c. — If any person shall demand or receive from any seaman, or from any person other than the owner, part owner, master, or person in charge of a merchant ship, or the ship's husband, requiring seamen, any remuneration whatever, either directly or indirectly, for and on account of the hiring, supplying, or providing any such seaman, he shall forfeit for every such offence a sum not exceeding 5*l.* — § 8.

Persons not to be admitted on board Merchant Vessels before their Arrival in Dock, &c. — It shall not be lawful for any person (other than any officer or person in H. M.'s service) to go and be on board any merchant vessel arriving or about to arrive at the place of her destination before or previous to her actual arrival in dock, or at the quay or place of her discharge, without the permission and consent of the master or person in charge of the said vessel; and if any person (other than as aforesaid) shall go and be on board any such vessel before or previous to her actual arrival in dock, or at the quay or place of her discharge, without the permission and consent of the said master or person in charge of the said vessel, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay a sum of money not exceeding 20*l.*; and for the better securing the person of such offender the master or person in charge of the said vessel is hereby authorized and empowered to take any person so offending as aforesaid into custody, and to deliver him up forthwith to any constable or peace officer, to be by him taken as a justice or justices, to be dealt with according to the provisions of this act. — § 9.

Penalty for soliciting Sailors to become Lodgers, &c. — If any person shall on board any merchant ship, within 24 hours of her arrival at any port as aforesaid, solicit any seaman to become a lodger at the house of any person not so licensed as aforesaid, and letting lodgings for hire, or shall take from and out of such ship any chest, bedding, or other effects of any seaman, except under the personal direction of such seaman, and without having the permission of the master or person in charge of such ship, he shall be liable to forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of 5*l.* — § 10.

Penalty for receiving Remuneration for Board of Sailors for longer Period than is due, &c. — If any person shall demand or receive of and from any seaman payment in respect of his board or lodging in the house of such person for a longer period than such seaman shall have actually resided and boarded therein, or shall receive or take into his possession or under his control any moneys, documents, or effects of any seaman, and shall not return the same or pay the value thereof when required so to do by such seaman, after deducting therefrom what shall be justly due and owing in respect of the board and lodging of such seaman, he shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 10*l.*, over and above the amount or value of such moneys, documents, or effects, after such deductions as aforesaid, which shall be adjudged to be forthwith paid to such seaman under the conviction by the justices before whom such offence shall be heard and determined. — § 11.

The following clauses relate to the recovery and application of penalties.

2. *Conditions under which Seamen are to be engaged.* — In 1835 an act was passed (5 & 6 W. 4. c. 19.) of much importance to seamen, and to persons connected with navigation. It was intitled "An Act for amending and consolidating the Laws relating to Merchant Seamen, and for forming and maintaining a Register of all the Men engaged in that Service." It laid down the various forms and regulations to be observed in hiring, paying, and discharging seamen; established an office for their registry; and prescribed the mode in which lists of crews were to be transmitted to the registrar. It also regulated the number of apprentices to be taken on board ship; the conditions under which seamen may, in certain cases, be left in foreign parts; with a variety of other interesting particulars. It farther went on to repeal the act 2 & 3 Ann. c. 6. for the increase of seamen, &c.; the act 2 Geo. 2. c. 36. for the better regulation, &c. of seamen in the merchant service; the act 2 G. 3. c. 31. for perpetuating the last-mentioned act, &c.; the act 31 G. 3. c. 39. for the better regulation, &c. of seamen in the coasting trade of the kingdom; the act 45 G. 3. c. 81. for amending the last-mentioned act; the act 37 G. 3. c. 73. for preventing the desertion of seamen from British merchant ships in the West Indies; the act 58 G. 3. c. 38. to extend and render more effectual the regulations for the relief of seafaring men and boys, &c., subjects of the U. K., in foreign parts; the act 4 G. 4. c. 25. for regulating the number of apprentices to be taken on board British merchant vessels, &c.; and the act 3 & 4 W. 4. c. 88. for continuing the 59 G. 3. c. 58. for facilitating the recovery of the wages of seamen in the merchant service.

This act, however, was itself repealed in 1844, except in so far as relates to the establishment, maintenance, and regulation of the office for the registry of merchant seamen, by the 7 & 8 Victoria, c. 112, which came into operation on the 1st of January, 1845; but all offences committed, and penalties and forfeitures incurred previously to the said 1st of January, 1845, were made punishable and recoverable as if the act 5 & 6 W. 4. c. 19. had not been repealed.

As any infraction of the provisions of the new act incurs in most cases heavy penalties, it should be carefully studied and attended to by masters and men. After declaring that the prosperity, strength, and safety of the U. K. greatly depend on a large, constant, and ready supply of seamen; and that it is, therefore, expedient to afford them all due encouragement and protection, it proceeds to enact

No Seaman to be taken to Sea without a written Agreement, and without a Register Ticket being obtained from such Seaman. — It shall not be lawful for any master of any ship, of whatever tonnage or description, belonging to any subject of H. M., proceeding to parts beyond the seas, or of any British registered ship of the burden of 80 tons or upwards employed in any of the fisheries of the U. K., or in proceeding coastwise, or otherwise, from one part of the U. K. to another, to carry to sea any seaman as one of his crew or complement (apprentices excepted), unless the master of such ship shall have first

made and entered into an agreement in writing with such seaman, specifying what wages such seaman is to be paid, the quantity of provisions he is to receive, the capacity in which he is to act or serve, and the nature of the voyage in which the ship is to be employed, so that such seaman may have some means of judging of the period for which he is likely to be engaged; and that such agreement shall be properly dated, and shall be signed by such master in the first instance, and by the seamen respectively at the port or place where they shall be shipped; and that the signature of each of the parties thereto shall be duly attested by 1 witness at the least, and that the master shall cause the agreement to be read over and explained to every such seaman in the presence of such witness, before such seaman shall execute the same; and it shall not be lawful for the master of any ship to carry to sea any seaman, being a subject of H. M., until he shall also have first obtained from every such seaman or other person his register ticket (to be procured as herein-after mentioned), which ticket the said master is hereby required to retain (except in the cases herein-after provided), until the service of such seaman shall have terminated, and at the termination of such service the said master shall return the register ticket to him.— § 2.

Regulations respecting Form of Agreements, and how to be disposed of.—In the case of any ships, of whatever tonnage or description, belonging to any subject or subjects of H. M., and proceeding to parts beyond the sea, (except as herein-after provided,) the agreement shall be in the form set forth in the subjoined schedule marked (A), and shall contain the several particulars therein mentioned or required; and the master shall, within 24 hours after the ship's arrival at her final port of destination in this U. K., deliver or cause to be delivered to the collector or comptroller of the customs at and for such port every agreement so made as aforesaid, or a true copy thereof, and of every endorsement thereon, the agreement, or copy thereof, in either case, to be certified as such by such master or owner, and also by the mate or next officer (if any) of such ship or vessel, each of whom is hereby required to sign such certificate in the presence of 1 attesting witness at the least; and if the original agreement be delivered to such collector or comptroller he shall retain the same until all the wages to which the agreement relates shall be paid or satisfied, and then he shall transmit such original agreement to the registrar of seamen; and no such ship shall be cleared inwards by the tide surveyor or other officer until the master shall produce and show a certificate from such collector or comptroller, certified as aforesaid, and such collector and comptroller respectively shall and are hereby required to give a receipt (specifying the nature of the document) for every agreement or other document, or such copy thereof, to the master, owner, or person so delivering the same; and no master or owner, after the expiration of the said 21 days, shall be entitled to or receive a transfer, or any other customs document necessary for the conduct of the business of the ship, until he shall produce and show such receipt, or shall prove to the satisfaction of the officer that every such agreement, or such copy thereof as aforesaid, has been duly delivered as aforesaid; and the owner or master of every ship under the burden of 80 tons, employed as last aforesaid, who is not required by this act to enter into any written agreement with his crew, shall, before employing any seaman or other person in the service of his ship, receive from every such seaman or other person his register ticket, and shall retain the same until the service of such seaman or other person shall have expired, and at the expiration of such service the master shall return the register ticket to the person entitled thereto.— § 3.

SCHEDULE (A.)

An Agreement made pursuant to the directions of an Act of Parliament passed in the year of the reign of between the master of the ship of the Port of and of the burden of tons, and the several persons whose names are subscribed hereto.

It is agreed by and on the part of the said persons, and they severally hereby engage to serve on board the said ship in the several capacities against their respective names expressed on a voyage from the port of to (here the intended voyage is to be described as nearly as can be done, and the places at which it is intended the ship shall touch, or if that cannot be done, the nature of the voyage in which she is to be employed); and the said crew further engage to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner, and to be at all times diligent to th. their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master in every thing relating to the said ship, and the materials, stores, and cargo on board, whether on board such ship, in boats, or on shore (here may be inserted any other clauses which the parties may think proper to be introduced into the agreement, provided that the same be not contrary to or

inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of this act); in consideration of which services, to be duly, honestly, carefully, and faithfully performed, the said master doth hereby promise and agree to pay to the said crew by way of compensation or wages the amount against their names respectively expressed. And it is hereby agreed, that any embezzlement, or willful or negligent loss or destruction, of any part of the ship's cargo or stores, shall be made good to the owner out of the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall have entered himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he shall be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for, in proportion to his incompetency. In witness whereof the said parties have hereunto subscribed their names, on the days against their respective signatures mentioned.

No. and Date of Ship's Register.	Place and Time of Entry.			Men's Names, Christian and Surname at full Length.	Town or County where born.	Quali-ty.	Amount of Wages per Calendar Month, Hire, or Voyage.	Amount of Wage advanced at Time of Entry.	Amount of Monthly Provisionment.	Quantity of Provisions per Day.	Wit-ness Sig-nature.	Name of Ship in which last served.	Num-ber of Regis-ter Ticket.
	Day	Mo.	Yr.										

I hereby declare to the truth of all the particulars set forth in this agreement (or this attested copy of agreement), delivered to the collector or comptroller of the port of this day of 18 . Master.

Note.—This agreement, or an attested copy thereof, is required to be delivered to the collector and comptroller of customs within 24 hours after the arrival of the ship at her final port of destination in the United Kingdom.

agreement contrary to the act, by which a seaman should renounce any claim to wages in the case of freight earned by a ship subsequently lost, or any claim to salvage, would be valid. When a written agreement is made conformably to the act, it becomes the only evidence of the contract between the parties; and a seaman cannot recover any thing agreed to be given in reward for his services, which is not specified in the articles.

A seaman who has engaged to serve on board a ship, is bound to exert himself to the utmost in the service of such ship; and, therefore, a promise made by the master of a ship in distress, to pay an extra sum to a seaman, as an inducement to extraordinary exertion on his part, is essentially void.

3. *Conduct of Seamen.*—It is essential to the business of navigation that the most prompt and ready obedience should be paid to the lawful commands of the master. To this effect it is covenanted in the articles of agreement previously quoted, that "the crew engage to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner; and to be at all times diligent to (in) their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master in every thing relating to the said ship, and the materials, stores, and cargo thereof, whether on board such ship, in boats, or on shore."

In case of disobedience or disorderly conduct, on the part of the seamen, the master may correct them in a reasonable manner. Such an authority is absolutely necessary for the safety of the ship and of those on board; it, however, behoves the master to employ it with great deliberation, and not to pervert the powers with which he is intrusted for the good of the whole, to cruel or vindictive purposes. Masters abusing their authority must answer at law for the consequences; and, except under very grave and urgent circumstances, the infliction of chastisement without previous inquiry should be carefully avoided. But in cases of actual or open mutiny, or of gross misconduct by the crew or any part of them, it may be incumbent on the master to act at once with all the energy and decision of which he is capable. In such unfortunate cases his resistance becomes an act of self defence, and is to be considered in all its consequences in that point of view. The Ordinances of Oleron and Wisby declare that a mariner who strikes the master shall either pay a fine or lose his right hand; a singular as well as barbarous alternative, unknown in modern jurisprudence.

But although the master may by force restrain the commission of crimes, he has no judicial authority over or right to punish the criminal, but is bound to secure his person and bring him before a proper tribunal. And all justices of the peace are empowered to receive informations touching any murder, piracy, felony, or robbery upon the sea, and to commit the offenders for trial. — (43 Geo. 3. c. 160.)

The desertion or absence without leave of seamen from a ship, while on a voyage to foreign parts, being attended with many bad consequences, has been provided against in all maritime laws. It is enacted by the 7 & 8 Victoria, c. 112, —

Forfeiture for temporary Absence from Duty. — If any seaman during the time or period specified for his service shall wilfully and without leave absent himself from the ship, or otherwise from his duty, he shall (in all cases not of desertion, or not treated as such by the master,) forfeit out of his wages the amount of 2 days' pay, and for every 24 hours of such absence the amount of 6 days' pay, or, at the option of the master, the amount of such expenses as shall have been necessarily incurred in hiring a substitute; and in case any seaman while he shall belong to the ship shall without sufficient cause neglect or refuse to perform such his duty as shall be reasonably required of him by the master or other person in command of the ship, he shall be subject to a like forfeiture in respect of every such offence, and of every 24 hours' continuance thereof; and in case any such seaman after the ship's arrival at her port of delivery, and before her cargo shall be discharged, shall quit the ship, without a previous discharge or leave from the master, he shall forfeit 1 month's pay out of his wages; provided always, that no such forfeiture shall be incurred unless the fact of the seaman's absence, neglect, or refusal be duly entered in the ship's log book, the truth of which entry it shall be incumbent on the owner or master, in all cases of dispute, to substantiate by the evidence of the mate or some other credible witness. — § 7.

How Amount of Forfeiture is to be ascertained when Seamen contract for the Voyage. — In all cases where the seaman shall have contracted for wages by the voyage or by the ton or by the share, and not by the month or other stated period of time, the amount of forfeiture to be incurred by seamen under this act shall be ascertained in manner following, viz: If the whole time spent in the voyage agreed upon shall exceed 1 calendar month, the forfeiture of 1 month's pay expressed in this act shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of a sum of money bearing the same proportion to the whole wages or share as a calendar month shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage; and in like manner a forfeiture of 6 days' pay, or less, shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of a sum bearing the same proportion to the whole wages or share as the 6 days or other period shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage; and if the whole time spent in the voyage shall not exceed the period for which the pay is to be forfeited, the forfeiture shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of the whole wages or share; and the master or owner is hereby authorized to deduct the amount of all forfeitures out of the wages or share of any seamen incurring the same. — § 8.

Forfeiture for Desertion. — Any seaman or other person who shall desert the ship to which he shall belong, shall forfeit to the owner thereof all his clothes and effects which he may have on board, and he shall also forfeit all wages and emoluments to which he might otherwise be entitled; and in case of any seaman deserting abroad he shall likewise forfeit all wages and emoluments whatever which shall be or become due or be agreed to be paid to him from or by the owner or master of any other ship in the service whereof such seaman may have engaged for the voyage back to the U. K.; and all wages and portions of wages and emoluments which shall in any case whatever become forfeited for desertion shall be applied, in the first instance, in or towards the reimbursement of the expenses occasioned by such desertion to the owner or master of the ship from which the seaman shall have deserted, and the remainder shall be paid to the Seamen's Hospital Society; and the master shall, in case of desertion in the U. K.,

deliver up the register ticket of such seaman or other person to the collector or comptroller of the customs at the port: provided always, that every desertion be entered in the log book at the time, and certified by the signatures of the master and the mate, or the master and one other credible witness; and that the absence of a seaman from his ship for any time within 24 hours immediately preceding the sailing of the ship from any port, whether before the commencement or during the progress of any voyage, wilfully and knowingly, without permission, or the wilful absence of a seaman from his ship at or for any time without permission, and under circumstances showing an intention to abandon the same, and not return thereto, shall be deemed a desertion of and from the same ship; and in case any seaman shall desert in parts beyond the sea, and the master of the ship shall engage a substitute at a higher rate of wages than that stipulated in the agreement to be paid to the seaman so deserting, the owner or master of the ship shall be entitled to recover from the deserter, by summary proceeding, in the same manner as penalties are by this act made recoverable (so far as the same can be applied), any excess of wages or portion thereof which such owner or master shall pay to such substitute beyond the amount which would have been payable to the deserter in case he had duly performed his service pursuant to his agreement; provided always, that no seaman shall be imprisoned longer than 3 calendar months for non-payment of any such excess of wages. — § 9.

Penalty for harbouring Deserters.— If any person shall wilfully harbour or secrete any seaman or apprentice who shall have deserted from his ship, knowing or having reason to believe such seaman or apprentice to be a deserter, every person so offending shall for every such seaman or apprentice so harboured or secreted forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*; and no debt exceeding in amount 5*l.*, incurred by any seaman after he shall have engaged to serve, shall be recoverable until the service agreed for shall have been concluded; nor shall it be lawful for any keeper of a public house, or of a lodging house for seamen, to detain any chest, tools, or other property of any seaman for any debt alleged to have been contracted by him; and in case of such detention of the chest, tools, or other property of a seaman, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace at or near the place, upon complaint upon oath to be made by such seaman or on his behalf, to inquire into the matter upon oath in a summary way; and if it shall appear in such justice that the alleged claim is fraudulent, or that the debt was not fairly incurred to the full amount of the claim, by warrant under his hand and seal, to cause such effects to be seized and delivered over to such seaman; and the person so detaining the same shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 10*l.*, at the discretion of such justice. — § 10.

It is, however, to be observed, that there are circumstances, such as gross misconduct, or systematic and extreme ill-treatment on the part of the master, that will justify the seamen in resisting his authority or deserting the ship. The duties and obligations of master and men are reciprocal; the latter are bound to give due obedience and respect to all the reasonable commands of the master, and even to those that may appear to be unreasonable; but they are not bound to obey orders that would obviously compromise their own security or that of the ship. "Desertion," said Lord Kenyon, "is a forfeiture of wages; but if the captain conducts himself in such a way as puts the sailor into that situation that he cannot without damage to his personal safety continue in his service, (human nature speaks the language,) a servant is justified in providing for his safety." The necessity of securing in all ordinary cases the most prompt compliance with the orders of the master is, however, so very urgent, that no proceeding on the part of the latter, unless it be of the most unwarrantable description, will justify the seamen in deserting or resisting his commands. Disobedience to the latter is uniformly presumed to be an offence of the gravest kind; and nothing but the most overwhelming necessity will vindicate the seamen by whom it may be committed. "The court," to use the words of Lord Stowell, "will be particularly attentive to preserve that subordination and discipline on board ship which is so indispensably necessary for the preservation of the whole service, and of every person concerned in it. A peremptory or harsh tone, or an over-charged manner, in the exercise of authority, will never be held by this court to justify resistance. It will not be sufficient that there has been a want of that personal attention and civility which usually takes place on other occasions, and might be wished generally to attend the exercise of authority. The nature of the service requires that those persons that engage in it should accommodate themselves to the circumstances attending it, and those circumstances are not unfrequently urgent, and create strong sensations which naturally find their way in strong expressions and violent demeanour. The persons subject to this species of authority are not to be captious, or to take exception to a neglect of formal or ceremonious observances."—(*Dodson's Admiralty Reports*, ii. 261.)

For an account of the penalties imposed on the master for leaving seamen in foreign countries, or refusing to bring them back, see post, and art. *МАСТРА*.

Neglect of duty, disobedience of orders, habitual drunkenness, or any cause which will justify the master in discharging a seaman during the voyage, will also deprive the seaman of his wages.

If the cargo be embezzled or injured by the fraud or negligence of the seamen, so that the merchant has a right to claim satisfaction from the master and owners, they may, by the custom of merchants, deduct the value thereof from the wages of the seamen by whose misconduct the injury has taken place. And the last proviso introduced into the agreement to be signed by the seamen, (see Schedules A. and B. pp. 1091–92) is calculated to enforce this rule in the case of the embezzlement, or the loss or destruction by negligence, of any part of the cargo or of the ship's stores. This proviso, however, is to be construed individually, as affecting only the particular persons guilty of the embezzlement, and not the whole crew. Nor is any innocent person liable to contribute a portion of his wages to make good the loss occasioned by the misconduct of others.

The offences of running away with the ship, or voluntarily yielding her up to an

enemy, or making a revolt, have in all cases been visited with the severest punishment. The statute 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7. enacted—

“ That if any commander or master of any ship, or any seaman or mariner, shall in any place, where the admiral hath jurisdiction, betray his trust and turn pirate, enemy, or rebel, and piratically and feloniously run away with his or their ship or ships, or any barge, boat, ordnance, ammunition, goods, or merchandises, or yield them up voluntarily to any pirate, or shall bring any seducing messages from any pirate, enemy, or rebel, or consult, combine, or confederate with, or attempt or endeavour to corrupt any commander, master, officer, or mariner, to yield up or run away with any ship, goods, or merchandises, or turn pirate, or go over to pirates; or if any person shall lay violent hands on his commander, whereby to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship and goods committed to his trust, or that shall confine his master, or make or endeavour to make a revolt in the ship; shall be adjudged, deemed, and taken to be a *pirate, felon, and robber*, and being convicted thereof according to the directions of this act, shall have and suffer pain of death, loss of lands, goods, and chattels, as *pirates, felons, and robbers* upon the seas ought to have and suffer.”

But by the 7 W. 4. & 1 Vict. c. 88., the penalty for this offence has been changed to transportation beyond seas for life, or for not less than 15 years, or to imprisonment for any term not exceeding 3 years.

The wilful destruction or loss of the ship has, in all countries, been punished by death. But doubts having been entertained whether the destruction of a ship that had been insured came within the scope of the previously existing statutes, they were repealed by the 43 Geo. 3. c. 115., and the following provision substituted in their stead:—

“ That if any person or persons shall, from and after the 16th day of July, 1803, wilfully cast away, burn, or otherwise destroy any ship or vessel, or in anywise counsel, direct, or procure the same to be done, and the same be accordingly done, with intent or design thereby wilfully and maliciously to prejudice any owner or owners of such ship or vessel, or any owner or owners of any goods laden on board the same, or any person or persons, body politic or corporate, that hath or have underwritten or shall underwrite any policy or policies of insurance upon such ship or vessel, or on the freight thereof, or upon any goods laden on board the same, the person or persons offending therein, being thereof lawfully convicted, shall be deemed and adjudged a principal felon or felons, and shall suffer death, as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy.”

The penalty for this offence is now, however, also changed to transportation for life, or not less than 15 years, or to imprisonment for not less than 3 years.—(1 Vict. c. 89.)

4. *Payment of Seamen's Wages, &c.*—In order to stimulate the zeal and enterprise of seamen, it has been the policy of all maritime states to make the payment of their wages depend on the successful termination of the voyage; and, for this reason, the insurance of their wages has been everywhere prohibited. “The mariner,” as Lord Stowell has forcibly stated, “goes to sea upon the single security of the freight. *Freight is the mother, and the only mother of wages*; if that goes, everything goes. He has no stepfather, if I may say so, in the character of insurer to supply the loss.”—(2 *Dodson's Admiralty Reports*, 510.) When, therefore, by any disaster happening in the course of the voyage, such as the loss or capture of the ship, the owners lose their freight, the seamen also lose their wages.

If a ship on a voyage out and home has delivered her outward-bound cargo, but perishes in the homeward voyage, the freight for the outward voyage is due; so, in the same case, the seamen are entitled to receive their wages, for the time employed in the outward voyage and the unloading of the cargo, unless by the terms of their contract the outward and homeward voyages be consolidated into one. If a ship sail to several places, wages are payable to the time of the delivery of the last cargo. Upon the same principle where money has been advanced to the owners in part of the freight outwards, and the ship perished before her arrival at the port of delivery, it was held that the seamen were entitled to wages in proportion to the money advanced.

If, after seamen have been hired, the owners of a ship do not think proper to send her on the intended voyage, the seamen are to be paid for the time during which they may have been employed on board the ship; and in the event of their sustaining any special damage by breaking off the contract, it is but reasonable that they should be indemnified.

In the case of shipwreck, it is the duty of the seamen to exert themselves to the utmost to save as much as possible of the vessel and cargo. If the cargo be saved, and a proportion of the freight paid by the merchant in respect thereof, it seems, upon principle, that the seamen are also entitled to a proportion of their wages. And for their labour in saving the cargo, or the remains of the ship, they, as well as other persons, may be entitled to a recompense by way of *salvoe*. The laws of Oleron rule, that if, in case of shipwreck, “the seamen preserve a part of the ship and lading, the master shall allow them a reasonable consideration to carry them home to their own country; and in case they save enough to enable the master to do this, he may lawfully pledge to some honest persons such part thereof as may be sufficient for the occasion.”

By the laws of Wisly, “the mariners are bound to save and preserve the merchandise to the utmost of their power, and, whilst they do so (*ce-faisant*, according to the *French* translation), ought to be paid their wages, otherwise not.” By the *Hanseatic Ordinance*, if a ship happen to be cast away, the mariners are obliged to save as much as in them lies, and the master ought to requite them for their pains to their content, and convey them at his own charge to their dwelling places; but if the mariners refuse to assist their master, in such case they shall have neither reward nor wages paid them.”

It is not quite clear, from the language of these ancient ordinances, whether the payment directed to be made to seamen on those melancholy occasions is to be regarded as a reward for their labour in the salvage, or a recompence for their former services in the ship, for which, according to general principles, they are not entitled to payment, if no freight be earned. Cleirac, in his *Commentary on the Laws of Oleron*, says, that by an ordinance of Philip II. of Spain, made in 1563, it is ordained that seamen shall save as much as they can from shipwreck; and, in that case, the master is bound to pay them their wages, and to give them a further reward for their labour out of the goods. And the Hanseatic Ordinance of 1614 expressly directs, that if so much of the ship be saved as equals the value of the wages of the seamen, they shall be paid their whole wages. In like manner, the Ordinance of Rotterdam and the French Ordinance also expressly direct the payment of wages out of the relics and materials of the ship.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iv. c. 2.)

"I have not been able," says Lord Tenterden, "to find any decision of an English court on the point, and the legislature has made no provision relating to it. As an inducement to the mariners to exert themselves in the hour of danger, it may not be unfit to hold out to them the prospect of obtaining their wages, if they save so much of the ship as shall be sufficient to pay them; but their claim upon the ship seems not to extend to a case wherein, according to the principles of the law upon which their claim is founded, no wages are payable to them."—(Part iv. c. 2.)

The laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse Towns direct, that if a seaman die during the voyage, wages shall be paid to his heirs: but it is not clear whether the sum thus directed to be paid is to be understood as meaning a payment proportioned to the time of his service, or the whole sum that he would have earned had he lived till the conclusion of the voyage. This question has not been judicially decided in England; but the acts 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 52. and 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. s. 31. order that the wages due to any seaman who has died on board a merchant ship, and any effects belonging to him on board the ship, or their value, shall be paid or made over, on the arrival of such ship in Great Britain, to the receiver of the corporation for the support of maimed and decayed seamen for the use of the seaman's executor or administrator. All masters neglecting or refusing to pay the same forfeit a sum not exceeding 50*l.* exclusive of the value of wages and effects, for each offence. The master is also bound to deliver up to the said corporation the register tickets of all deceased seamen.

A seaman impressed from a merchant ship into the royal service, is entitled to receive the portion of his wages due to him at the time of impressment, provided the merchant ship arrive in safety at the port of her discharge.

Policy requires that the wages of seamen should not be paid to them in foreign countries, as well to prevent desertion, as to preserve, for the benefit of their families, what might otherwise be spent in riot and debauchery. Conformably to this principle it has been enacted—

"That no master or owner of any merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, to any seaman or mariner, during the time he shall be in parts beyond the seas, any money or effects upon account of wages, exceeding *one moiety* of the wages which shall be due at the time of such payment, until such ship or vessel shall return to Great Britain or Ireland, or the plantations, or to some other of H. M.'s dominions, whereto they belong, and from whence they were first fitted out; and if any such master or owner of such merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, any wages to any seaman or mariner above the said moiety, such master or owner shall forfeit and pay *double* the money he shall so pay or advance, to be recovered in the high court of admiralty by any person who shall first discover and inform of the same."—(8 Geo. 1. c. 24.)

The following clauses in the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. refer to the payment of wages.

The Period within which Wages are to be paid.—The master or owner of every ship shall and is hereby required to pay to every seaman his wages within the respective periods following, viz. if the ship shall be employed in coasting, the wages shall be paid within 2 days after the termination of the agreement, or at the time when any such seaman shall be discharged, whichever shall first happen; and if the ship shall be employed otherwise than coasting, then the wages shall be paid at the latest within 8 days after the cargo shall have been delivered, or within 7 days after the seaman's discharge, whichever shall first happen; and in all cases the seaman shall, at the time of his discharge, be entitled to be paid, on account, a sum equal to 1-4th part of the balance due to him; and in case the master or owner shall neglect or refuse to make payment in manner aforesaid, he shall for every such neglect or refusal forfeit and pay to the seaman the amount of 2 days' pay (to be recovered as wages) for each day, not exceeding 10 days, during which payment shall, without sufficient cause, be delayed beyond the respective periods aforesaid: provided always, that nothing in this clause contained shall extend to the cases of ships employed in the Southern Whale Fishery, or on voyages for which seamen, by the terms of their agreement, are wholly compensated by shares in the profits of the adventure.—§ 11.

Payment of Wages or Salvage to be deemed valid, notwithstanding Bill of Sale, &c.—Every such payment of wages to a seaman shall be valid and effectual in law, notwithstanding any bill of sale or assignment which may have been made of such wages, or of any attachment or incumbrance thereon, nor any assignment or sale of wages or salvage made prior to the accruing thereof, nor any power of attorney expressed to be irrevocable for the receipt of any such wages or salvage, shall be valid or binding upon the party making the same, and any attachment to be issued from any court whatever shall not prevent the payment of wages to any seaman; and if during the voyage the allowance of provisions which a seaman agreed to receive shall be reduced 1-3rd of the quantity or less, he shall receive *4d.* per day, and if the reduction be more than 1-3rd he shall receive *8d.* per day, during the period such respective deductions may be made, and such pecuniary allowance shall be paid to him in addition to and be recoverable as wages.—§ 12.

Masters to give Seamen their Certificates on their Discharge.—Upon the discharge of a seaman from any ship, or upon payment of the wages to him, he shall receive from the master, and the master is hereby required to give to him, not only his register-ticket, but also a certificate of such seaman's service and discharge, in the form set forth in the subjoined schedule (E.), specifying the period of his service, and the time and place of his discharge, which certificate shall be signed by the master, and if the master shall not give such certificate to such seaman he shall forfeit and pay to him the sum of £.—§ 13.

SCHEDULE (E.)

This is to certify, that _____ whose registered ticket is _____ day of _____ to _____ day of _____ and that he was numbered _____ on board the _____ on _____ day of _____ at _____ 186 ____ discharged from the said ship on _____ day of _____ at _____ 186 ____
 Part of _____ of the burden or _____ tons, from the _____ of _____ Master.

For obtaining immediate Payment of Wages in certain Cases.—If 3 days after the termination of the stipulated service, or if 3 days after a seaman shall have been discharged, he shall be desirous of proceeding on another voyage, and in order thereto, or for any other sufficient reason, shall require immediate payment of any amount of wages, not exceeding 20*l.*, due to him, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace, in and for any part of H. M.'s dominions or the territories under the government of the East India Company, where or near to the port or place where such service shall have terminated, or such seaman shall have been discharged, or the party or parties liable shall be or reside, on application from such seaman, and on satisfactory proof that he would be prevented from employment or incur serious loss or inconvenience by delay, to summon such party or parties before him, and if it shall appear to the satisfaction of such justice that there is no reasonable cause for delay, to order payment to be made forthwith, and in default of immediate compliance with such order such party or parties shall forfeit and pay to such seaman, in addition to his wages, the sum of £.—§ 14.

Summary Mode of recovering Wages.—In all cases of wages, not exceeding 20*l.*, which shall be due and payable to any seaman, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace in and for any part of H. M.'s dominions or the territories under the government of the East India Company, where or near to the place where the ship shall have ended her voyage, cleared at the custom-house, discharged her cargo, or where or near to the place where the party or either of the parties upon whom the claim is made shall be or reside, upon complaint on oath made to such justice by such seaman, or on his behalf, to summon such party or parties to appear before him to answer such complaint; and upon the appearance of such party or parties, or, in default thereof, on due proof of him or them having been so summoned, such justice is hereby empowered to examine the parties and their respective witnesses (if there be any) upon oath, touching the complaint, and the amount of wages due, and to inspect any agreement or copy thereof, if produced, and make such order for payment of the said wages, not exceeding 20*l.*, with the costs incurred by the seaman in prosecuting such claim, as shall to such justice appear reasonable and just; and in case such order shall not be obeyed within 3 days next after the making thereof, it shall be lawful for such justice to issue a warrant to levy the amount of the wages awarded to be due, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the party on whom such order for payment shall be made, rendering to such party the overplus (if any shall remain of the produce of the sale), after deducting thereout all the costs, charges, and expenses incurred by the seaman in the making and prosecuting of the complaint, as well as the costs and charges of the distress and levy; or to cause the amount of the said wages, costs, charges, and expenses to be levied on the ship in respect of the service on board which the wages are claimed, or on the tackle and apparel thereof; and if such ship shall not be within the jurisdiction of such justice, or such levy cannot be made, or shall prove insufficient, then he is hereby empowered to cause the party upon whom the order shall be made to be apprehended, and committed to the common goal of the district or county, there to remain without bail until payment shall be made of the amount of the wages and expenses, or all costs and expenses attending the recovery thereof; and the award and decision of such justice as aforesaid shall be final and conclusive.—§ 15.

Masters to have same Remedies for Wages as a Seaman.—All the rights, liens, privileges, and remedies (save such remedies as are against a master himself) which by this act, or by any law, statute, custom, or usage, belong to any seaman or mariner, not being a master mariner, in respect to the recovery of his wages shall, in the case of the bankruptcy or insolvency of the owner of the ship, also belong and be extended to masters of ships or master mariners, in respect to the recovery of wages due to them from the owner of any ship belonging to any of H. M.'s subjects; and no suit or proceeding for the recovery of wages shall, unless they exceed 20*l.*, be instituted against the ship, or the master or owner thereof, either in any court of admiralty or vice-admiralty court, or any court of record in H. M.'s dominions, or the territories under the government of the East India Company, unless the owner of the ship shall be bankrupt or insolvent, or the ship shall be under arrest or sold by the authority of any admiralty or vice-admiralty court, or unless any magistrate acting under the authority of this act shall refer the case to be adjudged by any such court or courts, or unless neither the owner nor master shall be or reside at or near the port or place where the service shall have terminated, or where any seaman shall have been discharged or put on shore.—§ 16.

When Ship is sold at Foreign Port the Crew to be sent Home at the Expense of the Master or Owner.—Whenever any ship whatever, belonging to any subject of H. M., shall be sold, transferred, or disposed of at any port out of H. M.'s dominions, in all such cases (unless the crew in the presence of the British consul or vice-consul, or in case of there not being any such consul or vice-consul, then in the presence of one or more British resident merchants, not interested in the said ship, shall signify their consent in writing to complete the voyage if continued), or whenever the service of any seaman shall terminate at any place out of H. M.'s dominions, the master shall and he is hereby required to give to each of the crew and to each of the seamen whose service shall terminate as last aforesaid, a certificate of discharge in the said form set forth in schedule E. (see above), and also his register-ticket, and, besides paying the wages to which they shall respectively be entitled, either to provide them with adequate employment on board some other British vessel homeward bound, or to furnish the means of sending them back to the port in H. M.'s dominions at which they were originally shipped, or to such other port in the U. K. as shall be agreed upon between him and them respectively, or to provide them with a passage home, or to deposit with the consul or vice-consul, merchant or merchants as aforesaid, such a sum of money as shall be by them deemed sufficient to defray the expenses of the subsistence and passage of such seamen; and if the master shall refuse or neglect to do such expenses, when defrayed by such consul or vice-consul, or any other person on behalf of the seamen, shall be a charge upon the owner of such ship, except in cases of barratry, and may be recovered against such owner as so much money paid to his use, together with full costs, at the suit of the consul or other person defraying such expenses, or as a debt due to H. M. in case the same shall have been allowed to the consul out of the public moneys, and if defrayed by the seaman shall be recoverable as wages due to him; and in all cases of wreck or loss of the ship every surviving seaman shall be entitled to his wages up to the period of the wreck or loss of the ship, whether such ship shall or shall not have previously earned freight; provided the seaman shall produce a certificate from the master or chief surviving officer of the ship, to the effect that he had exerted himself to the utmost to save the ship, cargo, and stores.—§ 17.

5. Establishment of an Office in London for the Registry of Seamen.—This is provided for by clauses 19 & 20 of the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 19., which establishes an office at the

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Custom-house for the registry of merchant seamen, consisting of a registrar, &c. under the direction of the Lords of the Admiralty. In regard to this registration, the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. enacts as follows:—

Register Tickets to be procured.—Every person, being a subject of H. M., intending to serve on board any ship subject to the provisions of this act (except as master or physician, surgeon or apothecary), shall and he is hereby required to provide himself with a register ticket, and for that purpose to apply personally at the general registrar and record office of seamen in London, or at the custom-houses of the several outports of the U. K.; and every applicant is hereby required to answer truly, to the best of his ability, all the questions set forth in the subjoined schedule (F.) before he shall be entitled to receive his register ticket; and no person shall serve on board any ship subject to any of the provisions of this act (except the master, physician, surgeon, or apothecary) who is not possessed of such register ticket; and the masters of all apprentices who shall be bound after the commencement of this act, or whose apprenticeship shall be in force when this act takes effect, shall, before commencing a voyage, bring all indentures and assignments of apprenticeships, together with the apprentices themselves, to the registrar of seamen in London, or to the custom-house of the nearest port, in order that each of such apprentices may be furnished with a register ticket, which ticket shall be annexed and be kept annexed to the original indenture retained by the master, and shall be delivered up to the apprentice by the master at the expiration of the apprenticeship; and the registrar of seamen and the collectors and comptrollers of customs are hereby required to grant such tickets to all seamen and other persons requiring the same, and duly complying with the provisions aforesaid.—§ 20.

SCHEDULE (F.)

1. What is your christian and surname?
2. Have you or have you not been registered before?
3. Where were you born, and when?
4. When did you first go to sea?
5. In what capacity did you go, and in what capacity have you since served?
6. Have you or have you not served in the royal navy?
7. If you have, how long? and in what ships? and in what capacity?
8. Have you or have you not been in foreign service?
9. If you have, how long? and in what capacity? and under what name?
10. How have you been generally employed at sea?
11. Where is your usual place of residence when unemployed?

Altering, &c. a Register Ticket, Misdemeanor.—If any person shall alter or destroy a register ticket, or counterfeit, transfer, or traffic in, for gain or otherwise, or attempt to counterfeit, transfer, or traffic in, for gain or otherwise, any register ticket issued or purporting to be issued pursuant to the provisions of this act, he shall for every such offence be guilty of a misdemeanor; and any person becoming possessed of a register ticket, other than that legally issued to him, shall forthwith transmit the same to the registrar of seamen, and in case of default he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay a sum of 2*l.*—§ 21.

When Register Ticket is Lost.—If any seaman shall lose his register ticket he shall forthwith appear in person, and represent his case to the registrar of seamen in London, or in London, by his collector or comptroller of customs at any of the outports; and he shall truly answer all reasonable questions put to him by the said registrar or officer of customs; and if it appear that no fraud has been committed, and the loss was unavoidable, he shall be furnished with another register ticket; but if it appear that the seaman did not take due and reasonable care of his former ticket, or if he shall not give a satisfactory account of the same, he shall be liable to a penalty of not exceeding 5*l.*, and not less than 2*s.*, and shall not be entitled to any other ticket until such penalty shall be paid; and every person who shall apply for any ticket, and shall give a false answer to any reasonable question which may be put to him by the registrar of seamen or his assistant, or by the collector or comptroller of customs, with reference to the granting such ticket, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.—§ 22.

Register Tickets of Parties dead.—All district registrars of births, deaths, and marriages shall, and they are hereby required to demand from the person registering the death of any seaman the register ticket of such seaman; and if delivered to any such registrar, he shall forthwith forward the same to the registrar of seamen; and no person, other than the said registrar of seamen, shall retain the ticket of a deceased seaman; and if any person shall retain any such ticket for more than 30 days after the death of any such seaman, or 10 days after the arrival of the ship in the U. K. should the seaman die abroad, he shall be liable to a penalty of not exceeding 5*l.* in respect of every such register ticket so detained.—§ 23.

List of cancelled Tickets to be prepared by Registrar, and published half-yearly, &c.—A list shall be prepared from time to time by the registrar of seamen, setting forth the numbers of all the register tickets that have been cancelled by reason of the death of seamen or otherwise within the preceding 6 calendar months; and such lists shall be published half-yearly in the London Gazette, and shall also be transmitted by the said registrar from time to time to the collectors and comptrollers of customs, to be by them conspicuously exhibited in the custom-houses and other stations of their respective ports, and copies of such lists shall be delivered to any master or owner on application; and every master or owner entering into an agreement with any seaman producing such cancelled ticket shall be liable to and incur a penalty of not exceeding 5*l.*; and every seaman tendering or delivering to a master a cancelled ticket, or any other ticket not legally issued to him, or falsely representing himself to be a foreigner, shall forfeit to the owner all wages which shall become due to him during the service, for which he shall agree or shall have agreed.—§ 24.

Papers and Documents to be recorded.—Duplicates of all register tickets, and all papers and documents delivered or transmitted to and retained by the said registrar, shall be by him recorded, preserved, and kept; and every copy of such duplicate tickets, papers, and documents, or any of them, certified by the said registrar or his assistant to be a true copy, shall be admitted in evidence as fully as the original thereof; and every copy of a document and endorsement thereon, which may be delivered by any owner or master under the provisions of this act, shall and may be admitted in evidence against such owner and master, and each of them, as fully as the original of such document and endorsement.—§ 25.

Masters of Ships Issued and delivered Lists of their Crews on their Departure and Return.—The master of every ship belonging to any subject of H. M., and bound to ports beyond the seas, except in the cases hereinafter mentioned, shall, before he leaves his first port of departure from the U. K., transmit or deliver, or cause to be transmitted or delivered, to the collector and comptroller of customs at such port, a list, signed by himself, of the names of his crew (including apprentices), with the numbers of their register tickets, and the capacity in which they are serving on board, in the form set forth in the subjoined schedule (G.); and if any subsequent change in his crew takes place before finally leaving the U. K., the owner or master shall, upon such change taking place, apprise the collector and comptroller of the customs at the port where it occurs, by transmitting an amended list in the same form; and the master or owner of every such ship shall, within 48 hours after the arrival of such ship at her final port of destination in the U. K., transmit or deliver, or cause to be transmitted or delivered, to the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port, an account or list, signed by himself, of all the seamen and others (including apprentices) who shall have belonged to the ship at any time during her absence from the U. K., which account or list shall contain a full, true, and correct return, under their respective heads, of the several particulars expressed in the form set forth in the subjoined schedule (C.), with the Christian names and surnames of the master and all the crew at full length, and with the dates of the

registry of the indentures of the apprentices, and the assignments respectively, and the port at which and the time when they were respectively registered; and also the numbers of the register tickets of every apprentice and seaman; and no vessel shall be cleared inwards by the tide-surveyor or other officer until the master or owner shall produce a certificate from the collector or comptroller (which he is hereby required to give) to the effect that he has rendered such accounts or lists as aforesaid; and the tide-waiters or other officers left on board shall be maintained at the expence of the master or owner until such accounts or lists shall be duly delivered as aforesaid.—§ 26.

SCHEDULE (G.)

Name, and distinguishing numbers of the register tickets, of the crew (including apprentices) now serving on board the vessel of the burden of tons, in the U. K., on taking departure from the port of London on a voyage to

No. and Date of Ship's Register.	Name.	Capacity.	Number of Register Tickets.

Dated this day of 18 . Master.

Particulars to be clearly and legibly set forth.

SCHEDULE (C.)

Ship of the Port of of the burden of tons, whereof was Master. A List of the Crew (including the Master and Apprentices) at the period of quitting the Port of in the United Kingdom, from which she took her first departure on her voyage to on the day of and of the Men who joined the Ship subsequent to such departure, and until her return to the Port of being her first final port of destination in the United Kingdom on the day of 18 .

No. and Date of Ship's Register.	Name. Christian and Surname at full length.	Age.	Town or County where born.	Place where he last served.	Date of joining the Ship.	Place where.	Time of leaving the Ship.	Place where.	How disposed of.	Date of Apprentices' and Assignments.	When and where registered.	Numbers of Register Tickets.

Note.—If any one of the crew has entered H. M.'s service, the name of the vessel's ship in which he entered must be stated in the account, under the head of "How disposed of."

every vessel, of whatever tonnage, and to be delivered by him to the collector or comptroller of the customs within six hours after the ship's arrival at her final port of destination in the U. K.

Note.—This list to be filled up and signed by the master of the vessel.

Masters of Ships in the Home and Fishing Trade to return Lists half-yearly.—Within 21 days after the 30th day of June and the 31st day of December in each year, the master or owner of every ship belonging to a subject of H. M., of whatever tonnage, employed in fishing on the coasts of the U. K. or elsewhere, other than in the South Sea, Greenland, and Newfoundland fisheries, or in proceeding from one part of the U. K. to another, and every ship proceeding or making voyages to any of the Islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or to any port on the continent of Europe, between the river Elbe inclusive and Brest, shall deliver or transmit, or cause to be delivered or transmitted, to the collector or comptroller of the customs of any port of the U. K. an account, signed by such master or owner, of any voyage or voyages in which such ship shall have been engaged during the preceding half-year, ending on the respective days above-mentioned, and setting forth legibly and at full length the christian and surnames of the several persons (including the master and apprentices) who shall have belonged to the ship at any time during such periods respectively; which account shall be in the form and shall contain a true and correct return under their respective heads of the several particulars expressed in the subjoined schedule (D.), with the dates of the registry of the indentures of apprenticeship and assignments respectively, and the ports at which and the time when they were respectively registered, and the numbers of the register tickets of every seaman and apprentice; and no master or owner shall be entitled to or receive a transire or other customs document necessary to enable him to conduct the business of his ship, after the expiration of the said 21 days, until he shall produce and show a certificate from such collector or comptroller (which he is hereby required to give), to the effect that he has delivered such an account; and in the case of ships of all description which may be unemployed for 6 months, or which may be employed and not require a transire or other customs document, the master or owner shall notify the same to such collector or comptroller within such 21 days, and in case of every default the master or owner shall be liable to a penalty of 10*l.*; and all collectors and comptrollers of customs of the ports in which the vessels belong shall transmit a list of all such ships, and of all ships of every description registered or licensed, or whose registers or licences have been transferred or cancelled in their respective ports within each half-year ending as aforesaid, to the said registrar at the said office, on or before the 1st day of February and the 1st day of August in each year respectively.—§ 27.

SCHEDULE (D.)

An Account of the voyages in which the ship of the burden of tons has been engaged, in the half year commencing on the day of 18 , and ending on the day of 18 , and of all the persons (master and apprentices included) who have belonged to such ship during that period.

ACCOUNT OF THE VOYAGES.

[Here the several voyages, and the periods of such voyages, are to be described.]

ACCOUNT OF THE CREW.

No. and Date of Ship's Register.	Name. Christian and Surname at full length.	Age.	Town or County where born.	Ship in which he last served.	Date of joining the Ship.	Place where.	Time of leaving the Ship.	Place where.	How disposed of.	Date of Apprentices' and Assignments.	When and where registered.	Numbers of Register Tickets.

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Return H. M. of several a shall, if transfer and in ex furthest Lists, counts, r lectors of of this as who shal ticket, or the sim Lists, thereof, required in the U. of such y same pen to transam At to th shall die not on bo he is here effects, if curred in account of ain, or d posed of, f (see sec. ship any m and he is wages to: ived by: said presid the master effects, as the U. K., and the sail seamen.—

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Note.—If any one of the crew shall have entered H. M.'s service, the name of the queen's ship in which he entered must be stated in this account, under the head of, "How disposed of."
Note.—This account, when filled up, is to be signed by the

owner or master of every ship, of whatever tonnage, and deposited with the collector or comptroller of the customs of any port of the U. K. within 21 days after the 30th of June and the 31st of December in every year.

Returns to be made in case of Ship lost or sold Abroad.—In case any ship belonging to any subject of H. M. shall be lost, or transferred, an account containing a similar return as required in the several and respective cases before mentioned, made out up to the period of such loss, sale, or transfer, shall, if practicable, be delivered or transmitted by the master or owner at the time of the loss, sale, or transfer to the collector or comptroller of the port to which the ship belongs with all convenient speed; and in case such loss, sale, or transfer shall take place out of the U. K. within 12 calendar months at furthest after the date of sale, or transfer of the ship.—§ 28.
Lists, &c., to be transmitted to the Registrar.—All indentures, counterparts, assignments, lists, accounts, returns, papers, register tickets, and documents, by this act required to be delivered to the collectors or comptrollers as aforesaid shall be by them transmitted to the said registrar for the purposes of this act at the end of every week, unless otherwise specified in this act; and every owner or master who shall refuse or neglect to transmit, deliver, or cause to be delivered, any list, account, register ticket, or other document, as required by this act, shall for every such refusal or neglect forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*—§ 29.

Lists, &c., in the case of Pleasure Yachts to be transmitted to the Registrar.—All agreements, or copies thereof, lists, returns, register tickets, and other documents, which under the provisions of this act are required to be transmitted or delivered to the collectors or comptrollers of customs of the several ports in the U. K., shall, in the case of pleasure yachts, be transmitted or delivered by the masters or owners of such yachts direct to the registrar of seamen, and the owners or masters thereof shall be liable to the same penalties for default as herein provided in the cases of the masters or owners of other ships failing to transmit or deliver such documents to such collectors and comptrollers.—§ 30.

As to the Disposal of the Effects of any Seaman dying abroad.—Whenever any seaman, being abroad, shall die elsewhere than on board a ship belonging to any subject of H. M., leaving any money or effects in or on board his ship, it shall be lawful for H. M.'s consul or vice consul at or nearest to the place, and he is hereby required to claim and take charge of all such money and effects, and to dispose of the said effects, if he shall so think fit, and after deducting all necessary and proper charges and expenses incurred in the collecting thereof, or by or on account of such seaman, to remit the balance, with a full account of such money or effects, to the president and governors of the corporation for the relief and support of sick, maimed, and disabled seamen, and of the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchant service," to be by such president and governors paid over and disposed of, in the same manner and under the same regulations as are provided by the act 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 52. (see sect. 30, & 31. of that act, p. 1102.) and in case any seaman dying abroad shall leave on board his ship any money, clothes, or other effects, or be entitled to any wages, the master of the said ship shall be liable to receive the same, and he is hereby required to deposit the same, or the proceeds arising therefrom, with, and to pay such wages to, the president and governors aforesaid, to be by them disposed of in the same manner as is provided by the said act with respect to the wages of seamen dying on board ship, and to transmit to the said president and governors at the same time a full account of such effects and wages; and on failure the master shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 50*l.*, in addition to being accountable for such money, clothes, effects, and wages; and in all cases of a seaman dying abroad the master shall, on his ship's return to the U. K., deliver up to the said president and governors the register ticket of such deceased seaman, and the said president and governors, on the receipt thereof, shall transmit the same to the registrar of seamen.—§ 31.

6. Regulations in regard to taking Apprentices on board Ship.—We have already noticed these under the art. APPRENTICE; but as the subject is of great interest, we subjoin a full abstract of the clauses in the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. having reference to apprentices.

Parish Boys may be put out Apprentices to the Sea Service.—It shall be lawful for the overseers of the poor, or other persons having the authority of overseers of the poor, in and for any district, union, parish, township, or place in the U. K., and they are hereby empowered to bind by indenture, according to the form set forth in the subjoined schedule (H.), and put out as an apprentice in the sea service to any of H. M.'s subjects, being the owner of any ship registered or licensed in any port of the U. K., any boy having attained the age of 12 years, and of sufficient health and strength, who or whose parent or parents is or are chargeable to or maintained by any such district, union, parish, township, or place, or who shall beg for alms therein, with his consent, but not otherwise; and until such boy shall attain the age of 21 years, or shall have served as apprentice 7 years, or whichever shall first happen, such binding shall be effectual to all intents and purposes: provided always, that where any such parish, township, or place separately maintaining its own poor shall be included in any union, or shall be under the management of a board of guardians, no such binding shall be valid unless the guardians of such union, parish, or other place respectively shall previously have given their consent thereto, by causing their official seal to be affixed to the indenture, and the same to be signed by the presiding chairman of the board at any meeting, and the clerk or person acting as such at such meeting; and provided also, that every such binding shall be made in the presence of any such boy, and of 2 justices of the peace, who shall execute the indenture in testimony of their being satisfied that such boy hath consented so to be bound, and attained the age, and is of sufficient health and strength as required by this act; and the age of every such boy shall be truly inserted in his indenture, and the age of every such boy so inserted therein shall (in relation to the continuance of his service) be taken to be his true age, without any further proof thereof; and any certificate of baptism of such boy which may be required shall be given and attested by the officiating minister without fee or reward; provided always, that no apprenticeship to the sea service, whether parish or otherwise, shall be binding after the apprentice shall have attained the age of 21 years; and that every indenture, together with his register ticket annexed thereto shall be given up to such apprentice on his attaining such age, or at the expiration of his apprenticeship, whichever shall first happen, by the person to whom he shall be bound at the time, under a penalty of 20*l.*, to be paid by such person on default; but should any apprenticeship, parish or otherwise, expire during a voyage, and before the ship's arrival at her final port of destination in the U. K., such apprenticeship shall, notwithstanding, continue until the return of the ship to her final port of destination in the U. K.; but after 1 calendar month from the expiration of such apprenticeship, the apprentice shall be paid the same wages as an able-bodied seaman or ordinary seaman of the said ship, according to his qualification.—§ 32.

SCHEDULE (H).

Form of Parish Apprentice's Indenture.

This indenture, made the _____ day of _____ in the _____ of _____ in the _____ division of _____ in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____, witnesseth, that

_____ overseers of the poor of the [parish]

_____ of _____ in the _____ division of _____ in the _____ of _____ do hereby certify that _____ of _____ in the _____ division of _____ in the _____ of _____ is of sufficient health and strength, and is of the age of _____ years, and is chargeable to or maintained by any such district, union, parish, township, or place, or who shall beg for alms therein, with his consent, but not otherwise; and until such boy shall attain the age of 21 years, or shall have served as apprentice 7 years, or whichever shall first happen, such binding shall be effectual to all intents and purposes: provided always, that where any such parish, township, or place separately maintaining its own poor shall be included in any union, or shall be under the management of a board of guardians, no such binding shall be valid unless the guardians of such union, parish, or other place respectively shall previously have given their consent thereto, by causing their official seal to be affixed to the indenture, and the same to be signed by the presiding chairman of the board at any meeting, and the clerk or person acting as such at such meeting; and provided also, that every such binding shall be made in the presence of any such boy, and of 2 justices of the peace, who shall execute the indenture in testimony of their being satisfied that such boy hath consented so to be bound, and attained the age, and is of sufficient health and strength as required by this act; and the age of every such boy shall be truly inserted in his indenture, and the age of every such boy so inserted therein shall (in relation to the continuance of his service) be taken to be his true age, without any further proof thereof; and any certificate of baptism of such boy which may be required shall be given and attested by the officiating minister without fee or reward; provided always, that no apprenticeship to the sea service, whether parish or otherwise, shall be binding after the apprentice shall have attained the age of 21 years; and that every indenture, together with his register ticket annexed thereto shall be given up to such apprentice on his attaining such age, or at the expiration of his apprenticeship, whichever shall first happen, by the person to whom he shall be bound at the time, under a penalty of 20*l.*, to be paid by such person on default; but should any apprenticeship, parish or otherwise, expire during a voyage, and before the ship's arrival at her final port of destination in the U. K., such apprenticeship shall, notwithstanding, continue until the return of the ship to her final port of destination in the U. K.; but after 1 calendar month from the expiration of such apprenticeship, the apprentice shall be paid the same wages as an able-bodied seaman or ordinary seaman of the said ship, according to his qualification.—§ 32.

(*) Or it may be made by other persons having the authority of overseers or guardians, or in whom the duty of overseers or guardians of the poor shall be vested.

registry (viz.) for every ship of 80 tons and under 200 tons, 1 apprentice at the least; for every ship of 200 tons and under 400 tons, 2 apprentices at the least; for every ship of 400 tons and under 600 tons, 3 apprentices at the least; for every ship of 600 tons and under 700 tons, 4 apprentices at the least; and every ship of 700 tons and upwards, 5 apprentices at the least; and all of whom, at the period of their being bound respectively, shall be subjects of H. M. and above 12 and under 17 years of age, and be duly registered for the term of 4 years at the least; and if any such master or owner shall neglect to have on board his ship the number of apprentices as hereby required, together with their respective registered indentures, assignments, and register tickets, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* in respect of each apprentice, indenture, assignment, or register ticket so wanting or deficient.—§ 37.

The cancellation of Indentures, and Death or Desertion of Apprentices, to be notified.—In case any indentures of apprenticeship of any description shall be cancelled, or any apprentice, partner or overseer shall die on shore or desert, or by reason of the vessel of the master not having made a voyage for 3 months, shall not be reported in either of the said lists, such cancellation, death, desertion, or non-employment shall forthwith be notified in writing by the master of the apprentice to the said registrar, if the ship on board which the apprentice was bound to serve shall belong to the port of London, or otherwise to the collector or comptroller of the port to which the said ship shall belong; and for every such default the said master shall be liable to a penalty of 10*l.*; and the collector or comptroller, if the notification be made to him, shall transmit the same to the said registrar within 1 week from the receipt thereof; and no cancelling of any indenture of apprenticeship of any description shall be valid or effectual without the mutual consent of the parties, or without the consent or in the absence of the registrar of seamen in London, or of the collector or comptroller of customs of the port to which such cancellation shall take place, or, in case of bindings by the overseers, without the additional consent of the guardians of the union or parish whose consent was given to the said binding, to be testified by a copy of a minute of the board forwarded by the clerk to the said guardians.—§ 38.

Indentures and Assignments of Parish Apprentices to be registered.—The said registrar in London, and the collector and comptroller of customs at each other port, shall, in a book to be kept for that purpose, cause to be entered from time to time all such indentures and assignments of apprenticeship aforesaid, specifying therein the dates thereof, the names and ages of the apprentices, the parishes or places from whence they are sent, the names and residences of their masters to whom they are bound or assigned, and the names, ports, and burden of the respective ships to which such masters belong, and shall make and subscribe on each indenture and assignment an endorsement, purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and such registrar, collectors, and comptrollers respectively shall require the personal attendance of every such apprentice at the time of registering his indenture or assignment thereof; and every such collector and comptroller shall also, at the end of each week, transmit a list of the indentures and assignments and cancellations so registered by him within the week, containing all the particulars aforesaid, to the said registrar.—§ 39.

Indentures and Assignments of other Apprentices to be registered.—In every case of a person (other than such parish apprentice as aforesaid) binding himself apprentice to the sea service, the indenture to be executed on such occasion shall be in duplicate, in the form set forth in the subjoined Schedule (I.), and a counterpart shall be delivered to the said registrar, if the master shall be or reside within the port of London, or if at any other port, to the collector or comptroller of such port; and the indentures shall be registered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the said registrar, collectors, and comptrollers respectively, in which shall be expressed in full the names and residences of the masters, ports, and burden of the several ships on board which they are respectively to serve; and such registrar, collectors, and comptrollers respectively shall require the personal appearance of every such apprentice at the time of registering his indenture or the assignment thereof, and shall endorse and subscribe upon each indenture a certificate purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and the said collectors and comptrollers shall also at the end of each week transmit a list of the indentures and assignments registered by them within the week, containing all the particulars aforesaid, together with the said counterparts, to the said registrar, for the purposes of this act; and it shall be lawful for the master of such apprentice, or in case of his death his executor or administrator, with the consent of the apprentice if of the age of 17 years or upwards, and if under that age with the consent of his parent or guardian, to assign the indenture of any such apprentice to any other master or owner of any registered ship; and all such apprentices may during the term for which they shall be bound, be employed in any ship of which the master for the time being of any such apprentice may be the master or owner; provided always, that every such assignment shall be registered and endorsed by the said registrar, or by the collector or comptroller of the customs at the port where the master shall be, or to which his ship shall belong; and the said collector or comptroller shall notify the same to the said registrar, and transmit an exact copy of the said endorsement to the said registrar.—§ 40.

SCHEDULE (I.)

'Form of Apprentice's Indenture.

This Indenture, made the _____ day of _____ in the _____ year of the reign of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, by the grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland Queen, Defender of the Faith, and in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____ between _____ of the age of _____ years, a native of _____ of the one part, and _____ of the county of _____ of the other part, witnesses, That the said _____ both of his free will and bound himself apprentice unto the said _____ with him, his executors, administrators, and assigns, after the manner of an apprentice to dwell, remain, and reside from the day of the date hereof for _____ years from and until the full end and term of _____ years from these next ensuing fully to be complete and ended; during all which term the said apprentice shall be bound to do and faithfully serve his secrets keep; his lawful commands every where he do and execute; hurt or damage to his said master he shall not require; (unless about his said master's business); at dice, cards, tables, bowls, or any other unlawful games he shall not play; the goods of his said master he shall not embezzle or waste; he shall not give to any person or persons without his said master's licence; nor from the service of his said master, without his consent, at any time absent himself; but as a true and faithful apprentice shall demean and behave himself towards his said master, his executors, administrators, or assigns, during the said term; and true and just account of his said master's goods, chattels, and money committed to his charge, or which shall come to his hands, faithfully he shall give at all times, when thereunto required or desired by his said master, his executors, administrators, or assigns; and shall also render an account of, and well and truly pay or cause to be paid unto his said master, his executors, administrators, or assigns, all such wages or money, and other sum or sums of money as shall become due and payable unto him from

her Majesty, her heirs, successors, or any other person, in case he shall be impressed, enter or go into her Majesty's service during the said term. In consideration whereof the said _____ doth hereby covenant and agree to and with the said _____ the apprentice, that he the said _____ his executors, administrators, or assigns, during the said term of _____ years, shall and will teach, learn, and inform the said apprentice, or cause him to be taught, learned, and informed, in the art, trade, or business of a mariner or seaman, with the circumstances thereunto belonging; and shall and will find and provide for the said apprentice sufficient meat, drink, washing, lodging, medicine, and medical and surgical aid and advice _____ in pay unto the said apprentice the sum of _____ pounds of lawful money of Great Britain, in manner following: (That is to say,) The said _____ shall and providing to and for himself all manner of sea bedding, wearing apparel, and other necessaries (except meat, drink, lodging, washing, medicine, and medical and surgical aid and advice); and it is hereby agreed between the said parties, that the said _____ shall and may from time to time during the said term deduct and retain in his hands, out of the several weekly payments above mentioned, all such sum or sums of money as shall at any time during the said term dilate or lay out in the buying of any apparel or sea bedding for the said apprentice, as need shall require; and for the true performance of all and singular the covenants and agreements aforesaid, each of them the said _____ and _____ doth hereby bind and oblige himself, his heirs, executors, and administrators, unto the other of them, his executors and administrators, firmly by these presents, in the penal sum of _____ pounds of lawful money of Great Britain.

In witness whereof the said parties to these presents have hereunto set their hands and seals the day and year above written.
Signed, sealed, and delivered
In the presence of _____

Apprentices exempted from Contributions.—No apprentice bound or assigned pursuant to this act, nor any master or owner in respect of such apprentice, shall be liable to any payment or contribution to or towards any hospital or institution; and all agreements, attested copies, indentures, assignments, counterparts, and tickets, made, signed, or executed in compliance with or under the provisions of this act, shall be wholly exempt from stamp duty. — § 41.

Penalty on Masters neglecting to register, &c., Indentures.—If any master or owner to whom any apprentice to the sea service shall be bound or assigned shall neglect to deliver a counterpart, and cause the indenture or the assignment (as the case may be) to be registered as required by this act, so far as depends on such master or owner, within 10 days after the binding or assignment, every such master or owner shall for every such neglect, forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*; and if any such master, or the master of any ship, shall, after the ship shall have proceeded on the voyage upon which such ship may be bound or assigned, permit any apprentice to quit his service, or the service of the ship, except for the purpose of entering into H. M.'s naval service, every such master shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.* — § 43.

Justices to determine Complaints.—Any justice of the peace residing at or near to any port to which any ship as aforesaid, having on board thereof any apprentice, shall at any time arrive, shall have full power and authority to inquire into and examine, hear and determine, all claims of apprentices upon their masters under their indentures, and all complaints of hard or ill usage exercised by their respective masters towards any such apprentice, or of misbehaviour on the part of any such apprentice, and to proceed thereupon as one or more justices or justices of the peace is or are empowered by law to do in other cases between masters and apprentices; and if the master of any ship shall not send on shore, in the charge of the mate or other trustworthy person, any apprentice desirous of complaining to a justice of the peace, so soon as the service of the ship will permit, he shall for every such default forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* — § 45.

Masters entitled to receive the Wages, &c. of Apprentices entering into the Navy.—No apprentice to the sea service shall be at liberty to enter into the naval service of H. M., during the period of his apprenticeship, without the consent of his master; but if, nevertheless, he shall voluntarily enter into such naval service of H. M., and shall be allowed by his master to continue therein, such master, in case he shall give notice to the secretary of the admiralty of his consent to his apprentice remaining in H. M.'s said service during the residue of the term of his apprenticeship, shall, upon the production of the indenture and assignment (if any), if duly registered, and having the register ticket attached, be entitled to receive to his own use any balance of wages and prize money that may become due and payable to any such apprentice until the expiration of his apprenticeship. — § 45.

Regulations in regard to Medicines.—In order to provide against the fatal consequences that have frequently arisen from ships going to sea without having any medicines on board, or with but an insufficient or unsuitable supply, the act 7 & 3 Vict. c. 112. orders —

A Supply of Medicines, Lime Juice, Sugar, and Vinegar, &c. to be kept on board, and Seamen hurt in the Service of the Ship to be provided with Advice, &c. gratis.—Every ship navigating between the U. K. and any place out of the same shall have and keep constantly on board a sufficient supply of medicines and medicaments suitable to accidents and diseases arising on sea voyages, in accordance with the scale which shall from time to time or at any time be issued by the commissioner for executing the office of lord high admiral, and published in the London Gazette; and every ship (except those bound to European ports or to ports in the Mediterranean Sea) shall also have on board a sufficient quantity of lime or lemon juice, sugar, and vinegar, the lime or lemon juice, sugar, and vinegar to be served out to the crew whenever they shall have been consuming salt provisions for 10 days; the lime or lemon juice and sugar daily, after the rate of half an ounce each per day, and the vinegar weekly, at the rate of half a pint per week to each person, so long as the consumption of salt provisions be continued; and in case any default shall be made in providing and keeping such medicines, medicaments, and lime or lemon juice, sugar, and vinegar, the owner of the ship shall incur a penalty of 20*l.* for each and every default; and in case of default of serving out such lime or lemon juice, sugar, or vinegar as aforesaid, the master shall incur a penalty of 5*l.* for each and every default; and in case the master or any seaman shall receive any hurt or injury in the service of the ship, the expense of providing the necessary surgical and medical advice, with attendance and medicines, and for his subsistence until he shall have been cured, or shall have been brought back to some port of the U. K., shall, together with the costs of his conveyance to the U. K., be defrayed by the said owner of the ship, without any deduction whatever on that account from the wages of such master or seaman, and if paid by any officer or other person on behalf of H. M., the amount, with full costs of suit, shall be recovered as a debt due to H. M.; and every ship having 100 persons or upwards on board, and every ship the voyage of which shall be deemed under the provisions of the act passed in the 6th year of the reign of her present Majesty, intitled "An Act for regulating the Carriage of Passengers in Merchant Vessels," to exceed 12 weeks, having 50 persons or upwards on board, shall have on board, as one of her complement, some person duly authorized by law to practise in this kingdom as a physician, surgeon, or apothecary; and in case of every default the owner shall incur a penalty not exceeding 100*l.* — § 18.

The Lords of the Admiralty have, pursuant to the above clause, ordered the following supply of medicines to be provided for every ten men in ships on foreign voyages, and so proportionally for a greater or smaller number.

No.	Medicines.	Quantities for 10 Men.	No.	Medicines.	Quantities for 10 Men.	No.	Quantities of Medicines, &c. for 10 Men.	No.	Quantities of Medicines, &c. for 10 Men.
1	Caster oil	1 0 0	23	Dover's powder	0 2 0	31	PILLS.	1	Send 5 grs. of Dover's powder.
2	Epsom salts	4 0 0	24	Mustard	0 2 0	32	1 doz. purg. pills.	37	Small injection, each to contain 3 grs. of the acetate of zinc.
3	Powder of Jalap	0 4 0	25	Mercurial ointment	0 2 0	33	1 doz. blue pills.	38	1 oz. scales & weights.
4	— of rhubarb	0 4 0	26	Bullin's blistering fluid, instead of		34	1 doz. opium pills	39	1 marble mortar and pestle.
5	— of ginger	0 2 0		—		35	1 lb. castile soap	40	1 Tin.
6	Carbonate of soda	0 8 0	27	2 yards of adhesive plaster.		36	1 doz. purgative, each to contain 1 dr. of compound powder of Jalap, and 4 grs. of calomel.	41	1 Graduated measure.
7	Tartaric acid	0 8 0	28	Lint	0 4 0	37	1 doz. emetic, each to contain 15 grs. of ipecacuanha, and 4 grs. of tartrate of antimony.	42	1 Funnel.
8	Senna leaves	0 8 0	29	Simple cerata	0 8 0	38	1 doz. sudorific, each to contain 10 grs. of nitre, 10 grs. of cream of tartar.	43	1 Small pewter cup.
9	Sulphur	0 8 0	30	Hæmorrhoidal ointment	0 8 0	39		44	3 Pewter teaspoons.
10	Stream of tartar	0 8 0				40		45	1 Spatula.
11	Nitre	0 4 0				41		46	1 Spoon.
12	Laudanum	0 4 0				42		47	1 Syringe.
13	Tinct. of rhubarb	0 8 0				43		48	1 Spoon.
14	Rolam of Capivi	0 8 0				44		49	6 Bundles of different sizes.
15	Opodeldoc	0 8 0				45		50	6 Vials of galic.
16	Spirit of harts-horn	0 4 0				46		51	A paper of needles, pins, and thread.
17	Paracetic oil	0 4 0							
18	Ess. of peppermint	0 1 0							
19	Alum	0 4 0							
20	Blue stone	0 4 0							
21	Quinine	0 4 0							
22	Calomel	0 4 0							

The pills and powders are to be carefully put up in tin or leaden boxes, and properly labelled.

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8. General Regulations.—The following clauses of the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 112. refer to various matters of importance to the master and the crew.

Common Assaults may be summarily punished by Two Justices.—In the case of any assault or battery committed on board any ship belonging to any subject of H. M., in any part of the world, it shall be lawful for any 2 justices of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions, or the territories under the East India Company, residing at or near any port or place at which the said ship may arrive or touch, upon complaint of the party aggrieved, to hear and determine any such complaint, and to proceed and make such adjudication thereon as by the said act any 2 justices are empowered to do in the cases of assaults and batteries in England; and the fine or forfeiture to be imposed in any such case shall be payable to the Seamen's Hospital Society: provided always, that such complaint shall be made and prosecuted within 3 months after such alleged assault or battery, or within 3 months after the arrival of the ship at her final port of destination in the U. K., or within 3 months after the respective parties shall be within the jurisdiction of such justices as aforesaid.—§ 44.

No Seaman to be discharged abroad, nor to be abandoned, or left behind, without Sanction of Consul, &c.—If any master of a ship belonging to any subject of H. M., shall discharge any person belonging to his ship or crew at any of H. M.'s colonies or plantations, without the previous sanction in writing (to be endorsed on the agreement) of the governor or other officer holding the chief authority there, or of the secretary or other officer specially appointed by the government there in that behalf, or in the absence of such functionaries then of the chief officer of customs resident at or near such port or place, or shall discharge any such person at any other place abroad without the like previous sanction, to be so endorsed on the agreement by H. M.'s minister, consul, or vice-consul there, or in the absence of any such functionary then of 3 respectable merchants resident there, such master shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; or if any master of any such ship shall abandon or leave behind at any such colony or plantation any person belonging to his ship or crew, on the plea or pretence of unfitness or inability to proceed upon the voyage, or of desertion or disappearance from the ship, without a previous certificate in writing (to be endorsed on the agreement) of the governor, secretary, or other officer as aforesaid, or in the absence of such functionary then of the chief officer of customs resident at or near such port or place, certifying such unfitness, inability, desertion, or disappearance, or shall abandon or leave behind any person belonging to his ship or crew at any other place abroad, on shore or at sea, upon such plea or pretence, without the like previous certificate of H. M.'s minister, consul, or vice-consul there, or in the absence of any such functionary then of 2 respectable merchants, if there be any such at or within a reasonable distance from the place where the ship shall then be, such master shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; or if any master of any such ship, in case any person belonging to his ship or crew shall desert from the said ship at any place abroad, shall neglect to notify the same in writing to 2 of such functionaries as aforesaid, if there be any such resident at or near the place, and in their absence, if it be out of H. M.'s dominions, then to 3 respectable merchants, if there be such at or near the place, within 24 hours of such desertion, such master shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and the said functionaries are hereby authorised and required, and the said merchants are authorised, to examine into the grounds of such proposed discharge, or into the plea or pretence of such unfitness, inability, desertion, or disappearance as aforesaid, in a summary way, upon oath (which oath they are hereby respectively authorised to administer), and to grant or refuse such sanction or certificate according to the circumstances, and as it shall appear to them to be just.—§ 46.

Forcing Seamen on Shore, &c., a Misdemeanor.—If the master of any ship, belonging to any of H. M.'s subjects, or the mate or other officer of such ship, shall wrongfully force on shore and leave behind, or shall otherwise wilfully and wrongfully leave behind, on shore or at sea, in or out of H. M.'s dominions, any person belonging to his ship or crew, before the completion of the voyage for which such person was engaged, or the return of the ship to the U. K., such master, mate, or other officer shall be guilty of a misdemeanor; and every misdemeanor mentioned or created by this act shall and may be prosecuted by information at the suit of H. M.'s attorney-general, or by indictment or other legal proceeding in any court having criminal jurisdiction in H. M.'s dominions at home or abroad; and the offence may be laid and charged in the said indictment, indictment, or other legal proceeding to have been committed in the country or place where the offence shall happen to be, who, being convicted thereof, shall be liable to fine or imprisonment, or both, as to the court before whom he is tried shall seem meet; and every court is hereby authorised to issue a commission or commissions for the examination of any witness or witnesses who may be absent or out of the jurisdiction of the court; and at the trial the depositions taken under such commission or commissions, if such witness or witnesses shall be then absent, shall be received in evidence.—§ 47.

If any of the Crew are left behind, the Proof of Sanction or Authority to be upon the Master.—If any master shall, contrary to the provisions of this act, discharge, abandon, or leave behind any seaman or other person belonging to the ship or crew, with or without his consent, it shall be incumbent on such master, in any information, indictment, or other proceeding against him, to produce or prove such sanction or respective certificate as aforesaid, or prove the impracticability of obtaining such certificate.—§ 48.

Seamen when allowed to be left behind, to be paid their Wages.—Every such master who shall leave any seaman or other person as aforesaid on shore at any such colony, or plantation, or place abroad, under a certificate of his not being in a condition to proceed on the voyage, shall deliver to 1 of the said functionaries, or if there be none such to any 2 respectable merchants there, or if there be but 1 then to such 1 merchant, a just and true account of the wages due to such person, and pay the same either in money or by a bill drawn upon the owner; and if by bill, then such functionaries or merchants are respectively authorised and required, by endorsement on such bill, to certify that the same is drawn for money due on account of seamen's wages, or to that effect; and any master who shall refuse or neglect to deliver a just and true account of such wages, or to pay the amount thereof in money or by bill as aforesaid, shall for every such offence or default forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*, and every master who shall deliver a false account of such wages shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 49.

Not to extend to prevent Seamen from entering into the Navy.—Nothing in this act or in any agreement contained shall prevent any seaman or person belonging to any ship or vessel whatever from entering or being received into the naval service of H. M., nor shall any such entry be deemed desertion from the ship or vessel, nor shall such seaman or other person thereby incur any penalty or forfeiture whatever, either of wages, clothes, or effects, or other matter or thing; and no master or owner shall be obliged to introduce, or permit to be inserted or introduced, into any articles or agreement, any clause, engagement, or stipulation whereby any seaman or other person shall or may incur any forfeiture, or be exposed to loss, in case he shall enter into H. M.'s naval service; and if inserted, the clause, engagement, or stipulation shall be void, and the offender shall thereby incur a penalty of 20*l.*—§ 50.

Upon entry of Seamen into the Navy from any Ships, they shall be entitled to the immediate delivery up of their clothes, &c.—When any seaman shall quit any such ship or vessel as aforesaid, in order to enter into H. M.'s naval service, and shall thereupon be actually received into such service, not having previously committed any act amounting to and treated by the master as desertion, he shall be entitled to be immediately upon such entry to have his register ticket and all his clothes and effects aboard such ship or vessel delivered to him, and to receive from the master the proportionate amount of his wages up to the period of such entry, to be paid either in money or by a bill on the owner; all which register ticket, clothes, effects, money, or bill, such master is hereby required to deliver and pay to him accordingly.

under a penalty of 20*l.* for any refusal or neglect, to be recovered with full costs of suit by such seaman; but in case the master shall have no means of ascertaining the balance, he shall make out and deliver to such seaman a certificate of the period of his service, and the rate of wages he is entitled to, producing at the same time to the commanding or other officer of H. M.'s vessel the agreement with the seaman; and every such master, upon the delivery of such register ticket, clothes, and effects, and the settlement of such wages in manner herein mentioned, shall receive from the officer in command of the vessel into which the seaman shall have entered a certificate of such entry, endorsed on the agreement, and signed by the said officer, which such officer is hereby required to give.—§ 51.

Power for H. M. to sue for the Amount advanced for the Relief of Seamen left afloat.—If any person shall be discharged, or willfully and wrongfully left behind or abandoned, at any place beyond sea, or out of H. M.'s dominions, by any master, mate, or other officer, contrary to the provisions of this act, and shall become distressed, and be relieved under the provisions of an act passed in the eleventh year of the reign of his late Majesty, King George IV., for amending and consolidating the laws relating to the pay of the royal navy, or any act hereafter to be passed for that purpose, or if any person shall, as principal or agent, engage in any vessel belonging to any foreign power, or to the subject of any foreign state, and such last-mentioned person shall become distressed and be relieved as aforesaid, then, in addition to the wages due from such master or owner or person making such engagement, and the penalties to which such master may be liable, H. M. shall be entitled to sue such master or the owner of the ship, or any person who shall have made such engagement as aforesaid, at the discretion of the commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the U. K., for all the charges and expenses which shall have been incurred in or for the subsistence, necessary clothing, and conveyance home or burial (should he die abroad or before reaching home) of any such seaman or person relieved as aforesaid, as money paid to the use of such master or owner or other person, who shall have made such engagement as aforesaid, and recover the same, together with full costs of the suit, in the same manner as other debts due to H. M. are recoverable; and in any proceeding for that purpose proof of the amount furnished to the said commissioners by any such functionaries, or by such 2 merchants, or 1 merchant, according to the case, as provided by the said act of the eleventh year of King George IV., shall, together with the proof of payment by the said commissioners, or by the paymaster-general, of the charges incurred on such person, be sufficient evidence that such person was relieved and conveyed home or buried at H. M.'s expense; and the court in which any proceeding for the recovery of the said money shall be instituted is hereby authorized to issue a commission or commissions for the examination of witnesses, and the depositions taken under such commission or commissions shall be used as evidence.—§ 52.

Ship's Agreement, Indentures, and Assignments of Apprenticeship and Register Tickets, on arrival at a Foreign Port, to be deposited with the Consul, &c.—If any ship belonging to a subject of H. M. (except packets for passengers in the course of their voyage) shall arrive at any foreign port where there shall be a British consul or vice-consul, or at any port in a British colony, and remain there for 48 hours, the master shall, within 48 hours of the ship's arrival, deliver, or cause to be delivered to such consul or vice-consul at such foreign port, or to the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port of a British colony, the agreement or agreements before mentioned, together with an account at the foot of such agreement of all apprentices on board, setting forth their Christian and surnames at full length, the dates of the registry of their indentures and assignments respectively, and the date at which and the time when they were registered, and also all indentures and assignments of apprenticeships, and the register tickets of all the crew who shall be subjects of H. M., the whole to be kept by such consul or vice-consul, collector or comptroller, as the case may be, during the ship's stay in such port, and (excepting the register tickets of deserters, which are to be transmitted by such functionaries to the registrar of seamen) to be returned to the master a reasonable time before his departure, with a certificate endorsed on such agreements respectively, stating when the same were respectively delivered and returned, without any fee or charge being made for the same; and in case it shall appear that the required number of apprentices are not on board, or that the required forms or existing laws have been in any respect neglected or transgressed, such consul or vice-consul, collector, or comptroller, shall make an indorsement to that effect on such agreement, and forthwith transmit a copy of such indorsement, with the fullest information he can collect regarding such neglect or transgression, to the said registrar; and if any master shall neglect to deliver any agreement, indenture, assignment, or register ticket, or such account as aforesaid, he shall for every such neglect or default forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*; or if any master shall deliver any false or incorrect account, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 53.

No Seaman to be shipped at a Foreign Port without the Sanction of the Consul.—No seaman shall be shipped at any such foreign port by any such master, except with the sanction of such consul or vice-consul, to be indorsed or certified on the agreement, under a penalty of 20*l.*, to be forfeited by the master for every seaman so shipped.—§ 54.

Masters to produce Agreement, &c. to the Officers of Queen's Ships.—The master of every ship belonging to any subject of H. M. shall and he is hereby required to produce and show the log-book, muster roll of the ship, and the agreement or agreements with his crew, their register tickets, and the indentures of his apprentices, and the assignments thereof, and a list of all the passengers and persons on board, to the captain, commander, or other commissioned officer of any of H. M.'s ships or vessels requiring the production and sight thereof; and it shall be lawful for any such officer in H. M.'s naval service to muster the crew (including apprentices) of any ship belonging to any such subject, in order to be satisfied that the provisions of this act, and every other act by which the crews of such ships as aforesaid are regulated, and the laws relating to navigation, have been duly kept and complied with; and if any master shall, upon being required so to do by any such officer, neglect or refuse to produce such log-book, muster roll, or agreement, register tickets, indentures, and assignments, and lists of passengers and persons, or any of them, or shall obstruct any officer in the execution of his duty in mustering the said crew, or shall produce any false log-book, muster-roll, or list, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 55.

Consuls, Registrars, and Officers of Customs empowered to require Production of the Agreement, Muster-roll, &c.—For the better carrying into effect the purposes of this act, it shall be lawful for H. M.'s consuls and vice-consuls in foreign ports, and for the said registrar and his assistant, and also for the respective chief officers of the customs at the several ports of the U. K. and of the British possessions abroad, to demand from the master of every ship belonging to a subject of H. M. the production of the log-book, muster-roll of the ship, and such agreements, register tickets, indentures, and assignments as aforesaid, and a list of passengers and persons on board, and to muster the crew (including apprentices) of such ship, and to summon the master to appear before them, and give any explanation as they may respectively require regarding the said crew, ship, or documents, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the provisions of this act, and every other act by which the crews of such ships as aforesaid are regulated, and the laws relating to navigation, have been kept and complied with, and to take copies of all or any of such documents; and if any such master, on such demand being made, shall refuse to produce such log-book, muster-roll, agreement, register tickets, indentures and assignments, and lists of passengers and persons, or refuse to allow copies to be taken, or shall refuse to permit his crew to be so mustered, or shall refuse to appear and give such explanation as aforesaid, or shall wilfully deceive or mislead the person before whom he shall so appear, he shall for every such neglect, refusal, or offence, forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 56.

Survey of Provisions, &c.—It shall and may be lawful for any consul or vice-consul of H. M. and for

any collector or comptroller of the customs, upon complaint made by any 3 or more of the crew, to survey and examine, or cause to be surveyed and examined, the provisions, water, and medicines put or supplied on board any ship for the use and consumption of the crew; and if on such survey and examination it shall be found that such provisions, water, or medicines are of a bad quality, or unfit for use, or not appropriate, or there shall not appear to be a sufficient quantity thereof, the surveying officer shall signify this same in writing to the master of the ship; and if such master shall not thereupon procure other fit and proper provisions, water, or medicines in lieu of any which may be signified by the said surveying officer to be of a bad quality, or unfit for use, or not appropriate, or if any such master shall not thereupon procure the requisite quantity of provisions, water, and medicines, or shall use any provisions, water, or medicines which shall have been signified by the surveying officer to be of a bad quality or unfit for use, or not appropriate, he shall in each and every of such cases be guilty of a misdemeanour.—§ 57.

As to Offences committed at Foreign Ports.—All offences against the property or person of any subject of H. M., or of any foreigner, which shall be committed in or at any port or place, either ashore or afloat, out of the dominions of H. M., by the master and crew (including apprentices), or any or either of them, belonging to any ship subject to any of the provisions of this act, or who within 3 months before the commission of the offence shall have been the master thereof, or shall have formed part of any such crew, shall be and they are hereby declared to be offences of the same nature respectively, and to be liable to the same punishment respectively, as if they had been committed on the high seas and other places within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England, and shall be inquired of, heard, tried, and determined and adjudged in the same manner as if such offences had been committed within such jurisdiction; and when any trial for such offences, or for any misdemeanour against the provisions of this act, shall take place before any justices or judges of oyer and terminer and goal delivery, it shall be lawful for the court to order and direct the payment of the costs and expenses of the prosecution, as in the case of costs and expenses of prosecutions for offences committed within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England.—§ 58.

For the safe Custody and Conveyance of Offenders to England.—Whenever any complaint shall be made to any of H. M.'s consuls, or vice-consuls, or any other officer or officers having been commissioned and appointed by the master and crew (including apprentices, or any or either of them), belonging to any ship subject to any of the provisions of this act, it shall be lawful for any such consul or vice-consul to inquire into the case, upon oath, and at his discretion to cause any offender to be placed under all necessary restraint, so far as it may be in his power, so that he may be sent and conveyed in safe custody to England as soon as practicable, in any vessel of H. M., or of any of her subjects, to be there proceeded against according to law; and the costs and charges of imprisoning any such offender, and of conveying him and the witnesses to England, if not conveyed in the ship to which they respectively belong, shall be considered and deemed as part of the costs of the prosecution, or be paid as costs incurred on account of seafaring subjects of the U. K. left in distress in foreign parts; and all depositions taken before any consul or vice-consul abroad, and certified under his official seal to be the depositions, and that they were taken in the presence of the party accused, shall be admitted in evidence in all courts having criminal jurisdiction, and otherwise, in like manner as depositions taken before any justice of the peace in England now are or may be; and the register ticket of every offender shall be delivered up to H. M.'s consul or vice-consul, as the case may be, and be transmitted by him to the registrar of seamen.—§ 59.

As to the Conveyance of Offenders and Witnesses to England.—It shall be lawful for any consul or vice-consul to order and pass any such offender or offenders under necessary restraint, and also for the witnesses; and the master or other person having the charge of any ship or vessel belonging to any subject of H. M. bound for England shall and he is hereby required to receive and afford a passage and subsistence during the voyage to any such offender or offenders and witnesses, not exceeding the rate of 1 offender or 2 witnesses for every 100 tons of his ship's burden, and on his arrival in England the master of any vessel belonging to a subject of H. M. shall take or cause to be taken the offender or offenders before a justice of the peace, who shall deal with the matter as in cases of offences committed upon the high seas; and in case the master or other person having the charge of any ship or vessel belonging to any subject of H. M., when required by the consul or vice-consul to receive and afford a passage to any offender or witness, shall not receive and afford such passage, or shall not take or cause to be taken the offender or offenders before a justice of the peace as aforesaid, every such master shall be liable to a penalty of 50*l.*; and the seaman, if acquitted, shall receive his register ticket again upon due application to the registrar of seamen.—§ 60.

As to Ships belonging to British Colonies.—This act shall not extend or apply to any ship registered in or belonging to any British colony having a legislative assembly, or to the crew of any such ship, while such ship shall be within the precincts of such colony; but every ship belonging to any colony or possession of H. M., when proceeding from one part of the U. K. to another, or from the U. K. to the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or from any port in the U. K. to any port or possession of any foreign power or country, or to any colony to which the ship shall not belong, shall be held to come within the provisions of this act; and this act is hereby extended to the same; and the owner, master, and crew, including apprentices, of such ship so trading as aforesaid, shall be and are hereby declared liable to the provisions of this act as fully as the owner, master, and crew of any British registered ship; and this act and the provisions thereof (except so far as the same relate to agreements, register tickets, and having apprentices), shall also extend and apply to ships belonging to all of H. M.'s colonies and possessions abroad, wherever otherwise proceeding or trading, and to the owners, masters, and crews of such ships, when any such ship shall be beyond the precincts of the colony or possession to which she shall belong; and all certificates and sanctions required by this act to be indorsed on agreements shall, in the case of ships last referred to, be otherwise given in writing where no written agreement exists.—§ 61.

Recovery of Penalties.—All penalties and forfeitures imposed by this act, and for the recovery whereof any specific mode is hereinbefore provided, shall and may be recovered, with costs, either in any of H. M.'s courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or in the colonies or territories under the government of the East India Company, at the suit of H. M.'s law officers respectively, or at the suit of any person by or for whom any summary proceeding before any justice or justices of the peace in and for any part of H. M.'s dominions, or the territories under the government of the East India Company, where or near to the place where the offence shall be committed or the offender shall be; and if proceedings for the recovery of any forfeiture or penalty imposed by this act, or for the recovery of any debt due to H. M., be commenced in any of H. M.'s courts, the court in which such proceedings shall be instituted is hereby authorized to issue a commission or commissions in or out of H. M.'s dominions for the examination of witnesses, and the depositions taken thereunder shall be used and admitted to evidence; and in case of a summary conviction under this act, and the sum imposed as a penalty by the justice or justices shall not be paid, either immediately after the conviction or within such period as the justice or justices shall at the time of the conviction appoint, it shall be lawful for the convicting justice or justices to commit the offender to the common goal or house of correction, there to be imprisoned only, or to be imprisoned and kept to hard labour, according to the discretion of the justice or justices, for any term not exceeding 6 calendar months; the commitment to be determinable upon payment of the amount and costs; and all penalties and forfeitures mentioned in this act, for which no specific application is hereinbefore provided, shall, when recovered, be paid and applied in manner following; (that is to say,) inasmuch thereof as the court or the convicting justice or justices shall determine, but not exceeding one moiety, shall be paid to the informer or person upon whose discovery or information the same shall be

recovered, and the residue shall be paid to the Seamen's Hospital Society; provided always, that it shall be lawful for the court, before which, or the Justice or Justices before whom, any proceedings shall be instituted for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty imposed by this act, to mitigate or reduce such penalty as to such court or Justices respectively shall appear just and reasonable; but no such penalty shall be reduced to less than one-third of its original amount; and it shall be lawful, in the discretion of the said court, or of the said Justice or Justices hearing the complaint, to order such costs against the informing or complaining party failing to prove the charge as the said court or Justice or Justices may deem fit, and such costs shall be recoverable in the same manner as penalties under this act, and be paid as such court or Justice or Justices shall direct; provided also, that all proceedings so to be instituted shall be commenced within 3 years next after the commission of the offence, if the same shall have been committed at or beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn, or within 1 year if committed elsewhere, or within 3 calendar months after the return of the offender and the complaining party to the U. K. — § 62.

Definitions of the Terms "Master," "Seaman," "Ship," and "Owner." — To avoid doubts in the construction of this act, be it enacted, that every person having the charge or command of any ship belonging to any subject of H. M. shall, within the meaning and for the purposes of this act, be deemed and taken to be the master of such ship; and that every person (apprentices excepted) who shall be employed or engaged to serve in any capacity on board the same shall be deemed and taken to be a seaman, within the meaning and for the purposes of this act; and that the term "ship" shall be taken and understood to comprehend every description of vessel navigating on any sea or channel, or waters outside the mouth of rivers, and also every vessel passing beyond the preelnets of a port; and that the term "owner" shall be taken and understood to comprehend all the several persons, if more than one, to whom the ship shall belong. — § 63.

As to Relief to Persons from Asia and Africa becoming distressed in the United Kingdom. — If any person, being a Malay, Lascar, or native of the territories under the government of the East India Company, or if any Asiatic or African seaman, having been brought to the U. K. on board any ship, shall be found or be in the U. K. in distress for want of food, clothing, or other necessaries, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the U. K., at their discretion, to supply necessary and reasonable relief in every such person and seaman, and to maintain him until he shall be sent on board some ship for the purpose of being conveyed to or near to the port from which he was shipped, and also to pay, defray, and advance the money necessary to procure every such person and seaman a proper and sufficient passage to such port; and all such sum or sums of money as shall be paid and advanced by or by order of the said commissioners for or on account of such relief, maintenance, and passage, shall be and become a debt due to H. M., and be recoverable as such, with full costs of suit, in the courts of law either in H. M.'s dominions or in the territories under the government of the East India Company, from the owner and master, or either of them, of the ship on board whereof such person or seaman shall have been brought from Asia or Africa; but nothing herein contained shall repeal or annul any other act or acts now in force for the relief and conveyance home of any Asiatic or African person or seaman. — § 64.

SEAMEN (CORPORATION FOR RELIEF OF). During the reign of George II. an establishment attached to Greenwich Hospital was erected by the 20 Geo. 2. c. 38. "for the relief and support of disabled seamen, and the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchant service." To provide a fund for this charitable institution, every person serving in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects in England, (except apprentices under the age of 18, persons employed in boats upon the coasts in taking fish which are brought fresh on shore, or in boats within rivers, or upon boats on the coasts, and pilots (except persons employed in the service of the East India Company, and who were not entitled to the benefit of this institution, being provided for by a fund established by the Company),) paid sixpence per month, which was deducted out of his wages by the master, and paid over to the persons appointed under the authority of the act at the port to which the ship belonged, before she was allowed to clear inwards. For the management and distribution of this fund, a corporation was created, composed chiefly of eminent merchants, with power to purchase lands and erect an hospital, and to provide for seamen rendered incapable of service by sickness, wounds, or other accidental misfortunes, and decrepit and worn out by age, either by receiving them into the hospital, or by pensions: and also to relieve the widows and children of seamen killed or drowned in the merchant service, provided the children are not of the age of 17 years; or if of that age and upwards are incapable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmity, and are proper objects of charity; and to make reasonable allowances to those who shall lose an eye or a limb, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, in fighting, defending or working their ships, or doing any other duty in their service, in proportion to their hurt; so far forth as the income and revenues of the charity will extend for these purposes. But no person is to be provided for as a worn-out seaman, who has not been employed in the merchant service five years and paid the contribution. And in providing for this class, a preference is given to such as have served longest and contributed most.

In order to ascertain the times of service and payment of the contribution, the master was obliged to keep a muster-roll of the persons employed in the ship, and had before her departure to deliver a duplicate to the collector or receiver of duties for the seamen's hospital at the port; and, during the voyage, to enter the time and place of discharge, quitting, and desertion, and of receiving other persons on board, and of any hurt, damage, death, or drowning, of which he had also to deliver a duplicate at his return, under the penalty of 20*l.*, to the truth whereof he might be examined upon oath by the collector. And in case any person employed on board any ship or vessel should, in doing his duty on shore or on board, break an arm or a leg, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, he was to be properly relieved until sufficiently recovered to be sent to the place to which the ship belonged.

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But, notwithstanding the praiseworthy principle on which this establishment was founded, it was not found to be productive of the benefits, in a practical point of view, that had been anticipated. Perhaps this is to be in part explained by the circumstance of its being attached to Greenwich Hospital, which is peculiarly intended as a retreat for the worn-out and disabled seamen belonging to the Royal Navy. But, however this may be, it appears from accounts laid before parliament, that in 1829, when the merchant seamen paid an annual contribution of 26,137*l.* to the hospital, there was not one of them within its walls, except such as had also served on board line-of-battle ships. The system was, in consequence, much complained of by the seamen and others interested in the merchant service; and it is obvious that these complaints were not unfounded, and that the seamen reaped no advantage from the institution at all equivalent to the sacrifice they made for its support.

To obviate this state of things, a new system was introduced in 1835, when it was ordered, by the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 34., that the contribution of 6*d.* per month by seamen in the merchant service to Greenwich Hospital should cease from the 1st of January, 1835; and that 20,000*l.* a year should be advanced from the consolidated fund to the Hospital to make good the deficiency caused by the cessation of such contribution.

New Establishment for Support of Merchant Seamen, &c.—And to provide still more effectually for the relief and support of maimed and disabled merchant seamen, and of the widows, &c. of those killed or drowned in the merchant service, the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 52. was passed. This act repeals the 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., except in so far as it relates to the establishment of the corporation of the president and governors for the relief of maimed, &c. merchant seamen, and of the widows and children of seamen killed or drowned in the merchant service; and it also repeals as much of the act 37 Geo. 3. c. 73. as relates to the wages of seamen dying while employed in ships trading to the West Indies. Having thus cleared the way for a new system, it goes on to enact as follows:—

President and Governors empowered to relieve disabled Seamen, &c.—The said president and governors and their successors are authorised to provide, in their hospital, for such seamen as are rendered incapable of service by sickness, wounds, or other accidental misfortunes, and those who shall become decrepit or worn out by age, or to allow them certain pensions, or otherwise, as the president and governors deem meet and most for the advantage of the said charity; and also to relieve the widows and children of such seamen as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchant service; and also to relieve the widows and children of seamen dying after having contributed during a term of 21 years to the fund of this corporation, provided such children are not of the age of 14 years, or if of that age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity; and also to relieve the widows and children (such children being proper objects of charity) of such seamen as at the time of their death shall have been receiving or been entitled to pensions, under and by virtue of this act, from the fund hereby to be created, as decrepit or worn-out seamen; provided that no widow shall be entitled to any benefit under this act, who shall not have been the wife of such seaman or pensioner before he became entitled to relief under its provisions: provided nevertheless, that no seaman shall be entitled to any provision or benefit of this act, on account of any hurt or damage received on board any ship or vessel, unless he produce, or cause to be produced, a certificate of the said hurt or damage from the master, mate, boatswain, and surgeon, or so many of them as were in the vessel to which he belonged at the time of his receiving such hurt or damage, or of the master and 2 of the seamen, if there be no other officer, or in case the master shall die, or be killed or drowned, then of the person who shall take upon him the care of the ship or vessel, and 2 of the seamen on board the same, under their hands and seals, thereby signifying how and in what manner such seaman received such hurt or damage, whether in fighting, defending, working, loading, or unloading the said ship or vessel, where and when he entered, and how long he had served on board the same; and the parties so signing and sealing such certificate are hereby required to make oath to the truth thereof before some justice of the peace, if given in Great Britain or Ireland, or the chief officer of the customs of the port or place where there is no justice of the peace, or before the British consul or resident in any foreign country where such certificate is executed (who are respectively authorised and required to administer the same without fee or reward); and in case of sickness, whereby such seaman shall be rendered incapable of service, a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying that he was healthy when he entered on board such ship or vessel, and that such sickness was contracted on board the same, or on shore in doing his duty in the service of the ship, and not otherwise, and expressing the time and place he entered on board such ship or vessel, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman killed, slain, or drowned in the said service, shall be relieved or entitled to any allowance by virtue of this act unless she or they, or some person on her or their behalf, shall produce a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying how and in what manner such seaman lost his life in the service of the said ship or vessel, the time and place he entered on board, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman in the said service shall be entitled to any relief by virtue of this act, unless she or they shall produce, or cause to be produced, a certificate under the hands and seals of the minister and churchwardens and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, or under the hands and seals of the minister and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, where there are no churchwardens, or if in Scotland, by the minister and elders, or if in Ireland, by a justice of the peace for the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. shall at the time reside; and if such widow, &c. are some of the people called Quakers, then by any 2 reputable persons of that persuasion of the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. have a legal settlement, or do inhabit and reside, to be attested by 2 or more credible witnesses, that such widow was the lawful wife and real widow, and that such child or children was or were the lawful child or children of such deceased seaman as aforesaid, and that such child or children is or are under the age of 14 years, or if of that age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and is or are proper objects of charity; and that no seaman shall be provided for by a pension or otherwise, as decrepit or worn out, unless he have served in the merchant service for the space of 5 years, and have during that time paid the monthly duty out of his wages, imposed by the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., or by this act required to be hereforward paid and deducted, as the case may happen, for the uses and purposes herein provided. — § 2.

Forgery of Certificate.—Forged certificate to be null and void; and those knowingly using them to be liable to the punishment of an indictable offence.—§ 2.

Courts.—The president and 5 assistants to make a court, who are to meet weekly. The court may apply the monies of the corporation, and appoint the officers and their salaries, and do all other matters and things necessary.—§ 4.

All Masters and Owners of Merchant Ships or Vessels, &c. to pay 2s. per Month.—For effecting the ends and purposes aforesaid, every master of any merchant ship or vessel belonging to any British subject, and every owner, being a British subject, navigating or working his own ship or vessel, whether the said ship or vessel be employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, shall, from and after the 31st of December, 1834, pay 2s. per month, and proportionably for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed in such merchant ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid; provided always, that such masters or owners, or their widows, and children under 17 years of age, or below objects of charity as aforesaid, shall be entitled to a proportionate increase of the pension or allowance by this act provided, according to the difference between the amount of the monthly duty paid by other seamen, mariners, and pilots, in case such master or owner shall have paid the 2s. per month for a period of 3 years or 60 months before any application to the said president and governors for relief under this act; but in case any such master or owner be killed or drowned, or become decrepit, maimed, or disabled, before he or they shall have paid such increased rate of 2s. per month for the full period of 3 years or 60 months as aforesaid, then such masters or owners, or their widows and children, shall be entitled to such smaller pension or allowance as the said president and governors, or the trustees to be appointed, shall think fit.—§ 5.

All Seamen, or other Persons serving on board such Ship or Vessel, &c. to pay 1s. per Month.—Every seaman or other person whatsoever who shall serve or be employed in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any British subject, whether employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, and every pilot employed on board any such ship or vessel, shall, from and after the 31st day of December, 1834, pay 1s. per month, and proportionably for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed in or belong to the said ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid; provided that he shall not be construed to extend to a person employed in taking fish in any boat upon any of the coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, nor to any person employed in boats or vessels that trade only from place to place within any river of Great Britain or Ireland.—§ 5.

Masters of Ships to keep in their Hands 1s. per Month out of Seamen's Pay.—The master, owner, or commander of every such merchant or private ship or vessel is hereby required to deduct out of the wages, shares, or other moneys payable to seamen or other persons employed on board such ship or vessel (other than those hereby excepted), the said monthly duty, and shall pay the same, together with the amount of the duty owing from himself, to such officer or officers as shall be lawfully appointed at any of the out-ports for collecting the said duty of 1s. per month, if such seamen or other persons be entitled to any such wages, shares, or profits.—§ 7.

Appointments of Receivers.—President and governors, with the concurrence of commissioners of customs, to appoint such persons to receive the monthly duties at the out-ports as they may think fit, making them a reasonable allowance for their trouble, which is not, however, in any case, to exceed 5 per cent. on the gross sum collected.—§ 6.

Master's Roll.—Every master is to keep a true and faithful muster roll of the crew of his ship, specifying in writing the name of every one of the crew, including apprentices, with the various particulars as to the place of each person's birth, the place and time of his entry to the ship, the place and time of his discharge from or leaving the same, and if he be discharged or left, with the other particulars specified in the subjoined formula, in the event of his being hurt, killed, &c. i.—

A List and Account of the Crew (including the Master and Apprentices) of the Ship of the Port of _____, whereof _____ is the Master, at the Period of her Departure from the Port of _____ in the United Kingdom, and on her Return to the Port of _____ in the United Kingdom, and also of those who have joined the Ship at any Time during the Voyage.

Men's Names.	Place of Birth.	Place and Time of Entry.			Place and Time of Discharge, or leaving the Ship.			When and where re-ceived, hurt or died.	When or where killed or died a seaman.	When or where he died.	What Cause he died by.	£ s. d.	Monthly Duty.
		Day.	Month.	Year.	Day.	Month.	Year.						

Duplicates of this account are to be delivered to the collectors of the duties at the port where the vessel discharges; and any master or commander neglecting to keep such muster roll, and neglecting or refusing to deliver it to the collectors of the duties, shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 5*l*. The collectors are to transmit to the president and governors the duplicates received from such vessels as do not belong to the port of discharge; and the latter are to transmit them to the same. Collectors neglecting to transmit such duplicates incur a penalty of 5*l*.—§ 9.

Masters to deduct Penalties from Wages.—The master of every ship coming within the provisions of this act shall deduct out of the wages of the seamen thereof the amount of all forfeitures incurred by any such seamen, and every master is hereby required truly to enter the same in a book to be kept by him for that purpose, which shall be signed by the master and the person next in command, both of them certifying that it contains all the forfeitures which have been incurred by the seamen of the ship during the voyage, to the truth whereof the master shall make oath when required before the officer of the president and governors in London, or before their collectors at the out-ports; and the said book, or a true copy thereof, signed and certified as aforesaid, shall, within a calendar month after the ship's return from her voyage, be delivered to the said officer by the master, together with extracts from the log-book of the entries therein of the causes of the several forfeitures; and every master who shall refuse or neglect to deliver such account shall forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l*.—§ 10.

Examination of Masters, &c.—Collectors may summon masters of vessels, and examine them upon oath as to the truth of the muster rolls; masters refusing to appear or to answer, to forfeit 10*l*.—§ 11.

Regulations as to Government Ships.—Secretaries, &c. of public government officers to give in a list of ships and vessels employed in their service, and of the seamen or other persons employed in such ships or vessels; and the treasurer, &c. of such offices are to pay no wages or freight to any master, &c. until he produce an acquittance signed by receiver of duties.—§ 12.

Payment of Duties.—The said monthly duties are to be paid at the port where the ship or vessel unloads her cargo, before she be cleared inwards; and all officers are interdicted from granting any caskets, transits, &c. or permitting any vessel to go out of any port, unless it appear by the acquittances of the collectors of the said duties that they are not more than 3 months in arrear of the same; every officer acting contrary to this regulation to forfeit 10*l*. But masters or owners may agree with the trustees and collectors for half-yearly payments.—§ 13.

Prevention of Delay.—To prevent unnecessary delay, it is enacted, that if masters fail to produce proper acquittance or certificates of agreement, tidewaiters to be continued on board at their expense.— § 14.

Penalties by this act recoverable before a magistrate.— § 15.

Appointment of Trustees, &c.—From and after the 1st day of October, 1854, it shall be lawful for the owners, masters, and commanders employed on board ships and vessels belonging to any of the out-ports to assemble and meet at any time and place which they see fit, and to elect by any 5 or more of them, by giving 10 days' previous notice, to be fixed at the custom-house, wharf, quay, or other public place; and such persons, or the greater part of them, being so assembled, are authorized from time to time to nominate and appoint, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, 16 persons to be trustees for such out-port, for receiving, collecting, and applying the said duties, which trustees shall continue to act until the 31st day of December, 1854, and until new trustees are nominated and confirmed; and that within 10 days after the 31st day of December in each succeeding year, the owners, masters, &c. at such out-ports shall have power to meet and choose 16 persons to be trustees for the year ensuing, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, or the majority of them so assembled, having given previous notice in the manner before directed; which said respective trustees shall continue from time to time until new trustees are nominated, &c. as aforesaid; and the said instrument shall be sent, free of expense, to the president and assistants or committees of the said corporation, who are required to confirm the same under the common seal of the corporation, without fee or reward, within 15 days after the receipt thereof; which trustees when so confirmed (and whereof five shall be a quorum) shall have the same powers and authorities to make by-laws, and to revoke or alter the same, and to receive and apply any sums of money which shall be contributed, levied, or bequeathed by any well-disposed persons for the purpose aforesaid, and to appoint receivers and other officers, and to collect, receive, pay, and apply the said duties of 2s. per month: and no person so to be elected and paid by the seamen or other persons serving on board any ship or vessel belonging to such persons, at such out-ports, according to such rules, orders, and regulations as are or shall be established by virtue and in pursuance of this act, or have been established and continued under the provisions of the act 30 Geo. 2. c. 38., so far as the same are not inconsistent with or repealed or varied by the provisions of this act; and the said receivers and other officers shall have the same powers and authorities as the said trustees and officers appointed in pursuance of this act, and shall be liable to the same penalties and forfeitures: provided always, that if the instrument of trust be not sent to the president and assistant or committees within 60 days after every appointment of trustees, the trust thereby created shall be considered void, and the trustees appointed under it as discharged from the same; and that the president and governors shall have power to appoint a receiver or receivers for the port or place from which such instrument of trust has not been sent, for collecting the forementioned duties and allowances payable at such port or place aforesaid; and the said president and governors shall have power to demand from the outgoing trustees of such port or place an account in writing of the former management of such void trust, and also to demand payment from such trustees of any balances which may at the time of such default be in their hands, who are hereby required to pay the same to such receiver appointed as aforesaid, together with the books of account and other books belonging to such trustees relative to such trust.— § 16.

Appointments on Disputes.—These are not to be revocable within 5 years.— § 17.

Former Trustees.—Trustees previously appointed at the several out-ports to be subject to the provisions of this act.— § 18.

Trustees in Bristol.—The corporation of the Merchants Venturers of Bristol are appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there; and empowered to hold lands, &c. for the purpose of this act.— § 19.

Hull Trustees.—The guild of the Trinity-house of Kingston-upon-Hull are appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there.— § 20.

Greenock and Glasgow, &c.—The ports of Glasgow, Greenock, and Port Glasgow, &c. to be deemed one united port, and masters of ships belonging thereto to elect trustees for collecting duties, &c.— § 21.

Transmission of Accounts.—Trustees of out-ports to transmit accounts of the yearly receipts and expenditure to president and governors.— § 22.

Transmission of Muster Rolls.—Collectors appointed by trustees or corporations aforesaid are exempted from sending duplicate of muster rolls to the president and assistants.— § 23.

Sections 24. and 25. enact that no seaman shall be entitled to the benefit of this act unless he pays the duty; and that those seamen who have served longest shall be first provided for.

Named Seamen to be provided for at the port where the accident happens.— § 26.

Disabled Seamen having served and paid 5 years, to be provided for where they have contributed most.— § 27.

Seamen shipwrecked, or made Prisoners by the Enemy, may be relieved.— § 28.

Where regular Certificates cannot be obtained, others may be admitted.—In all cases where the certificates directed to be produced by this act for the purpose of emitting parties to relief and support cannot be obtained, such other certificates as shall be satisfactory to the president and governors or trustees respectively shall be received and allowed, so as to entitle the party producing the same to the pensions or other relief provided by this act.— § 29.

Wages of deceased Seamen to be paid to the Trustees.—All sums of money due for wages to any seaman, mariner, or other person engaged on board any British merchant ship in any port or ports in Great Britain and Ireland, who shall have died on board during the voyage, shall, within 3 months after the arrival of such ship in any port of Great Britain and Ireland, be paid to the trustees of the said port appointed in pursuance of this act, or to the receiver or collector or other authorized agent of the said president and governors, where there are no such trustees, and for the use of the executor or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and in case no claim shall be made on the said trustees by such executor or administrators on account of such wages, within 1 year after the same have been paid over, then the said trustees shall remit the same to the collector or receiver or other their authorized agent of the president and governors at the port of London, in such manner and times as the said president, &c. shall direct, to and for the use of the executor or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and no claim shall be made on the said president, &c. by the executor, &c. of such seaman on account of such wages within 1 year after the same shall have been first paid over to their collector, then it shall be lawful for them to direct such wages to be paid over (but without interest for the same) to the widow, or if there be no widow claiming, then to the lawful issue respectively, or such person as by virtue of the statutes of distribution of intestate's effects shall be entitled to the same; and if any master or commander of any merchant ship neglect or refuse to pay over to the said trustees, or the receiver or collector at the port aforesaid, all such sums of money within the time before limited, he shall forfeit for every such offence double the amount of the sums of money due to any seaman or other person for wages.— § 30.

Wages, if not demanded in 3 Years by representatives, to go to the use of the president and governors, or the trustees of the respective ports.— § 31.

Payment to Seamen's Hospital in London.—President and governors to pay 5 per cent. out of duties received by them from seamen in the port of London to the Seamen's Hospital Society in that port.— § 32.

Deductions from Gross Amount.—It shall be lawful for the receiver or collector or other authorized agent of the president and governors at the port of London, and he is hereby authorized, to deduct and receive from the gross amount of such sums of money as shall be derived from the unclaimed wages of deceased seamen, received by him in respect of such wages, 5 per cent. in satisfaction of all expenses and trouble he may be put to in the receipt, collection, or transmission thereof.

The contributions collected under this act amounted, in 1842, in London and the ports immediately under the management of the president and governors of the society, to 16,936*l.* (of which, however, 2,013*l.* were interest of capital); and a large additional sum was also collected at the out-ports, under the management of the trustees appointed by the above act. It may, therefore, be concluded, that, provided these sums be economically and discreetly managed, they will afford the means of suitably providing for the wants of a large number of disabled merchant seamen, as well as for the wives and children of those who have lost their lives in the service, and will consequently render it less hazardous and more respectable. But in this country, and, we presume, in most others, charitable institutions are usually quite as advantageous to others, as to those for whose behoof they are said to be established; and the institution for the relief of merchant seamen does not certainly appear to form an exception to the ordinary rule. Speaking generally, the seamen are very much dissatisfied with the conduct of this establishment; and really this is not much to be wondered at. The expenses of collection seem to be quite enormous, amounting to from 8 to 10, and sometimes even 15 per cent. and upwards, of the sums received! Probably, however, the reader may be disposed to think that there is no very good reason why this heavy expense, amounting to several thousand pounds a year, should be incurred; and why the collectors and other customs officers should not be made to collect and remit the seamen's contributions in the same way that they collect and remit any portion of the public revenue. But if it be necessary to make an allowance to the officers in question for such duty, it would surely be better that it should be made by adding to the salaries paid them by government, than that they should be allowed to eke them out by encroaching deeply on a pittance saved from the hard-earned wages of sailors as a resource against old age and infirmity. — (For details as to the revenue and expenditure of the corporation for the relief of seamen &c., see the *Parl. Paper* No. 241. Sess. 1843.)

SEAWORTHY, a term applied to a ship, indicating that she is in every respect fit for her voyage.

It is provided in all charterparties, that the vessel chartered shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, well appared, furnished with an adequate number of men and mariners, tackle, provisions, &c." If the ship be insufficient in any of these particulars, the owners, though ignorant of the circumstance, will be liable for whatever damage may, in consequence, be done to the goods of the merchant; and if an insurance have been effected upon her, it will be void.

But whether the condition of seaworthiness be expressed in the charterparty or not, it is always implied. "In every contract," said Lord Ellenborough, "between a person holding himself forth as the owner of a lighter or vessel ready to carry goods for hire, and the person putting goods on board, or employing his vessel or lighter for that purpose, it is a term of the contract on the part of the lighterman or carrier *implied by law*, that his vessel is tight, and fit for the purpose for which he offers and holds it forth to the public; it is the immediate foundation and substratum of the contract that it is so: *the law presumes a promise to that effect on the part of the carrier, without any actual proof*; and every reason of sound policy and public convenience requires that it should be so."

Not only must the ship and furniture be sufficient for the voyage, but she must also be furnished with a sufficient number of persons of competent skill and ability to navigate her. And for sailing down rivers, out of harbours, or through roads, &c., where either by usage or the laws of the country a pilot is required, a pilot must be taken on board. But no owner or master of a ship shall be answerable for any loss or damage by reason of no pilot being on board, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot shall have arisen from any refusal to take a pilot on board; or from the negligence of the master in not heaving to, for the purpose of taking on board any pilot who shall be ready and offer to take charge of the ship. — (4 *Geo. 3. c. 164.*)

A ship is not seaworthy unless she be provided with all the documents or papers necessary for the manifestation of the ship and cargo. Neither is she seaworthy, if, during war, she be not supplied with the sails required to facilitate her escape from an enemy.

"It is not sufficient to defeat the liability of the owner, that he did not know that the ship was not seaworthy, for he ought to have known that she was so at the time he chartered her. The sufficiency of the ship is the foundation of the contract between the parties, and a ship not capable of conveying the goods in a proper state is a failure of the condition precedent to the whole contract. The seaworthiness of the ship is not a question of fraud or good intention, but it is a positive stipulation that the ship shall be so; and therefore, although the owner may himself have been deceived by the ship-builder, repairer, &c., if the vessel be, in fact, un-seaworthy, have an insufficient bottom or unsound timbers, it is a breach of a preliminary condition, and is fatal, as such, to the contract." — (*Holt's Law of Shipping*, 2nd ed. p. 383.)

It is only necessary, to guarantee the owners from loss, that the ship should be sea

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worthy at the time of her departure. She may cease to be so in a few hours, and yet they may not be liable. The question to be decided in such cases always is, whether the ship's disability arose from any defect existing in her *before* her departure, or from a cause which occasioned it *afterwards*. But if a ship, within a day or two of her departure, become leaky or foundered at sea, or be obliged to put back, without any visible or adequate cause to produce such an effect — such as the starting of a plank or other accident to which the best ships are liable, and which no human prudence can prevent — the fair presumption is that she was not seaworthy when she sailed; and it will be incumbent on the owners to show that she was seaworthy at that time. They are liable for damage occasioned by every injury arising from any *original defect* in the ship, or from bad stowage; but they are not liable for any injury arising from the act of God, the king's enemies, or the perils of the sea.

It is further to be observed, that how perfect soever a ship may be, yet if, from the nature of her construction, or any other cause, she be incapable of performing the proposed voyage, with the proposed cargo on board, she is not seaworthy. *She must be, in all respects, fit for the trade in which she is meant to be employed.* And it is a wholesome rule, that the owners should be held to a pretty strict proof of this.

It has been already observed, that any defect in point of seaworthiness invalidates an insurance upon a ship. There is not only an express but an implied warranty in every policy, that the ship shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, &c.;" and the reason of this is plain. The insurer undertakes to indemnify the insured against the *extraordinary and unforeseen perils of the sea*; and it would be absurd to suppose that any man would insure against those perils, but in confidence that the ship is in a condition to encounter the *ordinary perils* to which every ship must be exposed in the usual course of the proposed voyage.

By the old law of France it was directed that every merchant ship, before her departure from the place of her outfit, should be surveyed by certain sea officers appointed for that purpose, and reported to be seaworthy, "*en bon état de navigation*;" and that previous to her return, before she took her homeward cargo on board, she should be again surveyed. Valin has shown — (Tit. Fret. art. 12.), that very little confidence could be placed in these surveys, which, he tells us, were only made upon the external parts, for the ship was not unsheathed; and, therefore, her internal and hidden defects could not be disclosed. This practice seems now to be abandoned by the French; at least, there is no allusion to it in the *Code de Commerce*. It is, one should think, much better to leave the question as to the seaworthiness of the ship to be ascertained, as in England, after a loss has happened, by an investigation of the true cause of such loss, than to permit so important a question to be decided upon the report of officers without any motive to inquire carefully into her actual condition. A ship may, to all appearance, be perfectly capable of performing a voyage; and it is only after a loss has happened, that her latent defects can be discovered, and her true state at the time of her departure rendered manifest. Indeed, the survey made by the French was not deemed a conclusive proof that the ship was, at her departure, really seaworthy: it merely raised a *presumption* that such was the case; but it was still open to the freighter or the insurer to show the contrary.

For further information upon this point, the reader is referred to the able and excellent works of Chief Justice Abbot (Lord Tenterden) on the *Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.; *Holt on Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.; and of Mr. Serjeant Marshall on *Insurance*, book i. c. 5. § 1.

SEEDS, in commerce, the grains of several species of gramina. Those of most importance are clover seed, flax or linseed, hemp seed, mustard seed, rape seed, tares, &c.; for which, see the respective articles.

SEGARS, or CIGARS. See TOBACCO.

SENNA (Fr. *Séné*; Ger. *Sennablater*; It. *Senna*; Sp. *Sen*; Lat. *Cassia Senna*; Arab. *Sana*). The plant (*Cassia Senna*) which yields the leaves known in commerce and the *materia medica* by the name of senna, is an annual, a native of Upper Egypt, and Bernou in Central Africa. The senna, after being collected in Upper Egypt, is packed up in bales, and sent to Boullac, where it is mixed with other leaves, some of which are nearly equally good, while others are very inferior. After being mixed, it is repacked in bales at Alexandria, and sent to Europe. A great deal of senna is imported from Calcutta and Bombay, under the name of East India senna; but it is originally brought to them from Arabia. — (*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) Senna is very extensively used in medicine. The duty of 6*d.* per lb., with which it was then charged, produced, in 1840, 3,385*l.*, showing that 211,400 lbs. had been entered for consumption. Of the imports in the same year, amounting to 225,779 lbs., none was brought direct from Egypt, but 152,894 lbs., were brought indirectly from her through the Italian ports, and 63,608 lbs. from the East Indies. The duty was reduced, in 1832, from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 6*d.* per lb., and in 1842 to 1*d.* per lb.

SHAGREEN (Ger. *Schagrin*; It. *Chagrin*; Rus. *Schägrin Schagren*), a kind of grained leather, used for various purposes in the arts. It is extensively manufactured at Astrakhan in Russia. — (See *Tooke's Russia*, vol. iii. p. 403.)

SHAMMY or **CHAMOIS LEATHER** (Ger. *Sämischleder*; Fr. *Chamois*; It. *Camoscio*; Rus. *Smochaniti, Koshi*), a kind of leather dressed in oil, or tanned, and much esteemed for its softness, pliancy, and capability of bearing soap without hurt. The real shammy is prepared of the skin of the chamois goat. But leather prepared from the skins of the common goat, kid, and sheep, is frequently substituted in its stead.

SHARKS' FINS, form a regular article of trade to China; and are collected for this purpose in every country from the eastern shore of Africa to New Guinea. In the Canton Price Currents they are regularly quoted as tea or opium; and the price of late years has been, according to quality, from 15 to 18 dollars per picul, equal to from 50s. to 60s. per cwt.

SHAWLS (Ger. *Schalen*; Fr. *Chals, Chales*; It. *Shawali*; Sp. *Schawalos*), articles of fine wool, silk, or wool and silk, manufactured after the fashion of a large handkerchief, used in female dress. The finest shawls are imported from India, where they are highly esteemed, and cost from 50 to 300 guineas. But the British shawls manufactured at Norwich, Paisley, and particularly Edinburgh, have recently been very much improved; and though still inferior in point of quality to the finest specimens brought from the East, they look well, and are much cheaper. The native shawl manufacture is of very considerable value and importance.

Cashmere Shawls.—The shawl manufacture is believed to have originated in the valley of Cashmere, the ancient *Chapira*, in the north-west of India, between the 34th and 35th degrees of N. latitude, and the 73d and 74th degrees of E. longitude. Though not so flourishing as it once was, the manufacture is still prosecuted in this province to a very considerable extent. The shawls are the very best that are made, possessing unequalled fineness, delicacy, and warmth. They are formed of the inner hair of a variety of the common goat (*capra hircus*), reared on the cold dry table land of Thibet, elevated from 14,000 to 15,000 feet above the level of the sea. The goat thrives sufficiently well in many other countries; but in the sultry plains of Hindostan it has hardly more hair than a greyhound; and though in higher latitudes the hair is more abundant, it is for the most part shaggy and coarse. It is only in the intensely cold and dry climate of Thibet that it yields the peculiarly soft woolly hair that constitutes the material of the Indian shawl. We do not, therefore, suppose that the efforts to naturalise the shaw-goat in France will turn out well. On the contrary, we believe the chances of success would be about equal were an attempt made to breed beavers in a hot country, without water, or camels in a moist country, free from heat and drought.

The inner or fine wool is covered over and protected by a quantity of long shaggy hair, which is, of course, carefully separated from it before it is manufactured.

The genuine shawl wool has been imported into this country; and the finest Edinburgh and Paisley shawls have been produced from it. But it must be admitted that shawls have nowhere been made that can come, as respects quality, into successful competition with those of Cashmere. The manufacture has been established at Delhi and Lahore for some years; but notwithstanding it is carried on by native Cashmerians, and though the material employed be quite the same, the fabrics are said to want the fineness of those made in Cashmere, and to have a degenerated, coarse appearance. It is difficult to account for this superiority. It has been ascribed to some peculiar quality of the water in the valley of Cashmere; but it is most probably owing to a variety of circumstances, which, though each may appear of little importance, collectively give a character to the manufacture.

The following details as to the manufacture of Cashmere shawls have been extracted from an English paper published at Delhi:—

The great mart for the wool of which shawls are made, is at Kilghat, which is said to be a dependency of Ludak, and situated 30 days' journey from the northern boundaries of Cashmere. There are 2 kinds of it; that which can be readily dyed is white; the other sort is of an ashy colour, which being with difficulty changed, or, at least, improved by art, is generally woven of its natural hue. About 2 lbs. of either are obtained from a single goat once a year. After the down has been carefully separated from the hairs, it is repeatedly washed with rice starch. This process is reckoned important; and it is to the quality of the water of their valley that the Cashmerians attribute the peculiar and inimitable fineness of the fabrics produced there. At Kilghat the best raw wool is sold for about 1 rupee a pound. By the preparation and washing referred to, it loses $\frac{1}{4}$, and the remainder being spun, 3 rupees' weight of the thread is considered worth 1 rupee.

Shawls are made of various forms, size, and borders, which are wrought separately, with the view of adapting them to the different markets. Those sent to Turkey used to be of the softest and most delicate texture. Carpets and counterpanes are fabricated of the hair or coarser part of the wool. From a variety of causes, among others the destruction of the Janissaries, who dressed much in shawls, the loss of royalty in Cabul, and the ruined finances of Lucknow, it is certain that the demand for this elegant commodity has greatly declined of late years. Under the Mogul emperors, Cashmere found work for 30,000 shawl looms. In the time of the Afghan kings, the number decreased to 18,000. There are now not more than 6,000 employed. I should attribute little of this diminution to the sale of English imitations among the Asiatic nations. When these counterfeiters first appeared, the pretty patterns and brilliancy of the colours took the fancy of some, but their great inferiority in the softness and warmth which marks the genuine shawl, soon caused the new article to be neglected.

The average value of shawls exported from Cashmere amounts annually to 1,800,000 rupees. Runjeet Singh took this kind as part of the gross revenue of the province, which was about 25 lacs a year. He is said to have sold $\frac{1}{2}$ of what he thus received, and to have kept the remainder for his own court. Of those disposed of by him and left for sale in the valley, 7 lacs' worth went to Bombay and Western India; 3 in Hindustan, chiefly Gode; 4 lacs each to Calcutta, Cabul, Herat, and Balk, whence some were carried to neighbouring countries.

A curious calculation of the successive exactions, from Cashmere to Bombay inclusive, which magnify the price of shawls, is herewith subjoined.

Actual cost for materials and labour in making a pair of reel shawls:—

	Rs. rs.	Duties on the same.—On sale and importation to	Rs. rs.
Four Frenchable covers of wool	12 6	Cashmere	3 14
(heating, washing, and spinning)	50 0	On the thread	8 4
Dyeing	11 0	While the fabric is in the loom	125 0
Wages to weavers	264 6	Plus to chowdhries, brokers, assessors, &c.	35 0
Total	337 14	Total amount of duties in Cashmere	171 18

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Duties from Cashmere to Amritsar	Rs. 18 5
From Amritsar to Bombay	5 6
At Bombay	70 0
Total from Amritsar to Bombay	93 11
Total from Khlght to Bombay, 171 18 and 85 12	252 30
Prime cost	537 14
Proportion of carriage	0 12
Insurance	21 0
Total cost	610 56

"A pair of such shawls might sell for 500 rupees at Amritsar and in Bombay for 100. The amount of the imports, and the sums levied by each government, will appear more to raise if stated as they affect a consignment in the progress. It consists of 14 such shawls, and contains, at an average, 5,000 shawls of different kinds, valued, on reaching Bombay, at 29,500 Rupees."
 The government of Lahore exacts Pd. Rs. 1,564 5; Peshawar, 31 0; Billewul, 43 11; Jandiyere, 121 4; Billewul, 20 0; — total levied by native princes, 1,909 0; Bombay, 10 per cent. ad valorem) 2,850 0."

SHEEP (Ger. *Schafe*; Fr. *Brebis*, *Bêtes à laine*, *Moutons*; It. *Pecora*; Sp. *Pecora*, *Ovejas*; Rus. *Ovzi*; Lat. *Oves*). Of the domestic animals belonging to Great Britain, sheep, with the exception of horses, and, perhaps, cattle, are by far the most important. They are reared in situations and upon soils where other animals would not live. They afford a large supply of food, and one of the principal materials of clothing. Wool has long been a staple commodity of this country, and its manufacture employs an immense number of people. "The dressed skin," says Mr. Pennant, "forms different parts of our apparel; and is used for covers of books. The entrails, properly prepared and twisted, serve for strings for various musical instruments. The bones, calcined (like other bones in general), form materials for tests for the refiner. The milk is thicker than that of cows, and consequently yields a greater quantity of butter and cheese; and in some places is so rich, that it will not produce the cheese without a mixture of water to make it part from the whey. The dung is a remarkably rich manure; inasmuch that the folding of sheep is become too useful a branch of husbandry for the farmer to neglect. To conclude; whether we consider the advantages that result from this animal to individuals in particular, or to these kingdoms in general, we may, with Columella, consider this, in one sense, as the first of the domestic quadrupeds." — (*Pennant's British Zoology*.) The importation of sheep from a foreign country was prohibited until 1842, but they may now be imported on paying a duty on sheep of 3s., and on lambs of 2s. a head. — (See **CATTLE** and **WOOL**.)

The following Table exhibits a compendious view of the more prominent characteristics of the principal breeds of sheep in Great Britain.

Names of Breeds.	Head.	Colour of Face and Legs.	Wool.	Wt. of Wethers.		Age killed.
				Fleeces per Qr.	Lbs. per Qr.	
1. Teeswater	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool	9	23	2
2. Lincoln	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool	10	22	3
3. Dishley, or New Leicester	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	8	22	4
4. Cotswold	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	9	24	2
5. Romney Marsh	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	8	22	2
6. Dartmoor, or Brampton	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	0	25	2
7. Exmoor	Horned	White face and legs	Long wool (coarse)	6	18	2
8. Black faced, or Heath	Horned	Black face and legs	Long wool (coarse)	5	15	3
9. Hereford, Hereford	No horns	White face and legs	Short wool (fine)	23	11	3
10. Merf, Shropshire	Horned	Black and speckled	Short wool (fine)	12	12	3
11. Dorset	Horned	White and speckled	Short wool (fine)	23	12	2
12. Wilt	Horned	White and speckled	Short wool (mid.)	5	20	3
13. Berks	No horns	Black and white	Long wool	7	18	2
14. South Down	No horns	Speckled and white	Short wool	24	12	2
15. Norfolk	Horned	Black and white	Short wool	8	18	3
16. Herewick	Horned	Black and white	Short wool	2	10	4
17. Cheviot	No horns	White face and legs	Short wool	3	16	4
18. Dun-faced	No horns	Dun face and legs	Short wool	14	7	4
19. Shetland	No horns	Various coloured ditto	Fine cottony	11	3	4
20. Scotch	Rams horn'd	White	Short wool (super.)	24	14	2
21. Ditto, cross			Short wool (fine)	22	16	2

For details as to the number of sheep, the quantity and quality of wool, &c., see **WOOL**.

SHERRY. See **WINE**.
SHIPS. Nautical men apply the term ship to distinguish a vessel having 3 masts, each consisting of a lower mast, a topmast, and top-gallant mast, with their appropriate rigging. In familiar language, it is usually employed to distinguish any large vessel, however rigged: but it is also frequently used as a general designation for all vessels navigated with sails; and it is in this sense that we now employ it.

Merchant Ships. — It is hardly possible to divide merchant ships into classes, at least with any degree of precision. Their size, shape, the mode of their rigging, &c. depend not merely on the particular trade for which they are destined, but on the varying tastes and fancies of their owners. The ships employed in the China and India trade are the largest and finest merchantmen belonging to this country; those in the West India trade rank next; then follow the whale ships, those engaged in the trade to the Baltic and Canada, the Mediterranean, the coasting trade, &c.

The reader will find, in the articles **NAVIGATION LAWS**, and **REGISTRY**, an account of the peculiar privileges enjoyed by British ships, the conditions and formalities

* Post majores quadrupedes ovilli pecoris secunda ratio est; que prima sit ad magnitudinem utilitatis referat. Nam illi precipue contra frigoris violentiam protegit, corporibusque nostris liberatoria prebet velamina; et etiam elegantiam mensas jucundis et numerosis dapibus exornat. — (*De Re Rustica*, lib. vii. cap. 2.)

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necessary to be observed in order to acquire and preserve those privileges, the mode of transferring property in ships, &c. And in the articles CHAMBERLAIN, FAZIBURY, MASTER, OWNERS, SEAMEN, SEAWORTHY, &c. the law with respect to ships and ship owners, in their capacity of carriers or public servants, and the reciprocal duties and obligations of the masters and crews, is pretty fully expounded. In this place, therefore, we shall content ourselves with laying before the reader some official statements exhibiting the progress and present magnitude of the mercantile navy of Great Britain.

Increase of Shipping in England. — It would be to no purpose, even if our limits permitted to enter into any details with respect to the shipping of England, previously to the Revolution. Those who wish to examine the subject, will find most of the scattered notices of contemporary writers collected by Anderson, in his "Chronological History of Commerce." The mercantile navy of England first became considerable in the reign of Elizabeth; and gradually increased under her successors, James I. and Charles I. At the Restoration, the British shipping cleared outwards amounted to 95,266 tons; but such was the increase of navigation during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., that, at the Revolution, the British ships cleared outwards amounted to 190,533 tons. The war terminated by the treaty of Ryewick, in 1697, checked this progress. But commerce and navigation have steadily advanced, with the exception of 2 short periods during the war of 1739, and the American war, from the beginning of last century down to the present day.

The first really authentic account of the magnitude of the commercial navy of England was obtained in 1701-2, from returns to circular letters of the commissioners of customs, issued in January of that year. From these it appears that there belonged, at the period in question, to all the ports of England and Wales, 3,281 vessels, measuring (or rather estimated to measure) 261,222 tons, and carrying 27,196 men and 5,660 guns. Of these there belonged to

	Vessels.			Tons.			Men.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
London	560	84,882	10,065	Hull	115	7,564	187		
Bristol	163	17,338	2,539	Whitby	110	8,292	521		
Yarmouth	183	9,918	668	Liverpool	102	8,619	1,101		
Exeter	121	7,107	978	Northburgh	100	2,860	666		

None of the other ports had 100 vessels; and there is some mistake in the returns as to the tonnage assigned to Newcastle and Ipswich. Of the Hull vessels, 80 were at the time laid up, which accounts for the small number of men in that port. — (*Macpherson's Annals of Commerce*, anno 1701.)

The Table No. V. (see p. 1110.) of the British and foreign shipping cleared outwards from 1663 to 1811, both inclusive, is taken from the last edition of *Chalmers's Comparative Estimate*. It gives a very complete view of the progress of the navigation of the country; and from the attention paid by the author to such subjects, and the facilities which his situation in the Board of Trade gave for acquiring authentic information, its accuracy may be depended on.

I. COLONIAL SHIPPING. — A Return of the Number and Tonnage of Sailing and Steam Vessels registered on the 31st of December, 1842, at each of the Ports of the Colonies of the U. Kingdom; distinguishing between those under and those above Fifty Tons Register, and between Sailing and Steam Vessels.

Countries.	Sailing Vessels.				Steam Vessels.			
	Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.		Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
AFRICA.								
Sierra Leone	7	945	8	566				
Cape of Good Hope	4	115	28	3,019				
Mauritius	60	1,978	60	9,575			2	383
ASIA.								
New Holland, Sydney	87	1,903	119	30,519	3	126	11	1,330
Hobart Town	37	1,356	36	5,682	2	91		
Lancaster	18	448	33	8,337	1	44		
AMERICA.								
British Northern Colonies —								
Newfoundland	337	11,045	414	35,807				
Canada, Montreal	2	91	24	4,765			15	3,473
Quebec	83	8,331	277	31,778	1	47	8	983
New Brunswick, St. Andrew's	131	2,390	60	16,003				
St. John and Crecks	218	6,543	913	70,146	1	91	12	1,380
Nova Scotia and Crecks	1,197	34,743	623	74,329	1	35	2	117
Cape Breton	271	6,845	116	8,740				
Prince Edward's Island	172	3,645	79	12,806				
British West Indies: —								
Antigua	54	806	3	256				
Barbados	28	828	13	974				
Dominica	12	276	2	303				
Grenada	40	667	3	383				
Jamaica	100	2,795	21	1,995				
Montserrat	5	153	1	71				
Nevis	10	148						
St. Christopher	22	380						
St. Lucia	13	175	7	565				
St. Vincent's	28	657	4	702				
Tobago	9	387						
Tortola	25	474						
Trinidad	54	1,245	9	796				
Bahamas	134	5,080	12	1,033				
Bermuda	11	302	65	3,839				
Demayara	38	1,241	15	1,130			3	383
Nevisce	8	219	8	283	1	69		

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Prussia
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11. Statement of the Shipping employed in the Trade of the U. Kingdom, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels that entered inwards and cleared outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews; separating British from Foreign Vessels, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country, in the Year 1842. — (Board of Trade Papers for 1842.)

Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.						
	British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.			
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	
Europe, viz. —													
Russia	1,300	869,879	11,663	915	57,431	2,585	894	181,137	6,838	188	40,510	1,698	
Sweden	81	15,966	680	318	37,918	1,806	115	11,355	990	290	81,125	1,709	
Norway	17	1,585	106	651	38,979	5,183	85	2,983	174	206	31,778	4,061	
Denmark	49	5,199	953	601	35,837	4,137	460	73,739	3,709	1,376	131,714	2,869	
Prussia	537	87,994	4,248	898	165,499	8,775	511	65,613	5,490	717	133,865	6,167	
Hannover	89	181,973	7,715	1,053	101,568	6,055	891	308,489	3,082	1,139	39,027	5,618	
Holland	1,415	314,011	11,319	708	79,968	4,719	1,406	499,399	11,801	337	24,864	3,264	
Belgium	710	84,033	7,188	465	64,648	4,903	701	81,021	7,050	873	55,698	5,718	
France	4,239	496,416	5,883	3,105	199,595	14,613	4,868	506,538	35,891	1,918	184,490	16,118	
Portugal, Proper	400	43,019	3,860	27	5,057	445	380	44,859	4,737	74	10,418	761	
Azores	227	17,291	1,341	5	491	30	191	16,441	1,174	3	907	39	
Madeira	10	8,084	199	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Spain and the Balearic Islands	537	51,350	3,926	73	9,340	701	357	70,070	4,808	96	16,025	970	
Greece	9	1,134	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Cyprus	81	20,808	2,150	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Gibraltar	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Italy and the Italian Islands	757	132,839	6,111	176	42,049	4,364	544	84,104	4,511	144	39,711	1,771	
Malta	192	31,983	1,013	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Ionian Islands	80	10,150	614	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Turkey and Continental Greece	164	35,247	1,415	21	4,831	228	919	46,042	3,361	27	3,108	360	
Mores and Greek Islands	46	6,194	598	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Africa, viz. —													
Egypt	103	29,084	1,687	—	—	—	—	75	21,658	1,830	9	677	63
Tipoli, Barbary, and Morocco	30	3,506	191	—	—	—	—	78	15,883	879	19	4,702	613
Senegal and coast from Morocco to River Hamba	—	—	—	6	881	59	1	870	19	6	448	41	
Sierra Leone and coast from River Hamba to River Moors	69	18,464	869	—	—	—	—	58	15,819	807	—	—	
Windward coast	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	249	33	—	—	
Cape Coast Castle	33	4,414	279	—	—	—	—	53	13,783	930	—	—	
Coast from Mozambique to the Valetta	59	19,475	1,128	—	180	10	56	17,584	1,054	—	—	—	
Cape of Good Hope	96	4,980	369	—	—	—	—	73	16,409	847	—	—	
Eastern coast	—	—	159	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Ports in the Red Sea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	499	17	—	—	
Cape Verd Islands	6	1,118	89	—	—	—	—	13	2,883	167	9	747	36
St. Helena and Ascension	1	1,390	131	—	—	—	—	16	3,971	311	—	—	
Mauritius	108	26,650	1,405	—	—	—	—	54	16,557	808	—	—	
Asia, viz. —													
Arabic	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	2,340	99	—	—	
East India Company's territories, Singapore and Ceylon	450	191,378	9,094	—	—	—	—	397	302,101	10,070	—	—	
Java	8	2,346	114	1	387	84	—	267	8,079	407	1	887	25
Philippine Islands	10	5,411	154	—	—	—	—	1	501	15	—	749	37
Other islands of the Indian Seas	4	1,141	55	—	—	—	—	3	896	69	—	—	
China	75	39,816	1,699	—	—	—	—	68	39,997	1,403	—	—	
New Holland	79	49,869	1,156	—	—	—	—	139	51,234	4,878	—	1,067	
New Zealand	4	1,341	63	—	—	—	—	41	9,551	516	—	—	
South Sea Islands	1	368	31	—	—	—	—	4	1,019	96	—	—	
America, viz. —													
British Northern Colonies	1,558	541,451	21,499	—	—	—	—	1,333	446,848	19,499	—	—	
British West Indies	714	191,666	10,552	—	—	—	—	408	361,549	14,339	—	—	
Havill	27	4,747	253	—	—	—	—	179	17	93	5,747	354	1
Cuba, and other Foreign West Indies	154	49,660	2,791	56	7,990	400	918	65,506	5,507	87	33,447	1,110	
United States	981	152,835	6,145	554	319,524	10,909	355	193,745	7,538	618	316,232	11,781	
Mexico	50	11,811	646	—	—	—	—	37	6,615	361	—	970	91
Guatemala	—	—	300	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Colombia	56	10,953	597	1	300	19	22	3,084	220	3	858	35	
Brazil	124	50,875	1,830	16	5,657	171	809	55,128	2,110	601	90,299	3,017	
Bio de la Plata	128	27,966	1,593	3	1,112	45	78	17,910	859	9	8,437	360	
Chil	34	14,138	740	32	9,389	447	69	12,295	675	7	5,187	103	
Peru	42	11,969	601	—	—	—	—	27	6,537	316	—	—	
Falkland Isles	1	99	13	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
The Whale Fisheries	31	9,163	1,126	—	—	—	—	94	6,353	999	—	—	
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	2,911	179,358	14,815	30	3,106	186	9,417	144,330	12,625	—	—	—	
Total	18,967	3,291,725	174,881	8,051	1,803,303	65,954	18,785	3,375,870	186,816	6,870	1,929,176	65,404	

111. Statement of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of Vessels (including their repeated Voyages), that entered inwards to, and cleared Outwards from, the several Ports of the United Kingdom, from and to Foreign Parts, during each of the Three Years ending 5th January, 1845.

	Years.	British and Irish Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.			Total.		
		Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
		1843	16,987	3,294,725	174,884	8,054	1,805,303	65,952	37,011	4,000,088
1844	19,500	3,845,346	191,396	6,541	1,301,590	69,791	26,011	4,841,400	301,117	
1845	19,687	3,647,465	195,742	9,608	1,409,138	76,091	29,225	5,049,601	371,811	
Outwards	1843	16,783	3,375,470	186,816	8,375	1,973,126	66,953	37,160	4,827,448	254,309
	1844	19,354	3,035,835	197,378	6,708	1,531,133	71,718	30,045	4,917,088	288,614
	1845	16,788	3,852,824	214,204	9,816	1,434,516	77,109	29,804	5,297,128	300,453

Ports.	Sailing Vessels.				Steam Vessels.			
	Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.		Under 50 Tons.		Above 50 Tons.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
SCOTLAND - continued.								
Leith	100	9,720	112	18,408	8	199	9	1,071
Dunbar	19	482	10	639				
Lowick	68	1,500	3	996			3	177
Montrose	71	1,711	104	14,410				1,833
Perth	12	556	77	9,472	1	19		20
Port Glasgow	37	979	36	11,407			2	136
Stranraer	44	1,219	13	1,406			1	263
Wick	25	718	8	1,009				
	19	791	14	1,027				
	1,994	26,116	5,187	63,413	90	965	109	30,504
IRELAND.								
Baltimore	101	2,427	9	1,078				
Belfast	117	2,273	269	49,688	1	18	2	849
Colevalee	11	234		997				1,713
Cork	166	4,636	918	35,543	3	127	11	1,275
Drogheda	7	229	54	8,585			5	283
Dublin	260	7,419	131	20,954	3	122	22	8,304
Dundalk	24	624	15	1,131			2	202
Galway	6	104	19	2,634				
Limerick	43	1,303	71	15,851				
Londonderry	11	318	61	6,111			7	1,338
Navy	160	4,787	60	7,111			1	303
Ros	3	91	10	5,553				63
Sligo	7	183	12	2,291	1	44		
Trillick	2	69						
Waterford	65	1,611	121	21,438			4	936
Westport	4	89		108				
Wexford	34	1,245	69	6,302			1	216
	1,004	28,512	1,056	178,518	8	309	71	17,700
Journey	98	793	94	12,105				
Jersey	130	990	173	26,231	1	39		
Man	308	6,780	31	1,738			4	605

V. Table of Ships cleared outwards from 1663 to 1811.

Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1663	95,266	47,534	142,800	1760	340,241	107,237	447,478	1786	1,115,784	121,197	1,236,981
1669	190,533	95,827	286,360	1761	389,070	119,735	508,805	1787	1,479,033	138,299	1,617,332
1671	146,264	100,294	246,558	1762	547,444	124,925	672,370	1788	1,411,622	128,997	1,540,619
1701	273,593	45,633	319,226	1763	138,081	68,153	206,234	1789	1,515,021	103,724	1,618,745
1702	245,693	45,625	291,318	1764	668,434	79,900	748,334	1790	1,481,219	119,219	1,600,438
1703	296,680	29,110	325,790	1765	729,409	79,215	808,624	1791	1,511,218	184,729	1,695,947
1704	181,431	26,273	207,704	1766	158,456	68,443	226,900	1792	1,445,450	286,467	1,731,917
1705	1715		1715	1767	725,835	68,006	793,841	1793	1,240,209	127,038	1,367,247
1706	1714		1714	1768	761,296	77,584	838,880	1794	1,389,166	218,077	1,607,243
1707	1713		1713	1769	805,300	88,493	893,793	1795	1,145,450	386,467	1,531,917
1708	1712		1712	1770	806,495	63,170	869,665	1796	1,234,634	478,356	1,712,990
1709	1711		1711	1771	877,094	66,898	943,992	1797	1,103,721	286,271	1,390,002
1710	1710		1710	1772	923,458	73,931	997,389	1798	1,310,111	265,718	1,575,829
1711	1709		1709	1773	674,421	67,894	742,315	1799	1,329,251	414,774	1,744,025
1712	1708		1708	1774	901,016	68,402	969,418	1800	1,445,271	685,051	2,130,322
1713	1707		1707	1775	859,319	66,034	925,353	1801	1,245,931	804,893	2,050,824
1714	1706		1706	1776	879,108	74,323	953,431	1802	1,265,968	461,733	1,727,701
1715	1705		1705	1777	827,067	104,838	931,905	1803	1,453,256	574,542	2,027,798
1716	1704		1704	1778	739,658	93,778	833,436	1804	1,463,396	827,219	2,290,615
1717	1703		1703	1779	842,981	149,010	991,991	1805	1,405,209	625,821	2,031,030
1718	1702		1702	1780	731,826	154,111	885,937	1806	1,486,308	408,170	1,894,478
1719	1701		1701	1781	606,919	170,273	777,192	1807	1,244,023	673,010	1,917,033
1720	1700		1700	1782	615,150	225,456	840,606	1808	1,379,810	492,145	1,871,955
1721	1699		1699	1783	865,957	170,538	1,036,495	1809	1,551,159	699,750	2,250,909
1722	1698		1698	1784	929,219	118,268	1,047,487	1810	1,684,274	1,138,527	2,822,801
1723	1697		1697	1785	1,074,864	107,464	1,182,328	1811	1,507,353	696,239	2,203,592

VI. Account of the Total Number of Vessels engaged in the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same, that entered inwards from all Parts of the World, in the several Years from 1814 to 1842, both inclusive: distinguishing British from Foreign.

Years.	British and Irish Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
1814	8,073	1,210,218	83,733	5,266	699,927	31,375
1815	8,980	1,372,108	86,860	5,241	764,566	44,020
1820	11,285	1,868,060	100,325	5,472	447,511	27,533
1825	13,503	2,183,317	125,028	6,081	959,319	32,722
1830	15,518	2,161,650	129,333	5,359	739,828	41,670
1831	14,448	2,367,248	131,627	6,065	874,695	47,458
1832	15,378	2,195,940	122,594	4,246	639,979	75,399
1833	15,119	2,163,815	120,458	5,208	758,085	43,820
1834	15,903	2,399,263	126,727	5,894	833,903	45,827
1835	14,293	2,447,734	133,688	6,005	886,990	47,132
1836	14,547	2,605,173	137,840	7,231	988,829	53,021
1837	15,335	2,617,166	146,319	7,543	1,005,240	56,772
1838	16,119	2,765,287	151,430	8,679	1,211,668	66,991
1839	17,233	2,101,650	170,333	10,299	739,828	79,535
1840	17,243	2,197,501	173,404	10,139	1,460,298	81,820
1841	18,285	2,361,211	178,698	9,527	1,291,163	73,634
1842	16,297	2,321,782	175,284	6,054	1,305,203	65,222

VII. Account of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys usually employed in navigating the same, that belonged to the several Parts of the British Empire, on the 31st of December, 1843, 1844, and 1845, respectively.

	1843.			1844.			1845.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
England	17,473	2,277,266	186,845	17,576	2,309,567	187,615	17,862	2,524,380	183,681
Scotland	3,677	491,690	80,740	3,644	488,996	80,186	3,690	494,428	80,776
Ireland	1,628	189,859	30,521	1,635	208,615	31,861	1,310	154,909	16,084
Isle of Guernsey	143	1,455	1,051	130	1,377	974	130	1,344	959
Isle of Jersey	345	37,003	5,403	311	28,078	3,717	311	27,500	3,293
Isle of Man	348	5,609	1,740	338	5,371	1,638	336	5,033	1,545
British Plantations	7,085	580,806	28,422	7,504	592,839	40,559	7,919	690,061	41,784
Total	30,983	3,689,287	213,977	31,900	3,637,931	316,550	31,817	3,714,061	224,900

VIII. Account of the Number of Vessels and of their Tonnage, built and registered in, and of those belonging to, the different Ports of the British Empire, from 1820 to 1845, both inclusive; specifying the Number of their Crews, and distinguishing between those of the British Islands and Possessions in Europe and those of the Colonies.

Years.	Vessels built and registered.						Vessels and their Crews belonging to the British Empire.						
	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.		United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.		Crews.
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	
1820	635	66,149	238	16,431	873	82,580	21,969	2,899,099	5,403	309,364	23,372	2,648,735	173,514
1821	927	99,142	375	15,563	1,302	114,705	31,638	3,535,633	7,384	394,538	39,022	3,550,003	169,170
1822	571	51,535	709	15,611	1,280	67,146	21,238	2,315,403	3,404	305,641	24,642	2,319,044	125,474
1823	604	63,790	483	22,240	1,087	86,030	21,042	2,502,267	3,500	303,933	24,542	2,506,760	125,474
1824	837	93,419	349	30,392	1,186	123,811	21,409	2,648,816	4,496	311,373	26,776	2,659,597	169,287
1825	1,043	124,029	536	60,025	1,579	184,054	20,701	2,339,407	5,373	314,370	26,800	2,553,092	169,185
1826	1,131	119,086	508	86,534	1,639	205,620	20,568	2,411,615	6,552	324,188	27,625	2,435,644	167,635
1827	911	82,039	549	87,384	1,460	169,423	19,562	2,171,129	3,973	279,862	23,199	2,460,500	151,416
1828	857	96,060	464	60,844	1,321	156,904	19,648	2,185,240	4,449	324,931	24,025	2,318,191	155,776
1829	948	71,611	367	39,237	1,315	110,848	19,174	2,091,391	4,247	330,277	23,721	2,117,611	154,412
1830	774	77,411	467	34,290	1,241	111,701	19,509	2,066,566	4,196	337,698	23,848	2,094,864	154,000
1831	760	85,777	378	34,290	1,138	119,997	19,530	2,026,356	4,196	337,698	23,848	2,094,864	154,000
1832	759	92,011	452	69,230	1,211	161,241	20,300	2,060,303	5,011	335,428	25,311	2,145,367	161,734
1833	798	92,711	498	39,878	1,296	132,589	19,689	2,071,201	4,696	368,276	24,885	2,145,367	161,734
1834	806	102,710	354	45,411	1,160	148,121	19,375	2,019,355	5,080	403,745	25,655	2,176,100	168,011
1835	916	121,434	452	69,230	1,368	190,664	20,300	2,060,303	5,011	435,428	25,311	2,145,367	161,734
1836	709	99,636	441	36,504	1,150	136,140	20,300	2,060,303	5,011	435,428	25,311	2,145,367	161,734
1837	1,005	135,992	310	71,266	1,315	207,258	20,536	2,335,221	5,501	437,497	26,037	2,291,018	173,306
1838	1,147	161,834	428	82,827	1,575	244,661	20,312	2,060,303	6,075	469,848	26,609	2,145,367	161,734
1839	1,474	196,903	368	47,908	1,842	244,811	21,670	2,070,625	6,075	492,739	27,745	2,169,433	171,985
1840	1,444	199,091	271	43,899	1,715	242,990	22,604	2,104,269	5,308	583,376	30,968	2,311,639	201,810
1841	1,129	168,301	608	39,857	1,737	208,158	23,404	2,335,769	5,291	577,031	30,439	2,311,639	201,810
1842	871	133,275	422	55,148	1,293	188,423	23,594	2,041,490	6,861	578,430	30,815	2,319,540	181,447
1843	736	85,273	428	85,994	1,164	171,267	23,898	3,007,581	7,086	580,840	30,563	2,908,387	215,077
1844	731	86,372	529	69,955	1,260	156,327	24,018	3,004,429	7,204	592,889	31,290	2,997,211	216,281
1845	830	114,919	608	73,837	1,438	188,756	24,388	3,123,180	7,499	590,811	31,817	3,174,061	224,900

N.B. — The falling off in the number of ships in 1827 is apparent only. The numbers returned in the previous years were those that appeared on the registers. But a ship, when once placed on them, remains till evidence was produced of her having been sold to foreigners, lost, or otherwise destroyed; so that a good many ships were at all times on the register, which, in fact, did not exist. The Registry Act passed in 1826 obliged all owners of ships to register them of new; when, of course, the number of those that had ceased to exist disappeared from the lists.

Ship-building. — The cost, including the outfit, of the ships built in the U. Kingdom in 1842, may, we believe, be taken, at a rough average, at from 10*l.* to 12*l.* per ton, or 11*l.* at a medium, making their total value 1,088,100*l.* London, Sunderland, Newcastle, Liverpool, Hull, Yarmouth, &c. are the principal building ports. The business has increased with extraordinary rapidity at Sunderland; so much so that while only 60 ships, of the burden of 7,560 tons, were built in that port in 1823, no fewer than 302 ships, of the burden of 87,023 tons, were built in it in 1840. Ships built at London, Liverpool, Bristol, and other western ports, are, however, in higher estimation than those built in the Tyne and the Wear, at least for those branches of trade where the best ships are required. Within the last few years, a great many steam boats have been built in the Clyde.

State of the Shipping Interest. — The complaints that were so frequent about 10 years since respecting the distressed state of the shipping interest have recently all but ceased; indeed we incline to think they never had any very good foundation. No doubt their profits are a good deal lower now than they were during the war; but this, if it be really an evil, is one that is not peculiar to them, but equally affects agriculturists, manufacturers, and merchants; and is not even confined to this country, but extends to others. We have already shown the groundlessness of the clamour raised against the reciprocity treaties (see p. 83.); which, far from being injurious, have been equally beneficial to our commercial and shipping interests. It is believed that owing to the peculiar facilities afforded by means of dock and other devices for the loading and unloading of ships, the employment of steam tugs to bring them quickly to their moorings and to take them to sea, and the greater economy and despatch that now pervade every department of the business, 3 ships are able to perform, and do, in fact, perform, as much work as was done by 4 at the end of the war. There has, in this way, been a virtual addition of 400,000 or 500,000 tons to our mercantile navy. And this surely is enough, without looking at any thing else, to account for the decline in the rate of freight since 1815. The great number of new ships that have been built every year shows that the shipping business is quite as profitable as other departments.

The fall in the value of ships has been a consequence of the still greater fall in the value of the timber, iron, hemp, &c. of which they are constructed; and, however injurious to those who happened to have bought or built ships during the high prices, it is in no ordinary degree advantageous to the public, and to the ship owners that are now engaging in the trade. The discriminatory duties on Baltic timber, in fact, the only real grievance under which our shipping interest labours. Were it not for them, ships might be built cheaper in England than in any other country. Such, however, is the vast importance to a maritime nation like this of being able to build ships at the lowest possible rate, that we think they ought to be allowed to be built in bond, or, if that would be inconvenient, that a drawback should be allowed of the duty on every article used in their construction. A measure of this sort would give to

the shipping of England the same superiority, in point of cheapness, that is now enjoyed by our cottons; and would do more than any thing else to consolidate and strengthen the foundations of our maritime ascendancy. It is entirely owing to the operation of the duties that so many ships are now built in the colonies. They are very inferior to those built in England; and were the latter built in bond, or were the duties on the articles used in their construction drawn back, they would also be the cheapest of the two.

It may be worth mentioning, as illustrative of the singular anomalies that have been allowed to inelude themselves into our commercial system, that timber may be imported into the Isle of Man, or into any other British possession, without regard to its origin, on payment of an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. It is remarkable that advantage was not earlier taken of this anomaly, to build ships in the Isle of Man. Latterly, however, several vessels have been built in it; and, were it in other respects as well situated for ship-building as the other parts of the empire, it would become a principal seat of the business. There can, however, be no good reason why one part of the empire should be permitted to enjoy a peculiar privilege of this sort. An equalisation of the duties should take place, either by extending the British duties to the Isle of Man, or the Manx duties to Britain; — the latter would be the most beneficial way of obviating the anomaly.

SHIPS (CLASSIFICATION OF, FOR THE PURPOSE OF INSURANCE). — To insure a ship on right principles, or in such a way that the premium shall be the fair equivalent of the risk, is no easy matter. The risk depends partly on the condition of the ship and the capacity of the master and crew; partly on the nature of the cargo she is to take on board; and partly on the voyage she has to perform. The last two circumstances disclose themselves, and their influence may be appreciated, at least with sufficient accuracy for practical purposes, without any difficulty; but it is far otherwise with the condition of the ship, and the capacity of the master and crew. It is essential to the adjusting of an insurance on fair terms, that these should be known; and it is, at the same time, exceedingly difficult to acquire any accurate information with respect to them.

It is plain that there is but one mode in which any thing satisfactory can be learned with respect to the condition of ships, and that is, by their inspection and examination by persons of competent information as to such matters. To acquire a just character at first, a ship should be repeatedly surveyed while she is being built; and to learn her condition at any subsequent period, some of the planks should be taken off, and her hull and rigging subjected to a thorough examination. This is the only method to be followed if we wish to arrive at results that may be safely depended on. The age of a ship should not be altogether overlooked in estimating her condition; but it is not a criterion that, taken by itself, is worth almost any thing. There is the greatest possible difference in the materials of which different ships are built, in the way in which they are built, and in the wear and tear to which they are exposed. Some are so very bad, that they actually go to pieces on their first voyage; others, with difficulty, last for 3, 4, or 7 years; and others, again, run for 10, 15, and even 20 years, and upwards, with but little repair. It may be presumed that the condition of ships built of similar materials, on the same plan, and employed in the same departments of trade, will depend materially on their ages; but a thousand circumstances conspire to defeat this presumption; and it would be ludicrous to suppose that it should apply at all in the case of ships constructed of different materials, and engaged in different lines.

But, notwithstanding the criterion of age is thus really worth less than nothing as a rule by which to judge of a ship's condition, it is almost the only one that was referred to in this country down to a late period. From about the year 1760, or perhaps earlier, down to 1834, ships were arranged, by the underwriters at Lloyd's, in classes marked by the letters A, E, I, and O, and the figures 1, 2, and 3; the former referring to the hull of the ship and the latter to the rigging. A ship marked A 1. was in the highest class; that is, her hull and rigging were both declared to be in the best condition; ships marked E 1. were in the next class; those marked I 1. were in the lowest available class, or that formed of such as were fit only for carrying coals, or other goods not liable to sea damage along the coast; ships marked O were unseaworthy. But to get into the highest class, no examination of the ship, or none worthy of the name, was required. Unless some very flagrant defect were obvious in their construction, all ships were entitled, when new, to be marked in the highest class; and they were entitled, whatever might be their real condition, to stand in it for a certain number of years, varying from 6 to 12, according to the port in which they happened to be built! It is not easy to imagine any thing more absurd than such a classification; but the whole extent of the injury arising from it is not immediately obvious. The great majority of merchants and underwriters have not, and could not be expected to have, any personal knowledge of different ships, and have nothing to trust to but the classified accounts. Suppose, now, that two ships were built at the same time in London or any other port; that one was constructed of the best materials, and in the best way, while the other was constructed of the worst materials, and in the most defective manner: these two ships were placed side by side in the class A 1.; the underwriters, seeing them there, were ready, without further inquiry, to insure them at the same premium, and the merchants were, for the same reason, quite as willing to

employ the one as the other! A bounty was thus given on the construction of what have been called *ship-built* ships, or ships of an inferior class. For a half, or, at most, two thirds, of what would be required to construct a good and really sufficient ship, a ship owner got an inferior vessel of an equal burden sent to sea; and, owing to the matchless absurdity of the system of classification, the inferior was placed in the same rank with the superior ship; enjoyed all the advantages such distinction could give; and was, in the public estimation, deemed quite as good and as deserving of employment as the other. This has been a more copious source of shipwreck than all the currents, rocks, and fogs that infest our seas; but it was not the only one. At the end of a certain number of years, depending (as already stated) on the port where the ship was built, both the vessels referred to above were degraded to the class E; and yet it might happen, that the superior ship was, when so degraded, better entitled to continue in the class A than the inferior ship was ever to be in it. But even this does not exhaust the whole absurdity of this preposterous scheme; for, supposing that the superior ship had been so thoroughly repaired as to be as good as the day she came off the stocks, and that the inferior ship had got no repair at all, still they were both placed, side by side, in the class E! All the annals of all the maritime nations of the world, from the Phœnicians downwards, furnish no example of a more perverse, contradictory, and absurd regulation. That it should have existed amongst us for the greater part of a century, strikingly exemplifies the power of habit to procure toleration for the most destructive practices and errors.

It may be said, perhaps, that, whatever system of classification is adopted, there must be great numbers of inferior vessels; for, though we did not, foreigners would build them; and, being consequently able to sell them cheaper, would drive us totally out of all trades in which they could come fairly into competition with us. This is true; but, provided they be not engaged in the conveyances of passengers, who ever thought of proscribing inferior ships, or of detaching to the ship owner what sort of ships he should build, or to the merchant what sort he should employ? We do not object to inferior ships, but we do object to the same character being given to them that is given to superior ships. This is practising a gross fraud upon the public; and gives an unfair and unjust advantage to the owners of inferior vessels. The interests of navigation and of humanity imperatively require that ships should be correctly classified; that those that are not seaworthy should not be classed with those that are, but that the real state of each should be distinctly set forth in the register, and be made known to every one. If this be done, the merchant and the underwriter may be safely left to deal with them as they think fit.

In consequence of the laudable exertions of Mr. Marshall and other gentlemen, the attention of the principal merchants, ship owners, underwriters, &c. of the metropolis was some years ago directed to this subject; and in 1824 a committee, consisting of representatives from these different bodies, was appointed to inquire into and report on it. The committee collected a great deal of valuable evidence; and laid an able report before a general meeting of merchants, ship owners, &c., on the 1st of June, 1826. We subjoin an extract from this report, which more than bears out all that we have stated:—

"From the absence of all control on the original construction of ships while building, and the impossibility of ascertaining by any inspection, after completion, their real quality, it appears to be indisputably proved, by almost uniform concurrence of testimony, that the first character, or A, is indiscriminately extended to ships differing widely in strength, durability of materials, and all those qualities on which character ought to be dependent; that many ships to which the first class is assigned are decidedly inferior to others which are placed, from lapse of time alone, in a lower class; that many become totally unfit for the conveyance of dry cargoes, long before the expiration of the period during which they are entitled, according to the present system, to remain on the first letter, in which they are notwithstanding continued; that instances are on record of first class ships which have been unfit from their origin for the conveyance of dry cargoes; and some are declared to have been hardly fit, when new, to proceed to sea with safety. One case is even adduced, in which, from ill construction and insufficiency of fastening to a new ship, her insecurity was predicted, and she actually foundered on her first voyage; and yet this identical vessel was ranked, according to the indiscriminate system pursued, in the first class.

"Such, as respects new ships, appears by the evidence to be the practical results of a system which, assuming to designate by marks their intrinsic quality, provides no means of actually ascertaining that quality; but offers, in effect, a premium for the building of inferior and inefficient ships, by the inducement it holds forth to fraudulent construction, and by the equality of character it indiscriminately extends to the best and the worst ships built at the same port.

"Nor, your committee regret to have to report, is the evidence of the errors, inconsistencies, and evils arising from the existing system, as applied to old ships, by any means less conclusive. By the refusal to restore character, in consequence of repairs, however extensive, the inducement to maintain ships in an efficient state is removed; whilst, from the absence of all regular provision for stated or periodical examination, their efficiency or insufficiency is rendered dependent upon the varying views, the caprices, or the interests of the proprietors. Hence, though the second character, or B, is declared by the rules of the system to be the designation of ships which, having lost the first character from age, are kept in perfect repair, and appear, on survey, to have no defects, and to be completely calculated to carry dry cargoes with safety, the whole body of evidence shewethly proves that character to be, in very numerous instances, assigned to ships which, from original defect or want of requisite repairs, are utterly unfit and unsafe for dry cargoes; while others, which, from sound construction or efficient restoration, are pronounced in the evidence to be superior to many new ships, are indiscriminately classed with the actually worthless and

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unseaworthy. Hence, too, the employment of ships, after they have passed the period prescribed by a fallacious standard of classification, becomes uncertain, precarious, and difficult; the ship owner is injured; the shipper and underwriter misled; the building of superior ships, capable of long service, is discouraged, and direct inducement is held out to the construction of those of an inferior description; the general character of our mercantile marine is degraded; and it is to be feared that, could the system be traced to its ultimate results, it would be found to be productive of a lamentable loss of property and life."

It may have seemed surprising that, despite the continued complaints of the lowness of freights, and the want of employment for shipping, so many new ships should be annually built. But this was, to a considerable extent at least, occasioned by the system of classification now described. Instead of building a really good and durable ship, the principal object used to be to construct one that should, at farthest, be, as the phrase is, *run off her legs* in about 10 years or thereby; inasmuch as, whatever might be a ship's condition, she was then degraded from the class A 1., and that it was hardly possible, in most departments of trade, to find a merchant to employ, on any thing like reasonable terms, a ship to which these symbols of imaginary excellence were not attached. Hence the ship owner, instead of repairing his 10-years old ship, sold her for what she would fetch, and built a new one. But the person who purchased the ship degraded to E 1. forced her, though at an enormous reduction, into business; so that there were two bad or inferior ships in the field; whereas, under a reasonable system of classification, there would most likely have been only one good ship. The injury that this practice did to the shipping interest is too obvious to require to be pointed out. It has been infinitely more hostile to it than all those reciprocity treaties, and that foreign competition, about which there has been so much unfounded clamour. "If the system of classification were founded on the principle of *intrinsic merit*, if the real efficiency of the ship formed the basis on which character was given, the consequence, in numerous instances, would be, that, instead of supplying the place of those ships that at present lapse from age only into the second class with new ones, the owners would effectually repair the existing ships; so that there would speedily be not only a material improvement in the construction of ships, but a material increase in the amount of tonnage, and a corresponding increase in the rate of freight."—(*Marshall's Statements*, p. 19.)

The conclusive report and exposition referred to above did not produce the consequences that might have been anticipated. Government, for reasons known only to itself, seems to have concluded that this was not a subject with which it should interfere; and it was laid aside for some years more. But the still-increasing amount of shipwreck, and the loss of life and property consequent thereon, again roused the public attention to the subject; and at length the principal merchants, ship owners, and underwriters succeeded in setting on foot machinery by which a classified account of shipping has been obtained, founded on incomparably more correct principles. The public owe much to the able and intelligent individuals who imposed on themselves this difficult and important task. Notwithstanding the obstacles with which they had to contend, they have done much to improve the character of our mercantile marine, and to lessen the disasters incident to a seafaring life.

2. *New System of Classification.*—The new classification is conducted under the direction and superintendence of a committee of merchants, ship owners, and underwriters, established in 1834. The committee establish rules for classifying ships, and appoint, control, and dismiss the surveyors by whom they are inspected and examined. A classified register is annually published, which is gradually made more and more complete; and the expenses attending the institution are defrayed, partly by the fees charged on making an entry in the register, partly by the profits on the sale of the register or book, and partly from voluntary sources. But, as the subject is of the utmost importance to every one interested in commerce and navigation, we think we shall do an acceptable service to our readers, by laying before them the latest statement prefixed by the society to their register. It fully explains their objects, the principles on which they are proceeding, and the means they have adopted for carrying their views into effect.

CLASSIFICATION OF SHIPS.

After announcing the formation of the committee, the official statement goes on to say, that—

This society was established in 1834, for the important purpose of obtaining a faithful and accurate classification of the mercantile marine of the U. Kingdom, and of the foreign vessels trading thereto, and for the government of which the following rules and regulations have been from time to time adopted:—

The superintendence of the affairs of this Society to be under the direction of a committee in London, of 24 members, consisting of an equal proportion of merchants, ship owners, and underwriters; and, in addition, the chairman for managing the affairs of Lloyd's, and the chairman of the General Ship Owners' Society for the time being, to be, *ex officio*, members of the committee.

The committee to appoint from their own body, annually, a chairman; and deputy chairman, and also a chairman for a sub-committee of classification.

The committee to appoint a sub-committee of classification, to be so regulated that each member of the general committee may, in rotation, take his turn of duty therein throughout the year.

No member of the committee to be permitted to be present on the decision of the classification of any ship of which he is the owner, or wherein he is directly or indirectly interested.

The committee to be empowered to make such by-laws for their own government and proceedings as they may deem requisite, not being inconsistent with the original rules and regulations under which the Society was established; but no new rule or by-law to be introduced, nor any rule or by-law altered, without special notice being given for that purpose at the meeting of the committee next preceding that at which such motion is intended to be made; such notice to be inserted in the summons convening the meeting.

No new rule, or alteration in any existing rule, materially affecting the classification of ships, to take effect until the expiration of six months from the time it shall have been determined upon.

All reports of survey to be made in writing by the surveyors according to the forms prescribed, and submitted for the consideration of the general committee, or of the sub-committee of classification; but the classing assigned by the latter to be subject to confirmation by the general committee.

The reports of the surveyors, and all documents and proceedings relating to the classification of ships, to be carefully preserved, and parties proving themselves to be interested therein to have access thereto under the directions of the chairman or deputy chairman.

Foreign ships, and ships built in the British possessions abroad, to be surveyed on their arrival at a port in the U. Kingdom; but a due regard is to be had to the circumstance of their having been exempted from the supervision, while building, to which all British ships are subjected, and the class to be assigned to them is to be regulated according to their intrinsic quality, and from the best information the committee can obtain.

In every case in which the class assigned to a ship may be proposed to be reduced, notice is to be given in writing to the owner, master, or agent, with an intimation that if the reduction be objected to, the committee will be ready to direct a special survey, on the owner, master, or agent agreeing to pay the expenses attending the same, provided on the said survey there shall appear sufficient ground for the proposed reduction.

When the surveyors consider repairs to be requisite, they are respectively to communicate the same in writing to the owner, master, or agent, and if such repairs be not effected upon within a reasonable time, a corresponding report is to be made to the committee for their decision thereon.

Parties considering the repairs suggested by the surveyor to be unnecessary or unreasonable, may appeal to the committee, who will direct a special survey to be held; but should the opinion of the surveyor be confirmed by the committee, then the expense of such special survey is to be paid by the party appealing.

The surveyor to the Society not to be permitted (without the special sanction of the committee) to receive any fee, gratuity, or reward whatsoever, for their own use or benefit, for any service performed by them in their capacity of surveyors to this Society; on pain of immediate dismissal.

The surveyors will be directed to attend on special surveys of ships under damage, or repairs for restoration, when required by merchants, ship owners, or underwriters; the charge for which is to be regulated according to the nature and extent of the service performed. In all cases, the application for the assistance of the surveyors must be made in writing addressed to the secretary.

Funds.—The funds to be under the authority and control of the committee, and a statement of the receipts and expenditure to be annually printed for the information of the subscribers.

The following fees to be charged to the owners of ships prior to their vessels being classed and registered in the book:—

For entering and classing ships, and for entering and classing ships surveyed for continuation, or repaired for restoration.			
	Tons.	£	s. d.
For each ship	under 100	1	0 0
Ditto	of 100 tons and under 200	2	0 0
Ditto	— 200	3	0 0
Ditto	— 300	4	0 0
Ditto	400 and upwards	5	0 0

For registering repairs, or change of owners.			
	Tons.	£	s. d.
For each ship	under 150	0	10 0
Ditto	of 150 tons and under 300	1	0 0
Ditto	— 300	2	0 0
Ditto	— 500 and upwards	3	0 0

For re-classing ships (except when repaired), the characters of which have been expunged.

	Tons.	£	s. d.
For each ship	under 100	0	10 0
Ditto	— 200 and above	1	0 0

Special Surveys.—For special surveys, and where the surveyors to the Society are required by the owners to superintend the building of ships, or repairs for restoration, or otherwise, a charge will be made according to the nature and extent of the service performed.

Certificates of classification of the form No. 6., signed by the chairman of the general committee, or by the chairman of the sub-committee of classification, and countersigned by the secretary, will be granted on application; the charge for which is to be as follows:—

For ships under 200 tons	5s. each.
Ditto of 200 tons and above	10s. each.
Rules, each copy	5s.

RULES FOR CLASSIFICATION.

1. The rules and regulations for the classification of ships, which were originally framed after much labour and deliberation, aided by the valuable practical knowledge of the committee of the General Ship Owners' Society, having been revised and considerably modified, the following have been determined upon as well calculated to meet the fair claims of all parties interested in their application, and from the adoption of which it is hoped that considerable benefit and convenience will result.

2. The characters to be assigned to ships to be, as nearly as possible, a correct indication of their real and intrinsic qualities; and to be in all cases fixed (not by the surveyors, but) by the committee, after the consideration of the reports of the surveyors and such other documents as may be submitted to them.

FIRST CLASS SHIPS.—First Description of the First Class.

3. Will comprise all ships which have not passed a prescribed age, provided they are kept in a state of complete repair and efficiency; and they will be designated by the letter A.

4. The period to be assigned for their continuing on this class to be determined with reference to the original construction and quality of the vessel, the materials employed, and the mode of building; and their continuance for the time so assigned to depend upon its being shown by occasional surveys (annually if practicable) that their efficiency is duly maintained. It being also desirable, on grounds of national policy and of individual justice, that, after the expiration of the prescribed period, ships should be permitted to remain on the First Description of the First Class, or to be restored thereto for a further limited period, such extension of the period may be granted on the conditions hereinafter shown. (See also Section 24.)

5. New ships are to be surveyed while building by the surveyors to this Society, in the following three stages of their progress:—

First, — when the frame be completed.
Second, — when the beams are put in, but before the decks are laid, and with at least two strakes of the plank of the ceiling, between the lower deck and the bilge, unwrought, to admit of an examination of the inner surface of the plank at the bottom.
Third, — when completed, and, if possible, before the plank be painted or payed.
 6. A full statement, agreeably to a form prepared by the society, of the dimensions, scantlings, &c. of all new ships, verified by the builder, is to be transmitted by the surveyor, and to be kept as a record in the office of the society.

RULES TO BE OBSERVED IN BUILDING SHIPS.

7. *Timbering*. — The whole of the timber to be of good quality, of the descriptions specified by the Society, as applicable to the several terms of years for which ships are constructed, may respectively be appointed to remain on the List of the First Description of the First Class; the stem, stern-post, beams, transoms, spruce, knight heads, bawse timbers, and keelson of ships claiming to stand *twelve years*, to be entirely free from all defects; the frame to be well squared from the first four-hook heads upwards, and free from sap, and likewise below, unless the timber be proportionally larger than the scantling thereafter described; every alternate set of timbers to be framed and bolted together to the gunwale. The butts of the timbers to be close, and not to be less in thickness than one third of the entire moulding at that place, and to be well chocked, with a butt at each end of the chock.

The Scantlings to be as follows: —

For ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500	Second foothooks, sided, if square at the heads	Inches. 10	Inches. 10
	Inches. 20	Inches. 30	Third foothooks sided and top fasteners if square	6	9
Room and space to be	-	-	The frame to be moulded at keelson	-	8 15
Floors sided, if square, and free from sap, to be not less at the keelson than	8	11	The frame to be moulded at their heads	7	11
First foothooks, sided, if square, at floor heads	7	13	Top timbers to be moulded at their heads at the sheerside	4	8

8. The intermediate dimensions for the scantling of timbers between the floor heads and the gunwale to be regulated in proportion to the distance from the two points. Should the room and space be increased, the siding of the timbers to be increased in proportion.

Deck Beams: —

For ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500	To be moulded at the ends (not less than)	Inches. 7	Inches. 10
	Inches. 9	Inches. 13	And to be sided	-	-
To be moulded in the middle (not less than)	-	-	And to be sided	7	10

9. Those at the after end of the ship to be reduced in proportion to their length.

For ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500	To be moulded at the ends (not less than)	Inches. 9	Inches. 13
	Inches. 9	Inches. 13	And to be sided	-	-
To be moulded in the middle (not less than)	-	-	And to be sided	9	13

10. Those at the after end of the ship to be reduced in proportion to their length.

11. The deck and hold beams to be sufficient in number, and securely fastened to the sides either with lodging knees of iron or wood, or with shelf pieces, or with a shelf piece and knees; or with some other security equal thereto, so as sufficiently to connect the ends of the beams to the sides of the ship; and, in addition, all vessels of 200 tons shall have at least six *vertical* knees on each side to the deck beams; and for every additional 50 tons measurement above 200 tons, they shall have one more hanging knee on each side. And ships of 400 tons shall likewise have to their hold beams at least eight vertical knees, either as standards or hanging knees (the latter being preferred), and for every additional 100 tons burden, they shall have one more to each side. Every ship exceeding 100 tons to have at least one crutch for the security of the heels of the after timbers of the frame; one pair of putloggers in addition to a knee at each end of the wing transom to connect the stern frame with the after body of the ship; and a transom over the heels of the stern timbers properly knued.

Keel and Keelsons: —

For ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500	Main keelson to be sided	Inches. 10	Inches. 11
	Inches. 9	Inches. 13	Main keelson to be moulded	-	10 14
Keel, sided	-	-	The scarps of keelson, where only one keelson, to be 5 ft. 7 in.	7	11
Keel, moulded below the rabbet not less than	7	10	But where rider keelsons are added, then they may be 4 ft. 6 in.	-	-

12. Shifts of timber in ships of 200 tons and upwards, to be not less than 1-7th of the main breadth; and in ships under 200 tons, to be not less than 1-5th of the main breadth.

13. *Plank*. — The outside planking shall be of good quality, of the description prescribed in the Society's Form, No. 2, and shall be clear of all defects.

14. The inside planking to be of the description shown in the Society's Form, No. 3, and free from all rot, dross, or decayed planks. The whole to be properly shifted and fastened.

15. No butts to be nearer than 5 feet to each other, unless there be a strake wrought between them, and then a distance of 4 feet will be allowed; and no butts to be on the same timber, unless there be 3 strakes between; but vessels under 200 tons will be exempted from the full operation of this rule; and in ships of larger tonnage a literal compliance with it will be dispensed with in cases wherein it may be satisfactorily proved that the departure from the rule is only partial, being confined to the ends of the ship, or the thin planking of the topsides, and does not injuriously affect the ship's general strength; but such relaxation will not be sanctioned unless an accurate description of the shifting of the plank be transmitted by the surveyors, to enable the committee to form a proper judgment on the case.

Thickness of plank to be as under: —

For ships	Tons. 150	Tons. 500	Ceiling below the hold beams	Inches. 2	Inches. 3
	Inches. 2 1/2	Inches. 3 1/2	Clamps and bilge planks	-	3 1/2 4
Bilge to wales not less than	-	-	Upper deck clamps and spunketings	-	3 1/2 3 1/2
Short hoods	-	-	Twixt deck ceiling	-	2 3 1/2 4 1/2
Bilge planks	-	-			
Bilge to keel	-	-			
Wales (average)	-	-			
Top sides	-	-	Upper deck	-	Inches. 2 1/2 3
Sheer strake	-	-	Water ways, if of hard wood	-	4 1/2 5
Plank sheer	-	-	Do. if of Baltic fir, pitch pine, or red pine	-	5 8

16. *Fastenings*. — The trenails † to be of good English or African oak, horn, or other hard wood, but

† As regards the spacing of beams, it appears to the committee that the following scale would in general meet the convenience of stowage in all trades, as well as secure the requisite transverse strength, so essential to be attended to according to the tonnage of the vessel.

The spaces between the beams (hatchways excepted) not to exceed the following distances: —

Vessels under 200 tons	Hold Beams. 8 feet	Deck Beams. 4 feet
Vessels 200 and under 400 tons	- 8 feet and 4 feet alternately, or in that proportion	- 4 feet
Vessels 400 tons and above	- 4 feet 6 inches	- 4 feet

† Whenever copper bolts are substituted for trenails, their sizes should be as follows: —

For vessels of 150 tons and under 200 tons	3/4 in.
200 ditto	1 in.
500 and above	1 1/4 in.

In no case is Baltic or American oak or elm to be used; and all planks above nine inches in width are to be treenailed double and single, except bolts intervene; and if less than that width, then to be treenailed single, and at least one-half of the treenails must go through the ceiling. All ships to be fastened with at least one bolt in every butt, and from the wales to the lower part of the bilges the bolt to be through and clenched. The bilges to have at least one bolt through and clenched in each fothook. The sizes of the bolts required in the several parts here expressed, to be not less than as against the same expressed, viz:—

For ships	Inches.	Tons.	Tons.	Inches.	Inches.
		150	500		
Heel-keels, and dead wood sheek	1	1	1	0 7/8ths	0 3/4ths
Scarp of the keel	1	1	1	0 7/8ths	0 1 1/8th
Kelson bolts, one through each floor	0 7/8ths	1 1/8th	1 1/8th	0 7/8ths	1 1/8th
Bolts through the bilge and foot waling	0 3/8ths	0 1/8th	0 1/8th	0 7/8ths	1 1/8th
				Transoms	0 7/8ths
				The lower pinle of the rudder	1 1/8th
					3/4

17. In every case where the butt and bilge bolts are not through and clenched, one year will be deducted from the period which would otherwise be assigned in the classification of the vessel; but this rule will not be applied to ships built previously to the 1st of January, 1835.

18. The scantlings and dimensions of all intermediate-sized vessels to be proportionately regulated agreeably to a scale adopted by the society, a copy of which is in the hands of each of the surveyors.

19. Ships surveyed while building, in which *all* the materials required for a 12 years' ship *shall have been used*, and most of the other requisites for that class fulfilled, but which, from partial deficiencies may not appear to be in all respects entitled to the highest class, although superior to the description of a 10 years' ship, may be marked in the book thus, 11 A; thereby denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 11 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

20. Ships such as cutters, and shifts of the masts, the thickness and shifts of the planks, and size of fastenings may be the same as are required by the preceding rules, in which the description of materials prescribed in the annexed tables shall also have been used, but in which the alternate sets of timbers shall not have been framed, nor the chocks wrought with a butt at each end, nor the frame so well squared as is required for 12 years' ships, but which shall be in other respects equal to the same, may be marked 10 A; thereby denoting that they are to remain on the list of ships of the first description of the first class 10 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

21. In all other cases, ships surveyed while building, and constructed of the materials of good quality, shown in the society's tables, No. 1, 2, and 3, will be classed for the several terms of years respectively appointed for their repair on the list of ships of the first description of the first class; and in all ships, not built under survey, for which a class exceeding 4 years may be claimed, the timbers shall be required to be completely exposed for examination, by a listing or plank being taken out (if not originally left open) all fore and aft at the fothook heads, and another between decks; and the material of the frame being thus ascertained, shall be reported to the committee, and a class assigned accordingly.

22. Ships built in the U. Kingdom under a roof, and which shall have occurred a period of not less than 12 months in their construction, will have 1 year added to the period prescribed for their continuing on the list of ships of the first description of the first class.

23. Ships built in the U. Kingdom since the year 1834, and not surveyed while building by the surveyors to this society, or where the owners or builders may have refused to permit them to survey and examine the vessel at the several periods prescribed by the rules, will be subjected to the minutest possible examination previously to assigning the class in which they may be placed according to the regulations; but in all such cases one year will be deducted from the period which would otherwise be allowed, in consequence of their not having been submitted to such survey during their construction. In no case, however, will a higher grade than 10 A be assigned to ships built in the U. Kingdom, which shall not have been surveyed while building.

Continuation of Ships in the First Description of the First Class.

24. If, on the termination of the period of original designation, or if at any subsequent period within the limitation hereafter mentioned, a ship owner should wish to have his ship remain or be replaced on the letter A he is to send a written notice thereof to the committee, who shall then direct a special survey to be held, consisting of not less than 3 competent persons, to be appointed by the committee (one of whom to be a surveyor, the exclusive servant of the society); that at such survey the attention of the surveyors shall be particularly directed to the state of the following parts of the ship, viz.—The upper and lower deck bolts, and the outside planks through which they pass; the waterways and beams so far as they can be examined; the hawse timbers, knight-heads, breast-hooks, and transoms; the floors and keels; plankings outside, from the light water-mark upwards; the ceiling inside, the frame and inner surface of the outside planking where it may be seen; the decks and comings; and the shear and general form of the ship;—that on these points they shall transmit a detailed report, accompanied by such observations as may occur to them, either from inspection of the ship, or from information of the repairs she may have received. And if from the report of such special survey, the ship shall appear to be in all respects in a sound and efficient state, and to have preserved her original form unaltered, the committee shall continue such ship on the letter A for such further period as they may think fit, not exceeding, however, one-third of the number of years which had been originally assigned. Ships so continued shall be distinguished in the register book by the number of years for which the classing is extended being inserted separately under the number assigned on the original classing, thereby denoting that the ship has been found on survey in such good and efficient order as to entitle her to continue years longer on the list of ships of the first description of the first class. In all cases in which ships are intended to be surveyed under this rule, they must either be docked or laid on the ways. The period assigned for continuation will, upon all occasions, commence from the time the ship may have gone off the letter A, without regard to the date when the survey for this purpose may have been held.

Restoration of Ships to the First Description of the First Class.

25. *First Rule.*—If, at any time before the expiration of two-thirds of the number of years beyond the period for which ships may have been originally assigned to remain in the first description of the first class, an owner be desirous to have his ship restored to the list of ships of that description, such restoration (on his consenting to the special survey hereinafter described, to be held by two surveyors, and performing the repairs found requisite) will be granted for a period not exceeding two-thirds of the time originally assigned for her remaining as a ship of the first description of the first class, the same to be calculated from the date of such repairs.

26. *Requisites for Restoration.*—All the bolts in the range of each deck to be driven out, and the planks taken out; the upper deck water-ways, and plank shears, and spiketting, and the strake next the water-ways on the lower deck in the midships, to be taken out; the sheathing to be entirely stripped off the bottom; a strake in the upper course of the bottom between the wales and the light-water-mark, fore and aft, and a plank in the ceiling at the floor heads on each side, to be taken out; the timbers to be clear, and the hooks forward to be exposed; and in that state the ship to be submitted to a special survey and examination, at which the attention of the surveyors appointed by this society is to be particularly directed to the state of the decks, the remaining plank of the topalder, the wales, upper courses, and treenails, and other fastenings; also to the state of the frame, hawse timbers, and knight heads, keelson,

cargoes, but perfectly fit for the conveyance, on any voyage, of cargoes not in their nature subject to sea damage; and they will be designated by the letter E.

35. Subject to occasional inspection, at least once in every two years, ships will continue in this class as long as their condition shall, in the opinion of the committee, entitle them thereto.

36. *Third class ships* will comprise ships that are in good condition, and which shall be found on survey fit for the conveyance, on short voyages (not out of Europe), of cargoes in their nature not subject to sea damage; and they will be designated by the letter L.

37. The bottom of every ship is to be caulked once in every five years, unless wood sheathed and felted, and then once in every seven years, except in the case of teak-built ships, upon which a special survey may have been requested, and the surveyors having ascertained, by the removal of a strake of sheathing here and aft under the wales, and a strake at the first foothook heads, and by causing listings to be cut out at the wood's ends, that such caulking is not required, the same may then be dispensed with. If any ship shall be stripped within the periods above mentioned, her bottom is to be caulked.

38. In all cases in which it shall satisfactorily appear to the surveyors to this society that doubling of sufficient thickness (not less than two inches) properly wrought and fastened, may be allowed as a substitute for the shifting of plank, either in the wales or bottom, the surveyor is to make a special report thereof, together with his reasons, to the committee, who will determine thereon.

39. *Iron fastened ships.*—All ships (except those built in India) although iron fastened, shall be classed in the same manner as copper fastened ships, so long as they remain unsheathed with copper, provided they are, in all other respects, constructed in accordance with the rules; but when sheathed with copper over the iron fastenings, the words "coppered over iron fastenings" shall be added to the character in the register book, and continued until the ship be thoroughly copper fastened.

40. Ships built in India, although fastened with iron, shall be permitted to be copper sheathed without any mark being placed in the book, provided the bottom be felted or chunamed, and wood-sheathed, and subject to a careful examination of the iron fastenings on every occasion on which the sheathing is stripped off, for which purpose some of the bolts and nails are to be taken out of the lower part of the bottom, and to be such that the said ship shall be permitted to continue in the class for the A or the B class for a longer period than one-half the number of years beyond the term originally assigned for her remaining on the first description of the first class, unless the bottom shall have been doubled, or the whole of the iron fastenings taken out or properly secured, and the bottom fastened with copper bolts, or trenails, or both.

Ships' Anchors, Cables, and Stores.

41. All vessels are required to have their masts, spars, and standing rigging in good order, and sails in sufficient number, of sufficient size and length, and with at least one good warp; and all vessels are to be provided with anchors of proper weight, and cables of approved quality, in number and length according to the undermentioned scale:—

42. *Anchors.*—All vessels under 200 tons to have at least two bow anchors; and all vessels of 200 tons and above, to be provided with at least three bow anchors.

Tons.		Fathoms.	
41. Cables.—All vessels of	and under 150	to have at least	150
—	150	—	190
—	250	—	300
—	350	—	310
—	500	—	370
—	700 and upwards	—	300

43. But in all cases where hempen cables are used, then one-sixth more in length will be required.

44. *Bouts.*—All vessels under 150 tons to be provided with one good bout; and every vessel of 150 tons and above to be provided with at least two bouts.

45. The efficient state and condition of ships' anchors, cables, and stores will be designated by the figure 1, and where the same are found insufficient in quantity, or defective in quality, by the figure 2.

46. In all cases in which the application of the rules must necessarily be regulated by the ship's admittance, the least tonnage (whether the result of the old or new method) is to be adopted.

Ships navigated by Steam.

47. All sea-going vessels navigated by steam shall be required to be surveyed twice in each year, when a character will be assigned to them, according to the report of survey, as regards the classification of the hull and materials of the vessel.

48. That with respect to the boilers and machinery, the owners are required to produce to the surveyors to this society, at the above-directed surveys, a certificate from some competent master engineer, describing their state and condition at those periods; and to which certificate it is desirable there should be added a description of the particulars of the same as far as may be practicable, in the manner and form directed by the Society; to be appended to the report of survey, and delivered to the committee, who will thereupon insert in the register book the letters "M.C.," denoting that the boilers and machinery have been inspected, and certified to be in good order and safe working condition; but if no certificate of their condition be furnished by the owner or master, then no character can be assigned for the machinery.

49. *Hull.*—The surveyors to this society are directed to examine and report the scantling of timbers, plank, and fastenings, and to state where built, and by whom, in the same manner as directed for sailing vessels.

50. *Scantlings.*—The scantlings for a steam vessel under 300 tons register are to be deemed sufficient, if equal to those required by the scale prescribed in the rules of this society for a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel.

51. But for a steam vessel above 300 tons register, the scantlings are to be equal to those required by the scale for a sailing vessel of three fourths of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel.

52. *Floors.*—Where the vessel is not fitted in solid to the floor heads in the engine room, an exception will be specially made against any reduction of the scantling of the floors, which, in such cases, will not be permitted to be upon the reduced scale of two thirds or three fourths of the dimensions for the scantlings of sailing vessels as before stated; but the floors will then be required to be equal to the dimensions set forth in the rules for ships of the actual registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

53. The surveyors are required to report the number, size, length, fastenings, and mode of arrangement of the engine and boiler sleepers, and the description of timber of which they are composed, and whether diagonally trussed with wood or iron, and to what extent; the length, size, and fastening of shelf-pieces and paddle beams; and whether the vessel be constructed with apencings, and how they are formed; and to give the length and shifting of the plank outside and inside.

54. *Materials and Stores.*—The surveyors are to examine and report the number and description of the masts, sails, anchors, cables, hawsers, warps, and boats, as directed to be done for sailing vessels; but the anchors and cables will not be required to exceed in weight and length those of a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

55. The surveyors are to be particular in examining and reporting the condition of the boats of all vessels employed in carrying passengers.

The committee having, in consequence of various applications, given their serious attention to the

peculiarities in the construction of steam vessels, came to a resolution, on the 26th May, 1842, to allow of the following relaxation in favour of vessels of that class, subject to the conditions of survey hereinafter mentioned.

"That fir (to be either pitch pine, Baltic red fir, or American red pine), larch, hackmatack, or juniper, may be used for upper deck beams, to an extent not exceeding one-half the number of beams required, according to the vessel's tonnage.

"That the same materials may be used in the outside planking from the first foothook heads upwards, excepting for the wales, shearstrakes, and plankshears.

"That the same materials be likewise allowed to be used in the inside planking, excepting for the bilge planks, shelf pieces and stringers, and clamps.

"That steam vessels built in all other respects in conformity with the annexed tables shall be classed for the terms of years therein respectively prescribed, subject to the following conditions:—

"That the rule requiring a survey 'twice a year' be rigidly enforced, and that whenever the boilers are taken out, the vessel shall be subjected to a particular and special survey, in order to ascertain her general condition, and particularly the state of the fir, or other materials herein allowed to be used.

"That unless such surveys be held, the characters which may have been assigned to steam vessels shall be struck out annually on reprinting the register book."

In pursuance of this resolution, the characters of such steam vessels as have not been surveyed as prescribed, have this year been struck out accordingly.

By order of the Committee.

CHARLES GRAHAM, Secretary.

No. 2. *White Lion Court, Cornhill,*
London, 1st July, 1843.

Iron Ships.

Notice is hereby given, that in pursuance of a resolution this day passed by the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping, the character of A 1. will in future be granted to such ships as shall be constructed of iron under the survey of the surveyors to this society, and be reported, on their completion, to have been built of good and substantial materials, and with good workmanship.

Iron ships already built, upon being subject to a careful and minute survey, and being reported to be in a high state of repair and efficiency, will also be classed as above; but if not so reported, they will be allowed such other character as, on a due consideration of their respective claims, they may be found to deserve.

In every instance in which a character may be assigned to ships built of iron, it must be understood that such ships must be subjected to a careful annual survey, and that the continuance or otherwise of the character assigned will depend entirely upon the result of this survey. Vessels not surveyed annually will lose their character.

By order of the Committee.

CHARLES GRAHAM, Secretary.

2, *White Lion Court, Cornhill,*
4th January, 1844.

No one can question the advantages that will result from carrying a plan of this sort completely into execution, or those that have already been derived from the extent to which it has been carried. We confess, however, that we incline to think that the classification of ships should be effected by government agents. It is invidious to impose on one set of merchants and ship owners the task of deciding upon the condition of the ships or other property belonging to others; and, though we have every confidence in the integrity of the gentlemen composing the committee, the most honourable men are liable to be influenced by an *esprit du corps*, and by insensible biases. We, therefore, cannot help thinking that the scheme would have a much better chance of success, and that the classification would be more likely to be correct, were it managed by individuals nowise connected with business. The surveyors, on whose capacity and honesty the whole scheme principally depends, should be quite independent of the good or ill will of those on whose property they have to report. But can that be said to be the case at present? and can it be fairly presumed that merchants or ship owners will deal by the property of their friends and neighbours as it might be dealt with by officers appointed by, and responsible only to, government? We apprehend that both those questions must be answered in the negative; and hence our conviction that this is a matter in which government should interfere. No one can doubt that it is bound to do every thing in its power to promote the safety of navigation, and to preserve the lives of our seamen. In this view it erects lighthouses, and prescribes regulations as to pilotage, &c. But, how indispensable soever, these are not more essential to the interests of navigation than a proper classification of ships; and, if other means should fail fully to effect this desirable purpose, government will certainly neglect a most important duty if it do not interpose. In the mean time, however, the mercantile and shipping interests are deeply indebted to the gentlemen who have done so much to obviate the abuses of the old system. — (For a further discussion of this important question, see the article on the Frequency of Shipwrecks in the 122d number of the *Edinburgh Review*; see also the *Reports of the Commons Committees of 1836 and 1843, on Shipwreck.*)

SHIPS' PAPERS, the papers or documents required for the manifestation of the property of the ship and cargo, &c. They are of 2 sorts; viz. 1st, those required by the law of a particular country — as the certificate of registry, licence, charterparty, bills of lading, bill of health, &c. — (see these titles) — required by the law of England to be on board British ships; and, 2dly, those required by the law of nations to be on board neutral ships, to vindicate their title to that character. Mr. Serjeant Marshall, following Hulmer (*De la Société des Bâtimens Neutres*, i. 241—252.), has given the following description of the latter class of documents: —

1. *The Passport, Sea Brief, or Sea Letter.* — This is a permission from the neutral state to the captain or master of the ship, to proceed on the voyage proposed, and usually contains his name and residence; the name, property, description, tonnage, and destination of the ship; the nature and quantity of the cargo, the place whence it comes, and its destination; with such other matters as the practice of the place requires. This document is indispensably necessary for the safety of every neutral ship. Hubner says that it is the only paper rigorously insisted on by the Barbary corsairs; by the production of which alone their friends are protected from insult.

2. *The Proofs of Property.* — These ought to show that the ship really belongs to the subjects of a neutral state. If she appear to either belligerent to have been built in the enemy's country, proof is generally required that she was purchased by the neutral before, or captured and legally condemned and sold to the neutral after, the declaration of war; and in the latter case the *bill of sale*, properly authenticated, ought to be produced. Hubner admits that these proofs are so essential to every neutral vessel, for the prevention of frauds, that such as sail without them have no reason to complain if they be interrupted in their voyages, and their neutrality disputed.

3. *The Muster Roll.* — This, which the French call *rôle d'équipage*, contains the names, ages, quality, place of residence, and, above all, the *place of birth*, of every person of the ship's company. This document is of great use in ascertaining a ship's neutrality. It must naturally excite a strong suspicion, if the majority of the crew be found to consist of foreigners; still more, if they be natives of the enemy's country. — (See SEAMEN.)

4. *The Charterparty.* — Where the ship is chartered, this instrument serves to authenticate many of the facts on which the truth of her neutrality must rest, and should therefore be always found on board chartered ships.

5. *The Bills of Lading.* — By these the captain acknowledges the receipt of the goods specified therein, and promises to deliver them to the consignee or his order. Of these there are usually several duplicates; one of which is kept by the captain, one by the shipper of the goods, and one transmitted to the consignee. This instrument, being only the evidence of a private transaction between the owner of the goods and the captain, does not carry with it the same degree of authenticity as the charterparty.

6. *The Invoices.* — These contain the particulars and prices of each parcel of goods, with the amount of the freight, duties, and other charges thereon, which are usually transmitted from the shippers to their factors or consignees. These invoices prove by whom the goods were shipped, and to whom consigned. They carry with them, however, but little authenticity; being easily fabricated where fraud is intended.

7. *The Log Book, or Ship's Journal.* — This contains a minute account of the ship's course, with a short history of every occurrence during the voyage. If this be faithfully kept, it will throw great light on the question of neutrality; if it be in any respect fabricated, the fraud may in general be easily detected.

8. *The Bill of Health.* — This is a certificate, properly authenticated, that the ship comes from a place where no contagious distemper prevails; and that none of the crew, at the time of her departure, were infected with any such disorder. It is generally found on board ships coming from the Levant, or from the coast of Barbary, where the plague so frequently prevails.

A ship using false or simulated papers is liable to confiscation. — (Marshall on Insurance, book i. c. 9. § 6.)

SHOES (Du. *Schoenen*; Fr. *Souliers*; Ger. *Schuhe*; It. *Scurpe*; Rus. *Buschmahi*; Sp. *Zapatos*), articles of clothing that are universally worn, and require no description. The shoe manufacture is of great value and importance. The finest sort of shoes is made in London; but the manufacture is carried on upon the largest scale in Northamptonshire and Staffordshire. The London warehouses derive considerable supplies from Nantwich, Congleton, and Sandbach, in Cheshire. During the late war, the contractor for shoes generally furnished about 600,000 pairs annually. — (For an estimate of the value of the shoes annually manufactured in Britain, see LEATHER.)

SHUMAC or SUMACH (Ger. *Schmack*, *Sumach*; Fr. *Sumac*, *Roure*, *Roux*; It. *Sommaco*; Sp. *Zumaque*; Rus. *Sumak*). Common shumac (*Rhus Coriaria*) is a shrub that grows naturally in Syria, Palestine, Spain, and Portugal. That which is cultivated in Italy, and is improperly called *young fustic*, is the *Rhus Cotinus*. It is cultivated with great care: its shoots are cut down every year quite to the root; and, after being dried, they are chipped or reduced to powder by a mill, and thus prepared for the purposes of dyeing and tanning. The shumac cultivated in the neighbourhood of Montpellier is called *rédon* or *roudo*. Shumac may be considered of good quality when its odour is strong, colour of a lively green, is well ground, and free from stalks. Italian shumac is used in dyeing a full high yellow, approaching to the orange, upon wool or cloth; but the colour is fugitive. Common shumac is useful for drab and dove colours in calico printing, and is also capable of dyeing black. — (Bancroft on Colours, vol. ii. p. 100.)

Of 187,029 cwts. of shumac imported in 1840, no fewer than 182,007 cwts. were from Italy. The duties for consumption in 1842 amounted to 184,687 cwts. The price of shumac varies (duty 1s. per ton paid) from 7s. to 12s. a cwt.

Shumac, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under penalty of confiscation, and forfeiture of 100l. by the master of the ship. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 84. § 12. and 22.)

SIERRA LEONE, an English settlement, near the mouth of the river of the same name, on the west coast of Africa, lat. 8° 30' N., lon. 13° 5' W.

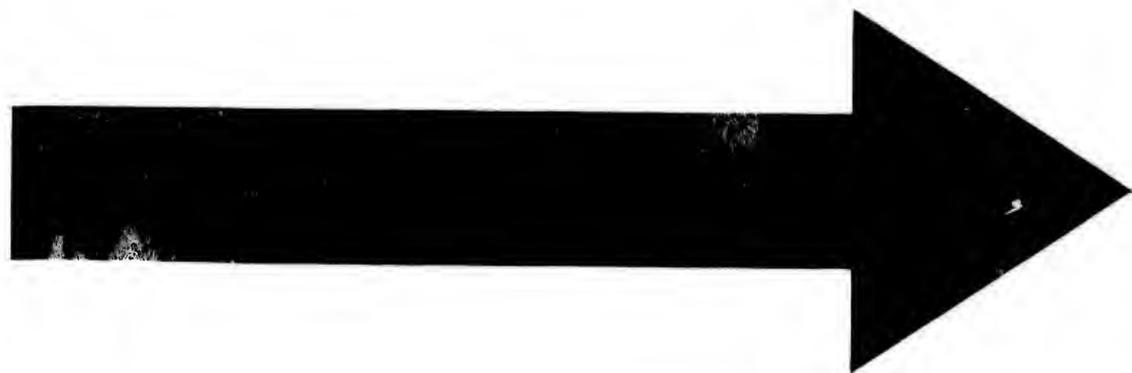
Objects of the Colony. — This colony was founded partly as a commercial establishment, but more from motives of humanity. It was intended to consist principally of free blacks, who, being instructed in the Christian religion, and in the arts of Europe, should become, as it were, a focus whence civilisation might be diffused among the surrounding tribes. About 1,200 free negroes, who, having joined the royal standard in the American war, were obliged, at the termination of that contest, to take refuge in Nova Scotia, were conveyed thither in 1792: to these were afterwards added the Maroons from Jamaica; and, since the legal abolition of the slave trade, the negroes taken in the captured vessels, and liberated by the mixed commission courts, have been carried to the colony. The total population of the colony in 1839 amounted to about 42,000, all black or coloured, with the exception of about 100 whites.

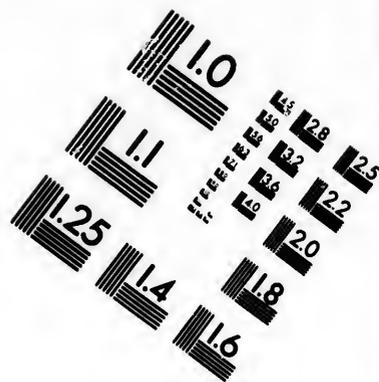
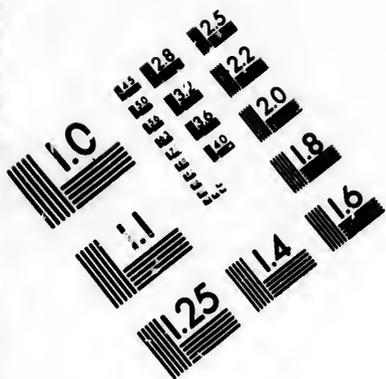
Success of the Efforts to civilise the Blacks. — Great efforts have been made to introduce order and industrious habits amongst these persons. We are sorry, however, to be obliged to add, that these efforts, though prosecuted at an enormous expense of blood and treasure, have been signally unsuccessful. There is, no doubt, some discrepancy in the accounts of the progress made by the blacks. It is, however, sufficiently clear, that it has been very inconsiderable, and we do not think that any other result could be rationally anticipated. Their laziness has been loudly complained of, but without reason. Men are not industrious without a motive; and most of those motives that stimulate all classes in colder climates to engage in laborious employments, are unknown to the indolent inhabitants of this burning region, where clothing is of little importance, where sufficient supplies of food may be obtained with comparatively little exertion, and where more than half the necessaries and conveniences of Europeans would be positive incumbrances. And had it been otherwise, what progress could a colony be expected to make, into which there have been annually imported thousands of liberated negroes, most of whom are barbarians in the lowest stage of civilisation?

Influence of the Colony upon the illicit Slave Trade. — As a means of checking the prevalence of the illicit slave trade, the establishment of a colony at Sierra Leone has been worse than useless. That trade is principally carried on with the countries round the bight of Biafra and the bight of Benin, many hundred miles distant from Sierra Leone; and the mortality in the captured ships during their voyage to the latter is often very great. The truth is that this traffic will never be effectually put down otherwise than by the great powers declaring it to be piracy, and treating those engaged in it, wherever and by whomsoever they may be found, as sea robbers or pirates. Such a declaration would be quite conformable to the spirit of the declaration put forth by the Congress of Vienna in 1824. — (See SLAVE TRADE.) But the jealousy with respect to the right of visitation and search are so very great, that it is exceedingly doubtful whether the maritime powers will ever be brought to concur in any declaration of the kind now alluded to; unless, however, something of this sort be done, we apprehend there are but slender grounds for supposing that the trade will be speedily suppressed.

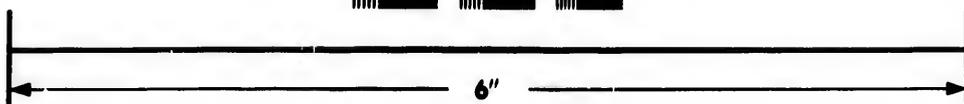
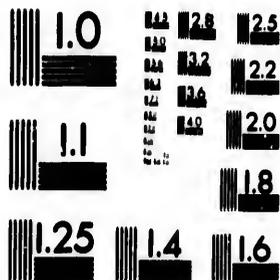
Climate of Sierra Leone. — The soil in the vicinity of Sierra Leone seems to be but of indifferent fertility, and the climate is about the most destructive that can be imagined. The mortality among the Africans sent to it seems unusually great; and amongst the whites it is quite excessive. Much as we desire the improvement of the blacks, we protest against its being attempted by sending our countrymen to certain destruction in this most pestiferous of all pestiferous places. It would seem, too, that it is quite unnecessary, and that blacks may be employed to fill the official situations in the colony. But if otherwise, it should be unconditionally abandoned.

Commerce of Sierra Leone, and the West Coast of Africa. — Commercially considered, Sierra Leone appears to quite as little advantage as in other points of view. We import from it about 13,000 loads of teak wood a year, with small quantities of camwood, ivory, palm oil, hides, gums, and a few other articles; but their value is inconsiderable, amounting to not more than from 60,000l. to 100,000l. a year. The great article of import from the coast of Africa is palm oil, and of this we imported, in 1841, 397,076 cwt., of which only 9,336 cwt. came from Sierra Leone. The great bulk of it was furnished by the coast to the west and south of the Rio Volta, many hundred miles from Sierra Leone. We doubt, indeed, whether the commerce with the western coast of Africa will ever be of much importance. The condition of the natives would require to be very much changed before they can become considerable consumers of European manufactures. It is singular, that speculative persons in this country should be so





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much bent on prosecuting, without regard to expense, a trade with barbarous uncivilised hordes, while they contribute to the neglect or oppression of the incomparably more extensive and beneficial intercourse we might carry on with the opulent and civilised nations in our immediate vicinity. The equalisation of the duties on Canadian and Baltic timber, and the reduction of the oppressive duties on foreign sugar and brandy, and on French silks and gloves, would do ten times more to extend our commerce, than the discovery of 50 navigable rivers, and the possession of as many forts, on the African coast. If, however, an establishment be really required for the advantageous prosecution of the trade to Western Africa, it is abundantly obvious that it should be placed much further to the south than Sierra Leone. The island of Fernando Po has been suggested for this purpose; but, after the dear-bought experience we have already had, it is to be hoped that nothing will be done with respect to it without mature consideration.

Account of the Quantities of the Articles imported into the U. Kingdom from the West Coast of Africa in 1841, specifying the Districts whence they were imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

Articles.	Senegal and the Coast from Morocco to the River Gambia exclusive.	Sierra Leone and the Coast from the River Gambia, inclusive, to the River Mesurada.	Windward Coast from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast from the Rio Volta to the Cape of Good Hope.	West Coast of Africa not otherwise described.	Total.
Barwood - - - tons	-	-	-	170	1,642	-	2,012
Camwood - - - tons	-	658	22	175	101	-	956
Coffee - - - lbs.	-	95,098	-	-	1,146	-	94,244
Flony - - - tons	-	39	-	10	13	-	62
Ginger - - - cwts.	-	738	-	-	-	-	738
Grains, Guinea, and of Paradise - - - lbs.	-	768	-	6,182	661	-	7,611
Gum, animi and copal, cwts.	-	87	-	31	30	-	148
Ibo, Senegal - - -	5,691	194	-	-	-	-	5,885
Hides, unskinned - - -	-	4,917	-	-	25	-	4,942
Oil, palm - - -	-	9,336	9,144	42,745	242,851	-	397,072
Pepper - - - lbs.	2	24,019	-	-	345	-	24,389
Red or Guinea wood - tons	-	-	-	6	-	-	6
Rice, not in the husk - cwts.	-	40	-	-	-	-	40
Do., in the husk - bushels	-	3,385	-	-	-	-	3,385
Teeth, elephants' and sea horse - - - cwts.	-	251	1	831	1,023	-	3,127
Tunk wood - - - loads	-	19,618	-	-	511	-	17,127
Wax, bees' - - - cwts.	-	5,018	-	72	40	-	5,160

The total value of the exports of British produce and manufacture to the west coast of Africa, amounted in 1841, to 410,798*l.*; of which cotton goods made 183,622*l.*, hardware and cutlery, 19,378*l.*, brass and copper manufactures, 16,452*l.*, &c. The exports to Sierra Leone did not amount to 1/4th part of the whole, being only 96,092*l.*

Expenses incurred on account of Sierra Leone. — The pecuniary expense occasioned by this colony, and our unsuccessful efforts to suppress the foreign slave trade, have been altogether enormous. Mr. Keith Douglas is reported to have stated, in his place in the House of Commons, in July, 1831, that “down to the year 1824, the *civil* expenses of Sierra Leone amounted to 2,268,000*l.*; and that the same expenses had amounted, from 1824 to 1830, to 1,082,000*l.* The naval expenses, from 1807 to 1824, had been 1,630,000*l.* The payments to Spain and Portugal, to induce them to relinquish the slave trade, amounted to 1,230,000*l.* The expenses on account of captured slaves were 535,092*l.* The expenses incurred on account of the mixed commission courts were 198,000*l.* Altogether, this establishment had cost the country nearly 8,000,000*l.*”

The prodigality of this expenditure is unmatched, except by its uselessness. It is doubtful whether it has prevented a single African from being dragged into slavery, or conferred the smallest real advantage on Africa. The kings of Spain and Portugal turned their spurious humanity to good account. But there is now, we believe, an end of all attempts to bribe such monarchs to respect the treaties into which they have entered.

For further details with respect to Sierra Leone, and the trade of Western Africa, see the *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, on the West Coast of Africa*, Sess. 1842.

SILK (Lat. *Sericum*, from *Seres*, the supposed ancient name of the Chinese), a fine glossy thread or filament spun by various species of caterpillars or larvæ of the *phalæna* genus. Of these, the *Phalæna atlas* produces the greatest quantity; but the *Phalæna bombyx* is that commonly employed for this purpose in Europe. The silkworm, in its caterpillar state, which may be considered as the first stage of its existence, after acquiring its full growth (about 3 inches in length), proceeds to enclose itself in an oval-shaped ball, or cocoon, which is formed by an exceedingly slender and long filament of fine yellow silk, emitted from the stomach of the insect preparatory to its assuming the shape of the chrysalis or moth. In this latter stage, after emancipating itself from its silken prison, it seeks its mate, which has undergone a similar transformation; and

in 2 or 3 days afterwards, the female having deposited her eggs (from 300 to 500 in number), both insects terminate their existence. According to Reaumur, the *phalena* is not the only insect that affords this material, — several species of the *aranea*, or spider, enclose their eggs in very fine silk.

Raw Silk is produced by the operation of winding off, at the same time, several of the balls or cocoons (which are immersed in hot water, to soften the natural gum on the filament) on a common reel, thereby forming one smooth even thread. When the skein is dry, it is taken from the reel and made up into hanks; but before it is fit for weaving, and in order to enable it to undergo the process of dyeing, without furring up or separating the fibres, it is converted into one of three forms; viz. *singles*, *tram*, or *organzine*.

Singles (a collective noun) is formed of *one* of the reeled threads, being twisted, in order to give it strength and firmness.

Tram is formed of 2 or more threads twisted together. In this state it is commonly used in weaving, as the *shoot* or *weft*.

Thrown Silk is formed of 2, 3, or more singles, according to the substance required, being twisted together in a *contrary* direction to that in which the singles of which it is composed are twisted. This process is termed *organzining*; and the silk so twisted, *organzine*. The art of throwing was originally confined to Italy, where it was kept a secret for a long period. Stow says it was known in this country since the 5th of Queen Elizabeth, "when it was gained from the strangers;" and in that year (1562), the silk throwsters of the metropolis were united into a fellowship. They were incorporated in the year 1629; but the art continued to be very imperfect in England until 1719. — (See *post*.)

1. *Historical Sketch of the Manufacture*. — The art of rearing silkworms, of unravelling the threads spun by them, and manufacturing the latter into articles of dress and ornament, seems to have been first practised by the Chinese. Virgil is the earliest of the Roman writers who has been supposed to allude to the production of silk in China, and the terms he employs show how little was then known at Rome of the real nature of the article: —

Velleraque ut foliis depectant tenuia Seres. — (*Georg.* lib. ii. lln. 121.)

But it may be doubted whether Virgil do not, in this line, refer to cotton rather than silk. Pliny, however, has distinctly described the formation of silk by the *bombyx*. — (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xi. c. 17.) It is uncertain when it first began to be introduced at Rome; but it was most probably in the age of Pompey and Julius Caesar; the latter of whom displayed a profusion of silks in some of the magnificent theatrical spectacles with which he sought to conciliate and amuse the people. Owing principally, no doubt, to the great distance of China from Rome, and to the difficulties in the way of the intercourse with that country, which was carried on by land in caravans whose route lay through the Persian empire, and partly, perhaps, to the high price of silk in China, its cost, when it arrived at Rome, was very great; so much so, that a given weight of silk was sometimes sold for an equal weight of gold; at first it was only used by a few ladies eminent for their rank and opulence. In the beginning of the reign of Tiberius, a law was passed, *ne vestis serica viros fœdaret* — that no man should disgrace himself by wearing a silken garment. — (*Tacit. Annal.* lib. ii. c. 33.) But the profligate Hellogabalus despised this law, and was the first of the Roman emperors who wore a dress composed wholly of silk (*holosericum*). The example once set, the custom of wearing silk soon became general among the wealthy citizens of Rome, and throughout the provinces. According as the demand for the article increased, efforts were made to import larger quantities; and the price seems to have progressively declined from the reign of Aurelian. That this must have been the case, is obvious from the statement of Ammianus Marcellinus, that silk was in his time (anno 370), very generally worn, even by the lowest classes. *Sericum ad usum antehac uobilium, nunc etiam infimorum sine ulla discretione proficiens*. — (*Lib.* xviii. c. 6.)

China continued to draw considerable sums from the Roman Empire in return for silk, now become indispensable to the Western World, till the 6th century. About the year 550, two Persian monks, who had long resided in China and made themselves acquainted with the mode of rearing the silkworm, encouraged by the gifts and promises of Justinian, succeeded in carrying the eggs of the insect to Constantinople. Under their direction they were hatched and fed; they lived and laboured in a foreign climate; a sufficient number of butterflies was saved to propagate the race, and mulberry trees were planted to afford nourishment to the rising generations. A new and important branch of industry was thus established in Europe. Experience and reflection gradually corrected the errors of a new attempt; and the Sogdian ambassadors acknowledged in the succeeding reign, that the Romans were not inferior to the natives of China in the

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Greece, particularly the Peloponnesus, was early distinguished by the rearing of silk-worms, and by the skill and success with which the inhabitants of Thebes, Corinth, and Argos carried on the manufacture. Until the 12th century, Greece continued to be the only European country in which these arts were practised; but the forces of Roger king of Sicily having, in 1147, sacked Corinth, Athens, and Thebes, carried off large numbers of the inhabitants to Palermo; who introduced the culture of the worm, and the manufacture of silk, into Sicily. From this island the arts spread into Italy; and Venice, Milan, Florence, Lucca, &c. were soon after distinguished for their success in raising silkworms, and for the extent and beauty of their manufactures of silk. — (*Gibbon*, vol. x. p. 110.; *Biographie Universelle*, art. *Roger II.*)

The silk manufacture was introduced into France in 1480; Louis XI. having invited workmen from Italy, who established themselves in Tours. The manufacture was not begun at Lyons till about 1520; when Francis I., having got possession of Milan, prevailed on some artisans of the latter city to establish themselves, under his protection, in the former. Nearly at the same period the rearing of silkworms began to be successfully prosecuted in Provence, and other provinces of the south of France. Henry IV. rewarded such of the early manufacturers as had supported and pursued the trade for 12 years, with patents of nobility.

Silk Manufacture of England. — The manufacture seems to have been introduced into England in the 15th century. Silk had, however, been used by persons of distinction two centuries previously. The manufacture does not appear to have made much progress till the age of Elizabeth; the tranquillity of whose long reign, and the influx of Flemings occasioned by the disturbances in the Low Countries, gave a powerful stimulus to the manufactures of England. The silk throwsters of the metropolises were united, as already observed, in a fellowship, in 1562; and were incorporated in 1699. Though retarded by the civil wars, the manufacture continued gradually to advance; and so flourishing had it become, that it is stated in a preamble to a statute passed in 1666 (13 & 14 Cha. 2. c. 15.), that there were at that time no fewer than 40,000 individuals engaged in the trade! And it is of importance to observe, that though the importation of French and other foreign silks was occasionally prohibited during the reigns of James I. and Charles I., the Protectorate, and the reign of Charles II., the prohibition was not strictly enforced; and, generally speaking, their importation was quite free.

A considerable stimulus, though not nearly so great as has been commonly supposed, was given to the English silk manufacture by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685. Louis XIV. drove, by that disgraceful measure, several hundreds of thousands of his most industrious subjects to seek an asylum in foreign countries; of whom it is supposed about 50,000 came to England. Such of these refugees as had been engaged in the silk manufacture established themselves in Spitalfields, where they introduced several new branches of the art. When the refugees fled to England, foreign silks were freely admitted; and it appears from the Custom-house returns, that from 800,000*l.* to 700,000*l.* worth were annually imported in the period from 1685 to 1692, being the very period during which the British silk manufacture made the most rapid advances. But the manufacture was not long permitted to continue on this footing. In 1692, the refugees, who seem to have been quite as conversant with the arts of monopoly as with those either of spinning or weaving, obtained a patent, giving them an exclusive right to manufacture lustrings and *d-la-modes*, the silks then in greatest demand. This, however, was not enough to satisfy them; for, in 1697, Parliament passed an act, in compliance with their solicitations, prohibiting the importation of all French and other European silk goods; and in 1701, the prohibition was extended to the silk goods of India and China.

These facts show the fallacy of the opinion, so generally entertained, that we owe the introduction and establishment of the silk manufacture to the prohibitive system. So far from this being the case, it is proved, by statements in numerous acts of parliament, and other authentic documents, that the silk manufacture had overcome all the difficulties incident to its first establishment, had been firmly rooted, and had become of great value and importance, long before it was subjected to the trammels of monopoly; that is, before the manufacturers were taught to trust more to fiscal regulations, and the exertions of custom house officers, than to their skill and ingenuity, for the sale of their goods.

The year 1719 is an important epoch in the history of the British silk manufacture; a patent being then granted to Mr. (afterwards Sir Thomas) Lombe and his brother, for the exclusive property of the famous silk mill erected by them at Derby, for throwing silk, from models they had clandestinely obtained in Italy. At the expiration of the patent, Parliament refused the petition of Sir Thomas Lombe for its renewal; but granted him 14,000*l.* in consideration of the services he had rendered the country, in

erecting a machine which, it was supposed, would very soon enable us to dispense wholly with the supplies of thrown silk we had previously been in the habit of importing from Italy: but instead of being of any advantage, it is most certainly true that the establishment of throwing mills in England has proved one of the most formidable obstacles to the extension of the manufacture amongst us. These mills could not have been constructed unless oppressive duties had been laid on thrown or organzine silk; and the circumstance of their having been erected, and a large amount of capital vested in them, was successfully-urged, for more than a century, as a conclusive reason for continuing the high duties!

From this period down to 1824, the history of the silk manufacture presents little more than complaints, on the part of the manufacturers, of the importation of foreign silks; of impotent efforts on the part of parliament to exclude them; and of combinations and outrages on the part of the workmen. Among the multitude of acts that were passed in reference to this manufacture, from 1697 to the era of Mr. Huskisson, we believe it would be exceedingly difficult to point out one that is bottomed on any thing like sound principle, or that was productive of any but mischievous consequences. The French writers estimate the average exportation of silks from France to England, during the period from 1688 to 1741, at about 12,500,000 francs, or 500,000*l.* a year! In 1763, attempts were made to check the prevalence of smuggling; and the silk mercers of the metropolis, to show their anxiety to forward the scheme, are said to have recalled their orders for foreign goods! It would seem, however, either that their patriotic ardour had very soon cooled, or they had been supplanted by others not quite so scrupulous; for it appears from a report of a committee of the privy council, appointed, in 1766, to inquire into the subject, that smuggling was then carried on to a greater extent than ever, and that 7,072 looms were out of employment. The same committee reported, that though the French were decidedly superior to us in some branches of the trade, we were quite equal, and even superior, to them in others; but instead of proposing, consistently with their report, to admit French silks on a reasonable duty, a measure which would have proved very advantageous to those branches of the manufacture in which we were superior, or nearly equal, to the French, without doing any material injury to the others, which were already in the most depressed condition, they recommended the continuance of the old system; substituting absolute prohibitions in the place of the prohibitory duties that formerly existed! Whatever immediate advantages the manufacturers might have reaped from this measure, the ultimate tendency of which could not fail of being most injurious, were effectually counteracted by the turbulent proceedings of the workmen, who succeeded, in 1773, in obtaining from the legislature an act which, by itself, was quite sufficient to have destroyed even a prosperous trade. This, which has been commonly called the Spitalfields Act, entitled the weavers of Middlesex to demand a fixed price for their labour, which should be settled by the magistrates; and while both masters and men were restricted from giving or receiving more or less than the fixed price, the manufacturers were liable in heavy penalties if they employed weavers out of the district! The monopoly which the manufacturers had hitherto enjoyed, though incomplete, had had sufficient influence to render inventions and discoveries of comparatively rare occurrence in the silk trade; but the Spitalfields Act extinguished every germ of improvement. Parliament, in its wisdom, having seen fit to enact that a manufacturer should be obliged to pay as much for work done by the best machinery as if it were done by hand, it would have been folly to have thought of attempting any thing new! It is not, however, to be denied that Macclesfield, Manchester, Norwich, Paisley, &c. are under obligations to this act. Had it extended to the whole kingdom, it would have totally extirpated the manufacture; but being confined to Middlesex, it gradually drove the most valuable branches from Spitalfields to places where the rate of wages was determined by the competition of the parties, on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. After having done incalculable mischief, the act was repealed in 1824. Had it continued down to the present day, it would not have left employment in the metropolis for a single silk weaver.

But, as the effects of this act did not immediately manifest themselves, it was at first exceedingly popular. After 1785, however, the substitution of cottons in the place of silk gave a severe check to the manufacture, and the weavers then began to discover the real nature of the Spitalfields Act. Being interdicted from working at reduced wages, they were totally thrown out of employment; so that, in 1793, upwards of 4,000 Spitalfields looms were quite idle. In 1798, the trade began to revive; and continued to extend slowly till 1815 and 1816, when the Spitalfields weavers were again involved in sufferings far more extensive and severe than at any former period.

It appears from this brief sketch of the progress of the English silk trade, that from the year 1695, down to our own times, it has been exposed to the most appalling vicissitudes. The reason is obvious. The monopoly enjoyed by the manufacturers, and the Spitalfields Act, effectually put a stop to all improvement; so that the ma-

nufacture continued stationary in England, while on the Continent it was rapidly advancing. Whenever, therefore, the markets were, either from the miscalculation of the manufacturers, or a change of fashion, overloaded with silks, there were no means of disposing of the surplus profitably abroad, and the distress became extreme. Notwithstanding the unparalleled advances we had made in other departments of manufacturing industry, it was affirmed, in 1826, by the member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice), in his place in the House of Commons, "that there were in that city 9,700 looms; 7,500 of which were in the hands of operative weavers, who applied their manual labour, as well as their machinery, to the manufacture of ribands. These looms were, for the most part, of the *worst possible construction*; and it would scarcely be believed that the improved loom in France would, in a given time, produce 5 times as much riband as the common loom in England with the same manual labour! He could also state that there existed an improved manufacture in Germany, by which one man could make *forty-eight times as much velvet as could be made in an equal time by an English machine*. What chance was there that the English manufacturer could maintain such a competition?"

Perhaps these statements may have been somewhat exaggerated; but there can be no doubt of their substantial accuracy. Surely, however, no one believes that the inferiority of the machinery used by the English manufacturers was ascribable to any thing except that the protection they enjoyed had made them indifferent to improvements. No one believes that the French or Germans are superior to the English in the construction of machines; on the contrary, their inferiority is admitted by themselves, and by everybody else. That that spirit of invention, which has effected such astonishing results in the cotton manufacture, should have been so long wholly unknown in that of silk, is entirely to be ascribed to the fact of the former never having been the object of legislative protection. The cotton manufacturers were not bribed into the adoption of a routine system; they could not rest satisfied with mediocrity; but being compelled to put forth all their powers—to avail themselves of every resource of science and of art—they have, in a few years, raised the British cotton manufacture from a subordinate and trifling, to the very first place amongst the manufactures, not of this country only, but of the world!

Change, in 1826, of the Monopoly System.—At length, however, the impolicy of the system by which the silk manufacture had been so long depressed, became obvious to every intelligent individual. The principal manufacturers in and about London subscribed, in 1824, a petition to the House of Commons, in which they stated that "this important manufacture, though recently considerably extended, is still depressed below its natural level, by laws which prevent it from attaining that degree of prosperity which, under more favourable circumstances, it would acquire." Fortified by this authority, by the experience of 130 years, during which the prohibitive system had been allowed to paralyse the energies of the manufacturers, and by the sanction of parliamentary committees, Mr. Huskisson moved, on the 8th of March, 1824, that the prohibition of foreign silks should cease on the 5th of July, 1826, and that they should then be admitted for importation on payment of a duty of 30 per cent. *ad valorem*. On this occasion Mr. H. observed—"The monopoly had produced, what monopoly was always sure to produce, an indifference with regard to improvement. That useful zeal which gives life to industry, which fosters ingenuity, and which in manufactures occasions unceasing efforts to produce the article in the most economical form, had been comparatively extinguished. *To the prohibitive system it was to be ascribed, that in silk only, in the whole range of manufactures, we were left behind our neighbours!* We have here a proof of that chilling and benumbing effect which is sure to be produced when no genius is called into action, and when we are rendered indifferent to exertion by the indolent security derived from restrictive regulations. I have not the slightest doubt, that if the same system had been continued with respect to the cotton manufacture, it would have been at this moment as subordinate in amount to the woollen as it is junior in its introduction into the country."—(*Speeches*, vol. ii. p. 249.)

We have already alluded to the enormous duties imposed, in 1719, when Sir Thomas Lombe erected his throwing mill at Derby, on foreign organzine silk. These, though subsequently reduced, amounted, in 1824, to no less than 14s. 7½d. per lb. There was also, at the same time, a duty of 4s. per lb. on raw silk imported from Bengal, and of 5s. 7½d. per lb. on that imported from other places. Even had the manufacture been otherwise in a flourishing condition, such exorbitant duties on the raw material were enough to have destroyed it. Mr. Huskisson, therefore, proposed, by way of preparing the manufacturers for the approaching change of system, that the duty on foreign thrown silk should be immediately reduced to 7s. 6d. (it was further reduced to 5s. in 1826), and the duty on raw silk to 3d. per lb. These proposals were all agreed to; and considerable reductions were at the same time effected in the duties charged on most of the dye stuffs used in the manufacture.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Huskisson did not propose that the reduction of the

duties on raw and thrown silk, and the legalised importation of foreign silks, should be simultaneous and immediate. During the interval that was allowed our manufacturers to make preparations for the change, the French accumulated a large stock of goods to pour into our markets. To quiet the alarm occasioned by this circumstance, a singular device was fallen upon. The French had long been accustomed to manufacture their goods of a certain length: and, in the view of rendering their accumulated stock unfit for our markets, a law was passed in 1826, prohibiting the importation of any silks except such as were of entirely different lengths from those commonly manufactured by the French! No one can regret that this wretched trick, for it deserves no better name, entirely failed of its object. The French manufacturers immediately commenced, with redoubled zeal, the preparation of goods of the legitimate length: and the others, having become unsaleable at any thing like fair prices, were purchased up by the smugglers, and imported, almost entirely, into this country.

But no permanent injury arose from this circumstance; and, on the whole, the effect of the opening of the trade has been such as to justify all the anticipations which the advocates of the measure had formed of its success.

Effects of the Change of 1826. — We do not exaggerate, we only state the plain matter of fact, when we affirm that the silk manufacture has made a more rapid progress since the abolition of the prohibitive system in 1826, than it did during the preceding century. The former disparity in quality between goods of French and English make has been materially abated in most articles, while in a few the superiority is now on our side. Some of our readers will, probably, be not a little surprised to learn that the real or declared value of the silk goods of British manufacture exported to France, in 1842, amounted to 181,924*l*.

Most of the machines and processes known on the Continent have been introduced amongst us, and some of them have been materially improved. Nor, after what has taken place, can the least doubt remain in the mind of any one, that had full freedom been given to the silk manufacture 50 years ago, it would now have ranked among the most important and valuable businesses in the kingdom. Though a great step at the time, there can be no doubt that the change of system effected in 1826 was far from being sufficiently complete. The duty then imposed of 30 per cent. on the importation of foreign silks is, at least, more than double what it should be. The expenses of smuggling silk goods into England may, speaking generally, be estimated at about 12 per cent.; so that the high duty, instead of excluding foreign silks, acts as a bounty on their importation through clandestine channels; and occasions, by the temptation which it holds out to gambling adventures, a larger quantity to be imported than if the duty were more nearly proportioned to the expense of smuggling. The widespread corruption of the officers engaged in the collection of the silk duties in the port of London, should satisfy every one of the folly of attempting to levy duties which exceed the risk of loss by smuggling. Were the duties reduced to 12 or 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, the legitimate imports of foreign silk goods would be considerably increased; but their clandestine importation would be more than proportionally diminished; and the apparent protection given to the manufacture being reduced, a new stimulus would be applied to industry and invention. Were such a system adopted, we have little doubt that, in no very long time, perhaps not more than 5 or 6 years, our superiority over France in some important departments of the silk manufacture would be little less decided than in that of cotton.

"I maintain," said Mr. Poulett Thomson (afterwards Lord Sydenham), in his speech on the state of the silk trade (14th of April, 1829), "without fear of contradiction, that the very essence of commercial and manufacturing industry is freedom from legislative interference and legislative protection. Attempt to assist its course by legislative enactments, by fostering care, you arrest its progress, you destroy its vigour. Unbind the shackles in which your unwise tenderness has confined it — permit it to take unrestrained its own course — expose it to the wholesome breeze of competition, — you give it new life, you restore its former vigour. Industry has been well likened to the hardy Alpine plant; self-sown on the mountain side, exposed to the inclemency of the season, it gathers strength in its struggles for existence — it shoots forth in vigour and in beauty. Transplanted to the rich soil of the parterre, tended by the fostering hand of the gardener, nursed in the artificial atmosphere of the forcing-glass, it grows sickly and enervated, its shoots are vigourless, its flowers are inodorous. In one single word lies the soul of industry — competition. The answer of the statesman and the economist to his sovereign inquiring what he could do to assist the industry of his kingdom was, 'Let it take its own way.' Such is my prayer. Relieve us from the chains in which your indiscreet tenderness has shackled us; remove your oppressive protection; give us the fair field we ask; and we demand no more. The talent, the genius, the enterprise, the capital, the industry of this great people will do the rest; and England will not only retain her present position, but she will take a yet more forward place in the race of competition for wealth

and improvement which, by the nature of things, she is destined to run amongst the nations of the world. Place us in that condition, not by any violent change, but by slow and easy transition. Here we shall find security for our enterprizes, and reward for our labours.

“ Hic patet ingenia campus ; certusque merenti
Stat favor ; ornatur propriis industria donis.”

It was not, however, to be supposed, that all departments of the silk manufacture would be equally benefited by the change of system from prohibition to duties. — *Non omnia possimus.* The probability is, that the trade, were it placed on a proper footing, would be divided between the English and French. In point of substantial excellence, the plain silk goods manufactured in England are superior to those of France; and the difference in favour of the latter in point of *finish* has become less perceptible; while in all mixed manufactures, of silk and wool, silk and cotton, silk and linen, &c., our ascendancy is admitted by the French themselves. On the other hand, the ribands, figured gauzes, and light fancy goods, manufactured in France, are superior to those of this country. Even in this department we have made a very great progress; and fancy goods are now produced at Spitalfields, Coventry, and other places, contrasting most advantageously, in point of taste and beauty, with those produced previously to the introduction of the new system. Still, however, we are not sanguine in our expectations of our countrymen being able to maintain a successful competition with our neighbours in the manufacturing of this class of articles. The greater attention paid to the art of designing in Lyons, the consequent better tastes of the artists, and the superior brightness and lustre of their colours, give them advantage with which it will be very difficult to contend.

But supposing that the trade is partitioned between the two countries in the way now stated, it is easy to see that the best share will belong to us, and that that share will be incomparably more valuable than the whole manufacture formerly was. The proofs of the accuracy of this statement are at hand. Notwithstanding the decline of the trade at Spitalfields and a few other places, the manufacture, taken as a whole, has greatly increased. During 1821, 1822, and 1823, when the restrictive system was in its vigour, the entries for consumption, of all sorts of raw and thrown silk, amounted at an average to 2,399,000 lbs. a year. But, despite the sinister predictions indulged in with respect to the ruin of the manufacture, the entries amounted, at an average of 1839, 1840, and 1841, to 4,835,898 lbs.; being an increase of more than 100 per cent. upon the quantity entered during the monopoly!

The manufacture of silk in France has, we are glad to say (for we have nothing in common with those who grudge or envy the prosperity of others), been materially improved of late years, and a large increase has taken place in the value of the silks exported, which amounted, in 1841, to about 162,000,000 fr., or about 6,500,000*l.* But it is satisfactory to know that we have been able to make head against this formidable competitor, and that, while the value of the exports of our silk goods amounted, in 1823, when the monopoly system was in full vigour, to only 351,409*l.* it amounted, in 1836, to 917,822*l.*, being an increase in the interval of more than 2½ times! The exports have not, it is true, been quite so large since; but this diminution is wholly owing to the distress that has prevailed in the interim in the U. States and the other leading markets for our silks: in fact, we undersell the French in some of the heavier and more important species of goods in every market equally accessible to both parties. The value of our exports of silk goods to the U. States amounted, in 1839, to 410,093*l.*; and does any one suppose that the Americans would have bought so largely of us, or that they would have bought anything at all, had the French or any other party been able to supply them on lower terms?

What has now been stated renders it obvious, that though the manufacturers of fine and fancy goods might be obliged, were the silk trade placed on a more liberal and solid foundation, to change their employment, a new, and at the same time a more extensive, secure, and fruitful field would be opened for their exertions. We lament the hardships incident to the transition even from one department of the same business to another, but the suffering thence arising speedily disappears, and when the change has been effected, the manufacturers enter with fresh vigour on a new career of prosperity.

It is to be regretted, that it is not possible either to abandon a routine system, or to introduce new and improved methods of production, without injury to individuals. But because such is the fact — because the bridge cannot be built without displacing watermen, nor the plough introduced without superseding the spade, nor wine brought from abroad without diminishing the demand for ale and beer — is that any reason for proscribing inventions, and denying ourselves gratifications within our reach? To maintain the affirmative, would be evidently absurd, — it would be equivalent to maintaining that the interests of society are best promoted by perpetuating poverty, ignorance, and barbarism! The injury occasioned by the adoption of an improved method of produc-

tion, the reduction of a duty, or the opening of new markets whence cheaper supplies of any article may be obtained, is temporary only, and affects but a very small portion of the community; while the advantage is permanent, and benefits every individual, even those whom it may, in the first instance, force to resort to other businesses.

Those unacquainted with the history of the silk trade, who may have looked into the pamphlets and speeches of those opposed to the alterations in 1825, and to those that are still required, will probably be disposed to think that, though more limited in point of numbers, the condition of the workmen engaged in the trade was better previously to 1825 than it has been since. But those who have looked, however cursorily, into the history of the trade, must know that such is not the fact; and that, speaking generally, the situation of those engaged in it has been materially improved since 1825. We have already adverted to the state of the trade in 1793 and 1816. At the last mentioned period, 7 years before any relaxation of the monopoly had been so much as thought of, the distress in the silk trade was infinitely more severe than it has ever been since the introduction of the new system. In proof of this, we may mention that, at a public meeting held for the relief of the Spitalfields weavers, at the Mansion-house, on the 26th of November, 1816, the secretary stated, that *two thirds* of them were without employment, and without the means of support; "that some had deserted their houses in despair, unable to endure the sight of their starving families; and many pined under languishing diseases brought on by the want of food and clothing." And Sir Fowell Buxton stated, at the same meeting, that the distress among the silk manufacturers was so intense, that "it partook of the nature of a pestilence, which spreads its contagion around, and devastates an entire district." Such was the state of the workmen under that monopoly system that has been the worthless theme of so much eulogy. But such, we are glad to say, is not their state at present. The trade, being now diverted to a considerable extent into those branches in which we have a superiority, is comparatively secure against revulsions; it would, indeed, be an absurdity to imagine, that measures that have about doubled the manufacture, should have reduced the rate of wages, or been otherwise than advantageous to the workmen.

We have already noticed the smuggling of foreign silks carried on in the early part and towards the middle of last century. The evil was not afterwards abated. The vigilance of the custom-house officer was no match for the ingenuity of the smuggler; and at the very moment when the most strenuous efforts were made to exclude them, the silks of France and Hindostan were openly displayed in the drawing-rooms of St. James's, and in the House of Commons, in mockery of the impotent legislation which sought to exclude them. "I have lately," said Mr. Huskisson, in an able speech in vindication of his policy as to the silk trade, "taken some pains to ascertain the quantity of smuggled silks that has been seized inland throughout the kingdom during the last 10 years; and I find that the whole does not exceed 5,000*l.* a year. I have endeavoured, on the other hand, to get an account of the quantity of silk goods actually smuggled into this country. Any estimate of this quantity must be very vague; but I have been given to understand that the value of such goods as are regularly entered at the custom-houses of France, for exportation to this country, is from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.* a year; and this, of course, is exclusive of the *far greater supply* which is poured in throughout all the channels of smuggling, without being subjected to any entry. In fact, to such an extent is this illicit trade carried, that there is scarcely a haberdasher's shop in the smallest village of the United Kingdom, in which prohibited silks are not sold; and that in the face of day, and to a very considerable extent.

"The honourable member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice) has mentioned the silk goods from India as those against which anything but prohibition would prove an unavailing protection. Now, in my opinion, it is scarcely possible to conceive a stronger case than that of these silks furnish against the honourable member's own argument. I believe it is universally known that a large quantity of Bandana handkerchiefs are sold every year, for exportation, by the East India Company. But does any gentleman suppose that these Bandanas are sent to the Continent for the purpose of remaining there? No such thing! They are sold at the Company's sales, to the number of about 800,000 or 1,000,000 a year, at about 4*s.* each; they are immediately shipped off for Hamburg, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Ostend, or Guernsey, and from thence they nearly all illicitly find their way back to this country.

"Mark, then, the effect of this beautiful system. — These Bandanas, which had previously been sold for exportation at 4*s.*, are finally distributed in retail to the people of England at about 8*s.* each: and the result of this prohibition is to levy upon the consumer a tax, and to give those who live by evading your law a bounty of 4*s.* upon each handkerchief sold in this country!" — (*Speeches*, vol. ii. p. 510.)

This, no doubt, is all very true and very striking. But had Mr. Huskisson been in the House of Commons in 1844, he might have used nearly the same language. He scotched, but did not kill, the snake. The 80 per cent. *ad valorem* duty which he esta-

IV. Account of the declared or real Values of the Silk Manufactures exported from the U. Kingdom during each of the 10 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries to which they were sent, and the Value of those sent to each.

Countries.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Germany	18,378	19,111	21,494	20,855	11,874	11,837	15,390	17,130	16,370	27,596
Holland	56,768	7,387	11,718	86,890	34,303	33,096	23,154	14,306	9,487	6,418
Belgium	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
France	75,187	79,288	80,248	45,819	49,783	43,141	50,298	10,516	12,473	13,374
Spain and the Balearic Islands	14,778	17,169	7,061	4,715	5,116	1,450	1,498	1,183	6,027	6,900
Gibraltar	10,000	10,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000
Italy and the Italian Islands	9,108	9,718	5,633	1,185	3,663	1,989	1,184	4,100	5,000	7,259
Coast of Good Hope	11,000	8,999	10,998	6,131	17,633	22,107	36,454	8,439	15,688	11,981
Nepenthe	1,688	1,810	4,560	5,473	3,210	3,403	10,208	3,338	8,184	6,766
E. India Comp.'s territ. and Ceylon	917,948	930,372	7,350	6,049	15,644	9,950	14,634	17,413	18,333	17,511
British American Colonies	14,999	23,660	21,035	27,835	27,798	49,997	55,459	46,729	37,845	30,577
North American colonies	16,861	24,504	23,602	28,179	30,108	74,998	74,661	136,793	133,980	131,092
West Indies	29,898	35,018	35,448	31,812	29,894	36,910	36,548	38,467	36,430	33,165
Cuba and other foreign West Indies	14,537	10,983	13,437	13,628	13,628	13,580	13,580	13,133	13,461	13,081
United States of America	29,535	33,478	500,509	537,040	564,501	109,689	248,508	410,093	374,159	508,737
Mexico	7,431	5,940	5,000	5,128	6,138	11,801	6,999	14,990	18,448	20,949
Brazil	17,883	27,600	20,137	33,078	12,614	11,869	20,117	25,315	28,917	28,917
States of the Rio de la Plata	34,798	11,732	19,274	18,207	9,214	15,093	11,179	16,689	31,024	26,500
Chili	35,681	33,545	30,533	2,827	6,090	10,113	8,848	44,735	30,691	7,391
Peru	13,070	29,068	19,998	17,748	3,292	10,074	10,199	10,415	25,558	10,482
All other countries	35,061	24,490	41,266	44,901	19,274	17,619	17,088	15,166	14,923	11,009
Total	399,691	737,404	637,198	978,786	917,893	608,475	777,980	900,815	819,648	748,804

* In these two sums are included the exports to China in 1838 and 1839.

The silk exported from Canton consists of two leading varieties, known in commerce by the names of Canton and Nanjing. The first, which is raised principally in the province of Canton, is divided into 8 sorts. As an average, the picul of Canton silk brought at Canton, in 1831-32, 156 dollars. The Nanjing silk, produced in the province of Kiangnan, is divided into 3 sorts, known in commerce by the names of Taitsee and Taysaam. It is very superior to the other, and usually fetches more than double its price.

East India native silk comes wholly from Bengal. About the year 1760, the East India Company introduced the Italian mode of reeling silk, which was productive of a very great improvement in the quality of the article; but we are not aware that any subsequent improvement has been effected. The silk now brought from India are not only inferior, in point of quality, to those of Europe, but also to those of China. The quantity imported of late years is specified in the Table No. III.

Turkey silk wholly consisted some years back of what is termed long reel and short reel brutia, a rather coarse description, suited to few buyers, and chiefly used in the ribbon trade of Coventry; but of late it has been imported of a very far superior texture and quality, coming successfully into competition with Italian and China silk. The qualities now known as brutias may be classed as under, and the following are the present (March, 1842) nominal quotations with a dull market:—

	s.	d.	s.	d.
Long reel brutia	-	-	9	6
Short reel brutia	-	-	11	6
Long reel Mestup (being a finer thread than common brutia)	-	-	11	6
Short reel Mestup	-	-	12	0
Seld (a finer sort, generally in loose skeins)	-	-	13	6
Dumirdaak (a superior kind)	-	-	16	6

At Brussa, the seat of the silk trade in Asia Minor, it is now sold by the oke of 400 drams, and not by the coffee of 610 drams, as formerly; the coffee is, however, still used at Constantinople. The plains of Brussa and the adjacent villages produce different qualities, varying considerably in size, colour, and quality. The village of Demirdaak produces the finest, owing to the care taken by the natives in selecting the best cocoons, and attending carefully to the evenness of the thread throughout the process of reeling; consequently this description commands a high price, and is approved by our throwsters.

The water of this place is considered favourable to the brightness and glossiness of the silk, by which it may be distinguished from that of Brussa. The silk at Brussa is taken by the country people in small parcels to the bechstar or customs, where it pays duty. The proprietor, with a broker, then takes it to the silk bazaar, where it is handed round to the different stands and sold to the highest bidder, resembling, in this respect, the mode of selling the ores in Cornwall to the different smelters.

This a person buying okes at a time, assorta as well as can the different qualities for packing. It is generally bought by speculators for the Constantinople market, and is forwarded to Giennick on camels for shipment per steamers to Constantinople, where it finds its way to the Misaam or some broker's room, where it is sold to the different merchants. The finest looms are mostly bought for the French and Russian markets, generally the latter. The long reels are going out of use in this country, as the more modern machinery is not adapted to its use.

The price of silk at Brussa in September, 1842, were:—			
1st quality Demirdaak	£235 to £240	per oke of 400 drams.	
2d quality ditto	210 — 215		
1st Seld	190 — 193		
2d Seld	180 — 185		
Long Mestup	160		
Long Brussa	150		
Short Brussa	170 — 175		
Cost and Charge on Silk bought of Brussa and shipped at Constantinople or London.			
1 case 46 tiffes = 70 oke 60 drams, at £21 6s		£13,167	
Packing charges and commission		428	
		£13,595	
Carriage from Brussa to Constantinople			£207 per oke,
Loss on gold sent to Brussa			or ca. 15s
Bills, lading, and petty expenses			per cent.
Lower duty, 70 oke 60 drams, at			9,115
£16, and 7/0y thereon			
Export duty, 70 oke 60 drams, at 6s,			£17,710
and 7/0y thereon			
Carriage of money, 4 per cent.			851
Constantinople commission, 5/0y			£18,811
Ex. 11s. 15s. — 4s at 41, 194 lbs. = 16s. 6d.			
Discount and charges in London			18s. 3d.

By far the greater part of the raw and thrown silk that comes to us from France is not the growth of that country, but of Italy; being principally conveyed by the canal of Languedoc and the Garonne to Bordeaux, whence it is shipped for England. So much is this the case, that it appears from the official accounts published by the French government, that while the aggregate quantity of the French and foreign raw and thrown silk exported from France in 1841 amounted to 1,074,144 kilog., the portion which was of French origin amounted to only 12,394 kilog. — (*Administration des Douanes* for 1841, p. 241.)

SILVER (Ger. *Silber*; Du. *Zilver*; Da. *Solv*; Sw. *Silfver*; Fr. *Argent*; It. *Argento*; Sp. *Plata*; Port. *Prata*; Rus. *Serebro*; Pol. *Srebro*; Lat. *Argentum*; Gr. *ἄργυρος*; Arab. *Fazzeh*), a metal of a fine white colour, without either taste or smell; being in point of brilliancy inferior to none of the metallic bodies, if we except polished

steel. It is softer than copper, but harder than gold. When melted its specific gravity is 10.474; when hammered, 10.51. In malleability, it is inferior to none of the metals, if we except gold. It may be beaten out into leaves only $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch thick. Its ductility is equally remarkable: it may be drawn out into wire much finer than a human hair; so fine, indeed, that a single grain of silver may be extended about 400 feet in length. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of silver 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight 187.15 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. Silver is easily alloyed with copper by fusion. The compound is harder and more sonorous than silver, and retains its white colour even when the proportion of copper exceeds $\frac{1}{4}$. The hardness is at a maximum when the copper amounts to *one fifth* of the silver. The standard or sterling silver of Britain, of which coin is made, is a compound of 121 parts silver and 1 copper. Its specific gravity is 10.2. The specific gravity of Paris standard silver, composed of 137 parts silver and 7 copper, is 10.175. The French silver coin during the old government was not nearly so fine, being composed of 261 parts silver and 27 copper, or 24 parts silver to 1 part copper. The Austrian silver coin contains $\frac{1}{10}$ of copper. The silver coin of the ancients was nearly pure, and appears not to have been mixed with alloy. — (*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

The most productive silver mines are in America, particularly in Mexico and Peru. There are also silver mines in Hungary, Saxony, and other parts of Europe, and in Asiatic Russia. — (See PARCHOUS METALS.)

Besides being used as a coin, or money, silver is extensively employed in the arts. The value of the silver plate annually manufactured is very considerable. Large quantities are also used in plating. — (See PLATING.) For an account of the quantity of silver coined at the British mint, since 1790, see *ante*, p. 308.

SINGAPORE, an island and British settlement at the eastern extremity of the Straits of Malacca, the town being in lat. 1° 17' 29" N., lon. 108° 51' 45" E.

The island is of an elliptical form, about 27 miles in its greatest length and 11 in breadth, containing an estimated area of 275 square miles. But the whole British settlement embraces a circumference of above 120 miles; in which is included about 50 desert islets, and the seas and straits within 10 miles of the coast of the principal island. The latter is separated from the main land by a strait of the same name, of small breadth throughout, and scarcely, indeed, $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile wide in its narrowest part, which, in the early period of European navigation, was the thoroughfare between India and China. But the grand commercial highway between the eastern and western portions of maritime Asia now passes along the south side of the island, on which the town is built, between it and a chain of desert islands about 9 miles distant; the safest and most convenient channel being so near to the island that ships in passing and repassing come close to the roads. The town is wholly indebted for its rapid rise and growing importance to its position on this strait. This has rendered it not merely a convenient *entrepôt* for the trade between the Western world and India on the one hand, and China on the other; but also for that between the former and the Eastern Archipelago, the Philippines, &c. It is situated on a river, or rather salt creek, navigable by lighters about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from the sea. Ships lie in the roads, or open harbour, at the distance of from 1 to 2 miles from town, according to their draught of water. The assistance of a number of convenient lighters, which are always in readiness, enables them to load or unload, with scarcely any interruption, throughout the year. The creek is accessible to the lighters, and the goods are taken in and discharged at convenient quays, at the doors of the principal warehouses. — (See *Chart of the Island of Singapore in the Mercator's Chart* in this work.)

The climate of Singapore, though hot, is healthy. Fahrenheit's thermometer ranges from 71° to 89°. Being only about 80 miles from the equator, there is, of course, very little variety in the seasons. There is neither summer nor winter; and even the periodical rains are short, and not very well marked — moderate showers of rain falling for about 150 days each year. The settlement of Singapore was formed in February, 1819, and its sovereignty and property, in their present extent, confirmed to the British government in 1825, by a convention with the king of the Netherlands, and a treaty with the Malay princes to whom it belonged. Previously to its being taken possession of by the English, it had been inhabited for about 8 years by a colony of Malays, half fishermen and half pirates. When the first census was taken, in January, 1824, the population was found to amount to 10,683. In 1828, it had increased to 15,834; in both cases, exclusive of troops, camp followers, Indian convicts, and a floating population of about 3,000. In 1837 it amounted to 29,984 of whom 13,749 were Chinese settlers and 9,132 Malays, the Europeans being but few in number; and at present (1843) the population exceeds 45,000, of whom about a half are Chinese.

The principal merchants and agents are Englishmen, of whom also there are a few shopkeepers, auctioneers, &c. There are also some respectable Chinese merchants; and the bulk of the shopkeepers, with the most valuable part of the labouring population, consist of Chinese. About 5,000 adult males

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arrive annually from China by the junka; about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, the rest dispersing themselves among the neighbouring Dutch, English, and Malay settlements. The business is chiefly natives of the Comorand coast; and the Malays employ themselves as fishermen, in cutting timber, and in supplying the settlement with the rude produce of the neighbourhood. There are good daily markets, open at all hours, and well supplied with vegetables, fruits, grain, fish, pork, and green turtles; the latter the cheapest animal food that can be procured. There are no export or import duties, nor anchorage, harbour, light-house dues, or any fees; but a register is kept of all exports and imports. Reports must be made to the master attendant by the masters of vessels, and invoices delivered to the superintendent of imports and exports.

Though there are neither duties on imports or exports, nor on the ships frequenting the port, the revenue of Singapore amounted, in 1842-43, to 809,000 rupees, while its expenditure, civil and military, amounted to only 404,029 do.

Currency, Weights, Language, &c. — The currency and weights are simple and convenient. Accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, divided into 100 parts, represented either by Dutch dollars, or by English copper coins of the same value. The weights in use (and almost every thing is sold by weight, as in China) are the Chinese picul of 100 catties, or 133 lb. avoirdupois, Rice (the produce of Blam and the Archipelago) and salt are sold by the coyan of 40 piculs. Gold dust is sold by a Malay weight called the bungkal, which weighs 2 Spanish dollars, or 832 grains Troy. Bengal rice, wheat, and pulses of the same country, are sold by the bag, containing 2 Bengal maunds, or 164 lb. avoirdupois. Piece goods, &c. are sold by the corgo or score. English weights and measures are frequently used in reference to European commodities. The mode of transacting business among the European merchants is simple and efficient. Instead of trusting their affairs to native agents, as in other parts of India, they transact them in person, with occasional assistance of a Chinese creole as an interpreter and broker. The European merchants transact business on their own account; but a great deal of their employment consists in acting as agents for houses in London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Canton, and Batavia. They are also agents for various insurance offices at Calcutta and elsewhere, and policies of insurance to any extent may be effected without difficulty. The language of commercial intercourse, where any of the natives of the East are concerned, is universally Malay, — a simple and easy dialect, of which all the resident merchants have a sufficient acquaintance to enable them to transact ordinary business. The *Singapore Free Press*, published once a week, contains a price current, an account of the arrivals and departure of shipping, and an official detail of the exports and imports of the preceding week. The administration of justice is conducted by a recorder's court for the settlement, in common with the two neighbouring ones of Penang and Malacca.

Commodities and Prices. — Singapore is chiefly an *entrepôt*, having, with the exception of pearl sago manufactured on the spot from the raw material imported from the north coast of Sumatra, implements of agriculture, and some others fabricated by the Chinese from European iron, with gambier and catechu grown and manufactured on the island, few commodities of its own for exportation. The grain produced on the island not being sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants for a week, their supplies of rice, wheat, &c. are mostly all imported principally from Java and Calcutta.

Trade of Singapore. — The following Table has been compiled from the official statements published in the *Singapore Free Press* of the 17th August, 1843.

Abstract Statement of the Trade of Singapore with the undamentioned Places, in the Years 1845-46, and 1846-47.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1845-46.	1846-47.	1845-46.	1846-47.
	<i>Company's Rupees.</i>	<i>Company's Rupees.</i>	<i>Company's Rupees.</i>	<i>Company's Rupees.</i>
Great Britain	7,369,225	6,121,619	2,135,403	2,114,078
Continental Europe	875,773	1,177,571	825,731	743,127
United States	49,525	58,710	95,281	87,110
New South Wales	130,851	49,853	162,792	368,078
Cape of Good Hope	-	-	31,272	29,037
Mauritius	5,186	21,930	-	-
Bourbon	9,784	4,274	-	-
Madras and coast	4,823,980	6,152,521	2,075,183	4,854,225
Bombay and coast	100,855	331,033	333,290	430,386
China	705,065	833,136	330,903	2,021,490
Holland	21,460,612	4,883,489	5,761,676	4,323,556
Manila	607,111	326,896	468,815	328,169
Penang and Malacca	5,153	25,799	81,227	101,453
Arracan	278,129	161,603	134,223	61,919
Ceylon	41,157	368,551	63,688	72,023
Java	1,939,501	1,670,676	760,863	801,063
Riue	401,838	406,872	507,598	417,788
Arabia	45,022	20,840	169,011	224,118
Cochin China	819,813	318,864	703,611	651,945
Siam	459,213	406,438	667,454	750,257
Borneo	1,094,804	791,903	984,227	899,989
Bally, Lombok, and Sumbawa	660,300	411,488	491,865	494,017
And other Eastern Islands	1,121,528	795,439	1,118,135	786,140
Manarra	105,754	81,498	82,825	314,507
East Coast Peninsula	1,129,710	1,839,723	1,160,054	1,425,250
West ditto ditto	26,123	31,626	31,403	81,047
Neighbouring islands, and other places	290,927	330,416	246,738	264,749
Total Company's Rupees	26,616,448	29,706,976	21,169,267	22,503,630
From Penang	-	1,435,650	-	1,296,000
From Malacca	-	831,893	-	533,763
		28,973,521		24,093,399

The following rates of commission and warehouse rent are charged at Singapore, except in cases of special agreement: —

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| <p>Commission.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> On all sales or purchases, except the following, 3 per cent. On purchases of goods or produce for returns, 2½ per cent. On sales or purchases of opium, 3 per cent. On sales or purchases of ships, vessels, houses, or lands, 2½ per cent. On sale, purchase, or shipment of bullion, 1 per cent. On sale or purchase of diamonds, jewels, &c., 2 per cent. On returns in treasure, bullion, or bills, 1 per cent. On all goods consigned and withdrawn, a commission. On sale, purchase, or negotiating of bills not serving for purchase of goods or produce, 1 per cent. On all goods sold by auction by the agents themselves, in addition to the above, 2½ per cent. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> On del credere, or guaranteeing sales when specially required, 2½ per cent. Shroffage, 1 per cent. per mille. On all advances of money for the purpose of trade, whether the goods are consigned to the agent or not, and where a commission of 2 per cent. is not charged, 2½ per cent. On ordering goods, or superintending the fulfilment of contracts whence no other commission is derived, 2½ per cent. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements, and on becoming security for administration of estates, or to government or individuals for contracts, agreements, &c., 1 per cent. On acting for the estates of persons deceased as executors or administrators, 2 per cent. |
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17. On the management of estates for others, on the amount received, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
18. On procuring freight, or advertising as the agent of owner or commander, on the amount of freight, whether the same passes through the hands of the agent or not, 5 per cent.
19. On chartering ships for other parties, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
20. On the making insurance, or writing orders for do., $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
21. On settling insurance losses, total or partial, and on procuring return of premiums, 1 per cent.
22. On debts, when a process at law of arbitration is necessary, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.—And if received by such means, 5 per cent.
23. On bills of exchange noted or protested, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
24. On collecting house rent, 5 per cent.
25. On bills of discount, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
26. On the negotiating bills on respondents, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
27. On letters of credit granted for mercantile purposes, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
28. On purchasing or selling government securities, or on exchanging or transferring the same, $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
29. On delivering up do., $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
30. On all advances not punctually liquidated, the agent to have the option of charging a second commission, as upon a fresh advance, provided the charge be only made once in the same year.

31. On transhipping all goods or produce, except the following, 1 per cent.
32. On transhipping whole chests, of cassia, cassia buds, aniseed, camphor, nutmegs, and gunny bags, per package, 1 dollar.
33. At the option of the agent, on the amount debited or credited within the year, including interest, and carrying up only such items, on which at least $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. has been charged, 1 per cent.

This charge is not to apply to paying over a balance due on an account made up to a particular period, unless where such balance is withdrawn without reasonable notice.

Warehouse Rent per Month.

- Chests of opium or silk, bags of woollens, pipes of wine or brandy, leaguers of arrack, &c., 1 dollar.
- Bales of Indian piece goods, cotton and gunny bags, 50 cents.
- Cases of European piece goods, trunks of woollens, &c., 25 cents.
- Hopheads of liquor, 3 chests of wine, &c., 40 cents.
- Pepper, rice, coffee, sugar, saltpetre, &c., 10 per cent.
- Iron, tin, tutenagras, spelter, lead, &c., 5 per cent.
- All other goods not mentioned, to pay accordingly, or by measurement, at the rate of, per ton of 50 cubic feet 1 dollar.

Eastern Ports trading with Singapore.—As every thing that relates to the trade of the East is now becoming of the greatest importance, we make no apology for laying before the reader the following statements, taken from the *Singapore Free Press*, respecting the Eastern ports from which native ships arrive at Singapore. They are mostly all very imperfectly known even to residents in the settlement; and the names of some of them may now, perhaps, be learned for the first time by the English reader.

We have subjoined some details respecting the trade between Singapore and some of these ports in 1842-43, from the same journal.

Commencing with ports to the northward, those in China, from which junks which are included among the *native craft* arrive here, are, CAN'ON, TAW-CHAY, CHONGKING, and MACAO, in Canton province; AMOY and CHINCHOW in Fokien; and SAIGON and NINGPO, large commercial cities, in Che-keung province. They come also from HAILAM or HAIAN, which is subject to Canton. The average number of these vessels (some of which are of large burden, 300 to 400 tons), is 20 arriving here annually. The cargoes they bring are chiefly intended for the consumption of the numerous Chinese who are settled in Dutch and English colonies in these parts, as well as in the native states, and are re-exported thence by smaller vessels, to places where they may be mostly required. The only articles they bring, in any way required by Europeans, are raw silks, nankeens, and teas. These vessels likewise convey a large number of emigrants from China every year, probably from 4,000 to 5,000, most of whom, however, proceed to other places soon after landing here.

The ports in Cochin-China and Cambodia, from which similar vessels arrive, are KANOKO and LOKNOI, in Cambodia; and TUNON and SAHOUN, in Cochin-China Proper. ANAM or ANAM, from which many vessels report themselves to come, is but a general name for either Cochin-China or Tonquin. The average number of vessels arriving from these ports are 40 annually, bringing, principally, sugar, rice, oil, salt, and some other articles of minor importance. These vessels are usually smaller than the Chinese and Malacca junks.

The total imports from Cochin-China during the official year 1842-43 were valued at 254,785 dollars. They consisted of raw silk, 149 piculs; rice, 12,010 piculs; sugar, 27,540 piculs; and salt, 15,120 piculs. The gross exports during this period were dollars 227,844, consisting chiefly of cotton, 1,084 bales; nutmegs, British cotton goods, 3,088 pieces; opium, 293 chests; and woollens, to the value of 25,378 dollars. During the same time 42 boats, equal to 4,195 tons, arrived here from Cochin-China.

It was noticed in last year's report how extremely liable the Cochin-Chinese boats were to be plundered, and their crews murdered or made slaves of, by Malay and Chinese pirates, in consequence of their being entirely defenceless. During the past year many instances have occurred which too well justify the statement. It is to be hoped that the measures which government are contemplating may have the effect during the approaching season of materially diminishing, if not altogether checking the evil, at least in the vicinity of our shores.

BANKOK and CHANTHUN are the only two ports in Siam of any note, and from these about 30 to 40 junks and topsas arrive annually. They are manned and owned almost entirely by Chinese residing in Siam, and bring, chiefly, sugar, rice, oil, iron pans, sticklac, gamboge, salt, Indigo, paddy, tobacco, and sugar-wind.

We have had too frequent occasion to notice the depredations and cruelties which every class of vessels from the places above mentioned have suffered at the hands of pirates every year, on their way to this port, which certainly contributes to check an increase of trade with the countries they come from.

The ports on the east coast of the Peninsula are SINGORA and CALANTAN, subject to Siam; and TRINGIANG, KEMAMAN and PAHANG, independent states. There are other ports on this coast, but of little note; namely, DUNGOON, ENLUI, PAKOH, S'deelee, and Teluban. The produce usually brought here by junks and other craft from those first mentioned consists chiefly of tin, gold dust, pepper, Malay sarongs and trousers, bees' wax, hides, elephants' teeth. Junks occasionally touch at these ports, and we sometimes have the produce of Siam and China brought here from them. The average number of craft arriving thence may be about 120 or 130 annually.

Borneo.—The imports into Singapore from Borneo in 1842-43 consisted of antimony ore, 7,478 piculs; gold dust, 4,537 bunkals, valued at 126,652 dollars; rattans, 9,050 piculs; specie, 7,395 dollars, &c. The antimony ore comes principally from Sarawak, where it is said Mr. Brooke has a monopoly of the trade. The exports for the year 1842-43 amounted to 236,637 dollars, showing a decrease of 22,311 dollars. The most important were British cotton goods, 3,358 corges and 16 dozen; opium, 227 chests; tea, 1,928 boxes and 82 piculs; and specie equal to 34,393 dollars.

During the year 1842-43, 84 boats, equal to 2,701 tons, arrived at this port from Borneo.

The ports in Borneo, from which vessels report themselves, are BANJERMASIN, BALUBANGAN, HUNDAI, LUTTI, MAMPAWA, MATTAN, PONTIANAR, PARRIB, PERGOTAN, SARAWAK, SAMBAS, SUCCADANA, PRINTI, RATULICHEN, HURULAN, BINTOLOO, CALAKAK, COTI-RINGIN, COOBOO, CHINKOI, KAYONG, MONTRAK, NAKAH, MAHO, OYAK, PAMBUNGG, SADOON, SAMBIT, TETRANG, and TAMAK DARA. Some of these ports are well known; but of others we know little except the names. Those with which trade is principally

* The places mentioned in this statement, of which the names are in capitals, are either well known to Europeans by long report or actual intercourse; while those in Italics remain, so far as we have ascertained, not only unvisited by, but are only recently known by name to them; few or none of them earlier than the foundation of this settlement.

that year, equal to 25,975,000 lbs., which, estimating each adult to consume 730 lbs. per annum, would furnish a supply for 35,383 adults. The whole population of Singapore is supposed to be nearly 80,000.

Piracy in the Eastern Seas.— We regret to have to state that piracy has been of late years very frequent in the seas to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, and even in the Straits themselves. It has always, it is true, prevailed to a less or greater extent in the Eastern Seas; but latterly the number of pirates has rapidly increased, and they have prosecuted their depredations with a boldness and success that require immediate attention. In so far as we can judge from the statements in the Singapore and Canton papers, we seem, to say the least of it, to have manifested the most singular indifference to the spread of this great and growing evil. In 1824, we bound ourselves by treaty with the Dutch to co-operate with them for the suppression of piracy in the Eastern Seas. It is affirmed that, until very recently, we did little or nothing towards the fulfilment of this engagement, though we are far more interested in the suppression of piracy than any other people. Hitherto the trade of Singapore has chiefly suffered from piratical attacks; but, besides waylaying the smaller junks and ships of the Chinese, Siamese, &c., the pirates, emboldened by impunity, have, within these half dozen years, attacked some British ships in the Straits of Malacca, and actually captured some ships in the seas more to the eastward, inflicting the most horrid barbarities on the unhappy passengers and crews. The Andromache ship of war destroyed in June, 1836, a nest of pirates: but, without the employment of armed steam-boats to assist the other vessels, the nuisance will not be suppressed; and it is at this moment carried on to a great extent from sundry ports on the coast of Borneo and elsewhere. In fact, so late as June last (1843), H. M. Ship Dido fell in with and destroyed a nest of pirates in one of the ports of Borneo. But an example of this sort, if not vigorously followed up, is of little use. This, however, is a matter of more importance, perhaps, than is commonly supposed. We believe we are within the mark when we affirm that from sixteen to eighteen millions' worth of British property (including the trade between India and Canton) is annually conveyed through the Straits of Malacca and the other Eastern Seas infested by pirates. The trade from England to China, already of vast importance, and now increasing more rapidly, perhaps, than any other department of our commerce, is wholly carried on through the channels referred to; and, as we do not hesitate to send powerful squadrons to secure less valuable interests in other quarters, it is not easy to see why we should not send some half-dozen war steamers to protect this great and growing trade, as well as that which we carry on with the Philippine Islands, New South Wales, &c., from the depredations of a piratical banditti. Nothing but the employment of steamers will be able effectually to abate the evil of piracy. The infinite number of small islands in the Eastern Seas, the difficulty of their navigation, and our little acquaintance with any but the principal lines of intercourse, afford the greatest facilities for the escape of pirates from ordinary cruisers. But steam ships of small draught of water could follow them into their haunts; and the pirates would not be able to escape from them, as they frequently do from sailing vessels, by taking to their oars while their pursuers are becalmed. Except when defending our own shores, the navy is never so legitimately employed as in the defence and extension of commerce. Its protection is one of the most important duties which government has to discharge; and, considering the immense naval force at our disposal, it may well excite astonishment that piracy in the Eastern Seas— one of the great highways by which commerce is carried on— should have been allowed to attain to any considerable magnitude, and that the reiterated complaints of the merchants and others, who have suffered by its prevalence, should have been so little attended to. A very little outlay on the part of government might make, in so far at least as piracy is concerned, the navigation of the Eastern Seas quite as safe as that of the Channel; and the advantages thence resulting to our trade would, in a very short period, far more than counterveil the little sacrifice required at the outset.

Besides putting down piracy in the Eastern Seas, government should take the necessary measures for obtaining accurate information with respect to them, and the ports and countries to which they afford access. We know *very little* indeed of many, or rather, we should say, of most, of the islands to the east of Malacca; and yet several of them are of great extent, and they all abound in valuable products; and might, it is probable, were we better acquainted with their ports and capabilities, furnish the means of carrying on an advantageous commerce. Had utility been at all attended to in such matters, the exploration of New Guinea, and of the seas and numberless islands in its vicinity, would have taken precedence of many late expeditions. We subjoin

A Statement of the Prices of the Principal Articles of Eastern Produce at Singapore on the 12th of October, 1843, from the *Singapore Free Press* of that Date.

In this port there are no duties on imports and exports, and vessels of every nation are free of all charges. Accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, divided into cents. The usual credit on sales is as follows:— Europe goods, 3 months; Indian and China goods, 2 months; opium, 2 months. The best article is frequently sold for cash. Produce is generally bought for cash.

The common weight is the picul of 135½ lbs. avoirdupois.

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divided into 100 catties. Salt and rice are sold by the coyan of 40 piculs. Java tobacco, by the coyan of 40 baskets. Bengal rice, wheat, and gram, by the bag containing 2 Bengal mounds. Indian piece goods, by the coyan of 20 pieces. Gold and silver thread, by the catty of 20 dollars weight. Gold dust, by the bantak, which weighs 2 dollars, or equal to 500 grains (170).

Produce of India, China, Java, &c.

	Prices.
	Sp. Dollars.
Arrack, Batavia	per 80 gallons 10
Annulmy ore	per picul 50
Bees' wax	52 to 55
Benjamin, 1st sort	55 57
2d sort	5 13
inferior	1 50
Betel nut	22 23
Cloves	74 74
Cabets	2 23
China root	55
Camphar, China	31
Cassia lignea	11 5
Coffee, Java	Nominal
Bugis	3
Padang	3 31
Kempas	3 31
Cordage, coir	34
Manilla	40
Cotton, Bombay, 1st quality	3 cwt. nett 15 18
ditto, inferior	5 16
Bengal, 1st quality	500 lbs. nett 13 16
ditto, inferior	12 13
Madras, Timmewly	17 13
ditto, western	12 13
Cotton Goods.	
Bengal, sarabha 39 to 40 in cogy	20 24
gurraha, large	14 15
ditto, small	6 7
chintzes, star pattern	7 7
ditto, large, ditto	14 15
sail canvas	per boll 24 4
Bugis sarong	per cogy 14 80
Hali, ditto	5 6
China muslin, junk	per box of 100 pieces 5 6
Cutch, Persa	per picul 11 13
Dragon's blood, red	20 30
ditto, lump	5 13
Ebony, Mauritius	100
Ceylon	100
Elephant's teeth, large	100 110
small	60 80
Gram	per bag 5
Gambler	per picul 1 85
Gambouze	24 60
Galingguy	24
Gold dust, Pahang	per bantak 30 51
other sorts	20 25
Gummy bags	per 100 7 74
Hemp, Manilla	per picul 4 42

	Prices.
	Sp. Dollars.
Hides, buffalo	—
Indigo, liquid, Manilla	41 50 5
Java and Siam	—
Mycer of pearl shells	13
Nice	70 75
Nutmegs	40 50 6
Oil, coccos nut, Manilla	—
Siam	per jar 74
Opium, Patna	per chest 260
Malwa	230
Turkey	per picul 260
Pepper, black, west coast	4 48
Deshi	1 40
Borneo	—
Rhio and Singapore	3 85
white	7 85
long	—
Rhubarb, inferior, \$18 to \$20, good \$60 per picul.	11 8
Rice, Bengal	per bag 28
Java and Siam, fine white	per koyan 28
Ditto, middling	25
Ditto, cargo	24
Maulmain	40 45
Rattana, Benjarmsaing	per picul 24
other sorts	24 28
second	5 4
Cochin-China	4 4
Java	4 44
Manilla muscovado	2 5 5
Ditto, clayed	2 5 5
Singapore	—
Sago, peevi, large grain	24 250
small grain	24
flour	1 90 2 10
Salt, Siam \$42, Cochian-China \$6 to \$10 per koyan.	—
Saltpeetre	per picul 5 68
Sandal wood	5 6
Supan wood, Manilla	11 13
Siam	—
Stick lac, Siam, without stick	50 7
Silk, raw, Canton, No. 5,	per 95 catties 230
inferior	230
junk	—
Segara, No. 5, superior	per 1,000 24
4, superior	24
5, superior	per 30 catty boxes 4 5
Two, junk	—
best chops	5 5
Tin, Straits	per picul 12 15
Bence	12 15
Tobacco, China, good	per bantak 11 12
Java	per 40 baskets 110 120
Ball	per picul 3
Tortoiseshell	—
per picul	30 400
Wheat, Bengal	per bag 24

SINOPE, a town of Asia Minor, on the S. coast of the Black Sea, lat. 42° 30' N., lon. 35° 9' 45" E. Population uncertain, probably from 8,000 to 10,000. Sinope is situated on a low narrow isthmus, connecting the high rocky promontory of Ada with the main land. Its port, which is the best on this coast, on the south side of the town, is protected from the N. and N.E. gales by the isthmus and promontory already mentioned. Ships anchor within 1/2 mile of the town, in from 13 to 17 fathoms; or nearer to it, in from 5 to 7 fathoms. There is a roadstead on the north side of the isthmus, but it is open and exposed. Sinope is one of the principal stations of the Turkish fleet; and there are docks and arsenals for its accommodation and outfit. Its exports are considerable, the principal being timber, salt, cordage, fish oil, &c.

In ancient times, Sinope was a city of great wealth, magnitude, and importance. It was the birthplace of Diogenes the Cynic; and Mithridates made it the capital of his dominions. After its conquest by the Romans under Lucullus, it became the seat of a colony; and continued for a lengthened period to enjoy a good deal of consideration. Should civilization and the arts once more revive in the ancient Pontus, and the other countries to the south of the Black Sea, the excellence of its port could not fail to restore to Sinope some portion of its former grandeur. Even now a considerable intercourse is beginning to take place with the countries E. and S. of Sinope. Diarbeker on the Tigris, in lat. 37° 54' N., lon. 38° 53' 45" E., is one of the principal seats of Eastern commerce; and caravans set out regularly from it for Aleppo, Smyrna, and Constantinople; but any one who consults a map of Asia Minor, and of the contiguous countries, will see at once that Trebizond and the neighbouring ports on the S. E. coast of the Black Sea are the natural channels through which Armenia, Koordistan, and the north-western parts of Persia may best maintain an intercourse with Europe. We shall afterwards show that the danger to vessels in the roads of Trebizond has been very much exaggerated. — (See TREBIZOND.) In the event, however, of the commerce with the countries referred to becoming of any considerable importance, Sinope would be an advantageous *emporion* to which goods might be brought, and whence they might be conveyed in proper vessels, and at proper times, to the other ports. At all events, it is of material importance that a direct intercourse with the southern coast of the Black Sea should be established, and that the trade with it should not be carried on, as hitherto, through Odessa. — (For further particulars as to Sinope, see *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tom. II. pp. 202-212; and *Norie's Sailing Directions for the Black Sea*. See also the article TREBIZOND, in this work.)

SKINS. The term is applied in commercial language to the skins of those animals, as calves, deer, goats, lambs, &c., which, when prepared, are used in the lighter works of bookbinding, the manufacture of gloves, parchment, &c.; while the term hides is applied to the skins of the ox, horse, &c. which, when tanned, are used in the manufacture of shoes, harness, and other heavy and strong articles. Lamb and kid skins are principally

used in the glove manufacture; 120 skins being supposed to produce, at an average, 18 dozen pairs of gloves.

Account of the Quantities of the different Kinds of Skins Imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 6 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries whence they were brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Caland kip (untanned) —						
Russia	27,005	26,417	17,878	18,809	20,288	22,008
Denmark	2,211	2,104	1,000	1,000	1,001	1,107
Germany	2,551	2,551	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Holland	10,481	9,134	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Other countries	4,738	2,710	8,000	8,000	8,000	4,907
	418	859	170	170	150	859
Total	48,350	46,364	27,148	28,779	31,349	40,118
Retained for home consumption	49,060	28,384	27,148	28,079	27,920	46,808
Deer (dressed) —						
U. States of America	104,139	138,782	171,874	109,000	406,908	128,970
Other countries	325,377	8,824	4,914	1,100	2,077	81,068
Total	315,816	147,606	176,788	110,100	411,786	191,038
Retained for home consumption	171,431	57,503	129,226	51,269	90,481	100,991
Goat (dressed) —						
Norway	10,731	8,070	6,760	7,800	8,801	6,158
Prussia	10,868	11,646	11,000	11,000	11,000	11,000
Germany	19,482	18,165	18,000	18,000	18,000	18,000
Holland	12,014	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000
France	89,111	89,111	89,111	89,111	89,111	89,111
Portugal Proper	25,775	25,775	25,775	25,775	25,775	25,775
Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco	98,637	108,220	108,220	108,220	108,220	108,220
Cape of Good Hope	116,080	91,811	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	16,102	16,102	16,102	16,102	16,102	16,102
Other countries	5,561	8,728	10,758	10,758	10,758	10,758
Total	413,756	558,310	518,311	511,167	557,436	649,212
Retained for home consumption	393,544	425,201	466,341	470,728	524,208	478,001
Kid (undressed) —						
Italy and the Italian Islands	180,350	849,924	81,000	116,887	81,000	64,010
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	5,567	12,533	17,000	17,000	17,000	17,000
Other countries	18,408	18,130	18,130	18,130	18,130	18,130
Total	196,325	870,587	116,130	151,017	116,130	119,140
Retained for home consumption	155,210	417,014	116,000	107,001	106,811	92,947
Kid (dressed) —						
France	551,582	700,776	668,806	669,000	671,000	644,431
Other countries	30,037	21,684	24,047	24,000	24,000	24,000
Total	580,619	722,460	692,853	693,000	695,000	668,431
Retained for home consumption	500,469	720,104	681,881	681,000	681,000	646,671
Lamb (undressed) —						
Germany	123,946	98,071	85,819	83,999	98,409	8,852
France	314,865	30,332	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Italy and the Italian Islands	4,132,687	1,800,000	1,100,000	1,100,000	1,100,000	1,100,000
Turkey	138,848	54,493	118,000	118,000	118,000	118,000
Other countries	74,205	142,000	110,000	9,000	42,000	568,028
Total	2,781,841	1,648,894	1,801,819	1,801,000	1,779,409	1,410,900
Retained for home consumption	4,692,724	1,664,000	1,227,705	1,210,478	1,094,000	1,007,758
Seal (undressed) —						
British North American Colonies	113,736	869,504	844,664	808,073	803,000	879,808
The whale fisheries	1,212	10,509	89,388	1,400	1,170	19,117
Other countries	68,501	32,401	61,100	19,800	10,120	14,337
Total	147,550	891,107	935,152	829,273	814,290	913,262
Retained for home consumption	113,744	801,000	870,700	818,231	800,000	801,718

SLATE (ROOF), (Ger. *Schiefer*; Fr. *ardoise*; It. *Lavagna, Lantra*; Sp. *Pizarra*), a fossil or compact stone (*argillaceous schistus*) that may be readily split into even, smooth, thin laminae. There are several varieties of this valuable mineral, the prevailing colours being grey, blue, and brown. But the tints are very various; and slates are often marked with streaks of a different colour from the ground. Slate is principally used in the covering of houses, for which purpose it is infinitely superior to thatch or tiles, and is far less expensive than lead. Good roofing slate should not absorb water; and it should be so compact as not to be decomposed by the action of the atmosphere. When properly selected, roof slates are of almost perpetual duration; but those which are spongy and imbibe moisture speedily get covered with moss, and require, at no very distant period, to be renewed.

The use of slates in the covering of houses is entirely European. From the Hellespont to China inclusive there is not a single slated house; and this does not arise from any want of slate, which is as abundant in Asia as in Europe.

Slates carried by land have never been subjected to any duty; but those carried coastwise were, until 1831, charged with duties varying according to their size and species. The injurious effect of this tax, and the impolicy of laying any duty on an article of this sort, are obvious. The revenue it produced was quite inconsiderable, not exceeding 35,000*l.* a year. It was repealed at the same time as the duty on coal carried coastwise.

Since the repeal of the duty, the consumption of slate has been materially increased; and it now

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extensively employed for various purposes to which it was not formerly made applicable, such as the flooring of warehouses and vaults, the paving of streets, the formation of cisterns, the covering of worn or decayed floors, and of the walls of houses in exposed situations, &c. The slate used for these purposes is cut by the circular saw into pieces of from $\frac{1}{4}$ an inch to 2 inches thick. Many hundred tons have been used in the course of the last few years in paving, flooring, &c. at the London Docks, and other large establishments.

The principal slate quarries in Great Britain are in Caernarvonshire. Those belonging to Mr. Pennant (formerly Lord Penrhyn's), near Bangor, employ about 1,500 men and boys, and are the most extensive and valuable in the empire. The other quarries in the same county employ about 1,620 men and boys; and there are some in other parts of Wales. There are also extensive quarries at Ulverstone, in Lancashire; and others, of inferior magnitude, in various parts of Westmoreland and Cumberland.

The principal slate quarries in Scotland are at Easdale and Balschulish, in Argyleshire. Speaking generally, the Scotch quarries do not afford slates of the size and smoothness of those obtained from the Welsh quarries; and the wood-work of the roofs covered with them requires to be stronger.

Roofing slates are of different sizes, and are denominated Imperials, Queens, Princesses, &c. Their price, supposing their quality to be in other respects equal, depends partly on their size and partly on their weight.

SLAVES AND SLAVE TRADE. A slave, in the ordinary sense of the term, is an individual at the absolute disposal of another, who has a right to employ and treat him as he pleases. But the state of slavery is susceptible of innumerable modifications; and it has been usual, in most countries where it has been long established, to limit in various ways the power of the master over the slave. The *slave trade* is, of course, the business of those who deal in slaves.

Origin of Slavery.—A great deal of learning has been employed in tracing the history of slavery, though the subject is still far from exhausted. It seems most probable that it originally grew out of a state of war. In rude uncivilised communities, where the passion of revenge acquires a strength unknown in more advanced states of society, captives taken in war are adjudged to belong to the victors, who may either put them to the sword, or reduce them to a state of servitude. In antiquity, the ideas of war and slavery were inseparable. Probably in very remote ages, prisoners were most commonly put to death; but the selfish gradually predominated over the more passionate feelings, and for many ages it was usual to reduce them to the condition of slaves; being either sold by their captors to others, or employed by them as they might think fit.

The practice of reducing men to a state of slavery, having once begun, was extended in various ways. The progeny of slaves or of women in a state of slavery were slaves; men born free might sell themselves as slaves; and parents had authority, in Judæa and Rome, to dispose of their children for the same purpose.—(*Michaelis on the Laws of Moses*, ii. 163. Eng. ed.) It was the law of Rome, and of most other ancient states, that the persons of debtors who had contracted obligations which they could not discharge, should become the property of their creditors. "*Servi*," says Justinian, "*autem aut nascuntur aut fiunt: nascuntur ex ancillis nostris, fiunt aut jure gentium, id est ex captivitate; aut jure civili, cum liber homo major viginti annos ad pretium participandum esse vendendi passus est.*"—(*Instit.* lib. i. tit. 3.)

Treatment of Slaves.—The treatment of slaves in antiquity, as in more modern times, differed very widely in different countries and periods, and among different classes of slaves in the same country, and at the same time. A great deal also depended on the character of particular masters. Slaves bred up in the house or family of the masters were uniformly treated with greater indulgence than others, and became entitled, by custom, to several important privileges. At Athens, slaves appear to have been better treated than in any other ancient state; and Demosthenes affirms, in his second Philippic, that, "a slave was better off at Athens than a free citizen in many other countries." In republican Rome, the masters had the power of life and death over their slaves, who were often treated with the most detestable barbarity. It was not an uncommon practice to expose old, useless, or sick slaves to starve in an island in the Tiber! We may, as Huene has justly remarked, "imagine what others would practise, when it was the professed maxim of the elder Cato to sell his superannuated slaves at any price, rather than maintain what he esteemed a useless burden."—(*Plutarch, in Vita Catonis*.) *Ergastula*, or dungeons, where slaves were confined and chained at night, and where they were sometimes made to work in the day, were common all over Italy. Columella advises that they be always built under ground—(lib. i. c. 6.); and remains of them are still seen in the lower stories of ancient buildings in Italy and Sicily. Hundreds of slaves were sometimes put to death for the crime of one only; and they were exposed, when they committed any petty fault, to all the violence of the most capricious and unrestrained despotism.

It was not uncommon in the barbarous ages to immolate captives on the tomb of such chiefs as had fallen in battle; and magnificent games were celebrated on these occasions.* The gladiatorial exhibitions, so common at Rome after the Punic wars, seem to have grown out of this practice. These were contests between slaves, denominated gladiators, trained to fight in public for the amusement of a ferocious populace, who took the

* Achilles sacrificed 12 Trojan captives on the tomb of Patroclus.—(*Iliad*, lib. 23.)

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greatest delight in their sanguinary combats. Thousands of unfortunate wretches were annually sacrificed in this inhuman sport. After his triumph over the Dacians, Trajan exhibited spectacles, in which no fewer than 11,000 wild beasts of different kinds were killed, and 10,000 gladiators fought!—(*Adam's Roman Antiquities*, p. 317.)

The cruelties inflicted on the slaves occasioned frequent revolts, attended by the most dreadful excesses. Spartacus, a Thracian captive, destined for the profession of a gladiator, headed a rebellion of gladiators and slaves, which continued for 3 years, and required all the force of the republic to suppress. When finally defeated by Crassus, about 6,000 of his followers were nailed to the cross, in double rows, that extended almost from Capua to Rome.—(*Ferguson, Rom. Republic*, c. 16.) No one acquainted with the manners of the Romans can be surprised at the atrocities of so many of the emperors. The worst of them treated the citizens better than the latter treated the slaves. Humanity could not be looked for in the rulers of a state in which human life was held in contempt, and human suffering made the subject of popular sport.

In consequence partly of their ill usage, and partly of its being accounted cheaper to buy than to breed slaves, vast numbers were annually imported into Italy. Thrace and the countries round the Black Sea furnished large supplies of the best slaves; and numbers were obtained from Egypt, Syria, Britain, Gaul, and other countries. The famous island of Delos, in the centre of the Cyclades, was the greatest slave market of antiquity; as many as 10,000 slaves have been sold there in a single day.—(*Strabo*, lib. xiv.)

It should, however, be observed, that slavery among the ancients was very different from the slavery of modern times, at least from the slavery that exists in the U. States, Cuba, &c., and which did till lately exist in our West India islands. Slaves in antiquity were physically identical with freemen, and were discriminated only by peculiar marks*, or by the character of their employments. It was truly said of them, "*Servi homines sunt, et æque unum lactem biberunt, etiãmi illos mulus fatus oppresserit.*" (*Petronius ad Burm.* cap. 71.) But modern slaves belong to a different variety of the human race; the distinction between them and their masters being obvious and striking. Owing to this difference between the slaves of ancient and modern times, the influence of slavery at the two periods has been materially different. The freemen of antiquity, who were accustomed to tyrannise over persons in all respects (except their social rank) on a level with themselves, could hardly fail to acquire a ferocity of disposition, and coarseness of manner, that either disappear, or are much softened down in a society where all are equal. But such results do not certainly follow to the same, nor perhaps to any extent, from the practice of modern slavery. In this case the masters do not tyrannise over their equals, but over those who differ from the class to which they belong by the broadest and most distinctly marked characters; and their behaviour towards their slaves is found to have very little influence over their behaviour towards their fellow citizens. The white inhabitants of Virginia, for example, are quite as gentlemanlike in their manners, and observant of the respect due to others, as their countrymen of New York or New England. Indeed, if there be any difference between them, it will probably be found to be in favour of the former.

Although, therefore, there can be no doubt that the slavery that existed in the ancient world had a brutalising influence over the manners of the people, and gave them a degree of ferocity to which happily we have long been strangers, it by no means follows that the slavery which prevails in the new world should have the same influence. In the former case, masters and slaves were of the same variety of the species; but in the latter, the masters belong to one variety, and the slaves to a totally distinct, and most probably lower, variety; so that the domination of the one set, and the subjection of the other, partake in some measure of the character of the supremacy exercised by man over the lower animals; and have comparatively little influence over the morals or conduct of the masters.

There can be no manner of doubt that the slavery that existed in the ancient world was unfavourable to the progress of arts and industry. In the most celebrated nations of antiquity, the greater number of mechanical employments were principally carried on by slaves and the dregs of the free population; so that, while the workmen employed in them were without emulation or invention, the employments themselves were looked upon as mean and servile. To such an extent did this prejudice operate, that in Rome, Sparta, and other celebrated states, agriculture and arms were the only occupations that were reckoned worthy of a freeman, or in which he could engage without being degraded.

But the principal difference between the slavery of the ancient and modern world

* Slaves wore their beards and hair long; and when manumitted they shaved their head and put on a cap, which has in consequence become the symbol of liberty. Brutus, after the assassination of Cæsar, coined money, on which the figure of a cap was impressed, to indicate that the people had been rendered free.—(*See Adam's Antiquities*, p. 376.; See, also, *Burlamaqui, Principes du Droit des Gens*, liv. 454., where the reader will remark a singular error.)

consists in the fact that in the former freemen were quite as well suited as slaves for carrying on every art and employment; while in the latter the peculiar constitution of the slaves fit them for employments which, though of the highest importance, cannot be carried on by their masters. The greater intelligence of the whites enables them to exercise a decided superiority over the black or coloured natives of the torrid zone, notwithstanding the latter are incomparably better adapted for the prosecution of those laborious occupations which are indigenous, as it were, to the soil they occupy. It is doubtful whether the constitution of the whites will ever be so accommodated to the climate of the Tropics, as to enable them to engage in that field labour, carried on in the lower and hotter districts (*tierras calientes*), which is congenial to the blacks. At all events, no such accommodation has hitherto taken place; and, therefore, it would appear that some modification of slavery, or that a supply of suitable compulsory labour of some sort or other, is necessary to enable civilised man to occupy, and to turn to a useful account, some of the most fertile and extensive regions of the earth. And hence the propriety of inquiring into the policy of institutions like this, of carefully considering the peculiar conditions or circumstances under which they are to be acted upon. Slavery in Europe may be, and we believe is (notwithstanding the opinion of Michaelis to the contrary), in all respects most objectionable; but it is quite another matter with slavery in Louisiana, Cuba, and Brazil; the circumstances under which they are placed are so very different from ours, that an institution exceedingly inexpedient on this side the Atlantic, may be especially suited to them.

The establishment of Christianity contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else, first to mitigate, and finally to suppress slavery in Europe. But, within no very long period after its abolition had been completely effected in this part of the world, it began to be established in America.

The African Slave Trade was commenced by the Portuguese, in 1442. It was, however, but of trifling extent till the commencement of the 16th century. In consequence, however, of the rapid destruction of the Indians employed in the mines of St. Domingo or Hayti, Charles V. authorised, in 1517, the introduction into the island of African slaves from the establishments of the Portuguese on the coast of Guinea. The concurrence of the emperor was obtained by the intercession of the celebrated Las Casas, bishop of Chiapa, who laboured to protect the Indians by enslaving the Africans; though, as the latter were certainly more vigorous and capable of bearing fatigue than the former, the measure was not in reality so contradictory as it would, at first sight, appear to be. — (*Robertson's Hist. America*, book iii.)

The importation of negroes into the West Indies and America, having once begun, gradually increased, until the traffic became of great extent and importance. Sir John Hawkins was the first Englishman who engaged in it: and such was the ardour with which our countrymen followed his example, that they exported from Africa more than 300,000 slaves between the years 1680 and 1700; and between 1700 and 1786, 610,000 Africans were imported into Jamaica only; to which adding the imports into the other islands and the continental colonies, and those who died on their passage, the number carried from Africa will appear immense. — (*Bryan Edwards, Hist. West Indies*, ii. 64.) The importations by other nations, particularly the French and Portuguese, were also very great.

We do not intend, though the subject be one of the highest interest, to make any lengthened inquiries as to the legitimacy or illegitimacy, the policy or impolicy, of the slave trade. We may, however, shortly observe that there can be no doubt that slavery has always existed in Africa; and it is sufficiently well known that previously to the commencement of the traffic, such of the captives taken in war as could not be advantageously employed as slaves were most commonly put to death; cannibalism, the exposure of infants, and human sacrifices being then also very frequent. The slave trade, by opening a ready and profitable market for slaves, assisted in putting an end to these enormities, though it be, at the same time, true that the desire of profiting by their sale has tempted the petty princes to make war on each other for the chance of making captives, and has given a stimulus to man-stealing and other atrocities. — (*Geog. Dict. art. Africa*.) There can, however, be no reasonable doubt that civilisation has been, on the whole, advanced by the practice of the trade. At all events, no evidence either has been, or, we believe, can be, produced to show that the state of Africa would have been perceptibly improved had the slave trade never been heard of. But it is quite certain, had such been the case, that there would have been a wide difference in the condition of the West Indies, the Southern States of North America, Brazil, &c. It will, we apprehend, be found that the culture of sugar and other great colonial staples cannot be profitably carried on in these countries, nor, perhaps, anywhere within the Tropics, without a supply of compulsory labour of some sort or other (see *antè*, p 324.). Neither, we apprehend, can there be a question that the extensive culture of these staples has added greatly to the comforts and conveniences of the

inhabitants of most civilised countries; and, if this addition to their enjoyments has been effected without injury to the slaves, it will not be so easy a matter as has been supposed to show the impolicy of the trade. But those who inquire dispassionately into the subject will probably come to the conclusion, that, instead of being injured, the slaves have gained by being carried from the Old to the New World. Speaking generally, the negroes are in the lowest state of abasement, possessing merely the rudiments of the most indispensable arts, a prey to the vilest superstition and tyranny, without any tincture of learning, and with little or no regard for the future. The circumstances under which they are placed in their native land may, perhaps, account for the low state in which we find them; but, however explained, the genuine negroes of Africa are admitted, even by those least inclined to depreciate them, to be, for the most part, "either ferocious savages, or stupid, sensual, and indolent."—(*Prichard, History of Man*, ii. 338. 3d ed.)—Excepting the violence done to their habits and inclinations, no one who knows any thing of their state in Africa and in the Western hemisphere can possibly doubt that they have gained most materially by their transference to the latter.

But, supposing their character to be such as represented, still it may be contended that their weakness or inferiority gives the whites no right to lord it over them; to convey them to foreign countries, and to reduce them to a state of bondage; and no doubt it is exceedingly difficult to specify in how far the civilised portion of mankind may be entitled to control those that are decidedly less intelligent and advanced than themselves. That they have done so from the earliest ages, is, however, indisputable; and every one who has any acquaintance, however slight, with the history of society, is aware that the consequences of this control have been in the highest degree advantageous; for, though polished nations have too often abused their superior power and intelligence, still it is abundantly certain that but for their dictating to and subjugating others, half the civilised world would at this moment have been immersed in the grossest barbarism. But without entering into any discussion respecting the application of this principle in the case of Africa, it is enough to know that the Europeans did not originate slavery in that continent; the Africans were enslaved and disposed of as other goods and chattels for centuries before they began to be purchased by the former; and the conduct of the whites is to be determined by the nature of the treatment which the slaves received at their hands.

Now, though it be abundantly certain that this has been on the whole indulgent, it is not to be denied that very many enormities have been perpetrated, which the law should have prohibited and severely punished. The crowding of slaves together in their passage across the Atlantic, and the cruelties which some worthless masters have been accustomed to commit, are of this description. But these outrages are not of the essence of slavery; and they might and should, no doubt, have been suppressed. An institution is not to be confounded with its abuse. The object of the slave trade was to procure a supply of compulsory labourers for the service of the colonists in the West Indies and other tropical countries; but it did not, therefore, follow that the colonists were to be under no restraints either as to the methods by which they sought to procure such bondmen, or as to the power which they might exercise over them.

Neither does it follow, because the slave trade may have been for the general advantage of mankind at a particular period, that it should be indefinitely extended. When as large a supply of negroes has been imported as may be necessary to supply its markets with labour, there can be no good reason for allowing their farther importation into a country, at the same time that there seem to be sundry good reasons why it should be put a stop to. By preventing the importation of fresh slaves, the proprietors may find it for their interest to be more attentive to the condition of those already in their possession than they might otherwise be; for it is evident that in such cases they could only look to the natural increase of their slaves for a supply of labour in future; and that they could not expect to supply by foreign importations the place of those who might perish by bad treatment. On these grounds we are inclined to think that the English and Americans acted with quite as much prudence as humanity, in forbidding, in 1807, the farther importation of slaves into their dominions. Cuba, and perhaps also Brazil, might, it is alleged, advantageously follow their example. The slave population in these countries is now probably large enough to furnish, with proper treatment, an adequate supply of labourers, how rapidly soever we may suppose them to advance in the career of industry.

We have ventured to submit these statements to the consideration of the reader, not because we have any desire to extenuate the evils inseparable from a state of slavery, or the cruelties of which slave-dealers and slave-proprietors may be justly accused. But, after making every allowance for these drawbacks, it is evident, if the preceding statements be well founded, that slavery as it exists in modern times, and still more as it might be established, is not the unqualified abuse it has uniformly almost been represented. On

the contrary, we are disposed to regard it as being, under proper modifications all but indispensable to the profitable cultivation of the western countries in which it is at present met with. It is to no purpose to say that free labour is cheaper than slave labour. We more than doubt whether, when applied to them, there be any foundation for such a statement; but that is really immaterial, the fact being, that were slavery abolished, few or no free labourers would be found to engage in the great departments of industry carried on in the slave-holding countries. It would, indeed, be a contradiction and an absurdity to suppose that it should be otherwise. In countries with a fruitful soil and under a tropical sun, the principal wants of the inhabitants are supplied with but little exertion, and the *dolce far niente* is their *summum bonum*. In such situations industry is a sickly plant; and instead of employing their surplus time in the production of articles of ostentation and luxury, the inhabitants most commonly waste it in idleness and apathy. Were the slaves completely emancipated in the U. States, Cuba, and Brazil, it is all but certain that the culture of sugar and cotton would be as completely abandoned in them as in Hayti. And if the change were accompanied by a considerable improvement in the condition of the black population, the sacrifice might not, perhaps, be deemed too great. But where is the ground for supposing that such would be the case? Indeed the fair presumption seems to be the other way. Little, at all events, would be gained by turning a laborious, well-fed slave, into an idle, improvident, and perhaps beggarly freeman.

There may, however, be such a thing in a colony as a *quasi* emancipation of slaves, or, which is the same thing, regulations may be enacted giving the slaves freedom, and at the same time excluding them from the possession of that which can alone make that freedom of any practical value. Speaking generally, the blacks in our colonies have little or no capital; and, therefore, they must live either by occupying patches of land on their own account, or by working for others. And provided they be debared, by regulations effectual to their object, from acquiring or occupying small portions of land, they will necessarily be compelled, how much soever they may dislike it, to engage as labourers on the estates of others. This, however, is probably the very worst sort of compulsory labour. It gives the blacks enough of freedom to make them in the last degree dissatisfied with the regulations by which it is sought practically to nullify it, and makes them at once discontented, refractory, and idle. But, wretched as it is, we believe that at this moment the obstacles that have been and may be thrown in the way of the blacks obtaining patches of land are the principal dependence of the colonists in our West India islands for the continued culture of colonial staples!

Without entering farther on a subject which would require a long essay for its discussion, we may remark that a good work on the subject of slavery is a desideratum which will not, probably, be speedily supplied. In this country it has been treated as if it were everywhere the same, and as if it were in every case an unmixed evil, and an outrage on humanity. This, however, is to confound the most obvious distinctions, to substitute abuse for reasoning, assertion for inquiry, and prejudice for principle. Those who inquire dispassionately into the matter will, perhaps, see abundant reason for agreeing in opinion with Michaelis and Grotius (*De Jure Belli*, lib. ii. cap. 27.), that while slavery has its evils, it may also have its advantages; and that if there be countries and states of society in which the former very decidedly preponderate, there are those also in which the preponderance is as certainly on the side of the latter.

Abolition of the Slave Trade. — Notwithstanding the sanction it received from parliament, and the supineness of the public, the slave trade was frequently denounced by distinguished individuals, in this and other countries, as essentially cruel and unjust.

The first motion with relation to it in parliament was made in 1776; but the subject was not taken up systematically till 1787, when a committee was formed, of which Mr. Granville Sharp and Mr. Clarkson, whose names are imperishably associated with the abolition of the slave trade, were members. This committee collected some highly coloured evidence of the enormities produced by the trade, which they circulated throughout the country, and thereby succeeded in making a great impression on the public mind. After a number of witnesses on both sides had been examined before the privy council, Mr. Wilberforce, on the 12th of May, 1789, moved a series of resolutions condemnatory of the traffic. They were supported by Mr. Burke, Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Fox. But, notwithstanding the resolutions were carried, nothing was done to give them effect. The friends of the trade having obtained leave to produce evidence at the bar of the House, contrived to interpose so many delays that the session passed off without any thing being done. In the following sessions the struggle was continued with various success, but without any definite result. At length the triumph of the abolitionists was finally consummated in 1807; a bill for the total and immediate abolition of the slave trade, having been carried in both Houses by immense

majorities, received the royal assent on the 25th of March, being the last act of the administration of Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville.

America abolished the slave trade at the same time as England.

But notwithstanding what had been done, further measures were soon discovered to be necessary. The Spanish and the Portuguese continued to carry on the trade to a greater extent than ever; and British subjects did not hesitate, under cover of their flags, to become partners in their adventures. An effectual stop was put to this practice in 1811, by the enactment of a law introduced by Mr. (now Lord) Brougham, that made trading in slaves punishable by transportation for 14 years, or by confinement to hard labour for a term of not more than 5 years nor less than 3 years. And since that period the British government has zealously exerted itself for the suppression of the slave trade in every part of the world. But, in defiance of its efforts, considerable numbers of slaves still continue to be carried across the Atlantic to Brazil and Cuba, and it will be no easy matter wholly to suppress the trade. Provided, indeed, the great powers were to concede a mutual right of search, and to make the traffic in slaves piracy, it might be effectually put down; but there are all but insuperable prejudices and jealousies in the way of their consenting to adopt such measures. (Mr. Bantline's work on the Slave Trade contains the clearest and best exposition that is anywhere to be found of its rise, progress, and suppression; and of the efforts made by the British government to induce other nations to abandon it.)

The British laws relative to the slave trade were consolidated by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 113. But, as the greater part of this act was superseded by the statute for the extinction of slavery (1 & 4 Will. 4. c. 73.), we shall merely lay before the reader the clauses still in force relating to dealing in slaves.

Dealing in Slaves in the High Seas, &c. to be deemed piracy.—And if any subject or subjects of his Majesty, or any person or persons residing or being within any of the dominions, forts, settlements, factories, or territories, now or hereafter belonging to his Majesty, or being in his Majesty's occupation or possession, or under the government of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies, shall, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, after the 1st day of January, 1805, upon the high seas, or in any haven, river, creek, or place, where the admiral has jurisdiction, knowingly and wilfully carry away, enslave, or remove, or aid or assist in carrying away, conveying, or removing, any person or persons as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported or brought as a slave or slaves, into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used, or dealt with as a slave or slaves; or shall, after the said 1st day of January, 1805, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, upon the high seas or within the jurisdiction aforesaid, knowingly and wilfully ship, embark, receive, detain, or confine, or assist in shipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining, on board any ship, vessel, or boat, any person or persons for the purpose of his, her, or their being carried away, conveyed, or removed as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported, or brought as a slave or slaves into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used, or dealt with as a slave or slaves; and in every such case the persons so offending shall be deemed and adjudged guilty of piracy, felony, and robbery, and being convicted thereof shall suffer death without benefit of clergy, — and loss of goods, and chattels, as pirates, felons, and robbers upon the sea ought to suffer. — 49.

Persons dealing in Slaves, or reporting or importing Slaves, &c. guilty of Felony.—And (except in such special cases as are by this act permitted) if any persons shall deal or trade in, purchase, sell, barter, or transfer, or contract for the dealing or trading in, purchase, sale, barter, or transfer of slaves, or persons intended to be dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, carry away or remove, or contract for the carrying away or removing of slaves or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall import or bring, or contract for the importing or bringing into any place whatsoever, slaves, or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, ship, tranship, embark, receive, detain, or confine on board, or contract for the shipping, transhipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, slaves or other persons, for the purpose of their being imported or brought into any place whatsoever, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall fit out, man, navigate, equip, dispatch, use, employ, let or take to freight or on hire, or contract for the fitting out, manning, navigating, equipping, dispatching, using, employing, letting, or taking to freight or on hire, any ship, vessel, or boat, in order to accomplish any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully lend or advance, or become security for the loan or advance of money, goods, or effects, employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully become guarantee or security, or contract for the becoming guarantee or security, for agents employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or in any other manner to engage or contract to engage, directly or indirectly, therein, as a partner, agent, or otherwise; or shall knowingly and wilfully ship, tranship, aid, or receive or put on board, or contract for the shipping, transhipping, lading, receiving, or putting on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, money, goods, or effects, to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall take the charge or command, or navigate or enter and embark on board, or contract for the taking the charge or command, or for the navigating or entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as captain, master, mate, surgeon, or supercargo, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat is actually employed, or to be in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so take the charge or command, or navigate or enter and embark, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully insure, or contract for the insuring of any slaves, or any property or other subject matter engaged or employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall wilfully and fraudulently forge or counterfeit any

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Seamen, &c. serving on board such Ships guilty of Misdemeanour. — And (except in such special cases or for such special purposes as are by this act permitted) if any person shall enter and embark on board, or contract for the entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as petty officer, seaman, marine, or servant, or in any other capacity not herein-before specifically mentioned, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat is actually employed, or is in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so enter and embark on board, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; then, and in every such case, the persons so offending, and their procurers, counsellors, aiders, and abettors, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour only, and shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years. — § 11.

Abolition of Slavery. — We have already alluded (*antè*, p. 324.) to the memorable act of 1833, for the ABOLITION OF SLAVERY throughout the British colonies. In enacting this celebrated statute, parliament endeavoured to reconcile the apparently conflicting claims of humanity and justice, by providing for the emancipation of the slaves, without prejudice to the just rights and claims of their proprietors. This was effected by assigning to the latter the sum of twenty millions sterling, which was distributed amongst them on their complying with the provisions of the act. This is, perhaps, the greatest pecuniary sacrifice ever voluntarily made by any nation in vindication of the right of property. But it was not too great for the object in view; for had that right been violated in this instance, a precedent would have been set for its violation in others, and the consequences would have been most disastrous. The measure, in fact, reflects quite as much credit on the wisdom and honesty, as on the generosity, of the British nation.

We gave, in the previous edition of this work, an abstract of this celebrated statute, to which we beg to refer the reader who may wish to become minutely acquainted with its provisions. It is sufficient, now, to mention that it enacted that slavery should cease in all our possessions on the 1st of August, 1834; when the slaves were to become apprenticed labourers, their final and complete emancipation taking place partly on the 1st of August, 1838, and partly on the 1st of August, 1840. But a clamour having been raised against the duration of the apprenticeship, its period was shortened, and the blacks became universally free in 1838.

Distribution of Slave Compensation. — The commissioners for the apportionment of the 20,000,000*l.* granted by parliament as compensation to slave owners, under the act 3 & 4 Will. 4, cap. 73, issued the following table, showing the average value of a slave in each colony; the number of slaves in each; the total value of the slaves, supposing the annual value of each were realised; and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* received by each colony.

Colony.	Average Value of a Slave from 1822 to 1830.			Number of Slaves by the last Registration in this Country.	Relative Value of the Slaves.			Proportion of the 20,000,000 <i>l.</i> to which each Colony is entitled.			
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	
Bermuda	27	4	11½	4,803	114,527	7	5½	56,581	7	0½	41
Bahamas	20	18	9½	9,705	290,573	15	3½	129,340	7	5½	47
Jamaica	44	15	2½	311,692	13,951,139	2	3	5,161,927	5	10½	58
Honduras	120	4	7½	1,920	230,811	0	0	101,808	19	7	52
Virgin Islands	31	16	1½	5,192	165,143	9	2	72,910	8	5½	76
Antigua	32	12	10½	29,537	954,198	0	10½	425,866	7	0½	15
Montserrat	36	17	10½	6,355	231,496	8	0½	105,628	19	5	38
Nevis	39	3	11½	8,782	341,893	6	3½	151,007	2	11½	56
St. Christopher's	39	8	10½	20,660	750,840	7	1	351,030	10	7½	52
Dominica	43	8	7½	14,384	604,715	0	0	275,923	18	7½	50
Barbadoes	47	1	3½	82,807	3,807,270	19	0½	1,721,345	19	7	87
Grenada	53	5	8	63,532	1,395,084	18	0	616,164	17	7	53
St. Vincent's	58	6	8	22,997	1,341,491	13	4	592,508	18	0½	53
Tobago	45	12	0½	11,624	529,511	16	2½	274,064	4	11½	55
St. Lucia	56	18	7	12,574	759,800	10	4	335,657	15	11½	59
Trinidad	105	4	5½	22,359	2,352,655	18	0½	1,039,119	1	3½	11
British Guiana	114	11	5½	84,315	9,749,047	13	5½	4,297,117	10	6	50
Cape of Good Hope	73	9	11	38,427	2,853,224	7	1	1,312,401	0	0	76
Mauritius	59	14	3	68,613	4,785,183	15	2	2,142,632	10	11½	56
				780,993	45,281,738	15	10½	20,000,000	0	0	0

SMALTZ, or SMALT (Ger. *Schmelz*; Du. *Smalt*; Fr. *Smalt*; It. *Smalto azzurro*, *Smaltino*; Sp. *Esmalte*, *Azul azur*; Rus. *Lasor*), an oxide of cobalt, melted with siliceous earth and potash. It is a sort of glass, of a beautiful deep blue colour; and being ground very fine, is known by the name of powder blue. The colour of smaltz is not affected by fire; and it is consequently in great demand in the painting of earthenware. It is also employed in the colouring of paper, and for other purposes in the arts. Beckmann has proved that the process used in the preparation of smaltz was invented about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century; and that the blue

glass of the ancients owes its colour, not to the presence of cobalt or of smalts, but to that of iron. — (*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. ii. art. Cobalt.)

Smalts is principally manufactured in Germany and Norway. Of 118,888 lbs. imported into Great Britain in 1840, 97,751 lbs. came from Norway, and the remainder from Germany and Holland. The entries of smalts for home consumption have latterly decreased. In 1843 they amounted to 148,470 lbs.

SMUGGLING, the offence of importing prohibited articles, or of defrauding the revenue by the introduction of articles into consumption, without paying the duties chargeable upon them. It may be committed indifferently either upon the excise or customs revenue.

Origin and Prevention of Smuggling. — This crime, which occupies so prominent a place in the criminal legislation of all modern states, is wholly the result of vicious commercial and financial legislation. It is the fruit either of prohibitions of importation, or of oppressively high duties. It does not originate in any depravity inherent in man; but in the folly and ignorance of legislators. A prohibition against importing a commodity does not take away the taste for it; and the imposition of a high duty on any article occasions a universal desire to escape or evade its payment. Hence the rise and occupation of the smuggler. The risk of being detected in the clandestine introduction of commodities under any system of fiscal regulations may always be valued at a certain average rate; and wherever the duties exceed this rate, smuggling immediately takes place. Now, there are plainly but two ways of checking this practice,—either the temptation to smuggle must be diminished by lowering the duties, or the difficulties in the way of smuggling must be increased. The first is obviously the more natural and efficient method of effecting the object in view; but the second has been most generally resorted to, even in cases where the duties were quite excessive. Governments have uniformly almost consulted the persons employed in the collection of the revenue with respect to the best mode of rendering taxes effectual; though it is clear that the interests, prejudices, and peculiar habits of such persons utterly disqualify them from forming a sound opinion on such a subject. They cannot recommend a reduction of duties as a means of repressing smuggling and increasing revenue, without acknowledging their own incapacity to detect and defeat illicit practices; and the result has been, that, instead of ascribing the prevalence of smuggling to its true causes, the officers of customs and excise have almost universally ascribed it to some defect in the laws, or in the mode of administering them, and have proposed repressing it by new regulations, and by increasing the number and severity of the penalties affecting the smuggler. As might have been expected, these attempts have, in the great majority of cases, proved signally unsuccessful. And it has been invariably found, that no vigilance on the part of the revenue officers, and no severity of punishment, can prevent the smuggling of such commodities as are either prohibited or loaded with oppressive duties. The smuggler is generally a popular character; and whatever the law may declare on the subject, it is ludicrous to expect that the bulk of society should ever be brought to think that those who furnish them with cheap brandy, geneva, tobacco, &c. are guilty of any very heinous offence.

“To pretend,” says Dr. Smith, “to have any scruple about buying smuggled goods, though a manifest encouragement to the violation of the revenue laws, and to the perjury which almost always attends it, would, in most countries, be regarded as one of those pedantic pieces of hypocrisy, which, instead of gaining credit with anybody, seems only to expose the person who affects to practise them to the suspicion of being a greater knave than most of his neighbours. By this indulgence of the public, the smuggler is often encouraged to continue a trade, which he is thus taught to consider as, in some measure, innocent; and when the severity of the revenue laws is ready to fall upon him, he is frequently disposed to defend with violence what he has been accustomed to regard as his just property; and from being at first rather imprudent than criminal, he, at last, too often becomes one of the most determined violators of the laws of society.”— (*Wealth of Nations*, p. 406.)

To create by means of high duties an overwhelming temptation to indulge in crime, and then to punish men for indulging in it, is a proceeding completely subversive of every principle of justice. It revolts the natural feelings of the people; and teaches them to feel an interest in the worst characters — for such smugglers generally are — to espouse their cause, and avenge their wrongs. A punishment which is not proportioned to the offence, and which does not carry the sanction of public opinion along with it, can never be productive of any good effect. The true way to put down smuggling is to render it unprofitable; to diminish the temptation to engage in it; and this is not to be done by surrounding the coasts with cordons of troops, by the multiplication of oaths and penalties, and making the country the theatre of ferocious and bloody contests in the field, and of perjury and chicanery in the courts of law; but by repealing prohibitions, and reducing duties, so that their collection may be enforced with a moderate degree of vigilance; and that the forfeiture of the article may be a sufficient penalty

upon the smuggler. It is in this, and in this only, that we must seek for an effectual check to illicit trafficking. Whenever the profits of the fair trader become nearly equal to those of the smuggler, the latter is forced to abandon his hazardous profession. But so long as prohibitions or oppressively high duties are kept up, or, which is, in fact, the same thing, so long as *high bounties* are held out to encourage the adventurous, the needy, and the profligate, to enter on this career, we may be assured that armies of excise, and custom-house officers, backed by the utmost severity of the revenue laws, will be insufficient to hinder them.

Smuggling in France and England.—The Report of Mr. Villiers (now Lord Clarendon) and Dr. Bowring, on the commercial relations between France and Great Britain, contains some curious and instructive details as to the smuggling carried on between them. They afford the most satisfactory proofs of the incapacity of restrictions and prohibitions to secure a real monopoly of any extensive market; and show that their principal effect is to promote illicit traffic; and to make that ingenuity and invention be exerted in devising means to defeat and elude the law, which, under a more liberal system, would be exerted to improve the methods of production. The introduction of prohibited goods is more easily effected by land than by sea; and smuggling into France is, in consequence, carried on principally through her north and east frontiers. Considerable quantities of prohibited or overtaxed goods are, however, introduced by sea. A regular tariff of risks is established; and persons of undoubted solidity contract, for certain premiums, which for the most part are abundantly moderate, to deliver any prohibited article in any part of France. Owing to the system of *octrois*, or of the collection of duties at the gates of large towns, where an inspection of the goods may also be made, the cost of smuggling into Paris and other populous places is considerably greater than that of smuggling into villages. At an average, however, most foreign goods may be delivered in Paris at a charge of from 25 to 30 per cent. *ad valorem* on their real value.

Notwithstanding the advantage of a sea frontier, a coast guard, and an overgrown Custom-house establishment, the facts embodied by Messrs. Villiers and Bowring in their Report show that smuggling about 10 years since, and certainly it has not decreased in the interval, was in quite as flourishing a condition on the shores of England as on the land frontier of France. The premium on the illicit introduction amongst us of prohibited or overtaxed goods varies from 12 to 40 per cent. *ad valorem*, according to the description of the article. The parties employing the smugglers run no risk. The latter, or their agents, attend regularly upon 'Change; and "it is their constant practice to deposit the value of the goods confided to their care in a banker's acceptance, as a security to the owner!"—(Report, p. 54.) It could hardly, indeed, have been otherwise. Brandy, which is a favourite article for smuggling speculations, may be bought for shipment in France at from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* a gallon. It is highly popular amongst us; but instead of admitting it to consumption under a moderate duty, or even under the high duty of 8*s.* or 10*s.*, we load it with the oppressive and exorbitant duty of 22*s.* 6*d.*; that is, with a duty varying from 450 to 650 per cent. *ad valorem*! Had those who originally imposed this duty, and those by whom it has been kept up, been deeply interested in smuggling adventures, their conduct would have been intelligible; but as no such excuse can be made for them, it has been in the last degree irrational and absurd. The temptation to the illicit introduction of brandy, occasioned by the exorbitancy of the duty, has roused all the energies of the smuggler, who has defeated the utmost vigilance of the revenue officers, and eluded or defied the multiplied pains and penalties of the customs laws! Messrs. Villiers and Bowring estimated, from a comparison of the shipments of different articles from France for England with the imports into the latter, and other authentic data, that the total amount of duties evaded by the fraudulent importation of overtaxed French articles (exclusive of tobacco, whole cargoes of which are sometimes introduced into Ireland) into this country amounts to about 800,000*l.* a year.—(p. 54.) Of this sum, the loss on brandy makes by far the largest item; and is said to be "*considerably more than 500,000*l.**"—(p. 57.) Latterly, however, we incline to think that the smuggling of silks, gloves, ladies' shoes, and such like articles, has been carried to a still greater extent than the smuggling of brandy. But, whether this be so or not, it is plain that duties which exceed the cost of smuggling are practically useless as a means of raising anything like their proper amount of revenue: they are so, however, in a far greater degree than appears even from the above statements; for, in addition to the vast quantity of overtaxed articles clandestinely introduced, and on which a reasonable duty would be paid, they occasion the overloading of the market with spurious, counterfeit articles, by which the public health as well as the revenue is materially injured. Nor is this all. In order to render oppressive duties productive of any revenue, it is necessary to organise and keep constantly on foot a very numerous and costly customs establishment. It is abundantly certain that we lose, by the clandestine importation of silks, brandy, Geneva, and tobacco, from France, Bel-

gium, and Holland, above 2,000,000*l.* a year of revenue; and it is admitted, on all hands, that but for the oppressive duties on these articles, a saving of 400,000*l.* a year might be effected in the customs department. Nothing, therefore, can be more futile than to attempt vindictive exorbitant duties on the pretence of their being required to keep up the revenue. In point of fact, such duties are about the most efficient engines that can be devised for its reduction. The revenue derived from coffee was trebled by reducing the duty from 1*s.* 7*d.* to 6*d.* per lb. — (see *COFFEE*); the revenue derived from British spirits was materially increased by reducing the duty from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* the wine gallon — (see *SHERRIES*); and Mr. Pitt increased the duty derived from brandy, geneva, &c., in 1786, not by adding to, but by taking 50 per cent. from, the duties with which they had previously been loaded! There cannot, indeed, be the shadow of a doubt that the revenue derived from brandy and geneva would be very largely increased by reducing the duties to 8*s.* or 10*s.* a gallon. A measure of this sort, coupled as it should be with a reduction of the duties on silks and tobacco (see the articles on them), would do what neither coast guards, preventive services, revenue cruisers, or customs acts will ever do, — it would go far to annihilate smuggling; and would enable the services of a large number of revenue officers to be dispensed with.

But the demoralising influence of an extensive smuggling system is the worst consequence of oppressive duties and prohibitions. They make the smuggler be regarded as a public benefactor, and procure for him the sympathy of all classes, and the strenuous support of those in the lower walks of life. No one acquainted with the state of the peasantry in extensive districts of Kent and Sussex, will believe that it is easy to exaggerate the evils that spring from this source. The whole body of labourers may be said to be in combination with the smugglers; and numbers of them are every now and then withdrawn from their usual employment to assist in their desperate adventures. Lawless, predatory, and ferocious habits are thus widely diffused; and thousands, who, but for this moral contamination, would have been sober and industrious, are trained to despise and trample on the law, and to regard its functionaries as enemies whom it is meritorious to waylay and assault.

Such being the operation and result of those oppressive duties and absolute prohibitions to which smuggling owes its origin, it is not surely too much to hope that the former may be modified, and the latter repealed. When this has been done, smuggling will cease; but not one moment sooner. Till then it will continue, in despite of all the impotent efforts that may be made for its suppression, to scatter its seeds and spread its roots on all sides; impoverishing the fair and enriching the illicit dealer; corrupting revenue officers, and making even the Custom-house the scene of smuggling transactions; emptying the public treasury of the state, and filling its gaols with criminals!

Smuggling by Dogs. — The following extract from the *Report* of Messrs. Villiers and Bowring develops one of those ingenious devices by which mischievous customs laws are sure to be defeated.

"The director of the Custom-house made, on the 30th of July, 1831, some very curious statements to the minister of Finance on the subject of the fraudulent introduction of articles by means of dogs. He says, that since the suppression of smuggling by horses, in 1825, dogs have been employed; that the first attempts were made in the neighbourhood of Valenciennes, and that it afterwards spread to Dunkirk and Charleville; that it has since extended to Thionville and Strasburg; and, last of all, in 1828, to Belgium.

"In 1823, it was estimated that 100,000 kilogrammes of goods were thus introduced into France; in 1826, 187,315; and in 1828, 2,100,000 kilogrammes; all these estimates being reported as rather under the mark: the calculation has been made at 24 kilogrammes 'pro rata' per dog. The dogs sometimes carry 10 kilogrammes, and sometimes even 12. The above estimate supposes that 1 dog in 10 in certain districts, and in others 1 in 20, is killed; but these calculations must necessarily be very vague. In the opinion of many of the custom-house officers, not more than 1 dog in 75 is destroyed, even when notice has been given, and the dogs are expected.

"Tobacco and colonial produce are generally the objects of this illicit trade; sometimes cotton twist and manufactures. In the neighbourhood of Dunkirk, dogs have been taken with burdens of the value of 500, 800, and even 1,200 francs. Publications hostile to the government have not unfrequently been so introduced.

"The dogs which are trained to these 'dishonest habits' are conducted in packs to the foreign frontier; they are kept without food for many hours; they are then beaten and laden, and at the beginning of the night start on their travels. They reach the abodes of their masters, which are generally selected at 2 or 3 leagues from the frontiers, as speedily as they can, where they are sure to be well treated and provided with a quantity of food. It is said they do much mischief by the destruction of agricultural property, inasmuch as they usually take the most direct course across the country. They are dogs of a large size for the most part.

"The *Report* states, that these carrier dogs, being so tormented by fatigue, hunger, and ill usage, and hunted by the custom-house officers in all directions, are exceedingly subject to madness, and frequently bite the officers, one of whom died in consequence in 1829. They have also been trained to attack the custom-house officers in case of interference." — (p. 47.)

Various efforts have been made to suppress this species of smuggling, but without success. It is idle, indeed, to suppose, seeing the vast extent of the land frontier of France, that any means should ever be adopted capable of excluding cheap foreign products in extensive demand. Nothing short of surrounding the country by Bishop Berkeley's wall of brass could accomplish such an object. The director-general of the French customs informed Messrs. Villiers and Bowring, that smuggling was carried

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on to an extent that was *vraiment effrayante*; and he might truly say so, when he estimated that English bobbinet, though prohibited, was introduced into France to the extent of 10,000,000 fr., or 400,000*l.*, a year; and at present bobbinet, and various other prohibited articles of British produce and manufacture, are everywhere met with.

Thus it is that the greatest and most civilised nations of Europe, by upholding vicious and destructive systems of commercial and financial legislation, mutually injure each other. France and England, by their proximity, and the difference and variety of their products, are fitted to carry on a far more extensive and beneficial commerce than is carried on by any other two nations. But, owing to their jealousy of each other's advancement, and the prevalence of unfounded theories as to the causes of national wealth, their intercourse has been subjected to oppressive fetters, and confined within comparatively narrow limits. Such, however, is their peculiar aptitude for supplying each other's wants, that, as has been already seen (*anté*, p. 656.), the trade with France is rapidly growing in magnitude and importance. And there cannot be a doubt, that but for the exorbitant duties, and the restrictions by which it is weighed down and forced into illegitimate channels, it would in no long time become by far the most extensive branch of commerce carried on between any two countries, and the most fruitful source of civilisation and of wealth. So true it is, as was long ago observed, that *Hominis hominum causa: sunt generati ut ipsi inter se aliti prodesse possint. . . Sed ut magnas utilitates adapticari conspatione hominum ac consensu, sic nulla tam detestabilis pestis est, qua non homini ab homine nascatur.* — (*Cic. De Officiis*, lib. ii. c. 5.)

Law as to Smuggling in England.—The penalties imposed on illicit dealing in commodities subject to duties of excise have been specified in the articles on such commodities. The following formidable statute, with its multiplied provisions and penalties, refers entirely to customs duties. The importance of the subject has induced us to give a pretty full abstract of such parts of it as are of general interest.

ACT 8 & 9 VICT. C. 87, FOR THE PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING.

Commencement of the Act.—To commence and be in full operation from the 4th August, 1845. — § 1. *Certain Vessels forfeited.*—If any vessel, not being square-rigged, or any boat, either belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, or having half the persons on board subjects of H. M., shall be found or discovered to have been within 100 leagues of the coast of the U. K.; or if any vessel either belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, or having half the persons on board subjects of H. M., or if any foreign vessel not being square-rigged, or any foreign boat, in which there shall be one or more subjects of H. M., shall be found or discovered to have been within 4 leagues of that part of the U. K., which is between the North Foreland on the coast of Kent and Beachey Head on the coast of Sussex, or within 8 leagues of any other part of the coast of the U. K.; or if any foreign vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the coast of the U. K., or if any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man respectively, or within any bay, harbour, river, or creek of or belonging to any one of the said islands; any such vessel or boat so found or discovered, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, any spirits not being in a cask or other vessel capable of containing liquids of the size or content of 30 gallons at the least, or any tea exceeding 6 lbs. weight in the whole, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 300 lbs. weight of tobacco or snuff at least, or being separated or divided in any manner within any cask or package, or any tobacco stalks, or any cordage or other articles adapted and prepared for stinging or sinking small casks, or any casks or other vessels whatsoever of less size or content than 20 gallons, of the description used for the smuggling of spirits, then and in every such case the said spirits, tea, tobacco, or snuff and tobacco stalks, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and the cordage or other articles, casks, and other vessels of the description aforesaid, and also the vessel or boat, shall be forfeited. — § 2.

Any Vessel or Boat arriving within any Port of the U. K., or of the Isle of Man, having prohibited Goods on board forfeited.—If any vessel or boat whatever shall arrive or shall be found or discovered to have been within any port, harbour, river, or creek of the U. K., or of the Isle of Man, not being driven thereto by stress of weather or other unavoidable accident, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner within any such port, harbour, river, or creek, any spirits not being in a cask or other vessel capable of containing liquids of the size or content of 20 gallons at the least, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 300 lbs. weight of such tobacco or snuff at least, or being separated or divided in any manner within any cask or package, or any tobacco stalks, every such vessel or boat, and such spirits, tobacco, snuff, or tobacco stalks, shall be forfeited: provided always, that if it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that the said spirits, tobacco, snuff, or tobacco stalks were on board without the knowledge or privity of the owner or master of such vessel or boat, and without any willful neglect or want of reasonable care on their or either of their behalfs, then and in such case the said commissioners shall and they are hereby authorized and required to deliver up the said vessel or boat to the owner or master of the same. — § 3.

Certain Cases in which Vessels shall not be forfeited.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to render any vessel of the burthen of 120 tons or upwards liable to forfeiture on account of any tobacco or snuff coming direct from the East Indies, and being in packages each containing 100 lbs. weight of tobacco or snuff at least, or on account of any cigars being in packages each containing 100 lbs. weight of cigars at least, or on account of any tobacco the produce of Mexico, Columbia, the continent of South America, or of the islands of Saint Domingo, or Cuba, coming direct from those places respectively, or from the warehouse in any British possession in America, in packages, each containing 80 lbs. weight of tobacco at least, or on account of any Negrohead tobacco the produce of and coming direct from the U. States of America, in packages, each containing of such tobacco 150 lbs. weight at least, or on account of any tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire, which may be separated or divided in any manner within the outward package, each outward package being a hoghead, cask, chest, or case containing of such tobacco 300 lbs. weight at least, nor to render any vessel of 60 tons burden or upwards liable to forfeiture on account of any tea, or of any spirits in glass bottles, or in stone bottles, not exceeding the size of quart bottles, such tobacco, snuff, cigars, tea, and spirits being really part of the cargo of such vessel, and included in the manifest or other papers of such vessel enumerating or describing the cargo thereof, nor to render any vessel liable to forfeiture on account of any spirits, tea, or tobacco really intended for

the consumption of the seamen and passengers on board during their voyage, and not being more in quantity than is necessary for that purpose, nor to render any vessel liable to forfeiture if really bound from one foreign port to another foreign port, and pursuing such voyage, wind and weather permitting.

—§ 4. *Vessels throwing overboard any Goods during Chase, forfeited.*—When any vessel or boat belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, or having one-half of the persons on board subjects of H. M., shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the U. K., and shall not bring to upon signal made by any vessel or boat in H. M.'s service, or in the service of the revenue, hoisting the proper pendant, under an ensign in order to bring such vessel or boat to, and thereupon chase shall be given, if any person or persons on board such vessel or boat so chased shall, during the chase, or before such vessel or boat shall bring to, throw overboard any part of the lading of such vessel or boat, or shall stave or destroy any part of such lading to prevent seizure thereof, then and in such case the said vessel or boat shall be forfeited; and all persons excepting from such vessels or boats, or from any foreign vessel or boat, during any chase made thereof by any vessel or boat in H. M.'s service, or in the service of the revenue, shall be deemed and taken to be subjects of H. M., unless it shall be proved to the contrary.—§ 5.

Certain Vessels from which Goods are thrown overboard to prevent Seizure to be forfeited.—From and after the passing of this Act every vessel not being square-rigged, and every boat belonging in the whole or in part to H. M.'s subjects, or having on board one or more of H. M.'s subjects, which shall be found or discovered to have been within 4 leagues of that part of the U. K. which is between the North Foreland on the coast of Kent and Beachy Head on the coast of Sussex, or within 8 leagues of any other part of the U. K., from which any part of the lading of such vessel or boat shall have been thrown overboard, or on board which vessel or boat any of the goods on board shall be staved or destroyed, to prevent seizure, shall be forfeited.—§ 6.

Vessels to bring to on being chased by Vessels or Boats of the Navy or in Preventive Service.—In case any vessel or boat liable to seizure or examination under any act or law for the prevention of smuggling shall not bring to when required so to do, on being chased by any vessel or boat in H. M.'s navy having the proper pendant and ensign of H. M.'s ships hoisted, or by any vessel or boat duly employed for the prevention of smuggling having a proper pendant and ensign hoisted, it shall be lawful for the captain, or other person having the charge or command of such vessel or boat, in H. M.'s navy, or employed as aforesaid, (first causing a gun to be fired as a signal,) to fire at or into such vessel or boat; and such captain, master, or other person acting in his aid or assistance, or by his direction, shall be, and he is hereby indemnified and discharged from any indictment, penalty, action, or other proceeding for so doing.—§ 7.

Vessels on Port with a Cargo, and afterwards found in Ballast, &c.—If any vessel or boat whatever shall be found within the limits of any port of the U. K. with a cargo on board, and such vessel or boat shall afterwards be found light or in ballast, and the master is unable to give a due account of the port or place within the U. K. where such vessel or boat shall have legally discharged her cargo, such vessel or boat shall be forfeited.—§ 8.

Regulations to Vessels sailing from Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—No vessel or boat belonging wholly or in part to H. M.'s subjects shall sail from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man without a clearance, whether in ballast or having a cargo, and if with cargo the master shall give bond to H. M. in double the value of the vessel or boat and of the cargo, for duly landing the same at the port for which the vessel clears; and every such vessel or boat not having such clearance, or which having a clearance for a cargo shall be found light or with any part of her cargo discharged before delivery thereof at the port specified in the clearance (unless through necessity or for preservation of the vessel or boat, to be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs), shall be forfeited.—§ 9.

None of H. M.'s Subjects to hoist in their Vessels the Union Jack or any Pendants, &c.—Whereas his late Majesty King George the Third, by his royal proclamation, bearing date the 1st of January, 1801, was pleased to order and appoint what ensign or colours should be hoisted at sea by merchant ships or vessels belonging to any of H. M.'s subjects of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the dominions thereunto belonging, thereby charging and commanding all H. M.'s subjects whatsoever that they should not presume to wear in any of their ships or vessels H. M.'s jack commonly called the Union Jack, nor any pendants nor any such colours as are usually worn by H. M.'s ships, without particular warrant for their so doing from the Lords of the Admiralty for the time being, and also commanding H. M.'s subjects that without such warrant as aforesaid they should not presume to wear on board their ships or vessels any flags, jacks, pendants, or colours made in imitation of or resembling those of H. M., or any kind of pendant whatsoever, or any other ensign than the ensign described in the margin of the said proclamation; be it therefore enacted and declared, that from and after the passing of this Act it shall not be lawful for any of H. M.'s subjects whatsoever to hoist, carry, or wear in or on board any ship, vessel, or fishing boat, or any other vessel or boat whatever, whether merchant or otherwise, belonging to any of H. M.'s subjects, H. M.'s jack commonly called the union jack, or any pendant or any such colours as are usually worn by H. M.'s ships, or any flag, jack, pendant, or colours whatever made in imitation of or resembling those of H. M., or any kind of pendant whatsoever, or any ensign or colours whatever, other than those prescribed by the said proclamation; and that if any person or persons shall nevertheless presume to hoist, carry, or wear in or on board any ship or vessel, fishing boat, or other vessel or boat whatever, belonging to any of H. M.'s subjects, whether the same be merchant or otherwise, H. M.'s jack commonly called the union jack, or any pendant or colours such as are commonly worn by H. M.'s ships, or any jack, flag, pendant, or colours whatever made in imitation of or resembling those of H. M., or any kind of pendant whatsoever, without such warrant as aforesaid, or any other ensign or colours than the ensign or colours prescribed by the said proclamation to be worn, then and in every such case the master or other person having charge of such ship, vessel, or boat, or the owner or owners thereof being on board the same, and every other person so offending, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 500*l.*, to be recovered, with costs of suit, either in the High Court of Admiralty of England, or in any vice-admiralty court in the colonies, or in any of the courts of Queen's Bench or Exchequer at Westminster or Dublin, at the suit of H. M.'s attorney-general, or in the Courts of Session or Exchequer in Scotland respectively; and that it shall be lawful for any officer of H. M.'s navy or marines belonging to any of H. M.'s ships, or any officer of the customs or excise, to enter on board any ship, vessel, or boat so hoisting, wearing, or carrying any jack, flag, ensign, pendant, or colours prohibited by the said proclamation and by this Act to be hoisted, worn, or carried, and to seize and take away the same, and the same shall thereupon become forfeited.—§ 10.

Vessels, &c. used in Removal of run Goods to be forfeited.—All vessels and boats made use of in the removal, carriage, or conveyance of any goods liable to forfeiture under this or any other Act relating to the revenue of customs shall be forfeited.—§ 11.

Boats of Vessels to have thereon the Name of Vessel, Port, and Master.—The owner of every vessel belonging in the whole or in part to any of H. M.'s subjects shall paint or cause to be painted, upon the outside of the stern of every boat belonging to such vessel, the name of such vessel, and the port or place to which she belongs, and the master's name withinside the transom, in white or yellow Roman letters, not less than 2 inches in length, on a black ground, on pain of the forfeiture of such boat not so marked, wherever the same shall be found.—§ 12.

Boat not belonging to Ships to have Name of Owner and Port thereon.—The owner of every boat not belonging to any vessel shall paint or cause to be painted upon the stern of such boat, in white or yellow Roman letters of 2 inches in length on a black ground, the name of the owner or owners of the boat,

or disclosed in any way, every such person shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall, on conviction of such offence, be transported in default for the term of 7 years. — § 65.

Prevented examining Officers by Force or Violence may be transported. — If any person shall by force or violence assault, resist, oppress, molest, hinder, or obstruct any officer of the army, navy, or marine, being duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the due execution of his or their office or duty, such person, being thereof convicted, shall be transported for 7 years, or sentenced to be imprisoned in any house of correction or common goal, and kept to hard labour, for any term not exceeding 3 years, at the discretion of the court before whom the offence shall be tried and convicted as aforesaid. — § 66.

Commanding Officers of Vessels in the Service may haul their Vessels on shore, &c., without being liable to any Action for so doing. — § 67.

Officers of the Army, &c., may patrol the Coasts of the United Kingdom without being liable to Action. — § 68.

Officers, if appointed in the Service of the Customs to be provided for, &c. — § 69.

Vessels and Goods seized, to be disposed of as Commissioners of Customs direct. — § 70.

Rewards to Officers for detaining Smugglers. — It shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorized and empowered, to award to any officer or other person detaining any person liable to detention under this or any other Act relating to the customs, to be paid upon the conviction of such person, any reward or gratuity to be directed, not exceeding the sum of 20*l.* for each person. — § 71.

Rewards to Officers when pecuniary Penalties are recovered. — It shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorized, to order the following reward to be paid to any officer or persons on persons as aforesaid by whom means any pecuniary penalty or composition is recovered, viz. one-third part of the penalty or sum recovered, except in seizure of silk goods, in which case the officers or persons may receive one-half the penalty or sum recovered. — § 72.

Rewards to Officers making Seizures. — It shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorized to order to be paid in respect of any seizure made under this or any Act relating to the customs, or to trade and navigation, to the person or persons making the same, the following rewards, viz. —

In the case of seizures of spirits or tobacco: —
If all the parties concerned in the act which occasions the seizure, being above the age of 18 years, are detained and convicted, the whole value thereof, such value to be fixed and settled by the lords of the treasury, or by the commissioners of customs, as hereinafter directed: —

If 3 or more of such parties, not being the whole, are so detained and convicted, seven-eighths of such value: —

If 1 such party, not being the whole of them, is so detained and convicted, five-eighths of such value: —

If 1 such party, not being the whole of them, is detained and convicted, and the vessel or means of conveyance is or are seized and condemned, three-fourths of such value: —

If the vessel or means of conveyance is seized and condemned without any person being detained, one-third of such value: —

If all the goods are seized, and all the parties concerned as aforesaid are subsequently convicted in consequence of such seizure, and by the exertion of the officers, one-half of such value: —

If the goods only are seized, one-eighth or such other part as the commissioners of the customs shall think proper, not exceeding one-fourth of such value: —

In the case of seizures of other goods, not silks: —

If the vessel or other means of conveyance is or are seized and condemned, or if any person is prosecuted to conviction on account of the same, one-half of the produce, exclusive of the duties: —

If the goods only, one-fourth of such produce: —

In the case of damaged tobacco, snuff, or other goods destroyed, such reward as the lords of the treasury or the commissioners of customs may think proper to direct, not exceeding a moiety of the duty payable on such goods in case the same had been sold for home consumption: —

In the case of seizure of silk goods, the whole value of such goods, exclusive of the duty thereon: —

In the case of seizure of spirits and tobacco: —

If sold, a moiety of the produce: —

If taken into the public service or broken up, a moiety of the value: —

In the case of seizure of cattle and carriages: —

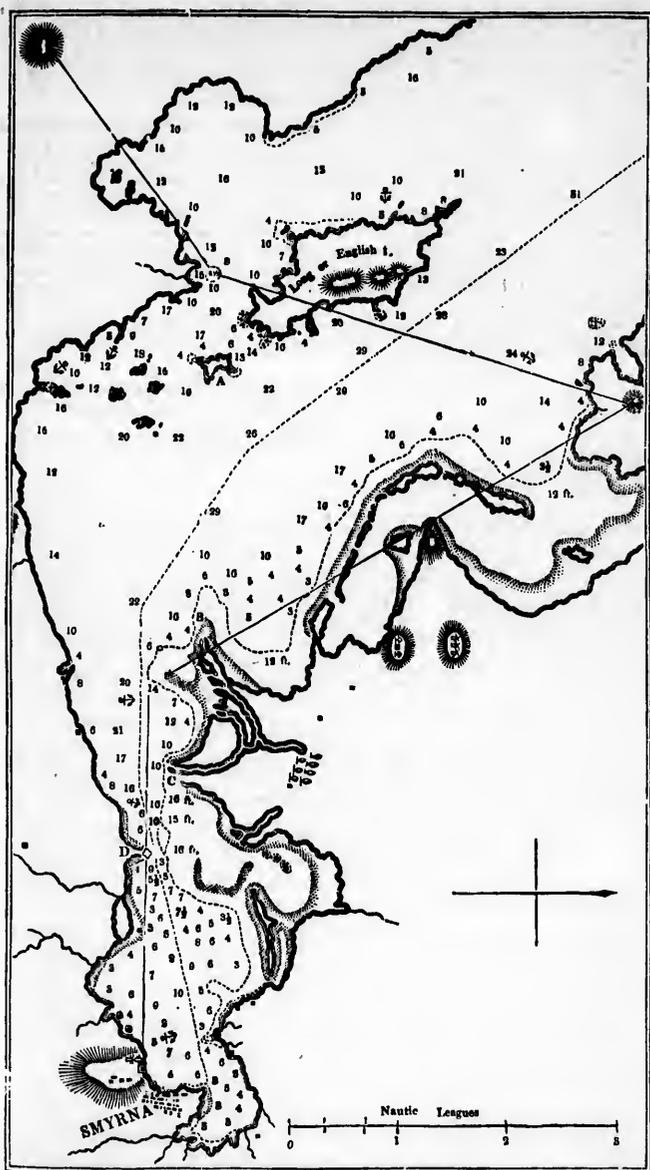
In all cases, three-fourths of the produce of the sale. — § 73.

Treasury or Commissioners of Customs to fix the Value of Spirits and Tobacco. — The value of spirits and tobacco seized as aforesaid shall in all cases be deemed and taken to be such as the lords of the treasury or the commissioners of customs may think fit to fix the same at per gallon or per lb. weight, for the purpose of rewarding the said officer as aforesaid; and that all the before-mentioned rewards shall be paid subject to a deduction of 10*l.* per centum on account of law charges and other expenses. — § 74.

Clause 75, enacts that all rewards and seizures payable to officers of army, navy, or marine to be regulated by H. M.'s orders in council.

The remaining clauses in this Act relate principally to the judicial procedure which may take place under it, and do not seem to be of sufficient importance to warrant their insertion.

SMYRNA, a large city and sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, on the western side of Asia Minor, lat. 39° 25' 36" N., lon. 27° 6' 45" E. Population, probably, about 120,000, of whom 60,000 may be Turks, 40,000 Greeks, and the remainder Armenians, Franks, Jews, &c. Smyrna is situated at the bottom of a deep gulph; the entrance to which lies between the island of Mytilene on the north, and Capa Carabourun, in lat. 38° 41' 30" N., lon. 26° 21' E., on the south. The woodcut on the next page gives a better idea of the Gulph of Smyrna than could be derived from any description. The dotted line shows the course inwards. The passage between James's Castle (D) on the south and the opposite sand-bank is narrow; but there is from 9 to 10 fathoms water, with a blue clay bottom. Merchant ships anchor abreast of the city in from 7 to 8 fathoms; but the water is so deep that they may come close to the quays. The *inbat*, or sea breeze, blows from morning till evening, and is always waited for by ships going up to the city. There is excellent anchorage in most parts of the gulph, merely avoiding the shoals on the north side. Smyrna is a place of great antiquity. The excellence of its port, and its admirable situation, have made it be several times rebuilt, after being destroyed by earthquakes. On approaching it from the sea, it has the appearance of an amphitheatre: the castle is at the back of the town, which it commands, on the top of the hill; but it is in a state of decay, and could oppose no resistance to an invading force. The interior of the city does not correspond to its external appearance; the streets being, for the most part, narrow, dirty, and ill paved. Owing to the want of cleanliness, and of all sorts of precautions, on the part of the Turks, Smyrna is frequently visited by the plague. In 1814, from 50,000 to 60,000 of the inhabitants are said to have been cut off by this dreadful scourge. The trade of this city is more extensive than that of any other in the Turkish empire. The caravans from Persia are chiefly composed of Armenians. They arrive and depart at fixed periods, which are nearly identical with those of the arrival and departure of most of the foreign ships frequenting the port. Bargains are principally effected by Jew brokers, many of whom have amassed considerable fortunes. The principal articles of import consist of grain, furs, iron, butter, &c. from Odessa and Taganrog; and of cotton stuffs and twist, silk and woollen goods, coffee, sugar, cochineal, and dye woods, iron, tin and tin plates, rum, brandy, paper, cheese, glass, wine, &c. from Great Britain, France, Italy, the United States, &c. The exports consist principally of raw silk, which is the most valuable article, and is daily increasing in importance; cotton, opium, rhubarb, and a variety of fruits, drugs, and gums; olive oil, madder roots, Turkey carpets, valonia, sponge, galls, wax, copper, hare skins, goats' wool, safflower, &c. — (For further details, see *Turnefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. pp. 495—507. 4to ed.; and *Muegill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. Letters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9.)



References to Plan.— A, Partridge Island, on the south side of which there is excellent anchorage in from 15 to 7 fathoms, muddy bottom. B, a mud point. C, Pelican Point. D, James' Castle. E, Low narrow islands. Soundings, except where otherwise marked, in fathoms.

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Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Constantinople; which see. Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or medin. The value of the piastre fluctuates according to the exchange. It has been very much degraded; and at present (1842) worth about 2d, the exchange being 119 or 118½ piastres per 100 sterling. The oke is the principal weight used. It is equivalent to 2 lbs. 13 oz. 5 dr, avoirdupois. 48 okes = 1 kintal = 100 rottoles = 127.48 lbs. avoirdupois. The kintal of Constantinople is only 44 lbs. A tefter of silk = ¼ lbs. avoirdupois. A chequer of opium = ¼ lbs., a chequer of goats' wool = ½ lbs. Corn is measured by the killow = 1.456 Winr 1 bushel. The pie, or long measure, = 27 Eng. inches; but for an account of what the Turkey weights usually render in England, see post.

COMMENCE OF SMYRNA. — The following details with respect to the commerce of Smyrna with Western Europe are copied, except when otherwise stated, from a letter addressed by an intelligent English merchant, established in Smyrna, to his correspondent in London, to whom we are indebted for it. Nothing so complete or satisfactory has ever been published as to the trade of this emporium. It is right, however, to mention, that since 1828, when this paper was drawn up, the commerce of Smyrna has lost some of its importance. Syria, the islands of the Archipelago, the eastern parts of Greece, &c. used formerly to derive a considerable part of their supplies of foreign produce at second hand from Smyrna; but they now, for the most part, are either supplied direct from England, Marseilles, &c., or indirectly from Syria, which is become a considerable depot.

Charges on Selling and Buying. — As we conceive that a correct list of selling and buying charges is an essential piece of information for those interested in the commerce of the Levant, we annex the same, including every item of expense, namely:—

On Selling.		On Buying.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.
Freight (according to the rate agreed upon in England)	2	Custom duty (according to the quality of the article)	1 to 3
say	-	Porterage (included in the cost of packages, which vary according to the quality of the goods packed).	-
Custom duty (on general goods)	3	House and street brokerage	½
Porterage from 1 to 2 piastres per package (according to the size).	-	Commission (except on silks, which is 6 per cent.)	½
Shroffage	0½	Warehouse rent	0½
House and street brokerage	2		
Commission for effecting sale	2		
Ditto, if proceeds are remitted by bill or specie	½		
Dut crederes ditto (when required to be charged)	0½		
Warehouse rent	0½		

With regard to the cost of packages, those for silk are about 24 piastres each; for galls, 18 do.; gums mastic, tragacanth, &c., 20 do.; scammony, 18 do.; opium, 30 to 36 do.; raisins, 12 to 14 do.; Egg, 25 to 30 paras; cotton wool, from 12 to 20 piastres, &c.

We learn from _____ that your firm deals largely in skins and furs, but he does not state the quality of either; the latter article is, however, of a very limited and ordinary nature with us, and chiefly consists of hare skins, which are abundant, and shipped in considerable quantities for the German and French markets. They are most plentiful during the winter season, when they are also cheaper and keep better than in the hot months of the year. Sheep, goat, lamb, and kid skins are plentiful, and are often in request for America; particularly the 2 latter when in season; which is, for lamb skins, from the middle of March to the beginning of June, and for goat skins from November until April. We have no want of ox and cow hides, both dried and salted, the leather of which is said to be more pliable than those of Asia. They are now and then sent to Marseilles in small parcels; but as it would be difficult to convey, by a written description, the exact quality of those skins, we intend making up a little bale of such kinds as may for the moment be met with, and to forward it by an early vessel to London, when it shall be submitted to your inspection, with an invoice, and remain, if you think proper, at your disposal.

We now proceed to make you acquainted with the manner in which our sales, purchases, and barter are effected, together with the nature of sales made on credit or for cash, &c.

Sales are effected in this country between our house's brokers, and what is termed a street or out-door broker; the former receiving their instructions from us, and the latter acting on behalf of the buyer. When the terms are mutually agreed upon, the real buyer and seller personally meet; and a bond or obligatory note stating the terms and amount of the transaction is drawn out and signed by the buyer, and when not much approved of, one or more signatures are required to the bond, who individually and collectively become responsible for the fulfilment of it.

Purchases are similarly made, except that the purchaser or agent himself, in the first instance, and his brokers, inspect the goods he is about to treat for: cash down is generally expected; and it is but seldom that a short credit of 1 or 2 couriers is obtained: it not unfrequently happens, also, that ¼ or even ½ of the purchase amount is advanced to the seller, when an insufficient quantity of the article wanted by the buyer is in the place, and which must then be procured from the interior or place of growth. The money advanced (which is to be returned if the quality does not suit) is sent by a confidential person on the part of the purchaser, accompanied either by the seller in person, or by some one representing him.

Barters are generally attended with delay, impediments, and sacrifices to the European agent who exchanges his constituents' goods for native produce, and are never completed without his paying a large portion in cash, which is mostly ½, sometimes even ¾, but never less than ¼ of the full amount; besides always paying a higher price for the produce than if it were bought for ready money. On the other hand, so far as the agent's transaction goes in goods, the price of which he also advances, it is equal to an advantageous cash sale, deducting a discount; but still he loses, as we have just stated, on that part of the operation which subjects him to the necessity of giving ready money for such part of the produce as remains above the counter-value given in goods, at a higher rate than it is worth in the open market. Thus the advantage is all in favour of this country, and against the agent. Indeed, barters are seldom undertaken unless when a profitable result is anticipated, when European goods are difficult to be placed upon saving conditions, either from the want of demand or a glutted market, or when (which is mostly the case) the holder of such goods has orders from the owners of them to remit them in produce, and thus realise their property, if not upon profitable terms, at least without the risk arising from bad debts; sometimes, also, outstanding bonds are taken in part payment, to the extent occasionally of ¾; another ¼ is taken in goods at an advance of from 6 to 10 or 12 per cent. above current prices; and the remaining ¼ is in cash against produce, at from 8 to 10 per cent. more than it fetches in the bazars. However, it is by barter alone that any extensive transaction ever takes place, or that it can be either readily or safely effected.

Sales on Credit. — The terms of credit vary considerably, and depend entirely upon the quality of the goods which the agent sells: for current or demanded merchandise, 2 couriers (or 2 periods of 15 days), and two and three 31 days, are the present terms, which are extended to four, five, and six 31 days for articles not much in request. Couriers mean post days; of which we have 2 in each month; at each

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courier, and 31 days, a proportionate payment becomes payable; for instance, on a credit of six 31 days, if it falls due at the expiration of the first month; and if paid, is noted accordingly on the bond, and so on until the remaining 5 periods are expired: it must, however, be observed, that payments are by no means punctually except by a few of our more wealthy bazasar buyers, although for the first 3 or 4 periods of long credit some regularity is observed, but at the time begins to shorten, payments are proportionately retarded, so that two 31 days on a bond of credit for 6 months may be considered as a fair average of time in addition to the limited term.

Sales for Cash.—These very seldom occur, indeed, and then only when money is abundant, or the article sold scarce and in great demand; in fact, not 1 sale in 100 is made on these terms; and in about the same ratio is a discount taken off from a bazasar bond at even an exorbitant rate, however short the period may be that it has to run; occasionally a sale is, however, effected for cash, and the other 4 short credit, for some very current goods.

Character of Dealers.—Before entering upon the articles of commerce, we are desirous of making you acquainted with the character and customs of our bazasar dealers. The Greek dealers are in general petty shopkeepers, very cunning, and very bad payers. The Jews have similar defects, but are well supported by their brethren, who generally become guarantee for each other. The Armenians are by far the largest traffickers both for buying and selling; and though hard bargainers, are mostly all solvent, and honourable as well as honest. The Turks are, however, as far superior to the foregoing races in all moral qualities, as they are inferior to them in means and commercial abilities; yet they sometimes deal largely, and their bond is as punctually discharged. In general, as the day comes when it falls due. The laws in this country mostly favour the debtor at the expense of the creditor; and so far they encourage dishonesty. The number of insolvent native dealers was at one time excessive, but of late the means of each individual buyer have been so carefully investigated, that at present we are not aware that there is one bazasar dealer who is not able to meet the demands of those from whom he has purchased. The European consuls, who enjoy much consideration by the Turks, protect the interests of their countrymen in disputed points; and, in general, questions of a commercial nature are submitted to the decision of a Turkish tribunal, where very little pleading, but a good deal of plain straightforward justice, goes forward; except that, perhaps, the European is, if any thing, rather less favoured than the native.

We now proceed to offer some observations on the leading articles of our imports and exports for your government, the correctness of which may be relied upon.

IMPORTS.

Coffee.—This is by far the most current article received here, and is sent from England, France, Holland, Trieste, Marseilles, Leghorn, Genoa, and America; but first, and principally of late years, from the latter country; the vessels of which are frequently laden with coffee, and always partly so; the next in point of quantity comes from England; but is shipped mostly in small parcels at a time of from 200 to 600 sacks, although occasionally that amount is doubled. France follows, but on a less extensive scale; and Austria, Holland, and the small ports in the south of Europe, do not together export more than what is received from England alone. We have 4 different qualities of coffee in our markets; namely, Mocha, St. Domingo, Havannah, and Brasil; the first is sent from Alexandria, and by American vessels, and but seldom from Europe; the consumption is, however, limited, and does not exceed 60,000 okeas annually. At Constantinople the consumption is much greater. An Asiatic cannot do without his coffee; and it is well known that to Smyrna alone not less than perhaps 400,000 cups of it are daily drunk, which, computed at the cost price of 2 paras each, amount to 20,000 piastres! St. Domingo and Havannah coffees are preferred to the Brasil, although, when the latter is of a fair round quality, there is not more than 5 per cent. difference in price; the small green West India berry certainly commands a ready sale; but, for the finest sort, not more than 6 or 8 per cent. can be obtained above the middling and sound quality. Coffee is amongst the very few articles which occasionally meet with a partial and entire cash sale and short credit; and is, moreover, from the means and character of the dealers in it, the least liable to risk from insolvency. It is also the easiest through which an advantageous barter can be effected, as a much larger quantity of coffee will be taken in exchange for produce than almost any other item of European merchandise. Annual consumption, about 3,000,000 okeas.

Sugar is the next in consequence. This article is supplied from the same sources as coffee, and is attended in its disposal with similar results. We receive the following qualities:—White crushed, white Havannah, brown do., white East India, refined in small loaves of 4 lbs. and in large of 8 lbs. each; the 2 latter are mostly shipped from America and England. The brown and ordinary sorts are not so current. Annual consumption, 10,000 kintals.

Indigo follows the 2 preceding articles, not so much in extent as meeting a ready sale always, and not infrequently a profitable one; it is attended likewise with all the advantages and facilities attached to coffee and sugar, and is furnished by Europe and America, but principally by England. The qualities we receive consist of East India purple and copper, ditto common, and Guatemala. The first of the 2 is the kind best adapted for our markets, and is placed sooner and better than the other 2; but, as in the case with coffee, the very fine will not pay cost price, and ought therefore never to be sent. The pieces suited for our buyers ought to be good sized, with about an equal proportion of purple and copper in each piece. The few chests on sale are all ordinary, and consequently dull; and the first arrival of 16 or 20 chests (and not more ought ever to be shipped at one time) of fair East India will meet with a ready and favourable sale at 90 piastres per oke. Annual consumption, 80 chests.

Manufactures.—This is, in point of amount, the most extensive branch of trade carried on in Turkey. We have, as you will perceive from our price current, a numerous assortment of British and East India cotton goods and English shalions. The white or unprinted cotton goods are most in demand during the warm weather, and the coloured or printed stuffs during winter, although a considerable quantity of all sorts is regularly and largely sold throughout the whole year. The East Indian manufactures are supplied by America and England exclusively; the latter country also sends fair imitations of the East India loom, in long cloths, seersuckers, &c. The native consumers are exceedingly fastidious in their choice of designs and colours, which ought very frequently to be altered, in order to meet their capricious taste. Manufactured goods are always sold at long credit, but large barter are often effected to cash upon them. A person desirous of entering into this item of our commerce is almost certain ultimately to gain an advantage; but he must have patience, a large capital, and must not be disheartened at the first or second result of his enterprise, should it disappoint his hopes of profit. He must also enter into the thing with spirit, and keep his agent always supplied with the goods he may recommend; and he is to remember that many months must elapse before he can expect a return by bills of exchange, but sooner if he order a barter. The capital employed must also at least be to the amount of 20,000, to do any good; and further, this sum ought to be disbursed by him without any pecuniary embarrassment or inconvenience. For a person willing to undertake such a step, he would require to be regularly furnished with patterns, and advices of the manner in which they ought to be printed and varied; and we again repeat, that with *competent means*, a real desire to follow the branch up firmly, and full information hence of what is required, a most extensive and fine lucrative existence would be done; and we recommend the matter strongly to your best consideration. Annual consumption of all kinds (British), about 367,200 pieces.

Cotton Twist forms no inconsiderable article in our trade, and is supplied exclusively from England. Mule twist has, however, superseded, in some degree, the demand which formerly existed for water twist, and is consequently more in request. Water twist is nevertheless saleable, and both qualities

sought to be of rather high numbers. This article is often given in barter, but mostly sold at rather long credits, and hardly ever for cash. Annual consumption of water twist, 10,000 oke; ditto of mule ditto, 25,000 oke.

Iron in Bars, English, was formerly largely consumed; but, from the buyers being plentifully supplied, it is at present but little demanded, even at the losing price of the day. Barterers are very frequently effected through iron of all descriptions, and command a short credit, and sometimes a cash sale. Annual consumption, 15,000 to 18,000 kintals.

Iron Plates are generally employed for building purposes, and store doors.

Iron Rods are always saleable.

Iron Hoops are most saleable in August, September, and October, for fruit and other export barrels.

Iron, Russian and Swedish Bars.—These kinds are sent in rather large parcels, particularly the former, and fetch a higher price than the English, owing to their malleable qualities, which render labour easier, and by that advantage command a preference; though the high price, beyond the English make, puts the two qualities upon a level, and commands a larger consumption of the latter. Annual consumption, 8,500 kintals.

Iron Bars is a good, steady, saleable article; is often given on fair terms in barter, always disposed of on short credit, and now and then placed for cash. It comes from England exclusively. Annual consumption, 630 to 1,000 barrels of 4 cwt. each.

Iron Plates is attended with the foregoing advantages, and is also supplied by England alone. Annual consumption, 1,500 double boxes.

Lead in Sheets, Pigs, and Rods.—These 3 items have lately, particularly shot, been sent from Germany, and prove dangerous competitors with the English; consequence of which, the thing is overdone, and we have more in market than meets the demand at losing prices.

Lead, Red and White.—These 3 articles have lately been in much request for the formation of paint. Some large parcels of red have lately arrived, and sell well and currently, but we are altogether without white. The consumption of all sorts of lead has, however, considerably decreased of late years, and no longer forms an item of any great consequence in our trade.

Rum and Brandy.—Beward Island and Jamaica are furnished by America and England; the former particularly in the lower qualities, of which we have a full market at low prices. The better kind and brandy are supplied from England, but do not obtain a proportionate advance compared with the common sorts. Brandy is but of limited demand, and 2 or 3 puncheons are sufficient at a time. It ought, as well as rum, to be deeply cut down. Annual consumption of rum, 300 puncheons.

Spices are all saleable in small parcels at a time, particularly pepper and pimento; the latter of which, in small sound barrels, is demanded at good prices. Nutmegs are very abundant, and offering very low without finding purchasers. France, America, and England supply us with spices, but France more so in cloves than in other kinds; and it may be remarked that the qualities received from England are preferred.

Credit on selling is general and short.

Cochineal is a fair article now and then in small quantities; and when in demand, at times fetches good prices, occasionally a cash sale, and always one of the shortest credits. Annual consumption, 4,500 oke.

In concluding our observations on imports, we could wish to impress the conviction, that a poor man's purpose cannot be answered in speculating to this country; for, should his circumstances require a speedy remittance in bills, he must submit to a heavy sacrifice, in order to meet his wants, by selling his property for whatever it may fetch in cash; and such a measure cannot but be attended with very heavy loss. On the contrary, when an opulent person finds that his property cannot be realised at saving prices, he can afford to wait until a more favourable moment presents itself; and such a moment, in less than 18 months, is almost certain to arrive, when he retires his money with an advantage more than equal to any interest he could obtain for it in Europe.

That the rate of exchange has regularly advanced, and will continue to advance, is the natural result of the continual deterioration of the Turkish specie. We remember when the piece of money denominated "Muhemmidiya," passed at about its value, or nearly so, of 10 piastres: it rose to 25 soon afterwards; and the few which remain are at present worth 35 each. At the period we allude to (1812), the exchange on London was at 20 piastres the pound sterling; and until lately (owing to the great stagnation of trade, and to political events, which have lowered it), the rate has been up to 60 l. It cannot, however, increase beyond that rate more than 5 per cent., as it then will nearly be on a par with the value of the gold and silver current coin of the realm, when it will be better to remit in specie than by a bill at 63 piastres for 61 days' sight. (This supposition has not been verified; it is dangerous, partly and principally from the degradation of the coin, and partly from the balance of payments being against Smyrna, is now, February, 1843, 110 piastres per l. sterling! This shows how dangerous it is to hold property on speculation in Turkey.) The rates of exchange fluctuate considerably, and a difference of 1 to 1 per cent., occasioned by the abundance or scarcity of paper in the market, often occurs between one post day and another. It is for this reason that the rate always decreases during the fruit season, which takes place at the latter end of August, and continues until the middle of October; when it rises again to meet the limited wants of drawers, and the larger demands of those remitters who did not ship fruit, and invest the funds of their employers in that article. These observations lead us to submit the question of the advantage which a person in Europe has in receiving from this country, instead of sending to it. Late extensive barterers have proved to us, and which we have endeavoured to show you, the unprofitable terms upon which they are conducted, were it only in paying, and that in cash too, for at least 1 of the amount, at a higher rate than was current; now this higher rate is, in itself, supposing the produce taken in barter to meet with a saving sale in Europe, of no small consideration;—then you have the advantage of drawing at a high exchange in making a purchase; and again you have the choice of selecting the good part of the produce, and of rejecting the inferior,—a choice which is not allowed in taking it in barter; lastly, the principal advantage in buying over bartering is, that you can avail yourself of a depression in the produce market, and effect your purchase upon easy terms; whereas, when a barter is proposed, it has the immediate effect of producing a general rise in the whole market, and also of engendering the most absurd pretensions in the part of produce holders, who are too conversant with commerce not to see that either the European house, wishing to barter, is in want of procuring returns for his principal, or else that the articles of produce wanted are in great demand in Europe—without which, the European agent would never submit to take produce at so much higher a price than he could procure it for with cash! The only time in which the person sending to this country can calculate upon a profitable return, is during the fruit season; and for that reason he ought to forward his shipments from Europe so as to meet the demand, and to be cashed by the beginning of August. A vessel from England hence is in general from 40 to 60 days in performing her voyage; sometimes much less, and but seldom longer; goods ought, if possible, also to be shipped in a fast and first class ship.

We now continue our remarks on the articles of our trade, and the following are some of them sent hence, and deserving of serious attention.

Exports.

Wool.—This is the richest raw article in our export trade with Europe in general, but almost exclusively with England, which consumes nearly our entire produce. There are 3 different qualities, viz. the fine, middling, and coarse. Bales adapted for the English market are composed of the 3 qualities, but the lower quality is of the most kind; and at one time, if the coarse was in request in London, but at present an assortment of the 3 qualities is preferred. When an order is given, it ought to be accompanied by a

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description of the quality required; and it is necessary to state that, for all of the finest, without being mixed, a higher price is demanded. A bale contains 40 toffees; and, before being packed, is carefully examined and approved of by competent native judges. Silk is produced at Brusaa, a large city about 200 miles distant from Smyrna, whence it is forwarded by caravans to the different places of consumption, which are Constantinople and this town. Until very lately, almost the entire crop of silk came for sale to Smyrna, but at present the most considerable part is sent to Constantinople, where the price is higher; we have, therefore, here an advantage, not only in price, but also in our manner of packing, which fetches 9 or 10 per cent. more in England than if packed in the capital. Silk is mostly a ready money article, though it sometimes may be had in small quantities at a short credit; or half cash and half in or 3 carriers. It is also now and then given in barter. Annual average produce, 5,500 bales, or about 460,000 lbs. For a recent and authentic account of Turkey silk, see art. "Silk."

Opium, in point of value, and as an article of speculation, hardly gives way to silk; but as it is largely shipped by Americans, and sent in smaller quantities to Holland, and the south of Europe, it is subject to much competition and variation of price, which we have invariably observed that the opening price of the new crop is always the lowest, which, however, in some measure counter-balanced by the decrease in weight which occurs by keeping. This is also a cash article, and indeed subject to the same conditions as purchasing or bartering for silk; it nevertheless has one inferiority which the silk is not liable to—namely, a difference in the quality of the crops: last year, for instance, opium was of a very bad kind, and hardly saleable in England; this year, though small, it is fine. On the Continent and in America, the small sort is preferred to the larger sized. We observe that, in England, the prices of opium fluctuate considerably; but we are not aware that, by holding it, any loss has ever happened,—another reason why a wealthy man only should embark in the Turkey trade. It would be impossible, or at least difficult, and attended with much expense, to obtain a monopoly of the opium crop, as it is produced through some thousands of individuals, each one (and they are all poor) adding his produce; and when collected in sufficient quantities, it is brought to market by the natives, having each of them 1 or 2 baskets for sale. What might be done is this:—Send a person to the place of growth with ready money to purchase a certain but limited quantity, and which he can do easily, if not hurried, to the extent of 50, or even 100 baskets, and upon terms of advantage, from the simple fact that the collectors of it prefer to receive a remunerating price on the spot of growth, rather than perform a long and expensive journey, with the chance of not finding purchasers immediately. Opium is produced at sundry places in the interior, of from 10 to 30 days' distance hence; but that grown at Calassar, about 600 miles from Smyrna, is the most esteemed, from its cleanness and good quality; it comes to market in June, and finishes about December or January. Annual average produce, 3,000 baskets, or about 400,000 lbs.

Drugs and Gums form one of our principal branches of commerce, and is almost entirely in the hands of the Jews. At present, gum Arabic and mastic are exceedingly scarce; and it is only when that is the case, or the demand for exportation is very brisk, that much variation exists in the price of drugs. Trieste, and occasionally America, consume a considerable portion of gums, but the largest quantity goes to the English markets. Barbers are often effected through this medium; but it is not attended with much advantage, as they are conducted by a race who never lose in any transaction they undertake. It is impossible to ascertain the quantities of drugs received in Smyrna, and equally so to know the quantity remaining, as they are dispersed all over the city, and consumed so irregularly in Europe, as to bid defiance to all regular calculation.

Sponges have been, and still are, an article of considerable moment, particularly for the English markets, and are found about the islands in the Grecian Archipelago, brought here, and cleaned for exportation. They vary in price from 4 to 90 piastres per oke, according to fineness and quality; the better sort alone answers for speculation, and which, it would appear, from the considerable quantity sent to London, turns to good account. The produce depends so entirely on chance, that no correct estimate of the yearly quantity can be formed; however, we are seldom in want of a moderate supply.

Galls are shipped in considerable quantities for the English, German, and French markets; the two former, however, being the largest consumers; for England, the blue galls are those principally sent; though the market there for their sale being dull and low prices with us, moderate as they are compared to last year, will still further decline, should a demand not spring up, of which there is no appearance. Annual produce of all sorts, 5,500 kintals.

Cotton Wool, of which we have several qualities, is chiefly exported to Trieste and Marseilles. Barbers are made to a large extent in coltons. Annual average produce of all sorts, 60,000 kintals.

Valonia employs more British shipping for full cargoes of only one article, than any other species of produce, if we except, perhaps, fruit; it is also sent to Dublin and to the German markets in considerable quantities. Almost any supply can be obtained, and it is shipped generally near the places of growth, which are numerous, although there is never any want of it in the Smyrna market. It is much resorted to as a means of making barbers, which perhaps are as easily effected upon pretty fair terms, as with any other article of produce. The annual produce is sufficient to meet the wants of all Europe. It can be had to any extent, and at all periods.

Fruit—This is an article which occupies the attention of all Smyrna, more or less, and produces, during the season, great interest and activity. Figs come to market early in September, and raisins are ready for shipping early in October: the former are procurable only at Smyrna, where the latter in all their qualities may be procured; but the shipments are generally made at Cesné, Vouris, Carabourne, Ubeck, &c., from which ports the name of the raisin takes its origin. Large sums are frequently gained in fruit speculations; and when the demand in England is brisk, and the prices and quality fair with us, it very seldom happens, indeed, that any loss is sustained: it is, however, attended with risk; must be shipped dry; and ought only to go in a very fast, sound vessel, as much depends upon a first, or at least an early arrival, which obtains in general a higher price than the later arrivals. The quantity produced is always uncertain.

For the remaining articles of exports hence, we refer you to our price current. Carpets are produced to the extent of about 80,000 to 100,000 pikes a year. Oil (olive), to the amount of 10 to 15 middling sized cargoes, from the islands of Mytilene, Candia, &c., is generally shipped for America and France; seldom for England: the season commences in September, but the crops of olives fluctuate exceedingly in point of quantity; hence arise dear and cheap years: last year was a high one, and it is expected to be lower this. Copper, old and new, may be computed at 30,000 okes, which are generally bought up as soon as offered, for Europe. Hare skins are computed at from 350,000 to 400,000 annually. Madder roots at 12,000 kintals. Peletons, at 12,000 to 15,000 cheques. Coats' wool of all kinds may be calculated per year at 45,000 to 50,000 cheques; sheep's wool at 25,000 kintals. Wax (yellow), 1,800 kintals.

We have now finished our general remarks on the exports and imports of the place; and in concluding them, we beg to state that, upon an average of all of them, (with the exception of fruit from, and of iron to, Turkey,) the selling charges may (excluding *del credere* commission) be calculated at about 12 per cent., and on purchasing at about 3 per cent.

Prices of various Articles at Smyrna, 9th February, 1913.

	Prices.	Costing on board in Sterling. Exchange 91/10.	Freight to London.
Madder roots	per quintal	Dollars. 240 to 250	42s. to 45s. per quintal.
Yellow berries, Persian	per she	17 - 22	7 1/2 - 9.
Carrots	per pipe	30 - 34	2s. - 2s. 3d. per pipe.
Goats' wool, white	per 1/2 clem	45 - 48	17s. - 18s. per lb.
Cotton wool	per quintal	200 - 215	54s. - 6d.
Valonia picked, English quality		110 - 120	15s. - 15s. per ton.
Trance quality		140	30s. to 32s. -
Oil, olive		200 - 205	29 1/2 - 29 1/2 -
Gale, blue		220 - 240	32s. - 34s. per quintal.
White		200 - 230	30s. - 41s. -
Milk, long road	per coffee	220 - 230	3s. 5d. - 4s. 3d. per lb.
Short road		225 - 240	11s. 6d. - 12s. 3d. -
Gum, tragacanth	per she	17 - 22	10s. - 11s. 10s. per road.
massic		40 - 45	2s. 6d. - 2s. 8d. per lb.
Resamony, first quality		230 - 250	17s. - 18s. -
Ofs of some	metal	5	10s. 6d. per oz.
Opium	cheque	54	10s. per lb.
Nett to remit, exclusive of Freight and Insurance.			
Indigo, Bengal	per she	100 - 112	4s. to 5s. 9d. per lb.
Carthame, silver		91 - 92	4s. 7d. - 4s. 8d. -
Dyewood, Santa Martha	per quintal	104 - 123	10s. - 11s. per ton.
Sugar, crushed, double refined		915 - 919	22s. - 22s. 4d. per quint.
Smoking		200 - 205	27s. 6d. - 27s. 6d. -
ordinary		100 - 200	25s. 6d. - 27s. -
white, Hovannah		200 - 205	27s. - 27s. 9d. -
Brazil		180 - 190	25s. 6d. - 26s. 4d. -
East India		170 - 185	23s. - 23s. 4d. -
yellow and brown		145 - 150	22s. 6d. - 23s. 9d. -
Tin plates	per double box	220	12s. per double box.
English iron, assorted	per quintal	45 - 48	6s. to 6s. 6s. per cent.

Accounts are kept in piastres composed of 40 paras and 80ths.

Exchange.

London, 119 to 119 1/2 piastres per £ sterling.

Turkey weights generally render as follows in England:—

A quintal = 117 to 118 lbs.

An she = 3 1/2 - 3 3/4

A cheque of goats' wool = 3 - 5 1/2

16 quintals of oil = 1 ton.

A cheque of opium = 1 1/2 to 1 1/4

A coffee = 4 lbs.

5 1/2 meticals = 1 oz. Troy.

9 drams = 1 oz.

A she = 27 slices

English weights at Smyrna render generally, viz. —

118 lbs. = 1 quintal of 40 she.

2 1/2 = 40 she.

100 = 1 she.

Pro Form Invoice of 10 Chests Opium bought and shipped at Smyrna.

	Charges.	Piastres.
10 chests opium, weighing 664 she ¹⁰⁰ or cheques 1063 ⁴⁰ ₁₀₀ at \$44		46,749 74
Porterage, packing, weighing, at \$58		292 00
Export duty, at 25 1/2/100 and 5 0/0 fees		5,278 14
Inspection, 1/2 per cent.		525 55
Brokerage, 1/2 per cent.		701 34
		4,992 8
Commission and rent, 2 1/2 0/0		\$61,741 50
		1,491 30
		\$63,078 10
Bill brokerage, 1/2 0/0		158 30
		\$63,409 9
Es. 1008 £529 8s. 10d. 1 at 1 1/2 lbs. per cheque; 1,700 lbs. ; costing, 6 3/4 per lb. on board.		
Smyrna, August, 1843.		
Lon Lon Charges.		
Freight, warehouse charges, and sea insurance, 4 1/2 c. per lb.		
Discount, brokerage, commission, &c., 5 1/2 per cent. on selling price.		

Pro Form Invoice of 40 Bales Cotton Wool bought and shipped at Smyrna.

	Charges.	Piastres.
20 bales, weighing 65.34 nett quintals at \$260		17,248 16
20 ditto ^{48.36} ditto at \$250		11,590 00
		\$28,838 16
Porterage, weighing, and petty, at \$6		840 00
Export duty, at 25 1/2/100 per quintal, and 5 0/0		841 18
Brokerage, 1/2 per cent.		438 23
		1,514 01
Commission and rent, 2 1/2 0/0		\$30,569 17
		1,062 13
		\$31,471 30
Bill brokerage, 1/2 0/0		79 10
		\$31,494 00
Es. \$105, £305 15s. 0d. Quintal, 115 lbs. or 21,900 lbs., costing on board, 6 3/4.		
London Charges.		
Freight, duty, warehouse charges, and sea insurance, 1 1/2 d. per lb.		
Brokerage, commission, discount, &c. 5 1/2 per cent. on selling price.		

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Arrivals and Departures of Shipping at Smyrna in 1841.

Flag.	Arrived.			Departed.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
British	129	10,864	1,118	119	16,371	1,608
Levian	80	8,878	163	33	2,478	143
Mohave	3	910	81	3	319	31
American	16	8,753	816	63	6,568	994
American	216	35,004	4,807	168	27,051	4,113
Holstein	5	674	37	3	374	37
Danish	3	375	17	2	375	17
Dutch	11	2,376	199	14	1,160	100
French	80	8,908	845	56	6,048	637
Greek	410	30,510	4,660	404	30,300	5,494
Hanseatic	1	110	9	1	110	8
Napoleonic	1	333	14	1	335	14
Russian	6	8,354	498	42	4,255	868
Sardinian	19	2,868	199	16	2,066	149
Swedish	6	1,010	66	6	1,010	55
Turkish	1	150	10	1	198	10
Total	981	105,369	9,664	937	104,728	9,534

Of the 129 arrivals of British ships at Smyrna in 1841, 65 were in ballast, 18 laden with coal, 28 had general cargoes of British produce, 1 manufactures, 3 part cargoes from England, 1 coffee, 5 iron, 1 bones, and 1 boxwood.

SNUFF (Ger. *Schnupftabak*; Fr. *Tabac en poudre*; It. *Tabacco da naso*; Sp. *Tabaco de polvo*; Rus. *Nosowoi tabak*), a powder in very general use as an errhine. Tobacco is the usual basis of snuff; but small quantities of other articles are frequently added to it, to vary its pungency, flavour, scent, &c. Though substantially the same, the kinds and names of snuff are infinite, and are perpetually changing. There are, however, 3 principal sorts: the first, granulated; the second, an impalpable powder; and the third, the bran or coarse part remaining after sifting the second sort. Unless taken in excess, no bad consequences result from its use.

Dealers in tobacco and snuff are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually, which costs 5s. They are also obliged to enter their premises, and have their names written in large legible characters over their door, or on some conspicuous part of their house, under a penalty of 50s. The dyeing of snuff with ochre, amber, or any other colouring matter except water tinged with colour, is prohibited under a penalty of 100s.; and its intermixture with fusile, yellow stony, touchwood, sand, dirt, leaves, &c. is prohibited under a penalty of 100s., and the forfeiture of the article. — (1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 109.) If snuff be found to contain 4 per cent. of any substance, not being tobacco, and other than water only, or water tinged with colour, or flavoured only, such snuff shall be deemed adulterated, and shall be forfeited, and the parties subjected to a penalty of 100s. over and above all other penalties and forfeitures. — (16.) No quantity of snuff weighing above 2 lbs. shall be removed by land or water without a permit. — (29 Geo. 3. c. 68.) — (See TOBACCO.)

SNUFF-BOXES are made of every variety of pattern, and of an endless variety of materials. We only mention them here for the purpose of giving the following details, not to be met with in any other publication, with respect to the manufacture of Laurencekirk or Ayrshire boxes. These are made of wood, admirably jointed, painted, and varnished.

These beautiful boxes were first manufactured at the village of Laurencekirk, in Kincardineshire, about 50 years since. The original inventor was a cripple hardly possessed of the power of locomotion. Instead of curtains, his bed (rather a curious workshop) was surrounded with benches and receptacles for tools, in the contrivance and use of which he discovered the utmost ingenuity. The inventor, instead of taking out a patent, confided his secret to a joiner in the same village, who in a few years amassed a considerable property; while the other died, as he had lived, in the greatest poverty. The great difficulty of the manufacture lies in the formation of the hinge, which, in a genuine box, is so delicately made as hardly to be visible. Peculiar, or, as they are called, secret tools, are required in its formation; and though greatly improved by time and experience, the mystery attached to their preparation is still so studiously kept up, that the workmen employed in one shop are rigorously debarred from having any communication with those employed in another.

About the beginning of this century, an ingenious individual belonging to the village of Cumnock, in Ayrshire, of the name of Crawford, having seen one of the Laurencekirk snuff-boxes, succeeded, after various attempts, by the assistance of a watchmaker of the same village, who made the tools, in producing a similar box; and by his success greatly enriched his native parish and province. Unfortunately, however, he did not improve his own fortune by his ingenuity; and died early in the present year (1844) in very poor circumstances. For a while, the Laurencekirk boxes were most in demand; but Crawford and his neighbours in Cumnock not only copied the art, but so improved and perfected it, that in a very few years, for every box made in the north there were, probably, 20 made in the south. In 1826, the Cumnock trade was divided amongst 8 master manufacturers, who employed considerably more than 100 persons. But we are sorry to say that it has greatly declined in the interval; and that at present (1844) it does not employ more than 22 individuals. Nauchline is now the principal seat of the manufacture, and about 100 hands are there engaged in it. The manufacture is also carried on, though to a very limited extent, at Cairline, Auchincloch, and some other places. Plane is the wood in common use, and the cost of the wood in an ordinary sized box does not exceed 1s.; the paints and varnish are rated at 2s.; and though something is lost by selecting timber of the finest colour, the whole expense of the raw material falls considerably short of 1 per cent. on the return it yields, which consists almost wholly of the wages of labour.

The snuff-box manufacturer, like most other departments of industry, has been greatly facilitated by the division of labour; and in all workshops of any size 3 classes of persons are employed, — box-makers, painters, and checkers or polishers; the wages of which may at present amount, the 1st class from 14s. to 16s. per week; the 2d from 10s. to 12s., and the 3d from 10s. to 12s. per do. When Crawford first commenced business, he obtained almost any price he chose to ask; and many instances occurred, in which ordinary sized snuff-boxes sold at 2/ 12s. 6d., and ladies' work-boxes at 25s. But as the trade increased, it became necessary to employ apprentices, who first became journeymen, and then masters; and such have been the effects of improvement and competition, that articles such as those specified above may be obtained at the respective prices of two and *three-pence shillings*; while common boxes, which, in 1837, sold for 16s. a dozen, may now (1844) be bought for 6s. 1. By means of the *Preservaph*, which is much employed, the largest engravings are reduced to the size most convenient for the workman, without injury to the prints; so that a snuff-box manufacturer, like a Dunfermline weaver, can work to order by exhibiting on wood his employer's coat of arms, or any object he may fancy within the range of the pictorial art. Some of the painters display considerable talent, and, when they put forth their strength, produce box-lids worth being preserved as pictures. At first, nearly the whole subjects chosen as ornaments were taken from Burns's poems; and there can be no doubt that the "Cotter's Saturday Night," "Tam O'Shanter," "Willie brewed a peck o' maud," &c. &c. have penetrated in this form into every quarter of the habitable globe. Now, however, the artists take a wider range; the studios of Willie, Landseer, &c. have been laid under contribution; landscapes are as often met with as figures; and there is scarcely a celebrated scene in the country that is not pictured forth more or less perfectly on the lid of an Ayrshire snuff-box. We regret to say that the trade has been for some years past in a languishing state. But it is probable, from the extremely low prices at which boxes are now produced, that the demand for them may be again extended. The principal markets for snuff-boxes are London, Liverpool, Glasgow, and Edinburgh; but considerable numbers are exported. Some very wretched imitations of Ayrshire boxes have been produced in different parts of England; but they can deceive no one who ever saw a genuine one. The hinge, as well as the finishing, is clumsy in the extreme.

* The article on this curious manufacture in our former edition was written by our esteemed friend, John M'Diarmid, Esq., editor of the *Dumfries Courier*; but the business has materially changed during the last 10 years. The statements in the present article have been derived from Mauchline and other seats of the manufacture.

SOAP (Ger. *Seife*; Fr. *Savon*; It. *Sapone*; Sp. *Jabon*; Rus. *Milo*; Lat. *Sapo*). The soap met with in commerce is generally divided into 2 sorts, *hard* and *soft*: the former is made of soda and tallow or oil, and the latter of potash and similar oily matters. Soap made of tallow and soda has a whitish colour, and is, therefore, sometimes denominated *white soap*; but it is usual for soap makers, in order to lower the price of the article, to mix a considerable portion of rosin with the tallow; this mixture forms the common *yellow soap* of this country. Soap made of tallow, &c. and potash does not assume a solid form; its consistence is never greater than that of hog's lard. The properties of soft soap as a detergent do not differ materially from those of hard soap, but it is not nearly so convenient to use. The alkali employed by the ancient Gauls and Germans in the formation of soap was potash; hence we see why it was deserv'd by the Romans as an unguent. The oil employed for making soft soap in this country is whale oil. A little tallow is also added, which, by a peculiar management, is dispersed through the soap in fine white spots. The soap made in countries which produce olive oil, as the south of France, Italy, and Spain, is preferable to the soap of this country, which is usually manufactured from grease, tallow, &c. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Soap and Candles exported during each of the 5 Years ending with 1841, specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Quantity and Value of those sent to each.

Countries.	1837.		1838.		1839.		1840.		1841.	
	Quantities.	De- clared Value.								
Newway	181,656	9,501	19,868	436	113,745	2,040	56,400	1,380	189,639	5,367
Germany	103,798	5,908	18,248	809	170,440	3,274	306,996	5,987	381,306	4,961
Holland	30,069	1,775	33,283	1,092	68,231	1,540	99,468	1,615	25,694	497
(Holland)	89,200	1,609	104,283	2,145	81,836	1,667	119,129	2,017	50,763	1,491
Italy and the Italian Islands	80,455	731	18,278	648	104,910	2,343	74,310	1,681	26,391	635
Malta	49,809	934	181,741	2,868	142,193	2,851	82,215	1,507	111,633	2,925
Western coast of Africa	1,160,156	9,903	1,160,156	9,903	1,160,156	9,903	1,160,156	9,903	1,160,156	9,903
(Coast of Good Hope)	430,847	7,973	665,046	9,074	1,363,083	28,212	887,051	12,617	451,065	7,022
B. I. C. territories, and Capin	71,170	2,04	114,748	3,928	117,918	4,647	127,940	4,539	145,805	6,085
Dutch settlements in West India	761,270	14,002	1,229,729	29,694	3,207,901	58,998	4,384,558	70,737	1,801,040	23,816
N. Amer. countries	9,409,011	30,051	3,475,288	26,712	4,339,813	17,661	2,948,700	17,091	3,244,077	61,843
Port India	3,134,040	104,168	7,279,713	140,562	9,716,295	190,287	9,360,737	174,470	7,130,456	139,432
Brazil	9,608,825	48,810	4,914,175	28,759	4,438,823	27,818	4,494,803	27,001	3,723,581	61,018
All other countries	2,853,231	20,771	2,853,231	46,722	4,527,211	17,249	1,978,853	26,713	2,228,193	21,293
Total	13,264,042	231,783	19,911,140	351,350	27,066,238	486,834	28,501,517	430,640	20,029,246	312,880

The use of soap as a detergent is well known; it was, in fact, be considered as a necessary of life. Its consumption in most civilized countries is immense. Pliny informs us, that soap was first invented by the Gauls; that it was composed of tallow and ashes; and that the German soap was reckoned the best. — (*Lith. xviii. c. 61.*)

Regulations as to the Manufacturers. — Soap is charged with a duty of excise, and the manufacture is consequently regulated by several provisions intended for the protection of the revenue. No person is permitted to make soap within the limits of the local office of excise in London, unless he occupy a tenement of (100, or 1 year, and) is licensed to and pay the parish rates; nor elsewhere, unless it is licensed and pay to church and poor; and every soap-maker is required to take out a licence to be re-

newed annually, for which he is to pay 4s.; but persons in partnership require only 1 licence for 1 house. They are also required to provide sufficient wooden covers for all sappers and other utensils wherein they boil hard soap; which covers are to be locked and sealed down by the officer whenever any soap is left in the same; and the furnace door, cover, and the sub-house door is also to be locked and sealed at all times except when the same is at work. Regulations are also made for preventing the

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1832
1833
1834
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1836
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1838
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1840
1841

Account of

Ports
Bristol
Glasgow
Greenock
Liverpool
London
Hull
Newcastle

use of any private conveyances or pipes; empowering officers to break up the ground to search for the same, and cut them up if found; if not, the officers must make compensation for the injury done. In cleansing or taking soap out of the coppers, the makers are required to give notice, and certain species of lime are limited for completing the cleansing and taking out of the soap, according to the kind of soap, and the number of frames into which the same is put. Coppers and other vessels must be cleansed once in every month. The frames used in making hard soap, for cleansing and setting the same in, must be taken out of the vessel when hotted and prepared, must be either square or oblong, and the bottom, sides, and end of such frames shall be numbered, and the same in every inch long, and 15 inches broad, the same being marked and numbered at the expense of the soap-makers. The making of yellow or mottled soap is regulated by 58 (Sec. 3, c. 90), by which every maker is required, as soon as the same is cleansed or taken out of the vessel in which it has been made, to add and put into the copper or vessel all the lye and skimmings taken out of the same, and also grease, in the proportion of at least 10 cwt. of grease for every ton of yellow or mottled soap which the copper or vessel shall be by the officer computed to boil or make, and immediately remove such grease in the presence of the officer or excise. No less fit for the making of soap may be manufactured for sale; nor may any barrel be ground or pounded for sale; nor when ground or pounded be sold exceeding the weight of 32 lbs. of such barrel at one time. In the removal of soap exceeding the quantity of 10 lbs. the word "soap" must be painted or marked in large letters of at least 2 inches long on every chest, basket, box, cask, or package containing the same; and the same word must be painted or marked in letters of at least 2 inches in length on every wagon, cart, or other carriage carrying more than 25 lbs. in any conspicuous and open part of the same, unless it is carried by a person being a known and public or common carrier of goods or merchandise from one part to another; and the maker of the soap and the accompanying certificate. Soap-makers are also to keep books, and enter therein all quantities of soap sold exceeding 25 lbs. Every barrel of soap must contain 250 lbs. avoirdupois; every 1/2 barrel 125 lbs.; every firkin 62 1/2 lbs.; and every 1/4 firkin 31 1/4 lbs.; besides the weight and lye of the cask. Soap-makers must keep scales and weights, and assist the excise officers in the use of them, and must weigh their materials for making soap before the officers, on penalty of 50*l.* (*Chitty's Com. Law*, vol. ii. pp. 418-420.)

Duty.—The direct duty charged on hard soap, which is by far the most extensively used, amounted, till June 1833, to 3*d.* per lb., or 2*s.* per cwt., while the price of soap duty paid rarely exceeded 6*d.* per lb., or 5*s.* per cwt., so that the direct duty was fully 100 per cent. But besides this enormous duty, the substances of which soap is made, viz. tallow, barilla, and turpentine, or resin, were respectively charged with duties of 3*s.* 4*d.*, 2*s.*, and 4*d.* a cwt., and taking these indirect taxes into account, it may be truly stated that soap was taxed from 120 to 130 per cent. *ad valorem!* The imposition of so exorbitant a duty on an article indispensable to the prosecution of many branches of manufacture, and to the comfort and cleanliness of all orders of persons, was in the last degree inexpedient. During the 5 years ending with 1832, the consumption of duty-paid soap was nearly stationary; it though there can be little doubt, from the increase of manufactures and population during that period, that it would have been very considerably extended, but for the increase of smuggling. This practice is facilitated by the total exemption which Ireland enjoys from this duty; for it not unfrequently happens that the soap made in this country, and sent to Ireland under a drawback, is again clandestinely introduced into Great Britain. It is, perhaps, needless to say that nothing but the effectual reduction of the duty could put a stop to the smuggling and fraud that had been so generally practised. So long as the profit to be made by breaking the law was so high as 120 or 130 per cent., so long was it sure to be broken, in despite of the multiplication of penalties and the utmost activity and vigilance of the officers. But since the duty has been reduced 50 per cent., the temptation to smuggle has been most materially diminished. And the increased consumption that has followed the reduction of duty, has hindered the revenue from declining more than 1/3 part, or 25 per cent. Hence the advantages resulting from the diminished temptation to smuggling and fraud, and the influence of the reduced price of the article, in facilitating manufacturing industry, and in promoting habits of cleanliness, have been obtained without any very considerable sacrifice.

The entire repeal of the soap duty would be a popular measure; but, seeing that a large amount of revenue must be raised, and that those taxes only are productive which affect all classes of the community, we should not be disposed to recommend such a measure. It is not the law itself, but the oppressive extent to which it was carried, that made it objectionable. Instead of proposing its repeal, we think it ought to be extended to Ireland. The exemption of one part of the empire from a duty of this sort imposed on another part, is contrary to all principle, and is fraught with pernicious results. It will be impossible to get rid of smuggling so long as this unjust distinction is suffered to exist. Were the duty extended to Ireland, the necessity for granting drawbacks on the soap exported to it, and of laying countervailing duties on that reported from it, would, of course, fall to the ground. And we feel pretty confident that, though a still further deduction were made from the rate of duty, its productiveness would not, under such circumstances, be impaired even in England.

Account of the Quantity of Hard and Soft Soap charged with Excise Duty in Great Britain since 1822, the Rates of Duty, and the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duties.

Years.	Found's weight of Soap.		Rates of Duty.		Gross Produce of the Duties.	Nett Produce of the Duties.
	Hard.	Soft.	Hard, per lb.	Soft, per lb.		
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>
1822	89,166,934	7,583,638	3	1 1/2	1,347,707 19 10	1,179,612 2 4
1823	89,901,389	8,073,803	—	—	1,253,716 3 8	1,147,060 16 10 1/2
1824	97,071,456	8,236,923	—	—	1,374,939 19 7	1,199,409 16 10 1/2
1825	100,261,333	8,937,485	—	—	1,445,516 11 9	1,210,754 11 1 1/2
1826	102,635,165	9,910,974	—	—	1,534,192 0 0	1,310,909 18 0 1/2
1827	96,870,694	9,778,418	—	—	1,515,149 19 9 1/2	1,219,096 17 10 1/2
1828	104,378,807	9,618,377	—	—	1,580,584 0 0	1,380,584 0 0 1/2
1829	108,110,139	10,024,655	—	—	1,646,916 9 9 1/2	1,471,740 3 6 1/2
1830	103,041,961	9,068,918	—	—	1,598,011 11 7 1/2	1,388,118 15 5 1/2
1831	117,321,390	10,029,419	1 1/4, fr. 31 Mar.	1 <i>d.</i>	938,016 11 7 1/2	736,118 15 5 1/2
1832	118,379,037	10,336,703	—	—	974,098 15 0	774,098 15 0 1/2
1833	138,381,457	11,721,166	—	—	1,046,916 9 9 1/2	871,740 3 6 1/2
1834	144,311,043	10,401,491	1 <i>d.</i>	1 <i>d.</i>	1,038,016 11 7 1/2	838,118 15 5 1/2
1835	146,300,490	11,023,356	—	—	1,046,916 9 9 1/2	871,740 3 6 1/2
1836	146,630,410	12,536,891	—	—	969,850 0 0	751,247 18 0 1/2
1837	160,893,611	11,794,834	—	—	987,249 6 0 1/2	729,067 6 11 1/2
1838	159,571,909	13,650,000	—	—	1,033,763 6 0 1/2	809,000 6 0 1/2
1839	155,265,980	14,874,963	from 15th May	from 15th May	1,019,438 11 9	789,574 0 9 1/2
1840	159,928,194	15,535,036	1 <i>d.</i> and 6 p. ct.	1 <i>d.</i> and 6 p. ct.	1,079,448 9 6 1/2	806,704 15 0 1/2
1841	156,135,181	15,375,181	—	—	1,078,190 11 1 1/2	814,327 14 1 1/2
1842	155,453,340	18,454,925	—	—	1,060,848 10 10 1/2	628,003 16 2 1/2

Account of all Soap exported to Ireland, specifying the Port whence it was shipped, and the Amount of Drawback paid thereon, in 1842.

Ports from which shipped.	Hard.	Soft.	Drawback.
	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>
Belief	139,580	16,840	9 6 0 10
Glisgow	—	104,459	6 5 6 6
Liverpool	—	3,840	16 16 0
Liverpool	9,511,990	79,532	61 5 3 3
London	77,417	—	6 08 1 0
Hull	6,480	—	29 8 0
Totals	9,535,254	905,771	63,473 7 10

Account of the Soap made in the different Towns of Great Britain in which the Manufacture is carried on, distinguishing Hard from Soft; and also the Quantity upon which the Sifted Duty has been charged, in 1842.

Towns.	Sifted Soap.	Other Hard Soap.	Soft Soap.	Towns.	Sifted Soap.	Other Hard Soap.	Soft Soap.						
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.		Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.						
ENGLAND.													
Bath	-	568,590	-	ENGLAND — continued.	-	-	-						
Burton	-	54,620	-	Plymouth	-	3,410,949	-						
Bristol	-	6,983,028	140,098	Wallingford	-	21,110	-						
Cambridge	-	74,520	-	Dorchester	-	212,250	-						
Canterbury	-	205,500	-	Greenwich	-	129,110	-						
Chester	-	375,590	-	Newminster	-	3,518	-						
London	-	57,500	-	Sheffield	-	891,170	-						
Manchester	-	328,595	-	Sturley	-	124,030	-						
Reading	-	2,540	-	Stratford	5,472	7,706,010	-						
Sheffield	-	900	-	Westminster	41,040	95,411	-						
South Shields	-	166,530	-	Bury	-	412,803	-						
Stratford	-	1,159,190	-	Clare	-	155,689	-						
Torquay	-	11,970	-	Ipwich	-	737,934	-						
Malden	-	138,460	-	Nayland	-	11,500	-						
Gloucester	-	1,561,110	-	Brentford	-	4,085,689	-						
Stroud	-	1,109	-	Brompton	-	549,590	-						
Thornbury	-	160,010	-	Staines	-	30,423	-						
Stamford	-	663,940	-	Wandsworth	-	190,170	-						
Barnley	-	390,490	-	Arundel	-	317,240	-						
Farnham	-	5,200	-	Horsham	-	80,210	-						
Georgetown	-	402,500	-	Lewes	-	306,730	-						
Portsmouth	-	761,590	-	Bridgewater	-	30,040	-						
Readington	-	31,030	-	Colchester	-	3,870	-						
Hull	-	3,338,800	273,580	Langport	-	38,230	-						
Newport	-	4,271	760	Taunton	-	40,020	-						
Southampton	-	74,560	-	Bromsgrove	244,185	5,418,895	-						
Lancaster	-	289,870	4,850	York	-	985,700	-						
Bradford	-	196,910	-	Country	-	1,823,167	1,664,275						
Leeds	-	2,171,500	1,442,980	London	-	827,580	56,715,537						
Wakefield	-	185,740	-	Total, England	2,150,747	142,395,881	3,190,701						
Birmingham	-	130,540	-	SCOTLAND.									
Lincoln	-	290,920	-	Aberdeen	-	-	439,280						
Louth	-	43,840	-	Perth	-	-	46,568						
Spalday	-	43,830	-	Greenock	-	-	46,310						
Liverpool	1,505,800	38,523,960	5,593,771	Falley	-	-	118,440						
Hull	-	541,515	6,506	Leith	-	-	4,474,103						
Manchester	-	4,290,660	-	Dunfermline	-	-	283,700						
Sheffield	-	5,734,840	-	Glasgow	1,460	-	5,638,000						
Northwich	-	11,330	-	Ferrossary	-	-	710,480						
Runcorn	-	19,809,350	-	Montrose	-	-	199,930						
Warrington	-	2,989,750	-	Birling	-	-	831,100						
Norwich	30,670	1,262,920	-	Total, Scotland	1,460	10,923,345	4,543,968						
Yarmouth	-	886,750	-										
Barnport	-	12,900	-										
				Sifted Soap.		Other Hard Soap.		Soft Soap.					
				Lbs.		Lbs.		Lbs.					
Totals				In England - - -		1,460		10,923,345		3,190,701			
				In Scotland - - -		2,150,747		142,395,881		4,543,968			
				Total, Great Britain -		2,152,207		152,717,176		7,734,669			

SODA. See ALKALI.
SOUTH SEA DUTIES. The act of the 9 Ann. c. 21., establishing the South Sea Company, conveyed to them the exclusive privilege of trading to the Pacific Ocean, and along the east coast of America, from the Orinoco to Cape Horn.

This privilege was taken away by the 47 Geo. 3. c. 23.; and in order to raise a guarantee fund for the indemnification of the Company, a duty of 2 per cent. *ad valorem* was imposed by the 56 Geo. 3. c. 57. on all goods (with the exception of those from Brazil and Dutch Surinam*); and with the exception of blubber, oil, &c. of whales, or fish caught by the crews of British or Irish ships imported from within the aforesaid limits. A duty of 1s. 6d. per ton was also imposed on all vessels (except in ballast or importing the produce of the fishery of British subjects) entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to places within the said limits. The duties are to cease when the guarantee fund is completed.

SOY, a species of sauce prepared in China and Japan from a small bean, the produce of the *Dolichos soja*. It is eaten with fish and other articles. It should be chosen of a good flavour, not too salt nor too sweet, of a good thick consistence, a brown colour, and clear; when shaken in a glass, it should leave a coat on the surface, of a bright yellowish brown colour; if it do not, it is of an inferior kind, and should be rejected. Japan soy is deemed superior to the Chinese. It is worth, in bond, from 6s. to 7s. a gallon. It is believed to be extensively counterfeited. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SPELTER, a name frequently given to ZINC; which see.

SPERMACETI (Ger. *Wallrath*; Fr. *Blanc de Baleine*, *Sperme de Baleine*; It. *Spermaceti*; Sp. *Esperma de Ballena*; Rus. *Spermazet*), a product obtained from the brain of the *physeter macrocephalus*, a species of whale inhabiting the Southern Ocean. The brain being dug out from the cavity of the head, the oil is separated from it by dripping. The residue is crude spermaceti, of which an ordinary sized whale will yield 12 barrels. After being brought to England, it is purified. It then concretes into a white, crystallised, brittle, semitransparent, unctuous substance, nearly inodorous and insipid. On being cut into small pieces it assumes a flaky aspect. It is very heavy; its specific gravity being 9.433. It is used in the manufacture of candles, in medicine, &c.

* The provinces of the Rio de la Plata have since been added. — (*Treas. Order*, 12th of March, 1828.)

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SPICES (Ger. *Speserayen*; Du. *Speceryen*; Fr. *Epiceries, Epices*; It. *Spezi, Spezierie*; Sp. *Espicias, Especerias*; Port. *Espiciarta*; Rus. *Prünüs korenja*). Under this denomination are included all those vegetable productions which are fragrant to the smell and pungent to the palate; such as cloves, ginger, nutmegs, allspice, &c. These will be found under their proper heads.

SPIRIT OF WINE. See **ALCOHOL.**

SPIRITS. All inflammable liquors obtained by distillation, as brandy, rum, geneva, whisky, gin, &c., are comprised under this designation. The term *British spirits* is applied indiscriminately to the various sorts of spirits manufactured in Great Britain and Ireland. Of these, gin and whisky are by far the most important.

The manufacture of spirits is placed under the *surveillance* of the excise, and a very large revenue is obtained from it. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 80. lays down the regulations to be followed by the distillers in the manufacture, and by the officers in charging the duties. This act is of great length, having no fewer than 151 clauses; it is, besides, exceedingly complicated, and the penalties in it amount to many thousand pounds. It would, therefore, be to no purpose to attempt giving any abstract of it in this place. Every one carrying on the business of distillation must have the act in his possession, and be practically acquainted with its operation.

1. *Spirit Duties. Consumption of British Spirits in Great Britain and Ireland.*—There are, perhaps, no better subjects for taxation than spirituous and fermented liquors. They are essentially luxuries; and while moderate duties on them are, in consequence of their being very generally used, exceedingly productive, the increase of price which they occasion has a tendency to lessen their consumption by the poor, to whom, when taken in excess, they are exceedingly pernicious. Few governments, however, have been satisfied with imposing moderate duties on spirits; but, partly in the view of increasing the revenue, and partly in the view of placing them beyond the reach of the lower classes, have almost invariably loaded them with such oppressively high duties as have entirely defeated both objects. The imposition of such duties does not take away the appetite for spirits; and as no vigilance of the officers or severity of the laws has been found sufficient to secure a monopoly of the market to the legal distillers, the real effect of the high duties has been to throw the supply of a large proportion of the demand into the hands of the illicit distiller, and to superadd the atrocities of the smuggler to the idleness and dissipation of the drunkard.

During the latter part of the reign of George I., and the earlier part of that of George II., gin-drinking was exceedingly prevalent; and the cheapness of ardent spirits, and the multiplication of public houses, were denounced from the pulpit, and in the presentments of grand juries, as pregnant with the most destructive consequences to the health and morals of the community. At length, ministers determined to make a vigorous effort to put a stop to the further use of spirituous liquors, except as a cordial or medicine. For this purpose, an act was passed in 1736, the history and effects of which deserve to be studied by all who are clamorous for an increase of the duties on spirits. Its preamble is to this effect:—"Whereas the drinking of spirituous liquors, or strong water, is become very common, especially among people of lower and inferior rank, the constant and excessive use of which tends greatly to the destruction of their health, rendering them unfit for useful labour and business, debauching their morals, and inciting them to perpetrate all vices; and the ill consequences of the excessive use of such liquors are not confined to the present generation, but extend to future ages, and tend to the destruction and ruin of this kingdom." The enactments were such as might be expected to follow a preamble of this sort. They were not intended to repress the vice of gin-drinking, but to root it out altogether. To accomplish this, a duty of *twenty shillings* a gallon was laid on spirits, exclusive of a heavy licence duty on retailers. Extraordinary encouragements were at the same time held out to informers, and a fine of 100*l.* was ordered to be rigorously exacted from those who, were it even through inadvertency, should vend the smallest quantity of spirits which had not paid the full duty. Here was an act which might, one should think, have satisfied the bitterest enemy of gin. But instead of the anticipated effects, it produced those directly opposite. The respectable dealers withdrew from a trade proscribed by the legislature; so that the spirit business fell almost entirely into the hands of the lowest and most profligate characters, who, as they had nothing to lose, were not deterred by penalties from breaking through all its provisions. The populace having in this, as in all similar cases, espoused the cause of the smugglers and unlicensed dealers, the officers of the revenue were openly assaulted in the streets of London and other great towns; informers were hunted down like wild beasts; and drunkenness, disorders, and crimes increased with a frightful rapidity. "Within 2 years of the passing of the act," says Tindal, "it had become *odious and contemptible*, and policy as well as humanity forced the commissioners of excise to mitigate its penalties."—(*Continuation of Rapin*, vol. viii. p. 358. ed. 1759.) The same historian mentions (vol. viii. p. 390.), that during

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the 2 years in question, no fewer than 12,000 persons were convicted of offences connected with the sale of spirits. But no exertion on the part of the revenue officers and magistrates could stem the torrent of smuggling. According to a statement made by the Earl of Cholmondeley in the House of Lords—(*Parliamentary Debates in the House of Lords*, vol. viii. p. 368.), it appears, that at the very moment when the sale of spirits was declared to be illegal, and every possible exertion made to suppress it; upwards of seven millions of gallons were annually consumed in London, and other parts immediately adjacent! Under such circumstances, government had but one course to follow—to give up the unequal struggle. In 1742, the high prohibitory duties were accordingly repealed, and such moderate duties imposed, as were calculated to increase the revenue, by increasing the consumption of legally distilled spirits. The bill for this purpose was vehemently opposed in the House of Lords by most of the bishops, and many other peers, who exhausted all their rhetoric in depicting the mischievous consequences that would result from a toleration of the practice of gin-drinking. To these declamations it was unanswerably replied, that whatever the evils of the practice might be, it was impossible to repress them by prohibitory enactments; and that the attempts to do so had been productive of far more mischief than had ever resulted, or could be expected to result, from the greatest abuse of spirits. The consequences of the change were highly beneficial. An instant stop was put to smuggling; and if the vice of drunkenness was not materially diminished, it has never been stated that it was increased.

But it is unnecessary to go back to the reign of George II. for proof of the impotency of high duties to take away the taste for such an article, or to lessen its consumption. The occurrences that took place in the late reign, though they would seem to be already forgotten, are equally decisive as to this question.

Duties in Ireland.—Perhaps no country has suffered more from the excessive height to which duties on spirits have been carried than Ireland. If heavy taxes, enforced by severe fiscal regulations, could make a people sober and industrious, the Irish would be the most so of any on the face of the earth. In order to make the possessors of property join heartily in suppressing illicit distillation, the novel expedient was here resorted to, of imposing a heavy fine on every parish, town land, manor land, or lordship in which an unlicensed still was found; while the unfortunate wretches found working it were subjected to transportation for seven years. But instead of putting down illicit distillation, these unheard-of severities rendered it universal, and filled the country with bloodshed, and even rebellion. It is stated by the Rev. Mr. Chichester, in his valuable pamphlet on the *Irish Distillery Laws*, published in 1818, that "the Irish system seemed to have been formed in order to perpetuate smuggling and anarchy. It has culled the evils of both savage and civilised life, and rejected all the advantages which they contain. The calamities of civilised warfare are, in general, inferior to those produced by the Irish distillery laws; and I doubt whether any nation of modern Europe, which is not in a state of actual revolution, can furnish instances of legal cruelty commensurate to those which I have represented."—(Pp. 92—107.)

These statements are borne out to the fullest extent by the official details in the *Reports of the Revenue Commissioners*. In 1811, say the commissioners (*Fifth Report*, p. 19.), when the duty on spirits was 2s. 6d. a gallon, duty was paid in Ireland on 6,500,361 gallons (Irish measure); whereas, in 1822, when the duty was 5s. 6d., only 2,950,647 gallons were brought to the charge. The commissioners estimate, that the annual consumption of spirits in Ireland was at this very period not less than ten millions of gallons; and, as scarcely three millions paid duty, it followed, that seven millions were illegally supplied; and "taking one million of gallons as the quantity fraudulently furnished for consumption by the licensed distillers, the produce of the unlicensed stills may be estimated at six millions of gallons."—(Ib. p. 8.) Now, it is material to keep in mind that this vast amount of smuggling was carried on in the teeth of the above barbarous statutes, and in despite of the utmost exertions of the police and military to prevent it; the only result being the exasperation of the populace, and the perpetration of revolting atrocities both by them and the military. "In Ireland," say the commissioners, "it will appear, from the evidence annexed to this Report, that parts of the country have been absolutely disorganised, and placed in opposition not only to the civil authority, but to the military forces of the government. The profits to be obtained from the evasion of the law have been such as to encourage numerous individuals to persevere in these desperate pursuits, notwithstanding the risk of property and life with which they have been attended."

To put an end to such evils, the commissioners recommended that the duty on spirits should be reduced from 5s. 6d. to 2s. the wine gallon (2s. 4d. the Imperial gallon), and government wisely consented to act upon this recommendation. In 1823, the duties were accordingly reduced; and the following official account will show what has been the result of this measure:—

An Account of the Quantities of Corn Spirits made in Ireland, which have paid the Duties of Excise for Home Consumption; stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since 1820.—(Furnished by the Excise.)

Years.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Imperial Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.
1821	<i>Imperial Measure.</i> 8,311,482	5s. 7½d.	£ 903,141 13 2
1822	8,310,483	Ditto.	801,087 18 6
1823	5,590,378	5s. 7½d. and 2s. 4½d.	819,471 0 2
1824	5,690,315	Ditto.	785,163 8 4
1825	5,469,744	Ditto.	1,107,449 13 7
1826	6,354,867	2s. 10d.	963,179 13 1
1827	6,560,664	Ditto.	1,153,763 15 1
1828	5,937,903	Ditto.	1,404,616 8 1
1829	5,215,225	Ditto.	1,304,835 1 8
1830	5,004,552	Ditto.	1,409,126 3 7
1831	6,710,672	2s. 10d., 3s., and 2s. 4d.	1,451,380 7 0
1832	6,657,756	Ditto.	1,432,843 9 0
1833	6,106,596	Ditto.	1,501,769 8 8
1834	6,708,463	2s. 4d. and 2s. 4d.	1,569,659 2 8
1835	11,381,223	2s. 4d.	1,387,905 14 8
1836	12,246,772	Ditto.	1,498,744 8 2
1837	11,285,653	Ditto.	1,510,765 13 9
1838	12,236,319	Ditto.	1,434,331 18 4
1839	10,515,709	Ditto.	1,661,741 17 6
1840	7,401,051	2s. 4d. and 2s. 8d.	832,632 10 4
1841	6,485,433	2s. 8d.	864,105 10 2
1842	5,349,650	2s. 8d. and 2s. 8d.	894,780 0 8
1843	6,546,483	2s. 8d. and 2s. 8d.	852,306 16 10

It may appear, on a superficial view of this Table, as if the consumption of spirits in Ireland had been nearly trebled in consequence of the reduction of the duty in 1823; but, in point of fact, it was not in any degree increased. The reduction of the duties substituted legal for illicit distillation, and freed the country from the perjuries and other atrocities that grew out of the previous system; but it would be wholly erroneous to say that it increased drunkenness. We have already seen that the commissioners, who had the best means of obtaining accurate information, estimated the consumption of spirits in Ireland, in 1823, at TEN millions of gallons; and when greatest, in 1839, 13 years after, the consumption was only 12,296,342 gallons. No doubt, therefore, the measure deserves to be considered as having been in every point of view most successful. It will be seen that the increase of duty from 2s. 10d. to 3s. 4d., in 1830, perceptibly diminished the quantity of spirits brought to the charge; and as it was found to give a considerable stimulus to illicit distillation, which had previously been nearly extinct, the duty was reduced to 2s. 4d. in 1835. The extraordinary decrease in the consumption of spirits since 1839, though in some degree, perhaps, ascribable to the addition of 4d. a gallon made to the duty in 1840, is no doubt principally owing to the exertions of Father Mathew, and the spread of temperance societies; and notwithstanding the loss of revenue it has occasioned, the change has certainly been of great public advantage; and provided it be maintained, it is not easy to suppose that any thing should have occurred better fitted to improve the physical and moral condition of the people. The ill-advised addition of 1s. a gallon made to the duty in 1842 was repealed in 1844; for while it gave a powerful stimulus to clandestine distillation, it was pretty obvious it would not have added anything to the revenue, or given any additional impetus to the temperance movement.

Duties in Scotland.—The experience of Scotland is hardly less decisive as to this question. The exorbitancy of the duties produced nearly the same effects there as in Ireland. Mr. John Hay Forbes, formerly sheriff-depute of Perthshire, now one of the Lords of Session, stated in evidence before the commissioners, that, according to the best information he could obtain, the quantity of illegally distilled spirits annually produced in the Highlands could not amount to less than two millions of gallons. In corroboration of this, he stated that, in 1821, only 298,138 gallons were brought to the charge in the Highlands; and of these, 254,000 gallons were permitted to the Lowlands, leaving only 44,000 gallons for the consumption of the whole country;—a supply which, we are well assured, would hardly be sufficient for the demand of 2 moderately populous parishes. In a letter of Captain Munro of Teaninich to the commissioners, it is stated that, "at Tain, where there are upwards of 23 licensed public houses, not one gallon had been permitted from the legal distilleries for upwards of twelve months," though a small quantity of smuggled whisky had been purchased at the excise sales, to give a colour of legality to the trade. The same gentleman thus expresses himself in another part of his letter:—"The moral effects of this baneful trade of smuggling on the lower classes is most conspicuous, and increasing in an alarming degree, as evidenced by the multiplicity of crimes, and by a degree of insubordination formerly little known in this part of the country. In several districts, such as Strathconon, Strathearon, &c., the excise officers are now often deforced, and dare not attempt to do their duty; and smuggled whisky is often carried to market by smugglers escorted by armed men, in defiance of the laws. In short, the Irish system is making progress in the Highlands of Scotland."

To arrest the progress of demoralisation, government, pursuant to the judicious advice

of the commissioners, reduced the duties on Scotch to the same level as those on Irish whisky; and the consequences were equally salutary. The subjoined official statement shows the consumption and rate of duty since 1821.

An Account of the Quantities of Corn Spirits made in Scotland, which have paid the Duties of Excise for Home Consumption; stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since 1820.—(Furnished by the Excise.)

Years.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Imperial Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.	
			£	s. d.
1821	<i>Imperial Measures.</i> 2,556,435	6s. 8d.	137,247	3 11
1822	2,325,124	6s. 8d.	689,569	15 11
1823	2,305,886	6s. 2d. and 2s. 4½d.	256,243	18 6
1824	4,350,501	2s. 4½d.	294,157	9 8
1825	2,061,650	6s. 8d.	717,873	1 4
1826	2,968,788	2s. 10d.	565,256	16 9
1827	4,759,199	Ditto.	673,450	6 8
1828	2,718,180	Ditto.	809,539	6 7
1829	2,777,890	Ditto.	515,178	4 2
1830	2,007,631	2s. 10d., 3s. and 2s. 4d.	939,568	6 0
1831	2,700,689	3s. 4d.	950,041	4 8
1832	2,605,432	Ditto.	801,906	10 0
1833	2,998,656	Ditto.	998,051	8 8
1834	6,045,043	Ditto.	1,007,505	10 0
1835	6,013,839	Ditto.	1,028,506	0 10
1836	6,680,826	Ditto.	1,103,450	3 4
1837	6,194,036	Ditto.	1,020,569	18 10
1838	6,599,711	Ditto.	1,043,160	18 4
1839	6,188,683	Ditto.	1,031,813	10 0
1840	6,180,158	3s. 4d. and 2s. 8d.	1,067,849	9 11
1841	6,989,803	3s. 8d.	1,029,118	11 11
1842	5,595,186	Ditto.	1,023,743	13 7
1843	6,593,798	Ditto.	1,026,506	1 6

This table sets the influence of the reduction of the duty in 1833 in the most striking point of view, the consumption of duty-paid spirits having more than doubled in the course of two years, at the same time that illicit distillation was all but suppressed. The addition of 6d. made to the duty in 1830 gave a check to the consumption from which it did not speedily recover; and revived, though happily to no great extent, the dormant energies of the smuggler. The influence of the 4d. added to the duty in 1840 is also most perceptible.

Duties in England.—Previously to the reduction of the duty on Irish and Scotch spirits, the duty on English spirits had been as high as 11s. 8d. a gallon. This high duty, and the restrictions under which the trade was placed, were productive of the worst effects. They went far to enable the distillers to fix the price of spirits, “and consequently” (we quote the words of the commissioners of excise inquiry) “to raise it much beyond that which was sufficient to repay, with a profit, the cost of the manufacture and the duty advanced to the Crown.” And, in proof of this, the commissioners mention, that in November, 1823, “when corn spirits might be purchased in Scotland for about 2s. 3d. a gallon, raw spirits could not be purchased in England for less than 4s. 6d. ready money, and 4s. 9d. credit, omitting, in both cases, the duty.” In consequence of this state of things, the adulteration of spirits was carried on to a great extent in England; and the large profits made by the smuggler occasioned clandestine importation in considerable quantities from Scotland and Ireland. To obviate these inconveniences, and at the same time to neutralise the powerful additional stimulus that the reduction of the duties in Scotland and Ireland would have given to smuggling, had the duties in England been continued at their former amount, the latter were reduced, in 1826, to 7s. a gallon, facilities being at the same time given to the importation of spirits from the other parts of the empire. Many complaints have been made of the influence of this measure in increasing drunkenness; but nothing can be imagined more completely destitute of foundation. The commissioners estimated the consumption of British spirits in England and Wales, in 1823, at 5,000,000 gallons — (*Supp. to Fifth Report*, p. 8.); and it appears from the subjoined account, that it amounted, for the year ending 5th of January 1844, to 7,719,458 gallons; producing 3,023,445*l.* of revenue; so that, making allowance for the increase of population since 1823, and for the check given to adulteration and smuggling, and considering, also, that the consumption of foreign spirits was not greater in 1843 than in 1823, it may be safely affirmed that the practice of spirit-drinking has not increased in England during the last 20 years. No doubt, however, it is still a great deal too prevalent, and large sums of money are wasted by the poor on gin, which had far better be expended on other things. But how much soever we may deplore the prevalence of gin-drinking, we may be assured that the evil is not one that can be cured, or even mitigated, by increasing, to any considerable extent, the existing duties on spirits. Such increase would substitute illegitimate for legitimate channels of supply; it would injure the public revenue; and diffuse among the populace the idle, disorderly, and predatory habits that mark the character of the smuggler; and it would do all this without lessening in any degree the vice of drunkenness.

SPIRITS.

1227

Account of the Quantities of Corn Spirits made in England, which have paid the Duties of Excise for Home Consumption, stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since the Year 1820. — (Furnished by the Excise.)

Years.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Imperial Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.
1821	4,128,616	11s. 8d.	£ 4,815,880
1822	4,624,055	Do. do.	5,749,372
1823	2,905,519	Ditto.	3,422,272
1824	4,329,411	Ditto.	5,267,372
1825	3,650,233	Ditto.	4,355,287
1826	6,671,569	7s.	5,299,591
1827	7,799,687	Ditto.	5,556,046
1828	7,090,768	Ditto.	4,715,620
1829	7,724,101	7s. and 7d. 6d.	5,685,288
1830	7,134,047	7s. 6d.	5,207,187
1831	7,361,920	Ditto.	4,797,707
1832	7,312,023	Ditto.	4,750,712
1833	7,717,202	Ditto.	5,265,868
1834	7,644,501	Ditto.	5,266,606
1835	7,312,023	Ditto.	5,265,868
1836	7,875,702	Ditto.	5,265,384
1837	7,135,969	Ditto.	4,074,499
1838	7,350,429	Ditto.	5,073,003
1839	8,186,552	Ditto.	5,269,958
1840	8,279,148	7s. 6d. and 7s. 10d.	5,083,665
1841	8,166,283	7s. 10d.	5,198,248
1842	7,956,054	Ditto.	5,116,121
1843	7,719,488	Ditto.	5,023,444

Account specifying the Total Number of Proof Gallons of Rum, Brandy, Geneva, and all other Spirits, that paid Duty in each of the U. Kingdoms from the 5th Day of January 1842, to the 5th Day of January 1843; specifying also the Rate of Duty per Gallon, and Amount thereof; the Total Number of Gallons of each Kind of Spirits, and Total Duty thereon; and the Total Number of Gallons of all Kinds of Spirits and Total Duty thereon, for the U. Kingdom.

Spirits.	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		U. Kingdom.		Rates of Duty per Gallon.	
	Gallons.	Nett Duty.	Gallons.	Nett Duty.	Gallons.	Nett Duty.	Gallons.	Nett Duty.	£ s. d.	
Rum	3,050,231	956,827	35,561	16,781	11,465	5,351	3,027,747	978,959	0 9 4	
Brandy	1,024,284	1,180,707	31,670	26,157	16,825	13,984	1,089,919	1,335,846	1 2 10	
Geneva	9,686	10,937	3,747	4,278	1,816	1,406	14,579	16,621	various rates.	
Other foreign & colonial spirits	3,001	3,049	559	516	210	271	3,770	6,836		
Total of foreign and colonial spirits	3,099,242	3,154,280	71,927	57,728	29,546	28,010	3,201,018	3,238,969		
Spirits of the manufacture of U. Kingdom	7,956,064	8,116,121	5,666,186	1,025,784	5,290,850	904,900	18,841,890	3,046,514	0 7 10	
Ditto of Guernsey & Jersey	6,711	2,828	1,210	241	-	-	8,023	2,869	0 3 8	
Spirits of all kinds	11,069,207	5,273,289	5,668,423	1,083,757	5,320,196	930,919	22,050,928	7,287,945	0 3 8	

An Account specifying the Number of Proof Gallons of Rum, distinguishing West India, East India, and Foreign; of Brandy, Geneva, and other Foreign, Colonial, or Jersey Spirits, imported; of the Quantities upon which Duty was paid for Home Consumption, the Quantities exported, and the Quantities shipped as Stores, and used by the Navy, for the Year ended the 5th of January, 1842; together with the Quantities of each Sort remaining in Bond on the 5th day of January, 1842, distinguishing London from the Country.

Quantities (Includ. overproof).	Rum.							Brandy.	Geneva.	Other Foreign and Colonial Spirits.	Spirits mixed in Bond.	Spirits of Guernsey & Jersey.	Total.
	Of British America and the West Indies.	Of British India.	Foreign.	Value, not described.	All Sorts.	Galls.	Galls.						
Imported	2,461,122	1,055,579	168,581	-	4,065,546	4,916,387	539,422	173,609	-	-	14,911	7,705,111	
Retained for home consumption	2,617,175	-	1 84	-	2,277,970	1,164,506	15,421	6,177	-	-	-	18,511	
Exported	315,194	350,289	129,599	157,514	1,099,396	1,315,815	479,636	113,093	155,928	-	-	3,182,588	
Shipped as stores	223,423	6,685	1,599	3,418	234,934	87,619	35,458	151	-	-	-	355,789	
Delivered for the Navy	202,962	805,506	-	-	406,488	-	-	-	-	-	-	406,488	
In bond on 5th Jan. 1842—													
At the port of London	1,025,560	348,594	38,566	19,950	1,600,770	1,348,151	80,890	81,104	7,210	-	-	6,759	
At other ports of U. Kingdom	927,828	99,448	47,220	41,359	1,118,155	976,544	70,333	43,751	7,083	-	-	2,781	
Total	1,953,468	448,042	86,086	232,309	2,718,925	2,319,395	91,245	124,945	14,899	-	-	9,512	

Wine's in Spirits. — No spirits made in England, Scotland, or Ireland shall be conveyed from England to Scotland or Ireland, or from Scotland or Ireland to England, otherwise than in casks containing twenty gallons at the load, and in vessels of not less than fifty tons burden.

All persons whatsoever, not being licensed distillers, rectifiers, or compounders, having more than twenty gallons of spirits in their possession, shall be deemed dealers in spirits, and subject to the survey of the officers of excise, and to all the regulations, penalties, &c. to which such persons are liable. — 16 Geo. 4. c. 50. sect. 125.

Dealers in British spirits are prohibited selling or having in their possession any plain British spirits, except spirits of wine, of any strength exceeding the strength of 32 per cent. above

hydrometer, or of any strength below 17 per cent. under hydrometer proof, or any compounded spirit, except thrub, of any greater strength than 17 per cent. under hydrometer, under pain of forfeiting all such spirits, with the cask, &c. — Sect. 134.

Dealers in foreign and British spirits are to keep them separate, in casks, vials, or other places specially ordered for that purpose, under a heavy penalty; and any person mixing, selling, or sending out any British spirits mixed with foreign or colonial spirits, shall forfeit 100*l.* for every such offence. — Sect. 135.

No retailer of spirits, or any other person licensed or unlicensed, shall sell or send out from his stock or custody any quantity of spirits exceeding 1 gallon, unless the same be accompanied by a true and lawful permit, under pain of forfeiting 50*l.*; and any retailer, compounder, or dealer in spirits, receiving the same into their stock, or allowing any one else to receive it, and any carrier, boatman, or other person knowingly carrying the same, shall forfeit the sum of 50*l.*, with the boat, horse, cart, &c. used in the carriage. — Sect. 116.

No licence to be granted for retailing spirits within goals houses of correction, or workhouses for parish poor; but any spirit to be used there, except medicinally prescribed by a regular physician, surgeon, or apothecary. Penalty for a first offence of this sort committed by grocers, &c., 100*l.*; a second offence to be deemed a forfeiture of their office. — Sect. 134.

Persons harboring spirits to forfeit them and 100*l.*; and if the penalty be not immediately paid, they are to be committed to the house of correction for 3 months, or until paid. — Sect. 135*l.* Any person is authorized to detain a hawker of spirits, and give notice to a peace officer, who is to carry the offender before a justice. — Sect. 140.

Any officer of excise, or other person employed in the excise, taking any sum of money or other reward from, or entering into any collusion agreement with, any person, to act contrary to his duty, to forfeit 500*l.*, and be incapacitated; and any person offering such reward or proposing such agreement, to forfeit 500*l.*. — Sect. 145.

For the regulations as to the Importation, &c. of foreign spirits, see HANOVER, GAWAYA, and RUM.

SPONGE (Ger. *Schwamm*; Fr. *Eponge*; It. *Spugna*; Sp. *Esponja*), a soft, light, very porous, and compressible substance, readily imbibing water, and as readily giving it out again. It is found adhering to rocks, particularly in the Mediterranean Sea, about the islands of the Archipelago. It was formerly supposed to be a vegetable production, but is now classed among the zoöphytes; and analysed, it yields the same principles as animal substances in general. The inhabitants in several of the Greek islands have been trained from their infancy to dive for sponges. They adhere firmly to the bottom; and are not detached without a good deal of trouble. The extraordinary clearness of the water facilitates the operations of the divers. Smyrna is the great market for sponge. The price varies from 6 to 16 piastres per oke for ordinary and dirty, and from 80 to 100 piastres per oke for fine and picked specimens. Sponge is also fished for in the Red Sea. — (*Ure's Dictionary*; *Savary's Letters on Greece*, Eng. ed. p. 109; and *private communications*.)

Sponge is used in surgery, and for a variety of purposes in the arts. The duty on sponge when brought from a foreign country, is 6*d.*, and when brought from a British possession, 1*d.* per lb. Now, as the far greater portion comes from the former, and as the duty produced, in 1840, 1,963*l.*, the entries may be partly presumed to have amounted in that year to about 78,500 lbs. No deduction is made from the duty on account of sand or dirt, unless it exceed 7 per cent., and then only for the excess above 7 per cent.

SQUILL (Ger. *Meerzwiebel*; Fr. *Scille*, *Oignon marin*; It. *Scilla*, *Cipolla marina*; Sp. *Cebolla albarrana*), or, as it is sometimes denominated, the *Sea onion*, is a plant with a large bulbous root, which is the only part that is used. It grows spontaneously on sandy shores in Spain and the Levant; whence we are annually supplied with the roots. They should be chosen large, plump, fresh, and full of a clammy juice: some are of a reddish colour, and others white; but no difference is observed in the qualities of the 2 sorts. The root is very nauseous, intensely bitter, and acrimonious; much handled, it ulcerates the skin. The bulbs are brought to England, preserved fresh in sand. The acrimony of the roots, on which their virtue depends, is partially destroyed by drying and long keeping, and is completely destroyed by exposure to heat above 212°. Squill is one of the most powerful and useful remedies in the materia medica. (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

STADE, a small city of Hanover, on the Schwinge, 22 miles W. by N. of Hamburg, lat. 53° 36' 32" N., lon. 9° 28' 34" E. It has very little trade; and would be quite unworthy of notice in a work of this sort, except for the circumstance that a toll or duty, charged by the Hanoverian government on all goods imported into Hamburg, whether for consumption or transit, is paid at the castle of Brunshausen, contiguous to this town. The duty is generally about ½ per cent. *ad valorem*. It is rated according to a tariff; and is computed from the ship's manifest, bills of lading, caskets, &c., which must be left at Brunshausen for that purpose. The duties are paid in Hamburg; and no vessel is allowed to unload, till a receipt, subscribed by the Hanoverian authorities in that city, be produced for the duties. We have already — (see HAMBURG) — expressed our surprise that an obstruction of this sort should have been tolerated for so long a period. The duties fall heavily on certain descriptions of goods; particularly on some manufactured articles; and are, at an average, decidedly higher than the duties charged in Hamburg. They are most objectionable, however, from their requiring many troublesome regulations to be complied with; the unintentional deviation from any one of which exposes the cargo to confiscation, and never fails to occasion a great deal of delay, trouble, and expense. As the principal part of the foreign trade of the Elbe is in our hands, we are, of course, principally affected by the Stade toll; and considering the source of the nuisance, it is not a little astonishing it should not have been abated long ago. The sum which the Hanoverian government derives from the duties is but trifling compared with the injury they inflict on our trade; it would, consequently, be good policy for the former to sell, and for the British government to buy, an exemption from so vexatious a duty; and few things would do more to extend our trade with Hamburg than the completion of an arrangement of this sort. We believe, however,

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that the negotiations which have been for some time on foot with respect to this matter are in a fair way of being brought to a satisfactory conclusion, and that the merchants engaged in the trade to Hamburg may expect, at no distant period, to be relieved from the annoyance of the Stade duties.

Previously to 1736, English ships passing up the Elbe had to come to an anchor opposite Brunshausen: but they were then allowed, under certain conditions, to pass on to Hamburg. The proclamation to this effect, and which contains an epitome of the regulations that have still to be observed, is subjoined.

1. That all English vessels be exempted from coming to an anchor before the river Schwings, and allowed to sail directly up to Hamburg;
2. That English vessels shall be obliged, at their approach, within about $\frac{1}{2}$ of a league thereof, to hoist their colours, to lower their sails, and only to drive, till the legitimatum is made at the king's frigate (lying there);
3. The master of the ship, or a proper person fully provided with the necessary documents, is to go on board the frigate, and there to produce an exact manifest, and the original bills of lading, cocketts, &c.
4. The documents being produced, the accounts shall be stated, and all duties must be paid at Brunshausen, Stade, or Hamburg;
5. The clearance shall be given at Brunshausen to the person sent thither by the master of the vessel; by whom it must be delivered to the king's commissary in Hamburg, together with the documents of the cargo, and a specification of the parcels, balis, casks, &c. which were received on board at the port of lading, whether designed for Hamburg or other places;
6. Bulk must not be broken till all this has been performed, except the king's commissary in Hamburg permits, in urgent cases, the unloading;
7. The vessels being thus allowed to pass the frigate without being searched, in case of suspecting any fraud, the masters shall be obliged to sign a proper oath; and the merchants in

- Hamburg, who receive effects by those vessels, shall make an exact report thereof, and give a certificate in lieu of an oath — that they neither have received nor expected more goods than have been specified, — which must be delivered to his Majesty's commissary in Hamburg; to enable him to examine the report made by the masters;
8. No master is to depart from Hamburg before he has taken a certificate from his Majesty's commissary, proving that all has been duly performed; which is to be sent to the king's frigate, near Brunshausen;
9. The signals mentioned in the second article are likewise to be made when the ship re-passes Stade;
10. The taking cognizance of, and punishing misdemeanours, frauds, and mismanagements, as well as the neglecting of the preceding articles, remains in the Court of the King's Customs at Stade; so that both merchants and masters of ships, who may be called to an account; shall, when summoned, appear before the said court, and submit to its decisions; but they have the liberty of appeal to the superior courts for a revision and relief;
11. As to all other points not expressly mentioned in the foregoing articles, they shall be observed at the king's Custom-house at Brunshausen, Stade, and Hamburg, according to the regulations and customs heretofore practiced;
12. This gracious concession is hereby granted only *durante bene placito*: the king reserving to himself and his successors in his German dominions the right of revoking it, and making any alterations or new orders, whenever they shall see reason.

STARCH (Ger. *Amidan*; Fr. *Amidon*; It. *Amodi*, *Amito*; Sp. *Amidon*, *Almidon*; Rus. *Krachmal*), a substance obtained from vegetables. It has a fine white colour, and is usually concreted in longish masses; it has scarcely any smell, and very little taste. When kept dry, it continues for a long time uninjured, though exposed to the air. It is insoluble in cold water; but combines with boiling water — forming with it a kind of jelly. It exists chiefly in the white and brittle parts of vegetables, particularly in tuberos roots, and the seeds of the gramineous plants. It may be extracted by pounding these parts, and agitating them in cold water; when the *parenchyma* or fibrous parts will first subside; and these being removed, a fine white powder, diffused through the water, will gradually subside, which is the starch. Or the pounded or grated substance, as the roots of potatoes, acorns, or horse chestnuts, for instance, may be put into a hair sieve, and the starch washed through with cold water, leaving the grosser matters behind. Farinaceous seeds may be ground and treated in a similar manner. Oily seeds require to have the oil expressed from them before the farina is extracted. Potato starch goes a good deal further than wheat starch — a less quantity of it sufficing to form a paste of equal thickness with water. It has a very perceptible crystallised appearance, and is apparently heavier than common starch. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Ure's Dictionary*.)

Starch was charged, down to 1834, with an excise duty of 34*d.* per lb.; but the injurious influence of the duty, the nett produce of which did not exceed 85,000*l.*, having been forcibly pointed out by the Commissioners of Revenue inquiry, it was repealed in the course of the above year. In 1833, duty was paid on 8,070,026 lb. starch. The manufacture has since, however, been greatly extended.

STEAM VESSELS. We have already laid before the reader an account of the number of steam vessels belonging to the different ports and divisions of the U. Kingdom (*anté*, p. 1109.); and we believe we shall be doing an acceptable service to the bulk of our readers by laying before them the following extracts from a letter by the Secretary to the Treasury of the U. States, prepared in pursuance of a resolution of the House of Representatives, of the 20th of June, 1838. It communicates many interesting particulars with respect to the employment of steam engines and steam vessels in the U. States, and the accidents that have happened to the latter.

Number of Steam-boats, and other Steam Engines in the U. States. — "The whole number of steam engines, of every kind, in the U. States, reckoning one to each boat, is estimated to be 3,010. Of these, 2,653 have been ascertained, and 357 are estimated, in places from which the returns are either defective or not received at all. Of this whole number, about 800 are supposed to be employed in steam-boats, of which 700 are ascertained, and 100 estimated. About 350 are employed in locomotives upon railroads. Of these, 337 are ascertained and 13 estimated. The residue, being 1,860, are used in manufactories of various kinds. Of these, 1,616 are ascertained and 244 estimated."

Number of Accidents to Steam Engines. — "The number of accidents occasioning loss of life or much injury to property, which have occurred in the use of steam engines of every kind in the U. States, is computed to have been about 260. Of these, 253 are

ascertained, and the rest are estimated. Such accidents, by explosions and other disasters to steam-boats, appear to have constituted a great portion of the whole, and are supposed to have equalled 250, of which 215 are ascertained. The first of these is believed to have occurred in the *Washington*, on the Ohio river, in 1816.

"Since the employment of steam-boats in the U. States, it is computed that quite 1,300 have been built here. Of these, about 260 have been lost by various accidents, as many as 240 worn out, and the rest are now running.

"The first steam-boat used for practical purposes here (or indeed in any part of the world) was in 1807, on the Hudson River, in the State of New York. She was built by Fulton, called the *North River*, with an engine of only 18-horse power, and made the passage between Albany and New York in thirty-three hours. Though with a steam engine manufactured abroad by Boulton and Watt, yet no boat was launched in Europe that proved successful in practice, till five years after, by Mr. Bell, at Glasgow, in 1812. At that time, the *Car of Neptune*, built in 1808, the *Paragon*, in 1811, and the *Richmond*, in 1812, were all, in addition to the boat first built, running from New York. Rumney is known to have made experiments on a small scale as to steam-boats, in Virginia, as early as 1787; but they were not reduced to any practical use. Both he and Fitch commenced trials in this country as early as 1783 and 1784, and Oliver Evans in 1785 and 1786. They had been preceded in France, in 1762, by the Marquis d'Jeffrey; and the idea of applying steam in boats had been suggested in England as early as 1786, by Jonathan Hulls.

"The whole number of steam-boats ascertained and estimated to be now in this country, is 800. In England, in 1836, the whole number is computed to have been 600. On the Western and South-western waters alone, near 400 are now supposed to be running, where none were used till 1811, and where, in 1834, the number was computed to be only 234. Of these 400, about 141 are estimated. On the Ohio river alone, in 1837, about 413 different steam-boats are reported to have passed through the Louisville and Portland Canal, besides all below and above, which never passed through. But it deserves notice, that of those 413, near 60 went out of use by accidents, decay, &c., within that year; and several of the others, viz., 104, were new, and many of them probably were destined to run on other rivers. As an illustration of the rapid increase of business in steam-boats on the Ohio, the number of passages by them through the Louisville canal increased from 406, in 1831, to 1,501, in 1837, or nearly fourfold in six years. About 70 boats were running the present year on the North-western lakes, where a few years since the number was very small, having been in 1835 only 25. Of the 800 steam-boats now in the U. States, the greatest number ascertained to be in any State is 140, in the State of New York.

"It is a matter of surprise that so few of these are sea-going vessels, considering that the first steam-boat which ever crossed the Atlantic was built in New York, so long ago as 1810, and went from Savannah (the place after which she was called) to Liverpool in 29 days; and that the *Robert Fulton*, as early as 1822, made several trips to New Orleans and Savannah. A similar remark applies to the circumstances that only one of the whole number is a public vessel of war, when the first steam vessel of that kind ever launched was the *Fulton*, and was built in this country, so long ago as 1815. The Government of the U. States never owned but two steam vessels of war—both called the "*Fulton*." The first was lost by accident, in 1829; and now there is only the other before alluded to, built in 1838. It has, however, 13 other steam vessels, employed in the war department, on the public works, and in the transportation of troops and stores.

"Of the whole number of locomotives in the U. States propelled by steam, being about 350, the most which have been ascertained in any State is 96, in the State of Pennsylvania.

"None of them were introduced here till 1831, though they now run on nearly 1,500 miles of railroad. The first, it is believed, was in the State of Delaware on the Newcastle railroad; the second, in Maryland, on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad; and the third, between New Orleans and Lake Pontchartrain, in the State of Louisiana. They had been tried in this country, by Oliver Evans, as early as 1804, and in England as early as 1803; but not reduced to useful practice in the latter till 1811 for freight, and in 1830 for passengers and speed. One succeeded on a common road, from London to Bath, in 1829. Of the whole number of other steam machines in the U. States, (being about 1,860), the state of Pennsylvania has the most, being 383. The number in some States is not accurately ascertained; but near 300 are ascertained and computed to exist in Louisiana alone. The introduction of them here, and especially with the high pressure machinery, was much promoted by Oliver Evans, about 1804. The first of them in use in the U. States was put up in 1787, in the State of New Jersey, for raising water and earth from mines. The next were about 1791, in a cotton factory at Kensington, near Philadelphia; and soon after in saw-mills, and iron slitting

and rolling mills, at Pittsburg. The power has been known in England to be applicable to mechanical uses since the experiments of the Marquis of Worcester, in 1663. It is said by some that he was preceded in France (and a pamphlet published on the subject as early as 1615,) by Solomon de Caus. But the views of the latter, like many who preceded him in the knowledge of steam as a moving power, are supposed to have been rather theoretical than practical. Several machines were made in England as early as 1720; and Watt's first patent was taken out, for improvements in them, as early as 1769. But they were not, even there, very extensively and successfully applied to mills and manufactories, till 1785, though 18 large engines were employed in the mines of Cornwall as early as 1770; and a flour mill, with 20 pairs of stones, was moved by steam in London in 1784.

"The greatest employment of these in the South is in the sugar manufacture, and in cleaning and pressing cotton; in the West, in grist and saw mills, and in various manufactures of iron machinery and tools; and in the East, in mills, in printing, in cotton manufactories, and the public works at navy yards and armouries.

"The government of the U. States owns 17 of these; they being employed at their navy yards, to empty docks, saw timber, &c.; and at some arsenals and armouries, in manufacturing arms.

"The tonnage of all the steam-boats in the U. States is computed to exceed 155,473. Of this, 137,473 is in boats ascertained or reported. By the official returns, the whole tonnage would now, probably, equal near 160,000 tons, having been, in 1837, equal to 153,660. Many boats included in those returns have been lost or worn out, and several new ones built since. In England, the tonnage is estimated to have been 67,999 in 1836. The tonnage of each boat here averages about 200; and the estimates, where the returns have been defective, were made on that basis. The power employed in all the steam engines in the U. States is ascertained and estimated at 100,318 horse-power: of this, 12,140 only is in engines estimated and not returned. In the aggregate, all this new mechanical force would be equal to the power of 601,808 men. Of this force, 37,019 horse-power is computed to be in steam-boats; 6,980 in railroads; and the rest, being 36,319, in other engines. This averages about 70 horse-power to each boat, or one horse to between two and three tons, and less than 20 horse-power to each of the other engines. It is a striking fact, that the steam-power employed in standing engines is equal to about two-thirds of all that is used in steam-boats. The largest boat in the U. States is supposed to be the *Natches*, of 860 tons, and near 300 horse-power, destined to run between New York and Mississippi; the *Illinois* and the *Madison*, on Lake Erie, are the next in size, the former being 755, and the latter 700 tons; the *Massachusetts*, in Long Island Sound, is the next largest, being 626 tons; and the *Buffalo*, on Lake Erie, next, being of 613 tons. The largest boats passing Louisville, in 1837, were the *Uncle Sam*, of 447 tons, and the *Mogul*, of 414 tons; though below Louisville, the *Mediterranean*, of 490 tons, and the *North America*, of 445 tons, on the Ohio, and the *St. Louis*, of 550 tons, on the Mississippi, are running. The greatest loss of life well authenticated on any one occasion in a steam-boat appears to have been by collision, and consequent sinking, in the case of the *Monmouth*, in 1837, on the Mississippi, by which 300 lives were lost. The next greatest were by explosions: of the *Oronoka*, in 1838, on the same river, by which 130, or more, lives were lost; and of the *Moselle*, at Cincinnati, Ohio, by which 100 to 120 persons were destroyed. The greatest injury to life by accidents to boats from snags and sawyers appears to have been 13 lost, in 1834, in the case of the *St. Louis*, on the Mississippi river. The greatest by shipwreck was in the case of the *Home*, in 1837, on the coast of North Carolina, where 100 persons were lost. The greatest by fire happened in the *Ben Sherrod*, on the Mississippi river, in 1837, when near 130 perished. The number of steam-boats built in the U. States in 1834 was 88; but in 1837 it was 184; or had increased over 200 per cent. in three years. The places where the greatest number of steam-boats and other steam machines appear to have been constructed in this country, are Pittsburg, Cincinnati, and Louisville, on the Western waters; and New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, on the Atlantic. At Louisville alone, from 1819 to 1838, there appear to have been built 244 steam engines; of which 62 were for boats. The fuel originally used in steam-boats in the U. States was wood; but of late years bituminous coal has, in many instances, been substituted; and, in several, anthracite coal: the latter, from the small space it occupies, would seem to possess a decided advantage in sea-going vessels, as well as in locomotives.

"Some steam-boats made of iron are believed to be in use in Georgia, if not in other parts of this country, though none of that material have been manufactured here; but it is computed that their cost is less than those of wood; and as they draw less water with the same freight, they are more useful on shallow streams."

STEEL (Fr. *Acier*; Ger. *Stahl*; It. *Acciajo*; Lat. *Chalybs*; Rus. *Stal*; Sp. *Acero*; Sw. *Stål*) is iron combined with a small portion of carbon; and has been, for the

reason, called carburetted iron. The proportion of carbon has not been ascertained with much precision. It is supposed to amount, at an average, to $\frac{1}{14}$ th part. Steel is so hard as to be unmanageable while cold; or at least it acquires that property by being immersed, while ignited, in a cold liquid; for this immersion, though it has no effect upon iron, adds greatly to the hardness of steel. It is brittle, resists the file, cuts glass, affords sparks with flint, and retains the magnetic virtue for any length of time. It loses this hardness by being ignited, and cooled very slowly. It is malleable when red hot, but scarcely so when raised to a white heat. It may be hammered out into much thinner plates than iron. It is more sonorous; and its specific gravity when hammered is greater than that of iron—varying from 7.78 to 7.84. Steel is usually divided into 3 sorts, according to the method in which it is prepared; as *natural steel*, *steel of cementation*, and *cast steel*. The latter is the most valuable of all, as its texture is the most compact, and it admits of the finest polish. It is used for razors, surgeons' instruments, knives, and similar purposes. Steel is chiefly employed in the manufacture of swords, knives, and cutting instruments of all sorts used in the arts; for which it is peculiarly adapted by its hardness, and the fineness of the edge which may be given to it. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; and see *IRON*.)

STETTIN, a city of Prussia, on the left bank of the Oder, about 36 miles from its mouth, in lat. 53° 23' 20" N., long. 14° 33' E. It is well built, strongly fortified, and had a population, in 1838, of 31,100.

Stettin is the seat of an extensive and growing commerce; and is now, indeed, the principal port of importation in Prussia. She owes this distinction mainly to her situation. The Oder, which flows through the centre of the Prussian dominions, is navigable as far as Ratibor, near the extreme southern boundary of Prussian Silesia; and is united, by means of canals, with the Vistula, the Elbe, the Spree, &c. Stettin is, consequently, the principal emporium of some very extensive and flourishing countries; and is not only the port of Frankfurt-on-the-Oder, Branlaw, &c., but also of Berlin. A railway from the latter to Stettin is nearly (1843) completed. Hence, at the proper seasons, its wharfs are crowded with lighters that bring down the produce of the different countries traversed by the river, and bring back colonial products, and other articles of foreign growth and manufacture. Vessels of considerable burden, or those drawing above 7 or 8 feet water, load and unload, by means of lighters, at the mouth of the river, at Swinemünde, the out-port of Stettin, on the east coast of the Isle of Usedom, in lat. 53° 55' N., long. 14° 15' 15" E. Formerly there were not more than 7 feet water over the bar adjacent to Swinemünde; but the harbour of the latter has recently been so much improved, by the construction of piers and breakwaters, dredging, &c., that it is now the best on the Prussian coast, and admits vessels drawing from 18 to 19 feet water. A lighthouse has been erected at the extremity of the eastern pier. Stettin is a free port; that is, a port into and from which all wares goods may be imported and re-exported free of duty. If goods brought through the Sound be imported at Stettin, and entered for home consumption in the Prussian states, they are charged with 2½ per cent. less duty than if they had been imported through any other channel. This is intended to reimburse the merchant for the Sound duties, and to encourage importation by the direct route in preference to that carried on through Hamburg and Embden. There is a great wool fair in the month of June each year.

Navies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Dantzig, which see. The Bank of Berlin has a branch at Stettin, and there is also an insurance office.

Imports and Exports.—The principal articles of import at Stettin are sugar, coffee, dye woods, wine, iron, and hardware, oil, tallow, cotton and cotton goods, herrings, spirits, linseed, coal, salt, &c. The principal exports are corn, especially wheat; spirits, roped, sutler, timber, &c.; bones, manganese, fruits, &c.

Account of charges incurred by a British ship, of about 300 tons burden, at Swinemünde and Stettin:—

	Rind.	S. gr.	FF.
Stettin. — Pilotage and fee	6		
Town dues and clearances	6	28	
Four rates	2	70	
Muster roll	2	27	6
Brokerage and charter party	5	30	
Broker's commission	18	22	
Measuring	8		
Swinemünde.—Port charges, inwards	54	18	6
Disco, outwards	24	12	6
Harbour dues	14	21	3
Commission	16		
Prussian dollars, or about 100 Spanish dollars	151	12	25

Navigation.—Stettin is the principal shipping port in the Prussian dominions. In 1841 there belonged to it 300 ships, of the burden of 49,855 tons, being about a third part of the shipping belonging to Prussia.

Regulations.—All vessels are prohibited entering Swinemünde, unless freed from stress of weather, without previously heaving-to for, and receiving, a pilot on board. But when compelled to enter without a pilot, the master shall observe the signals made from the beacons erected on the wharves and western moles as follows:—

1. When pilots cannot put to sea, and captains of ships are nevertheless resolved to enter the harbour, a red flag will be hoisted on the direction beacon of the eastern mole.
2. The captains will then steer until they find themselves, S. E. by S. on the compass, from the light-house placed on the utmost point of the east mole, taking care to keep the outermost great white buoy, situated on the end of the western ground in a depth of 16 fms, on the starboard, and the next black buoy, in an oblique line towards the light-house, on the larboard.
3. In that situation of the vessel the two new beacons cover themselves in the direction of S. E., and this course, keeping

the two beacons completely covered, the captain sail into the port up to the second landing berth of the eastern mole, four cables length beyond the light-house, keeping off the mole half a cable's length.

4. At that place, the captain taking care to remain a little South, are expected by the pilots to go on board of their vessels.

5. On entering the port all the white buoys are to remain on the starboard side of the vessel (see 2.).

6. For facilitating the finding and keeping the directions given in this instruction in case the buoys should have been removed by sea, or taken up on account of the advanced season, signals will be given with a red flag from the direction beacon on the eastern mole.

7. The vessel must follow the signals in as far as to steer to that part where the flag is hoisted perpendicularly.

8. Should there be no pilot at sea, and no flag hoisted on the beckoning beacon, the captain must not attempt to enter the port at all, but either anchor in the roads or remain at sea.

Stettin, November 12, 1835.

The following regulations apply to all the Prussian ports:—
Notifications to Captains of Ships respecting Importation and Exportation by Sea in the Prussian Dominions:—

As soon as a ship arrives in the road, and has complied with the police regulations of the port, which are communicated to her, the captain repairs to the custom-house, and delivers a complete list or manifest of cargo. This list bears the title of a chief declaration or manifest, and in preparing it, the following conditions are to be observed:—

If the whole cargo be not destined for the port, that part which is to proceed further with the ship, is to be placed under a distinct division.

The goods accompanied with bills of lading are entered in notation after each other for every bill of lading.

The account (or statement) is made out in Rind and quantity, agreeable to those measures and divisions adopted in the tariff for the payment of duties.

If there be a number of packages of similar articles, and each package contains an equal quantity, they may be entered summarily, according to their number and size; and a general statement of the contents will suffice.

If the contents of the packages be different, then the contents of each must be specified.

The packages of the passengers must be marked as such in the reports. It consists of general travelling baggage; it will be enough to state the particular boxes or parcels; but if it consist of goods, then must these be stated, according to number and kind.

The individual property of the captain, with the exception of the provisions, is stated like other tradesmen's property, with

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condition of the declaration of a receiver; and it is also stated in the declaration what articles remain out of the ship's hold.

If the captain has not brought with him a report, he may have one completed in the port by a customs officer, in which case he gives up all his papers to the said officer, who then stamps and numbers them, the last number being marked on each. The captain, at the same time, informs the officer of the property belonging to himself and passengers, of which there are no accounts in the above-mentioned declaration, which is signed by the captain, and returned, in order to be used in preparing the report.

In case the report is to be prepared on shore, it must be delivered up in 24 hours, at latest, after the arrival of the captain in the port; if not, possession is taken of the ship, at his expense, which, according to the judgment of the customs, may take place even sooner, but free of expense.

Depending the necessities, if he consists of articles which pay a consumption duty, a distinct or separate report must be given in duplicate, one is returned to the captain after a general revision, in order that he may take with him an equal quantity of the articles specified in it when he sails. If this do not happen, or if the departure do not take place within a fortnight, then the consumption duty is to be paid on the articles remaining on hand. The captain is, however, at liberty to deposit the provisions, subject to the consumption duty, at the custom-house, until he sails.

Other articles, not properly belonging to the cargo, are in as far admitted, that they undoubtedly belong to the ship's inventory, and are stamped for the voyage. Articles which are not counted as such are taxed if they are subject to a consumption tax, or in order to take them again away, they are deposited at the custom-house.

If the ship remains in the road, and do not enter the harbour, but covers there the cargo by lights, the consumption in the road is tax-free. A report of the provisions consumed, and further control over the place where, in particular cases, it is considered necessary.

If the captain have another destination, and only visits the harbour through necessity, then, in order to the security of the vessel and cargo, a general inspection only takes place, so that no part of the cargo may be hid or disposed of. When, however, such security has been given, a report is made of the cargo, in as far as the ship's papers and the knowledge of the captain admit.

Respecting the further treatment of the business, the custom-house will take such other measures, according to circumstances, viz. whether the cargo is to be re-embarked, or whether the same must be wholly or partly discharged for the repair of

the ship, so that the cargo may be exported in its original state.

The cargo of vessels which put in to winter must be announced as soon as possible, in as far as the ship's papers give information and the knowledge of the captain enables upon the subject. The inspection of the external parts of the vessel, and the articles contained thereon, takes place directly, and the entrance to the ship's hold are locked. Until the declaration, inspection, and locking up of the vessel take place, she is guarded at the expense of the captain; while in guard, in particular cases, may last as long as the customs department may deem necessary.

Vessels which only anchor in the roads, and do not enter a port, are out of control of the customs officers; they must, however, hold any intercourse with the shore or the part, otherwise they must give in reports beforehand, and present their papers.

If the vessel remains in the roads longer than 24 hours after declaration is made, before proceeding to put in or onward, if the one or the other be not prevented by stress of weather, then an officer repairs to the ship, examines the decks and the articles thereon, and locks up the entrances, &c. to the hold.

To the officers who are ordered for service on board the vessel is afforded a proper maintenance or treatment, the same as is given to travellers of the trading class.

If the occupation of the vessel takes place at the cost of the captain, he is then obligated to give the officers the daily pay of their rank, as requested, and to provide for their return to their dwelling-places.

If it happen that officers, owing to an interrupted communication from the shore, are forced to remain beyond 3 days on board, then the captain must give them their meals, on their paying for the same; and if any difficulty arise about the charges, it is to be decided by the police authorities.

In all cases, the captain must row back the officers from the shore to the harbour.

The direction of the officers, touching the discharge of the vessel, in order that they may be able to exercise properly the duties of their office, must be followed.

If a captain has a well-founded complaint to make about the conduct of the officers, he must present it at the head custom-house 1 day before the vessel is to depart, and if the complaint is of a serious nature, to be decided by the police authorities.

To every captain, after clearing out, the register of complaints (which, according to § 107, of the regulation of taxes must be in every custom-house) is presented, in order that he may enter therein his name, and whatever complaint he may have to make.

Table of Fees payable to the Brokers of Stettin, as fixed the 8 January, 1834.

	Doll. Stl. Pr. 6/100.	Doll. Stl. Pr. 6/100.
On Goods, Bills of Exchange, and Money.		
On the negotiation of bills of exchange, per mille	1 0 0	
On changing money, or papers considered as money, per mille	0 15 0	
On every description of business in goods, excepting the corn trade, per cent.	0 7 6	
On the corn trade, viz.:		
When, rye, peas, and linseed (in so far as the latter is sold by the weight), per cent.	0 7 6	
Barley, oats, and malt, per cent.	0 15 0	
N.B.—The items 1 to 4, inclusive, are to be paid both by the buyer and the seller, if they are deposited on sales by auction, from the seller, per cent.	0 15 0	
If the same be withdrawn previous to the fixed period, as remuneration	1 0 0	
On certificates or extracts of the journal, exclusive of the stamp	0 30 0	
Fees payable to Ship Brokers.		
For freighting vessels reckoned according to Prussian normal law, payable by the owner as well as the freighter, per last	0 1 6	
For the charter-party from both parties, the freighter and charterer	1 0 0	
The stamp is to be paid separately by the parties interested, as remuneration		
For reporting a vessel arriving with cargo, per Prussian normal last.	0 4 0	
(Without distinction as to the number of persons interested in the cargo, or whence the vessel comes.)		
For reporting an outward-bound ship with cargo, per Prussian normal last	0 8 0	
For reporting a vessel in ballast coming in or going out, per Prussian normal last	0 0 10	
N.B.—If a vessel, coming in or going out, be only partly laden, such cargo is reduced in Prussia normal last, in proportion to the number of last stated in the ship's register, and according to this the duties are calculated. The items 3, 4, 5, of the regulation of taxes must be in every custom-house 1 day before the vessel is to depart, and if the complaint is of a serious nature, to be decided by the police authorities.		
For procuring money on bottomry, payable by the lender as well as the borrower, for every 100 dollars	0 3 0	
For sale of ships or single shares, from both parties, buyer and seller, whether by auction or privately, per cent. of the price	0 7 6	
If the sale be not effected within the fixed period, on whole vessels	3 0 0	
on shares	5 0 0	
For certificates and extracts from the ship papers, statements of averages, or from the log book, exclusive stamp	0 30 0	

Account of the Exports of Corn and Grain from Stettin in each of the 9 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	To England.				To other Countries.				
	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	
1834	6,729	-	-	900	737	17,099	69,476	10,866	9,320
1835	4,111	-	-	-	4	17,442	4,839	131	1,010
1836	6,333	1,396	17,115	1,040	5,306	7,945	41,100	30,763	1,751
1837	26,914	490	6,243	15,134	6,739	21,919	69,440	29,498	2,798
1838	43,758	-	4,365	-	650	17,700	99,590	63,407	1,470
1839	170,842	2,600	31,790	4,241	4,804	17,780	89,699	3,420	900
1840	226,500	-	39,472	-	1,018	1,810	31,250	6,330	4,590
1841	-	-	-	-	(Returns imperfect.)	-	-	-	-
1842	150,759	-	585	-	9,807	18,900	33,198	5,871	640

Account of the Value of the Imports and Exports at Stettin for each of the 9 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.
1834	714,030	274,800	1,169,000	613,000
1835	841,270	290,000	1,208,000	1,105,000
1836	671,540	271,500	1,543,000	1,638,000
1837	875,700	406,500	1,088,000	844,000
1838	965,900	482,800	-	-

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Stettin by Sea in 1842, distinguishing the Quantities shipped for the U. Kingdom and all other Countries, with their aggregate Value.

Articles.	U. Kingdom.	All other Countries.	Total Quantity.	Value in Sterling at 68 Francs Dollar per l.
America	—	382	382	360
Iron and bone dung	—	5,061	5,061	5,940
Iron	21,561	207,999	229,560	92,730
Brown sugar	4,025	5,779	9,804	1,080
Chemical fabrication	—	471	471	5,040
Flax	—	36	36	1,875
Flour	5,467	5,467	10,934	5,540
Wine of all kinds	—	5,800	5,800	5,530
Iron, case	—	1,584	1,584	2,250
Iron, case	—	181	181	42,580
Iron, case	—	502	502	6,700
Iron, case	—	61	61	810
Iron, case	—	8,876	8,876	143,800
Iron, case	—	1,900	1,900	525,790
Herrings	—	150	150	180
Herrings	—	23	23	5,070
Iron of all kinds	—	1,151	1,151	940
Iron	—	670	670	5,770
Iron	—	481	481	4,080
Iron	619	4,871	5,490	540
Iron	—	259	259	1,770
Medical products	—	1,772	1,772	13,790
Oil	—	5,145	5,145	15,190
Oil	—	375	375	3,615
Oil	—	119,811	119,811	31,790
Potash	—	387	387	480
Potash	—	189	189	1,180
Potash	—	50,363	50,363	34,700
Red colour	—	270	270	270
Red, clever	—	2,698	2,698	1,180
Red, clever	—	71	71	890
Red, clever	—	40,027	47,584	67,750
Red, clever	—	4,248	16,097	36,890
Red, clever	—	895	20,431	20,205
Red, clever	—	3,966	45,423	43,820
Red, clever	—	12	12	150
Red, clever	—	—	87,005	6,190
Red, clever	—	—	10,026	830
Red, clever	—	—	64	290
Red, clever	—	61	61	5,700
Red, clever	—	638	5,115	5,970
Red, clever	—	—	—	—
Total value	£608,200	£499,800	—	£1,108,000

Of the total value of the imports, amounting, in 1842, to 1,624,400*l.*, goods valued at 515,660*l.* were supplied by England. These consisted principally of iron, salt, coal, herring, sugar, and other colonial products.

Account of the Export of Linseed and Rapeseed Cakes in —

1834	33,518 cwt.	1850	115,446 cwt.
1835	27,078	1851	168,457
1836	56,581	1852	143,216
1837	70,615	1853	119,514
1838	110,580		

STOCKHOLM, the capital of Sweden, situated at the junction of the lake Maelar with an inlet of the Baltic, in lat. 59° 20' 31" N., lon. 17° 54' E.; a well-built, handsome city. Population, in 1839, 83,885. The entrance to the harbour is intricate and dangerous, and should not be attempted without a pilot; but the harbour itself is capacious and excellent, the largest vessels lying in safety close to the quays. Stockholm possesses from a third to a half the foreign trade of Sweden; but this is confined within comparatively narrow limits. The government has long been accustomed to endeavour to promote industry by excluding foreign products; latterly, however, this system has been considerably relaxed, with great advantage to the trade of the country, and the well-being of the people. Iron, timber, and deals form the great articles of export. Swedish iron is of very superior quality, and is rather extensively used in Great Britain; the imports of it amounting, in ordinary years, to about 16,000 tons exclusive of 600 tons of steel. In addition to the above leading articles, Stockholm exports pitch, tar, copper, &c. The timber is inferior to that from the southern ports of the Baltic. The imports principally consist of colonial products, cotton, dye stuffs, salt, British manufactured goods, hides, fish, wine, brandy, wool, fruit, &c. In seasons of scarcity corn is imported, but it is generally an article of export.

Photage.—Vessels bound for Stockholm take a pilot at the small island of Oja. Lands-orth light-house is erected on the southern extremity of this island, in lat. 59° 44' 30" N., lon. 17° 52' 16" E. It is painted white, and is furnished with a fixed light, elevated 158 feet above the level of the sea, which may be seen, under favourable circumstances, 5 leagues off. The signal for a pilot is a flag at the fore-top-mast head, or firing a gun.

Account of the principal Articles imported into and exported from Stockholm in 1842.

Imports.		Exports.	
Horn and other spirits	kann. 108,593	Hides	lbs. 1,486,094
Carbo	lbs. 5,041,360	Herrings	— barrels 67,866
Indigo	— 50,617	Salt	— 60,472
Raw sugar	— 7,804,508	Coin	— 60,442
Tobacco, leaf	— 297,254	Hemp	— shippounds 4,869
Cotton	— 291,285	Tallow	— shippounds 78,525
Cotton yarn (white)	— 446,568	Fish, dried	— 66,924
	— 468,790		
		Iron, bar	— shippounds 250,865
		Iron, pig	— 4,994
		Copper	— 4,307
		Steel	— 5,506
		Tar	— 5,508
		Flanks and boards	— barrels 25,556
		Refined sugar	— dozens 99,872
			lbs. 1,019,709

There belonged to the port, in 1841, 149 ships, measuring 25,566 tons.

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public weigh-house, the superintendent of which is a delegate of the college; so that it is impossible for an iron master to send more iron to market than his licence authorises. It is true that sales are made to inland consumers at the forges, of which no returns are made out, and in so far the licences are exceeded; but it is not supposed that the quantity so disposed of exceeds a few thousand tons a year. Every furnace and forge pays a certain annual duty to the crown. Its amount is fixed by the college when the licence is granted; and care is taken not to grant the licence to any one unless he have the command of forests equal to the required supply of charcoal without encroaching on the supply of this material required for the existing forges in the neighbourhood. As the supply of pig-iron is limited to the quantity licensed to be made, the college, in granting new licences to bar-iron works, always takes into consideration how far this may be done without creating a scarcity of pig-iron. Hence, the erection of new forges depends.—1st, on having a supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the forests which supply your neighbours; and 2d, on the quantity of pig-iron which the college knows to be disposable. The courts of the mines decide all disputes that arise among the iron masters regarding the exceeding of their licences, encroachments, &c.; an appeal to the college lying from their decision, and ultimately to the king in council, or to the supreme court of the kingdom.

It is needless to dwell on the impolicy of such regulations. No doubt it is quite right for government to interfere to prevent the waste and destruction of the forests; but, having done this, it should abstain from all other interference, and leave every one at liberty to produce as much iron as he may think proper. Mines of any importance are usually held by a society of shareholders. Some of them are only worked occasionally; and, as the labour is performed by peasants, who live ostensibly by husbandry, it is impossible to form any correct estimate of the numbers engaged in mining industry.

STOCKINGS, as every one knows, are coverings for the legs. They are formed of only one thread entwined, so as to form a species of tissue, extremely elastic, and readily adapting itself to the figure of the part it is employed to cover. This tissue cannot be called cloth, for it has neither warp nor woof, but it approaches closely to it; and for the purposes to which it is applied, it is very superior.

1. *Historical Sketch of the Stocking Manufacture.*—It is well known that the Romans and other ancient nations had no particular clothing for the legs. During the middle ages, however, hose or *leggings*, made of cloth, began to be used; and at a later period, the art of knitting stockings was discovered. Unluckily, nothing certain is known as to the individual by whom, the place where, or the time when, this important invention was made. Howell, in his *History of the World* (vol. iii. p. 222.), says, that Henry VIII. wore none but cloth hose, except there came from Spain by great chance a pair of silk stockings; that Sir Thomas Gresham, the famous merchant, presented Edward VI. with a pair of long silk stockings from Spain, and that the present was much taken notice of; and he adds, that Queen Elizabeth was presented, in the third year of her reign, with a pair of black knit silk stockings, and that from that time she ceased to wear cloth hose. It would appear from this circumstantial account, that the art of knitting stockings, or at least that the first specimens of knit stockings, had been introduced into England from Spain about the middle of the 16th century; and such seems to have been the general opinion, till an allusion to the practice of knitting, in the pretended poems of Rowley, forged by Chatterton, made the subject be more carefully investigated. The result of this investigation showed clearly that the practice of knitting was well known in England, and had been referred to in acts of parliament, a good many years previously to the period mentioned by Howell. But it had then, most probably, been applied only to the manufacture of woollen stockings; and the general use of cloth hose shows that even these had not been numerous. There is no evidence to show whether the art is native to England, or has been imported.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Knitting Nets and Stockings*.)

It is singular that the stocking frame, which, even in its rudest form, is a very complex and ingenious machine, that could not be discovered accidentally, but must have been the result of deep combination and profound sagacity, should have been discovered so early as 1589, before, in fact, the business of knitting was generally introduced. The inventor of this admirable machine was Mr. William Lee, of Woodborough, in Nottinghamshire. He attempted to set up an establishment at Calverton, near Nottingham, for the manufacture of stockings, but met with no success. In this situation he applied to the queen for assistance; but, instead of meeting with that remuneration to which his genius and inventions so well entitled him, he was discouraged and discontinued! It need not, therefore, excite surprise that Lee accepted the invitation of Henry IV. of France, who, having heard of the invention, promised him a magnificent reward if he would carry it to France. Henry kept his word, and Lee introduced the stocking frame at Rouen with distinguished success; but after the assassination of the king, the concern got into difficulties, and Lee died in poverty at Paris. A knowledge of the machine was brought back from France to England by some of the workmen who had emigrated with Lee, and who established themselves in Nottinghamshire, which still continues to be the principal seat of the manufacture.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. pp. 313—324.; and *Letters on the Utility and Policy of Machines*, Lond. 1780.)

During the first century after the invention of the stocking frame, few improvements were made upon it, and 2 men were usually employed to work 1 frame. But in the course of last century, the machine was very greatly improved. The late ingenious Mr. Jedediah Strutt, of Derby, was the first individual who succeeded in adapting it to the manufacture of *ribbed stockings*.

STOCKINGS

1237

Statistical View of the Stocking Trade.—We subjoin, from a paper by Mr. Felkin, of Nottingham, who is advantageously known by his statistical researches, the following view of the state of the British hosiery trade in 1832.

Worsted hosiery is chiefly made in Leicestershire; silk hosiery in Derby and Nottingham; and cotton hosiery throughout the counties of Nottingham and Derby, at Hinckley, and at Tewkesbury. The analysis furnished by Blackner, in 1818, may be perhaps, modified as follows, so as to show the kinds and qualities of goods which the frames are now employed upon, viz.—

Plain cotton, 14 to 22-gauge, 1,600; 24 to 28-gauge, 1,600; 30 to 34-gauge, 2,790; 36 to 63-gauge, 1,600 frames — 7,590
 Denax, 200; gloves and caps, 1,000; drawers, 500; sundries, 600 — 2,600
 Wide frames, making cut-ups and various other kinds 6,000
 Worsted, 18 to 26-gauge, 4,400; 28 to 36-gauge, 3,600; 28 to 34-gauge, 1,450 frames — 9,450

Angora, 1,550; lambs' wool, 1,900; shirts, 600 frames 5,750
 Wide frames, on with worsted goods 1,000
 Silk, 2,300; gloves, 550; and knos, 350 — 3,200
 Total of frames — 35,400

The following statement, it is believed, presents a sufficiently accurate approximation to the annual amount in quantity and value of the goods manufactured in this trade, to answer all practical purposes:—

Each narrow cotton frame produces about 40 dozen of hose a year, if of women's size; wide cotton frames, 300; narrow worsted, 75; wide worsted, 150; and silk, 50. There are—

Frames,	Dozen,	Lbs.	£	£	£	£
10,300	490,000	580,000	73,000	290,000	32,000	328,000
6,000	1,960,000	2,840,000	178,000	285,000	96,000	559,000
9,500	710,000	2,340,000	284,000	315,000	41,000	640,000
1,000	100,000	400,000	40,000	30,000	10,000	80,000
1,300	95,000	338,500	45,000	40,000	10,000	104,000
1,900	135,000	439,500	80,000	60,000	15,000	155,000
3,000	90,000	105,000	130,000	108,000	15,000	253,000
33,000	3,510,000	3,157,000	814,000	948,000	290,000	1,001,000

According to this calculation, the value of the cotton hosiery annually made is 880,000£; that of worsted, &c. is 870,000£; and that of silk is 241,000£. To produce these goods, it is probable that 4,284,000 lbs. of raw cotton wool, value 185,000£, are used; and 140,000 lbs. of raw silk (2-5ths China and 3-5ths Novil, value 110,000£), also, 6,316,000 lbs. of English wool, value 316,000£. The total original value of the materials used is, therefore, 560,000£, which, it appears, becomes of the ultimate cost value of 1,991,000£, in this manufacture.

There are employed in the various processes, as follows, viz.—

In cotton spinning, doubling, &c., 3,000; worsted carding, spinning, &c., 2,500; silk winding, throwing, &c., 1,000 — 6,500
 In making stockings, 15,000 men, 10,000 women, and 10,000 youths; and women and children in seamstressing, winding, &c., 37,000 — 60,000
 In embroidering, mending, bleaching, dyeing, dressing, putting-up, &c., probably about — 6,500
 Total persons employed — 73,000

The capital employed in the various branches of the trade may be thus estimated, taking the machinery &c. frames at neither their original cost, nor actual selling price, but at their working value, and the stocks of hosiery on hand, at the close of years:—

The capital in mills and machinery, for prep: cotton, is 70,000
 — — — — worsted, &c. 100,000
 — — — — silk 160,000
 Fixed capital in mills, &c. 140,000
 in frames — — — — 245,000
 Total of fixed capital — 385,000

In wool and yarn in process and stock — 85,000
 — — — — — 135,000
 — — — — — 50,000
 Floating capital in spinning, &c. — 270,000

Capital in narrow cotton frames — 64,000
 — wide — 60,000
 — narrow worsted frames — 75,000
 — silk frames — 30,000
 Fixed capital in frames — 229,000

In goods in process and stock — 350,000
 — — — — — 345,000
 — — — — — 11,000
 Floating capital in making hose — 280,000
 in spinning, &c. — 40,000
 Total of floating capital 1,050,000

We have no more recent account of the manufacture, on which any reliance can be placed; but we are informed by Mr. Felkin, that the number of frames may at present (1843) be taken at 36,000, and that wages, though low, are rising.

According to the above estimate of the total value of the stocking manufacture in 1833 (1,991,000£), it would not give more than 2s. 5d. for the average expenditure on stockings of each individual of the then existing inhabitants of Great Britain. There can, however, be little or no doubt that this sum is decidedly under the mark; and its insufficiency will appear the more striking when it is recollected that a large portion of the hosiery whose value is included in the above estimate, does not consist of stockings, but of woollen and cotton shirts and drawers, gloves, mitts, night-caps, slawls, &c. Perhaps we shall not be far wrong in estimating the total average expenditure per individual of the population of Great Britain on stockings and other articles of hosiery, at 4s. each; which, taking the population at 18,500,000, would give 3,700,000£ for the total value of the manufacture. And this estimate, we incline to think, will be found to be pretty near the mark.

In the estimate given above, by Mr. Felkin, no notice is taken of the hosiery made in Westmoreland and Cumberland, and in Scotland, where, however, it is rather extensively produced. In fact, there are at present (1843) between 600 and 700 stocking frames at work in Dumfries and its vicinity, and about 1,300 in Hawick, exclusive of a further number in Aberdeen, &c., and of the knitted stockings made in the Orkney and Shetland islands.

In our customs returns, cotton hosiery and lace are mixed up together, so that the value of the exports of each cannot be separately specified. The exports of both have, however, increased considerably of late years, and we are well assured that the increase has been as great in the hosiery as in the lace branch. The Germans, it is true, have succeeded in disposing of considerable quantities of hosiery in South America, particularly in Brazil; a consequence, partly, of the low price at which the goods are produced in the cottages of peasants who derive the principal part of their subsistence from other

sources; but more, we are informed, from the German stockings being better adapted to the taste of the people to whom they are offered, the English stockings being all too long. This, however, is a defect that, one should think, might be easily obviated; and if so, English hosiery would have the same preference in Brazil that it has in most other markets.

STORAX. See BALSAM.

STORES, MILITARY AND NAVAL, include arms, ammunition, &c. It is enacted, that no arms, ammunition, or utensils of war, be imported by way of merchandise, except by licence, for furnishing his Majesty's public stores only. — (6 Geo. 4. c. 107.)

STORES, in commercial navigation, the supplies of different articles provided for the subsistence and accommodation of the ship's crew and passengers.

It is laid down, in general, that the surplus stores of every ship arriving from parts beyond seas are to be subject to the same duties and regulations as those which affect similar commodities when imported as merchandise: but if it shall appear to the collector and comptroller that the quantity of such stores is not excessive, nor unsuitable, under all the circumstances of the voyage, they may be entered for the private use of the master, purser, or owner of such ship, on payment of the proper duties, or be warehoused for the future use of such ship, although the same could not be legally imported by way of merchandise. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 33.)

A List, by which to calculate the Amount of Stores, of the estimated Average Number of Days' Duration of a Voyage from the U. Kingdom to the different Ports enumerated, and back.

Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.
Abo	100	Cyprus	180	Malacca	110	Rodon Island	180
Alders	120	Cape of Good Hope	240	Malacca	110	River Jimbia	190
Almeria	100	Callao	400	Malacca	110	River N. B. Wales	300
Amoy Isles	90	Coquimbo	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Alcant	110	Chili	360	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Alicia	110	Calcutta	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Antigua	180	Colombo	360	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Augustina's Bay	150	Ceylon	360	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Amoy	150	Cordobale	360	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Alexandria	180	China	420	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Ascension Isle	180	Canton	420	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Archipelago Isles	180	Danish	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Annabona	180	Dronthim	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Archangel	180	Dutawa Bay	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Australia	420	Demarara	150	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Alexandria	180	Dominica	150	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Acapulco, Mexico	180	Dominica	150	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Negen	100	Edinburgh	45	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Boston	180	Elbing	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bombay	100	Hamburg	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Barcelona	110	Hibb Isle	160	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bay of Rome	110	Isle of France	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Baltimore	180	Isle of France	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bahama Isles	150	Fare Islands, N. Sea	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Barbadoes	180	Fare Islands, Canarian	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Berlice	180	Fayal	80	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bermuda	120	Fernando Po	80	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Boston	180	Ferriand Island	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bahia	300	Gotteburg	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Brazil	200	Gibraltar	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Buenos Ayres	240	Genoa	150	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bay of Campeachy	240	Greenada	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Barcelona	265	Greece	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bombay	265	Great Islands, and	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bengal	400	Gallipoli	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Batavia	400	Greenland Fishery	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bizen	42	Goree	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bavenna	80	Gonyauil	420	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bilboa	80	Guaypatac	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Bordeaux	80	Hon	365	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Borussia	80	Hamburg	42	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cadix	90	Hatipolund	42	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cariscona	100	Hera	810	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Carthagena	100	Halla	120	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cape de Verde Islands,		Javanah	200	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
St. Antonio	100	Jonduras	240	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
St. Vincent	100	Hudson's Bay	240	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
St. Jago	100	Hobart Town	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Ceuta	130	Iceland	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Canary Isles	95	Ivica	110	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Christiana	100	Italy	120	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Copenhagen	100	Isle of Seale	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cette	130	Janin Isles	150	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Civita Vecchia	130	Islands in the Archip.	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Conica Isle	130	Islands of France and	180	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cayenna	180	Bourbon	810	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cape Hayti	210	Jamaica	410	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Charleston	180	Java	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Chesapeake Bay	180	Kingsberg	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Chia	210	Lima	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Curacao	180	Ladrones	420	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cronstadt	100	Ladrones	420	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Candia Isle	160	Lubeck	100	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cephalonia	160	Laghorn	120	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Corfu Isle	160	Long Island	120	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Calabar	180	La Guayra	240	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cape Coast Castle	200	La Concepcion	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Carthagena, Spanish	180	Malabar	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
main	240	Malabar	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Cape St. Mary	180	Madra	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Constantinople	180	Madra	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Columbia River	200	Madra	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180
Umama	340	Madra	400	Malacca	110	St. John's	180

shore, &c., by which damage is done to the ship, should be considered a stranding; or that no striking against a rock, &c. should be considered as such, provided the ship be got off within a specified time. Perhaps a tide would be the most proper period that should be fixed.

The insurance companies exclude the words, "or the ship be stranded," from the memorandum. — (See INSURANCE, MARINE.)

STURGEON FISHERY. The sturgeon is a large, valuable, and well-known fish, of which there are several species, viz. the sturgeon, properly so called, or *Acipenser sturio*; the beluga, or *Acipenser huso*; the sevruga, or *Acipenser stellatus*, &c. The sturgeon annually ascends our rivers, but in no great number, and is taken by accident in the salmon nets. It is plentiful in the North American rivers, and on the southern shores of the Baltic; and is met with in the Mediterranean, &c. But it is found in the greatest abundance on the northern shores of the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural; and there its fishery employs a great number of hands, and is an important object of national industry. Owing to the length and strictness of the Lentis in the Greek Church, the consumption of fish in Russia is immense; and from its central position, and the facilities afforded for their conveyance by the Wolga, the products of the Caspian fishery, and those of its tributary streams, are easily distributed over a vast extent of country. Besides the pickled carcases of the fish, caviar is prepared from the roes; and isinglass, of the best quality, from the sounds. The caviar made by the Ural Cossacks is reckoned superior to any other; and both it and isinglass are exported in considerable quantities. The belugas are sometimes of a very large size, weighing from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs., and yield a good deal of oil. The seal fishery is also pretty extensively prosecuted in the Caspian. The reader will find a detailed account of the mode in which the fishery is carried on in the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural, in *Tooke's Russia*, vol. iii. pp. 49—72. We subjoin the following official statement of the produce of the Russian fisheries of the Caspian and its tributary streams in 1828 and 1829:—

Year.	Number of Persons employed.		Number of Fish taken.					Products of Sturgeon.		
	In Fishing.	In hunting Seals.	Sturgeon.	Sevruga.	Beluga.	Sesame. (Carp).	Seal.	Caviar.	Fish Cartilage.	Isinglass.
1828	8,867	234	45,035	553,161	27,069	8,555	26,584	Pounds, lbs. 34,860 1	Pounds, lbs. 1,807 28	Pounds, lbs. 1,223 27
1829	8,760	227	68,325	697,716	20,391	5,940	29,429 7	39,429 7	1,173 303	1,024 32

SUCCORY. See CHICCOXY.

SUGAR (Fr. *Sucré*; Ger. *Zucker*; It. *Zucchero*; Russ. *Sachar*; Sp. *Azucar*; Arab. *Sukhir*; Malay, *Soola*; Sans. *Sarkarā*), a sweet granulated substance, too well known to require any particular description. It is every where in extensive use; and in this country ranks rather among the indispensable necessities of life, than among luxuries. In point of commercial importance, it is second to very few articles. It is chiefly prepared from the expressed juice of the *arundo saccharifera*, or sugar cane; but it is also procured from an immense variety of other plants, as maple, beet-root, birch, parsnep, &c.

1. *Species of Sugar.* — The sugar met with in commerce is usually of 4 sorts; — brown, or muscovado sugar; clayed sugar; refined, or loaf sugar; and sugar candy. The difference between one sort of sugar and another depends altogether on the different modes in which they are prepared.

1. *Brown, or Muscovado Sugar.* — The plants or canes being crushed in a mill, the juice, having passed through a strainer, is collected in the clarifier, where it is first exposed to the action of a gentle fire, after being "tempered" (mixed with alkali), for the purpose of facilitating the separation of the liquor from its impurities. It is then conveyed into the large evaporating copper, and successively into two others, each of smaller size; the superintending boiler freeing it, during the process, from the scum and feculent matters which rise to the surface. The syrup then reaches the last copper vessel, called the "striking tache," where it is boiled till sufficiently concentrated to be capable of granulating in the cooler, whence it is transferred with the least possible delay, to prevent charring. Here it soon ceases to be a liquid; and when fully crystallised, is put into hogheads (called "putting"), placed on their ends in the curing-house, with several apertures in their bottoms, through which the molasses drain into a cistern below. In this state they remain till properly cured, when the casks are filled up, and prepared for shipment.

2. *Clayed Sugar* is prepared by taking the juice, as in the case of muscovado sugar, when boiled to a proper consistency, and pouring it into conical pots with the apex downwards. These pots have a hole at the lower extremity, through which the molasses or syrup is allowed to drain. After this drain has continued for some time, a stratum

of moistened clay is spread over the surface of the pots; the moisture of which, percolating through the mass, is found to contribute powerfully to its purification.

3. *Refined Sugar* may be prepared from muscovado or clayed sugar, by redissolving the sugar in water, and, after boiling it with some purifying substances, pouring it, as before, into conical pots, which are again covered with moistened clay. A repetition of this process produces *double refined* sugar. But a variety of improved processes are now resorted to.

4. *Sugar Candy*. — Solutions of brown or clayed sugar, boiled till they become thick, and then removed into a hot room, form, upon sticks or strings put into the vessels for that purpose, into crystals, or candy.

11. *Historical Notices of Sugar*. — The history of sugar is involved in a good deal of obscurity. It was very imperfectly known by the Greeks and Romans. Theophrastus, who lived about 320 years before the Christian æra, the first writer whose works have come down to us by whom it is mentioned, calls it a sort of "honey extracted from canes or reeds." Strabo states, on the authority of Nearchus, Alexander's admiral, that "reeds in India yield honey without bees." And Seneca, who was born about 55, alludes to sugar in a way which shows how little was then known respecting it (Epist. 84.): — *Atant, says he, inveniri apud Indos mel in arundinis foliis, aut ros illius cæli, aut ipsius arundinis humor dulcis et pinguis gignat.*

Of the ancients, Dioscorides and Pliny have given the most precise description of sugar. The former says, it is "a sort of concremented honey, found upon canes, in India and Arabia Felix; it is in consistence like salt, and is, like it, brittle between the teeth." And Pliny describes it as "honey collected from canes, like a gum, white and brittle between the teeth; the largest is of the size of a hazel nut: it is used in medicine only." — (*Saccharum et Arabia fert, sed laudatius India; est autem mel in arundinibus collectum, gummi modo candidum, dentibus fragile, amplissimum nucis avellanae magnitudine, ad medicinae tantum usum.* — Lib. xii. c. 8.)

It is evident, from these statements, that the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans with respect to the mode of obtaining sugar was singularly imperfect. They appear to have thought that it was found adhering to the cane, or that it issued from it in the state of juice, and then concreted like gum. Indeed, Lucan expressly alludes to Indians near the Ganges, —

Quique bibunt teneræ dulces ab arundine succos. — (Lib. iii. l. 237.)

But these statements are evidently without foundation. Sugar cannot be obtained from the cane without the aid of art. It is never found native. Instead of flowing from the plant, it must be forcibly expressed, and then subjected to a variety of processes. It is not, however, quite so clear as has been generally supposed that the Romans were wholly unacquainted with the mode of procuring sugar. The remarkable line of Statius —

Et quas percoquit Etnisia carmas — (Sylv. lib. i. v. 15.)

has been conjectured, apparently on good pretty grounds, to refer to the boiling of the juice of the cane. But the passage has been differently read, and is too enigmatical to be much depended on.

Dr. Moseley conjectures, apparently with much probability, that the sugar described by Pliny and Dioscorides, as being made use of at Rome, was sugar candy obtained from China. This, indeed, is the only sort of sugar to which their description will at all apply. And it would seem that the mode of preparing sugar candy has been understood and practised in China from a very remote antiquity; and that large quantities of it have been in all ages exported to India, whence, it is most probable, small quantities found their way to Rome. — (*Treatise on Sugar*, 2d edit. pp. 66—71. This, as well as Dr. Moseley's *Treatise on Coffee*, is a very learned and able work.)

Europe seems to be indebted to the Saracens not only for the first considerable supplies of sugar, but for the earliest example of its manufacture. Having, in the course of the 9th century, conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, Sicily, and Crete, they introduced into them the sugar cane, with the cultivation and preparation of which they were familiar. It is mentioned by the Venetian historians, that their countrymen imported, in the 12th century, sugar from Sicily at a cheaper rate than they could import it from Egypt. — (*Essai de l'Histoire du Commerce de Venise*, p. 100.) The crusades tended to spread a taste for sugar throughout the Western world; but there can be no doubt that it was cultivated, as now stated, in modern Europe, antecedently to the era of the crusades; and that it was also previously imported by the Venetians, Amaliphitans, and others, who carried on a commercial intercourse, from a very remote epoch, with Alexandria and other cities in the Levant. It was certainly imported into Venice in 996. — (See the *Essai*, &c. p. 70.)

The art of refining sugar, and making what is called loaf-sugar, is said, by Dr. Moseley, to be a modern European invention, the discovery of a Venetian about the

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end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century. — (*Moseley*, p. 66.) But this is doubtful, for Le Grand D'Aussy has shown that white or, as he calls it, refined sugar (*sucres blancs ou raffinés*) had been introduced into and used in France for more than a century and a half previous to the date assigned for the discovery of the process of refining in Venice.* — (*Vie Privée des Français*, ii. 198, ed. 1815.) This sugar was imported from Egypt principally by Italians; and the probability is, that the latter were the first Europeans who practised the art, which, however, would appear to have originated in the East.

The cane had, as already seen, been introduced into Sicily, and its culture practised, previously to the middle of the 12th century. It also was carried to Spain and cultivated by the Saracens soon after they obtained a footing in that country. The first plantations were at Valencia; but they were afterwards extended to Granada and Murcia. Mr. Thomas Willoughby, who travelled over great part of Spain in 1664, has given an interesting account of the state of the Spanish sugar plantations, and of the mode of manufacturing the sugar.

Plants of the sugar cane were carried by the Spaniards and Portuguese to the Canary Islands and Madeira, in the early part of the 15th century; and it has been asserted by many, that these islands furnished the first plants of the sugar cane that ever grew in America.

But though it is sufficiently established, that the Spaniards early conveyed plants of the sugar cane to the New World, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding Humboldt seems to incline to the opposite opinion (*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 10.), that this was a work of supererogation, and that the cane was indigenous both to the American continent and islands. It was not for the plant itself, which flourished spontaneously in many parts when it was discovered by Columbus, but for the art of making sugar from it, that the New World is indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese: and these to the nations of the East. — (See *Lafitau*, *Mœurs des Sauvages*, tome ii. p. 150.; *Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 238.)

Barbadoes is the oldest settlement of the English in the West Indies. We took possession of it in 1627; and so early as 1646 began to export sugar thence to England. The trade of Barbadoes attained its maximum in 1676, furnishing, it is said, employment, at that period, for 400 sail of vessels, averaging 150 tons burden: but this statement is most probably exaggerated.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage, and was first occupied by the Spaniards. It was wrested from them by an expedition sent against it by Cromwell in 1656; and has since continued in our possession, forming by far the most valuable of our West Indian colonies. At the time when it was conquered, there were only 3 small sugar plantations upon it. But, in consequence of the influx of English settlers from Barbadoes and the mother country, fresh plantations were speedily formed, and continued rapidly to increase.

The sugar cane is said to have been first cultivated in St. Domingo, or Hayti, in 1506. It succeeded better there than in any other of the West Indian Islands. Peter Martyr, in a work published in 1530, states that, in 1518, there were 28 sugar-works in St. Domingo established by the Spaniards. "It is marvellous," says he, "to consider how all things increase and prosper in the island. There are now 28 sugar presses, where-with great plenty of sugar is made. The canes or reeds wherein the sugar groweth are bigger and higher than in any other place; and are as big as a man's wrist, and higher than the stature of a man by the half. This is more wonderful, that whereas in Valencia, in Spain, where a great quantity of sugar is made yearly, whensoever they apply themselves to the great increase thereof, yet doth every root bring forth not past 5 or 6, or at most 7 of these reeds; whereas in St. Domingo 1 root beareth 20, and oftentimes 30." — (Eng. trans. p. 172.)

Sugar from St. Domingo formed, for a lengthened period, the principal part of the European supplies. Previously to its devastation, in 1790, no fewer than 65,000 tons of sugar were exported from the French portion of the island.

111. *Sources whence the Supply of Sugar is derived.* — The West Indies, Java, Brazil, Bengal, Mauritius, Siam, the Isle de Bourbon, and the Philippines, are the principal sources whence the supplies required for the European and American markets are derived. The quantities exported from these countries, exclusive of molasses, may be estimated as follows:—

	Tons.	Tons.
<i>British Colonies.</i> — West Indies (1847)	-	- 150,000
Mauritius	-	- 60,000
British India (1846-47)	-	- 75,000
		— 285,000

* But white sugar is not necessarily, as Le Grand D'Aussy seems to suppose, refined; it may be merely clayed, like Ilavannah sugar, which is as white as refined sugar.

† This includes the exports, not merely to the U. Kingdom, but to all countries.

	Tons.	Tons
<i>Spanish Colonies.</i> —Cuba	-	200,000
Porto Rico	-	50,000
Philippines	-	20,000
<i>Dutch Colonies.</i> —Java (1845)	(1,455,433 $\frac{1}{2}$ pic)	270,000
Gulana	-	88,250
		15,000
<i>French Colonies.</i> —Martinique		
Guadeloupe		
Isle de Bourbon, &c.	} average of 3 years ending with 1841	81,500
<i>Danish and Swedish Colonies.</i> —St. Thomas		
St. Cruz, &c }		12,000
Brazil		100,000
China, Siam, and all other parts	-	25,000
		896,896
	Total	

Loaf or lump sugar is unknown in the East, sugar candy being the only species of refined sugar that is made use of in India, China, &c. The manufacture of sugar candy is carried on in Hindostan, but the process is extremely rude and imperfect. In China, however, it is manufactured in a very superior manner, and large quantities are exported. When of the best description, it is in large white crystals, and is a very beautiful article. Two sorts of sugar candy are met with at Canton, viz. Chinchew and Canton; the former being the produce of the province of Fokien, and the latter, as its name implies, of that of Canton. The Chinchew is by far the best, and is about 50 per cent. dearer than the other. Chinese sugar candy is extensively consumed by Europeans at the different settlements throughout the East. The exports of sugar candy from Canton in 1846 for British India and Australia amounted to 28,584 piculs, or 2,296 tons. Within the last 4 or 5 years raw sugar has begun to be rather largely exported from China to England, the shipments for the latter in 1846 having amounted to 18,250 tons. But the speculation did not turn out well; and it is doubtful whether the sugar of China will be able to withstand the competition of that of Brazil and Cuba.

Consumption of Tropical Sugar.—It is exceedingly difficult, or rather we should say quite impossible, to get any correct information with respect to the consumption of sugar in most countries. In as far, however, as regards this country, the subjoined tables furnish ample information. It appears from them that at an average of the 5 years ending with 1844, the consumption of sugar in the U. Kingdom amounted to about 200,000 tons a year, exclusive of about 10,000 tons of bastard or inferior sugar, obtained from boiling molasses. In the course of the ensuing year, Sir Robert Peel reduced the duties on British colonial muscovado sugars from 25s. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 14s. a cwt., a considerable reduction being made, at the same time, in the duty on foreign sugar the produce of free labour. In consequence of this reduction the entries of sugar for home consumption increased from 206,472 tons in 1844 to 242,850 tons in 1845, exclusive in both years of molasses equivalent to about 15,000 tons. In 1846 farther changes were made in the duties by the admission of foreign slave grown sugar at a reasonable rate; and in 1847 the consumption (including that used in breweries and distilleries) amounted to 290,281 tons; to which may be added 20,000 tons as the equivalent of molasses.

The statements given by Schnitzler (*Statistique de la France*, i. 296.) show that at an average of 1840 and 1841 the consumption of colonial and foreign sugars amounted in France to 73,139,000 kilog., or 71,425 tons, a year; and adding to this quantity the produce of the beet-root plantations for these years, amounting to about 30,000,000 kilog., the whole consumption would be about 103,000,000 kilog., exclusive of the quantity surreptitiously introduced. But the home supply of sugar has increased in the interval: and it farther appears from the official accounts, published by the French customs, that, in 1847, 97,452,150 kilog., or 95,801 tons, of colonial and foreign sugar were entered for consumption.

The Low Countries, Germany, and Austria are supplied through Holland, the Hanse Towns, the ports on the south shore of the Baltic, and Trieste. Most part of the produce of the Dutch colonies is imported into Holland, and considerable quantities are also imported from other countries; so that, on the whole, the imports into the Dutch ports may be fairly estimated at from 95,000 to 105,000 tons a year. The imports into Hamburg and Bremen amount, at an average, to about 40,000 tons a year; and those into Antwerp to above 13,000 tons. There is also a considerable importation of sugar into Stettin and other Baltic ports belonging to Germany and Prussia. The imports at Trieste amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1846, to 32,016 tons a year; and, allowing for the quantities introduced through Venice and other channels, perhaps we shall not be far wrong in estimating the imports for consumption by the Austrian ports on the Adriatic at about 35,000 tons.

The consumption of sugar in Spain has been estimated by Montveran (*Statistique des Colonies*, p. 92.) at 41,050 tons. But, despite the considerable consumption of cocoa in Spain, and the moderation of the duties on sugar, we have little or no doubt that this estimate is considerably beyond the mark. Probably, were the consumption stated at 36,000 tons, it would be quite as much as it amounts to. On the like grounds we may, perhaps, estimate the consumption of Portugal at about 10,000 tons.

Duty is paid in Russia on about 34,000 tons of raw sugar, exclusive of what is clandestinely imported, and exclusive, also, of the clandestine imports of refined sugar.

During the year ending the 30th June, 1845, the U. States imported (principally

from Cuba and Porto Rico) 115,664,840 lbs., of which 15,799,651 lbs. were re-exported, leaving 101,865,189 lbs., or nearly 45,500 tons, for the consumption of the Union. But in addition to these imports of foreign sugar, which during the above year were below the average, the U. States draw the principal portion of their supply from the plantations in Louisiana, the produce of which has increased very rapidly of late years. In 1845 it amounted to 186,650 hhd. of 10 cwt. each, or to 93,325 tons. The crop, however, fluctuates very greatly in different years, and may, perhaps, be estimated at about 80,000 tons at an average. The exports of this sugar are inconsiderable: the whole shipments of native raw and refined sugar from the Union during the year ended the 30th of June, 1845, having amounted to only 2,193,997 lbs., or about 980 tons. (*Papers published by Congress, 8th December, 1845, p. 28. and 32.*) The States further derive a supply of 10,000 or 12,000 tons of sugar from the maple.

On the whole, therefore, we shall not perhaps be far wrong in estimating the consumption of exported colonial and tropical sugar as follows:

	Tons.	Tons.
The U. Kingdom (1846, Inclusive of Distilleries, &c.)	-	310,000
France	-	100,000
The Netherlands, Belgium, Germany, Prussia, Austria, Hungary, and Austrian Italy, per Dutch ports, deducting re-exports to Russia and other countries	65,000	
— Hanse Towns	40,000	
— Antwerp	13,000	
— Rostock, Stettin, Königsberg, and other ports on the Baltic, excluding the imports from Holland and the Hanse Towns	8,000	
Trieste, Venice, Fiume, &c.	25,000	
		181,000
Spain		26,000
Portugal		10,000
Russia		38,000
Denmark and Sweden		12,000
Italy, Sicily, Malta, Turkey, Greece, and the Levant generally		50,000
U. States		40,000
Canada, Australia, Cape of Good Hope, &c.		30,000
		797,000

Now, supposing these statements to be reasonably correct, it would appear that the aggregate supply of sugar exceeds the demand by about 90,000 tons, so that the fair presumption is, that the giving of full permission to employ sugar in our distilleries and breweries will have no lasting influence over its price. It is, no doubt, true that the demand for sugar is rapidly increasing in this and most other countries; but, as the power to increase its supply (so long, at least, as Cuba, Brazil, and Louisiana are supplied with slave labour) is all but illimitable, no permanent rise of prices can at present be anticipated.

Taking the price of tropical sugar at the rate of 11. 2s. a cwt. or 22l. a ton, the prime cost of the article to the people of Europe and the U. States will be 17,594,000l. sterling; to which adding 50 per cent. for duty, its total cost will be 26,391,000l. This is sufficient to prove the paramount importance of the trade in this article. Exclusive, however, of sugar, the other products of the cane, as rum, molasses, treacle, &c., are of very great value. The revenue derived by the British treasury from rum only, amounted, in 1847, to 1,316,140l. nett, but it has sometimes been much greater.

Progressive Consumption of Sugar in Great Britain.—We are not aware that there are any authentic accounts with respect to the precise period when sugar first began to be used in England. It was, however, imported in small quantities by the Venetians and Genoese in the 14th and 15th centuries*: but honey was then, and long after, the principal ingredient employed in sweetening liquors and dishes. Even in the early part of the 17th century, the quantity of sugar imported was very inconsiderable; and it was made use of only in the houses of the rich and great. It was not till the latter part of the century, when coffee and tea began to be introduced, that sugar came into general demand. In 1700, the quantity consumed in Great Britain was about 10,000 tons, or 22,400,000 lbs.; and in 1844 the consumption amounted (bastards excluded) to above 180,000 tons, or more than 400,000,000 lbs.; so that sugar forms not only one of the principal articles of importation and sources of revenue, but an important necessary of life.

Great, however, as the increase in the use of sugar has certainly been, it may, we think, be fairly presumed that the demand for it is still a good deal below its natural limit; and now that the duties have been reduced, and the trade placed on a proper footing, we confidently anticipate that the consumption of sugar, and, also, the revenue derived from it, will be largely increased.

During the first half of last century, the consumption of sugar increased five-fold. It amounted, as already stated—

* In Martin's *Historia del Comercio de Venecia* (vol. v. p. 306.), there is an account of a shipment made at Venice for England in 1519, of 100,000 lbs. sugar, and 10,000 lbs. sugar candy. The sugar is said to have been brought from the Levant.

Acco
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Colon
which 1

Antigua
Barbadoes
Demerara
Grenada
Jamaica
Montserrat
Nevis
St. Christopher
St. Lucia
St. Vincent
Tobago
Trinidad
Guyana
Surinam
Demerara
Berbice

In 1700, to 10,000 tons - or 22,000,000 lbs. In 1754, to 53,270 tons or 119,320,000 lbs.
 1710, - 14,000 - - 31,000,000 1770-75, - 72,540 (average) - 162,000,000
 1764, - 45,000 - - 94,000,000 1786-90, - 81,000 - - 181,300,000

In the reign of Queen Anne, the duty on sugar amounted to 3s 5d per cw. Small additions were made to it in the reign of George II.; but in 1780 it was only 6s 8d. In 1781 a considerable addition was made to the previous duty; and in 1787 it was as high as 12s 4d. In 1791 it was raised to 15s.; and while its extensive and increasing consumption pointed it out as an article well fitted to augment the public revenue, the pressure on the public finances, caused by the French war, occasioned its being loaded with duties, which, though they yielded a large return, would, there is good reason to think, have been more productive had they been lower. In 1797, the duty was raised to 17s. 6d.; 2 years after, it was raised to 20s.; and, by successive augmentations in 1803, 1804, and 1806, it was raised to 30s.; but in the last mentioned year it was enacted, that, in the event of the market price of sugar in bond, or exclusive of the duty, being for the 4 months previous to the 5th of January, the 5th of May, or the 5th of September, below 49s. a cw., the Lords of the Treasury might remit 1s. a cw. of the duty; that if the prices were below 48s., they might remit 2s.; and if below 47s., they might remit 3s., which was the greatest reduction that could be made. In 1826, the duty on West India sugar was declared to be constant at 27s., without regard to price; the duty on sugar from the Mauritius being then also reduced to 27s. In 1830, the duty was reduced to 24s. on West India and Mauritius sugar, and to 32s. on East India sugar; and in 1836, the duty on the latter was reduced to the same level as that on the former.

Account of the Quantity of Sugar retained for Home Consumption in GREAT BRITAIN, the Nett Revenue derived from it, and the rates of Duty with which it was charged, in each Year from 1789 to 1814, both inclusive.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Net Revenue.	Rates of Duty.		
			British Plantation Sugar.	East India Sugar, including Mauritius.	
	Cwt.	£ s. d.	Per Cwt.	Per Cwt.	Per Cwt.
1789	1,547,109	805,632	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1790	1,536,422	908,934	0 12 4	-	37 16 3
1791	1,405,411	1,074,903	0 13 0	0 2 6	37 16 3
1792	1,261,598	1,018,538	-	-	-
1793	1,677,097	1,318,504	-	-	-
1794	1,486,598	1,081,492	-	-	-
1795	1,335,930	845,961	-	-	-
1796	1,634,078	1,234,213	-	-	-
1797	1,475,722	1,299,040	0 17 6	0 3 2	37 16 3
1798	1,470,532	1,194,500	0 19 0	0 5 3	40 18 3
1799	2,774,434	2,321,233	1 0 0	0 2 8	42 16 3
1800	1,505,921	1,233,112	-	-	-
1801	2,773,735	2,789,434	-	0 3 2	42 16 3
1802	2,250,311	2,210,401	-	-	-
1803	1,496,585	1,251,437	1 4 0	1 6 4	1 4 0
1804	2,144,369	2,458,134	1 6 6	1 9 1	1 6 6
1805	2,076,103	2,439,795	1 7 0	1 9 8	1 7 0
1806	2,245,813	2,177,518	-	-	-
1807	2,277,683	3,150,753	-	1 10 0	1 0 0
1808	2,245,813	4,177,518	-	-	-
1809	2,201,207	2,473,995	-	-	-
1810	3,420,212	5,117,330	1 9 0	1 12 0	1 0 0
1811	3,226,737	5,339,212	1 7 0	1 10 0	1 0 0
1812	2,404,019	5,939,939	1 10 0	1 15 0	1 0 0
1813	2,909,063	5,447,560	-	-	Per Cwt. 1 10 0
1814	1,997,999	3,276,515	-	-	1 19 0

* Sugar used in distilleries included in these years.

Account of the Quantities of Sugar Imported into the United Kingdom from the West Indies, and British Guiana, distinguishing the Quantities from each Colony, in the under-mentioned Years, from 1831 to 1847, both inclusive.

Colonies from which imported.	Sugar, unrefined.										
	1831.	1835.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Antigua	Cwts. 195,177	Cwts. 174,818	Cwts. 128,869	Cwts. 303,071	Cwts. 741,103	Cwts. 147,414	Cwts. 115,461	Cwts. 203,150	Cwts. 210,013	Cwts. 109,544	Cwts. 240,239
Barbadoes	275,077	264,669	292,109	207,494	257,109	512,528	549,046	328,709	351,485	304,496	499,021
Dominica	56,239	52,014	39,383	24,478	49,549	54,378	44,118	29,803	57,483	52,700	65,434
Grenada	185,771	170,986	117,460	85,988	64,470	32,846	65,353	78,590	71,928	76,811	104,032
Jamaica	1,629,093	1,149,760	765,019	518,241	568,265	773,149	659,533	529,925	745,267	572,883	731,230
Montserrat	26,127	16,861	12,443	19,305	10,839	13,685	8,013	12,647	11,265	5,316	9,479
Nevis	49,284	39,637	36,751	27,537	19,124	33,833	24,640	30,500	20,858	26,714	43,354
St. Christopher	101,268	87,614	135,348	94,290	65,936	95,634	77,580	119,710	124,773	91,028	150,376
St. Lucia	73,276	54,749	50,213	37,867	51,113	35,364	54,959	69,263	71,260	63,666	86,374
St. Vincent	311,698	185,027	131,829	101,020	110,305	187,469	132,846	135,677	136,733	139,670	173,619
Tobago	121,419	77,860	66,344	21,248	48,184	46,913	45,528	69,217	69,709	38,222	69,440
Trinidad	15,599	13,911	5,340	7,568	5,668	2,977	5,668	6,750	4,654	5,177	6,285
Bahamas	247,167	229,298	268,629	245,779	224,605	126,003	325,580	274,288	264,152	353,293	293,093
Bermudas	-	104	-	-	100	455	1,069	998	1,669	3,356	-
Bonterra	-	104	-	4,239	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Dominica	809,131	760,278	440,132	496,427	415,261	373,318	434,508	447,817	499,109	299,449	522,590
St. Vincent	142,068	126,720	93,137	90,063	89,923	85,175	95,816	120,578	75,207	75,207	118,143
Total	6,105,800	5,284,209	3,824,379	9,214,764	9,151,217	9,308,725	5,969,701	6,435,037	7,257,703	5,132,159	5,809,274

An Account, showing the Quantities in cwts. of the several Sorts of Sugar imported into the U. Kingdom; in what entered for Home Consumption, and the Nett Revenue accruing thereon; in each Year since 1816.

Year.	Quantities of Sugar imported into the U. Kingdom, in cwts.					Quantities of Sugar retained for Consumption in the U. Kingdom, in cwts.*			
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign.	Total Quantity Imported.	British Plantation.	East India.	Foreign.	Total Quantity retained for Home Consumption.
1816	3,649,807	-	125,839	366,869	4,134,585	2,151,080	43,011	57,228	2,251,329
1818	3,560,517	-	197,058	192,780	3,880,149	3,446,458	33,980	40,495	3,689,931
1819	3,679,539	-	185,803	105,815	3,971,161	3,907,054	27,339	6,578	3,989,911
1820	3,770,379	-	164,365	136,052	4,076,906	1,701,421	93,056	419	1,795,896
1819	3,907,151	Considered as R. I. sugar in these years.	305,547	63,337	4,198,515	3,730,609	100,046	145	3,830,900
1820	3,709,458	-	377,223	182,990	4,269,676	3,816,788	84,795	381	3,901,961
1821	3,906,267	-	369,182	197,037	4,375,166	3,936,411	130,253	368	4,066,982
1822	3,635,081	-	376,571	112,854	3,775,386	3,531,678	137,092	367	3,669,037
1823	3,715,289	-	319,560	308,198	4,343,047	3,183,307	194,301	182	3,378,901
1824	3,955,058	-	311,648	305,760	4,412,506	3,215,701	135,675	80	3,351,456
1825	3,501,881	93,723	166,995	167,138	3,869,737	2,975,623	107,930	25	3,073,548
1826	4,008,420	146,722	155,966	79,801	4,410,909	3,430,652	143,512	86	3,574,900
1827	3,550,318	31,344	180,265	184,173	4,110,110	3,970,865	89,356	184	3,960,987
1828	4,118,430	261,222	132,723	160,243	4,682,622	3,804,184	118,400	11	3,922,619
1829	4,102,810	297,958	174,056	231,584	4,806,408	3,481,409	131,979	19	3,613,891
1830	3,913,288	482,710	213,494	303,539	4,916,004	3,590,041	131,979	84	3,722,044
1831	4,108,748	317,535	181,279	283,194	4,890,756	3,667,296	118,236	79	3,785,611
1832	3,784,345	541,770	30,357	433,477	4,869,949	3,573,322	73,600	603	3,647,528
1833	3,656,212	599,552	111,731	442,207	4,799,702	3,533,480	98,283	71	3,631,904
1834	3,844,744	535,560	79,817	366,699	4,745,814	3,920,522	181,007	80	4,101,579
1835	3,969,340	536,237	101,531	374,751	4,982,859	3,737,501	96,500	31	3,834,502
1836	3,600,517	497,303	152,229	399,112	4,649,161	3,578,144	110,222	33	3,688,599
1837	3,305,256	537,961	296,679	342,700	4,482,576	3,694,712	270,055	43	3,964,810
1838	3,241,434	60,471	428,854	475,415	4,146,174	3,491,225	418,375	65	3,909,665
1839	3,945,881	61,586	518,293	722,777	4,878,537	3,548,228	477,252	49	3,925,529
1840	3,802,933	1,009	428,836	605,167	4,838,945	3,074,198	818,280	3,819	3,896,344
1841	3,145,500	116,112	1,239,738	803,999	5,305,349	3,991,903	1,065,414	961	4,057,629
1842	3,206,910	690,533	960,432	617,214	5,475,111	3,339,415	835,948	103	4,175,466
1843	3,203,667	479,985	1,102,176	937,905	5,723,733	3,973,564	1,055,667	76	4,029,307
1844	3,652,778	540,620	1,101,261	785,416	6,080,075	3,064,159	1,045,208	98	4,129,445
1845	3,854,010	716,173	1,336,766	911,021	6,828,990	3,546,141	1,231,176	77,307	4,854,621
1846	3,147,263	842,106	1,429,274	1,197,852	6,626,507	3,179,600	1,440,909	692,739	5,320,248
1847	3,199,891	1,195,571	1,407,154	2,406,961	6,809,577	3,635,066	1,189,433	974,019	5,775,508
Totals of last 3 years	3,201,194	3,754,942	4,178,914	4,618,754	15,753,824	10,747,807	3,854,508	1,654,065	16,856,380
Average of last 3 years	3,733,751	918,314	1,392,758	1,506,251	6,550,974	3,449,669	1,284,836	551,355	5,285,460

* These are the quantities retained for consumption, after the quantities exported in a raw or refined state, after payment

We had occasion, in a former edition of this work, to remark on the impolicy and injustice of charging sugar from our possessions in the East Indies with a higher rate of duty than was laid on sugar from the West Indies. But, as already seen, this distinction was suppressed in 1836, and the sugar of our various colonial possessions and dependencies is now admitted for consumption on the same terms.

Previously to 1845 the duty on sugar from a British possession was decidedly too high, being no less than 25s. 2d. (24s. + 5 per cent.) per cwt. But whether this was or not, there cannot, we apprehend, be so much as the shadow of a doubt that the duty on foreign sugars was then more than twice as great as it should have been. This duty, which amounted for a lengthened period to 63s. a cwt. was, in fact, intoned to be prohibitory; and so long as our foreign dependencies furnished so much sugar as not only to supply the markets of the U. Kingdom, but to furnish, besides, a considerable excess for exportation to others, there was little to object to in the magnitude of the duty. Latterly, however, it became most oppressive in its operation. In consequence, as already seen, of the measures connected with the emancipation of the slaves, the imports of sugar from the West Indies declined from 4,103,746 cwts. in 1831, to 2,857,703 cwts. in 1845. Owing to the immigration of hill-coolies, and other circumstances, the emancipation of the slaves in the Mauritius has not been nearly so injurious as in the West Indies; and with the exception of 1843, in which they fell off considerably, the imports of sugar from that island have not declined. But despite this circumstance and the large increase of the imports from India since 1840, the deficiency occasioned by the decrease in the imports from the West Indies was not fully compensated, and there was, of course, a proportional diminution of the total supply. On the one hand, therefore, we had a rapidly increasing population, and on the other we had that population confined by an oppressive duty to a market for sugar, the supply of which had been diminished! The consequences have been such as every man of sense must have anticipated from the outset. The business of refining for the foreign market, and our export trade in sugar, were all but annihilated, while the average gassette price of muscovado sugar admissible to the English markets amounted during the 3 years ending with 1844 to about double the price of foreign sugar in bond, of equal or superior quality! We beg, in illustration of what is now stated, to subjoin an

Account of the Quantities of Sugar retained for Consumption, of the Nett Produce of the Duties thereon, and of the Prices of British Sugar (ex Duty), and Brazil Sugar in Bond, in 1842, 1843, and 1844, with the Average of these 3 Years.

Years.	Quantities.	Nett Revenue from Duties on Sugar.	Average Prices of British Muscovado Sugar.	Average Prices of Brazil Sugar (Brown and Yellow).
1842 . . .	Cwt. 3,868,437	£ 4,874,312	s. d. 26 11	s. d. 18 3
1843 . . .	4,025,507	5,076,706	33 54	17 2
1844 . . .	4,123,994	5,805,222	33 3	17 0
Total . . .	12,017,938	15,756,240	103 114	42 12 5
Average of 3 Years . . .	4,005,979	5,251,413	34 71	17 5

Now, it appears from this statement, that while the price of British sugar (exclusive of duty) amounted during the 3 years ending with 1844 to 34s. 7½d. per cwt., the price of Brazil (and Cuba) sugar was only 17s. 5¾d. per do.! And hence it follows, that, had the late prohibitory duty of 63s. on foreign sugar been reduced to the same rate (25s. 2d., or 24s. + 5 per cent.) as the late duty on British sugars, the people of the U. Kingdom might have bought the same quantity of sugar for 17s. 5¾d. that cost them 34s. 7½d., that is, they might have got about 2 lbs. of sugar for the same sacrifice it cost them to get 1 lb. The aggregate loss to the public from this preposterous arrangement of the sugar duties, during the period in question, was quite enormous. It appears from the above account that the average consumption of sugar, during each of the three years ending with 1844, amounted to 4,008,912½ cwts., which at 34s. 7½d. cost 6,944,605l. 14s. 5d. But had we been allowed to go into the foreign market for sugar, we might have got the same quantity for 3,502,230l. 13s., being a saving in 1 year of no less than 3,442,375l. 1s. 5d., and on 3 years, of 10,327,125l. 4s. 3d. But it may, perhaps, be said, that had our ports been open to the free importation of Brazilian and other foreign sugars, the price of the latter would have been raised: and so probably it would, though, considering the vast extent and productiveness of the field from which sugar may be brought, we doubt whether this effect would be very sensible. But, supposing that the opening of our ports had raised the price of foreign sugar from 17s. 5¾d. to 22s. a cwt., still the saving would have amounted to 2,534,801l. 15s. 9d. a year!

Under these circumstances there could no longer be a doubt that the reduction of the old prohibitory duty of 66s. a cwt. on foreign sugar was imperatively required;

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this was partially effected in 1844, when the duty on foreign sugar, if produced by free labour, was reduced to 35s. 8d. a cwt., and when, in 1845, the duty on British colonial sugars was reduced to 14s. a cwt., that on foreign free labour sugar was further reduced to 23s. 4d. a cwt. We subjoin

A Table showing the Imports of the various Descriptions of Sugar in each of the 5 Years ending with 1845; with the Quantities entered for Consumption, the Rates of Duty on the same, the Prices, &c.

	SUGAR, UNREFINED.										
	1844.				1845.				1845.		Aggregate within the Year.
	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	Entered Previously to 14 March.	Entered from 14 March.		Aggregate within the Year.			
Without Distinction of Quality.						Not equal to White Clayed.	Equal to White Clayed.				
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Cwts.		
Quantities of sugar imported into the U. K. :-											
Of the British possessions in America, and of Mauritius	2,145,500	2,508,910	2,505,567	2,452,776	241,876	2,619,248	136	2,654,010	716,173		
Of the British possessions within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited	1,238,221	938,118	1,100,869	1,098,540	272,368	1,038,468	24,830	1,353,674	3,192		
Of other British possessions within those limits	3,617	5,354	1,514	2,741	1,615	1,505	-	2,825	166,507		
Foreign, the produce of free labour, or admitted at the same rate of duty, under treaty	-	-	-	7,516	23,293	144,291	925	166,507	-		
Other foreign sugar	805,146	617,514	937,905	777,900	735,672	4,516,013	2,881	6,077,576	745,514		
Total	4,905,018	4,756,011	5,020,569	4,880,075	-	-	-	5,820,890	-		
Quantities of sugar retained for actual consumption in the U. K. :-											
Of the British possessions in America, and of Mauritius	2,992,203	2,932,586	2,972,564	3,084,139	272,610	3,275,160	51	3,548,181	-		
Of the British possessions within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited	1,064,710	935,391	1,055,173	1,045,108	115,095	1,089,342	22,112	1,226,749	4,427		
Of other British possessions within those limits	704	557	194	98	98	4,425	-	4,425	-		
Foreign, the produce of free labour, or admitted at the same rate of duty, under treaty	-	-	-	11	74	76,105	1,075	77,251	-		
Other foreign sugar	261	105	78	87	357,779	4,146,552	13,220	4,856,551	53		
Total	4,057,878	3,868,437	4,028,309	4,129,443	-	-	-	4,856,604	-		
Rates of duty chargeable on sugar (per cwt.) :-											
Of the British possessions in America, and of Mauritius	1 5 2	1 6 2	1 5 2	1 5 2	1 5 2	0 14 0	0 16 4	1 1 9	1 1 9		
Of the British possessions within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7	1 13 7		
Of other British possessions within those limits	-	-	-	0 15 8	1 13 8	1 13 8	1 13 8	1 13 8	1 13 8		
Foreign, the produce of free labour, or admitted at the same rate of duty, under treaty	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12	3 6 12		
Other foreign sugar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Net revenue from duties on sugar	5,114,390	4,874,512	5,076,325	5,205,270	-	-	5,574,171	-	-		
Average prices per cwt., exclusive of duty, of muscovado sugar of British possessions (from the London Market) :-	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.		
British West India	59 8	36 11	33 9	33 8	-	-	32 11	31 10	32 5		
Mauritius	-	-	-	33 10	32 10	-	-	31 10	32 5		
British East India	-	-	35 5	35 1	-	-	-	-	-		
Average prices of Brazil sugar, brown and yellow, per cwt., exclusive of duty (from the mercantile prices current)	20 9	18 5	17 2	17 0	-	-	-	20 5	-		

* From 4th July.

But though the reductions of duty in 1844 and 1845 effected a great improvement in the old system, they were inadequate to place it on a satisfactory footing. The reduction of the duty on foreign sugar applied to that only which was produced by free labour, the sugar produced by the labour of slaves (unless we happened to be bound by treaty to admit it at the low duty) continuing subject to the old prohibitory duty of 66s. per cwt. Nothing, however, could be more inexpedient than this distinction, on which we took the liberty to animadvert as follows in the last edition of this work :-

"We take, without any scruple, the cotton, tobacco, rice, and other products of slave-holding countries; and such being the case, it is not very easy to see on what principle we refuse to take their sugar. There is no reason to think that we are at all likely to hasten, by this refusal, the emancipation of our slaves (even if that were certainly desirable), or to improve their condition: our policy in this respect is injurious to ourselves, without being of the smallest advantage to any one else.

"But the truth is, if we look a little narrowly into the circumstances, we shall find that we do the very thing we pretend not to do. We annually export large quantities of British produce to Cuba and Brazil; but the sugar of those countries, the principal article they have to send us, being excluded from our markets, we cannot bring it direct to this country, but we carry it to Hamburg and other continental emporiums, and there exchange it for wool, flax, and other articles we are allowed

to import; so that, in effect, we transmute the slave-grown sugar into other things, and consume it under its new form. We do not employ it to sweeten tea and coffee; but we clothe ourselves with wool and flax, manure our lands with bones, and manufacture our paper of rags, which are all bought by it! But suppose we were a little more Quixotic, and that after getting the sugar we threw it into the sea, the result, as respects Cuba and Brazil, would be the same. We give, by buying their sugar, all the encouragement in our power to the slavery that exists in them; what we shall do with the sugar is our own affair; and whether we use it, sell it to others, or destroy it, is, as far as slavery is concerned, quite immaterial. But it is by no means immaterial as respects our trade with slave-holding countries; inasmuch as the preference we give to the sugars of others tempts them to lay discriminating duties on our products, and to discourage and embarrass our trade. And even were it otherwise desirable, it may be doubted whether it is in our power to exclude slave-grown sugar. Certificates of origin will, we apprehend, be rather a slender security for this result. But supposing them to be effectual, the consequence will be that a greater quantity of Java and Manilla sugar being consumed in England, less of it will remain to be sent to the Continent, where, by means of our policy, a corresponding market will be opened for slave-grown sugar!

* But admitting that something might be found to say in favour of the policy of wholly excluding slave-grown sugar, we, in effect, abandon it, by admitting the slave-grown sugar of the U. States and other countries with which we have treaties of reciprocity; so that, after all, our policy, in this respect, is prohibitive only of the sugars of Cuba, Porto-Rico, and Brazil! If the Americans chose to send us the whole sugar grown in Louisiana, every ounce of which is the produce of slave labour, importing in its stead sugar from the Havannah and Bahia, it would be freely admitted to our markets. Hence it is that, while we exclude the slave-grown sugar of those friendly countries of whose trade we might, if we chose, have a virtual monopoly, we admit the slave-grown sugar of our rivals, of the only people whose commercial marine can come into competition with our own! And to show that this contradiction is not imaginary, we may mention that, during the present year (1845) about 300 tons of the sugar of Louisiana* and Venezuela have been admitted to consumption under the new act! Is it, we beg to ask, possible to speak too harshly of such a policy? to imagine anything more perverse, contradictory, and absurd?

"It were really, therefore, to be wished that we should cease to rave, as we have done for the last 20 years, about slavery; and that we should allow our merchants to buy sugar, as we allow them to buy cotton and other things, without inquiring how, or by whom, it is produced. We may be assured that we should give as little encouragement to slavery by so doing as we give by our present system, while we should, at the same time, give greater facilities to our trade, and full scope to the late, and in other respects, wise and liberal measures."

We are glad to have to state that the principle contended for in the above paragraphs has since been fully admitted by the legislature; the act of 1846, 9 & 10 Vict. c. 63., having equalised the duty on all descriptions of foreign sugars.

It will farther be observed that under the system adopted in 1845, a discriminating duty of 9s. 4d. per cwt. was imposed on foreign muscovado sugar admitted to consumption over and above the duty (14s. per cwt.) imposed on British sugar. Inasmuch, however, as the latter was inadequate to the supply of the U. Kingdom, the effect of this regulation was to add 9s. 4d. per cwt. to the price of all the sugar, British as well as foreign, entered for consumption. And it was hardly to be supposed, after the striking recognition of the principles of free trade given by the legislature in passing the act for the abolition of the corn laws, that the protective system would be permitted to continue for the sake of the sugar colonies. The abolition of the former was, in truth, all but equivalent to the abolition of the latter. And the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 63., referred to above, which put an end to the distinction between free and slave-grown sugar, provided also for the equalisation of the duties on British and foreign sugars, which, had it been maintained, would have been finally effected on the 5th of July, 1851.

This last act has, however, been since superseded by the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 97. of this year (1848), which, exclusive of some changes in the duties, defers their complete equalisation till 1854.

Comparative Efficiency of Free and Slave Labour in the Production of Sugar.— But though it was not to be expected that a discriminating duty in favour of the sugar of our colonies would be tolerated, it is by no means clear that its abolition will not be an injustice to the latter. The equalisation of the duties would be in all respects unobjectionable, were the circumstances under which the planters in our colonies are placed identical with or similar to those under which their competitors are placed in Cuba, Brazil, and Java. Such, however, is not the case. The instruments of production possessed by the latter are totally different from those possessed by the

* The quality of the latter is not, as now prepared, well suited to our markets.

former. In Brazil and Cuba the planters are furnished with slave labour, and in Java the population, though not enslaved, is subjected to compulsory service. Unless, therefore, it can be shown that free labour is as efficient in the production of sugar in the West Indies and Demerara as slave or compulsory labour, it will necessarily follow that the equalisation of the duties on British and foreign sugars is an injustice to our colonists.

It has been alleged over and over again in vindication of this equalisation, that free labour is at once cheaper and more efficient than slave labour; and without inquiring into the truth of this allegation, we shall admit the greater cheapness of free labour in countries where freemen and slaves are equally suited to the employments carried on in them, and where these employments would be spontaneously followed by the slaves were they emancipated. But the conditions under which the production of sugar is carried on in the intertropical regions of the New World are entirely different from those now stated. Whites are not capable of field labour in such climates; and the raising of sugar is not an employment that would be voluntarily undertaken by free blacks. The latter have few wants. They reckon as useless incumbrances many articles indispensable in cold or temperate climates. Hence the *curis acuens mortalia corda*, so powerful in Europe, has but little influence in Jamaica and Trinidad. Men are not instinctively laborious or enterprising. Industry is with them merely a means to an end, a sacrifice they make to obtain supplies of the necessaries and conveniences of human life. Wherever the sacrifice required to procure food, clothes, and other necessary accommodations is considerable, the population is generally industrious; and a taste for labour being widely diffused, those who are not obliged to apply themselves to the production of necessaries, engage in the production of superfluities. But wherever the principal wants of man may be supplied with but little exertion, indolence becomes the distinguishing characteristic of the population; and, instead of employing their spare time in the production of articles of ostentation and luxury, they usually waste it in idleness and apathy. Now this is the precise state of the blacks in the W. Indies. Their necessities and desires are of a very limited description; and are generally indeed fully satisfied by the produce of a small patch of land, requiring but little labour in its cultivation: and such being the case it would be contradictory to suppose that they should voluntarily employ themselves in the hard labour necessary to produce sugar. Consistently with what is now stated, we find that Hayti, or St. Domingo, though the most fruitful of the West Indian islands, and though, when a colony of France, it furnished immense supplies of sugar, does not export, now that it is occupied by free blacks, a single ton! This, also, is the case in Mexico: and what reasonable ground have we for supposing that the result would be different in Jamaica, Cuba, or Brazil, were the blacks free and able (which is not the case in our islands) easily to obtain patches of land? The possession of the latter is requisite to enable them to exist without engaging in laborious service; and in the event of their not being able to obtain land, they may be forced to employ themselves in the culture of sugar; though, as it is against their inclination, they will withdraw from their work on the first opportunity, and will, while employed, indulge as much as possible in idleness.

Hence it would seem that, whether slave and compulsory labour be cheaper or dearer than free labour, it is indispensable to the production of sugar. We do not presume in making this statement to give any opinion in regard to the policy or impolicy of the suppression of slavery in our colonies. The freedom of the blacks may be a more than sufficient compensation for the cessation of supplies of sugar from them. But, whether it be so or not, we regard it as the merest illusion to suppose that the severe drudgery of sugar planting will ever be efficiently carried on in the W. Indies by really free labourers.

If this be a well-founded conclusion, the justice of making some compensation to our planters for the ruin that will be entailed on them by their exposure to the unfettered competition of those who have ample supplies of compulsory labour, is too obvious to admit of any question. The freedom of the blacks and the advantage of our own population, how desirable soever, should not be purchased by the ruin of the planters. Justice is too valuable to be sacrificed to our humanity or our palates.

The mere exclusion of slave-grown sugar would not, however, as many seem to suppose, in any degree obviate the hardships to which our planters are exposed. It would merely force a larger quantity of the sugars of Java and China upon our markets, and open a larger field for the consumption of slave-grown sugar on the Continent. Justice to our colonists requires that either a discriminating duty of 8s. or 10s. a cwt. should be imposed in their favour on all foreign sugars, or that they should be compensated in some other way. The former method of dealing fairly by them would, however, be repugnant to the national feeling and highly objectionable, at the same time that it is more than doubtful whether it would be of any real service to the planters, or would enable them to continue their business: and such being the case some less offensive and more efficacious alternative should be resorted to. We subjoin an

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT 11 & 12 VICT. C. 97., REMODELLING AND EQUIVAINING THE DUTIES ON SUGAR.
Duties on Sugar and Molasses. — Clause 1. repeals the duties on sugar and molasses imposed by the Act 9 & 10 Vict. c. 63., and imposes in their stead the following duties; viz.

On sugar or molasses the growth and produce of any British possession into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited, being imported from any such possession, the duties following, viz. from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 Inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 Inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 Inclusive.	5 July 1851 to 5 July 1852 Inclusive.	5 July 1852.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt. -	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, for every cwt. -	0 17 4	0 16 0	0 14 8	0 13 4	0 12 0
Muscovado, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to white clayed, for every cwt. -	0 18 8	0 14 0	0 12 10	0 11 8	0 10 0
Molasses, for every cwt. -	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 11 0	0 10 0	0 9 0

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

And from and after the respective days next hereinafter mentioned, —

On sugar or molasses the growth and produce of any other British possession, being imported from any such possession, the duties following, viz. from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 Inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 Inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 Inclusive.	5 July 1851 to 5 July 1852 Inclusive.	5 July 1852 to 5 July 1853 Inclusive.	5 July 1853 to 5 July 1854 Inclusive.	5 July 1854.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt. -	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, for every cwt. -	1 3 0	1 0 4	0 14 8	0 17 0	0 16 4	0 15 4	0 13 4
Brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, and not equal to white clayed, for every cwt. -	0 18 4	0 16 11	0 15 8	0 14 0	0 13 8	0 12 10	0 11 8
Muscovado, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to brown clayed sugar, for every cwt. -	0 17 0	0 15 8	0 14 4	0 13 0	0 12 6	0 11 10	0 10 0
Molasses, for every cwt. -	0 15 8	0 14 6	0 13 8	0 12 0	0 11 0	0 11 0	0 10 0

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

On sugar or molasses the growth and produce of any foreign country, and on all sugar or molasses not otherwise charged with duty, the duties following, viz. from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 Inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 Inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 Inclusive.	5 July 1851 to 5 July 1852 Inclusive.	5 July 1852 to 5 July 1853 Inclusive.	5 July 1853 to 5 July 1854 Inclusive.	5 July 1854.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt. -	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, for every cwt. -	1 5 8	1 4 8	1 0 8	1 0 8	0 19 4	0 17 4	0 13 4
Brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, and not equal to white clayed, for every cwt. -	1 1 7	0 19 10	0 18 3	0 16 4	0 15 8	0 14 0	0 11 8
Muscovado, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to brown clayed sugar, for every cwt. -	1 0 0	0 18 8	0 17 0	0 16 6	0 14 6	0 13 0	0 10 0
Molasses, for every cwt. -	0 18 8	0 17 0	0 16 8	0 14 0	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 10 0

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

Bounties or drawbacks upon the exportation from the U. Kingdom of the several descriptions of refined sugar hereinafter mentioned: — viz. from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 Inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 Inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 Inclusive.	5 July 1851.
Upon refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or lumps duly refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of an uniform whiteness throughout, or such sugar powdered, crushed, or broken, for every cwt. -	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Upon bastard or refined sugar, broken in pieces, or being ground or powdered sugar, or such sugar powdered or crushed or broken, for every cwt. -	0 16 4	0 16 0	0 15 0	0 12 8
	0 15 0	0 14 0	0 11 0	0 10 0

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

Sugar and Molasses may be imported from British Possessions in the East Indies at the lower Rate of Duty when Importations of Foreign Sugar is prohibited.—If at any time satisfactory proof shall have been laid before H. Majesty in council, that, as respects any British possession the importation of foreign sugar has been prohibited, it shall be lawful for H. Majesty, and she is hereby empowered by any order or orders in council, to declare that sugar and molasses the growth or produce of any such British possession may be imported from thence into the U. K., and entered at the lower rates of duty hereinafore imposed on sugar and molasses the growth or produce of British possessions into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited; and from and after the publication of such order, whilst the same shall continue in force, the sugars and molasses therein mentioned may be so imported and entered accordingly.—§ 2.

Such Sugar and Molasses to be entered at the lower Rates of Duty, upon the Conditions on which Bengal Sugar was admissible under 6 & 7 W. 4. c. 20.—Any sugars or molasses the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter in which the importation of foreign sugar is or shall be prohibited, which shall be entered for home use at the lower rates of duty imposed on sugar and molasses the produce of such possessions, shall be entered under the same or the like conditions, under which sugar the growth of the presidency of Bengal might be entered for home use, under the provisions of the Act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 20.—§ 3.

Collection of Duties to be under the Management of the Customs.—The several duties, bounties, and allowances imposed and allowed by this Act shall be under the management of the commissioners of customs, and shall be ascertained, collected, paid, allowed, &c., and applied or appropriated under the provisions of the Acts 8 & 9 Vict. c. 90, and 8 & 9 Vict. c. 92.—§ 4.

Commissioners of Customs to provide Standard Samples of White Clayed Sugar.—The commissioners of customs shall provide samples of white clayed sugar, and of sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed sugar, with reference to colour, grain, and saccharine matter, which shall be deemed to be standard samples for the purpose of comparing therewith such white clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed sugar, as from and after the passing of this Act may be entered for home consumption; and such standard samples shall from time to time be renewed whenever the said commissioners may deem it expedient; and no sugar shall, as regards the payment of duty, be deemed or taken to be white clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, unless it shall, with reference to colour, grain, or saccharine matter, equal the standard samples provided by the said commissioners.—§ 5.

Clause 6. directs commissioners of customs to provide standard samples of brown clayed sugar.

Sugar or Molasses imported or in Warehouse liable to the Duties imposed by this Act.—All sugar or molasses imported, but not entered, or which shall have been warehoused without payment of duty on the first importation thereof, and which shall be in port or warehouse at the respective periods at which the duties imposed by this Act shall become chargeable, shall be deemed and taken to be liable to the duties imposed by this Act; and the rate or rates of duty chargeable by this Act upon sugar or molasses, from the 10th of July, 1848, to the 5th of July, 1849, shall be taken to be applicable to sugar or molasses delivered for home consumption prior to the passing of this Act, and subsequently to the 10th day of July, 1848.—§ 7.

Orders in Council to be published in the Gazette.—§ 8.

Orders in Council may be revoked.—§ 9.

Copies of Orders in Council to be laid before Parliament.—§ 10.

The quantity of sugar consumed in Great Britain, previously to the change in 1845, allowing for the quantity sent to Ireland, was more than double what it was in 1790. But had the duty continued at 12s. 4d., its amount in that year, there cannot, we think, be much doubt, provided foreign sugars had also been admitted under a reasonable duty, that the consumption would have been trebled or more. During the intervening period the population had been little less than doubled; and the proportion which the middle classes bear to the whole population had been decidedly augmented. The consumption of coffee—an article in the preparation of which a great deal of sugar is used in this country, by all who can afford it—is more than 36 times as great now as in 1790; that is, it has increased from under 1,000,000 lbs. to above 36,000,000 lbs. The consumption of tea has about doubled; and there has been a great increase in the use of home-made wines, preserved and baked fruits, &c. Instead, therefore, of having done little more than increase proportionally to the increase of population, it may be fairly presumed that the consumption of sugar would, had there not been some powerful countervailing cause in operation, have increased in a far greater degree. Instead of amounting, in 1844, to little more than 4,000,000 cwt., the consumption of Great Britain should have amounted, as it now (1848) does, to from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 cwt.

Taking the aggregate consumption of sugar in Great Britain previously to 1845 at 400,000,000 lbs., and the population at 20,000,000, the average consumption of each individual has been about 20 lbs., ex. molasses. This, though a far greater average than that of France, or any of the continental states, is but small compared with what it probably will be now that it is supplied under a more liberal system. In workhouses, the customary annual allowance for each individual is, we believe, 34 lbs.; and, in private families, the smallest separate allowance for domestics is 1 lb. a week, or 52 lbs. a year. These facts strongly corroborate what we have already stated as to the extent to which the consumption of sugar will probably be increased under the new system; and others may be referred to, that are little less conclusive. Mr. Huskisson stated, in his place in the House of Commons, on Mr. Grant's motion for a reduction of the sugar duties, 25th of May, 1829, that “in consequence of the present enormous duty on sugar, the poor working man with a large family, to whom penury were a serious consideration, was denied the use of that commodity; and he believed he did not go too far when he stated that two-thirds of the poorer consumers of coffee drank that beverage without sugar. If, then, the price of sugar were reduced, it would become an article of his consumption, like many other articles—woolens, for example, which are now used for their cheapness—which he was formerly unable to purchase.”—(Speeches, vol. iii. p. 455.) Mr. Huskisson's conclusions are now in the way of being fully realised. The period that

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has elapsed since the late changes is too short to admit of their having exercised their full influence. But, as already seen, the consumption of the U. Kingdom has increased from about 207,000 tons in 1844, to no fewer than 290,000 tons, ex. molasses, in 1847! And as the consumption of the first 9 months of the current year (1848) has exceeded by more than 15,000 tons that of the corresponding period of 1847, there can be no doubt that its total consumption will considerably exceed 300,000 tons. We may further state, in illustration of the beneficial influence of the reduction of the duties, that while, in London and other parts of the country, the sales of sugar by the grocers who supply the higher classes have been but little extended, the sales of those who principally deal with the lower classes have augmented from 40 to 50, and, in some cases, to 80 and 100 per cent. This is the best possible proof of the salutary as well as of the powerful influence of the reduction of the duties.

In Ireland, provided that country is ever to escape from beggary and agitation, we should anticipate highly beneficial effects from the reduction of the duties on sugar. The direct importations of sugar into Ireland did not, previously to the late changes, exceed 18,500 tons; and, adding to these 6,500 tons for the second-hand importations (including bastards) from Great Britain, which, we believe, was quite as much or more than they amounted to, the entire consumption of that country would be 25,000 tons, or 57,000,000 lbs., which, taking the population at 8,000,000, gives 7.125 lbs. to each individual; or nearly 1-3d part of the average consumption of each individual in Great Britain. So singular a result must, no doubt, be principally ascribed to the poverty of the Irish; but there can be no doubt that it was partly, also, owing to over-taxation. And we are well convinced that the late reduction of the duty, though it may occasion a considerable immediate loss of revenue in Ireland, will, in the end, be productive of its increase, besides being attended with other and still more beneficial consequences. Next to the suppression of agitation, the "one thing needful" in Ireland is to inspire the population with a taste for the conveniences and enjoyments of civilised life; and the first step towards supplying this desideratum is, if possible, to make articles of convenience and luxury attainable by the mass of the people. If this be done, whether by a reduction of duties or otherwise, we may expect that the desire inherent in all individuals of improving their condition, will impel them to exert themselves to obtain them. A taste for such articles will be gradually diffused among all ranks; and ultimately, it may be presumed, it will be thought discreditably to be without them. And we are glad to have to state that these anticipations are in the way of being realised, to a greater extent than we could have supposed. "The annual returns from Ireland," say Messrs. Trueman and Cook, "have not yet been completed, but from those already received, it appears that the deliveries in 1846, notwithstanding the national distress, have steadily and progressively increased, as compared with the preceding year, and there will probably be an excess of consumption in that part of the U. Kingdom of about 4,000 tons!" (*Circular, 1st January, 1847.*)

Use of Sugar in Distilleries and Breweries.—In the last edition of this work we expressed ourselves on this subject as follows: "The use of sugar in these establishments, though not absolutely prohibited, is at present placed under restrictions which are equivalent to a prohibition. There can, however, be no doubt that these restrictions should be abolished, and free leave given to the growers and importers of sugar and molasses, and, indeed, of everything else, to convert them to any purpose to which they may be applicable. This has hitherto been objected to, except in periods of scarcity, partly from a wish to promote the interests of the barley growers and maltsters in this country, and partly from the alleged risk of smuggling and loss to the revenue. But now that the policy, or rather impolicy, of protection has been renounced by the legislature, and that foreign barley may be imported and employed in any way, under a nearly nominal duty, there is plainly no ground or pretence on which the agriculturists can object to the use of sugar; and as respects the risk of fraud and loss to the revenue, we do not think it amounts to much. In cases where sugar only is to be used in distilleries and breweries, the risk of fraud could hardly amount to anything; and in the cases in which it is partly used along with malt or raw grain, or both, it would be easy, seeing that the capacity of sugar to produce spirits and beer, as compared with malt and grain, is well known, to take such precautions as would prevent any amount of fraud worth talking about. But, however it may be carried into effect, it would seem to be indispensable that the distilleries and breweries, as well as every other legitimate channel of consumption carried on in the kingdom, should be open to all who raise or import sugar, or anything else, on their paying the customary rates of duty. This is the only way in which the interests of the consumers, which are identical with those of the public, can be effectually secured; and it is obvious that, to carry out the great principle of the freedom of industry, it is not merely necessary to permit the free importation of colonial and other products, but to allow them, after being imported, to be employed in any way their owners may think fit. Under this system justice will be done to all parties, and the public be supplied with the best and the cheapest articles." And we are glad to have to state that this principle has since been fully

carried into effect by the acts 10 Vict. c. 5., and 11 & 12 Vict. c. 100., abstracts of which are given in the Supplement to this work.

Adulteration.—Sugar is an article which is especially liable to adulteration; and its high price during the last few years, coupled with the high duty, has given a powerful stimulus to this nefarious practice. Perhaps, we might not be far from the mark, were we to estimate the quantity of foreign matters intentionally mixed up with sugar, and sold as such in this country, previously to the late reduction of duties, at 10,000 or 12,000 tons a year! Sage and potato flour are the articles which have been most extensively used for this purpose. When mixed with sugar they give it a whiter and finer appearance; and, unless the dose be overdone, increase its price about 4s. a cwt. It is extremely difficult to deal with an abuse of this sort. No doubt the fall in the price of sugar following the placing of the trade on a proper footing, and the reduction of the duty, have lessened the temptation to adulterate. But they have not wholly removed it, the materials employed to adulterate being decidedly cheaper than sugar, however supplied. In this, as in most cases of the sort, the best security against adulteration is to deal only with grocers of the highest character.

Refining of Sugar for Home Consumption.—It will be immediately seen that of late years the refining of British colonial sugar for exportation has almost ceased; but the refining of colonial sugar for home consumption is carried on to a great extent, and has increased considerably since the late reduction of the duty. There are at present (October, 1848) about 26 establishments, with an aggregate capital of nearly 1,000,000*l.*, for refining sugar for the home market, which use about 130,000 tons of raw sugar, yielding from 90,000 to 95,000 tons of refined do., exclusive of bastards and treacle. Hence, if we deduct the 130,000 tons of raw sugar converted into refined from the total quantity of about 290,000 tons taken for consumption in 1847, we have 160,000 tons for the quantity consumed in a raw state, the consumption of refined sugar amounting, in consequence of its comparative cheapness, to nearly a half of the whole, ex. bastards and molasses. Refined sugar is now used by many by whom it was formerly never tasted.

The act of 1846, the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 63., made a distinction between, and imposed different duties upon, single and double refined sugar, and it, also, admitted only of their importation from countries of which they were the growth or produce. But, in consequence of the difficulty of distinguishing between them, and of the facilities that were thereby afforded for the commission of frauds, all sorts of refined sugar, and of sugar equal to refined, are now charged with the same duty, without regard to their origin. At this moment (October, 1848), owing to the low price of British sugar, none but the finest sorts of foreign refined sugars can be introduced; though it is clear that any considerable rise in the price of raw or refined sugar in this country, which did not also extend to the Continent, would occasion the importation of increased quantities of refined, as well as of raw sugar. That, however, cannot, as was contended, be injurious to our planters, for it must be indifferent to them whether raw or refined sugar be imported; and it must, at the same time, be advantageous to the consumer by making refined as well as raw sugar be sold at its necessary price, which of late years has not always been the case.

Drawback or Bounty on the Exportation of Refined British Colonial Sugar.—It may be doubted whether the business of refining sugar for exportation has often been productive of any material national advantage to us. It was long suspected—and the fact seems to have been sufficiently established—that the drawback formerly allowed on the exportation of refined sugar was greater than the duty charged on the raw sugar used in its manufacture; the excess being, in fact, a bounty paid to those engaged in the trade. Previously to 1826, the drawback on double refined sugar was 46s. a cwt.: it was then reduced to 43s.; but there is reason to think that that was still considerably above the mark. The average price of sugar in bond in this country was, for several years, from 5s. to 6s. a cwt. above what sugar of the same quality brought on the Continent; a difference which, as we then exported sugar, could not have been maintained, had it not been for the bounty. The same conclusion was established by the trials made under the superintendance of Dr. Ure at a sugar-house taken for the purpose by government; and in consequence the drawback was reduced to what was supposed to be the fair equivalent of the duties paid on the raw sugar; a measure, of the expediency of which no doubt can be entertained. It has been the practice, in making up returns to parliament, to reduce the refined sugar exported into raw sugar, by allowing 34 cwt. of the latter to 20 of the former. But the export of sugar is thus made to appear greater than it really is: for, though 34 cwt. of raw may be required to produce 20 cwt. of refined sugar, the whole of the molasses and bastards that remain (about 13 cwt.) are consumed at home.

The existing bounties (drawbacks) on refined British colonial sugar are specified in the 11 & 12 Vict. c. 97. (See ante, 1252.)

The following clauses of the act 8 & 9 Vict. c. 99. refer to the refining of British sugar for bounty.

Bond to be given for the due Exportation.—The exporter of any goods in respect of which any bounty is claimed under this act, or the person in whose name the same are entered outwards, shall at the time of entry, and before cocket be granted, give security by bond in double the amount of such bounty, with 1 sufficient surety, that the same shall be duly exported to the place for which they are entered, or be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs, and shall not be re-landed in the U. K., or landed in the Isle of Man unless expressly entered to be carried thereto.—§ 3.

Candy in Packages of 1 cwt.—No bounty shall be given upon the exportation of any refined sugar called candy unless it be properly refined and manufactured, and free from dirt and scum, and packed in packages each of which shall contain 1 cwt. such candy at the least.—§ 4.

Sugar crushed for Exportation.—If any sugar in lumps or loaves is to be pounded, crushed, or broken before the same be exported for the bounty payable thereon, such lumps or loaves shall, after due entry thereof, be lodged in some warehouse provided for the export, and approved by the commissioners of customs for such purpose, to be then first examined by the officers of customs while in such lumps or loaves as if for immediate shipment, and afterwards to be there pounded, crushed, or broken, and packed for exportation in the presence of such officers and at the expense of the exporter; and such sugar shall be kept in such warehouse, and be removed from thence for shipment, and be shipped under the care and in the charge of the merchants, in order that the shipment and exportation thereof may be duly certified by them upon the debenture, according to the quality ascertained by them of the same while in such lumps or loaves.—§ 5.

Different Sorts of crushed Sugar to be kept separate.—The different sorts of such sugar shall be kept apart from each other, in such manner and in such distinct rooms or divisions of such warehouse as shall be directed and appointed by the commissioners of customs; and if any sort of such sugar shall be found in any part of such warehouse appointed for the keeping of sugar of a sort superior in quality thereto, the same shall be forfeited; and if any sort of such sugar shall be brought to such warehouse to be pounded, crushed, or broken, which shall be of a quality inferior to the sort of sugar expressed in the entry for the same, such sugar shall be forfeited.—§ 6.

Sample Loaves to be provided.—There shall be provided by and at the expense of the committee of sugar refiners in London, and in like manner by and at the expense of the committee of merchants in Dublin, as many loaves of double refined sugar prepared in manner herein-after directed, and as many loaves or lumps of sugar made upon the patent principle, and equal in quality to double refined sugar, as the commissioners of customs shall think necessary; which loaves or lumps, when approved by the said commissioners, shall be deemed, and taken to be standard samples: one of which loaves or lumps shall be lodged with the said committees respectively, and one other with such person or persons as the said commissioners shall direct, for the purpose of comparing therewith double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar entered for exportation for the bounty; and fresh standard samples shall in like manner be again furnished by such committees respectively, and in like manner lodged, whenever it may be deemed expedient by the said commissioners; provided always, that no loaf or lump of sugar shall be deemed to be a proper sample loaf of double refined sugar as aforesaid, if it be of greater weight than 14 lbs., nor unless it be a loaf complete and whole, nor unless the same shall have been made by a distinct second process of refinement from a quantity of single refined sugar, every part of which had first been perfectly clarified and duly refined, and had been made into loaves or lumps which were of an uniform whiteness throughout, and had been thoroughly dried in the stove; provided also, that no loaf or lump of sugar shall be deemed to be a proper sample loaf or lump of sugar equal to double refined, unless it be a loaf or lump complete, nor unless the same shall have been prepared after the patent principle.—§ 7.

Sugar entered not equal to the Standard shall be forfeited.—In case any sugar which shall be entered in order to obtain the bounty on double refined sugar or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar shall, on examination by the proper officer, be found to be of a quality not equal to such standard sample, all sugar so entered shall be forfeited and may be seized.

Exports of British Refined Sugar.—The business of refining colonial sugar, though, as already seen, it was for a lengthened period carried on in this country with the aid of a bounty, never attained to any very considerable magnitude, and has lately all but ceased. Its extinction has been principally occasioned by the falling off in the exports of such sugar into England, and the consequent rise of its price, which wholly unfitted it for exportation, whether in raw or refined state; and, partly by the high duties laid on refined sugar when imported in most foreign states, which has put an end to the refining of foreign sugar. We subjoin

1. An Account, showing, 1st. The Total Quantity of Sugar entered for Home Consumption in the U. Kingdom, in each Year from 1830 to 1843, both inclusive; and 2dly. The Deductions to be made from such Total, for each Year, in respect of Over-Entries, and of Quantities exported subsequently to the payment of Duty, either in the Raw State or in the Form of refined Sugar, Bastards, or Molasses, so as to exhibit, 3dly, the actual Quantity retained for Consumption in the U. Kingdom.—(Part. Papers, No. 153. Sess. 1844.)

II. An Account of the Quantities of the different Sorts of British refined Sugar exported on Drawback in each Year from 1830 to 1843, both inclusive; showing, also, the Quantities of Molasses the Product of Sugar refined after Payment of the Duty exported in the same Years.—(Part. Papers, No. 153. Sess. 1844.)

Years.	Quantities charged with Duty for Home Consumption.		Deductions from the Quantities charged with Duty for Home Consumption.					
	Cwts.	Cwts.	Over-Entries.	Exportation in Raw State (on Drawback).	Exportation in Refined Sugar (on Bounty).	Equivalent in Raw Sugar.*	Aggregate of the foregoing.	Cwts.
1830	4,756,110	1,179					697,707	698,886
1831	4,771,988	1,657	119				695,981	695,557
1832	4,435,714	8,379	1				690,668	688,208
1833	4,079,524	10,651					299,488	315,119
1834	4,141,963	16,906					473,698	486,407
1835	4,165,594	15,914					499,839	449,683
1836	3,925,140	11,393	253				561,377	539,003
1837	3,555,454	8,988	488				496,177	506,301
1838	4,373,099	10,039					341,820	351,859
1839	3,857,527	12,278					14,569	36,817
1840	3,606,633	11,441	83				916,177	12,165,507
1841	4,085,985	7,703					404	8,107
1842	3,976,446	7,650	3				129	8,011
1843	4,045,181	8,000	3				138	8,130

* The actual quantities of refined sugar, bastards, and molasses (the products of raw sugar originally charged with duty for home consumption), which were respectively exported in the several years, are subjoined. The said quantities have been reduced to their equivalent in raw sugar according to the following scale of proportions, which represents the mean of several estimates furnished by competent authorities.

Cwts.	Cwts. of Raw Sugar.
100 of sugar, double-refined (or corresponding in quality to double-refined)	equal to 129
100 of single refined	119
100 of bastards	85
100 of molasses	39

Years.	Sugar exported from U. K. as Merchandise or as Stores. (Actual Weight).			
	On Drawback.	Melasses (the Product of refined Sugar (not entitled to Drawback).		
	Sugar Double-refined (or equal in Quality to Double-refined).	Sugar Single refined.	Bastard Sugar.	Total.
1830	200,149	261,443	45,988	607,580
1831	275,195	368,338	38,306	681,839
1832	265,287	149,546	11,011	425,844
1833	194,178	33,237	17,940	245,355
1834	300,946	1,198	63,388	365,532
1835	395,222	1,161	62,510	458,893
1836	343,008	1,034	7,455	351,500
1837	295,435	1,023	2,861	299,319
1838	360,096	5,444	4,063	370,603
1839	10,289	96	82	10,467
1840	68	19	356	463
1841	81	19	11	111
1842	94	61	—	155

Most foreign countries have endeavoured to bolster up the refining business, not merely by excluding foreign refined sugars from their markets, but by granting the most lavish bounties on the exportation of sugar refined at home. In France, this sort of policy, if we may so call it, was carried so far, that out of a gross revenue of about 40,000,000 francs (1,570,000*l.*) paid into the treasury on account of the sugar duties in 1832, about 19,000,000 (760,000*l.*) were returned as drawback on the export of refined sugar. As the French government could not afford to lose the sugar duties, which would very speedily have been swallowed up by the drawback, necessity has compelled them to modify their system, by making the allowance to the ex-

porter more nearly correspond with the duty. The refining of sugar has been carried on within the last few years to a very great extent in Holland. But here also the business has been forced into existence, or received an unnatural extension, by artificial encouragement.

Prussia, and most parts of Germany, to which we formerly exported large quantities of refined sugar, no longer admit it except at a high duty.

Refining of Foreign Sugar in Bond. — This has been permitted since 1834 under the provisions of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61. (of which an abstract is subjoined), and at present (1848) employs 5 or 6 establishments, and is carried on to a considerable extent. The consumption of raw sugar by the refiners in bond may be estimated at about 18,000 tons, producing about 12,000 tons of refined sugar for exportation. It is principally sent to Trieste, and to Constantiople and other markets in the Levant, where our refiners undersell the Dutch. It may be worth while remarking, that there has never been any sort of restriction on the employment of the sugar of Brazil and Cuba for refining in bond. And, though parliament would not permit this sugar, notwithstanding its comparative cheapness, to be used for home consumption, it permitted our merchants and capitalists to employ themselves in bringing it to Europe, and in manufacturing and preparing it for the use of others! We might not taste slave-grown sugar, but we might get rich by manufacturing it and selling it to the foreigner!

We subjoin an abstract of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61.

Commissioners of Customs may approve Premises for Bonded Sugar Houses. — Upon application to the commissioners of customs of any person actually carrying on the business of a sugar refiner in the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Greenock, or Glasgow, or any other port approved of by any 3 Lords of the Treasury, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to approve of such premises as bonded sugar houses for the refining of sugar for exportation only, on it being made appear to the satisfaction of said commissioners that the said premises are fit in every respect for receiving such sugar, and wherein the same may be safely deposited. — § 1.

Officers of Customs empowered to deliver Sugars Duty-free, to be there refined for Exportation only. — On the approval of any premises as bonded sugar houses, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at the ports where such premises are situated to deliver, without payment of duty, to the party or parties so applying as aforesaid, on entry with the proper officer of customs, any quantity of foreign sugar, or of sugar the produce of any British possession, for the purpose of being there refined, under the locks of the Crown, for exportation only; and all sugars so delivered shall be lodged and secured in such premises, under such conditions, regulations, and restrictions as the said commissioners shall from time to time direct; provided that it shall be lawful for the commissioners to revoke or alter any order of approval of any such premises. — § 2.

Refiner to give Bond that Sugar received be refined and exported, or delivered into Bonded Warehouse. — Upon the entry of sugar to be refined in any premises approved of under the authority of this act, the refiner on whose premises the same is to be refined shall give bond, to the satisfaction of the officers of the customs, in the penalty of double the amount of duty payable upon a like quantity of sugar of the British plantations, with a condition that the whole of such sugar shall be actually subjected to the process of refinement upon the said premises, and that within 4 months from the date of such bond the whole of the refined sugar and treacle produced by such process shall be either duly exported from the said premises, or delivered into an approved bonded warehouse, under the locks of the Crown, for the purpose of being eventually exported to foreign parts. — § 3.

Regulations as to Importation, &c. of Sugar. — No allowance is to be made for damage or increase of weight by water, on sugar without special permission. For taxes on British plantation sugar, see *Pro forma* accounts of sales.

There are, according to Mr. Cook, about 50 wholesale grocers in Great Britain, with an aggregate capital of about 1,000,000*l.*; and he justly adds, that "the importance of sugar, viewed as an article of commerce, is altogether very striking. The value of the 240,000 tons annually consumed may be stated at from 10 to 12 millions sterling; yet the London, Liverpool, and Bristol markets are supported by a system of credit so unique in its operations and extent, that the sugar trade of England exhibits a steadiness and solidity scarcely to be paralleled in any other department."

BET-ROOT SUGAR. — The manufacture of sugar from beet-root is carried on to a very considerable extent in several parts of the Continent, particularly in France and the N. of Germany. It began in France during the exclusion of colonial products in the reign of Napoleon, and received a severe check at the return of peace, by the admission of West Indian sugars at a reasonable duty. It is probable, indeed, that it would long since have been entirely extinguished, but for the oppressive additions made to the duties on colonial and foreign sugars in 1820 and 1822. After the last-mentioned epoch, however, the production of beet-root sugar began rapidly to increase; and such was its progress, that though, in 1828, its produce did not exceed 4,000,000 kilograms, it amounted, in 1838, to 99,199,408 kilograms! But this extension of cultivation, instead of being of any advantage, entailed a heavy loss on the public, inasmuch as the beet-root growers sold their sugar, which paid no duty, at the same rate that the colonists sold theirs, which paid a large revenue to the treasury! It was not possible that such a system could be permanent. And the well-founded complaints of the colonists of the injustice of which they were the victims, enforced by the rapid decline of the revenue derived from sugar, which, indeed, was threatened with total extinction, occasioned the imposition, in 1838, of a duty of 16 fr. 50 cents per 100 kilograms, (about 6*s.* 9*d.* a cwt.) on beet-root sugar, which, in 1840, was increased to 27 fr. 50 cents (about 11*s.* a cwt.). But even this last increase left a differential duty (or bounty) of 20 fr. per 100 kilograms in favour

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of beet-root sugar, as compared with colonial raw sugar; so that, while the beet-root cultivators affirmed they would be ruined, the colonists vehemently complained of the preference given to the latter. It was, indeed, known, from the facility with which the beet-root growers had previously contrived to evade the duty, that its increase would not be so injurious to them as was supposed; but the manufacture sustained notwithstanding a severe check, and sundry plantations were abandoned.

But farther and still more considerable changes have since been made in the conditions under which the culture of beet-root is carried on. In 1842, it was proposed, in order to get rid of the difficulties in which it had involved the country, to grub up the plantations, paying the planters 40,000,000 fr. (1,600,000*l.*) as an indemnity for their loss! And, harsh as it may appear, we incline to think that this proposal was, on the whole, the best that could have been made, inasmuch as it would have terminated the matter at once on an equitable principle. It was not, however, adopted: but in the course of next session it was resolved annually to raise the duty on beet-root sugar by 5 fr. per 100 kilogs, till the duty on it should be equalised with the duty on colonial sugar. This system came into operation on the 1st of August 1844; and in August 1848, the nominal equalisation of the duties was effected. It was supposed that this measure, if fully carried out, would go far to annihilate the growth of beet-root sugar in France. This, however, has not been the case, partly because of the important improvements that have been made in the growth of beet-root and its manufacture into sugar, and partly and principally because the duty on it has not been, and, perhaps, could not be, fairly collected. Latterly, indeed, it has been to a great extent evaded; and the beet-root plantations are, in consequence, carried on more extensively than ever.

But, though the beet-root sugar of France and the Continent generally were loaded with the same duty as colonial sugar, and though its culture were notwithstanding extensively prosecuted, that would give no countenance to the opinion of those who contend that free labour is universally as effective in the production of sugar as slave or compulsory labour. The question which the legislature and people of England have to consider, is not between the efficiency of free and slave labour in Europe, but between free and slave labour in the intertropical regions of the New World. Admitting that the free labourers of France and Prussia should raise sugar as cheaply as the slaves of Cuba and Brazil, does that afford any solid ground for concluding that the free blacks of Jamaica and Trinidad will be equally successful in their competition with them? There is plainly no analogy between the cases. And our firm conviction is, as previously stated, that without slave or compulsory labour of some sort or other, not a pound of sugar will be raised either in our colonies or anywhere else in America.

The same cause which has extended the growth of beet-root sugar in France, viz. its exemption from all duty, while it comes into competition with an article loaded with a heavy duty, has introduced its culture into Belgium, Germany, Prussia, and even Russia. Beet-root plantations have increased most in Silesia and Saxony, and supply a very considerable portion of the sugar made use of in those countries.

When the 8th edition of this dictionary was published in 1834, we said, "We understand that a few small parcels of beet-root sugar have recently been produced in this country; and with the present enormous duty on colonial sugar, we are not sure that the manufacture may not succeed. But, as the preservation of the revenue from sugar is of infinitely more importance than the introduction of this spurious business, the foundations of which must entirely rest on the miserable machinery of customs-house regulations, sound policy would seem to dictate that the precedent established in the case of tobacco should be followed in this instance, and that the beet-root sugar manufacture should be abolished. Inasmuch, too, as it is better to check an evil at the outset, than to grapple with it afterwards, we trust that no time may be lost in taking vigorous measures, should there be any appearance of the business ensuing." This plan was not, however, adopted; but the act i. Vict. c. 87, imposed a duty of 5*l.* (now reduced to 1*l.*) a cwt. on all sugar made from beet-root in the U. Kingdom; and the 3 & 4 Vict. c. 87, imposed the like duty, with the additional 5 per cent., on all sugars made in the U. Kingdom.

MAPLE SUGAR.—A species of maple (*Acer saccharinum*, Lio.) yields a considerable quantity of sugar. It grows plentifully in the U. States and in Canada; and in some districts furnishes the inhabitants with most of the sugar they make use of. Though inferior both in grain and strength to that which is produced from the cane, maple sugar granulates better than that of the beet-root, or any other vegetable, the cane excepted. It is produced from the sap, which is obtained by perforating the tree in the spring, to the depth of about 2 inches, and setting a vessel for its reception. The quantity afforded varies with the tree and the season. From 2 to 3 gallons may be about the daily average yield of a single tree; but some trees have yielded more than 20 gallons in a day, and others not more than a pint. The process of boiling the juice does not differ materially from what is followed with the cane juice in the West Indies. It is necessary that it should be boiled as soon after it is drawn from the tree as possible, if it be allowed to stand above 24 hours, it is apt to undergo the vinous and acetous fermentation, by which its saccharine quality is destroyed.—(*Bouchette's British America*, vol. i. p. 371.; *Timber Trees and Fruits*, Library of Entertaining Knowledge.)

Pro Form'd Sales of 1000 Bags Bengal Sugar, per "Verion," Captain Hawks, sold by Order and for Account of W. H. Warwick, Esq.			
1815. Nov. 1.	1000 bags (weighing 1 5 10 each gross, sold at landing weight, revenue tare (which is an average one), and 1 lb. per bag draft.	Cwt. grs. lbs. 1,850 2 4 99 0 31	£ s. d. 3,656 8 0
		Revenue tare 70 lbs. Draft 1 lb.	
		1,741 0 8 nett	at 40s. per cwt.
		Charges.	£ s. d.
	Warehousing entry		0 4 6
	Sea insurance, 3l. 15s. per cent. on 3000l.		55 0 0
	Policy 4s. 6d. per cent., 4l. 10s. Commission ½ per cent., 10l.		14 10 0
	Insurance from fire, on 2490l., 3 months, at 5s. per cent.		68 10 0
	Customs duty on 1750 cwt. at 13s., and entries		5 16 7
	Freight on 1750 cwt. at 5s. per ton of 20 cwt.		1,138 10 0
	Consolidated dock rates on 1750 cwt. nett, at 6d.		437 10 0
	Lotting at 1d. per cwt. gross		7 13 3
	Interest, 75 days on duty and dock rates		61 8 3
	— 25 days on freight		1 9 11
	Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of rooms, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		13 7 8
	Brokerage and guarantee, at 1l. per cent.		0 0 0
	Commission, at ½ per cent.		36 11 3
			91 8 0
			1,847 5 3
	Nett proceeds.	Cash, January 13th, 1849.	£ 1,808 19 9
	Errors excepted.		
	London, 1st of January, 1849.		
	* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.		
	The purchaser has 3 months to take delivery in, during which period the rent, if any, is paid by the seller, and the sugar lies at the seller's risk, unless paid for.		

Pro Form'd Sales of 500 Baskets Java Sugar, per "Superior," Jones, Master, sold for Home Consumption, by Order and for Account of G. Anderson, Esq.			
1848. Nov. 1.	500 baskets weighing 5 2 14 each, sold at landing weights, revenue tare (which is an average one), and 2 lbs. each draft.	Cwt. grs. lbs. 2,812 2 0 211 1 30 tare and draft.	£ s. d. 4,989 2 10
		Revenue tare 70 lbs. Draft 2 lbs.	
		2,491 0 8 nett	at 40s. per cwt.
		Charges.	£ s. d.
	Warehousing entry		0 4 6
	Sea insurance, 60s. per cent. on 1200l.		48 0 0
	Policy at 4s. 6d. per cent., 3l. 15s. Commission ½ per cent., 5l.		11 12 0
	Fire insurance on 2,482l., 3 months, at 5s. per cent.		69 19 0
	Customs duty on 2,500 cwt. at 10s. per cwt. and entries		5 14 6
	Freight on 2,500 cwt. at 5s. per ton		2,500 0 0
	Consolidated rate, 2,500 cwt. at 6d. per cwt. nett		625 0 0
	Lotting 1d. per cwt. gross		69 10 0
	Interest on duty and dock rates 75 days, on freight 25 days		74 4 4
	Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		27 17 7
	Brokerage and guarantee, at 1l. per cent.		7 10 0
	Commission, at ½ per cent.		49 16 0
			141 11 0
			3,475 10 4
	Nett proceeds.	Cash, January 13th, 1849.	£ 1,508 12 6
	Errors excepted.		
	London, 1st of January, 1849.		
	* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent, but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer has also the sugar delivered to him free of expense.		
	The purchaser has 3 months to take delivery in, during which period the rent, if any, is paid by the seller, and the sugar lies for that time at the seller's risk unless paid for; but the sugar when sold at the bonded price for exportation is payable on delivery without discount, or at the expiration of 3 months, the purchasers having paid a deposit of 15 per cent. within 3 days of the sale. The goods are then rent free for the 3 months, and are at the seller's risk. Of course there would be no charge for duty or interest on duty. Brokerage and commission would be charged on the selling price, but other charges would remain the same.		

Pro Formed Sales of 1,600 Bags Manila Sugar, received per "Alfred," Roberts, Master, sold for Home Consumption, by Order of Hamet Williams, Esquire.

1848, Nov. 1.	1,600 bags weighing 84 lbs. each, sold at landing weights, revenue tare (which is an average one), and 1 lb. per bag draft. Cwt. gr. lb. 1,300 0 0 87 0 16 tare and draft.	Revenue tare 3 lbs. Draft 1 lb.	\$ s. d.
	1,142 8 12 nett	at 35s. per cwt.	2,057 2 10
	Charges.		
	Warehousing entry		\$ 0 4 6
	Sea insurance, on 800l. at 7/10s.		21 0 0
	Policy at 4s. 6d. per cent., 11. 7s. Commission 1/2 per cent., 3l.		4 7 0
	Fire insurance, 3 months, on 800l. at 3s. per cent.		23 7 0
	Customs duty on 1,157 cwt. 0 gr. 16 lbs. at 9/10s., and entries		1,156 2 10
	Freight on 1,157 cwt. 0 gr. 16 lbs. at 6d. per ton of 20 cwt.		389 5 6
	Consolidated rate on 1,157 cwt. 0 gr. 16 lbs. nett, at 6d. per cwt.		23 18 7 1/2
	Lossing at 1d. per cwt. gross		3 0 0
	Interest on duty and dock rates 73 days, on freight 23 days		12 18 0
	Advertising, public sale expenses, stamps, &c.		3 0 0
	Brokerage and guarantee of 1l. per cent.		20 11 3
	Commission at 1/2 per cent.		51 6 0
			1,698 5 6
	Nett proceeds.	Cash, January 13th, 1849.	458 19 4
	Errors excepted.		
	London, 1st of January, 1849.		

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to a rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer has also the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

The buyer has 3 months to take delivery in, during which period the rent, if any, is paid by the seller, and the sugar is for that time at the seller's risk, unless paid for. But the sugar when sold at the bonded price for exportation is payable on delivery without discount, or at the expiration of 3 months, the purchaser having paid a deposit of 15 per cent. within 3 days of the sale. The goods are then rent free for the 3 months, and are at the seller's risk. Of course there would be no charge for duty or interest on duty. Brokerage and commission would be charged on the selling price, but other charges would remain the same.

Pro Formed Sales of 300 Chests Havannah Sugar, per "Ferdie," Captain Baker, sold by Order and for Account of William Watkins, Esq.

1848, Nov. 1.	350 chests yellow (weighing 43 cwt. each) Cwt. gr. lb. 1,062 8 0 320 do. brown 115 1 6 s. & d.	Cwt. gr. lb. 1,062 8 0 118 1 6 t. & d. Draft 1 lb. each.	Revenue tare 32 lbs. each. Draft 1 lb. each.	\$ s. d.
	944 0 22 nett		at 41s. per cwt.	1,935 12 0
			at 33s. per cwt.	1,742 19 5
				2,879 11 5
	Charges.			
	Warehousing entry		\$ 0 4 6	
	Sea insurance, on 1,200l. at 2 1/2 s. per cent.		27 0 0	
	Policy 5s. 6d. per cent., 2l. 2s. Commission 1/2 per cent., 6s.		6 2 0	
	Insurance from fire on 1,790l. at 3s. per cent.		35 3 0	
	Customs duty on 1,692 cwt. 3 gr. 12 lbs. at 20s. per cwt., and entries		1,895 17 1	
	Freight on 1,692 cwt. 3 gr. 12 lbs. at 4s. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.		425 18 6	
	Primage 6 per cent., 21l. 5s. 10d. Primage 3/4d. per ton, 11. 7s. 7d.		22 13 5	
	Consolidated rate on 1,692 cwt. 3 gr. 12 lbs. at 6d. per cwt.		448 11 11	
	Interest on dock rates and duty, 73 days		47 6 6	
	Do. on freight, 23 days		19 18 2	
			1 10 8	
	Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		5 1 6	
	Brokerage, at 1l. per cent.		26 13 11	
	Commission at 1/2 per cent.		91 19 9	
			2,581 1 9	
	Nett proceeds.	Cash, January 13th, 1849.	1,098 9 6	
	Errors excepted.			
	London, 1st of January, 1849.			

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

The purchaser is entitled to have the sugar reweighed; but it must be done within 2 months. On the white there will hardly be any loss; on the yellow and brown it will average 3 or 4 lbs. per chest. The above account is made out at the landing weight.

The sugar is rent free to the buyer to the prompt day, and lies at the seller's risk, unless paid for.

When Havannah sugar is sold in bond for exportation it is sold at a prompt of 1 month, allowing 2 1/2 per cent. discount; and the same rule applies to Brazil and all foreign sugar, not East India, when sold in bond.

SULPHUR, or **BRIMSTONE** (Fr. *Soufre*; Ger. *Schwefel*; It. *Zolfo*, *Solfo*; Sp. *Azufre*; Arab. *Kibreet*), a crystallised, hard, brittle substance, commonly of a greenish yellow colour, without any smell, and of a weak though perceptible taste; its specific gravity is from 1.9 to 2.1. It burns with a pale blue flame, and emits a great quantity of pungent suffocating vapours. In some parts of Italy and Sicily it is dug up in a state of comparative purity. That which is manufactured in this country is obtained by the roasting of pyrites. It is denominated *rough or roll sulphur*, from its being cast in cylindrical moulds, and contains 7 per cent. of orpiment. The Italian roll sulphur does not contain more than 3 per cent. of a simple earth; and is, therefore, in higher estimation than the English. When roll sulphur is purified, it receives the name of *sublimed sulphur*, and is in the form of a bright yellow powder. — (*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*)

Sulphur is of great importance in the arts. It is used extensively in the manufacture of gunpowder, and in the formation of sulphuric acid, or oil of vitrol. It is also used extensively in medicine, and for other purposes. The entries for home consumption amounted, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, to 253,721 cwt. a year. The duty on refined or roll brimstone was reduced in 1842 to 2s. a cwt., but as the duty on rough brimstone is only 6d. a cwt., the imports consist almost wholly of the latter. The price of rough brimstone in the London market, in 1843, varied from 5s. 10s. to 7l. 10s. a ton. Our supplies of brimstone are almost wholly derived from Sicily. The mines of sulphur in that island have been wrought for several centuries; but it is only since 1830 that any considerable quantity has been prepared for exportation. Subsequently to 1833, the trade with this country increased so much that the export of sulphur to the U. Kingdom rose from 19,122 tons in that year to 38,654 tons in 1839. We have elsewhere (see art. PALERMO) noticed the way in which this important and rapidly growing trade was interfered with by the Neapolitan government. Luckily, however, the monopoly established in favour of the French company was abolished in 1841, and the trade has since reverted to its old channels.

SYDNEY, the capital of New South Wales, and of the British settlements in New Holland, or Australia, on a cove on the south side of Port Jackson, about 7 miles from its mouth, lat. 33° 55' S., lon. 150° 10' E. Population, in 1841, 29,973. The water is of sufficient depth to allow the largest ships to come close to the shore. The inlet or harbour, denominated Port Jackson, is one of the finest natural basins in the world. It stretches about 15 miles into the country, and has numerous creeks and bays; its anchorage is everywhere excellent, and ships are protected from every wind. The entrance to this noble bay is between 2 gigantic cliffs not quite 9 miles apart. On the most southerly, in lat. 33° 51' 30" S., lon. 151° 16' 30" E., is a lighthouse, the lantern of which is elevated 67 feet above the ground, and about 345 above the sea. Owing to a want of attention at first, the streets of Sydney were laid out and the houses built, according to the views of individual; without any fixed or regular plan. But latterly this defect has been to a considerable degree remedied in the old streets; and the new ones are systematically laid out. The town covers a great extent of land; almost every house having a considerable piece of ground attached to it. There are different joint stock banks in Sydney; and there is also a savings bank. Schools for the instruction of poor children have been established; and there are, besides two establishments dignified with the pompous title of colleges, numerous seminaries, some of them said to be very well conducted, for the education of the middle and upper classes. There are several periodical publications.

Population, &c. — The British settlements in New South Wales were originally intended to serve as penal establishments, to which convicts might be transported, and employed in public and private works; and are still used for this purpose. The first vessel with convicts arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788; but it having been found to be quite unsuitable as a site for a colony, the establishment was removed to Port Jackson. The progress of the colony has been much more rapid than might have been anticipated, considering the character and habits of the convicts annually landed upon its shores, the difficulties which the great distance from England interpose in the way of an emigration of voluntary settlers, and the inferiority of the soil. Owing to the circumstance of the great majority of the convicts and other emigrants being males, a great disproportion has always existed between the sexes in the colony, which has materially retarded its progress, and been, in other respects, productive of very pernicious results. Government, however, availing itself of the assistance of benevolent individuals at home, and in the colony, has within these few years endeavoured to lessen the disproportion referred to, by sending out considerable numbers of young unmarried females, free of expense. Much, it was obvious, of the influence of this measure, would depend on the discrimination with which the female emigrants were selected; and various precautions were taken, by the organization of committees, and otherwise, to exclude from amongst them all whose character was in any degree suspicious. It was not, however, to be expected that these precautions should be completely successful; and the most conflicting accounts have been received as to the conduct of the females on their landing, and the influence of their immigration on the colony. There can be no question, indeed, that the latter fell in many respects, short of the anticipations of the promoters of the scheme, and that, whether from want of due care in the selection, or from the force of circumstances, many of the immigrants fell into vicious courses. Or the whole, however, there can be no doubt that the measure has been decidedly advantageous; and that it has tended both to increase the population, and to improve the morals of the colony.

It appears from the returns previously given (*anté*, p. 334.), that the population of New South Wales, including Port Phillip, amounted in 1842 to 185,222, of whom about 130,000 were free. The emigrants from the U. Kingdom to the Australian colonies, during the 16 years ending with 1842, amounted in all to 116,484 individuals. Of these no fewer than 38,164 emigrated in 1841.

Emigration to New South Wales holds out several advantages to the industrious emigrant, which, however, are partially at least, if they be not wholly, counterbalanced by sundry disadvantages. There is at all times a pretty brisk demand for additional labour; wages, though not extravagant, are high; provisions, except in years of drought, are moderately cheap; and above all, the climate is mild, healthy, and suitable for European constitutions. The great drawbacks are, — the immense distance from Europe, and the consequent cost of the voyage; the general inferiority and exorbitant price of the land; the frequent recurrence of droughts; and the large amount of convict population. The greater mildness and salubrity of the

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elmate appears to be the principal, or rather perhaps the only, recommendation in favour of emigrating to Australia rather than to Canada or the United States. Whether, however, this be a sufficient counterpoise to the peculiar disadvantages attending it, is a point which we do not presume to decide, but which deserves the serious consideration of intending emigrants. It seems to be the unanimous opinion of every one acquainted with the colony, and entitled to be heard upon such a subject, that "in every case, emigrants of every sort will find it for their interest to come out married." — (Carmichael's Tract, Sydney edit. p. 57.)

Climate. — The climate of such parts of New South Wales as have been explored by the English is particularly mild and salubrious. The high summer heat indicated by the thermometer has not the relaxing and enfeebling effect that a similar high temperature has in India and many other countries. Fearless of damps, and unmolested by noxious insects, the traveller may throw himself under the shade of the first tree that invites him, and sleep in safety. On the other hand, however, the climate has the serious defect of being too dry. It seems to be subject to the periodical recurrence of severe droughts. These prevail sometimes for 2, 3, or even 4 years together. The last "great drought" began in 1826, and did not terminate till 1829. Very little rain fell during the whole of this lengthened period, and for more than 6 months there was not a single shower! In consequence, the whole surface of the ground was so parched and withered, that all minor vegetation ceased; and even culinary vegetables were raised with much difficulty. It well might ruin many of the settlers; nor is the colony as yet quite recovered from its effects. — (Breton's Excursions in New South Wales, p. 296; Sturt's Southern Australia, vol. 1. p. 2.) There was also a pretty severe drought in 1835. This is, in fact, the great drawback upon the colony; and were it more populous, the droughts would expose it to still more serious difficulties.

Soil, Products, &c. — The fertility of the soil in most parts of New Holland that have been explored with any care is very far, indeed, from corresponding with the glowing descriptions of some of its casual visitors, whose imaginations seem to have been dazzled by the magnificence of its botanical productions, and the clearness and beauty of the climate. The truth is, that the bad land seems to bear a much greater proportion to the good in New Holland, than in almost any other country with which we are acquainted. Different theories have been framed to account for the fact; but of the fact itself there seems no manner of doubt. Of course, it is not to be supposed but that in a country of such vast extent there must be some fertile districts; but along the east coast, with which we are best acquainted, these seem to be much more confined than might have been expected; and the little experience we have had on the west side, at Swan River and other places, does not seem to lead to any more favourable conclusions. It is true that only a comparatively small part of the interior has as yet been explored; and it is not improbable that in the hitherto unexplored regions of this vast continent, land suitable for tillage may be found. At present, however, it would appear that the soil and climate, not of New South Wales only, but of New Holland generally, are much better fitted for pastoral than for agricultural pursuits. The colony is mainly indebted for the introduction of the sheep farming system to the example and exertions of John Macarthur, Esq. Its success has exceeded the expectations of the most sanguine. The growth and exports of wool have increased with a rapidity hitherto unexampled to the history of industry. In 1822, only 152,880 lbs. of wool were exported; in 1825, the exports amounted to 411,600 lbs.; in 1830, to 899,750 lbs.; in 1835, to 3,273,353 lbs.; and in 1840, to no fewer than 7,668,960 lbs. In indeed, the best informed individuals belonging to the colony are of opinion that the inhabitants would equally consult their security and their profit, were they to devote their entire attention to their flocks, fisheries, and commerce, depending for supplies of corn, flour, &c. on the imports from America, Madagascar, India, the Philippine Islands, Van Diemen's Land, &c.

Weights, Measures, and Money. — Accounts are kept in sterling money, but Spanish dollars are most abundant. They pass current at 2s. each. The weights and measures are the same as those of England.

Rules of Agency, Commission, and Warehouse Rent, agreed to at a Meeting of the New South Wales Chamber of Commerce, 1838.

- Commission.**
1. On all sales or purchases of ships and other vessels, houses, or lands, where no advance on them has been made, 2½ per cent.
 2. On all other sales, purchases, or shipments, 5 per cent.
 3. On goods consigned and afterwards withdrawn, or sent to public auction, if no advance on them has been made, 2½ per cent.
 4. On giving orders for the provision of goods, 2½ per cent.
 5. On the management of estates for others, 5 per cent.
 6. On procuring freight or charters, and on freight collected, 2½ per cent.
 7. On insurances effected, 1 per cent.
 8. On settling losses, partial or general, 1 per cent.
 9. On effecting remittances, on purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.
 10. On the recovery of money, 2½ per cent. If by law or arbitration, 5 per cent.

10. On collecting house rent, 5 per cent.
11. On attending the delivery of contract goods, 2 per cent.
12. On bestowing security for contracts, 3 per cent.
13. On the purchase of bills of exchange, 5 per cent.
14. On obtaining money on responsibility, 2 per cent.
15. On letters of credit granted, 2½ per cent.
16. On purchasing, selling, receiving from any of the public offices, lodging in ditto, delivering up or exchanging government papers or other public securities, 1 per cent.
17. On all items on the debit or credit side of an account, on which a commission of 5 per cent. has not been previously charged in the same account, including government paper, 1 per cent.
18. On entering and clearing ships at the Custom-house, each, 1 guinea.
19. On the dishonour of foreign bills, exclusive of protest and other law expenses, a re-exchange of 20 per cent.

Warehouse Rent.

- On all measurement goods, 1s. per ton of 40 cubic feet, per week.
 On liquors, 1s. 1d. per ton of 255 gallons (old measure) per week.
 On sugar, rice, salt, and similar articles, 6d. per ton per week.
 On iron, lead, &c. 4d. per ton per week.

Duties levied at Sydney under Acts of Parliament.

Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.	Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.
Spirits made or distilled from grain the produce of the colony	3s. per gallon.	Spirits of the plantations in N. America, imported direct from the U. K.	7 10s. 6d. per gal.
Ditto from sugar and molasses	10s. 3d. per do.	All other spirits	10s. 3d. per do.
Spirits, the produce and manufacture of the U. K., or of the plantations in the W. Indies, imported direct from the U. K.	7s. 9d.	Tobacco imported unmanufactured	1s. 6d. per lb.
		Ditto manufactured, and snuff	2s. per do.
		Foreign goods imported	5 per cent. ad val.

Shipping Charges in Port Jackson, &c.

Pilotage Rates, payable to licensed pilots on ships and vessels from and to a distance of 2 leagues out to sea, into and out of any port or harbour in New South Wales, for which a pilot shall be appointed; vessels registered in Sydney not exceeding 50 tons, or while employed in the coasting trade from one part of New South Wales to another, and steam vessels while so employed, excepted, unless the assistance of a pilot be required and receded.

For every vessel drawing	£ s. d.	For every vessel drawing	£ s. d.	For every vessel drawing	£ s. d.
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8 " " "	4 0 0	14 " " "	7 0 0	30 " " "	11 0 0
9 " " "	4 10 0	15 " " "	7 10 0	31 " " "	11 0 0
10 " " "	5 0 0	16 " " "	8 0 0	32 " " "	12 0 0
11 " " "	5 0 0	17 " " "	8 10 0	33 " " "	12 0 0
12 " " "	6 0 0	18 " " "	9 0 0	34 " " "	12 0 0

Harbour Dues and Charges, payable to the harbour master, for repairing on board and appointing the place of anchorage of ships and vessels entering any port or harbour in New South Wales; or for the removal of the same from one place of anchorage or mooring to another, not being for the purpose of leaving the port; vessels registered in Sydney, under 50 tons, or while employed in the coasting trade from one part of New South Wales to another, excepted.

For every vessel under 100 tons	£ s. d. 0 5 0	For every vessel of 100 tons and under 200 tons	£ s. d. 0 10 0	For every vessel of 200 tons and under 300 tons	£ s. d. 0 15 0	For every vessel of 300 tons and under 400 tons	£ s. d. 1 5 0	For every vessel of 400 tons and under 500 tons	£ s. d. 1 10 0
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Customs Charges payable to the collector or other officer of customs, for the entry inwards, or clearance outwards, of ships and vessels at any port or harbour of New South Wales, where an officer of customs is stationed; vessels under 50 tons, registered in Sydney, excepted; viz.

For every steam vessel employed in the coasting trade, from one port of New South Wales to another	£ s. d. 0 1 3	Clearance. £ s. d. 0 1 3
For every vessel registered in Sydney, and so employed, if above 50 and not exceeding 100 tons	£ s. d. 0 4 0	Clearance. £ s. d. 0 4 0
For every vessel so employed, if above 100 tons	£ s. d. 0 10 0	Clearance. £ s. d. 0 10 0

Light-house Dues, payable to the collector of customs, Sydney, on ships and vessels above 50 tons, arriving at Fort Jackson, towards the maintenance of the light-house at the entrance thereof; viz.

On every ship or vessel above 50 and not exceeding 100 tons, employed in the coasting trade from one port of New South Wales to another	£ s. d. 0 2 0
On every steam vessel, the ton register measurement	£ s. d. 0 0 2
On every other ship or vessel, the ton register measurement	£ s. d. 0 0 2

Wharfage Rates, payable to the collector of customs, on articles landed at the King's Wharf, Sydney:—

For every Tun or butt	£ s. d. 0 2 0
Pipe or puncheon	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Hoghead	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Barrel	£ s. d. 0 0 3
Cask or keg of smaller size	£ s. d. 0 0 3
Crates, cask, or case of hardware, earthenware, or ironmongery	£ s. d. 0 0 9
Bale, case, or box, not exceeding 1 ton measurement	£ s. d. 0 0 6
Ditto, exceeding 1 ton	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Chest of iron	£ s. d. 0 0 3
Bag or box of tea	£ s. d. 0 0 1 1/2
Bag of sugar	£ s. d. 0 0 1 1/2
Bag of coffee	£ s. d. 0 0 1 1/2
Package of rice	£ s. d. 0 0 1 1/2
Basket of tobacco	£ s. d. 0 0 3
Bag of hops	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Packet of hops	£ s. d. 0 0 9
Bushel of grain	£ s. d. 0 0 1
Dozen of cans	£ s. d. 0 1 0
100 deals	£ s. d. 0 2 6
100 staves	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Dozen of spades and shovels	£ s. d. 0 1 0

Ton of iron, steel, lead, or other metal, including shot	£ s. d. 0 2 6
Ton of salt	£ s. d. 0 1 6
Ton of flax	£ s. d. 0 1 0
Ton of cod-liver oil	£ s. d. 0 2 6
Ton of potatoes	£ s. d. 0 1 5
Bottle of paint, oil, or turpentine	£ s. d. 0 0 2
Milstone	£ s. d. 0 0 2
Four-wheeled carriage	£ s. d. 0 5 0
Two-wheeled carriage	£ s. d. 0 3 0
Small package, not otherwise enumerated	£ s. d. 0 0 3
Ton of heavy goods, not otherwise enumerated	£ s. d. 0 2 6

Postage of Single Letters from Sydney.

To Parramatta	£ s. d. 4
Emu Plains (Penrith)	£ s. d. 7
Windsor	£ s. d. 7
Liverpool	£ s. d. 7
Bathurst	£ s. d. 9
Campbell Town	£ s. d. 4
Newcastle	£ s. d. 4
Port Macquarie	£ s. d. 4
Ad at corresponding rates from other places	£ s. d. 4

proportionally to the aforesaid rates. Letters the weight of an ounce to be charged 4 times the rate of postage of a single letter.

Newspapers printed in New South Wales or Van Diemen's Land, 1s. each.

Letters from and to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land to pay a sea postage of 1s., and all other **Ship Letters** a sea postage of 1s., in addition to the inland postage payable thereon.

Parcels of Newspapers, printed Presses Current, or other periodical Publications, exported or imported to be charged a sea postage at the rate of 1d. for every 4 ounces of their weight.

Acution Duty. For each and every 100l. arising from the sale by auction of any estates, goods or effects whatsoever, 1l. 10s.

Licences.

Auctioneers, annually	£ s. 2 0
Beer and spirits, to retail, do.	£ s. 30 0
Distilling, do.	£ s. 25 0
Hawkers, do.	£ s. 30 0
Carts	£ s. 30 0

Trade of Sydney.—Wool is the great article of export, and next to it are whale oil and whalebone, the produce of the southern whale fishery. Timber is also exported in considerable quantities; but the exports of other articles are inconsiderable.

The colony being much more suitable for sheep pasture than for tillage, but little corn is raised. In consequence grain and provisions form very important articles of import from Van Diemen's Land and other places. Considering the character of a large proportion of the population, one need not be surprised at the circumstance of drunkenness being a prevalent vice, and, consequently, that spirits and wines are largely imported. The other great articles of importation are manufactured goods and apparel of all sorts, hardware, earthenware, saddlery, and carriages, &c., from England. (For an account of the articles exported from England to the Australian colonies, see *ante*, p. 334.)

The value of the imports into Sydney has, for a lengthened period, uniformly exceeded the value of the exports, the balance being met by the expenditure on account of government, the disbursements of ships visiting the port, &c. But during the three years ending with 1840, in consequence of the great overtrading at Sydney, the value of the imports greatly exceeded the means of payment, and the real wants of the colony. We subjoin some statements illustrative of the trade of Sydney for some years past.

Account of the Value of the Imports into New South Wales, nine-tenths being into Sydney, during each of the Three Years ending with 1840.

	1838.	1839.	1840.
Liquors of all kinds, or spirits, wine, ale, beer, cider, and perry	166,810	806,734	338,404
Grain, provisions, and other edibles, including sugar, tea, &c.	350,173	470,517	502,149
Other articles of consumption, as salt, soap, candles, tobacco, &c.	71,817	109,669	198,022
Forage	5,633	22,228	6,551
Wearing apparel, clothing, and bedding	481,804	563,555	787,978
Articles for domestic or personal use, as furniture, carriages, plate, &c.	112,279	106,645	122,919
Ditto for intellectual purposes, as books, prints, instruments, printing materials, &c.	53,811	42,248	60,032
Ditto for use in agriculture, manufactures, trade, and commerce	203,019	346,120	450,996
Coin	86,860	24,445	6,407
Totals	1,283,750	1,788,281	2,462,858

Among other articles, the imports of spirits in 1838 amounted to 1,151,583 galls.; in 1839, to 1,744,474 do.; and in 1840 to 2,266,774 do. The total quantity of wheat imported during the above 3 years amounted to 839,773 bush.

During the year 1840, the value of the exports from Sydney amounted to 1,251,544l.; of which wool and other colonial articles amounted to 663,172l.; the produce of the fisheries to 265,920l.; and British and foreign goods re-exported, to 423,452l. We subjoin

A Statement of the Quantities of Wool, Whale Oil, and Whalebone exported from New South Wales during each of the Five Years ending with 1840.

Years.	Wool.	Sperm Whale Oil.	Black Whale Oil.	Whalebone.
1836	5,611,118 lbs.	1,582 tuns	1,449 tuns	70 tons
1837	4,375,716	2,359	1,566	78
1838	5,458,993	1,891 1/2	3,055	171
1839	6,597,981	1,379	1,269	155
1840	7,668,202	1,554	4,298	200

In 1840, wool was valued for export at 15s. per lb.; sperm whale oil at 85l. per tun; black whale oil at 18l. per do.; and whalebone at 100l. per ton.

A few miles to the east of Syria, lies Delos. This island, regarded in antiquity with peculiar veneration from its being the birthplace of Apollo and Diana, is no less celebrated in the commercial than in the religious history of ancient Greece. Its sacred character, by insuring its immunity from hostile attacks, and its central situation, made it a favourite mart for the products of the states of Greece. Asia Minor, Phœnicia, Egypt, &c. Religion, pleasure, and trade had all their votaries at its festivals; which were famous throughout the ancient world for the splendour of the rites and processions, and the magnitude of the business transacted. It was too much to expect that Syria should ever attain to equal importance, even as an *entrepôt*. But as she enjoys most of those advantages of position that contributed to render Delos one of the principal emporiums of antiquity, it may be hoped, now that there is a reasonable prospect of good order and freedom being again established in Greece, that she may also acquire some commercial celebrity. It may be worth while mentioning, as strikingly evincing the mutability of human affairs, that, at present, both the great and the little Delos are uninhabited. And Tournefort states, that the inhabitants of Mycone were, in the early part of last century, in the habit of holding the greater Delos, for the purpose: of pasturage, paying to the Grand Seigneur a rent of 90 crowns a year for that famous island! — (Tournefort, *Voyage du Levant*, 4to ed. tome 1. pp. 290—291. There is a good account of the religious rites celebrated at Delos, though but a very indifferent one of its commerce, in the *Travels of Anacharsis*.)

T.

TACAMAHAC, a resin obtained from the *Figara octandra*; and likewise, it is supposed, from the *Populus balsamifera*. It is imported from America in large oblong masses wrapt in tag leaves. It is of a light brown colour, very brittle, and easily melted when heated. When pure, it has an aromatic smell, between that of lavender and musk; and dissolves completely in alcohol, water having no action upon it. — (Thomson's *Chemistry*.)

TAGANROG, a city of European Russia, on the north coast of the sea of Azof, near the mouth of the river Don, lat. 47° 12' 48" N., lon. 38° 33' E., Population 18,000. It has a naval hospital, a lazaretto, &c.; and there are annual fairs in May, August, and November. Taganrog is a place of considerable commercial importance. It was intended by its illustrious founder, Peter the Great, to replace Azof, the ancient emporium of the Don, the port of which had become all but inaccessible; and its whole consequence is derived from this circumstance, or from its being the *entrepôt* of the commerce of the countries traversed by that great river. The largest portion by far of the trade is carried on with Constantinople, Smyrna, and other Turkish ports; but a good deal is also carried on with the Italian and other foreign ports; and there is an extensive coasting trade with Odessa and other Russian ports. In 1836 the total value of the exports from Taganrog to foreign ports amounted to 7,492,277 paper roubles, and that of the imports to 7,864,118 do., the value of the exports to Russian ports amounting during the same year, to 3,089,323 roubles, and that of the imports to 1,829,233 do. In 1841 the exports to foreign countries comprised, among other articles, 334,957 chetwerts of wheat, 7,461 pecks tallow, 4,018 pecks wool, 25,483 pecks cordage, &c.: the total value of these exports amounted to 2,375,551 silver roubles, equal to 8,314,428 paper do.

Seeing that Taganrog was built to obviate the difficulties that had to be encountered by vessels entering the Don, through the shallowness of the water, it might have been supposed that care would be taken to place it in a position in which it should be, in as far as possible, free from this defect. This important consideration seems, however, to have been to a great degree overlooked. The gulph of the Don is seldom navigable by vessels drawing more than from 10 to 11 ft. water, and even these cannot approach within less than about 700 yards of the town. They are principally loaded by carts, drawn each by a single horse, the expenses being so very considerable that it costs from 120 to 150 roubles to ship a chetwert of wheat. Without, however, altering the position of the town, these defects might be obviated with but little difficulty, by constructing a wooden pier by which vessels in the roads might be sheltered, and from which they might be laden.

Sea of Azof. Any one who takes up a map of Russia in Europe, will at once perceive the vast importance of this sea (the *Pulus Meotis* of the ancients) as an outlet for the products of the most fertile provinces of the empire. At its N. E. extremity it receives the Don (an *Tanais*), which with its navigable tributaries the Donetz, and Medveditza, &c., flows through an immense extent of fruitful territory. Peter the Great was fully sensible of the paramount importance of this channel of communication; and he not only, as stated above, founded Taganrog on the estuary of the Don, but joined the latter to the Volga by means of a canal, uniting in this way the Caspian with the sea of Azof. It is singular, however, that the Russian government, which has, in other respects, so sedulously followed up the plans of the great father of his country, would seem of late years rather to have discouraged the trade of the sea of Azof. As evidence of this, we may mention that no efforts have been made to deepen the channel over the bar at the mouth of the Don, to remove the other obstructions to the easy navigation of the river, or to improve any of the ports on the sea; and farther, all vessels entering the sea are obliged to perform a lengthened quarantine at Kertsch on the W. side of the Straits of Yenikalé. We believe, indeed,

that this measure was chiefly dictated by a wish to make Kertsch a depôt for the produce of the various ports on the sea of Azof, which it was supposed would be conveyed to it in lighters. But the experience of the last twelve years has shown that this expectation is not destined to be realised; the charges attending the bringing of produce to the Straits of Yenikalé by means of lighters, and its transhipment, being so very heavy that more than $\frac{1}{2}$ ths of the shipping that arrive at Kertsch, proceed, after performing quarantine there, to load at Taganrog, Marioupol, and other ports on the sea.

It is not surely too much to expect that the Russian government will see the advantage of making an end of these preposterous arrangements, the only effect of which is to obstruct one of the principal channels for the commerce of the empire; and to hinder its subjects from availing themselves of those gigantic means of production which a less illiberal policy would enable them fully to command. It is plain that ships may load and unload at Taganrog with as little danger to the health of the contiguous provinces as at Kertsch; and such being the case, why should they not be permitted to sail direct for the former?

The sea of Azof is usually shut by frost for about 3 months in winter, and it is besides shallow, and in parts incumbered with sand banks. But it may, notwithstanding, be navigated by vessels of considerable burden but little risk or difficulty. Its greatest depth in the middle is about 7 fathoms: but it shoals gradually to the sides, and at Taganrog there is only from 10 to 11 feet water. Its depth is, however, materially affected by the direction and strength of the winds. The only entrance to this sea is by the Straits of Yenikalé, the *Bosphorus Cimmerius* of the ancients, a narrow and difficult passage, having in some places not more than 13 feet water. Owing to the great quantity of fresh water poured into the sea of Azof, and its limited magnitude, its water is brackish merely. (*Norie's Sailing Directions for the Mediterranean and Black Seas; Annuaire du Commerce Maritime for 1833, p. 161, &c.*)

It is impossible to form any estimate of the future magnitude of the trade of this sea, were it placed under a more liberal policy, and reasonable facilities afforded for its extension. No doubt, however, it would be very great; it being the natural seat of the commerce of some of the most extensive and fertile countries of Eastern Europe. The subjoined returns show that even now it is of the first importance; and with a little encouragement, or with the mere absence of obstruction, it would no doubt rapidly increase. It may, indeed, be fully concluded that sooner or later Taganrog is destined to become one of the first corn-shipping ports in the world, if not the very first.

We subjoin an

Account of Exports from the Ports of the Sea of Azof, in 1845, and in the Six preceding Years.

Articles.	1845.	1844.	1843.	1842.	1841.	1840.	1839.
Wheat - - - quarters	507,000	574,000	451,300	536,200	460,000	557,326	632,500
Rye - - - "	4,500	25,106	-	-	-	-	-
Oats - - - "	-	7,790	-	-	-	-	-
Linseed - - - "	201,800	205,000	119,900	52,700	52,000	44,328	71,500
Wild rapeseed - - - "	28,800	41,530	5,600	36,276	40,400	37,014	23,200
Tallow - - - - - tons	2,726	3,084	1,477	185	569	367	123
Iron - - - - - "	5,242	1,250	9,006	5,446	3,600	2,880	1,817
Wool - - - - - cwt.	68,310	62,491	40,886	34,848	25,500	19,750	16,500
Wool - - - - - "	716	136	313	410	430	545	1,511
Raw hides - - - - "	919	-	146	204	341	897	169
Raw skins - - - - "	160	-	-	-	-	20	80
Butter - - - - - "	7,318	5,500	1,266	3,242	2,450	4,180	4,011
Cheese - - - - - "	6,927	8,300	10,050	10,890	8,730	6,710	3,700
Ricini - - - - - "	-	3,010	1,433	1,537	2,437	1,416	2,393
Macaroni - - - - - "	1,126	1,131	1,336	883	1,056	443	613
Cordage - - - - - "	2,700	4,400	5,174	6,184	11,229	6,833	7,091
Sail cloths - - - - - yards	98,502	127,200	169,330	108,600	274,435	200,800	142,462
Official value of the above	£1,261,770	1,365,320	966,877	957,610	861,383	1,009,150	1,468,834

It is seen from this table that the exports of wheat have not been so great in any subsequent year as in 1839, which is to be ascribed partly to deficient harvests in the interval, and partly to the demand being less. But were the navigation of the Don improved, and facilities given to foreigners entering the sea, the exports might be largely increased, even with the late prices, which have been nearly the same as those of Odessa (which see). The reader will not fail to remark the great increase that has taken place in the exports of linseed, tallow, and wool. The latter, indeed, is becoming one of the principal articles of export from the empire.

The imports into the sea of Azof are but inconsiderable, principally consisting of Greek wines, oils, dry salteries, and such like articles.

In 1845, 613 ships of the burden of 146,691 tons arrived at Kertsch, of which 125 measuring 25,188 tons were British, and of these only 27 loaded at Kertsch, the rest entering the sea after performing quarantine. The few that did land at Kertsch did so because of the lateness of the season. The British ships were mostly all in ballast.

The emperor Alexander, whose reign will always form a memorable and brilliant era in the history of Russia, expired at Taganrog on the 19th of November, 1825. — (For further particulars see *Schnitzler, La Russie*, p. 717.; *Hagemester on the Trade of the Black Sea*, p. 31, &c.; *Russian Official Accounts*; and *Reports*, by Mr. Yeames, the intelligent British consul at Odessa.

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of PETERSBURG; which see.

Caspian Sea, Magnitude, Ports of, &c. — The Caspian Sea, or rather Lake (the *Mare Hyrcanum* of the ancients), extends lengthwise from N. to S. about 740 miles, varying in breadth from 112 to 275 miles. In some parts, particularly on the southern shores, it is so very deep that a line of 450 fathoms will not reach the bottom; whereas in the northern parts, and opposite to the mouths of the Wolga, it is comparatively shallow; and owing to the frequent occurrence of shoals, it is not safely navigated by vessels drawing more than 10 or 12 feet water. Its level had been variously estimated by Olivier and Lowitz as from 64 to 53 feet below that of the Black Sea; but the observations of M. Humboldt made the difference of level between them no less than 300 feet! This, however, was supposed to involve some mistake; and its level has since been ascertained by an expedition fitted out by the Russian government to be 116 feet below the level of the Black Sea. The water of the Caspian is not salt, but brackish merely; it has no tides, but gales of wind raise a very heavy sea. It is extremely prolific of fish and seals. The value of the sturgeon caught in the Russian fisheries amounts to a very large sum. — (See *СРУБОРОН РЫБАК.*) They proceed in shoals up the rivers, where they are captured without the least apparent diminution of their numbers. The salmon is remarkably fine; and herrings are in such abundance, that, after a storm, the shores of the Persian provinces of Ghilan and Mazunderan are nearly covered with them. — (*Kinnair's Memoir of the Persian Empire*, p. 6.; *Memoir on the Caspian Sea*, in *Malte Brun's Geography*; *Humboldt, Fragmens de Géologie*, &c.)

Astrakhan is situated on an island of the Wolga, more than 50 miles from the mouth of that river; and owing to the extensive command of internal navigation it possesses, it is a place of very considerable commercial importance. Baku, acquired by the Russians in 1801, is, however, the best port on the western side of the Caspian. It is situated on the southern shore of a peninsula that projects far into the sea, in lat. 40° 22' N., lon. 51° 10' E. The harbour is spacious and convenient; and its central and advanced position gives it superior advantages as a trading station. Prodigious quantities of naphtha are procured in the vicinity of Baku. It is drawn from wells, some of which yield from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs. a day. It is used as a substitute for lamp oil; and when ignited, emits a clear light, with much smoke and a disagreeable smell. Large quantities are exported in skins to the Persian and Tartar ports on the south and east shores of the sea.

Vessels. — The largest class of vessels by which the Caspian Sea is navigated are called by the Russians *schuyts*, and belong wholly to Astrakhan and Baku; their burden varies from 90 to 150, and, in some instances, 200 tons. They are not built on any scientific principle, and are constructed of the worst materials, that is, of the timber of the barks that bring grain down the Wolga to Astrakhan. There are supposed to be, in all, about 100 sail of these vessels. There is a second class of vessels employed in the trade of the Caspian, called *razchives*. They carry from 70 to 140 tons, and sail better than the schuyts. Their number is estimated at about 50. Exclusive of the above, there are great numbers of small craft employed in the coasting trade, in the rivers, in the fisheries, and in acting as lighters to the schuyts. Steam boats have been introduced upon the Wolga; and one has been launched on the Caspian itself. The masters and crews of the vessels employed on this sea are, for the most part, as ignorant as can well be imagined. They are generally quite incapable of making an observation, or of keeping a reckoning; so that accidents frequently occur, that might be avoided by the most ordinary acquaintance with the principles of navigation. — (These statements are made, partly upon official, and partly upon private authority: the latter may, however, be safely relied on.)

The trade of this great sea is entirely in the hands of the Russians; by whom it is carried on from the ports of Astrakhan and Baku, with the Persian ports of Astrabad, Bafroosh, &c. on the south; and with the Tartar ports of Mangishlak, Balkan, &c. on the east. It is very insignificant, compared with what it ought to be; the value of the Russian produce exported by it in 1841 being only 435,219 silver roubles; and that of the imports 1,053,606 do. On the whole, however, a gradual improvement is taking place; and whatever objections may, on other grounds, be made to the encroachments of Russia in this quarter, there can be no manner of doubt, that, by introducing comparative security and good order into the countries under her authority, she has materially improved their condition, and accelerated their progress to a more advanced state.

TALC, a species of fossil nearly allied to mica. It is soft, smooth, greasy to the feel, and may be split into fine plates or leaves, which are flexible, but not elastic. It has a greenish, whitish, or silver-like lustre. The leaves are transparent, and are used in many parts of India and China, as they were used in ancient Rome—(*Plin. Hist. Nat. lib. xxxvi. c. 22.*)—in windows instead of glass. In Bengal, a seer of talc costs about 2 rupees, and will sometimes yield a dozen panes 12 inches by 9, or 10 by 10, according to the form of the mass, transparent enough to allow ordinary subjects to be seen at 50 or 30 yards' distance. It should be chosen of a beautiful pearl colour; but it has, in general, either a yellowish or faint blue tinge. Its pure translucent flakes are frequently used by the Indians for ornamenting the baubles employed in their ceremonies. Talc is employed in the composition of *rouge végétal*. The Romans prepared with it a beautiful blue, by combining it with the colouring fluid of particular kinds of testaceous animals. Talc is met with in Aberdeenshire, Perthshire, and Banffshire in Scotland; and in various parts of the Continent, where rocks of serpentine and porphyry occur. The talc brought from the Tyrolese mountains is called in commerce Venetian talc. Several varieties are found in India and Ceylon.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Rees's Cyclopaedia; Milburn's Orient. Com.; Anstie's Mat. Indica.*)

TALLOW (Fr. *Suif*; Ger. *Talg*; It. *Sevo, Sevo*; Rus. *Salu, toplenoi; Sp. Sebo*), animal fat melted and separated from the fibrous matter mixed with it. Its quality depends partly on the animal from which it has been prepared; but more, perhaps, on the care taken in its purification. It is firm, brittle, and has a peculiar heavy odour. When pure, it is white, tasteless, and nearly insipid; but the tallow of commerce has usually a yellowish tinge; and is divided, according to the degree of its purity and consistence, into candle and soap tallow.

Tallow is an article of great importance. It is manufactured into candles and soap; and is extensively used in the dressing of leather, and in various processes of the arts. Besides our extensive supplies of native tallow, we annually import a very large quantity, principally from Russia. The exports of tallow from Petersburg amount, at an average, to between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 poods, of which the largest portion by far is brought to England; the remainder being exported to Prussia, France, the Hanse Towns, Turkey, &c.

We borrow from the work of Mr. Borrison, on the commerce of Petersburg, the following details with respect to the tallow trade of that city:—

Tallow is divided into different sorts; namely, white and yellow *candle tallow*, and common and Siberian *soap tallow*; although it is allowed that the same sort often differs in quality.

Tallow is brought to Petersburg from the interior; and the best soap tallow from Siberia, by various rivers, to the lake Ladoga; and thence, by the canal of Schlusenburg, to the Neva.

An *ambare*, or warehouse, is appropriated to the reception of tallow, where, on its arrival, it is selected and assorted (*bracked*). The casks are then marked with three circular stamps, which state the quality of the tallow, the period of selecting, and the name of the selector (*bracker*).

The casks in which white tallow is brought have a singular appearance; their form being conical, and their diameter at one end about 2½ feet, and at the other only 1½ foot: the casks of yellow tallow are of the common shape. There are also others, denominated *¼ casks*.

To calculate the tare, the tallow is removed from a certain number of casks, which are weighed, and an average tare is thence deduced for the whole lot. A cask weighs 84, 9, 10, or 11 per cent., but the average is generally about 10 per cent., of the entire weight of tallow and cask.

Yellow candle tallow, when good, should be clean, dry, hard when broken, and of a fine yellow colour throughout. The white candle tallow, when good, is white, brittle, hard, dry, and clean. The best white tallow is brought from Woronesch. As for soap tallow, the more greasy and yellow it is, the better the quality. That from Siberia is the purest, and commonly fetches a higher price than the other sorts.

Formerly the oil and tallow warehouses were the same; and this occasioned great difficulties in shipping, because all vessels or lighters taking in tallow or oil were obliged to haul down to the *ambare*, and wait in rotation for their cargoes. The consequence was, that when much business was doing, a vessel was often detained for several weeks at the *ambare* before she could get her cargo on board. Now the tallow and oil warehouses are separated, and every article has its own place. When a shipment of tallow is made, the agent is furnished by the selector (*bracker*) with a sample from each cask.

Capitans, in order to obtain more freight, usually load some casks of tallow upon deck; but it is more for the interest of the owner to avoid this, if possible, because the tallow loses, through the heat of the sun, considerably both in weight and quality.

One hundred and twenty poods of tallow, gross weight, make a Petersburg last, and 63 poods an English ton.

We subjoin an official account of the export of tallow from Russia in 1841, specifying the quantities shipped from the different ports, the countries for which the shipments were made, and the quantities shipped for each.

From	Poods.	To	Poods.	To	Poods.
Petersburg	5,310,889	Sweden	55,997	Spain, Portugal, and Italy	2,677
Niwa	923	Prussia	86,273	Austria	2,710
Archangel	23,414	Denmark	793	Turkey	31,875
Odessa	375,869	Elseneur	581,579	America	1,400
Taganrog	7,404	Hanse Towns	53,830	Sundry	7,510
Radziwilloff	2,538	Holland	60,493		
Sundry	17,097	Great Britain	2,649,753		
		France	155,235	Total	3,736,104
Total	5,736,104				

^a The ships receive, at Elseneur, orders for their ultimate destination, and most of them are for Great Britain.

per cent.), it is obvious that in a few transactions the tally-shop keeper becomes independent of the existing debt; and with capital and good management, it is said that some have realised considerable sums of money in this business.

According to the custom of the trade, Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays are the days set apart for collecting money from the customers. The tally-man sends round his collector through the different "walks," and the amount of a collection which keeps the collector engaged from morning till night, even in a good tally concern, seldom exceeds 4*l.* a day. The payments are invariably made in *shillings* and *sixpences*—but the people seldom or never pay at the tally-shops; they rarely call there unless something else is wanted. The tally-shop keeper trusts one party on the recommendation of another; but guarantees are never required—certainly no *written* guarantees; and a verbal guarantee is, according to Lord Tenterden's act, not binding. It is part of the collector's business, besides getting money, to beat up for fresh customers in his walk.

The greater number of the small tally concerns are kept by Scotchmen; it is a curious fact, that when a "Tally-walk" is to be sold, which is often the case, a Scotchman's walk will bring 15 per cent. more than an Englishman's! It is believed to contain a better description of customers.

From the causes above mentioned, assisted, perhaps, by the salutary influence of Savings Banks, this obnoxious trade is understood to be rather on the wane. It will never, however, be completely rooted out, except by adopting the plan we have previously suggested—(see *CAZOTT*)—for placing all small debts beyond the pale of the law; and the fact, that the adoption of this plan would have so beneficial a result, is an additional and powerful recommendation in its favour. In cases where failures take place, the creditors of a tally-shop keeper are in general *terrified* into the acceptance of a small composition. The very sight of the tally Ledgers, from 10 to 20 in number, containing debts from 5*s.* to 5*l.*, dotted over the pages like a small pattern on a piece of printed cotton, and spread over every district in and round London, determines the creditors to accept of any offer, however small, rather than encounter the collection of such disreputable assets. In an affair of this kind, concluded a few years since, where the business was under the management of a respectable accountant in the city, the whole debts due to the concern, good, bad, and doubtful, amounted to 8,700*l.*, while the number of debtors was 7,600! giving an average of 22*s.* 10*d.* each.

N.B.—This article has been compiled wholly from *private*, but *authentic*, information.

TAMARINDS (Ger. *Tamarinden*; Fr. *Tamarins*; It. and Sp. *Tamarindo*; Arab. *Umbile*; Hind. *Tintiri*), the fruit of the *Tamarindus Indica*, a tree which grows in the East and West Indies, in Arabia, and Egypt. In the West Indies the pods or fruit, being gathered when ripe, and freed from the shelly fragments, are placed in layers in a cask, and boiling syrup poured over them, till the cask be filled; the syrup pervades every part quite down to the bottom; and when cool, the cask is headed for sale. The East India tamarinds are darker coloured and drier, and are said to be preserved without sugar. When good, tamarinds are free from any degree of mustiness; the seeds are hard, flat, and clean; the strings tough and entire; and a clean knife thrust into them does not receive any coating of copper. They should be preserved in closely covered jars.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*.) The duty on tamarinds produced, in 1840, 572*l.* It was fixed, in 1842, at 3*d.* per lb. on those from a foreign country, and at 1*d.* on those from a British possession.

TAPIOCA, a species of starch or white coarse powder derived from the roots of the bitter cassava (*Jatropha manihot*), an American plant, raised all over South America, but principally in Brazil, where it is called *mandioc* or *manioc*. The roots of the plant, being peeled, are subjected to pressure in a kind of bag made of rushes; the juice which is forced out by this process being a deadly poison, and employed as such by the Indians to poison their arrows! But the residuum, or farinaceous matter remaining after the expulsion of the juice, is perfectly wholesome, and makes excellent bread. Tapioca, as stated above, is prepared from this residuum; and being nutritious, and easy of digestion, is extensively used in the making of puddings. When dressed, it is not easily distinguished from sago. Tapioca is almost wholly brought from Brazil, the imports thence having amounted, at an average of the 10 years ending with 1842, to 1,541 cwt. a year. (See *anté*, p. 1065.)

TAR (Fr. *Goudron*; Ger. *Theer*; It. *Catrame*; Pol. *Smola gasta*; Rus. *Degot*, *Smola shitekja*; Sw. *Tjara*), a thick, black, unctuous substance, chiefly obtained from the pine, and other turpentine trees, by burning them in a close smothering heat.

The tar of the north of Europe is very superior to that of the United States, and is an article of great commercial importance. The process followed in making it has been described as follows by Dr. Clarke:—"The inlets of the gulph (Bothnia) everywhere appeared of the grandest character; surrounded by noble forests, whose tall trees,

flourishing luxuriantly, covered the soil quite down to the water's edge. From the most southern parts of Westro-Bothnia, to the northern extremity of the gulph, the inhabitants are occupied in the manufacture of tar; proofs of which are visible in the whole extent of the coast. The process by which the tar is obtained is very simple: and as we often witnessed it, we shall now describe it, from a tar-work we halted to inspect upon the spot. The situation most favourable to the process is in a forest near to a marsh or bog; because the roots of the fir, from which tar is principally extracted, are always most productive in such places. A conical cavity is then made in the ground (generally in the side of a bank or sloping hill); and the roots of the fir, together with logs and billets of the same, being neatly trussed in a stack of the same conical shape, are let into this cavity. The whole is then covered with turf, to prevent the volatile parts from being dissipated, which by means of a heavy wooden mallet, and a wooden stamper, worked separately by two men, is beaten down and rendered as firm as possible above the wood. The stack of billets is then kindled, and a slow combustion of the fir takes place, without flame, as in making charcoal. During this combustion the tar exudes; and a cast iron pan being at the bottom of the funnel, with a spout which projects through the side of the bank, barrels are placed beneath this spout to collect the fluid as it comes away. As fast as the barrels are filled, they are bunged and ready for immediate exportation. From this description it will be evident that the mode of obtaining tar is by a kind of distillation *per descensum*; the turpentine, melted by fire, mixing with the sap and juices of the fir, while the wood itself, becoming charred, is converted into charcoal. The most curious part of the story is, that this simple method of extracting tar is precisely that which is described by Theophrastus and Dioscorides; and there is not the smallest difference between a tar-work in the forests of Westro-Bothnia and those of ancient Greece. The Greeks made stacks of pine; and having covered them with turf, they were suffered to burn in the same smothered manner; while the tar, melting, fell to the bottom of the stack, and ran out by a small channel cut for the purpose."

Of 14,146 tons of tar imported in 1840, 12,233 were brought from Russia, 635 from Sweden, and 1,243 from the U. States. The last contains 13 barrels, and each barrel 2½ gallons.

Tar produced or manufactured in Europe is not to be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under penalty of forfeiting the same, and 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54.)

TARE, an abatement or deduction made from the weight of a parcel of goods, on account of the weight of the chest, cask, bag, &c. in which they are contained. Tare is distinguished into *real tare*, *customary tare*, and *average tare*. The first is the actual weight of the package; the second, its supposed weight according to the practice among merchants; and the third is the medium tare, deduced from weighing a few packages, and taking it as the standard for the whole. In Amsterdam, and some other commercial cities, tares are generally fixed by custom: but in this country, the prevailing practice, as to all goods that can be unpacked without injury, both at the Custom-house and among merchants, is to ascertain the real tare. Sometimes, however, the buyer and seller make a particular agreement about it. We have, for the most part, specified the different tares allowed upon particular commodities, in the descriptions given of them in this work.—(For the tares at Amsterdam, Bordeaux, &c., see these articles; see also **ALLOWANCES**.)

TARE, VETCH, or FITCH, a plant (*Vicia sativa* Lin.) that has been cultivated in this country from time immemorial; principally for its stem and leaves, which are used in the feeding of sheep, horses, and cattle; but partly, also, for its seed. Horses thrive better upon tares than upon clover and rye grass; and cows that are fed upon them give most milk. The seed is principally used in the feeding of pigeons and other poultry. The entries for consumption amount to about 250,000 bushels a year.

TARIFF, a table, alphabetically arranged, specifying the various duties, drawbacks, bounties, &c. charged and allowed on the importation and exportation of articles of foreign and domestic produce.

The first two columns of the subjoined Table contain an account of the duties existing on the 1st January, 1840, on the various articles charged with duties on being imported for consumption into the U. Kingdom, distinguishing between the duties when the articles come from foreign countries and from colonial possessions.

Those who compare the following tariff, with the tariffs in the copies of this work issued previously to 1842, will be forcibly struck with the vast difference between them. Notwithstanding the improvements effected by Mr. Huskisson, the tariff continued down to the epoch now referred to, on a most objectionable footing. Hundreds of articles were loaded with duties, which, while they brought little revenue into the public treasury, opposed formidable obstacles to the extension of commerce; a host of other articles, including live cattle and fresh provisions, were wholly prohibited; high duties were laid on various articles of consumption, and on others that were necessary to the prosecution of some of our principal manufactures; and some most important

articles, including corn, sugar, and timber, were burdened with duties, imposed not so much for the sake of revenue as of protection. But the change in these respects since 1842 has been greater than any one, however sanguine, could have anticipated. It was then that Sir Robert Peel began that course of commercial reform that will, for ever, distinguish his administration; and such were the energy, skill, and success with which he prosecuted his plans, that in the brief space of 4 years, he obviated, with but little sacrifice of revenue, almost all the defects alluded to above, and effected a great and most salutary change in our commercial policy.

Sir Robert Peel's commercial reforms were principally embodied in the acts 5 & 6 Vict. c. 47., 8 Vict. c. 12., 9 & 10 Vict. c. 22., and 9 & 10 Vict. c. 23. The *first* of these acts permitted cattle, sheep, hogs, beef, salmon, and other articles that had previously been prohibited, to be imported under reasonable duties; the *second*, or the 8 Vict. c. 12., repealed the duties on no fewer than about 420 different articles; and though many of these were of comparatively trifling importance, the list comprised others of a very different class, such, for example, as ashes, barilla, bark, flax and tow, cotton wool, hemp, hides, indigo, madder, palm, olive, and train oil, sago, saltpetre, raw silk, all sorts of skins and furs, straw for plaiting, all sorts of fancy woods, with a host of others; the *third* of the above mentioned statutes, or the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 22., is the famous act for the modification and repeal of the corn laws; and the *fourth* and last, the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 23., is the tariff act of 1846, which entirely repealed the duties on cattle, sheep, hogs, beef, bacon, and other leading products; at the same time that it reduced the duties on silks, butter, cheese, and nearly 100 other articles!

Sir Robert Peel also reduced the duty on muscovado sugar from a British possession, from 25s. 2d. to 14s. a cwt., at the same time that he made a very great reduction in the duty on certain descriptions of foreign sugar. And Lord John Russell has since successfully followed up the policy of his predecessor in this respect, by making an end of the distinction between free and slave grown sugars; and providing for the gradual equalisation of the duties on sugars, without regard to their origin.

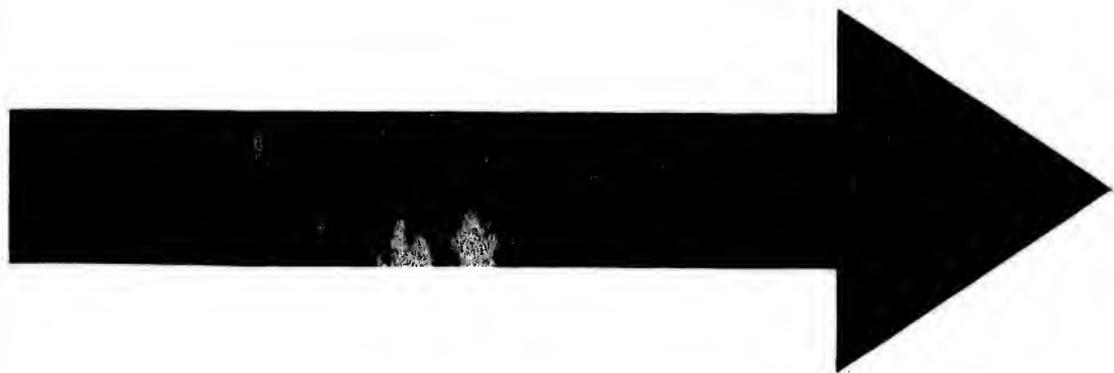
Independent of the powerful influence which the repeal and reduction of the duties on so many important articles must have on the well-being and industry of the people, it must always be borne in mind that owing to the reciprocity which is of the essence of all commercial transactions, it is impossible to increase the importation of foreign articles, without at the same time proportionally increasing the exportation of the native products with which the former must be paid. It is, therefore, no easy matter to estimate the influence of such extensive changes on the trade and future prosperity of the U. Kingdom. There can, however, be no doubt that it will be very great; and besides contributing to improve our manufactures, it can hardly fail to deepen and enlarge the existing channels of commercial intercourse, and gradually to open others with which we may now, perhaps, be wholly unacquainted.

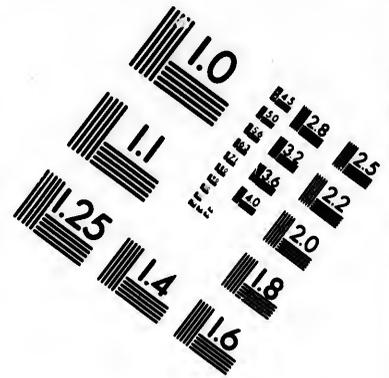
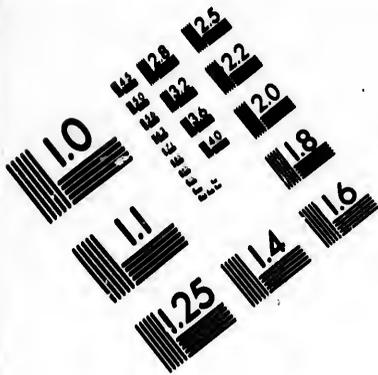
Sir Robert Peel left but little for others to do in the way of commercial reform. The duty on tea is now the only very objectionable one in our tariff. It, however, is as bad as can well be imagined; and its reduction to 1s. or 10d. per lb. on black teas, would be a vast boon to the bulk of the people of the U. Kingdom, and would greatly extend our commerce with China, at the same time that the fair presumption is, it would not, in a year or two, occasion any very considerable loss of revenue. Tobacco is, also, decidedly over taxed; but, except in the cheek it would give to smuggling and adulteration, the reduction of the duty on it, is, in other respects, of minor importance.

We have excluded from the following table most articles which are at this moment (1st January, 1849) duty free; and we have annexed to the table of existing duties two additional columns; the first exhibiting the amount of the customs duties in 1819, as fixed by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52.; and the second, their amount in 1787, as fixed by Mr. Pitt's Consolidation Act, the 27 Geo. 3. c. 13. The reader has, therefore, before him, and may compare the present customs duties with the duties on the same articles as they existed after the termination of the last war, and of the American war.* No table of this sort is to be met with in any other publication, unless it be purloined from this. It was furnished for a former edition of this work, by Mr. J. D. Hume, late of the Board of Trade.

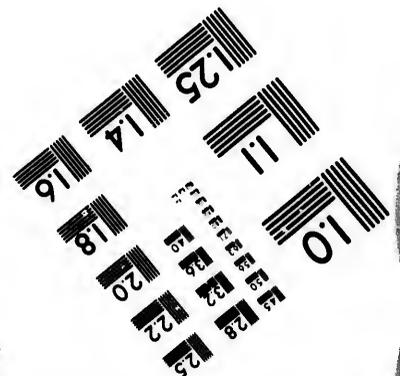
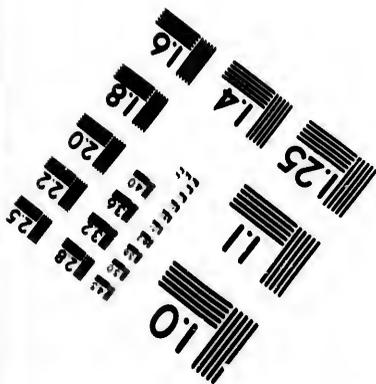
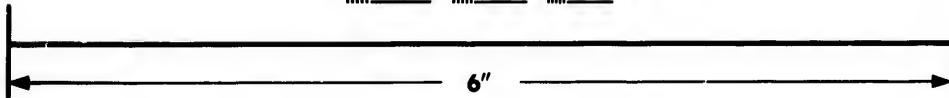
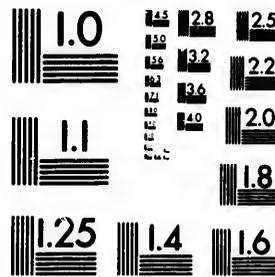
The duties in the following table were principally imposed by the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 90., and by the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 23. The former authorised the levy of an additional duty of 5 per cent. on all the articles mentioned in it with the exception of corn and a few others; but this rule having been interfered with to a great extent by the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 23., we have, to prevent mistakes, marked the different articles to the duties on which 5 per cent. is to be added with asterisks, thus *.— The following clauses of the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 90. are still in force:—

* It must, however, be carefully borne in mind that this table does not fully represent the customs duties as they existed in 1787 and 1819. It exhibits those duties only which were charged at the epochs in question on the articles now (1 Jan. 1849) subject to customs duties; whereas the tariff embraced in 1787 and 1819 more than 400 articles not included in the present tariff.





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Goods having paid Duties imposed by former Acts to be entitled to Drawbacks.—The amount of duties actually imposed, allowed, waived, and merchandise exempted from use or consumed in Great Britain or Ireland, under or by virtue of any act or acts in force in Great Britain or Ireland, on or immediately before the passing of this act, shall remain and continue payable with respect to such goods, wares, and merchandise as, having paid the duties imposed upon the importation thereof by any such act or acts, shall, from and after the passing of this act, be exported from or be so used or consumed in Great Britain or Ireland respectively.—§ 5.

Goods to Warehouses to be liable to the Duties imposed by this Act.—All goods whatsoever which shall have been warehoused without payment of duty upon the importation thereof, and which shall be in the warehouse at the commencement of the duties imposed by this act, shall be deemed and taken to be liable to such duties.—§ 6.

Clause 7. enacts that duties and drawbacks shall be under the management of the commissioners of customs.

Additional Duties to be levied on Foreign Merchandise, &c.—It shall be lawful for H. M., by and with the advice of her privy council, by order in council, from time to time to order and direct that there shall be levied and collected any additional duty, not exceeding one fifth of the amount of any existing duty, upon all or any goods, wares, or merchandise, the growth, produce, or manufacture of any country which shall levy higher or other duties upon any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of H. M.'s dominions than upon the like article the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country, and in like manner to impose such additional duties upon all or any goods when imported in the ships of any country which shall levy higher or other duties upon any goods when imported in British ships than when imported in the vessels of such country, or which shall levy higher or other tonnage or port or other duties upon British ships than upon such national ships, or which shall not place the commerce or navigation of this kingdom upon the footing of the most favoured nation in the ports of such country, and either to prohibit the importation of any manufactured article the produce of such country in the event of the export of the raw material of which such article is wholly or in part made being prohibited from such country to the British dominions, or to impose an additional duty, not exceeding one fifth as aforesaid, upon such manufactured article, and also to impose such additional duty in the event of such raw material being subject to any duty upon being exported from the said country to any of H. M.'s dominions; and all duties imposed by any such order shall be deemed to be duties imposed by this act.—§ 8.

53 Geo. 3. c. 54. to apply to all Foreign Powers, and to Duties on Goods as well as on Ships.—Whereas by the act 53 Geo. 3. c. 54, intitled "An Act to carry into effect a Convention of Commerce concluded between his Majesty and the U. S. of America, and a Treaty with the Prince Regent of Portugal," divers provisions were made respecting the duties payable and the bounties and Allowances to be granted upon the importation and exportation of goods, wares, and merchandise into or from the U. K. in vessels of the U. S. and in Portuguese vessels, and respecting the repayment to certain corporations, bodies politic and corporate, and sundry other persons, of the amount of the sums of money of which they would be deprived by means of the said act, and it was thereby enacted that the said act should continue in force so long as the convention therein recited between his said late majesty and the U. S. of America, and the treaty therein recited between his said late majesty and his royal highness the prince regent of Portugal, and so long as any treaty to be made with any foreign power with the similar provisions therein before recited, should respectively continue in force: And whereas, subsequently to the enactment of the said recited act, H. M. and her royal predecessors have made and concluded with divers foreign powers treaties containing provisions similar to those recited in the said recited act, and doubts have arisen whether, according to the true construction thereof, the said act doth apply and extend to the trade and shipping of such other foreign powers, and whether the same applies to differential duties and charges on goods imported or exported in foreign ships as well as to differential duties and charges on foreign ships, and it is expedient that such doubts be removed: be it therefore enacted and declared, that from and after the ratification of any treaty heretofore made by H. M. or any of her royal predecessors subsequently to the enactment of the said act, or of any treaty which may hereafter be made by H. M., her heirs and successors, with any such foreign power, in which treaty has been or shall be contained any provisions similar to those recited in the said recited act, all and every the provisions, clauses, matters, and things in the said recited act contained shall apply and extend to the trade and shipping of such foreign powers respectively as fully and effectually to all intents and purposes as to the trade and shipping of the said U. S. and of the said Kingdom of Portugal, and also shall apply and extend to differential duties or charges on goods imported or exported in the ships of such foreign powers as well as to differential duties on the ships of such foreign powers.—§ 9.

Recited Act not to be construed as granting Powers beyond subsisting Treaties.—The said recited act doth not extend, and shall not be construed to extend to grant or to confer upon the trade or shipping of the said U. S., or of the said kingdom of Portugal, or of any other foreign power, or to the subjects of such state or kingdom, or of any such foreign power as aforesaid, any other or greater advantages than such as shall have been stipulated for by and granted to the said U. S., the said Kingdom of Portugal, or any such other foreign power, by the respective treaties subsisting and in force between them respectively and H. M., her heirs and successors, or her royal predecessors, but that the said act shall be so construed and applied as to give full and complete effect to such respective treaties so long as the same shall respectively remain in force, and to provide such, and only such, indemnity as therein mentioned to such bodies politic and corporate, and other persons, as are therein mentioned, for such losses as they shall respectively sustain by the execution of such respective treaties.—§ 10.

Her Majesty, with Advice of Privy Council, to declare the Powers with whom Treaties are subsisting.—And for the prevention of uncertainty herein, be it enacted, that it shall and may be lawful for H. M., her heirs and successors, by any order or orders to be by her or them made, with the advice of her or their privy council, and published in the London Gazette, from time to time to declare what are the foreign powers with which any such treaty or treaties as aforesaid is or are subsisting, and the present act and the said recited act shall apply and shall be deemed from the time of the ratification of any such treaties to have been applicable to the trade and shipping of such foreign countries as shall be so mentioned in any such order or orders in council as aforesaid, so long as any such order or orders shall continue unrepealed, and no longer.—§ 11.

Lords of Treasury may reduce Duties on Ships or Goods of Countries under Reciprocity.—In any case where any treaty is in force between H. M., and any foreign state containing any stipulations that no higher duties or charges shall be levied on the vessels or produce of such foreign state, or upon goods imported or exported in the vessels of such foreign state than on British vessels or produce, or upon the like goods exported or imported in British vessels, or any direct or indirect stipulations to the like effect or for the like objects, or any of them, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, or any two or more of them, from time to time to give directions that all duties or charges imposed by any act passed after the 10th day of July, 1862, upon the vessels of such foreign state entering or leaving any port of H. M.'s dominions, or upon articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of such foreign state, or upon any articles imported into the U. K. in vessels of such foreign state, or upon any articles (or any particular classes of articles) exported from the U. K. (or exported from the U. K. to any particular place or places), shall be reduced to the same rates as are in the like cases imposed upon British vessels, or upon the like articles of British growth, produce, or manufacture, or upon the like articles imported into or exported from the U. K. in British vessels, or to give so much of the said directions as the case may require.—§ 12.

Manufacturers of Gibraltar, &c.—All manufactures of Gibraltar, Malta, and Heligoland, made of materials of foreign produce liable to duty upon importation into the U. K. upon which no such duty has been paid, or upon which drawback of such duty has been allowed in the U. K., shall for the purposes of duty, be deemed and taken to be the produce of and imported from a foreign country.—§ 13.

Certain Produce of the State of Maine to be treated as the Produce of New Brunswick.—Whereas a treaty has been concluded between H. M. and the U. S. of America, dated the 9th of August, 1849, whereby it is stipulated that all the produce of the forest in logs, lumber, timber, timber boards, staves, or shingles, or of agriculture, not being manufactured, grown on any of those parts of the states of Maine watered by the river St. John or by its tributaries, or of which fact reasonable evidence shall, if required, be produced, shall have free access into and through the said river and its tributaries having their source within the state of Maine to and from the seaport at the mouth of the river St. John, and to and round the falls of the said river, either by boats, rafts, or other conveyance, and that when within the province of New Brunswick the said produce shall be dealt with as if it were the produce of the said province: and whereas it is the intention of the high contracting parties to the said treaty that the aforesaid produce should be dealt with as if it were the produce of the province of New Brunswick; be it therefore enacted, that the produce in the said recited treaty and herein-before described shall, so far as regards all laws relating to duties, navigation, and customs in force in the U. K. or in any of H. M.'s dominions, be deemed and taken to be and dealt with as the produce of the province of New Brunswick provided nevertheless, that in all cases in which declarations and certificates of production or origin, and certificates of clearance, would be required in respect of such produce if it were the produce of New Brunswick, similar declarations and certificates shall be required in respect of such produce, and shall state the same to be the produce of those parts of the state of Maine which are entered by the river St. John or by its tributaries.—§ 14.

Drawback on the Exportation of Foreign Rice or Paddy.—Upon the exportation from the U. K. of any foreign rice or paddy which shall have been cleaned therein, and which shall have paid the duties payable on the importation thereof, there shall be allowed and paid for every hundred weight thereof a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on every 4 bushels of the rough rice or paddy from which the same shall have been cleaned.—§ 15.

Conditions on which such Drawback is to be paid.—Such drawback upon rice so exported shall be paid and allowed only upon such clean rice as shall be deposited for the purpose of exportation, within 1 calendar month from the day on which the duty thereon had been paid, in some warehouse in which rice may be warehoused on importation without payment of duty, and shall there remain secured until duly shipped to be exported from such warehouse: provided also, that the exporter of such rice shall make declaration before the collector or comptroller that the rice so warehoused for exportation was cleaned from the rough rice or paddy upon which the duties had been so paid.—§ 16.

Warehousing of Goods.—It shall be lawful for the importer of any goods subject to any duties of customs to warehouse such goods upon the first entry thereof, under the laws in force for the warehousing of goods, without payment of duty upon such first entry, and that all goods which shall have been so warehoused before the commencement of any such duties, and shall remain so warehoused after the commencement of the same, shall become liable to such duties in lieu of all former duties.—§ 17.

Cape of Good Hope deemed to be within Limits of Charter; Mauritius as West Indies.—For the purposes of this act the Cape of Good Hope, and the territories and dependencies thereof, shall be deemed to be within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter, and the island of Mauritius shall be deemed to be one of H. M.'s sugar colonies, and placed upon the same footing in all respects as H. M.'s islands in the West Indies.—§ 18.

Produce of Limits of Charter imported from Malta or Gibraltar.—All goods the produce of places within the limits of the E. I. Company's charter having been imported into Malta or Gibraltar from those places in British ships shall, upon subsequent importation into the U. K. direct from Malta or Gibraltar, be liable to the same duties as the like goods would respectively be liable to if imported direct from some place within the limits of the said charter.—§ 19.

Clause 20, enacts that a separate account is to be kept of the amount of the hereditary customs revenue of the crown; and clause 21, enacts that nothing in this act shall affect the hereditary revenue of the crown in Scotland.

Duties to be paid into the Exchequer and carried to the Consolidated Fund.—All the monies arising by the duties imposed by this act (the necessary charges of raising and accounting for the same excepted) shall from time to time be paid into the receipt of H. M.'s exchequer in Great Britain, and shall be carried to and made part of the consolidated fund of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, except only as by this act is specially provided, and shall be appropriated in like manner and to the same services as the duties by this act repealed would have been if this act had not been passed.—§ 22.

Duties due before the passing of this Act, but levied after, to be deemed Duties under this Act, and appropriated as such.—All monies arising from any duties of customs, or any arrears thereof, shall be raised, levied, collected, paid, or received from and after the passing of this act, for or on account of any goods, wares, or merchandise whatever, imported or brought into the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, or exported from the said U. K., although the amount of the said duties may have been computed and ascertained as such duties have been computed and ascertained before the passing of this act, and although the goods, wares, or merchandise whereon any such duties of customs may have been charged or may be charged may have been imported into or exported from the U. K. before the passing of this act, and although any duties of customs due and payable, or charged or chargeable thereon, may have been secured by bond or otherwise on or before the passing of this act; and all such monies shall from and after the passing of this act be appropriated and applied in like manner and to the same purposes, as the duties of customs by this act granted are directed to be appropriated and applied, except as in this act provided, any act or acts of parliament, law, usage, or custom, to the contrary notwithstanding; and all the monies arising by any of the revenues of customs hereafter to be paid or allowed, either upon bond or otherwise, either by way of drawback, bounty, certificate, premium, or allowance, or by any other legal document whatever, from and after the passing of this act, although the amount of the same shall have been computed and ascertained in like manner in which they have heretofore been usually computed and ascertained, or shall have become due before the passing of this act, shall and may be paid or allowed in like manner by the proper officers or officers of the customs out of any monies in their hands arising from the duties of customs respectively.—§ 23.

The act 9 & 10 Vict. c. 22, modifying the duties on corn, directs that they shall be levied, collected, paid, and applied according to the provisions in this act.—§ 2.

Articles.	Rates of Duty on Ist. Jan. 1849.		Rates of Duty in 1810.		Rates of Duty in 1867.	
	Of and from Foreign Countries.	Of and from British Possessions.	d s. d.	d s. d.	d s. d.	d s. d.
ribbons, plain silk, of one colour only, per lb.	0 6 0	0 6 0				
plain satin of one colour only, per lb.	0 8 0	0 8 0				
silk or satin striped, figured, or brocaded, or plain ribbons of more than one colour, per lb.	0 10 0	0 10 0				
gauze or crêpe, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded, per lb.	0 14 0	0 14 0				
gauze mixed with silk, satin, or other materials of less proportion than one-half part of the fabric, per lb.	0 15 0	0 15 0				
valves, or silk embroidered with valves, per lb.	0 10 0	0 10 0				
manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material called plush, commonly used for making hats, per lb.	0 8 0	0 8 0				
artificial flowers, wholly or in part of silk, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	25 0 0				
lacy silk net or troot, per lb.	0 8 0	0 8 0				
plain silk lace or net called voile, per lb.	0 8 0	0 8 0				
manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other material, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	15 0 0	8 0 0				
millinery of silk, or of which the greater part of the materials is of silk, viz. —						
turban or cape, each	0 2 6	0 2 6				
hats or bonnets, each	7 0	1 10 0				
dresses, each	1 10 0	1 10 0				
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	40 0 0	40 0 0				
manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material and articles of the same, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	15 0 0	15 0 0				
Willow worm gut, for every 100l. value	10 0 0	10 0 0	80 0 0			
Rhine, articles manufactured of, or furs, for every 100l. value	10 0 0	8 0 0	75 0 0			
Bonnets, per evt.	20 10 0	9 10 0	0 0 0	04 per lb.		
Hose, hand, per evt.	1 0 0	0 14 0	3 10 0			
sock, per evt.	0 14 0	0 10 0	1 1 3			
Napies, per evt.	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 0 0			
Sea ware, for every 100l. value	10 0 0	10 0 0	0 0 0			
Spices, manufacture of, for every 100l. value	10 0 0	10 0 0				
Spices	Free.	Free.				
Spirits, or strong waters, of all sorts, viz. —						
for every gallon of such spirits or strong waters, of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Blyth's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz. —						
not being spirits or strong waters, the produce of any B. possession in America, or any B. possession within the limits of the B. I. Co.'s charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer, per gallon	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 8 2			
spirits of strong waters, the produce of any B. possession in America, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid: —						
If imported into England, per gallon			0 8 2			
— Scotland			0 4 0			
— Ireland			0 3 0			
rum, the produce of any B. possession within the limits of the B. I. Co.'s charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vict. c. 8. have been fulfilled: —						
If imported into England, per gallon			0 8 2			
— Scotland			0 4 0			
— Ireland			0 3 0			
rum shrub, however sweetened, the produce of and imported from such possessions, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vict. c. 8. have been fulfilled, or the produce of and imported from any B. possession in America: —						
If imported into England, per gallon			0 6 2			
— Scotland			0 4 0			
— Ireland			0 8 0			
spirits or strong waters, the produce of any B. possession within the limits of the B. I. Co.'s charter, except rum, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vict. c. 8. have been fulfilled, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid, per gallon			0 15 4			
spirits, cordials, or strong waters, not being the produce of any B. possession in America, nor any B. possession within the limits of the B. I. Co.'s charter, in regard to which the conditions of the act 4 Vict. c. 8. have been fulfilled, sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by Blyth's hydrometer, and declared spirits to be used as perfume only, per gallon	1 10 4	1 10 4	0 6 7			
strong waters, except rum shrub, being the produce of any B. possession in America, or of any B. possession qualified as aforesaid, sweetened or mixed with any article as aforesaid, per gallon			0 6 7			

Candy, sugar, process per cwt.
 White of dard quality refined cwt.
 Brown of dard quality equal to white not to be brown Miscoe
 Candy, sugar, process per cwt.
 White of dard quality refined cwt.
 Brown of dard quality equal to white not to be brown Miscoe

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Articles.	Rates of Duty on 1st Jan. 1849.		Rates of Duty in '10.	Rates of Duty in 1877.
	Of and from Foreign Countries.	Of and from British Possessions.		
ceramics and glassware, except from above, being the produce of any British possession in America, or of any British possession within the limits of the E. I. Company, in regard to which the conditions of the act of 1846 have been fulfilled, or exempted or exempted with any proviso, in that the duties or charges thereof cannot be ascertained by Hyatt's hydrometer, per gallon	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.
Starch, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0		
from and after 1st of February, 1849, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0		
Starch, pure, of certified or obtained, commonly called British gum, per cwt.	0 0 0	0 0 0		
from and after 1st of February, 1849, per cwt.	0 0 0	0 0 0		
Starch, manufactured of, for every 100l. value	10 0 0	10 0 0	20 0 0	Prohibited.
Stamps, of all sorts, not in any manner worn, including stamps to be used for lithography	Free.	Free.		
in blocks, bound or rough stamped	0 10 0	0 10 0		
stone and slate, worn, per ton	0 10 0	0 10 0		
marble, worn in stone, or otherwise manufactured, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 1 0		
Spices, including all fruits and vegetables preserved in sugar, per lb.	0 0 0	0 0 1	0 3 3	0 0 0

Sugar:—
On sugar or molasses the growth and produce of any British possession into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited, being imported from any such possession, there shall be levied the duties following, viz: from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 inclusive.	5 July 1851.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, per cwt.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, per cwt.	0 17 4	0 16 0	0 16 6	0 15 4
Molasses, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to white clayed, per cwt.	0 14 8	0 14 0	0 12 10	0 11 8
Molasses, per cwt.	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 11 0	0 10 0
	0 4 10	0 4 6	0 4 2	0 3 8

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

And from and after the respective days next hereinafter mentioned, —
On sugar or molasses the growth and produce of any other British possession, being imported from any such possession, there shall be levied the duties following, viz: from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 inclusive.	5 July 1851 to 5 July 1852 inclusive.	5 July 1852 to 5 July 1853 inclusive.	5 July 1853 to 5 July 1854 inclusive.	5 July 1854.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, per cwt.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, per cwt.	1 8 0	1 0 6	0 18 8	0 17 0	0 16 4	0 15 4	0 13 4
Brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, and not equal to white clayed, per cwt.	0 16 4	0 18 11	0 16 8	0 16 0	0 15 5	0 12 10	0 11 8
Molasses, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to brown clayed sugar, per cwt.	0 17 0	0 15 8	0 14 4	0 13 0	0 12 5	0 11 10	0 10 0
Molasses, per cwt.	0 13 9	0 14 6	0 12 8	0 12 0	0 11 8	0 11 0	0 10 0
	0 5 10	0 5 2	0 4 11	0 4 6	0 4 4	0 4 2	0 3 8

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

On sugar or molasses not otherwise charged with duty, there shall be levied the duties following, viz: from and after

Articles.	10 July 1848 to 5 July 1849 inclusive.	5 July 1849 to 5 July 1850 inclusive.	5 July 1850 to 5 July 1851 inclusive.	5 July 1851 to 5 July 1852 inclusive.	5 July 1852 to 5 July 1853 inclusive.	5 July 1853 to 5 July 1854 inclusive.	5 July 1854.
Candy, brown or white, refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, per cwt.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.	d s d.
White clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, or equal to refined, per cwt.	1 4 8	1 4 8	1 8 8	1 0 8	0 19 4	0 17 4	0 15 4
Brown clayed sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality to brown clayed, and not equal to white clayed, per cwt.	1 1 7	0 18 10	0 18 1	0 16 4	0 15 2	0 14 0	0 11 8
Molasses, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to brown clayed sugar, per cwt.	1 0 0	0 16 0	0 17 0	0 15 8	0 14 8	0 13 0	0 10 8
Molasses, per cwt.	0 18 6	0 17 0	0 14 8	0 14 0	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 10 0
	0 8 11	0 8 4	0 8 9	0 8 3	0 4 10	0 4 6	0 3 8

And so in proportion for any greater or less quantity than 1 cwt.

TABLE (B.)

Duties of Customs payable on Goods the Produce of the U. Kingdom exported to Foreign Countries.

Articles.	Rate of Duty.
Coals, culm, or cinders in a foreign ship, per ton	0 0 0

The excise or inland duties, are repaid, or, as it is termed, drawn back, on the goods being exported; and countervailing duties are imposed in the case of articles exempted from duty in Ireland and charged with it in Great Britain, being imported from the former into the latter. The drawback on the malt used in brewing is computed at the rate of 5s. the barrel of 36 Imperial gallons.

Duties repealed. We subjoin a list of the articles the duties on which were repealed in 1845 and 1846 by the acts 8 Vict. c. 12. and 9 & 10 Vict. c. 23.

<p>Apsara, or cornelian, not set. Alantobilla. Alkali. Alkanet root. Almonds, bitter. Alum. Alum. roch. Amber, rough. Ambegrie. Amboyna wood. Angelica. Animals, living; viz. ass. goat. kids. oxen and bulls. swine. calves. horses, mares, geldings, colts, foals. mules. sheep. lambs. awl and hogs. pigs, sucking. Annatto. roll. Antimony, ore of. crude. regulus of Arpai. Aristochia. Arsenic. Ashes, pearl and pot. soap, weed, and wood. unenumerated. Asphaltum or Bitumen Judaicum. Bacon. Bakam, Canada. capivi. Peru. Riga. Toid. balm of Gilead, and unenumerated balsam. Bardilla. Bar wood. Bark, extract of, or of other vegetable substances, to be used only for tanning leather. for tanners' or dyers' use. cascavilla. Feruvina. of other sorts. Beaveh rods, pointed and unpeeled. Beef, fresh or slightly salted. salted, not being corned beef. Beef wood. Berries, bay. Juniper. yellow. unenumerated. Birds, singing. Blackwood. Bladders. Bones of cattle and other animals, and of fish (except whale fins), whether burnt or not, or as animal charcoal. Box wood. Borax refined. Borax or fused, unrefined. Boracic acid. Bottles of earth and stone, empty. Brazil wood. Brazilletto wood. Brimstone, refined, in rolls. in flour. not refined. Bristles, rough, or in any way sorted. Bronze works of art. Buirnaba. Carnaealis flowers. Camphor, unrefined. Can wood. Candlewick. Cassia alba. Canes, bamboo. reed. raffins, not ground. or sticks, unenumerated. Casutehouc.</p>	<p>Carfanomus. Cassia buds. fetula. Casor. Casts of busts, statues, or figures. Caviars. Cedar wood. Chalk, unmanufactured. Chip, or willow, for plating. Cherry wood, being furniture wood. Chestnuts. China root. Chrystal, rough. Cinnabaris nativa. Citrus of lime. Citric acid. Clives. Coals, culm, and cinders. Cobalt. ore of. Cochineal. dust. granilla. Colr rope and junk, old and new, cut into lengths not exceeding 3 feet each. Colocynth. Columbo root. Copperas, blue. green. white. Coral, whole, polished. unpolished. in fragments. Cow. Cotton manufactures, not being articles wholly on a part made up, not other- wise charged with duty. Cotton yarn. Cranberries. Cream of tartar. Cubeba. Divi divi. Down. Drugs, unenumerated. Enameled. Enamel. Feathers for beds, in beds or otherwise. ostrich, undressed. paddy bird, undressed. unenumerated and undressed. Flax and tow, or cordilla of hemp and flax, dressed and undressed. Flocks. Flower roots. Fluors. Gallic powder. Galls. Gamboge. Garcinia. Garness, cut or uncut, not set. Gelatine. Gelatine. Ginseng. Glue. aliphatic, or waste of any kind, fit only for making glue. Goods unenumerated, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, not enu- merated or prohibited. Grasses. Greaves for dogs, and tallow greaves. Guano. Gum, animl. Arabic. asafoetida. ammoniacum. Benjamin. copal. euphorbium. gulsacum. kino. lac dya. masio. seed lac. Fenogral. fetalic. fetaras. tragacanth. unenumerated.</p>	<p>(Gun-stocks in the rough, of wood. Gypsum. Hair, camel hair or wool. cow, ox, bull, or elk. horse. human. Hair, unenumerated. Hay. Hemp, for brushes. Malabara. Hemp, dressed. rough or undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes. Hides, or pieces thereof, tanned, curried, varnished, japanned, enameled. Muscovy or Russian hides, or pieces thereof, tanned, coloured, shaved, or otherwise dressed, and hides or pieces thereof in any way dressed, not otherwise enumerated. or in any way dressed, dry and wet. or pieces of hides, raw or undressed, and unenumerated. Halls, buffins, bull, cow, or ox, tanned, not otherwise dressed. Horses. Hoofs of cattle. Hoops of wood. Horns — horn tips, and pieces of horns. Indigo. Ink for printers. Inks, wrought. unrecr. Iron, bloom. cast. chromate of. in bars, unwrought. hoops. old broken and cast iron. ore. pig. all or hammered into rods. Jalap. Jet. Jewels — emeralds and all other precious stones, unset. Jewels. Juice of lemons, limes, or oranges. Kingwood. Lac; viz. sticklac. Lamp black. Lapis calaminaris. Lard. Lattin. shaven. Lavender flowers. Lead ore. red. white. black. chromate of. Leaves of rose. Leeches. Lignum vitae. Linen; viz. plain finera and diaper, whether chequered or striped with dye yarn or not, and manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, not being articles wholly or in part made up. Litharge. Low wood. Loah lides. Madder. Madder root. Magna grecia ware. Maltogony. Manganes, ore of. Marra. Manure, unenumerated. Manuscripts.</p>
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TARTAR. See ARCAL.

TATTA, a town in the territory of Sinde, situated about 60 miles in a direct line from the sea, at a short distance from the western bank of the river Indus, in lat. $24^{\circ} 44' N.$, lon. $68^{\circ} 17' E.$ Population uncertain, probably about 8,000. The streets are narrow and dirty; but the houses, though built of mud, chopped straw, and timber, are superior to the low huts seen in the adjoining towns and villages.

Trade.—Being situated a little above the part where the Indus divides into the two great branches by which its waters are poured into the Indian Ocean, it might be supposed that Tatta would be a place of great trade. But, owing to the unwholesomeness of the climate, the barbarism of the tribes on its banks, and other causes, its commerce has never corresponded with what might have been anticipated, looking at its position on the map. It had probably attained the acme of its prosperity in the beginning of the 16th century. In 1555, the Portuguese, by way, as they stated, of avenging the treachery of the king of Sinde, inhumanly massacred 8,000 of the inhabitants, and burned the town.—(*Chronique des Portugais*, tome iv. p. 185.) It is probable that Tatta never fully recovered from this dreadful blow; but Mr. Hamilton mentions, that in the 17th century it was extensive and populous, possessing much commerce, with manufactures of silk, wool, and cabinet wares. The decayed state in which we now find it, has been a consequence of the misgovernment and rapacity of its present rulers, the Amers of Sinde, under whose sway it fell more than 50 years ago.

In 1635, the English established a factory at Tatta, in the view of facilitating the disposal of woollens and other goods in the countries traversed by the Indus; and the building occupied by the factory, though far from magnificent, was recently, if it be not still, the best, not in Tatta only, but in the whole country of Sinde.

The chief exports are rice, shawls from Cashmere, opium from Malwah, hides, ghee, cotton, goats' wool, carpets, drugs, &c. Putehook, an article largely consumed in China, is a peculiar export of Sinde. The imports comprise a variety of articles, but the quantities are trifling; they consist principally of spices, dye stuffs, hardware, tin, iron, &c., broad cloths, English cottons, silks. But at present the trade is quite inconsiderable; and no one could believe, *a priori*, that the natural empurion of so great a river as the Indus, traversing many extensive countries, would cut so insignificant a figure in the trading world.

Navigation and Trade of the Indus.—The navigation of this magnificent river by the fleet of Alexander the Great, has conferred on it a classical celebrity not to be matched by any other river of the East. Its magnitude, too, is worthy of its fame. It may be navigated by flat-bottomed boats as far as Attock, and its tributary stream the Haveli is navigable to Lahore, both places being above 1,000 miles from the sea. But, unfortunately, its navigation is extremely difficult, and it may be doubted whether it will ever realize any considerable portion of the advantages which have of late years been anticipated from its being opened. The mouths of the river are ill-defined, shallow, and infected with moveable sand-banks, while the violence of the bore, or tide * makes their entrance at all times a matter of difficulty for vessels of the small draught of water suitable to their navigation, and during the period of the western monsoon they are all but impracticable. This, no doubt, is the reason that for centuries past the navigation from and to the sea through the delta of the Indus has been almost wholly abandoned; and that all products brought down the river and destined for exportation by sea are conveyed from Tatta overland to Curachee, a sea-port a little to the north of the most northerly mouth of the river, about 60 miles in a direct line from Tatta; and that all those coming from parts beyond sea and destined for countries on the Indus are conveyed from Curachee to Tatta by the same route.

Even after it has been entered, the navigation of the river is peculiarly difficult, partly from the strength of the current during the period of the inundation, and partly from shallows, and the sudden and constant shifting of the channel; what was a navigable passage one day is not unfrequently quite unnavigable a day or two after. The *dondoes*, or native craft, by which the river is navigated, though of very small burden, frequently get aground.

If the Indus should ever become a considerable commercial highway, it will, most probably, be brought about by the intervention of suitable steamers; and it seems to be the opinion of the best judges, that, provided the steamers employed be flat-bottomed, and do not draw more than 28 or 30 inches water, they might, with proper precautions, be navigated from the sea for nearly 1,000 miles inland. But, exclusive of the physical obstacles to the navigation of the river, the backward state of the country through which it flows, and the poverty and barbarism of the inhabitants, are formidable obstacles to its becoming of much importance as a commercial highway. The inhabitants along its banks have little taste for foreign commodities; and even if they had, they have few products suitable for export to exchange for them. No doubt, should regular government, industry, and civilisation be introduced into the Punjab, Caubul, and the contiguous countries, the case might be very different, and the trade of the Indus might become of very considerable importance. But this, if it be ever effected, must require a lengthened period to bring it about; so that those who look for any material addition being speedily made to our trade, or to that of India, by the opening of the Indus, will, there is too much reason to think, be entirely disappointed. (See,

* Whatever other changes may have taken place in the river, the tides at its mouth would seem to have been nearly the same in antiquity as at present. Their violence proved the greatest alarm to the fleet of Alexander; and occasioned, indeed, the loss of several vessels!—(*Strabo*, lib. vi. cap. 10.)

for further particulars, the art. *Indus* in the *Geographical Dictionary*, and the authorities there referred to; see also Captain Postan's work on *Sinde*; and especially the memoir in the appendix (p. 361.) of Captain Carless, *On the Navigation of the Indus.*

A very well-informed party, Dr. Buist, editor of the *Bombay Times*, has, in his work on the late expedition into Afghanistan, made the following observations on the trade of the Indus:—

"The glowing descriptions of Burnes appear to have given a very exaggerated idea of the value of the internal traffic of the countries beyond the Indus. It was forgotten that where there was no industry, no manufactures or mineral wealth, no sea-coast or rivers to permit exportation, there could be little or nothing to give in exchange for imports; and that the wants of a population purely nomadic must at all times be simple and singularly few. The whole of our commerce with Persia has never exceeded two millions sterling a year, rarely above one; the total of our trade with Afghanistan certainly never exceeded a million annually, and has very rarely amounted to much more than the half of one. Besides this, the Indus in reality was never closed save by its own dangerous entrances and shallow depth of water. Lord Ellenborough has opened the Indus as far as Mithen Kote; and the Butlej, in continuation of this, to the Markunda, where it ceases to be navigable for the smallest craft. Yet the gross value of the British goods consumed by the countries adjoining does not at present amount to a quarter of a million sterling, and will not in all likelihood be doubled for 10 years to come; the expenses of maintaining troops betwixt Kurrachee and Bukkur, both stations included, exceeding 600,000*l.* a year; with a less force it would be unwise to think of keeping these stations at all. The great line of traffic was not along but across the Indus, by the Delhi frontier, or parallel to it at a distance of 100 miles, by Sommeasee and Kelat. The countries beyond the Indus, besides, have always been open to the free admission of every variety of foreign imports on paying a moderate fixed duty. The chief obstructions in reaching these are irremediable by treaty; and arise from the attacks of the plundering tribes in the passes, which cannot be restrained save by the payment of a black mail or subsidy."

The delta of the Indus has little in common with the delta of the Nile, except its shape. Not a fourth part of it is cultivated, and its few inhabitants principally lead a pastoral life. It is overgrown with tamarisks and other wild shrubs; and though intersected by the numerous mouths of the river, its surface is dry and arid, and it is in a great degree destitute of fresh water.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in rupees, caricals, and picas; 18 picas = 1 carical; 50 caricals = 1 rupee. Covies are cured in *Sinde*, 48 covies = 1 pic. *Small Weights.*—24 Moons = 1 Ruttee. 8 Ruttees = 1 Massa. 15 Massas = 1 Tola. *Gross Weights.*—4 Pice = 1 Anna. 16 Annas = 1 Picea sew. 40 Sannas = 1 Maund, or 74 lbs. 5 oz.

Long Measure.—1 Garce = 2 inches. 16 Garces = 1 Guz; but 1 grs cloth = 24 inches at *Tatta*.

Groth Measure.—4 Putoos = 1 Twier. 2 Twiers = 1 Coosa. 60 Coosas = 1 Carral of wheat, or 32 Pucca maunds, or 21 Bombay maunds.

Diamonds and pearls are sold by *Rubbee* and *Ruttee*.—8 *Rubbees* = 1 *Ruttee*, about 2 grs. Troy.—(*Milburn's Oriental Commerce.*)

TEA (in one Chinese dialect *Cha*, in another *Te*; Du. *Te*; Fr. *Thé*; It. *Te*; Rus. *Tchai*; Hind. *Cha*; Malay, *Teh*), the leaves of the tea tree or shrub (*Thea viridis* Lin.).

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.

II. RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH TEA TRADE.—CONSUMPTION OF TEA.

III. EAST INDIA COMPANY'S MONOPOLY.—INFLUENCE OF, ON THE PRICE OF TEA—CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH IT WAS HELD—ABOLITION OF.

IV. DUTIES ON TEA.—CONSUMPTION OF, IN THE U. KINGDOM, THE CONTINENT, THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.

Description of the Plant.—*Places where it is cultivated.*—The tea plant ordinarily grows to the height of from 3 to 6 feet, and has a general resemblance to the myrtle, as the latter is seen in congenial situations in the southern countries of Europe. It is a polyandrous plant, of the natural order *Columnifera*, and has a white blossom, with yellow style and anthers, not unlike those of a small dog-rose. The stem is bushy, with numerous branches, and very leafy. The leaves are alternate, on short, thick, channelled footstalks, evergreen, of a longish elliptic form, with a blunt, notched point, and serrated except at the base. These leaves are the valuable part of the plant. The *Camellias*, particularly the *Camellia Sasanqua*, of the same natural family as the tea tree, and very closely resembling it, are the only plants liable to be confounded with it by a careful observer. The leaves of the particular camellia just named are, indeed, often used in some parts of China, as a substitute for those of the tea tree.

The effects of tea on the human frame are those of a very mild narcotic; and, like those of many other narcotics taken in small quantities, — even of opium itself, — they are exhilarating. The green varieties of the plant possess this quality in a higher degree than the black; and a stronger infusion of the former will, in most constitutions, produce considerable excitement and wakefulness. Of all narcotics, however, tea is the least pernicious; if, indeed, it be so in any degree, which we very much doubt.

The tea shrub may be described as a very hardy evergreen, growing readily in the open air, from the equator to the 45th degree of latitude. For the last 60 years it has been reared in this country, without difficulty, in greenhouses; and thriving plants of it

are to be seen in the gardens of Java, Singapore, Malacca, and Penang; all within 6 degrees of the equator. The climate most congenial to it, however, seems to be that between the 25th and 23d degrees of latitude, judging from the success of its cultivation in China. For the general purposes of commerce, the growth of good tea is confined to China; and is there restricted to 5 provinces, or rather parts of provinces, viz. Fokien and Canton, but more particularly the first, for black tea; and Kiang-nan, Kiang-si, and Che-kiang, but chiefly the first of these, for green. The tea districts all lie between the latitudes just mentioned, and the 115th and 123d degrees of East longitude. However, almost every province of China produces more or less tea, but generally of an inferior quality, and for local consumption only; or when of a superior quality, like some of the fine wines of France, losing its flavour when exported. The plant is also extensively cultivated in Japan, Tonquin, and Cochinchina; and in some of the mountainous parts of Ava; the people of which country use it largely as a kind of pickle preserved in oil!

Botanically considered, the tea tree is a single species; the green and black, with all the diversities of each, being mere varieties, like the varieties of the grape, produced by difference of climate, soil, locality, age of the crop when taken, and modes of preparation for the market. Considered as an object of agricultural produce, the tea plant bears a close resemblance to the vine. In the husbandry of China, it may be said to take the same place which the vine occupies in the southern countries of Europe. Like the latter, its growth is chiefly confined to hilly tracts, not suited to the growth of corn. The soils capable of producing the finest kinds are within given districts, limited, and partial. Skill and care, both in husbandry and preparation, are quite as necessary to the production of good tea, as to that of good wine.

The best wine is produced only in particular latitudes, as is the best tea; although, perhaps, the latter is not restricted to an equal degree. Only the most civilised nations of Europe have as yet succeeded in producing good wines; which is also the case in the East with tea; for the agricultural and manufacturing skill and industry of the Chinese are there unquestionably pre-eminent. These circumstances deserve to be attended to, in estimating the difficulties which must be encountered in any attempt to propagate the tea plant in colonial or other possessions. These difficulties are obviously very great; and, perhaps, all but insuperable. Most of the attempts hitherto made to raise it in foreign countries were not, indeed, of a sort from which much was to be expected. Within the last few years, however, considerable efforts have been made by the Dutch government of Java, to produce tea on the hills of that island; and having the assistance of Chinese cultivators from Fokien, who form a considerable part of the emigrants to Java, a degree of success has attended them, beyond what might have been expected in so warm a climate. The Brazilians have made similar efforts; having also, with the assistance of Chinese labourers, attempted to propagate the tea shrub near Rio de Janeiro; and a small quantity of tolerably good tea has been produced. But owing to the high price of labour in America, and the quantity required in the cultivation and manipulation of tea, there is no probability, even were the soil suitable to the plant, that its culture can be profitably carried on in that country.

It may, perhaps, succeed in Assam, where its culture is now being attempted; for labour is there comparatively cheap, and the hilly and table lands are said to bear a close resemblance to those of the tea districts of China; but we are not sanguine in our expectations as to the result.

Species of Tea. — *Manner in which they are manufactured.* — The black teas usually exported by Europeans from Canton are as follows, beginning with the lowest qualities: — Bohea, Congou, Souchong, and Pekoe. The green teas are Twankay, Hyson skin, young Hyson, Hyson, Imperial, and Gunpowder. All the black teas exported (with the exception of a part of the bohea, grown in Woping, a district of Canton) are grown in Fokien — a hilly, maritime, populous, and industrious province, bordering to the north-east on Canton. Owing to the peculiar nature of the Chinese laws as to inheritance, and probably, also, in some degree, to the despotic genius of the government, landed property is much subdivided throughout the empire; so that tea is generally grown in gardens or plantations of no great extent. The plant comes to maturity and yields a crop in from 2 to 3 years. The leaves are picked by the cultivator's family, and immediately conveyed to market; where a class of persons, who make it their particular business, purchase and collect them in quantities, and manufacture them in part; that is, expose them to be dried under a shed. A second class of persons, commonly known in the Canton market as "the tea merchants," repair to the districts where the tea is produced, and purchase it in its half-prepared state from the first class, and complete the manufacture by garbling the different qualities; in which operation, women and children are chiefly employed. A final drying is then given, and the tea packed in chests, and divided, according to quality, into parcels of from 100 to 600 chests each. These

parcels are stamped with the name of the district, grower, or manufacturer, exactly as is practised with the wines of Bordeaux and Burgundy, the indigo of Bengal, and many other commodities; and, from this circumstance, get the name of *chops*, the Chinese term for a seal or signet. Some of the leaf-buds of the finest black tea plants are picked early in the spring, before they expand. These constitute pekoe, or black tea of the highest quality; sometimes called "white-blossom" tea, from there being intermixed with it, to give it a higher perfume, a few blossoms of a species of olive (*Olea fragrans*), a native of China. A second crop is taken from the same plants in the beginning of May, a third about the middle of June, and a fourth in August; which last, consisting of large and old leaves, is of very inferior flavour and value. The younger the leaf, the more high flavoured, and consequently the more valuable, is the tea. With some of the congous and souchongs are occasionally mixed a little pekoe, to enhance their flavour; and hence the distinction, among the London tea dealers, of these sorts of tea, into the ordinary kinds and those of "Pekoe flavour." Bohea, or the lowest black tea, is partly composed of the lower grades; that is, of the fourth crop of the teas of Fokien, left unsold in the market of Canton after the season of exportation has passed; and partly of the teas of the district of Woping in Canton. The green teas are grown and selected in the same manner as the black, to which the description now given more particularly refers; and the different qualities arise from the same cause. The gunpowder here stands in the place of the pekoe; being composed of the unopened buds of the spring crop. Imperial, hyson, and young hyson, consist of the second and third crops. The light and inferior leaves, separated from the hyson by a winnowing machine, constitute hyson skin, an article in considerable demand amongst the Americans. The process of drying the green teas differs from that of the black; the first being dried in iron pots or vases over a fire, the operator continually stirring the leaves with his naked hand. The operation is one of considerable nicety, particularly with the finer teas; and is performed by persons who make it their exclusive business.

Tea Trade in China.—The tea merchants commonly receive advances from the principal merchants and other capitalists of Canton; but, with this exception, are altogether independent of them; nor have the latter any exclusive privilege or claim of pre-emption. They are very numerous; those connected with the green tea districts alone being about 400 in number. The black tea merchants are less numerous but more wealthy. The greater part of the tea is brought to Canton by land carriage or inland navigation, but chiefly by the first: it is conveyed by porters; the roads of China, in the southern provinces, not generally admitting of wheel carriages, and beasts of burden being very rare. A small quantity of black tea is brought by sea, but probably smuggled; for this cheaper mode of transportation is discouraged by government, which it deprives of the transit duties levied on inland carriage. The length of land carriage from the principal districts where the green teas are grown to Canton is probably not less than 700 miles; nor that of the black tea, over a mountainous country, less than 200 miles. The tea merchants begin to arrive in Canton about the middle of October, and the busy season continues until the beginning of March; being briskest in November, December, and January. Tea, for the most part, could, previously to the late changes, only be bought from the Hong or licensed merchants; but some of these, the least prosperous in their circumstances, were supported by wealthy *outside* merchants, as they are called; and thus the trade was considerably extended. The prices in the Canton market vary from year to year with the crop, the stock on hand, and the external demand, as in any other article, and in any other market. After the season is over, or when the westerly monsoon sets in, during the month of March, and impedes the regular intercourse of foreigners with China, there is a fall in the price of tea, not only arising from this circumstance, but from a certain depreciation in quality, from the age of the tea; which, like most other vegetable productions, is injured by keeping, particularly in a hot and damp climate.

Foreign Trade in Tea.—There seems to be little mystery in the selection and purchase of teas; for the business is both safely and effectively accomplished, not only by the supercargoes of the American ships, but frequently by the masters; and it was ascertained by the sales at the East India House, that there was no difference between the qualities of the teas purchased by the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, without any assistance from the officers of the factory, and those purchased for the Company by the latter. An unusual degree of good faith, indeed, appears to be observed, on the part of the Chinese merchants, with respect to this commodity; for it was proved before the select committee of the House of Commons, in 1830, that it was the regular practice of the Hong merchants to receive back, and return good tea for, any chest or parcel upon which any fraud might have been practised, which sometimes happens in the conveyance of the teas from Canton on board ship. Such restitution has occasionally been made even at the distance of 1 or 2 years. The Company enjoyed no advantage over other purchasers in the Canton market, except that which the largest

reduction of the duty, the entries of tea for consumption amounted to about 1,800,000 lbs., being nearly three times as much as they had amounted to in the last year of the high duties; and the increase in the second and third years of the new system was also most striking. But to set the operation of this well-considered measure in the clearest point of view, we subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Tea entered for Consumption, and of the Produce of the Excise and Customs Duties thereon during each of the Five Years preceding, and subsequent to Midsummer, 1784, when the Excise Duty on Tea was reduced from 4s. to 3s. per lb. (McCulloch on Taxation, p. 332.)

Years.			Years.		
Quantity.		Duties.	Quantity.		Duties.
Lbs.	£	s.	Lbs.	£	s.
1774	960,700	800,799	0	1,800,000	230,400
1775	826,900	120,655	10	1,000,000	256,000
1776	777,500	181,761	10	9,500,000	358,800
1777	708,500	181,458	0	2,700,000	372,800
1778	680,000	141,360	0	2,700,000	372,800
Totals.			Totals.		
8,848,800			11,800,000		
1,585,119			1,580,400		
Average of 5 years.			Average of 5 years.		
788,960			2,360,000		
175,222			316,080		

But notwithstanding this unanswerable demonstration of the superior productiveness of low duties, they were again increased in 1759; and fluctuated, between that epoch and 1784, from about 65 to 120 per cent. *ad valorem*. The effects which followed this inordinate extension of the duties are equally instructive with those which followed their reduction. The revenue was not increased in anything like a corresponding proportion; and as the use of tea had become comparatively general, smuggling was carried to an infinitely greater extent than at any former period. In the nine years preceding 1780, above 118 millions lbs. of tea were exported from China to Europe in ships belonging to the continent, and about 50 millions lbs. in ships belonging to England. But from the best information attainable, it appears that the real consumption was almost exactly the reverse of the quantities imported; and that while the consumption of the British dominions amounted to above 13 millions lbs. a-year, the consumption of the continent did not exceed 5½ millions. If this statement be nearly correct, it follows that an annual supply of about eight millions lbs. must have been clandestinely imported into this country, in defiance of the revenue laws. But this was not the worst effect of the high duties; for many of the retail dealers who purchased tea at the East India Company's sales, being in a great measure beaten out of the market, were, that they might put themselves in a condition to stand the competition of the smugglers, tempted to adulterate their teas by mixing them with sloe and ash leaves. At length, in 1784, ministers, having in vain tried every other resource for the suppression of smuggling, resolved to follow the precedent of 1745, and reduced the duty on tea from 11s to 12½ per cent. This measure was as successful as the former: smuggling and the practice of adulteration were immediately put an end to. The following statement shows that the quantity of tea sold by the East India Company was about trebled in the course of the two years immediately following the reduction.

	Lbs.
In 1781 the quantity of tea sold at the East India Company's sales amounted to	5,023,419
1782	6,283,664
1783	5,857,883
1784 (duties reduced)	10,148,357
1785	16,307,438
1786	18,568,852
1787	16,692,426½

While the quantity of tea sold at the Company's sales was thus rapidly augmented, in consequence of the reduction of the duty, the quantity of tea imported into the continent from China, which had, in 1784, amounted to 19,027,300 lbs. declined with still greater rapidity, and, in 1791, was reduced to only 2,291,500 lbs. ¶

The duties on tea, at an average of the 5 or 6 years preceding 1784, produced about 700,000*l.* a-year. And, on their being reduced to 12½ per cent, an additional duty, estimated to produce 600,000*l.*, was laid on windows, as a commutation tax, to compensate for the deficiency which it was supposed would take place in the revenue derived from tea. But, instead of the duties falling off in the proportion of 11s to 12½, or from 700,000*l.* to 73,000*l.*, they only fall off, in consequence of the increased consumption, in the proportion of about two to one, or from 700,000*l.* to 340,000*l.* The Commutation Act has been always regarded as one of the most successful financial measures of Mr. Pitt's administration. The plan was generally understood at the time to have been suggested by Mr. Richardson, accountant-general of the East India Company; but the popularity of the measure was so great as to induce several other individuals to claim this honour, and even to occasion some hot disputes on the subject

¶ In 1748, 8 per cent was added to the customs duty on dry goods; but its influence on tea was next to inappreciable.

¶ In 1745 the entries increased to 3,000,000 lbs. Milburn's "Oriental Commerce," vol. ii. p. 540.
 Macpherson's "Commerce with India," p. 208. ¶ Ibid, p. 210
 Macpherson's "Commerce with India," p. 416.

in the House of Commons. In point of fact, however, the merit of originally suggesting the plan neither belonged to Mr. Richardson, nor to any of those who then claimed it; and such of our readers as will take the trouble to look into a pamphlet ascribed to Sir Matthew Deaker ("Serious Considerations on the present High Duties"), published in 1743, will find that the measure adopted in 1784 had been strenuously recommended 40 years before.

But the principle of the Commutation Act, and the striking advantage that had resulted from the reduction of the duty, were soon lost sight of. In 1793 the duty was increased to 25 per cent; and, after successive augmentations in 1797, 1798, 1800, and 1803, it was raised, in 1806, to 96 per cent., *ad valorem*, at which it continued till 1819, when it was raised to 100 per cent. on all teas that brought above 2s. per lb. at the Company's sales.

The following statements show the progress of the consumption of tea in this country from a very remote epoch down to the present time:—

Account of the Quantity of Tea retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1789 to 1838, and of the Quantity that paid Duty for Home Consumption in Ireland from 1789 to 1827; specifying the Nett Produce of the Duties in each Country, and the Rates of Duty.

Years.	Great Britain.			Ireland.					
	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty.	Rates of Duty.	Quantity charged with Duty for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty. (British Currency.)	Rates of Duty.			
	Lbs.	£ s. d.		Lbs.	£ s. d.	Black Tea.	Green Tea.	Opium.	Other.
1789	14,334,601	669,038 14 5	12l. 10s. per cent.	1,270,898	38,058 14 3	4d. per lb.	5d. per lb.		
1790	14,998,999	847,250 4 8	—	1,736,795	53,138 12 2	ditto	ditto		
1791	15,096,940	607,439 8 4	—	1,994,777	45,283 12 4	1/4d. per lb.	6d. per lb.		
1792	15,972,045	616,775 6 9	—	1,944,538	55,110 0 8	ditto	ditto		
1793	15,844,331	616,916 3 8	—	2,144,753	59,874 8 6	ditto	ditto		
1794	15,647,963	629,081 8 5	—	2,041,430	63,809 8 2	ditto	ditto		
1795	16,394,379	685,108 5 9	90l. per cent.	2,970,701	84,083 16 10	ditto	ditto		
1796	16,006,992	817,042 13 0	—	2,926,506	46,653 11 9	ditto	ditto		
1797	16,568,041	1,028,080 9 7	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 25l. per cent.	2,498,254	60,817 8 5	ditto	ditto		
1798	19,566,554	1,111,898 0 1	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 35l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent.	3,935,840	103,016 5 5	ditto	ditto		
1799	19,906,510	1,176,861 0 9	—	4,875,717	101,737 11 0	5/4d. per lb.	7d. per lb.		
1800	20,538,709	1,158,262 0 0	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 40l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent.	4,926,166	69,884 17 7	ditto	ditto		
1801	20,237,753	1,387,808 2 6	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 50l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent.	3,499,801	135,858 3 4	Sold as or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 40l. per cent.	Sold under 2s. 6d. per lb. 30l. per cent.		
1802	21,148,845	1,450,282 7 9	—	3,576,775	189,214 17 7	28l. 10s.—	23l. 10s.—		
1803	21,647,923	1,757,257 18 4	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 55l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 50l. per cent.	3,359,937	179,555 15 6	ditto	ditto		
1804	18,071,904	2,248,004 4 8	—	3,357,122	251,751 8 9	11l. 11s.—	51l. 14s.—		
1805	18,025,880	2,925,228 17 6	{ At or above 2s. 6d. per lb. 60l. per cent. Under 2s. 6d. per lb. 55l. per cent.	3,862,714	311,933 1 4	ditto	ditto		
1806	20,555,088	3,098,498 13 2	On all teas 90l. per cent.	4,611,458	348,219 7 2	ditto	71l. 14s.—		
1807	19,239,212	3,043,224 11 3	—	5,555,129	470,949 4 3	ditto	ditto		
1808	20,839,929	3,370,610 10 11	—	5,758,459	527,186 11 6	ditto	ditto		
1809	19,969,134	3,150,616 14 9	—	5,591,663	469,088 12 5	ditto	ditto		
1810	19,063,844	3,312,430 1 1	—	6,993,568	435,307 10 2	93l. per cent. ad val.	ditto		
1811	20,702,809	3,849,294 0 9	—	5,517,384	509,616 18 11	ditto	ditto		
1812	20,016,521	3,328,783 8 9	—	5,708,409	527,186 11 6	ditto	ditto		
1813	20,443,226	—	(Customs records destroyed.)	—	—	—	—		
1814	19,124,154	3,498,236 6 4	—	5,587,012	529,818 7 11	96l. per cent. ad valorem, and henceforth the same as in Great Britain.	—		
1815	24,378,345	5,596,290 18 3	—	5,498,775	531,200 15 8	—	—		
1816	20,448,144	3,826,719 0 5	—	5,990,589	405,777 16 3	—	—		
1817	20,839,926	3,603,630 18 7	—	5,141,035	447,713 7 3	—	—		
1818	24,660,177	5,269,588 10 1	—	5,569,431	510,105 6 6	—	—		
1819	22,631,467	8,256,435 18 10	{ At or under 2s. per lb. 96l. per cent. Above 2s. per lb. 100l. per cent.	3,838,496	483,371 11 6	—	—		
1820	22,429,030	3,129,449 17 0	—	5,150,546	399,742 6 4	—	—		
1821	22,692,913	3,273,648 17 8	—	5,488,950	469,819 15 8	—	—		
1822	23,011,884	3,434,259 19 10	—	6,816,966	511,299 2 9	—	—		
1823	23,793,470	3,407,983 1 8	—	5,367,710	440,189 4 11	—	—		
1824	23,794,338	3,490,203 11 11	—	5,587,510	445,371 13 11	—	—		
1825	24,330,015	3,287,944 4 11	—	6,889,836	508,074 15 4	—	—		
1826	25,329,067	3,991,913 19 5	—	5,807,765	446,229 8 1	—	—		
1827	26,045,728	3,885,806 19 3	—	5,857,955	446,229 8 1	—	—		
1828	26,780,481	3,177,179 8 0	—	—	—	—	—		
1829	29,495,199	3,321,732 2 8	—	—	—	—	—		
1830	34,187,079	3,387,067 18 9	—	—	—	—	—		
1831	30,997,100	3,444,913 12 9	—	—	—	—	—		
1832	31,248,409	3,509,831 13 7	—	—	—	—	—		

* This amount includes all tea shipped to Ireland for consumption in that country subsequently to the passing of the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 41.

An Account of the Quantities of Tea Imported into the United Kingdom during each of the Twelve Years ending with 1844; specifying the Quantities re-exported, the Quantities actually entered for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty, and the annual Produce of the Duties.

Years.	Quantities Imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities re-exported from the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	
1833	30,007,839	254,460	31,539,680	3,464,108	If sold at or under 2s. per lb., 90t. per centum ad valorem. At or above 2s. per lb., 100t. ditto. Bosha, 1t. 6d. per lb.; Congou, Tamsay, Hyson Skin, Orange Pekoe, and Camphor, 2s. 6d. per lb.; all other sorts, 3s. per lb. (from 1st of April).
1834	33,843,980	1,181,003	34,968,261	3,569,261	
1835	44,280,550	3,128,028	46,274,004	3,838,427	All sorts, 2s. 12d. per lb. (from 1st July).
1836	49,207,701	4,869,868	49,444,238	4,674,358	
1837	36,975,981	4,716,848	30,685,806	3,485,840	All sorts, 2s. 12d. per lb. (from 1st July).
1838	40,418,714	9,277,877	36,501,263	3,569,033	
1839	38,138,008	3,918,918	36,127,897	3,636,808	M. per cent. additional thereon from 15th May.
1840	38,011,888	3,385,384	38,239,828	3,479,884	
1841	30,787,796	4,490,863	36,875,567	3,875,568	
1842	40,749,128	8,710,127	37,353,921	4,088,937	
1843	46,811,737	4,984,141	40,857,289	4,407,648	
1844	52,147,078	6,239,897	41,263,720	4,226,183	

Account of the Quantity of Tea remaining for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1711 to 1786, obtained by deducting the Quantity exported from the Quantity sold at the Company's Sales.

Years.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	
1711	141,999	1141	890,700	1705	4,906,546	1782	4,186,851
1712	180,249	1140	890,000	1710	5,715,358	1783	3,081,018
1720	237,904	1750	2,700,000	1715	6,475,498	1784	3,708,413
1735	286,494	1765	2,788,136	1780	5,888,810	1785	13,180,710
1750	387,016	1760	2,895,515	1781	5,078,499	1786	13,983,506

N. B.—We have made up this account from the accounts given in *Milburn's Oriental Commerce* (vol. II, p. 384.), and *Forster's* Dictionary, Art. *Tea*. There is an account, furnished by the Excise, of the quantities of tea retained for home consumption from 1738 to 1839, in the *Appendix to the First Report of the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry*. It, however, involves some very material errors. Thus, it represents the consumption from 1768 to 1774, both inclusive, as under 200,000 lbs. a year, at the same time that it makes the consumption, in the immediately preceding and subsequent years, above 4,000,000 lbs. A statement of this sort is obviously inaccurate; and yet it is not accompanied by a single remark or explanation of any sort.

A Return of the Quantities and Prices of the several Sorts of Tea sold by the East India Company, in each Year during the present Charter (1st of May to 1st of May).

Years.	Bosha.		Congou.		Camph.		Seuchong.		Pekoe.	
	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.
1814-15	237,904	2	1,893,540	3	2,555	1,002,000	3	4,671	1,520,033	3
1815-16	839,198	2	17,808,247	3	11,024	835,307	3	4	984,816	3
1816-17	1,397,870	2	16,835,681	3	10,819	985,550	3	1	1,828,138	3
1817-18	979,732	2	15,736,003	3	11,822	865,304	3	2	1,018,038	3
1818-19	1,441,636	2	18,441,066	3	11,922	258,821	3	4	1,185,031	3
1819-20	1,497,829	1	17,664,455	2	7,911	479,081	3	8	1,189,605	3
1820-21	1,622,327	1	16,235,258	2	7,311	319,775	3	6	1,255,496	3
1821-22	2,583,486	1	17,849,982	2	8,959	121,293	3	7	1,397,931	3
1822-23	1,715,881	2	16,897,846	2	7,988	365,063	3	3	1,156,668	3
1823-24	1,835,994	2	19,008,594	2	9,016	315,526	3	6	1,228,986	3
1824-25	2,028,272	2	20,598,938	2	7,990	327,722	3	9	1,473,478	3
1825-26	2,715,212	2	21,034,655	2	6,775	267,377	3	1	1,647,188	3
1826-27	2,688,124	1	20,472,923	2	4,773	166,701	3	9	1,675,395	3
1827-28	3,759,199	1	19,380,592	2	3,985	299,246	3	9	1,449,123	3
1828-29	4,173,811	1	20,449,073	2	3,988	281,137	3	9	1,611,739	3
1829-30	4,545,822	1	18,402,118	2	3,988	474,735	3	2	1,698,819	3
1830-31	5,096,153	1	17,837,309	2	3,815	431,456	3	3	1,971,061	3
1831-32	5,475,333	1	17,750,327	2	3,777	373,989	3	3	1,647,739	3

Years.	Tamsay.		Hyson Skin.		Young Hyson.		Hyson ^a .		Gunpowder.		
	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	
1814-15	5,646,048	2	735,807	3	9,957	-	-	1,008,948	3	9,115	
1815-16	7,784,668	3	708,080	3	5,282	-	-	1,009,325	3	6,775	
1816-17	5,239,810	3	654,470	3	0,776	-	-	862,890	4	11,821	
1817-18	7,783,183	3	631,304	3	1,197	-	-	939,452	4	10,364	
1818-19	4,730,897	3	858,858	3	2,778	-	-	909,237	4	11,188	
1819-20	4,358,544	3	161,915	3	4,438	-	-	750,518	5	6,066	
1820-21	4,900,781	3	845,305	3	0,984	-	-	799,429	6	9,094	
1821-22	4,401,778	3	235,656	3	1,989	-	-	1,044,236	4	9,253	
1822-23	4,185,668	3	825,395	3	0,999	-	-	1,116,478	5	10,778	
1823-24	3,907,206	3	259,809	3	772	-	-	990,153	4	2,283	
1824-25	3,754,190	3	324,897	3	2,299	9,055	4	2,698	945,268	4	3,941
1825-26	3,758,406	3	329,061	3	4,437	-	-	828,009	4	8,538	
1826-27	4,424,263	3	328,960	3	2,291	51,421	4	0,775	801,724	4	9,778
1827-28	3,297,872	3	349,513	3	7,719	-	-	1,013,771	4	2,528	
1828-29	4,011,845	3	315,328	3	3,784	-	-	1,014,329	4	1,715	
1829-30	3,828,143	3	328,012	3	4,460	-	-	1,071,278	4	1,440	
1830-31	4,069,502	3	186,791	3	6,739	-	-	1,017,748	4	1,861	
1831-32	4,428,328	3	165,308	3	6,774	1,065	6	6,871	1,218,728	3	10,321

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III. EAST INDIA COMPANY'S MONOPOLY — INFLUENCE OF, ON THE PRICE OF TEA — CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH IT WAS HELD — ABOLITION OF.

From its origin down to 1834, the trade in tea was monopolised by the East India Company. Considerable quantities of tea were, indeed, at different times, smuggled into the country; but no British subject, not authorised by the Company, was ever allowed openly to import tea. Being thus the *only sellers*, they had it in their power, by limiting the quantity brought to market, to raise its price above its natural elevation, and to realise immense profits at the expense of the public. They might, no doubt, have declined availing themselves of this power; but no such forbearance could be rationally expected from the Company, or from any other body of men. All individuals and associations exert themselves to obtain the highest price for whatever they have to sell; and it is found that those who are protected from the competition of others, or who have obtained a monopoly of any market, invariably raise the price of their commodities to a very high pitch. The East India Company did this, probably, to a less extent than most other bodies that have enjoyed such exclusive privileges. Still, however, it is an undoubted fact, that the teas sold by them during the last years of the monopoly cost the people of Britain upwards of 1,500,000*l.* a year more than they would have cost had they been sold at the price at which teas of equal quality were sold, under a system of free competition, in New York, Hamburg, Amsterdam, &c. 1 — (For proofs of this statement, see 1st edition of this *Dictionary*, p. 1031.)

The legislature endeavoured, at different periods, to prevent the Company from abusing their monopoly, by enacting regulations as to the sale of tea; and though no longer of any practical importance, it may be worth while briefly to notice some of the more important, and the means by which they were defeated. In 1745, for example, when the great deduction was made from the amount of the tea duties, it was enacted, by a statute passed in that year (18 Geo. 2. c. 26.), in order to prevent the Company from depriving the public of the benefit of this reduction, that in case the tea imported by the East India Company shall not always be sufficient to answer the consumption thereof in Great Britain, and to keep the price of tea in this country upon an equality with the price thereof in the neighbouring Continent of Europe, it shall be lawful for the said Company, and their successors, to import into Great Britain such quantities of tea as they shall think necessary from any part of Europe: and by another section of the same statute, it is enacted, that if the East India Company shall, at any time, neglect to keep the British market supplied with a sufficient quantity of tea at reasonable prices, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury to grant licences to any other person or persons, body politic or corporate, to import tea into Great Britain from any part of Europe.

Had this statute been enforced, it would certainly have restrained the demands of the Company within reasonable limits; but it was very soon forgotten, and the Company continued, as before, to sell their teas at an enormous advance as compared with their prices in Hamburg and Amsterdam.

The same well-founded jealousy, which dictated the act of 1745, was again displayed in the proceedings at the reduction of the duties in 1784. It was then enacted (24 Geo. 3. c. 38.), that the East India Company should make 4 sales of tea every year, as near as conveniently may be at equal distances of time from each other, and should put up at such sales such quantities of tea as may be judged sufficient to supply the demand; and at each sale the tea to be put up shall be sold without reserve to the highest bidders, provided an advance of 1*d.* per pound be bid upon the price at which the same is put up. By another clause it was enacted, that it should not be lawful for the East India Company "to put up their teas for sale at any price which shall, upon the whole of the teas so put up at any sale, exceed the prime cost thereof, with the freight and charges of importation, together with lawful interest from the time of arrival of such teas in Great Britain, and the common premium of insurance as a compensation for the sea risk incurred thereon." The Company were further ordered to keep a stock, equal to at least 1 year's consumption, according to the sales of the preceding year, always beforehand. And they were bound to lay before the Lords of the Treasury, copies of the accounts and estimates upon which their orders for importation, prices for sale, and quantities put up to sale, should be grounded.

The object of these conditions is obvious. They were intended to secure a plentiful supply of tea to the public, and to prevent its being sold at an oppressive increase of price. But monopoly and low prices are altogether incompatible. The conditions now referred to were, as to all practicable purposes at least, quite inoperative.

1. In the first place, the Company made various additions to the prime cost, and consequently to the putting up price of their tea, which they ought not to have made, but which the Lords of the Treasury, had they been so disposed, could hardly disallow. They always, for example, charged the cost of the factory at Canton to the price of tea. This establishment consisted of about 20 persons, and cost at an average about 100,000*l.*

a year! We do not presume to say that it was altogether useless. Undoubtedly, however, it might have been conducted at half the expense. It is a fact, that the whole American business at Canton has been transacted by the captains of the ships; and every one knows that they have had fewer disturbances with the natives than the English.

2. In the second place, it was established by the evidence taken before the select committee of 1830, that the Company had for many years thrown the whole losses arising from their outward investment upon tea, by estimating the value of the tael, or Chinese money in which the accounts are kept, at the price which it cost for the purpose of being vested in tea. This was a complete evasion of the provisions of the statute; but it was one which it was very difficult, if not impossible, to defeat.

3. In the third place, the obligation imposed on the Company, of keeping a year's supply of tea in their warehouses, contributed both to raise its price, and deteriorate its quality. From a return made to an order of the select committee of the House of Commons in 1830 (*First Report*, App. p. 93.), it appears that the shortest time any tea sold by the Company had been in store was 14 months; and that, at an average, all the teas sold during the 3 years ending with 1829 had been 17 months in store. But, according to the evidence of the most respectable American witnesses, the black and coarser kinds of tea are depreciated at least 3 per cent. by being kept a twelvemonth, and are, indeed, hardly saleable after the arrival of fresh teas from China. Adding, therefore, warehouse rent, interest of capital, and insurance for 17 months, to the deterioration in point of quality, we may estimate the loss to the public, by this well-meant but most injudicious interference of the legislature, at 15 per cent. upon the price of all the teas sold.

4. In the fourth place, it is obvious, even supposing the prime cost of the Company's teas had not been improperly enhanced, that the regulation obliging them to be sold at an advance of 1d. per lb. if offered, on the putting-up price, could not be otherwise than nugatory. Had the trade been open, private merchants would have undersold each other, until the price of tea, like that of sugar or coffee, had been reduced to the very lowest point that would yield the sellers the customary rate of profit. But the Company was in an entirely different situation. Being the *only sellers*, they invariably *understocked* the market. Instead of bringing forward such quantities of tea as might have occasioned its sale at a small advance upon the upset price, they adjusted the supply so that the price was raised to a much higher elevation. Now, it will be observed, that all that this system of management put into the Company's coffers consisted of *extra profit*; for the putting-up price embraced every item that could fairly enter into the cost of the tea, including both *interest* on capital and insurance, and including also, as we have seen, several items that had but little to do with it. To show the extent to which this source of profit was cultivated, we may mention, that at the June sale in 1830, the Company put up congou at 1s. 8d. and 2s. 1d. per lb.; the lowest sort, or that put up at 1s. 8d., being sold partly at 2s. 1½d., being an advance of *twenty-two and half* per cent., and partly at 2s. 5d., being an advance of *seventy-five* per cent.; while the highest sort, or that put up at 2s. 1d., was sold partly at 2s. 2d., being an advance of *four* per cent., and partly at 2s. 7d., being an advance of no less than *seventy-two* per cent. above the upset price; that is, above a price calculated to yield *ordinary profits*. Mr. Mills, an intelligent tea merchant, in a paper laid before the committee of the House of Lords on East India affairs, showed, that the advance on teas sold at the Company's June sale in 1830, above the putting-up price, amounted to 123,177l. 18s. 1d.; and as there are 4 such sales in the year, the total advance must have been about 500,000l.; and this was considerably under what it had been a few years previously.

These statements show generally how the Company defeated the provisions of the act of 1784, and, indeed, turned them to its own advantage. But, as already observed, nothing else could be expected. It is nugatory to attempt to combine monopoly with low prices and good qualities. They never have existed, and it is not possible they ever should exist, together. Monopoly is the parent of dearness and scarcity; freedom, of cheapness and plenty.

Great, however, as was the sacrifice entailed on the people of Britain by the Company's monopoly, it is doubtful whether it yielded any considerable amount of revenue to the Company. Every one, indeed, must be satisfied, on general grounds, that it was impossible for the Company to make anything like the same profits by the privileges conceded to them, that would have been made by private individuals enjoying similar advantages. "The spirit of monopolists," to borrow the just and expressive language of Gibbon, "is narrow, lazy, and oppressive. Their work is more costly and less productive than that of independent artists; and the new improvements so eagerly grasped by the competition of freedom, are admitted with slow and sullen reluctance, in those proud corporations above the fear of a rival, and below the confession of an error." We have no doubt that the directors of the East India Company were disposed to extend

its commerce, and to manage it according to the most approved principles, but they were wholly without the means of giving effect to their wishes. They had to operate through servants; and is it to be imagined that the employes of such bodies will ever display that watchful attention to their interests, or conduct the business intrusted to their care with the unparing economy practised by private merchants trading on their own account, superintending their own concerns, and responsible in their own private fortunes for every error they may commit? The affairs of the Company, notwithstanding the efforts of the directors to introduce activity and economy, have always been managed according to a system of routine. Their captains and mercantile agents were, we doubt not, "all honourable men;" but it were an insult to common sense to suppose that they may be compared for a moment with individuals trading on their own account, in the great requisites of seal, conduct, and skill.

Several gentlemen of great knowledge and experience, who carefully inquired into the state of the Company's affairs in 1830, expressed their decided conviction that they made nothing by the tea trade! — the increased price at which they sold the article not being more than sufficient to balance the immense expenses incident to the monopoly! Perhaps this statement may be somewhat exaggerated, though we incline to think it is not far from the mark. Taking, however, the accounts laid by the Company before the late committee on Indian affairs, as they stand, it would appear that the profits realised by them during the 3 years ending with 1827-28 amounted to 2,549,569*l.*, being at the rate of 847,523*l.* a year. — (*Appen. to Second Report of Select Committee of 1810, p. 93.*) But we have already seen that the excess of price received by the Company for their teas, over the price of similar teas sold at New York and Hamburg, has been above 1,500,000*l.* a year; so that, according to the Company's own showing, their monopoly occasioned an *absolute loss of 652,477*l.**, exclusive of its mischievous influence in lessening the consumption of tea, and in confining our trade with China to less than a third of what it will probably amount to under a system giving free scope to the energies of individual enterprise.

The renewal of a monopoly productive of such results was, therefore, wholly out of the question. There was hardly, indeed, in 1833, an individual in the empire out of the pale of the Company who was not anxious for the opening of the trade to China; and the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 85. — (see *ante*, p. 329.) — abolishing the Company's monopoly, and making it lawful for all individuals to import tea, was passed with almost no opposition.

IV. DUTIES ON TEA. — CONSUMPTION OF TEA IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, THE CONTINENT, THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

Down to the 22d of April, 1834, the duty on tea was an *ad valorem* one of 96 per cent. on all teas sold under 2*s.* a pound, and of 100 per cent. on all that were sold at or above 2*s.* charged on the prices which they brought at the Company's sales. This was, certainly, a high duty; though, as a large amount of revenue must be raised, we do not know, had the trade been free, that it could have been fairly objected to on that ground. But under the monopoly system, the duty was, in fact, about 200 per cent. *ad valorem*! For, the price of the tea sold by the Company being forced up to nearly double what it would have been under a free system, it followed, inasmuch as the duty varied directly as the price, that it also was doubled when the latter was doubled. The price of congou in Hamburg, for example, varied, during the latter years of the monopoly, from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per lb.; and had the Company supplied our markets with congou at the same rate, it would have cost us, duty included, nearly 2*s.* 4*d.* and 2*s.* 8*d.* per lb. But instead of this, the congou sold by the Company was, at an average, a good deal above 2*s.* per lb.; and, the duty being as much, it invariably cost from 4*s.* to 5*s.* per lb. Hence, though the duty was only 100 per cent. on the Company's price, it was really above 200 per cent. on the price of tea in an open market! The mischief of the monopoly was thus greatly aggravated; inasmuch as every addition made by it to the cost of the article, made an equal addition to the duty on it.

The *ad valorem* duties ceased on the 22d of April, 1834; and, under the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101. all tea imported into the U. Kingdom for home consumption was charged with a customs duty as follows: —

Bohea	1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i> per lb.
Congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and rampol	2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>
Souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial,	2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
and other teas not enumerated	2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>

If we compare these duties with the wholesale prices of tea, they will be seen to have been exceedingly heavy, particularly on bohea and congou. Bohea may be sold, exclusive of duty, at or under 1*s.* per lb.; so that the fixed duty was equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 150 per cent.! But to impose such a duty on an article fitted to enter largely into the consumption of the lower classes, seems to be in the last degree oppres-

sive, and, indeed, absurd. It went far to neutralise the beneficial effects that would otherwise have resulted from the abolition of the monopoly; and by confining the consumption of the article within comparatively narrow bounds, rendered the duty less productive than it would have been had it been lower. Nothing can be more injurious, both in a commercial and financial point of view, than the imposition of oppressive duties on articles, the consumption of which would be materially extended by a fall of price; and that such is the case with bohea, is beyond all question. The Company, by reducing its sale price from about 2s. 6d. to 1s. 10½d. per lb. (which was, of course, accompanied by a corresponding reduction of duty) increased the consumption from 1,875,881 lbs. in 1822-23, to 6,474,838 lbs. in 1831-32. Here we have the consumption more than trebled by a fall of about 1s. 3d. per lb. And there can be no doubt that a still further fall, by bringing the article fairly within the command of a greater number of consumers, would have extended the demand for it in a still greater degree.

We regret, however, to have to state that in consequence of the complaints of the importers of tea that the discriminating duties were not fairly assessed, and that teas were sometimes charged at 2s. 2d. or 3s. per lb. that should only have paid 1s. 6d., the duty was repealed in about two years, by the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 32., which enacted that an equal duty of 2s. 1d. per lb. should be charged, after the 1st of July 1836, on all teas entered for consumption in the U. Kingdom.

We incline to think that this is the most objectionable duty in the English tariff. We do not, indeed, deny that the impossibility of fairly assessing a discriminating duty may justify its abandonment in this or any other case. But, seeing that the quality and price of small beer do not differ more from those of strong ale than the quality and price of some sorts of teas differ from those of others, the impossibility of levying discriminating duties must be clearly established to justify a measure so obviously oppressive as the imposing of the same duty on articles which differ so very widely. It is probably true that the statements as to the unfair operation of the discriminating duty were, to a considerable extent, well-founded; and every reasonable person might have anticipated that difficulties would have to be encountered at the outset of the new system. We believe, however, that these were grossly exaggerated; and it is all but certain that a little change in the arrangement of the duties, and additional experience, would have gone far to obviate the inconveniences in question. But government, influenced partly by a wish to get rid of the clamour and outcry raised by the importers, and partly, perhaps, by a doubt whether the duties could ever be fairly collected, unfortunately consented to their abolition, and imposed in their stead the equal duty of 2s. 1d. per lb. specified above.

There can, however, be no manner of doubt that the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 32., repealing the *ad valorem*, and imposing the equal duty, was introduced without due consideration, and that it has been and is most hostile to the public interests. The only considerable difficulty that had to be incurred in assessing the discriminating duties consisted in distinguishing between bohea and congou. But, to obviate this difficulty, it was not necessary to interfere with the duties on other teas; and had the duty on bohea and congou been fixed at the same reasonable amount of 10d. or 1s. per lb., and the duties on other descriptions of teas been allowed to remain as before, the grievance complained of by the importers would have been sufficiently redressed, at the same time that a vast boon would have been conferred on the public.

Tea, in this country, is not a luxury, but a necessary of life, which is decidedly more indispensable to the poor than the rich. Bohea and the lower congou may also be said to be the teas of the former; and, even under the old monopoly system, as many as from 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 lbs. bohea have been sold for consumption in a single year. If we take the average price of bohea in bond in London at 10d. or 1s. per lb., it is seen that the duty we have ventured to suggest would be equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 100 per cent., which is as high, certainly, as any duty on a necessary consumed by the poor should be. But, even with a duty of this amount, bohea might be retailed for 2s. or 2s. 4d. per lb.; and, at this price, there can be no question the consumption would amount to several millions of pounds. The reduction of the duty on congou to 1s. per lb. would, also, be of the greatest importance to the lower and middle classes; and the stimulus it would give to consumption makes it all but certain that in no very lengthened period the revenue would lose little, if anything, by the change.

In proof of what has now been stated, we may mention that in 1836, when the quantity of tea entered for consumption amounted to no fewer than 40,490,667 lbs. (exclusive of 8,651,569 lbs. bohea entered to escape the increase of duty), the prices of lower congou, the great article of consumption, amounted, duty paid, to about 3s. per lb., and those of superior congou to about 5s. per do. But, in 1840, when the price of lower congou, duty paid, was about 4s. per lb., and superior congou about 5s. 6d., the consumption fell off to no more than 32,252,628 lbs.; showing clearly that a rise of 1s. per lb. in the price of the teas most generally consumed, and of 6d. in those of the next higher

class, reduced the consumption about 20 per cent. In like manner, in 1842, when prices were about $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. lower than in 1840, the consumption rose, notwithstanding the depression that then prevailed, to 37,355,912 lbs.; and a farther fall having taken place in the course of last year (1843), the consumption is understood to have amounted to about 38,000,000 lbs. These facts demonstrate the vast influence of a low price of tea over consumption; and supposing the prices of bohea and congou had, during the last half dozen years, been 35 per cent. lower than the prices which they have actually brought, as would have been the case had the duty on them been fixed at 10d. or 1s. per lb., there can hardly be a doubt that the consumption of tea would at present (1844) have amounted to from 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 lbs. — (See, for the further proof of what has now been stated, the valuable Circulars of Messrs. Lloyd, Stewart, and Brodrib, 3d of January, 1843, and 2d of January, 1844.)

But, supposing the revenue were to lose, at the outset, some 300,000l. or 400,000l. a year by the proposed change; is the getting rid of the injustice of the present tax, and the effectual encouragement of the trade with China, not worth a considerably greater sacrifice? Taking the price of Bohea and low congou in bond in London at 1s. per lb. (and it is frequently less), the duty of 2s., with which they are at present charged, is equivalent to an *ad valorem* one of more than two hundred per cent.; whereas, taking the price of the hyson and other superior teas consumed by the rich at from 3s. to 4s. per lb., the duty on them does not exceed from 50 to 66 per cent. *ad valorem*, that is, it does not amount to more than from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the duty laid on the teas consumed by the poor! Surely, however, this is neither an age nor a country in which an anomaly of this sort can be safely maintained. The public necessities require that the tea, sugar, and other necessaries of the poor should be taxed; but the most obvious principles of justice require that the duties on them should, if not lower, be, at all events, no higher than those laid on the necessaries or luxuries of the rich. The existing tea duties contradict this plain principle, and are at once unjust, exorbitant, and oppressive. The duty on bohea and the lower congous should not, in fact, exceed 6d. per lb.; and we trust that at no distant period means may be found of reducing it to that amount.

We have already endeavoured to show (see art. CANTON) that, without an effectual reduction of the duties on tea, the anticipations so generally entertained of an immense increase of the trade with China, will, most likely, be wholly disappointed. Except tea, the Chinese possess few articles suitable for our markets that we may not import at a cheaper rate from others; and, unless we reduce the oppressive duty now laid on tea in some such way as has been previously suggested, it is idle to look for any considerable increase of its consumption.

We are glad to have to state that these views have been approved by the highest mercantile authorities. Among others, they have been ably set forth by the East India Association of Glasgow, in a memorial which we take leave to subjoin: —

To the Right Hon. Sir Robert Peel, Bart., First Lord of Her Majesty's Treasury, &c.

The memorial of the East India Association of Glasgow sheweth —

That your memorialists, being deeply interested in the trade with the East, beg to submit to your lordship the following considerations, arising from the treaty just formed with the emperor of China, and the excitement caused thereby in our markets, in expectation of a very enlarged trade with the Chinese empire.

Your memorialists, in common with all Her Majesty's subjects, heartily rejoice in the treaty thus made, but have many misgivings as to the immediate beneficial effects so generally and ardently anticipated, for the following reasons: —

- 1st. The direct trade of this country to China has seldom exceeded 1,200,000l. per annum.
- 2d. The annual trade from China has seldom exceeded 4,000,000l., both sums being exclusive of what passes through the medium of America and Australia.
- 3d. The difference between these has hitherto been made good chiefly by the opium and cotton exported from British India, the former to the annual value of 3,000,000l., and the latter of upwards of 1,000,000l., while the balance of trade against China has been paid in bullion.
- 4th. The supply of opium and cotton is not likely to be materially reduced under the new arrangements.
- 5th. The silk of China is constantly losing ground in competition with that of Italy; the miscellaneous articles admit of little increase; and tea, the great staple of China, is already imported to as great an extent as the consumption, limited by high price, requires.
- 6th. Great Britain, therefore, already exports about as much to China, direct, and from India, as she receives, or can receive, of the produce of the latter.
- 7th. It is accordingly evident that as yet there is no room for an additional export trade to any considerable extent; because, although there be such an immense territory, and such an almost boundless population in China, and admitting also their entire willingness to accept our productions, yet they have not produce to give which we can at present take in return, as is clearly proved by the large quantity of bullion required from China in order to adjust the balance of trade.
- 8th. The duty charged by our tariff on tea is equal to 200 per cent. on the shipping cost, viz., 2s. 1d. per lb. on an article which, at an average, costs on board about 1s.; and while a tariff is negotiating in China for the admission of our productions, it is but reasonable to expect that the Chinese will keep in view the monstrous duty charged in England on their staple.
- 9th. The duty so charged in England falls chiefly on the poor, who are the largest consumers, and it falls the more heavily that they use the low-priced teas.

From these premises your memorialists draw the following inferences: —

1st. That the present high duty on tea restricts very materially the consumption, and by thus limiting the quantity which can be imported, limits also the amount of our exports, which can scarcely, therefore, under existing circumstances, be extended beyond the point already attained; and shows the existing excitement to be founded in delusion, and certain to produce the most ruinous results.

in 1842, when rose, notwithstanding a farther fall understood to influence of a and congou had, es which they had been fixed at of tea would — (See, for the Messrs. Lloyd,

of 400,000. a present tax, and derably greater on at 1s. per lb. present charged, cent.; whereas, rich at from 8s. ad valorem, that on the tea country in which an es require that the most obvious be, at all events, The existing tea and oppressive. 1d. per lb.; and to that amount. out an effectual id of an immense d. Except tea, not import at a w laid on tea in any considerable

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2d. That our high duties are sure to have a corresponding effect in China, not only in the duty chargeable on our manufactures, but probably also in an increased export duty on tea, besides the chance of future troubles arising from such an unnatural position of affairs.

3d. That the intercourse with China having heretofore been confined to a single inconvenient port and even thereto only to a few flag merchants, could not be so extended as to increase the quantity of tea taken in return so much as might enable Her Majesty's government to reduce the duty and yet maintain the revenue; but, seeing that these hindrances are removed, that the article can probably be supplied to a very large extent, and that we are now to have access to Fuchoo, the nearest port to the principal place of growth, it is evident that the period has arrived when such a reduction is imperatively called for; and that, unless it be made, there is little prospect of commercial advantage to Great Britain from her late achievements.

4th. That a reduction of the duty on black teas by one half would not only facilitate the formation of a fair tariff with China and increase the amount of our exports, but would greatly add to the comfort, especially of the poorer class of British subjects; would not (at least it would only partially, and for a time) injure the revenue; and would, moreover, materially increase the consumption of sugar, another article of vast importance to the exchequer.

Your memorialists do therefore humbly, but earnestly commend this subject to your lordship's most serious consideration and further entreat that Her Majesty's Government will instruct the plenipotentiary to pay most particular attention to the subject of inland or transit duties, as provided for by the treaty, seeing that this has hitherto been one great hindrance to our trade, and that, without a well-arranged system of transit duties, any system of direct import duties (however excellent in itself) will avail but little.

May it therefore please your lordship to consider this subject, with a view to a material reduction in the duty on tea, and the establishment of a fair reciprocity between this country and China; and your memorialists will ever pray.

And the Association have since followed up this memorial by another addressed to Mr. Goulburn, in which they truly state —

"That a trifling reduction of duty would be a mere throwing away of revenue, because, unless it be to such an extent as sensibly to affect the price of the small quantities bought by the poor, it would not accomplish the object of greatly increasing the consumption; but your memorialists are humbly of opinion that if the duty were reduced to 1s. per pound, it would materially increase the consumption, and thereby help to redeem the proportion of revenue given up; which effect would be further aided by the increased consumption of sugar, inasmuch as from four to five pounds of that article are used with every pound of tea.

"When, in addition, therefore, to the increased quantity of manufactures that would be exported, with all the relative benefits attached thereto, your memorialists consider the increase which must necessarily take place in the carrying trade, and all others dependent on it, together with the moral welfare and physical comfort of the people consequent on such a change of habits as would substitute tea for spirits, they cannot but feel that this is a subject of no ordinary importance, and that it ought not to be hastily dismissed on account of a financial difficulty, which may after all be more apparent than real."

And memorials to the same effect have also been laid before government by the East India Association of Liverpool and other important trading bodies.

The reader will perceive that the East India Association of Glasgow do not limit the desired reduction of the duty to bohea and congou, but propose to extend it to all black teas, without exception. And provided there be any considerable difficulty in discriminating between bohea and congou and other teas, we should approve of the proposal. It is of great importance to deprive the importers of all pretence for setting up a fresh clamour. And though we believe there would be little difficulty in distinguishing bohea and congou from other black teas, there can plainly be none in distinguishing between the latter and green teas, at the same time that the revenue will lose but little by the indiscriminate reduction of the duty on black teas.

Imports, Deliveries, and Stocks of the Various Descriptions of Teas in London in 1842 and 1843.

	Imports.		Deliveries.		Stocks 1st January.	
	1842.	1843.	1842.	1843.	1842.	1843.
Bohea, Canton	868,360	119,008	876,835	135,128	416,018	873,018
Ditto, Fokien	40,000		10,700	35,000	95,300	79,000
Congou	20,115,483	23,414,744	25,069,998	84,304,406	18,860,266	10,860,266
Fouchong	1,410,210	2,280,263	1,439,368	1,084,158	803,774	1,017,084
Lepser	831,360	578,500	416,178	503,734	503,174	167,954
Campou			360	86	176	294
Souchong	710,702	844,250	774,364	900,068	727,014	701,414
Plovery and black leaf Pekoe	781,004	640,682	638,794	674,054	480,400	406,938
Orange Pekoe	409,060	687,506	699,740	635,366	894,004	515,072
Twankey	3,152,098	6,684,680	8,871,050	6,793,086	6,036,644	6,290,140
Hyson skin	317,730	899,898	554,751	167,360	180,413	360,004
Hyson	1,016,918	2,683,877	1,191,698	6,104,943	1,421,008	687,114
Young Hyson	1,050,552	2,944,000	869,194	840,138	737,014	285,684
Imperial and gunpowder	1,011,176	974,684	1,068,680	1,690,160	904,658	318,494
Other sorts and for exportation	565,880	880,740	160,740	139,560	818,500	565,860
Total	33,539,670	56,089,273	54,938,638	86,047,861	38,106,140	38,390,868
Black	84,918,684	50,871,488	11,008,181	24,806,756	66,600,310	84,129,182
Green	5,280,036	5,216,033	7,835,917	7,614,693	6,075,091	4,107,656

Deliveries of Tea at the Port of Liverpool, from the opening of the Trade to the 31st December, 1843; with the Stocks in the Warehouses at the End of each Year.

Years.	Imported.	Received Consignee.	Duty paid.	Sent Consignee.	Exported.	Remaining in Bond.	Date.
1854 and 1855	7,049,807	817,153	9,555,412	1,761,188	841,560	4,578,000	1st Jan. 1856
1856	1,335,288	81,518	4,835,894	1,066,063	636,091	4,365,141	— 1857
1857	7,130,251	668,065	6,840,198	1,253,578	805,826	6,081,109	— 1858
1858	4,165,307	378,001	6,551,709	1,047,810	1,135,877	6,866,118	— 1859
1859	6,660,637	960,686	7,065,626	1,614,047	1,065,826	6,800,774	— 1860
1860	4,618,237	549,094	5,189,111	1,000,899	1,838,899	3,078,599	— 1861
1861	8,099,636	1,899,187	8,611,774	1,718,444	664,188	7,065,117	— 1862
1862	4,533,048	891,818	5,302,410	1,888,586	1,239,310	1,707,694	— 1863
1863	4,859,936	836,244	3,704,177	2,005,914	1,060,089	3,810,659	— 1864

Prices Current of the Various Descriptions of Tea in Bond in London on the 2nd of January, 1844, 1845, and 1846.

	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	s. d.					
Bohea	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Congou, ordinary, unclean	0 9	0 10	0 10	0 10	0 10	0 10
coarse and new kind	0 10	0 11	0 11	0 11	0 11	0 11
mixed leaf do.	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
blackish leaf do., rather strong to strong	1 1	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
do. strong and Pekou flavour	1 2	1 3	1 3	1 3	1 3	1 3
a few choice	1 3	1 4	1 4	1 4	1 4	1 4
Caper, chests	0 9	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
boxes	0 9	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 0
Fouchong	0 3	0 9	0 4	0 9	0 4	0 9
Souchong, common	1 0	1 0	1 1	1 1	1 1	1 1
good to fine	1 10	1 5	1 4	1 10	1 4	1 10
Hung Muey and black leaf Pekou, common	1 0	1 5	1 6	1 5	1 6	1 5
good to fine	1 0	1 5	1 6	1 5	1 6	1 5
Flowerly Pekou, common	1 3	1 4	1 5	1 4	1 5	1 4
good to fine	1 3	1 4	1 5	1 4	1 5	1 4
Orange Pekou, common	1 6	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 8
good	1 6	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 8	1 8
fine scented	1 14	2 0	1 14	2 0	1 14	2 0
Twanlay, common	0 6	1 11	1 10	1 11	1 10	1 11
good to fine	0 6	1 11	1 10	1 11	1 10	1 11
Hyson akin, common to good	2 0	2 4	2 3	2 4	2 3	2 4
Hyson, common	0 10	1 4	0 10	1 4	0 10	1 4
good to fine	0 10	1 4	0 10	1 4	0 10	1 4
Young Hyson, Canton	1 6	1 10	1 6	1 10	1 6	1 10
common to good and fine	1 9	2 0	1 9	2 0	1 9	2 0
Imperial, Canton	1 9	2 0	1 9	2 0	1 9	2 0
Ganpowder, Canton	2 10	4 6	2 10	4 6	2 10	4 6

Capacity of China to furnish additional Supplies of Tea. — It has been sometimes contended, that were the duties on tea materially reduced, the increased demand of this country could not be supplied, and that the reduction of the duty would not really benefit the British consumer, but the Chinese. Our readers will hardly expect that we should enter at any length into the refutation of so absurd a notion. At the commencement of last century, the entire annual consumption of tea in this country, the Continent, and America, did not certainly amount to 500,000 lbs.; whereas the consumption of Great Britain, the Continent, the U. States, and Australia, amounts at present to about 70,000,000 lbs.; and yet every one acquainted with the history of the trade is aware that, though the consumption has increased more than a hundred and forty times, the prices in all open markets have, with few exceptions, been regularly declining. We may, therefore, rest quite easy upon this point. The production of tea is rapidly extending in China; and the vast extent of that empire, its capabilities for raising unlimited quantities of tea, and the extent to which it is there used, negative the idea that any conceivable increase of the consumption of this country should have any perceptible or permanent influence on its cost price.

Retail Dealers in Tea. — Retailers of tea are obliged to take out a licence, which costs 11s. a year. In 1842 their numbers were, in England 82,855, in Scotland 13,368, in Ireland 8,837; making, for the U. Kingdom, a grand total of 105,150.

ADULTERATION OF TEA. — It might have been fairly enough anticipated, from the high price of, and the high duty on tea, and the facility with which it may be mixed up with foreign substances, that it would not escape adulteration; and the records of the courts of justice show that such is the case; several dealers having been convicted of this pernicious practice. The adulteration is usually effected either by the intermixture of sicc or ash leaves with fresh teas; or by mixing the latter with tea that has been already used. The penalties on such offences are stated below; but the best, or rather the only, security on which any reliance can be placed, is to be found in the character and respectability of the parties dealing in tea. Even were he influenced by nothing else, it would be extremely folly in any person carrying on an extensive business, to engage in such dishonest practices; for they can hardly fail of being detected; and the ruin of his business, that would follow such exposure, would far more than balance whatever gains he could hope to make by his fraudulent schemes.

Penalties on Adulteration. — If any dealer in or seller of tea dye or fabricate any sicc or other leaves in imitation of tea, or mix or colour leaves of tea with terra Japonica or other ingredient, or vend or expose to sale, or have in possession the same, he shall forfeit for every pound of such adulterated tea, — (17 Geo. 3. c. 14. s. 1.)

Any person, whether a dealer in or seller of tea, or not, who shall dye or fabricate any leaves, liquories leaves, or the leaves of tea that have been used, or the leaves of ash, elder, or other tree, shrub, or plant, in imitation of tea, or who shall mix or colour such leaves with terra Japonica, copperas, sugar, molasses, clay, logwood, or other ingredient, or who shall sell or expose to sale, or have in custody, any such adulterations in imitation of tea, shall for every pound forfeit, on conviction, by the oath of 1 witness, before 1 justice, 5l.; or on remission, be committed to the house of correction for not more than 12 nor less than 6 months. — (17 Geo. 3. c. 25. s. 1.)

Any person having in possession any quantity exceeding 6 pounds of sicc, ash, or elder leaves, or the leaves of any other tree, plant, or shrub, grown or manufactured, and shall not prove to the satisfaction of the justice hearing the case that the same were gathered with the consent of the owner of the

trees, &c., and that they were gathered for some other purpose than that of being fabricated in imitation of tea, shall forfeit 5l. for every pound in his possession, or, on non-payment, be committed to prison. — Sect. 4.

If an officer of excise, or other person, thinks that he suspects terra Japonica, or other tea, in imitation of tea, are hid or lodged in any place, a justice may issue a warrant for seizing the same by day or night, in the night, in the presence of a constable, together with all warrants, bills, and packages in which they may be contained; the herbs may be directed to be burnt, and the wagons, carts, and other vehicles carrying the proceeds to be seized; & in testimony, and as proof of the seizure, a warranting such seizure subjects the offender to a penalty of 50l., or not less than 6 nor more than 12 months imprisonment. — Sect. 5.

Herbs not to be burnt. If owner can prove, within 94 hours, that they were gathered with consent of proprietor of trees, plants, or shrubs, and that they were not intended to be fabricated in imitation of tea. — Sect. 4.

Occupier of premises where herbs are found, liable in the penalties, unless he can prove they were lodged without his consent. — Sect. 5.

Consumption of Tea on the Continent and in the U. States. — Of the Continental states, Russia and Holland are the only ones in which the consumption of tea is considerable. In 1841, the imports of tea into Russia amounted to 173,740 pounds, or 6,347,440 lbs. in chests, and 76,104 pounds in bricks. The former consists almost entirely of the

finest varieties of black tea. The consumption of tea in Holland amounts to about 3,000,000 lbs. a year; the duty on which varies from 1½d. to 4½d. per lb. The consumption of France does not exceed 350,000 lbs. The importations into Hamburg vary between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000 lbs., the greater part of which is forwarded to the interior of Germany. The imports into Venice and Trieste do not exceed a few cwt. a year.

The consumption of the U. States amounts to from 15,000,000 to 16,000,000 lbs. a year. Duties on tea used to form one of the largest items of American revenue, having in some years produced 650,000. Their magnitude, however, was justly complained of; and it is probably owing to this circumstance that, while the consumption of tea was for several years pretty stationary in the U. States, that of coffee increased with even greater rapidity than in England. The secretary of the treasury of the U. States, in his Report for 1827, observed, — "The use of tea has become so general throughout the U. States, as to rank almost as a necessary of life. When to this we add that there is no rival production at home to be fostered by lessening the amount of its importation, the duty upon it may safely be regarded as too high. Upon some of the varieties of the article it considerably exceeds 100 per cent., and is believed to be generally above the level which a true policy points out. A moderate reduction of the duty will lead to an increased consumption of the article, to an extent that, in all probability, would, in the end, rather benefit than injure the revenue. Its tendency would be to enlarge our trade and exports to China; a trade of progressive value, as our cottons and other articles of home production (aside from specie) are more and more entering into it. It would cause more of the trade in teas to centre in our ports; the present rate of duty driving our tea ships, not unfrequently, to seek their markets in Europe, not in the form of re-exportation, but in the direct voyage from China. It would also serve to diminish the risk of the U. States losing any portion of a trade so valuable, through the policy and regulations of other nations." These judicious suggestions could not fail to command attention; and the flourishing state of the revenue in subsequent years having admitted of a very great reduction of duties, those on tea were wholly repealed. As was to be expected, the consumption has since rapidly increased.

TEAK WOOD, or **INDIAN OAK**, the produce of the *Tectona grandis*, a large forest tree, that grows in dry and elevated districts in the south of India, the Burman empire, Pegu, Ava, Siam, Java, &c. Teak timber is by far the best in the East; it works easily, and, though porous, is strong and durable; it is easily seasoned, and shrinks very little; it is of an oily nature, and, therefore, does not injure iron. Mr. Crawford says, that in comparing teak and oak together, the useful qualities of the former will be found to preponderate. "It is equally strong, and somewhat more buoyant. Its durability is more uniform and decided; and to insure that durability, it demands less care and preparation; for it may be put in use almost green from the forest, without danger of dry or wet rot. It is fit to endure all climates and alternations of climate." — (See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, p. 206.; *Crawford's East. Archip.*, vol. i. p. 451.; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*, &c.)

The teak of Malabar, produced on the high table land of the south of India, is deemed the best of any. It is the closest in its fibre, and contains the largest quantity of oil, being at once the heaviest and the most durable. This species of teak is used for the keel, timbers, and such parts of a ship as are under water; owing to its great weight, it is less suitable for the upper works, and is not at all fit for spars. The teak of Java ranks next to that of Malabar, and is especially suitable for planking. The Rangoon or Burman teak, and that of Siam, is not so close grained or durable as the others. It is, however, the most buoyant, and is, therefore, best fitted for masts and spars. Malabar teak is extensively used in the building-yards of Bombay. Ships built wholly of it are almost indestructible by ordinary wear and tear; and instances are not rare of their having lasted from 80 to 100 years; they are said to sail indifferently; but this is probably owing as much to some defect in their construction, as to the weight of the timber. Calcutta ships are never wholly built of teak; the timbers and framework are always of native wood, and the planking and deck only of teak. The teak of Burma, being conveyed with comparatively little difficulty to the ports of Rangoon and Maulmain, is the cheapest and most abundant of any, and it is mainly owing to the facility with which supplies of it are obtained that ship-building is now carried on so very extensively at Maulmain. It is largely exported to Calcutta and Madras. — (See *Rangoon*.) — (*Private information*.)

A species of timber called African teak is pretty largely imported into England, from the west coast of Africa. But, in point of fact, it is not teak, and it is destitute of several of its most valuable properties. It is, however, for some purposes, a useful species of timber.

TEASEL, or **FULLERS' THISTLE** (Ger. *Weberdistel*, *Kratzdistel*; Fr. *Cardon à carder*; It. *Cardo da cardare*; Sp. *Carduecha*, *Cardo pinador*). This plant, which is cultivated in the north and west of England, is an article of considerable importance to clothiers, who employ the crooked awns of the heads for raising the nap on woollen cloths; for this purpose they are fixed round the periphery of a large broad wheel, against which the cloth is held while the machine is turned. In choosing teasels, the preference should be given to those with the largest bur, and most pointed, which are generally called *male teasels*. They are mostly used in preparing and dressing stockings and coverlets; the smaller kind, commonly called the *fullers' or drapers'*, and sometimes the *female teasels*, are used in the preparation of the finer stuffs, as cloths, ratens, &c.

January, 1844, 1845,

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THREAD (Ger. *Zwirn*; Du. *Garen*; Fr. *Fil*; It. *Refe*; Sp. *Hilo*, *Torzal*; Rus. *Nitki*), a small line made up of a number of fibres of some vegetable or animal substance, such as flax, cotton, or silk; whence its names of linen, cotton, or silk thread.

TILES (Ger. *Dachziegel*; Fr. *Tuiles*; It. *Tegole*, *Embrici*; Sp. *Tejas*; Rus. *Tscherepiza*), a sort of thin bricks, dried in kilns, and used in covering and paving different kinds of buildings. The best brick earth only should be made into tiles. — (See **BRICKS AND TILES**.)

TIMBER (Ger. *Bauholz*, *Zimmer*; Du. *Timmerhout*; Fr. *Bois de charpente*, *Bois à bâtir*; It. *Legname da fabbricare*; Sp. *Madera de construcción*; Rus. *Striewoi Gess*; Pol. *Cembrowina*), the term used to express every large tree squared, or capable of being squared, and fit for being employed in house or ship building. In the language of the customs, when a tree is sawn into thin pieces, not above 7 inches broad, it is called *batten*; when above that breadth, such thin pieces are called *deal*. Wood is the general term, comprehending under it timber, dye woods, fire wood, &c.

Timber is generally sold by the load.

The following are the contents of the load: of different species of timber, hewn and unhewn: —

A load of timber unhewn	40 cubic feet.	A load of 2 1/2 inch plank	240 square feet.
squared timber	50	2 inch plank	270
1 inch plank	600 square feet.	3 1/2 inch plank	150
1 1/2 inch plank	400	4 inch plank	100
2 inch plank	300		

36 1/2 Russian stand. deals	12 feet long,	1 1/2 inch thick,	11 inch broad,	make 1 load timber.
38 1/2 Christiana ditto	10	1 1/2	9	
65 1/2 Dram ditto	10	1 1/2	9	
3 Rigas logs	10	1 1/2	9	

The price of timber has, owing to the reduction of freight and the greater facility of importation, fallen very materially since the peace of 1815. We subjoin an account of the wholesale prices of the principal species of timber in Liverpool on the 1st of February, 1848: the duties are given in the Tariff.

Articles.	Prices.				Articles.	Prices.			
<i>From S. N. America.</i>					<i>Partridge</i> — — — — — ton				
Fine timber —	None.				Tulip wood	150l.	0	—	900l. 0
Quebec, yellow	—	cubic ft.	1s.	1d.	Letterwood	—	—	—	0s. 3d.
St. John, N. B.	—	—	1	0	Ebony, black, African	—	—	—	10 0
Miramachi and Bay Chaleur	—	—	1	0	ditto, Ceylon	—	—	—	18 0
St. Andrew, N. B.	—	—	1	0	Lancewood spars —	—	—	—	4 6
Richibucto	—	—	1	0	1st quality and large	—	—	—	4 6
N. Scotia and P. Ed.'s Island	—	—	1	0	Other kinds	—	—	—	2 6
Quebec, red	—	—	1	7	<i>From the U. States, East and West India, and Africa.</i>				
S. Bruno, and N. Scotia	—	—	1	0	Pitch pine logs	—	—	—	1 9
Ditto, spruce	—	—	1	0	planks	—	—	—	0 3
Hemlock	—	—	2	2	Oak logs	—	—	—	None
Oak	—	—	1	6	planks	—	—	—	None
Elm	—	—	1	1	Teak logs, African	—	—	—	4 0
Ash	—	—	1	1	East Indian	—	—	—	3 0
Birch, St. John, &c. N. B.	—	—	1	2	planks	—	—	—	0 9
N. Scotia and P. Ed.'s Island	—	—	1	0	Greenheart logs	—	—	—	3 6
Massa, yellow pine, calliper	—	—	3	0	planks	—	—	—	3 0
red, ditto	—	—	3	0	Black Morra	—	—	—	3 0
Poles or spars, N. B. and N. S. spruce	—	—	1	3	Bully tree	—	—	—	None
Deals or planks —	None.				Wine pipe	—	—	—	90l. 0s.
Quebec, yellow pine, 1st qual. st. hd.	—	—	3l.	0	W. O. pipe (3 in. thk.)	—	—	—	100l. 0s.
Ditto, 2d quality	—	—	7	0	W. O. hhd.	—	—	—	0 0
Ditto, 3d quality	—	—	6	0	W. O. barrel	—	—	—	6 0
Ditto, spruce	—	—	6	0	<i>From the Baltic, &c.</i>				
N. B. & N. S. pine & spruce, ft. of 3 in.	—	—	0	1 1/2	Fir timber —	—	—	—	1s.
Heartwood planks	—	—	0	2 1/2	Riga, red	—	—	—	3d.
Boards, ft.	—	—	0	1	Dantzic and Memel crowns	—	—	—	1s. 10d.
Staves, Quebec standard —	—				Ditto, middling	—	—	—	1 6d.
1st quality	—	—	43l.	0	Pilau	—	—	—	None
mid. and inferior	—	—	35	0	Kwediak	—	—	—	None
ditto, W. O. puns.	—	—	13	0	Norway	—	—	—	None
1st quality	—	—	5	0	Oak timber, Dantzic, &c.	—	—	—	None
mid. and inferior	—	—	5	0	Waincoat logs	—	—	—	—
ditto, R. O. puns.	—	—	—	—	Riga, 14 feet long	—	—	—	3l. 10s.
1st quality	—	—	—	—	Ditto, 7 feet long	—	—	—	None
mid. and inferior	—	—	—	—	Wassa, Dantzic, calliper	—	—	—	None
ditto, W. O. barrel	—	—	3	10	Poles or spars —	—	—	—	1s. 3d.
N. B. and N. S. red	—	—	4	0	Deals, Arch, and Omega	—	—	—	et. bun.
oak and ash, hhd.	—	—	3	10	1st quality, red	—	—	—	37l. 0s.
Lathwood	—	—	4	0	2d quality	—	—	—	15 10
Handspikes, hickory	—	—	18s.	0d.	St. Petersburg, 1st quality	—	—	—	17 0
ash and birch	—	—	0	0	2d quality	—	—	—	15 0
Oars, ash	—	—	0	3	Wyarbar	—	—	—	None
R	—	—	0	1 1/2	Persian	—	—	—	—
Sleepers, 9x10x5 Hackmatack	—	—	1	6	1st quality	—	—	—	13 10
hemlock	—	—	1	6	2d	—	—	—	10 10
<i>Fancy and Hardwoods.</i>					Riga	—	—	—	13 10
Mahogany, St. Domingo	—	—	0	6	Memel	—	—	—	18 10
Cuba	—	—	0	8	Dantzic	—	—	—	18 10
Honduras	—	—	0	8	Gottenburg	—	—	—	None
African	—	—	1	0	Hornsbury and Abo	—	—	—	None
Hallinwood, St. Domingo	—	—	5l.	0	Russia, white	—	—	—	15 0
Bahama	—	—	0s.	6d.	Sweden, red	—	—	—	None
Cedar, Havannah	—	—	0s.	6d.	Battens, Arch, and St. Petersburg	—	—	—	16 10
N. N. Waina	—	—	7s.	6d.	1st quality, red	—	—	—	10 10
penell	—	—	0s.	6d.	2d quality	—	—	—	10 10
Maple, bird-eyed	—	—	0	3	Swedish and Norway	—	—	—	12 0
Rosa	—	—	14l.	0	<i>N. S. — Deal ends and battens ends are generally sold at two-thirds the price of deals and battens respectively. Those of 4 feet long and under being rated as ends.</i>				
Babia	—	—	6	0					
Honduras	—	—	6	0					
Zetrawood	—	—	6	0					
Lignumvium —	—								
City St. Domingo	—	—	6	0					
Cuba, P. Cabello, &c.	—	—	9	10					
Bahama	—	—	5	0					
Brazil	—	—	8	0					
Cocowood	—	—	7	10					

Articles.		Prices.		Articles.		Prices.	
Deck planks, crown	- ft. 2 in.	None.		Lathwood, Dana, and M. S. ft.	100.	0	0
Do. - - - - -	- - - - -	0s. 3d. -	0s. 3d.	Do., 4 ft.	5	0	0
Beech clap boards, feet long	- - - - -	None.		Do., 2 ft.	None.		
Staves, Danish and Mamel	1800 pes.	105s. 0s. -	115s. 0s.	Do., 4 ft.	9	0	0
Do. brand pipe	- - - - -	None.		Riga and M. P. ft. 5 ft.	4	10	0
Do., hhd. } in proportion	- - - - -	None.		Do., 4 ft.	14.	5d.	5s. 0d.
Do., barrel }	- - - - -	None.		Sleepers, 6x10x2, ft.	4	0	0
Sutton, crown pipe	- - - - -	None.					
Odesa	- - - - -	None.					

Account of the Importation, Consumption, and Stock of Timber, &c., during the 7 Years ending 1st of February, 1849. — (From the valuable Circular of Messrs. Chaloner, Fleming, & Co., Liverpool.)

Articles.	Import, ending 1st February.			Consumption ending 1st Feb.			Stock, on 1st February.		
	Average of the 2 years, 1842 to 1846.	1847.	1848.	Average of the 2 years, 1843 to 1846.	1847.	1848.	Average of the 2 years, 1842 to 1846.	1847.	1848.
British America.									
Prime, cubic feet	5,977,100	7,429,421	4,178,319	5,825,620	6,020,121	5,949,319	5,826,760	6,156,200	5,359,000
Second, do., standard	3,130	3,463	3,161	3,207	3,481	3,356	1,779	1,515	1,800
Oak, cubic feet	279,141	411,328	363,710	293,642	245,388	256,710	317,670	275,000	261,000
elm	135,078	187,098	159,615	124,978	134,088	173,813	79,900	104,000	84,000
ash	14,294	55,109	19,358	17,874	19,609	43,738	14,150	41,200	11,000
Staves, standard mill	274	290	181	275	264	107	190	270	334
Do. - - - - -	861	831	373	635	678	623	909	830	480
Pine, oak planks, ft. of 2 in.	11,617,860	20,367,662	17,976,663	11,023,980	19,654,663	19,073,663	6,108,400	6,867,600	7,170,000
Boards and scantling, ditto		615,793	586,377		615,793	672,577		236,000	150,000
Hardwood (birch), cubic ft.	516,820	344,424	346,413	297,820	386,224	284,615	525,800	125,500	87,000
Lathwood, (balm)	1,469	1,762	1,163	1,168	1,749	1,421	463	600	418
Sleepers, pieces		340,584	431,370						309,000
Baltic.									
Timber, Danish, Mamel	819,378	619,446	1,061,166	503,078	1,137,948	1,043,183	325,000	364,000	418,000
Do., standard	1,668	3,168	1,241	1,902	1,876	1,143	1,134	1,081	865
Staves, standard	23	564	326	230	507	507	335	456	374
Walnut logs	whole	261	791	188	297	747	433	230	183
Do. - - - - -	half	31	560	928	73	127	544	137	238
Deck planks, pieces	5,636	1,243	3,177	3,673	458	2,905	1,045	1,321	1,223
Staves, pine, &c., M.	29	19	9	32	63	53	44	64	20
Lathwood, (balm)	615	638	689	446	1,235	923	657	414	480
Sleepers, pieces		187,771	10,388						6,500
Mahogany, Honduras logs	8,544	6,003	5,271	8,668	5,732	3,136	662	1,138	2,867
Do. - - - - -	6,506	13,499	13,061	5,371	13,423	8,046	1,741	2,337	6,652
Do. - - - - -	2,411	6,066	1,478	1,478	6,437	1,533	883	703	618
Cedar, Havannah, logs	1,968	1,352	910	1,295	2,136	1,105	490	117	228
Do. - - - - -	14,174	64,573	6,890	15,374	33,373	7,680	14,316	30,000	49,000
Pitch pine, cubic feet	123,758	432,433	110,239	122,816	16,833	261,329	104,340	228,600	177,000
African and E. I. teak	47,280	22,313	74,273	49,560	84,313	35,273	35,790	6,000	29,000

Cargoes of Timber, &c. from British America and the Baltic, for the last 12 Years.

Year ending 1st Feb.	British America.		Baltic.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1837	329	145,461	66	16,000
1838	375	185,072	63	15,000
1839	302	160,454	72	23,116
1840	330	170,691	68	17,113
1841	230	125,090	48	14,100
1842	318	174,946	40	11,923
1843	168	91,179	22	11,636
1844	311	151,218	21	17,433
1845	269	189,414	21	14,134
1846	453	226,454	113	33,792
1847	461	245,789	137	33,766
1848	514	172,427	64	26,584

TIMBER TRADE. Having, in separate articles, described those species of timber most in demand in this country, we mean to confine ourselves in this article to a few remarks on the policy of the regulations under which the trade in timber is conducted.

1. *Importance of a cheap Supply of Timber.* — It is surely unnecessary to enter into any lengthened statements on this head. If there be one article more than another with which it is of primary importance that a great commercial and manufacturing nation like England should be abundantly supplied on the lowest possible terms, that article is timber. Owing to the deficiency of our home supplies, most part of the timber, with the exception of oak, required for building ships and houses; and most part, also, of that employed in the construction of machinery; is imported from abroad. Any individual acquainted with the purposes to which timber is applied, but ignorant of our peculiar policy with respect to it, would never, certainly, imagine that such an article could be made the subject of oppressive duties, and of still more oppressive preferences. Timber is not to be looked at in the same light as most other commodities. It is against all principle to impose duties on materials intended to be subsequently manufactured; but timber is the raw material of the most important of all manufactures — that of the instruments of production. Suppose it were proposed to lay a heavy tax on ships, waggons, looms, or work-shops when completed; would not such a monstrous proposal be universally scouted? And yet this is what is really done. The finished articles are not, indeed, directly taxed; but the principal material of which they are made, and without which they could not be constructed, is burdened with an exorbitant duty! To dwell on the impolicy of such a tax would be worse than useless. Of all things essential to the prosperity of manufacturing industry, improved and cheap machinery is the most indispensable.

Most individuals amongst us are ready enough to ridicule the contradictory conduct of the French government, who, at the very moment that they are endeavouring to bolster up a manufacturing interest, lay enormous duties on foreign iron, and thus double or treble the price of some of the most important manufacturing implements. Timber likewise, however, of quite as much importance in this respect as iron; and our conduct in having burdened it with exorbitant duties partakes as largely of the *felo-de-se* character as that of our neighbours! Indeed, as will be immediately seen, it is decidedly less defensible. Some plausible, though inconclusive, reasonings might be urged in defence of duties on iron and timber, were they imposed for the sake of revenue: but even this poor apology for financial ignorance and rapacity cannot be set up in defence of the iron duties of France or the timber duties of England. The former, however, are the least objectionable; they were imposed, and are still kept up, to encourage the production of iron in France: whereas the duties on timber in England have been imposed for the sake, principally, of promoting the lumber trade of Canada, and of forcing the employment of a few thousand additional tons of shipping! We do not sacrifice the goose for the sake of the golden eggs, but for the sake of the offal she has picked up.

2. *Origin and Operation of the discriminating Duty in favour of American Timber.*—The practice of encouraging the importation of the timber of Canada and our other possessions in North America in preference to that of foreign countries, is but of recent growth. It took its rise during the administration of Mr. Vanassart, and bears in every part the impress of his favourite policy. The events that took place in 1808 having seriously affected our previous relations with the Baltic powers, a deficiency in the accustomed supply of timber began to be apprehended; and the ship owners and Canada merchants naturally enough availed themselves of this circumstance, to excite the fears of the ministry, and to induce them to change the fair and liberal system on which the trade in timber had been conducted down to that time, by granting extraordinary encouragement to its importation from Canada. Even as a temporary expedient, applicable to a peculiar emergency, the policy of giving any such encouragement is extremely doubtful. Supposing timber not to have been any longer obtainable from the north of Europe, its price would have risen, and it would, of course, have been imported from Canada, the U. States, or wherever it could be had, without any interference on the part of government. But, in 1809, a large addition was made to the duties previously charged on timber from the north of Europe, at the same time that those previously charged on timber from Canada and our other possessions in America were almost entirely repealed; and in the very next year (1810), the duties thus imposed on Baltic timber were *doubled*! Nor did the increase of duties on such timber stop even here. In 1813, after Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia, and when the free navigation of the Baltic had been restored, 25 per cent. was added to the duties on European timber! The expediency of increasing the revenue was, no doubt, pleaded in justification of this measure; but we believe it was really intended to augment the preference in favour of Canada timber; for how could it be supposed that an increase of the duties on an article imported from a particular quarter of the world, that was already taxed up to the very highest point, could add any thing considerable to the revenue, when a convertible article might be imported from another quarter duty free? The various duties laid on European timber amounted, when consolidated by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., to 3*l.* 5*s.* per load.

Admitting, for the moment, that the peculiar and unprecedented aspect of things in 1808 and 1809 warranted the giving of some preference to the importation of timber from Canada, such preference should plainly have ceased in 1813. So long as the communication with the bridge is interrupted, we may be forced to use a boat to cross the river; but when the communication is again opened, and when there is not the remotest chance of its future interruption, it would be a singular absurdity to refuse to resume the use of the bridge, and to continue the costly and inconvenient practice of being ferried over! This, however, is exactly what we did in the case of the Canada trade. Because a fortuitous combination of circumstances obliged us, upon one occasion, to import inferior timber at a comparatively high price, we resolved to continue the practice in all time to come! The history of commerce affords few such displays of gratuitous folly.

The absurdity of this conduct will appear still more striking, if we reflect for a moment on the peculiar situation of the countries in the north of Europe. The nations round the Baltic have made little progress in manufacturing industry. They abound in valuable raw products; but they are wholly destitute of the great species of manufactured commodities, and of colonies. Nor have they any real inducement to attempt supplying themselves directly with the former, or to establish the latter. Their iron and copper mines, their vast forests, and their immense tracts of fertile and hitherto unoccupied land, afford far more ready and advantageous investments for their deficient capital, than could be found in manufactures or foreign trade. Russia and Prussia have,

indeed, been tempted, by our corn and timber laws, to exclude some species of manufactured goods; but it is not possible that they should succeed in materially limiting our exports to them, provided we did not second their efforts by refusing to admit their products.

Of all the countries in the world, there is obviously none which has so many facilities for carrying on an advantageous trade with the North as Great Britain. We have a surplus of all those products of which Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway stand most in need; and, on the other hand, they have a surplus of many of those of which we are comparatively destitute. The immense traffic we carry on with the Baltic does not, therefore, depend, in any considerable degree, on artificial or accidental circumstances. It does not rest on the wretched foundation of Custom-house regulations or discriminating duties, but on the gratification of mutual wants and desires. It has been justly remarked by the Marquis Garnier, the excellent translator of the "Wealth of Nations," that no inconsiderable portion of the increased power and wealth of England may be traced to the growing opulence of Russia. But the Russian empire is yet only in the infancy of civilisation; she must continue for a very long period to advance in the career of improvement; and it will be our own fault if we do not reap still greater advantages from her progress.

Such is the nature of that commerce against which the discriminating duties on timber from the north of Europe aimed a severe blow! In 1809, when this system began, 428,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards from the Baltic. In 1814, the year after the 25 per cent. of additional duty had been imposed on Baltic timber, and when all the ports of that sea were open to our ships, only 242,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards, being little more than the half of what it amounted to when the system began. And notwithstanding the vast increase, in the interval, of population and wealth in the countries round the Baltic, our trade with the different ports on that sea has not even now (1843) recovered from the blows inflicted on it in 1809 and 1813! It is seen from the statements previously laid before the reader (see art. *ELANOR*), that in 1843 only 295,435 tons of British shipping left the Baltic for the U. Kingdom.

The following extract from the evidence of Mr. Edward Patzeker, a merchant of Memel, given before the committee of the House of Commons on the foreign trade of the country, in 1821, shows the effect that the increased duties on timber had on the commerce with Prussia:—

"Has there been a great alteration in the timber trade between Memel and this country of late years?" — "Since the war, a great alteration; before the war we used to have 950 to 1,000 English ships in a year, and since the war we have had from 200 to 300 only."

"When you talk of 900 ships, do you mean 900 ships trading between Great Britain and Memel?" — "Yes."

"Do you mean that number of cargoes were loaded in the year for England?" — "Yes."

"How many cargoes were loaded for Great Britain during the last year (1820)?" — "About 270 or 280 cargoes; there have not been more."

"To what cause do you attribute that diminution in the trade?" — "To the high duties in England; for formerly the duties were only 16s. and some pence; now they are 3l. 5s. in a British, and 3l. 6s. in a foreign ship."

"Has that diminished trade in timber produced a great alteration in the circumstances of the people of Prussia?" — "Yes; for it is the only trade which we can carry on; wheat and all the rest of our articles cannot be brought here; timber is the only one that can be brought, and the trade from Poland has very much ceased in consequence of the diminished demand for it; the people cannot sell their goods, and we cannot take such quantities of timber as we used to do; and, therefore, they cannot take English goods from us."

"If such an alteration was to take place in the duties on timber in this country, as to give the Prussians a larger share of the trade than they at present enjoy, do you think that would produce increased friendly feelings on the part of the people of your country to the people of this country?" — "It would. They would certainly take far more goods from hence, as they could get better rid of them. The Poles, also, would take more of them." — (Report, 9th of March, 1821, p. 107.)

The effect that the increased duties had on the trade with Norway and Sweden, aggravated as they in some degree were by the method of charging the duty on deals, was still more striking and extraordinary. These countries had few products, except timber and iron, to exchange for our commodities; and as neither of these could be advantageously imported into England under the new system, the trade with them almost entirely ceased; and they were reluctantly compelled to resort to the markets of France and Holland for the articles they had formerly imported from us. In proof of this, we may mention, that the exports to Sweden, which amounted in 1814 to 511,818*l.*, declined in 1819 to 46,656*l.*, and even in 1842 were only 199,313*l.*; while the exports to Norway, which had, in 1815, amounted to 199,902*l.*, fell in 1819 to 64,741*l.*, and in 1842 had only increased to 134,704*l.*

This extraordinary falling off in so very important a branch of our commerce having been established beyond all question by evidence taken before the committees of Lords and Commons on the foreign trade of the country in 1820, an approach to a better system was made in 1821, when the duty on timber from the north of Europe was reduced from 3*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* per load, at the same time that a duty of 10*s.* per load was laid on timber from British America. This, however, was a comparatively inefficient measure. It was stated, to be sure, at the time, that the

21. *5s.* per load of excess of duty that was thus continued on Baltic timber over that laid on timber imported from Canada, was not more than enough to balance the higher prime cost, the greater freight, and other charges consequent upon the importation of the latter; and that it would, therefore, be in future indifferent to a merchant whether he imported timber from Memel or Miramichi! In point of fact, however, the discriminating duty continued in favour of Canada timber was far too high to allow of this equalisation being effected. So much so has this been the case, that there have been instances of ships loading with timber in the north of Europe, carrying that timber to Canada, and then bringing it to England as Canada timber; the difference of duty having been about sufficient to indemnify the enormous expense of this round-about voyage! We do not mean to say that this has been a common practice; but what are we to think of a commercial regulation that admitted of such an adventure being undertaken with any prospect of success? Admitting, however, that the duty had been adjusted so as to have had the anticipated effect, could any thing be more preposterous and absurd than to impose it on such a principle? There are mines of coal in New Holland; but what should we think, were an attempt made to impose such duties on coals from Newcastle as should render it indifferent to a London merchant whether he imported a cargo of coal from the Tyne or Botany Bay? Now, the case of the timber duties is, in point of principle, precisely the same. We may obtain timber from countries so near at hand that our ships may make 3, 4, 5, and even 6 voyages a year to them; and we refused to admit it unless loaded with a duty that raised its price to a level with what was brought from the other side of the Atlantic—a voyage which our ships cannot, at most, perform above twice a year!

3. *Comparative Quality of Baltic and Canada Timber.*—Had the timber of Canada been decidedly superior to that of the north of Europe, something might have been found to say in favour of the discriminating duty; for it might have been contended, with some show of reason, that it was of the utmost consequence, considering the application of timber to ship and house building, and other important purposes, to prevent the importation of an inferior species, even though it might be cheaper. But the system we adopted is of a totally different character. We did not attempt to shut out an article which, though cheap, was inferior; but committed the twofold absurdity of shutting out one that was at once *cheap and superior!*

The committee of the House of Lords observe, in their *First Report on the Foreign Trade of the Country*, that "the North American timber is more soft, less durable, and every description of it more liable, though in different degrees, to the dry rot, than timber of the north of Europe. The red pine, however, which bears a small proportion to the other descriptions of timber, and the greater part of which, though imported from Canada, is the produce of the U. States, is distinguished from the white pine by its greater durability. On the whole, it is stated by one of the commissioners of his Majesty's navy, most distinguished for practical knowledge, experience, and skill, that the timber of Canada, both oak and fir, *does not possess, for the purpose of ship building, more than half the durability of wood of the same description, the produce of the north of Europe.* The result of its application to other purposes of building is described by timber merchants and carpenters to be nearly similar."—(p. 4.)

We subjoin the following extracts from the evidence of Sir Robert Seppings, the commissioner alluded to by the committee, whose great intelligence and experience render his opinion of the highest authority:—

"Can you state to the committee the result of any observations that you or others in his Majesty's service have made, on the durability of timber, the produce of the North American colonies, or timber imported from the north of Europe, applied to the same purposes?"—"About the year 1796, there were a certain number of frigates built of the fir of the Baltic, and their average durability was about *sixty years.* About the year 1812, there were a considerable number of frigates built, also of fir of the growth of North America, and their average durability was *not half that time.*"

"You have stated that Canada timber is peculiarly subject to the dry rot, and the dry rot is known to have prevailed lately to a great degree in the navy; has that prevailed principally since the application of Canada timber to the uses of the navy?"—"I believe the navy has suffered very considerably from the introduction of Canada timber, or timber of the growth of North America; and in consequence, from experience, we have entirely discontinued the use of it, except for deals and masts."—(p. 56.)

Mr. Copland, an extensive builder and timber merchant, being asked by the committee what was his opinion with respect to the comparative qualities of American and Baltic timber, answered,—"The timber of the Baltic in general, speaking of Norway, Russian, Prussian, and Swedish timber, is of a very superior quality to that imported from America; the bulk of the latter is very inferior in quality, much softer in its nature, not so durable, and very liable to dry rot; indeed, it is not allowed by any professional man under government to be used, nor is it ever used in the best buildings in London; it is only speculators that are induced to use it, from the price of it being much lower (in

* According to the evidence of Mr. J. D. Fowler, secretary to the London Dock Company, ships can make six voyages from Norway, 3 or 4 from Prussia, and 2 from Russia, in a season.—(*Commons' Report*, p. 89.)

consequence of its exemption from duty) than the Baltic timber; if you were to lay two planks of American timber upon each other, in the course of a twelvemonth they would have the dry rot, almost invariably, to a certain extent."—(p. 56.) And many passages to the same effect might be produced, from the evidence of persons of the greatest experience in building.

Now, we would beg leave to ask whether any thing could be more monstrous, than, by means of a system of discriminating duties, a large proportion of the public to use that very timber in the construction of their ships and houses, which government would not use for either of these purposes, and which the most experienced engineers and builders pronounce to be utterly unfit for them? This was not imposing duties on a fair and equal principle for the sake of revenue, but for the sake of securing a preference to a worthless article: it was not imposing them in the way in which they might be least, but in which they were certain to be most injurious to those who had to pay them.

It appears from accounts that have been repeatedly published, that, previously to the late alterations, the revenue would have gained considerably more than 1,500,000*l.* a year, had the same duty been laid on Canada timber that was laid on timber from the north of Europe; and this, therefore, may be considered as the amount of the pecuniary sacrifice we consented to make, in order that our ships and houses might be inoculated with dry rot!

4. *Apologies for the discriminating Duty.*—If any thing ought, more than another, to make legislators pause before enacting a restrictive regulation, it is the difficulty of receding from it. After it has been enforced for a while, a variety of interests usually grow up under its protection, which may be materially injured by its repeal. All, however, that the persons so interested can justly claim, is, that sufficient time, and every possible facility, should be afforded them to prepare for a change of system. Because the interests of a comparatively small portion of the community may be injuriously affected by the abolition of a regulation ascertained to be in the last degree inimical to the public, is it, therefore, to be contended that we should, at all hazards, continue to enforce the regulation we have so unwisely enacted? To maintain the affirmative, would be to give perpetuity to the worst errors and absurdities; and would be an effectual bar to every sort of improvement. No change, even from a bad to a good system, should be rashly set about: but when once the expediency of an alteration has been clearly established, it ought to be resolutely carried into effect.

It has been objected to the abolition of the discriminating duties on timber, that it would be injurious to Canada and the shipping interest. We believe, however, that the injury would not be nearly so great as has been represented; that it would, in fact, be quite inconsiderable. So far from the *lumber trade*—or the trade of felling wood, squaring it, and floating it down the rivers to the shipping ports—being advantageous to a colony, it is distinctly and completely the reverse. The habits which it generates are quite subversive of that sober, steady spirit of industry, so essential to a settler in a rude country: to such a degree, indeed, is this the case, that lumberers have been described as the pests of a colony, "made and kept vicious by the very trade by which they live."—But, abstracting altogether from the circumstances now alluded to, it has been shown, over and over again, that the abolition of the lumber trade would materially benefit the real interests of the colonies. It is ludicrous, indeed, seeing that not one tree in a hundred is fit for the purposes of being squared for timber, to suppose that the discontinuance of the trade could be any serious loss. But the fact is, that when trees are cut down by lumberers, for export as timber, instead of being burnt down, so great a growth of brushwood takes place, that it actually costs more to clear the ground where the lumberers have been, than where they have not been. Mr. Richards, who was sent out by government to report on the influence of the lumber trade, represented it as most unfavourable; and observed, that, "when time or chance shall induce or compel the inhabitants to desist from this employment, agriculture will begin to raise its head." The statements of Captain Moorsom, in his *Letters from Nova Scotia*, are exactly similar. He considers the depression of the timber market, although a severe loss to many individuals, a "decided gain to the colony," from the check it has given to the "lumbering mania."—(p. 53.)

The statements that have been made as to the amount of capital expended on saw mills, and other fixed works for carrying on the lumber trade, have been singularly exaggerated. Mr. P. Thomson (afterward Lord Sydenham), who had the best means of acquiring accurate information on this point, made the following statement with respect to it in his speech on the 18th of March, 1831:—"From the means I have had of calculating the amount of capital embarked in these saw mills, I believe it is about 300,000*l.*: I am sure I may say that if 500,000*l.* were taken as the amount, it would be a great deal above rather than under the real value; but after all, this description of property is not to be sacrificed by the arrangements proposed, even if they were

carried to the fullest extent. I am ready at once to admit that the consequence of the proposed alteration may be, that it will diminish the exports of timber from Canada to England, and affect the productiveness of the capital vested in the mills to which I have referred; but the committee ought not to lose sight of the fact, that though in this one branch of industry there will be a great falling off, yet the same amount of labour might be applied to much greater advantage on land in the colonies; and the mills, which will be rendered useless for their original purposes, may be converted into useful auxiliaries to the agricultural and other pursuits of the colonists; so that the enormous losses that have been placed in so frightful a point of view, will, as I have shown, be absolutely next to nothing."

The fact is, that in so far as the interests of the colonies are concerned, it is plain they would not really lose, but gain, by a repeal of the discriminating duties on foreign timber. They would still continue to possess a respectable share of the trade; for their timber, though unfit for many important purposes, is well suited, by its freedom from knots, for the finishing of rooms and cabins, the manufacture of boxes, &c.; and in the mast trade, it is believed, that they would be able to maintain a successful competition with Iliga.

The ship owners would undoubtedly have more cause to complain of injury from the equalisation of the duties; but even as respects them, it would not be nearly so great as is commonly supposed. From a half to a third part of the timber now brought from Canada would most probably continue to be brought from it were the duties equalised; and a large proportion of the ships thrown out of the Canada trade would be turned into the trade with the north of Europe, whence a much larger quantity of timber would henceforth be brought. It is material, too, to observe, that whatever temporary inconvenience the shipping interest might sustain from the change, its future consequences would be singularly advantageous to it. The high price of timber employed in the building of ships is at present the heaviest drawback on the British ship owners; but the equalisation of the duties would materially reduce this price; and we have the authority of the best practical judges for affirming, that, were the duty repealed, ships might be built decidedly cheaper in England than in any part of the world.

Changes proposed in the Timber Duties in 1831 and 1835, and effected in 1842.— Considering the vicious principle on which the duties on timber have been imposed, and their pernicious influence, the tenacity with which they have been supported, and the little opposition made to them, may well excite surprise. In 1831, Lord Althorp (now Earl Spencer) moved that the duties on foreign timber should be reduced 6s. a load on the 1st of January 1832; 6s. more on the 1st of January 1833; and 3s. on the 1st of January 1834; making the whole reduction 15s. a load, and leaving a protection in favour of Canada timber of 30s. a load. The only real objection to this proposal is, that it did not go far enough, that it "scotched the snake without killing it." But, moderate as it was, it was rejected by a large majority, and the project fell to the ground.

In 1835 a committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the operation of the duties on timber, agreed to the following resolutions:—

1. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the present mode of taking the duties on deals is susceptible of improvement, and that this committee would recommend that a mode be adopted which shall approach more nearly to a payment according to the contents of the deals.
2. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the difference of duty of 45s. now imposed by law upon timber the produce of Europe, as compared with timber the produce of our North American colonies, is too great, and may be reduced.
3. That it is the opinion of this committee, that, having a due regard to the interests which have been created in the British North American colonies by the system hitherto pursued, and to the representations of the shipping interest, a reduction of the protective duty, not exceeding 15s. per load, appears to them to be a fair arrangement.
4. That it is the opinion of this committee, that such reduction be made, so far as may be consistent with the interest of the revenue, without any augmentation on the duty on colonial timber.
5. That it is the opinion of this committee, that, in any alteration made, such alteration should not affect the shipments made in the year 1836.
6. That it is the opinion of this committee, that there should be a uniform mode of taking the duty on deals throughout the U. Kingdom.

But no step was taken to give effect to these resolutions. No private member, unless supported by government, could have expected to succeed in an attempt to accomplish any material modification of the timber duties; and government, influenced perhaps, by a dread of the difficulties in the way of such an attempt, and not, perhaps, having any strong feeling on the subject, did nothing; so that the trade continued on its old footing down to 1842!

Happily, however, the differential duty of 45s. a load in favour of Canada timber has been reduced, by the Tariff Act of the above year, from the 10th of October 1843, to 24s. a load on timber properly so called, and to 30s. on deals. But, though this be a signal improvement on the previous system, it leaves much to be desired; and we do not know that the way in which the change was effected was the best that might have been selected. It was brought about by reducing the previous duties on foreign timber

from 55s. to 95s. and 92s. the load, and the previous duty on British colonial timber from 10s. to 1s. and 9s. per load. While, however, every one must admit that the reduction of the duty on foreign timber was most proper, it is not easy to see why any reduction should have been made in the duty on Canada timber. Had it been allowed to remain as it was, or at 10s. a load, the discriminating duty in favour of colonial timber would still have amounted to 15s. and 22s. a load; and admitting (though we have yet to learn how the principle is in this case to be maintained) that it may be sound policy to give a preference to the timber of our colonies, surely the amount now specified would have been more than ample. And it is material to observe, that, had the duties been arranged in the way pointed out, it is all but certain there would have been little or no loss of revenue, whereas the scheme that has been adopted will, most probably, occasion the loss of 500,000l. a year. However, we are grateful for what has been done; and we have little doubt that in no very lengthened period the precedent set in 1842 will be fully carried out, and an end put to the practice of laying high differential duties on a most important article for the sake of colonial possessions that have never been of the smallest advantage to this country.

TIN (Ger. *Bleeh*, *Weissbleeh*; Fr. *Fer blanc*; It. *Latta*, *Banda stagnata*; Sp. *Hoja de lata*; Rus. *Blit'sha*, *Sheet*; Arab. *Renas*; Sans. *Trayu* and *Rangu*), a metal which has a fine white colour like silver; and when fresh, its brilliancy is very great. It has a slightly disagreeable taste, and emits a peculiar smell when rubbed. Its hardness is between that of gold and lead. Its specific gravity is 7.29. It is very malleable; tin-foil, or tin leaf, is about $\frac{1}{1000}$ th part of an inch thick; and it might be beat out into leaves as thin again, if such were required for the purposes of art. In ductility and tenacity it is very inferior. A tin wire 0.078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 34.7 pounds only without breaking. Tin is very flexible, and produces a crackling noise when bent. It may be readily alloyed with copper, zinc, &c., forming very valuable compounds. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Tin ores of this metal are found in comparatively few places; the principal, and perhaps the only, ones are Cornwall, Galicia, Erzgebirge in Saxony, Bohemia, the Malay countries, China, and Banca in Asia. They are peculiar to primitive rocks, generally in granite, either in veins or beds, and are often associated with copper and iron pyrites.

Tin is much used as a covering to several other metals; iron is tinned, to prevent its rapid oxidation when exposed to air and moisture; and the same process is applied to copper, to avoid the injurious effects to which those who are in the habit of employing cooking utensils made of this metal are always liable. The solutions of tin in the nitric, muriatic, nitro-sulphuric, and tartaric acids, are much used in dyeing, as giving a degree of permanence and brilliancy in several colours, to be obtained by the use of no other mordants with which we are at present acquainted; tin forms the basis of pewter, in the composition of which it is alloyed with lead; when rolled into thin sheets, it is called tin-foil, and is applied, with the addition of mercury, to cover the surface of glass, thus forming looking-glasses, mirrors, &c.; and in combination with sulphur, it constitutes what is called mosaic gold. — (*Joyce's Chem. Min.*)

The FLAVES, known in Scotland by the name of *white iron*, are applicable to a great variety of purposes, and are in very extensive demand. They are formed of thin plates of iron dipped into molten tin. The tin not only covers the surface of the iron, but penetrates it completely, and gives the whole a white colour. It is usual to add about 1-10th of copper to the tin, to prevent it from forming too thick a coat upon the iron. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

Historical Notices of the British Tin Trade. — The tin mines of Cornwall have been worked from a very remote era. The voyages of the Phœnicians to the Cassiterides, or tin islands, are mentioned by Herodotus (lib. iii. c. 115.), Diodorus Siculus (lib. iv. p. 301. ed. 1604), and Strabo (*Geog.* lib. iii.). Some difference of opinion has, indeed, been entertained as to the particular islands to which the Phœnicians applied the term Cassiterides; but Borlase (*Account of the Scilly Islands*, p. 72.), Larcher (*Herodote*, tome iii. p. 384. ed. 1802), and the ablest critics, agree that they are the Scilly Islands, and the western extremity of Cornwall. After the destruction of Carthage, the British tin trade, which was always reckoned of peculiar importance, was carried on by the merchants of Marseilles, and subsequently by the Romans. Besides Britain, Spain furnished the ancients with considerable quantities of tin. We have no very precise information as to the purposes to which they applied this metal. It has been supposed that the Phœnicians, so famous for their purple dyes, were acquainted with the use of the solution of tin in nitro-muriatic acid in fixing that colour. The best of the ancient mirrors, or *specula*, were also made of a mixture of copper and tin; and tin was used in the coating of copper vessels. — (*Nelson's Chemical Essays*, vol. iv.)

In modern times, the tin mines of Cornwall and Devon have been wrought with various degrees of energy and success. Queen Elizabeth brought over some German miners, by whom some of the processes were improved. During the civil wars, the mines were much neglected. At the commencement of last century, however, the business of mining was carried on with renewed vigour; and from 1720 to 1740 the annual produce was about 2,100 tons. The produce went on gradually increasing, till it amounted, in the 10 years from 1790 to 1800, to 3,254 tons a year. During the next 15 years the produce fell off; and for the 5 years ending with 1815 it was always considerably under 3,000 tons a year. But in the last-mentioned year, a considerable increase took place; and since 1816, the produce has been, with the exception of 1820, always above 3,000

tons a year. The present (1845) average produce of the mines may be estimated at above 5,000 tons a year.

The price of British tin, at an average, from 1811 to 1818, inclusive, was about 7*l.* a cwt. Its fall from 1818 to 1830, and its comparative low price since, have been owing to a variety of causes; partly to improvements in the art of working the mines, partly to the increased supply of metal obtained from them, and partly and principally to the competition of the tin of Banca and of the Malay countries. Previously to 1814, we had in some measure a monopoly of the market of the world. But since then the Banca mines have been wrought with unusual spirit; and their produce has been so much increased, as not only fully to supply the market of China, to which we formerly exported from 600 to 1,000 tons, but to meet us in every European market. Malacca tin is now very extensively imported, for sale, into England, at the same time that large quantities are carried direct to Holland, where there are refining houses; but, notwithstanding these circumstances, our exports of tin have increased considerably of late years.

Duty on British Tin.—All tin produced in Cornwall was subject, from a very remote period down to 1837, to a coinage duty of 4*l.* a ton, payable to the Duke of Cornwall; the tin raised in Devonshire was subject to a similar duty of 1*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.* a ton. This duty produced from 18,000*l.* to 30,000*l.* a year; and was felt to be a serious grievance, not only from its amount, but from the vexatious regulations under which it was collected. Luckily, however, the duty on tin, and all regulations with respect to its coinage, were abolished by 1 & 2 Vict. c. 120. Compensation was made to the duke of Cornwall for the loss arising from this abolition, by settling on his possession a perpetual annuity equal to the net average amount of the duties during the 10 years ending with 1837.

TIN, ORIENTAL (Malay, Tima; Hind. Katal; Siamese, Dibak; Burmese, Kye-p'hu, white copper). In commercial language usually called Banca tin. It is found in several provinces of China; but the most extensive and, probably, richest tin district in the world, exists in the Malay countries. This comprehends the whole of the peninsula from the extreme cape to the latitude of 14° on its northern side, and to 11° on its eastern, and comprehends several of the small islands lying in the route between the peninsula and Java, as far as the latitude of 8° south; so that the whole of this tin district has an extreme length of near 1,200 miles. By far the greater number of the mines within these limits are as yet unwrought and unexplored. It was only in the beginning of last century that the mines of Banca, the most productive at present worked, were accidentally discovered. The whole tin of the Malay countries is the produce of alluvial ore, or what is called, in Cornwall, "Stream-work;" and from the abundance in which the mineral has been found by the mere washing of the soil, no attempt has hitherto been made at regular mining, or obtaining the ore from its rocky matrix. Malay tin, consequently, is grain tin, or tin in a very pure state; that being the species which alluvial ore uniformly produces. The mines, or rather excavations, are perpendicular pits of from 15 to 30 feet deep; and when the soil and a superstratum of common clay are removed, the bed containing the ore, consisting of quartz and granite gravel, is reached. The sand and gravel are separated from the ore by passing a stream of water through the whole material. The ore so obtained is preserved in heaps, and smelted periodically with charcoal in a blast furnace. The mine or pit is kept clear of water by the Chinese wheel. No cattle are used in any part of the process; human labour being had recourse to throughout the whole of its stages. The most imperfect part of the process is the smelting. The stream ores of Cornwall, which are generally poor, afford from 65 to 75 per cent. of grain tin; whereas, owing to the imperfection of the process, from those of Banca not more than 50 or 60 are usually obtained. The difference in the produce suggested, a few years ago, the practicability of sending the ore to England for the purpose of being smelted; and the experiment was tried; but our customs regulations not allowing the produce to be bonded and re-exported without duty, rendered the scheme abortive.

With very few exceptions, the whole tin of the Malay islands is mined, and smelted by Chinese settlers; and before their skill and enterprise were applied to its production, the metal seems to have been obtained by the inhabitants of the countries which produced it, by processes hardly more skillful than those by which the precious metals were procured by the native inhabitants of America, prior to the introduction of European skill and machinery. The following estimate has been given of the annual produce of the principal states and places producing tin:—

East coast of the Malay peninsula —		Piculs.	West coast of the Malay peninsula and islands —		Piculs.
Junk Ceylon	-	5,000	Bangka and Patani	-	5,500
Queda	-	5,000	Tringau	-	7,000
Pera	-	5,000	Pahang	-	5,500
Balangore	-	5,000	Singap.	-	6,500
Malacca	-	4,000	Banca	-	35,000
Total	-	Piculs 17,000	Total	-	Piculs 55,000

This can be considered only as a rough estimate; but we believe it is not far wide of the truth. The most considerable port of exportation is Batavia; from which there is sent annually, either directly or through orders from the Dutch government or the authorities at Banca, 8,000 tons. From Pinna of Wales Island there is also a considerable quantity exported; and a smaller one direct to China in junk, from several of the native ports on the eastern shore of the Malay peninsula. The great markets for the consumption of tin are China, Hindostan, and the continent of Europe. The quality of the different descriptions of Malay tin, although there may be some inconsiderable difference in the quality of the original ore, seems to be derived chiefly from the greater or less skill with which the process of smelting is conducted; and this, again, necessarily depends upon the extent of capital and goodness of the machinery employed. The mining operations of Banca have long been conducted upon a larger scale, and with more skill, than in any other of the Malay countries; and, consequently, the metal produced in this island is superior by from 10 to 12 per cent. in the market of Canton to that called "old tin." In contradistinction to "new tin," the produce of the other Malay countries. Next, in point of quality, to the produce of Banca, are those of Tringau and Singap., which are not more than 8 per cent. inferior to it. The tin of the state of Pera, a considerable part of which is produced by the natives themselves, without Chinese assistance, is the worst, and usually about 15 per cent. below that of Banca. The native tin of China is 10 per cent. inferior to that of Banca, and is probably black tin, like the greater part of that of Cornwall; and, like it, the produce of regular mining operations, and not alluvial. The produce of the Chinese mines is said of late years to have greatly decreased; probably owing to the great increase which has recently taken place in the produce of the Malay countries, and the cheapness and abundance with which it finds its way to China. It should be added, that of late years, and chiefly owing to the very low price and abundance of German spelter (zinc) in the Indian market, this commodity has occasionally been fraudulently mixed with tin. The Chinese brokers of Canton, however, are sufficiently expert to detect the adulteration; and it is believed that this discreditable practice has lately ceased.

The price of tin, taking the market of Singapore as the standard, has fluctuated of late years from 14 to 20 Spanish dollars per picul; equal, at the exchange of 4*s.* per dollar, to 4*l.* and 5*l.* per cwt. At an average of these prices, the annual value of the whole Malay tin will be about 240,000*l.* per annum.—(Crawford's History of the Indian Archipelago; Dr. Horsfield's MS. Statistical View of the Island of Banca; Singapore Chronicle; Canton Register, &c.)

TOBACCO (Da. *Tabak*; Du. *Tabak*; Fr. *Tabac*; Ger. *Tabak*; It. *Tabacco*; Pol. *Tabaka*; Rus. *Tabak*; Sp. *Tabaco*; Arab. *Bujjerhann*; Hind. *Tumbakū*; Malay,

Tumbracco), the dried leaves of the *Nicotiana Tubacum*, a plant indigenous to America, but which succeeds very well, and is extensively cultivated, in most parts of the Old World. The recent leaves possess very little odour or taste; but when dried, their odour is strong, narcotic, and somewhat fetid; their taste bitter and extremely acrid. When well cured, they are of a yellowish green colour. When distilled, they yield an essential oil, on which their virtue depends, and which is said to be a virulent poison. The leaves are used in various ways; being chewed, smoked, and ground and manufactured into snuff. It is in the last mentioned form that tobacco is principally used in Great Britain; and, though the contrary has been often asserted, its use does not seem to be productive of any perceptible bad consequence.

1. *Historical Sketch of Tobacco.* — The taste for tobacco, though apparently administering only to a frivolous gratification, has given birth to a most extensive commerce, and been a powerful spur to industry. Being a native of the New World, its introduction into Europe dates only from the early part of the 16th century. Seeds of the plant were sent, in 1560, from Portugal, to Catherine de' Medici, by Jean Nicot, the French ambassador in that country, from whom it has received its botanical name. The notion, at one time so general, that the specific appellation tobacco was derived from its having been imported from Tobago, is now universally admitted to be without foundation. Humboldt has shown, that tobacco was the term used in the Haytian language to designate the pipe, or instrument made use of by the natives in smoking the herb; and the term, having been transferred by the Spaniards from the pipe to the herb itself, has been adopted by the other nations of the ancient world. — (*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, vol. iii. p. 50. 2d. edit.) Tobacco is believed to have been first introduced into England by the settlers who returned, in 1586, from the colony which it had been attempted to found in Virginia, under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh, in the preceding year. Harriott, who accompanied this expedition, gives, in his description of Virginia, an account of the tobacco plant, and of the manner in which it was used by the natives; adding, that the English, during the time they were in Virginia, and since their return home, were accustomed to smoke it after the fashion of the Indians, "and found many rare and wonderful experiments of the virtue thereof." — (*Hakluyt*, vol. i. p. 75.)

Raleigh, and other young men of fashion, having adopted the practice of smoking, it spread amongst the English; as it had previously spread amongst the Spaniards, Portuguese, French, and other Continental nations. But it made its greatest progress in this country after the foundation of the colony at James Town in Virginia, in 1607. The soil of the colony being found particularly well fitted for the culture of tobacco, considerable quantities were raised and sent home; and the numerous individuals interested in the colony contributed to introduce that taste for it which was diffused amongst all classes with astonishing rapidity.

James I. attempted, by repeated proclamations and publications, some of them couched in very strong terms, to restrain the use of tobacco. But his efforts had very little effect; and the settlers in Virginia continued to experience a more rapidly increasing and better demand for tobacco than for any other product of the colony.

During the earlier part of the reign of Charles I., the trade in tobacco was monopolised by the Crown. This monopoly was not, however, of long continuance, and totally ceased at the breaking out of the civil war.

Tobacco plants had been early introduced into England, and were found to answer remarkably well. Their cultivation was, indeed, prohibited by James, and afterwards by Charles, but apparently without effect. At length, however, the growing consumption of tobacco having excited the attention of the government financiers, it was seen that, by imposing a duty on its importation, a considerable revenue might be raised; but that, were it allowed to be freely cultivated at home, it would be very difficult to collect a duty upon it. In 1643, the Lords and Commons imposed a moderate duty, for the sake of revenue, on plantation tobacco; but instead of directly prohibiting the use of native tobacco, they burdened it with such a duty as, it was supposed, would occasion its culture to be abandoned. The facility, however, with which the duty was evaded, soon satisfied the republican leaders that more vigorous measures were required to stop its cultivation, and consequently to render its importation a source of revenue. Hence, in 1652, an act was passed, prohibiting the growth of tobacco in England, and appointing commissioners to see its provisions carried into effect. This act was confirmed at the Restoration, by the act Charles 2. c. 34., which ordered that all tobacco plantations should be destroyed. These measures were believed, at the time, to have been principally brought about by the solicitations of the planters; but their real intention was not so much to conciliate or benefit the latter, as to facilitate the collection of a revenue from tobacco; and, considered in this point of view, their policy seems quite unexceptionable.

This act did not, however, extend to Ireland; and of late years, the cultivation of

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tobacco made considerable progress in that country. Had this been allowed to continue, there can be no question that, in a few years, the revenue from tobacco, amounting to about 3,000,000*l.* a year, would have been materially diminished; for it would be quite visionary to suppose that any plan could have been devised for collecting a duty even of 100 per cent. upon tobacco — (see *post*) — supposing it to have been generally cultivated in Ireland. No one, therefore, can question the wisdom of the act prohibiting its growth in that country, and the rigorous enforcement of its provisions. Any advantage Ireland might have gained by its cultivation, would have been but a poor compensation for the sacrifice of revenue it must have occasioned.

In some countries, as England, tobacco is principally used in the form of snuff; in others it is principally chewed; but, in one form or other, it is every where made use of. So early as 1624, Pope Urban VIII. issued a bull, excommunicating those who smoked in churches! The practice of smoking was at one time exceedingly prevalent in this country; but during the reign of George III. it was well nigh superseded, at least amongst the higher and middle classes, by the practice of snuff-taking. Latterly, however, smoking has been in some measure revived, though it is still very far from being so extensively practised as formerly.

We quote the following statement as to the universality of the use of tobacco from a learned paper on its "Introduction and Use," in the 22d volume (p. 142.) of the *Asiatic Journal*: — "In Spain, France, and Germany, in Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, the practice of smoking tobacco prevails amongst the rich and poor, the learned and the gay. In the United States of America, smoking is often carried to an excess. It is not uncommon for boys to have a pipe or cigar in the mouth during the greatest part of the day. The death of a child is not unfrequently recorded in American newspapers, with the following remark subjoined: — 'supposed to be occasioned by excessive smoking.' If we pass to the East we shall find the practice almost universal. In Turkey, the pipe is perpetually in the mouth; and the most solemn conferences are generally concluded with a friendly pipe, employed like the *calumet* of peace amongst the Indians. In the East Indies, not merely all classes, but both sexes, inhale the fragrant steam; the only distinction among them consisting in the shape of the instrument employed, and the species of the herb smoked. In China, the habit equally prevails; and a modern traveller in that country (Barrow) states, that every Chinese female, from the age of 8 or 9 years, wears, as an appendage to her dress, a small silken purse or pocket to hold tobacco, and a pipe, with the use of which many of them are not unacquainted at this tender age. This prevalence of the practice, at an early period, amongst the Chinese, is appealed to by M. Pallas as an evidence that 'in Asia, and especially in China, the use of tobacco for smoking is more ancient than the discovery of the New World.' He adds — 'Amongst the Chinese, and amongst the Mongol tribes who had the most intercourse with them, the custom of smoking is so general, so frequent, and has become so indispensable a luxury; the tobacco purse affixed to their belt so necessary an article of dress; the form of the pipes, from which the Dutch seem to have taken the model of theirs, so original; and, lastly, the preparation of the yellow leaves, which are merely rubbed to pieces and then put into the pipe, so peculiar; that they could not possibly derive all this from America by way of Europe; especially as India, where the practice of smoking is not so general, intervenes between Persia and China.'"

This, however, is a very doubtful proposition. It seems sufficiently established that the tobacco plant was first brought from Brazil to India about the year 1617; and it is most probable that it was thence carried to Siam, China, and other Eastern countries. The names given to it in all the languages of the East are obviously of European, or rather American, origin; a fact which seems completely to negative the idea of its being indigenous to the East.

Sources of Supply. Importation into Great Britain. — Tobacco is now very extensively cultivated in France and other European countries, in the Levant, and in India; but the tobacco of the U. States is still very generally admitted to be decidedly superior to most others. It is much higher flavoured than the tobacco of Europe; a superiority attributable in some degree, perhaps, to a different mode of treatment; but far more, it is believed, to differences of soil and climate.

Previously to the American war, our supplies of tobacco were almost entirely derived from Virginia and Maryland; and they are still principally imported from these states: of 36,680,887 lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco imported in 1840, no fewer than 34,628,886 lbs. came from the U. States. Mr. Jefferson, in his *Notes on Virginia*, has given a very unfavourable view of the effects of the tobacco culture. It was, indeed, well known to be a crop that speedily exhausted all but the very best lands; and in addition to this, Mr. J. says that "it is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion, beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and

animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished."— (English ed. p. 278.)

Tobacco is extensively cultivated in Mexico, but only for home consumption. It might probably, however, were it not for the restrictions under which it is placed, form a considerable article of export from that country. Under the Spanish government, the tobacco monopoly was one of the principal sources of revenue; yielding from 4,000,000 to 4,500,000 dollars, exclusive of the expenses of administration, amounting to about 800,000 dollars. No tobacco was allowed to be cultivated, except in a few specified places. Commissioners, or *guardas de tabaco*, were appointed, whose duty it was to take care that all tobacco plantations without the privileged districts should be destroyed. The government fixed the price at which the cultivators of tobacco were obliged to sell it to its agents. The sale of the manufactured tobacco was farmed out; and *cigars* were not allowed to be sold, except at the royal *estancos*. No one was allowed to use cigars of his own manufacture. This most oppressive monopoly was established in 1764. It has been continued, from the difficulty of supplying the revenue which it produces, by the present government.— (*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, iii. 49; *Toluet's Notes on Mexico*, note 116. Lond. ed.)

Cuba is celebrated for its tobacco, particularly its cigars. These consist of the leaves, formed into small rolls, for the purpose of smoking. Formerly their importation into this country was prohibited; but they may now be imported on paying the exorbitant duty of 9s. per lb. Havannah cigars are usually reckoned the best. Previously to 1820, the cultivation and sale of tobacco were subjected to the same sort of monopoly in Cuba as in Mexico; but, at the period referred to, the trade was thrown open. In consequence of the freedom thus given to the business, the production and exportation of tobacco are both rapidly increasing, though hardly, perhaps, so much as might have been expected; the culture of sugar and coffee being reckoned more profitable. In 1842, the declared value of the tobacco and cigars exported from Cuba amounted to 2,211,572 dollars; but there is good reason to think that its real value considerably exceeded this sum.

Consumption of Duty-paid Tobacco in the U. Kingdom.— It appears from the following official account, that the consumption of duty-paid tobacco in Great Britain has increased from about 8,000,000 lbs. in 1789, to 16,976,000 lbs. in 1842; the duty having fluctuated during the same period from 1s. 3d. to 4s. and 3s. per lb. There are, however, sufficient grounds for thinking that the consumption would have been at least doubled had the duty continued at 1s. 3d. per lb. But, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the influence of the duty in Great Britain, there can be none as to its influence in Ireland. The subjoined Table shows that during the 5 years ending with 1798, when the duty was 8d. per lb., the annual average consumption of duty-paid tobacco was 7,837,217 lbs. Since 1798, the population of Ireland has been a good deal more than doubled; and yet, during the 5 years ending with 1842, when the duty was 3s. per lb., the annual average consumption has been only 3,312,020 lbs.; which, making allowance for the increase of population, shows that the consumption has sunk to little more than a fourth part of what it amounted to at the former period! This statement warrants the conclusion, that were the duty on tobacco in Ireland reduced to 1s. per lb., the consumption would be so much increased, that the revenue would gain, and not lose, by the reduction.

Smuggling.— The price of tobacco in bond varies from 3d. to 6d. per lb.; so that the duty of 3s. amounts to 1,200 per cent. on the inferior, and to 600 per cent. on the superior qualities. Now, though the use of tobacco be a frivolous, it is, at the same time, an innocent gratification; and we do not really see any reason whatever for loading it with such oppressive duties, even supposing it were possible to collect them. The more the wants and desires of men are multiplied, the more inventive and industrious they become; and so far from preventing luxurious indulgences, a wise government should exert itself to increase their number, and to diffuse a taste for them as widely as possible. But supposing it to be otherwise, still the magnitude of the tobacco duty is altogether indefensible: it is neither calculated to produce the largest amount of revenue, nor to eradicate the taste for the article. Its exorbitancy is advantageous to the smuggler, and to him only. If, as one might be half inclined to suspect, the duty were intended to give life and activity to the nefarious practices of the illicit traders, it has completely answered its object; but in every other point of view, its failure has been signal and complete. "According," said Mr. Poulett Thomson (afterwards Lord Sydenham), in his speech on the taxation of the empire, on the 26th of March, 1830, "according to all accounts laid before the house on this subject, smuggling in this article, in England, Ireland, and Scotland, is carried on to the greatest possible extent. I have heard it stated, and I have the fact upon the best authority, that numbers of vessels are constantly leaving the ports of Flushing, Ostend, &c., carrying contraband tobacco to this country. It is a fact which was established in evidence before a committee of this house, that seventy cargoes of tobacco, containing 9,644,000 lbs., were

smuggled in 1 year, on the coast of Ireland, from the port of Waterford to the Giant's Causeway alone! In Scotland, smuggling in this article is also carried on to a great extent. There is no doubt," he added, "that the only mode of meeting this system of smuggling consists in *fairly reducing the duty upon the article*. I believe that, were the duty upon it reduced to 1s. or 1s. 6d. per lb., the public would be greatly served, and smuggling put down."

We question, indeed, whether, allowing for the clandestine importation, the consumption be relatively less at this moment, in Ireland, than at any former period. Under the present system, government collects an exorbitant duty upon about a *half* of the tobacco consumed in Ireland, the other *half* being supplied by the smuggler; the duty being at once an incentive to his energies, and a premium to indemnify him for his risks! A *third part* of the demand of Great Britain is, probably, supplied in the same way. The smuggler is, in fact, at this moment (1844), able to supply tobacco, in any part of the U. Kingdom, for from 2s. 6d. to 2s. 9d. per lb., whereas the duty on tobacco legitimately imported is no less than 3s.

Account of the Number of Pounds Weight of Leaf Tobacco, manufactured Cigars, and Snuff, that paid Duty in the U. Kingdom, for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1845; with the Gross Amount of Duty received therefrom.

Year ended 5th Jan. 1845.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption in the U. Kingdom.				Gross Amount of Duty received thereon.			
	Leaf Tobacco.	Manufactured Tobacco and Cigars.	Snuff.	Total.	Leaf Tobacco.	Manufactured Tobacco and Cigars.	Snuff.	Total.
	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	£	£	£	£
	22,095,588	215,815	187	22,309,560	5,478,188	100,038	49	5,680,164

Account of the Quantities of Tobacco retained for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Total Net Produce of the Duties in Great Britain and Ireland, from 1789 to 1843, both inclusive.

Year.	Great Britain.						Ireland.					
	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Net Revenue of Customs and Excise.		Total Rates of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco.				Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Net Revenue of Customs and Excise.		Total Rates of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco.	
				American.	Of the Dominions of Spain and Portugal.	£	£					£
1789	6,152,185	409,037	4	1	1s. 5d.		2,785,441	128,704	8	4	1s. Irish currency.	
1790	5,820,224	418,363	7	1		3s. 6d.	3,020,437	151,084	16	10		
1791	5,840,273	583,969	9	1			3,649,415	177,000	0	0		
1792	5,275,821	595,096	7	7			1,787,581	50,669	4	0	6d. ditto.	
1793	6,517,967	547,417	14	4			3,268,837	145,811	11	0		
1794	5,723,536	606,268	12	10			9,488,911	102,138	10	0	6d. ditto.	
1795	10,973,363	539,889	3	4			3,274,070	112,710	10	0	6d. ditto.	
1796	10,047,843	755,451	15	6	1s. 7d.	4s. 6d.	4,443,555	407,791	16	4	1s. ditto.	
1797	9,828,439	813,027	16	9	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 13-20ths.	4,698,181	415,217	16	4	1s. ditto.	
1798	10,866,741	867,502	13	0	1s. 7d. 18-20ths.	4s. 7d. 4-20ths.	4,876,174	448,000	9	0	1s. 7-10ths ditto.	
1799	10,993,113	796,369	14	9			5,257,973	387,016	9	0		
1800	11,196,413	967,110	8	8			5,580,754	480,486	6	4		
1801	10,514,998	923,053	3	5	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 16-20ths.	6,827,549	800,736	9	8	1s. 7-10ths per lb. and 5s. per 100 lbs.	
1802	10,181,278	998,678	9	1	1s. 7d. 35-50ths.	4s. 7d. 15-50ths.	5,278,511	925,044	8	5	1s. 6d. Brit. currency.	
1803	10,585,570	1,028,563	16	1	1s. 7d.	4s. 8d.	5,783,487	814,007	8	5		
1804	10,454,494	1,060,319	16	0	1s. 7d.	4s. 10d.	4,138,764	800,818	6	4		
1805	10,636,471	1,066,821	8	5	1s. 8d. 15-20ths.	4s. 10d. 19-20ths.	5,080,166	800,807	6	4		
1806	12,433,033	1,170,320	14	1	1s. 8d. 15-20ths.	5s. 4d. 19-20ths.	6,437,049	815,217	4	8	1s. 6d. ditto.	
1807	12,439,294	1,236,542	17	9			5,844,416	805,874	4	8		
1808	12,876,119	1,448,265	3	7			6,407,698	451,718	17	0		
1809	12,056,420	1,325,154	5	7		4s. 1d. 13-20ths.	6,293,646	443,086	6	0		
1810	14,106,193	1,699,378	16	9			6,425,078	443,086	6	0	5s. 8d. 18-20ths ditto.	
1811	14,293,943	1,701,848	8	8			5,806,708	407,260	9	11		
1812	15,043,535	1,678,918	2	2	2s. 6d. 13-20ths.	4s. 5d. 16-20ths.	5,044,817	746,006	8	0	5s. 8d. 8-10ths ditto.	
1813	15,618,843	1,681,681	12	9	2s. 6d. 3-16ths.	4s. 11d. 11-18ths.	4,868,304	638,708	11	1		
1814	10,503,017	1,541,681	12	9			4,746,205	740,979	11	1	5s. 8d. ditto.	
1815	13,407,192	1,564,187	7	10	3s. 2d.	5s. 5d.	4,736,985	737,317	11	1		
1816	12,816,308	1,425,109	8	8			4,774,460	737,317	11	1		
1817	13,893,089	1,158,500	3	11			4,129,541	690,183	9	0	4s. ditto.	
1818	13,688,437	1,173,566	18	9			4,446,634	618,448	9	0		
1819	15,211,985	1,282,049	8	10	4s.	6s.	2,665,674	518,448	9	0		
1820	15,014,568	1,810,978	7	9			2,846,496	518,448	9	0		
1821	12,995,196	1,600,416	7	8			2,808,517	518,448	9	0		
1822	12,070,586	1,399,133	15	1			2,311,196	730,907	11	8		
1823	13,114,534	1,695,009	15	0			2,747,736	710,000	11	8		
1824	13,083,018	1,637,045	18	0			2,400,517	710,000	11	8		
1825	14,510,555	1,850,817	6	3	5s.	6s.	4,160,740	700,000	11	0	5s. ditto.	
1826	13,785,370	1,677,475	14	1			3,028,517	681,000	11	0		
1827	14,701,635	1,783,240	16	4			4,041,718	693,000	11	0		
1828	14,240,866	1,196,142	18	0			4,015,014	693,000	11	0		
1829	14,760,466	1,236,566	0	0			4,165,987	618,448	9	0		
1830	16,170,716	1,306,367	0	0	3s.	5s.	4,254,276	681,000	11	0		
1831	16,280,018	1,238,107	0	0			4,128,828	681,000	11	0	5s.	
1832	15,839,728	1,436,568	0	0			4,254,276	681,000	11	0		
1833	16,874,159	1,474,115	0	0			4,254,276	681,000	11	0		
1834	16,616,607	1,233,868	0	0			4,797,100	708,119	11	0		
1835	17,827,060	1,681,816	0	0			4,254,276	681,000	11	0		
1836	17,481,243	1,656,189	0	0			4,015,000	710,000	11	0		
1837	17,586,922	1,677,169	0	0			4,065,281	715,144	11	0		
1838	18,486,466	1,693,995	0	0			4,165,987	715,144	11	0		
1839	17,959,714	1,737,341	0	0			4,254,276	681,000	11	0		
1840	17,734,948	1,774,710	0	0	3s. & 5 per ct.	5s. & 5 per ct.	4,361,288	830,444	11	0		
1841	16,570,913	1,711,817	0	0			4,165,987	681,000	11	0		
1842	16,076,019	1,748,493	0	0			4,254,276	681,000	11	0		

* From 15th May, 1840.

Prices of Tobacco, in Bond, in the London Market, on the 1st of January, 1844, and 1843.

	1844.			1843.			1844.			1843.				
	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.		
Virginia leaf, ordinary and faded	0	33	to 0 33	0	33	to 0 33	Kentucky leaf, stemmed —	s.	d.	q.	s.	d.	q.	
part dark and sweet	0	33	to 0 44	0	33	to 0 44	common	per lb.	0	41	to 0 43	0	41	to 0 43
fine dark and sweet	0	41	to 0 44	0	41	to 0 44	middling	0	54	to 0 58	0	54	to 0 58	
long and leafy	0	51	to 0 54	0	51	to 0 54	fine	0	54	to 0 6	0	54	to 0 6	
common Irish	0	4	to 0 44	0	5	to 0 44	Maryland leaf, scrub,							
middling	0	4	to 0 44	0	4	to 0 44	brown	0	31	to 0 4	0	31	to 0 4	
fine	0	5	to 0 6	0	5	to 0 6	ditto, coloury	0	44	to 0 44	0	44	to 0 44	
ordinary sound	0	21	to 0 24	0	21	to 0 24	leafy brown	0	64	to 0 7	0	64	to 0 7	
middling	0	21	to 0 24	0	21	to 0 24	colony and leafy	0	71	to 0 8	0	71	to 0 8	
fine and spinning	0	41	to 0 64	0	41	to 0 64	good colour	0	71	to 0 8	0	71	to 0 8	
York River	0	54	to 0 6	0	54	to 0 6	yellow	0	6	to 0 2	0	6	to 0 2	
Virginia leaf, stemmed, ordinary faded	None.			None.			Virginia	0	1	to 0 2	0	1	to 0 2	
dark and faded	None.			None.			St. Domingo	0	3	to 0 3	0	3	to 0 3	
fine black and sweet	0	6	to 0 64	0	6	to 0 64	Columbian	0	10	to 0 10	0	10	to 0 10	
common (short)	0	44	to 0 5	0	44	to 0 5	Amersfoort	0	3	to 0 6	0	3	to 0 6	
middling	0	24	to 0 64	0	24	to 0 64	Turkey	0	6	to 0 9	0	6	to 0 9	
fine and spinning	0	7	to 0 74	0	7	to 0 74	Canadian	0	2	to 0 4	0	2	to 0 4	
Kentucky leaf, ordinary	0	7	to 0 5	0	7	to 0 5	Negro Head	0	3	to 0 54	0	4	to 0 10	
middling	0	31	to 0 4	0	31	to 0 4	Havanaoh	0	1	to 0 3	0	1	to 0 3	
fine	0	41	to 0 44	0	41	to 0 44	Cuba	0	8	to 0 10	0	8	to 0 10	
Kentucky leaf, stemmed, ordinary faded	0	31	to 0 44	0	31	to 0 44	Havannah cigars	0	4	to 0 14	0	4	to 0 14	
							Manilla cheroots	0	5	to 0 6	0	5	to 0 6	
							Stalks, duty paid	0	2	to 0 3	0	2	to 0 3	
							Smalls, duty paid	0	3	to 0 3	0	3	to 0 3	

Regulations as to Importation. — Tobacco is not to be imported in a vessel of less than 120 tons burden; nor unless in hogsheads, casks, chests, or cases containing at least 100 lbs. nett weight, if from the East Indies; or 400 lbs. weight, if from any other place; or 100 lbs. weight, if cigars; if cigars; except tobacco from Turkey, which may be packed in separate bags or packages, provided the outward package be a hogshead, cask, chest, or case, containing 450 lbs. nett at least; and except Colombian tobacco, which may be imported in packages made up in rolls of not less than 320 lbs. Tobacco is not allowed to be imported, unless into the following ports: viz. London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Dover, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Glasgow, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Newcastle, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford. A rent of four shillings is charged upon every hogshead, cask, chest, or case of tobacco, warehoused in every warehouse provided by the Crown; 2s. being paid immediately upon depositing the tobacco in the warehouse, and 2s. more before the tobacco is taken out for home consumption, or exportation; it may remain for five years in the warehouse without any additional charge for rent. No abatement is made from the tobacco duties on account of damage; but the merchant may, if he choose, abandon the tobacco, which is to be destroyed. The allowance of duty-free tobacco for each sailor on board His Majesty's navy, and for each soldier on foreign service, is fixed at 2 lbs. per lunar month. Tobacco that has been exported, cannot be re-imported without being subject to the same duty as if it were imported for the first time. Tobacco cannot be entered for exportation in any vessel of less than 70 tons burden. When tobacco is re-shipped for exportation, an allowance is made for shrinkage, from the seller to the buyer, of 30 lbs. per hhd. on Virginia and Kentucky, and 15 lbs. per hhd. on Maryland, on the landing weights; and the draft of the former 8 lbs. and of the latter 4 lbs., with a tret on all sorts of 4 lbs. per 104 lbs.

TON, an English weight containing 20 cwt.

TONNAGE, in commercial navigation, the number of tons burden that a ship will carry.

The mode in which the tonnage of British ships was formerly ascertained may be seen in the Registry Act, 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. §§ 16. and 17. This mode, however, led to very inaccurate conclusions; and as most shipping charges depend on the tonnage, it occasioned the building of ships of an improper form for the purposes of navigation, in order that, by measuring less than their real burden, they might evade part of the duties. It was, therefore, long felt to be desirable that some change should be made in the plan of measuring ships; but the practical obstacles in the way of the change were greater than might have been supposed. The accurate estimation of the tonnage of a ship is a difficult problem; and it is indispensable that any system to be adopted in practice be not very complex; for if so, it will either be wholly inapplicable, or it will be sure to be incorrectly applied. At best, therefore, only an approximative measurement can be obtained. A committee of scientific and practical gentlemen having been appointed in 1834 to consider the subject, a bill was introduced into parliament, at their recommendation, embodying a plan for the more correct measurement of ships, and was subsequently passed into a law, the 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 56. The rules it lays down are not so simple or easily applied as those that were previously used; but they give the tonnage of all ships, however built, with tolerable accuracy, and consequently take away the temptation, that till then existed, to build ships of such a form that they might measure less than their true burden. The existing regulations, in regard to the determination of the tonnage, are embodied in the following clauses of the registry act, the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 89.

The Rule by which Tonnage of Vessels is to be ascertained. — From and after the commencement of this act the tonnage of every ship or vessel required by law to be registered shall, previous to her being registered, be measured and ascertained while her hold is clear, and according to the following rule; viz. divide the length of the upper deck between the after part of the stem and the fore part of the stern-post into 6 equal parts. Depth: at the foremost, the middle, and the aftermost of those points of division, measure in feet and decimal parts of a foot the depths from the under side of the upper deck to the ceiling at the timber strake; in the case of a break in the upper deck the depths are to be measured from a line stretched in a continuation of the deck. Breadths: divide each of those 3 depths into 5 equal parts, and measure the inside breadths at the following points; viz. at 1-5th and at 4-5ths from the upper deck of the foremost and aftermost depths, and at 2-5ths and 4-5ths from the upper deck of the midship depth. Length: at 1/4 the midship depth measure the length of the vessel from the after part of the stem to the fore part of the stern-post; then twice the midship depth add the foremost; and the aftermost depths for the sum of the depths; add together the upper and lower breadths at the 1/20th division, 3 times the upper breadth and the lower breadth at the midship division, and the upper and twice the lower breadth at the after division, for the sum of the breadths; then multiply the sum of the depths

by the sum of the breadths, and this product by the length, and divide the final product by 3,600, which will give the number of tons for register. If the vessel have a poop or half deck or a break in the upper deck, measure the inside mean length, breadth, and height of such part thereof as may be included within the bulkhead; multiply these 3 measurements together, and dividing the product by 924, the quotient will be the number of tons to be added to the result as above found. In order to ascertain the tonnage of open vessels the depth are to be measured from the upper edge of the upper strake. — § 16.

Mode of ascertaining Tonnage of Steer-a Vessels. — In each of the several rules herein-before prescribed when applied for the purpose of ascertaining the tonnage of any ship or vessel propelled by steam, the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be deducted from the total tonnage of the vessel as determined by either of the rules aforesaid, and the remainder shall be deemed the true register tonnage of the said ship or vessel; the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be determined in the following manner; viz. measure the inside length of the engine room in feet and decimal parts of a foot from the foremost to the aftermost bulkhead, then multiply the said length by the depth of the ship or vessel at the midship division as aforesaid, and the product by the inside breadth at the same division at 2-5ths of the depth from the deck, taken as aforesaid, and divide the last product by 924, and the quotient shall be deemed the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room. — § 17.

Length and Cubical Contents of Engine Room to be set forth in Description of Steam Vessel. — The tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, and also the length of the engine room, shall be set forth in the certificate of registry as part of the description of the ship or vessel, and any alteration of such tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, or of such length of the engine room after registry, shall be deemed to be an alteration requiring registry *de novo* within the meaning of this act. — § 18.

Rule for measuring Ships with Cargoes on board. — For the purpose of ascertaining the tonnage of all such ships as there shall be occasion to measure while their cargoes are on board, the following rule shall be observed, and is hereby established; viz. measure first the length on the upper deck between the after part of the stem and the fore part of the stern-post; 2dly, the inside breadth on the under side of the upper deck at the middle point of the length; and, 3dly, the depth from the under side of the upper deck down to the pump well to the skin; multiply these 3 dimensions together, and divide the product by 190, and the quotient will be the amount of the register tonnage of such ship. If the vessel have a poop or half deck or a break in the upper deck, measure the inside mean length, breadth, and height of such part thereof as may be included within the bulkhead, multiply these 3 measurements together, and, dividing the product by 92 and 4-10ths, the quotient will be the number of tons to be added to the result as above found. — § 19.

Amount of registered Tonnage to be carved on Main Beam. — The true amount of the register tonnage of every ship or vessel required by law to be registered, ascertained according to the rule by this act established, shall be deeply carved or cut in figures of at least 3 inches in length on the main beam of every such ship or vessel prior to her being registered. — § 20.

Not to alter Tonnage of Vessels already registered. — Nothing herein contained shall extend to alter the present measure of tonnage of any ship or vessel which shall have been registered prior to the commencement of this act, unless in cases where the owners of any such ships shall require to have their tonnage established according to the rule herein-before provided, or unless there shall be occasion to have any such ship admeasured again on account of any alteration which shall have been made in the form or burden of the same, in which cases only such ships shall be re-admeasured according to the said rule, and their tonnage registered accordingly. — § 21.

Tonnage when so ascertained to be ever after deemed the Tonnage. — Whenever the tonnage of any ship or vessel shall have been ascertained according to the rules herein prescribed, such account of tonnage shall ever after be deemed the tonnage of such ship or vessel, and shall be repeated in every subsequent registry of such ship or vessel, unless it shall happen that any alteration has been made in the form and burden of such ship or vessel, or it shall be discovered that the tonnage of such ship or vessel had been erroneously taken and computed. — § 22.

TOOLS AND MACHINES. Under this designation are comprised all sorts of instruments employed to assist in the performance of any undertaking, from the rudest and simplest to the most improved and complex. But we only mention them here for the purpose of making one or two remarks on the restrictions to which the trade in them has been subjected.

Importation and Exportation of Tools and Machines. — Tools and machines being instruments of production, it is obviously of the utmost importance that they should be as much improved as possible; and hence the expediency of allowing their free importation. Their exclusion, or the exclusion of the articles of which they are made, would obviously lay every branch of industry carried on in a nation less advanced than others in their manufacture, under the most serious disadvantages. And supposing the implements it employed to be superior to those of other countries when the exclusion took place, the absence of foreign competition, and of the emulation which it inspires, would most probably, in a very short time, occasion the loss of this superiority. The injury arising from the prohibition of most other articles is comparatively limited, affecting only the producers and consumers of those that are prohibited. But a prohibition of machines strikes at the root of every species of industry: it is not injurious to one, or a few branches, but to all.

The question, whether the exportation of machinery ought to be free, is not so easy of solution. It is the duty of a nation to avail itself of every fair means for its own aggrandisement; and supposing the machinery belonging to any particular people were decidedly superior to that employed by their neighbours, and that they had it in their power to preserve this advantage, their generosity would certainly outrun their sense, were they to communicate their improved machinery to others. We do not, however, believe that it is possible, whatever measures may be adopted in that view, for one country to monopolise, for any considerable period, any material improvement in machinery or the arts: and on this ground we think that the late restraints on the exportation of machinery have been wisely abolished. Drawings and models of all sorts of machines used in Manchester, Glasgow, and Birmingham, are to be found in most parts of the Continent; and at Rouen, Paris, &c. numbers of the best English workmen are employed in the manufacture of prohibited ma-

chines. Now, it does certainly appear not a little preposterous to prevent the exportation of a machine, at the same time that we allow (it could not, indeed, be prevented) the free egress of the workmen by whom it is made! The effect of this policy has not been to secure a monopoly of improved machines for the manufacturers of England, but to occasion the emigration of English artisans to the Continent, and the establishment there of machine manufactories under their superintendance. The prejudice that arose from this state of things to the interests of England, is too obvious to require being pointed out. It is plain, therefore, that sound policy would dictate that the exportation of all sorts of machinery, on payment of a moderate duty, should be allowed. A policy of this sort will afford a much more efficient protection to our manufacturers than they have hitherto enjoyed; at the same time that it will tend to keep our artisans at home, and make England the grand seat of the tool as well as of the cotton manufacture; and we are glad to have to announce that this policy has been at length adopted, the act 6 & 7 Victoria, c. 84. having repealed the restraints previously imposed on the exportation of machinery. The total declared value of the machinery and mill-work exported in 1842 amounted to 554,653*l*.

TOPAZ (Ger. *Topas*; Fr. *Topase*; It. *Topazio*; Sp. *Topacio*; Rus. *Topas*). The name topaz has been restricted by M. Häuy to the stones called by mineralogists Occidental ruby, topaz, and sapphire; which, agreeing in their crystallisation and most of their properties, were arranged under one species by M. Romé de Lisle. The word topaz, derived from an island in the Red Sea, where the ancients used to find topazes, was applied by them to a mineral very different from ours. One variety of our topaz they denominated Chrysolite. Colour, wine yellow. From pale wine yellow it passes into yellowish white, greenish white, mountain green, sky blue: from deep wine yellow into flesh red and crimson red. Specific gravity from 3.464 to 3.641. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.)

"*Yellow Topaz*. — In speaking of the topaz, a gem of a beautiful yellow colour is always understood: it is wine yellow of different degrees of intensity; and the fuller and deeper the tinge, the more the stone is esteemed. In hardness it yields to the spinelle.

"There are few gems more universal favourites than the yellow topaz, when perfect; the rich warm tone of its colour, the vivacity of its lustre (which it retains even by the side of the diamond), and its large size, compared with many others, are characters which deservedly entitle it to distinction; it bears accordingly a high price when of good quality.

"It is chiefly employed for necklaces, ear-drops, bracelets, &c. in suit. No little skill and taste are required in cutting and duly proportioning this gem; the table should be perfectly symmetrical, and not too large; the facets of sufficient depth, and the collet side should be formed in delicate steps. It works easily on the mill, and the lapidaries are in general tolerably well acquainted with it; yet it is uncommon to meet with one well cut.

"The yellow topaz varies in price according to its beauty and perfection. A superlatively fine stone, perfect in colour and workmanship, sufficiently large for an armlet, or any other ornament, and weighing nearly 80 carats, was sold for 100*l*.

"Topazes have become more common since our intercourse with Brazil; consequently they are less in demand, and lower in price. A fine stone of 60 carats may be purchased at from 20*l*. to 25*l*.; and smaller, calculated for ring stones, at from 2*l*. to 5*l*.; but it is not usual to sell them by weight.

"*Pink Topaz*. — This is made from the yellow, which, when of intense colour, is put into the bowl of a tobacco pipe or small crucible, covered with ashes or sand; on the application of a low degree of heat, it changes its colour from a yellow to a beautiful pink. This is performed with little hazard; and if the colour produced happens to be fine, the price is much augmented.

"*Red Topaz*. — This beautiful gem, which very seldom occurs naturally, is of a fine crimson colour, tinged with a rich brown; it is extremely rare, and generally taken to be a variety of ruby, for which I have seen it offered for sale. Its price, from its scarcity, is quite capricious; it has an exquisite pleasing colour, very different from the glare of the artificial pink topaz.

"*Blue Topaz*. — is also a beautiful gem, of a fine celestial blue colour. It has occurred of considerable magnitude; the finest specimen known, I brought in the rough from Brazil; when cut and polished, it weighed about 1½ os. Smaller specimens are not uncommon, and when light-coloured, are often taken for aqua-marinas, from which they may always be distinguished by their greater weight and hardness, &c.

"*White Topaz*. — is familiarly called *Minas Nova*. It is a beautiful pellucid gem, and is used for bracelets, necklaces, &c. It possesses greater brilliancy than crystal, and in its hardness, has been used to cover paste, &c., and to form doublets." — (*Mateo on Diamonds*, &c. 2d ed. p. 108—112.)

TORTOISESHELL (Fr. *Ecaille de Tortue*; It. *Scaglia de Tartaruga*; Ger. *Schildpad*; Malay, *Sialik kurakura*), the brown and yellow scales of the *Testudo imbricata*, or tortoise, a native of the tropical seas. It is extensively used in the manufacture of combs, snuff-boxes, &c., and in inlaying and other ornamental work. The best tortoiseshell is that of the Indian Archipelago; and the finest of this quarter is obtained on the shores of the Spice Islands and New Guinea. When the finest West Indian tortoiseshell is worth, in the London market, 46*s*., the finest East Indian is worth 60*s*. per lb. Under the latter name, however, a great deal of inferior shell is imported, brought from various parts of the East Indies. The goodness of tortoiseshell depends mainly on the thickness and size of the scales, and in a smaller degree on the clearness and brilliancy of the colours. Before the opening of the British intercourse with India, the greater part of the tortoiseshell which eventually found its way to Europe, was first carried to Canton, which then formed the principal mart for the commodity. It is still an article of trade from that city; but the imports and exports are inconsiderable, Singapore being now the chief mart for this article. Its price at

the latter varies from 750 and 900 to 1,000 to 1,600 dollars per picul, according to quality. — (*Crawford's Indian Archipelago*; *Singapore Chronicle*; *Canton Register*.)

The imports of tortoiseshell into Great Britain from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope amount to about 40,000 lbs. a year. The duty was reduced in 1842 to 1s. per lb.

TOYS (Ger. *Spielzeug*, *Spielsachen*; Du. *Speelgoed*; Fr. *Jouets*, *Bimbolots*; It. *Trastulli*; Sp. *Dijas*, *Jugetes de ninnos*; Rus. *Igrushki*), include every trifling article made expressly for the amusement of children. How frivolous soever these articles may appear in the estimation of superficial observers, their manufacture employs hundreds of hands, and gives bread to many families, in London, Birmingham, &c. The greatness of the demand for them may be inferred, from the fact, that a manufacturer of glass beads, and articles of that description, has received a single order for 500*l.* worth of dolls' eyes! — (*Fourth Report, Artisans and Machinery*, p. 314.) Considerable quantities are also imported from Holland; which supplies us with several sorts of wooden toys on more reasonable terms than we can afford to produce them. But of late years, these have been made in greater abundance in England than formerly. The duty on toys, which down to 1842 was an *ad valorem* one of 20 per cent., produced, in 1840, 4,630*l.*, showing that the value of the toys imported for home use amounted to 23,153*l.* In 1842, the duty was reduced to 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.

TRAGACANTH, a species of gum, the produce of the *Astragalus Tragacantha*, a thorny shrub growing in Persia, Crete, and the islands of the Levant. It exudes about the end of June from the stem and larger branches, and soon dries in the sun. It is inodorous; impressing a very slightly bitter taste as it softens in the mouth. It has a whitish colour; is semitransparent; and in very thin, wrinkled, vermiform pieces; it is brittle, but not easily pulverised, except in frosty weather, or in a warmed mortar. It should be chosen in long twisted pieces, white, very clear, and free from all other colours; the brown, and particularly the black pieces, should be wholly rejected. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Millburn's Orient. Com.*)

The entries of tragacanth for home consumption in 1840 and 1841, were at the rate of 20,435 lbs. a year.

TREATIES (COMMERCIAL). By a commercial treaty is meant a treaty between two independent nations, for facilitating, and most commonly, also, regulating the commerce carried on between them.

Origin, Objects, and Policy of modern Commercial Treaties. — During the middle ages, and down, indeed, to a comparatively recent period, foreigners resident in a country, whether for commercial or other purposes, were, for the most part, subject to very harsh treatment. At one time, it was usual in England to make aliens liable for the debts and crimes of each other; and the practice, formerly so common, of laying heavier duties on the goods imported and exported by aliens than by British subjects, is not even yet, we grieve to say, altogether abandoned. In France, and some other countries, during the 14th and 15th centuries, a stranger was incapable of bequeathing property by will; and the whole of his personal as well as real estate, fell, at his death, to the king or the lord of the barony. This barbarous law was known by the name of *Droit d'Aubaine*, and was not completely abolished in France till a very late period. — (*Robertson's Charles V.*, vol. i. note 29.) Previously to last century, the laws with respect to shipwreck, though infinitely more humane than they had been at a more remote period, were calculated rather to promote the interest of the sovereign of the country, or the feudal lords on whose territories shipwrecked vessels might be thrown, than those of the unfortunate owners or survivors. — (See *WRECK*.) The most serious obstacles were then, also, opposed, by the prevalent insecurity, and the arbitrary nature of the tolls which the lords were in the habit of exacting, to the transit of commodities through the territories of one state to those of another.

Under such circumstances, it became of much importance for commercial states to endeavour to obtain, by means of treaties, that protection and security for the persons and properties of their subjects, when abroad, against unjust treatment and vexatious exactions, which they could not have obtained from the laws of the countries in which they might happen to reside. Thus, it was stipulated by Edward II., in 1325, that the merchants and mariners of Venice should have power to come to England for 10 years, with liberty to sell their merchandise and to return home in safety, "without having either their persons or goods stopped on account of other people's crimes or debts." — (*Anderson, anno 1325.*) The commercial treaties negotiated during the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, are full of similar conditions; and there can be no doubt that by

* The practice of confiscating shipwrecked property continued in France till 1681, when it was abolished by an edict of Louis XIV. It was at one time common in Germany, to use the words of M. Bouchaud, "pour les prédicateurs de prier Dieu en chaire, qu'il se fasse bien des naufrages sur leurs côtes!" — (*Mémoire des Traités de Commerce*, p. 118.) And the fact, that the celebrated jurist Potholus wrote a dissertation in defence of such prayers, affords, if possible, a still more striking proof of the spirit of the period.

providing for the security of merchants and seamen when abroad, and suspending, with respect to them, the barbarous laws and practices then in force, they contributed materially to accelerate the progress of commerce and civilisation.

Commercial treaties were also negotiated at a very early period for the regulation of neutral commerce during war; and for defining the articles that should be deemed contraband, or which it should not be lawful for neutral ships to convey or carry to either belligerent. These are obviously points that can only be decided by express stipulations.*

Instead, however, of confining commercial treaties to their legitimate and proper purposes—the security of merchants and navigators, and the facility of commercial transactions—they very soon began to be employed as engines for promoting the commerce of one country at the expense of another. For more than 2 centuries, those engaged in framing commercial treaties have principally applied themselves to secure, either by force or address, some exclusive advantage in favour of the ships and products of their particular countries. Hence these compacts are full of regulations as to the duties to be charged on certain articles, and the privileges to be enjoyed by certain ships, according as they were either produced by or belonged to particular countries. It was in the adjustment of these duties and regulations that the skill of the negotiator was chiefly put to the test. It was expected that he should be thoroughly acquainted with the state of every branch of industry, both in his own country and in the country with which he was negotiating; and he was to endeavour so to adjust the tariff of duties, that those branches in which his own country was deficient might be benefited, and those in which the other was superior might be depressed! The idea of conducting a negotiation of this sort on a fair principle of reciprocity is of very late origin; success in circumventing, in over-reaching, or in extorting from fear or ignorance some oppressive, but at the same time worthless privilege, was long esteemed the only proof of superior talent in negotiators.

In an able tract, attributed to Mr. Eden, afterwards Lord Auckland, published in 1787 (*Historical and Political Remarks on the Tariff of the French Treaty*), there is the following outline of the qualifications necessary to the negotiator of a commercial treaty:—“Besides a general knowledge of the trade and reciprocal interests of the contracting parties, he ought to be precisely acquainted with their several kinds of industry and skill; to discover their wants, to calculate their resources, and to weigh with nicety the state of their finances, and the proportionate interest of their money: nay, further, he should be able to ascertain the comparative population and strength of each country, together with the price and quality both of first materials, and also of the labour bestowed upon them: for this purpose he should inquire into the operations of every class of merchants and manufacturers concerned in the trade; should consult their expectations on each of its several branches; and collect their hopes and fears on the effect of such a commercial revolution, on the competition of rival nations. A good treaty of commerce, independent of the art of negotiation, is pronounced, by one who well knew the extent and difficulty of the subject, to be a ‘*masterpiece of skill*.’”—(p. 10.)

Had Mr. Eden concluded by stating, that no individual, or number of individuals, ever possessed, or ever would possess, the various qualifications which in his estimation were required in negotiating a “good commercial treaty,” he would only have affirmed what is most certainly true. We believe, however, that he had formed a totally false estimate, not only of the qualifications of a negotiator, but of the objects he ought to have in view. It was the opinion of the Abbé Mably—(*Droit Public de l'Europe*, tome ii. p. 561.)—an opinion in which we are disposed, with very little modification, to concur,—that when a few general rules are agreed upon for the effectual security of trade and navigation, including the importation and exportation of all commodities not prohibited by law; the speedy adjustment of disputes; the regulations of pilotage, harbour and light-house duties; the protection of the property and effects of merchants in the event of a rupture, &c.; all is done that ought to be attempted in a commercial treaty. It may, indeed, be properly stipulated that the goods of the contracting powers shall be admitted into each other's ports on the same terms as “those of the most favoured nations,”—that is, that no higher duties shall be charged upon them than on those of others. But here stipulation ought to cease. It is an abuse and a perversion of commercial treaties, to make them instruments for regulating duties or prescribing Custom-house regulations.

We admit, indeed, that occasions may occur, in which it may be expedient to stipulate for a reduction of duties or an abolition of prohibitions on the one side, in return for similar concessions on the other. But all arrangements of this sort should be determined by a convention limited to that particular object; and a fixed and not very distant term should be specified, when the obligation in the convention should expire, and

* There is a good collection of treaties as to this point. In the Appendix to the excellent work of Lampredi, *Del Commercio de' Popoli Neutrali*.—(See CONTRABAND.)

both parties be at liberty to continue or abandon the regulations agreed upon. Generally speaking, all treaties which determine what the duties on importation or exportation shall be, or which stipulate for preferences, are radically objectionable. Nations ought to regulate their tariffs in whatever mode they judge best for the promotion of their own interests, without being shackled by engagements with others. If foreign powers be all treated alike, none of them has just grounds of complaint; and it can rarely be for the interest of any people to show preferences to one over another. Those, for example, by whom we may be most advantageously supplied with foreign products, require no preferences; and if we exclude them, or give a preference to others, we incontestably injure ourselves: and yet 19 out of 20 of the regulations as to duties in commercial treaties have been founded on this preposterous principle. They have been employed to divert trade into channels, where it would not naturally flow; that is, to render it less secure and less profitable than it would otherwise have been.

A great deal of stress has usually been laid upon the advantages supposed to be derived from the privileges sometimes conceded in commercial treaties. But we believe that those who inquire into the subject will find that such concessions have, in every case, been not only injurious to the party making them, but also to the party in whose favour they have been made. The famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen in 1703, was almost universally regarded, for a very long period, as admirably calculated to promote the interests of this country; but it is now generally admitted, by every one who has reflected upon such subjects, that few transactions have taken place by which these interests have been more deeply injured. It stipulated for the free admission of British woollens into Portugal, from which they happened, at the time, to be excluded; but in return for this concession—a concession far more advantageous to the Portuguese than to us—we bound ourselves “for ever hereafter” to admit wines of the growth of Portugal into Great Britain at $\frac{2}{3}$ ds of the duty payable on the wines of France! Thus, in order to open an access for our woollens to the limited market of Portugal, we consented, in all time to come, to drink inferior wine, bought at a comparatively high price!—(See WINE.) This, however, was not all: by excluding one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our commodities, we necessarily lessened their ability to deal with us; at the same time that we provoked them to adopt retaliatory measures against our trade. It is owing more to the stipulations in the Methuen treaty than to any thing else, that the trade between England and France—a trade that would naturally be of vast extent and importance—has so long been confined within comparatively narrow limits.

It is visionary to imagine that any nation will ever continue to grant to another any exclusive advantage in her markets, unless she obtain what she reckons an equivalent advantage in the markets of the other. And if a commercial treaty stipulating for an exclusive privilege be really and *bona fide* observed by the country granting the privilege, we may be sure that the concessions made by the country in whose favour it is granted are sufficient fully to countervail it. Those who grasp at exclusive privileges in matters of this sort, or who attempt to extort valuable concessions from the weakness or ignorance of their neighbours, are uniformly defeated in their object. All really beneficial commercial transactions are bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity; and that nation will always flourish most, and have the foundations of her prosperity best secured, who is a universal merchant, and deals with all the world on the same fair and liberal principles.

The justness of these principles, we are glad to observe, is now beginning to be very generally admitted. Stipulations as to duties and Custom-house regulations are disappearing from commercial treaties; and it is to be hoped that, at no distant period, every trace of them may have vanished.

A good work on the principles, style, and history of commercial treaties is a desideratum. The best we have seen are Masovius *De Fœderibus Commercialium*, 4to. Leipzig, 1735; and Bouchaud, *Théorie des Traités de Commerce*, 12mo. Paris, 1777. But these are principally works of erudition, and were written before the sound principles of commercial policy had been unfolded. There is no good collection of commercial treaties in the English language; but Mr. Hertlet's work is valuable, as containing the recent treaties in an accessible form.

We subjoin copies of the principal commercial treaties and conventions existing at this moment (January 1844) between Great Britain and other powers.

AUSTRIA.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between her Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of Austria, signed at Vienna, July 3. 1839.

Article 1. From the date of the ratification of this present treaty, British vessels arriving in or departing from the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, and Austrian vessels arriving in or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and those of all the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, shall be subject to no other or higher duties or charges, of whatsoever nature they may be, than those which are actually or may hereafter be imposed on national vessels, on their entering into or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All productions of the soil, industry, and art of the states and possessions of his Majesty, the Emperor of Austria, including the said productions which may be exported through the northern outlet of the

Elbe, and the eastern outlet of the Danube, and which may be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom and the possessions of her Britannic Majesty; and also all the productions of the soil, industry, and art of the United Kingdom and possessions of her Britannic Majesty, which may be imported into the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, shall enjoy reciprocally, in all respects, the same privileges and immunities, and may be imported and exported exactly in the same manner, in vessels of the one as in vessels of the other of the high contracting parties.

3. All commodities which are not the productions of the soil, industry, and art of the two respective states or their possessions, and which may be legally imported from the ports of Austria, including those of the Danube, into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, of Malta, and Gibraltar, and other possessions of her Britannic Majesty, in Austrian vessels, shall be subject to the same duties only which would be paid on the same articles, if they were imported in British vessels.

Her Britannic Majesty extends by this treaty to Austrian navigation and trade, the full benefits of the two British acts of parliament passed on the 28th of August, 1833, regulating the trade and navigation of the United Kingdom and British possessions, as well as all other privileges of commerce and navigation now enjoyed, or to be hereafter granted, by existing laws, by orders in council, or by treaties, to the most favoured nations.

4. All Austrian vessels arriving from the ports of the Danube, as far as Galatz inclusively, shall, together with their cargoes, be admitted into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of all the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, exactly in the same manner as if such vessels came direct from Austrian ports, with all the privileges and immunities stipulated by the present treaty of navigation and commerce. In like manner, all British vessels, with their cargoes, shall continue to be placed upon the same footing as Austrian vessels, whenever such British vessels shall enter into or depart from the same ports.

5. In consideration of British vessels, arriving direct from other countries than those belonging to the high contracting parties, being admitted with their cargoes into Austrian ports, without paying any other duties whatever than those paid by Austrian vessels, so also the productions of the soil and industry of the parts of Asia or Africa situated within the Straits of Gibraltar, which shall have been brought into the ports of Austria, may be re-exported from thence in Austrian vessels directly into British ports, in the same manner, and with the same privileges, as to all manner of duties and immunities, as if these productions were imported from Austrian ports in British vessels.

6. All commodities and articles of commerce which, according to the stipulations of the present treaty, or by the existing laws and ordinances of the respective states, may be legally imported into or exported from the states and possessions of the two high contracting parties, whether under the British or the Austrian flag, shall in like manner be subject to the same duties, whether imported by national vessels or by those of the other state; and upon all commodities and articles of commerce which may be legally exported from ports of either state, the same premiums, drawbacks, and advantages shall be accorded, whether they are exported by the vessels of the one or by those of the other state.

7. All commodities and articles of commerce, which shall be imported, placed in dépôt, or warehoused in the ports of the states and possessions of the two high contracting parties, so long as they shall remain in dépôt or warehouse, and shall not be used for internal consumption, shall be subject, upon re-exportation to the same treatment and duties, whether that re-exportation shall be made in the vessels of the one or in those of the other state.

8. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company or corporation, or agent acting on its behalf or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the production of the soil, industry, or art of either of the two states and their possessions, imported into the ports of the other, on account of the nationality of the vessel in which such articles may be imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no difference or distinction whatever shall be made in this respect.

9. In regard to the commerce to be carried on in Austrian vessels with the British possessions in the East Indies, her Britannic Majesty consents to grant the same facilities and privileges to the subjects of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, as are or may be enjoyed under any treaty or act of parliament, by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nations; subject to the laws, rules, regulations, and restrictions, which are or may become applicable to the vessels and subjects of any other foreign country enjoying the like advantages and privileges of trading with the said possessions.

10. The present treaty does not include the navigation and carrying trade between one port and another, situated in the dominions of one contracting party, by the vessels of the other, as far as regards the carrying of passengers, commodities, and articles of commerce; this navigation and transport being reserved to national vessels.

11. The vessels and subjects of the high contracting parties shall, by the present treaty, enjoy reciprocally all the advantages, immunities, and privileges, within the ports of their respective states and possessions, which are now enjoyed by the navigation and commerce of the most favoured nations; the effect hereof being to secure, in the United Kingdom and British possessions, to Austrian vessels and subjects, the full and entire advantages of navigation and commerce allowed by the Navigation Act passed in London on the 28th of August, 1833, and by another act of the same date, regulating the trade of the British possessions abroad; or which may be accorded by orders in council or by treaty to other powers; and in like manner British vessels and subjects shall enjoy, in the ports of the states and possessions of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, the full and entire advantages of navigation and commerce granted by existing laws, regulations, and ordinances, or by treaty, to foreign powers; and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, engage reciprocally not to grant any favours, privileges, or immunities whatsoever, in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects of any other state, which shall not be also at the same time extended to the subjects of the one or the other of the high contracting parties, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of the other state shall have been gratuitous, or upon giving as nearly as possible the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession shall have been conditional.

12. The clause of Article VII. of the convention concluded at Paris the 5th November, 1815, between the courts of Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, relative to the commerce between the states of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty and the United States of the Ionian Islands, shall remain in force.

13. The present treaty, after being signed and ratified, shall replace the convention of navigation and commerce concluded the 21st December, 1829, in London, between the governments of his Britannic Majesty and of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty; and shall continue in force until the 31st of December, 1848; and further, until the expiration of 12 months after one of the high contracting parties shall have notified to the other the intention to terminate its duration. It is further agreed, that in 12 months after one of the high contracting parties has received from the other such notification, this treaty, and all the stipulations it contains, shall cease to be obligatory upon either party.

14. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at Vienna, in the space of one month, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, &c. plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at Vienna the 3d day of July, in the year of our Lord 1858.

FREDERIC JAMES LAMB,
METTERNICH.

Declaration signed by the respective Plenipotentiaries on the conclusion of the preceding Treaty.

With a view to prevent beforehand all doubt which might hereafter arise with regard to the true sense of the expressions contained in the treaty of commerce and navigation, signed this day between the plenipotentiaries of her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, the high contracting parties have agreed, by common consent, that the French text of the said treaty shall be considered by the Austrian government as the original text.

In witness whereof, the present declaration has been done in duplicate, and signed by the respective plenipotentiaries.

Vienna, 3d July, 1838.

FREDERIC JAMES LAMB.
METTRNICH.

Declaration made by the Plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty, on the Exchange of the Ratifications of the preceding Treaty.

In proceeding to the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of commerce and navigation, between her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, concluded and signed at Vienna on the 3d of July, 1838, the undersigned plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty is commanded by her Majesty to explain and declare:—

1. That in the preamble of the said treaty, the words "the commercial relations of their respective states and possessions" shall be understood to mean "the commercial relations between their respective states and possessions," the latter form of words being that adopted in the preamble of the convention of commerce between Great Britain and Austria, signed at London, December 21, 1829.

2. That the stipulations of the third article of the aforesaid treaty of the 3d of July, 1838, relating to goods not the produce of the respective states, shall be understood to be mutual.

3. That by the seventh article of the aforesaid treaty of the 3d of July, 1838, it is understood that goods placed in warehouse shall not be liable to duty unless entered for consumption; and may be exported on the same terms in the ships of the one as in those of the other country.

Her Britannic Majesty's ratification of the aforesaid treaty of commerce and navigation is exchange under the explicit declarations and understandings above mentioned.

Done at Milan, the 14th day of September, 1838.

FREDERIC JAMES LAMB.

Counter Declaration made by the Austrian Plenipotentiary.

In consequence of the declaration presented this day by his Excellency, Sir Frederic Lamb, Ambassador of her Britannic Majesty to his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, on the occasion of the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of commerce and navigation, concluded and signed at Vienna on the 3d of July, between the plenipotentiaries of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, and of her Britannic Majesty, which declaration is conceived in the following terms:—

1. That in the preamble of the said treaty the words "the commercial relations of their respective states and possessions," shall be understood to mean "the commercial relations between their respective states and possessions," the latter form of words being that adopted in the preamble of the convention of commerce signed at London on the 21st of December, 1829, between Austria and Great Britain.

2. That the stipulations of the 3d article of the aforesaid treaty of the 3d of July, 1838, relating to goods not the produce of the respective states, shall be understood to be mutual.

3. That by the 7th article of the treaty of the 3d of July, 1838, it is understood that goods placed in warehouse, shall not be liable to duty, unless entered for consumption; and may be exported on the same terms in the ships of the one as in those of the other country.

The undersigned, chancellor of court and state, is authorised by his Majesty the Emperor, his august master, to accede, in every particular, to this declaration presented by his Excellency the Ambassador of her Britannic Majesty.

Done at Milan, the 14th of September, 1838.

CHINA.

METTRNICH.

Treaty between Her Majesty and the Emperor of China, signed, in the English and Chinese Languages, at Nanking, August 29, 1842. Ratifications exchanged at Hong-Kong, 26th June, 1843.

Article 1. There shall henceforward be peace and friendship between her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his Majesty the Emperor of China, and between their respective subjects, who shall enjoy full security and protection for their persons and property within the dominions of the other.

2. His Majesty the Emperor of China agrees, that British subjects, with their families and establishments, shall be allowed to reside, for the purpose of carrying on their mercantile pursuits, without molestation or restraint, at the cities and towns of Canton, Amoy, Foo-chow-foo, Ningpo, and Shanghai; and her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, &c. will appoint superintendents, or consular officers, to reside at each of the above-named cities or towns, to be the medium of communication between the Chinese authorities and the said merchants, and to see that the just duties and other dues of the Chinese government, as hereafter provided for, are duly discharged by her Britannic Majesty's subjects.

3. It being obviously necessary and desirable that British subjects should have some port whereto they may careen and refit their ships when required, and keep stores for that purpose, his Majesty the Emperor of China cedes to her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, &c. the island of Hong-Kong, to be possessed in perpetuity by her Britannic Majesty, her heirs and successors, and to be governed by such laws and regulations as her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, &c. shall see fit to direct.

4. The Emperor of China agrees to pay the sum of six millions of dollars, as the value of the opium which was delivered up at Canton in the month of March, 1839, as a ransom for the lives of her Britannic Majesty's superintendant and subjects who had been imprisoned and threatened with death by the Chinese high officers.

5. The government of China having compelled the British merchants trading at Canton to deal exclusively with certain Chinese merchants, called Hong merchants (or Co-Hong), who had been licensed by the Chinese government for that purpose, the Emperor of China agrees to abolish that practice in future at all ports where British merchants may reside, and to permit them to carry on their mercantile transactions with whatever persons they please; and his Imperial Majesty further agrees to pay to the British government the sum of three millions of dollars, on account of debts due to British subjects by some of the said Hong merchants, or Co-Hong, who have become insolvent, and who owe very large sums of money to subjects of her Britannic Majesty.

6. The government of her Britannic Majesty having been obliged to send out an expedition to demand and obtain redress for the violent and unjust proceedings of the Chinese high authorities towards her Britannic Majesty's officer and subjects, the Emperor of China agrees to pay the sum of twelve millions of dollars, on account of the expenses incurred; and her Britannic Majesty's plenipotentiary voluntarily agrees, on behalf of her Majesty, to deduct from the said amount of twelve millions of dollars, any sums which may have been received by her Majesty's combined forces, as ransom for cities and towns in China, subsequent to the 1st day of August, 1841.

7. It is agreed, that the total amount of twenty-one millions of dollars, described in the three preceding articles, shall be paid as follows:—

Six millions immediately.

Six millions in 1843; that is, three millions on or before the 30th of the month of June, and three millions on or before the 31st of December.

Five millions in 1844; that is, two millions and a half on or before the 30th of June, and two millions and a half on or before the 31st of December.

Four millions in 1845; that is, two millions on or before the 30th of June, and two millions on or before the 31st of December.

And it is further stipulated, that interest, at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, shall be paid by the government of China on any portion of the above sums that are not punctually discharged at the periods fixed.

8. The Emperor of China agrees to release, unconditionally, all subjects of her Britannic Majesty (whether natives of Europe or India), who may be in confinement at this moment in any part of the Chinese empire.

9. The Emperor of China agrees to publish and promulgate, under his imperial sign manual and seal, a full and entire amnesty and act of indemnity to all subjects of China, on account of their having resided under, or having had dealings and intercourse with, or having entered the service of, her Britannic Majesty, or of her Majesty's officers; and his Imperial Majesty further engages to release all Chinese subjects who may be at this moment in confinement for similar reasons.

10. The Emperor of China agrees to establish at all the ports which are, by the second article of this treaty, to be thrown open for the resort of British merchants, a fair and regular tariff of export and import customs and other dues, which tariff shall be publicly notified and promulgated for general information; and the Emperor further engages, that, when British merchandise shall have once paid at any of the said ports the regulated customs and dues, agreeable to the tariff to be hereafter fixed, such merchandise may be conveyed by Chinese merchants to any province or city in the interior of the empire of China, on paying a further amount as transit duties, which shall not exceed 5 per cent. on the tariff value of such goods. — (See, for Tariff, art. CANTON.)

11. It is agreed, that her Britannic Majesty's chief high officer in China shall correspond with the Chinese high officers, both at the capital and in the provinces, under the term "communication;" the subordinate British officers and Chinese high officers in the provinces, under the term "statement;" on the part of the former, and on the part of the latter, "declaration;" and the subordinates of both countries on a footing of perfect equality; merchants and others: not holding official situations, and therefore not included in the above, on both sides, to use the term "representation" in all papers addressed to, or intended for the notice of, the respective governments.

12. On the assent of the Emperor of China to this treaty being received, and the discharge of the first instalment of money, her Britannic Majesty's forces will retire from Nanking and the Grand Canal, and will no longer molest or stop the trade of China. The military post at Chinow will also be withdrawn; but the islands of Kowloon, and that of Chusan, will continue to be held by her Majesty's forces until the money payments, and the arrangements for opening the ports to British merchants, be completed.

13. The ratification of this treaty by her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain, &c. and his Majesty the Emperor of China, shall be exchanged as soon as the great distance which separates England from China will admit; but, in the meantime, counterpart copies of it, signed and sealed by the plenipotentiaries on behalf of their respective sovereigns, shall be mutually delivered, and all its provisions and arrangements shall take effect.

Done at Nanking, and signed and sealed by the plenipotentiaries on board her Britannic Majesty's ship "Cornwallis" this 20th day of August, 1842; corresponding with the Chinese date, twenty-fourth day of the seventh month, in the twenty-second year of Tsoukwang.

HANNY POTTINGER,

Her Majesty's Plenipotentiary,

And signed by the seals of four Chinese commissioners.

DENMARK.

Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and Denmark, signed at London, the 16th of June, 1842.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of July next, Danish vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Danish Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever, than are or shall be levied or national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

1. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Denmark respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

2. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports and dominions of the King of Denmark, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles, if imported in Danish ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed with regard to Danish vessels in the ports of the said United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Danish Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Danish ships.

3. All goods which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

4. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported: it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

5. The high contracting parties having mutually determined not to include in the present convention their respective colonies, in which are comprehended, on the part of Denmark, Greenland, Iceland, and the islands of Feroe; it is expressly agreed that the intercourse which may at present legally be carried on by the subjects or ships of either of the said high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, shall remain upon the same footing as if this convention had never been concluded.

6. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 13 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; such of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that at the expiration of 13 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

8. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within one month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 16th of June, 1824.

GEORGE CANNING.
W. HUSKISSON.
C. K. MOLTAU.

Separate Article.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending the commerce comprehended in the present convention, and to regulate the commercial regulations of their respective subjects and dominions, upon the principle either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be. And in the event of any articles or articles being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed, that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the aforesaid convention.

Additional Article.

Their Britannic and Danish Majesties mutually agree, that no higher or other duties shall be levied in either of their dominions (their respective colonies being excepted from the enactment of this date), upon any personal property of their respective subjects, on the removal of same from the dominions of their said Majesties reciprocally, either upon the inheritance of such property, or otherwise, than are or shall be payable in each state, upon the like property, when removed by a subject of such state respectively.

FRANCE.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and His Most Christian King, together with two additional Articles thereto annexed, signed at London, January 30, 1826.

Article 1. French vessels coming from or departing for the ports of France, or, if in ballast, coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of the United Kingdom, either on entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which British vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; and, reciprocally, from and after the same period, British vessels coming from or departing for the ports of the U. Kingdom, or, if in ballast, coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of France, either in entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which French vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; whether such duties are collected separately, or are consolidated in one and the same duty; — his Most Christian Majesty reserving to himself to regulate the amount of such duty or duties in France, according to the rate at which they are or may be established in the U. Kingdom; at the same time, with a view of diminishing the burdens imposed upon the navigation of the two countries, his Most Christian Majesty will always be disposed to reduce the amount of the said burdens in France, in proportion to any reduction which may hereafter be made of those now levied in the ports of the U. Kingdom.

2. Goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of the U. Kingdom, from the ports of France, if so imported in French vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in British vessels; and, reciprocally, goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of France, from the ports of the U. Kingdom, if so imported in British vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in French vessels. The produce of Asia, Africa, and America, not being allowed to be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in French vessels, nor from France in British, or any other vessels, into the ports of the U. Kingdom, for home consumption, but only for warehousing and re-exportation, his Most Christian Majesty reserves to himself to direct that, in like manner, the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, shall not be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in British vessels, nor from the United Kingdom in British, French, or any other vessels, into the ports of France, for the consumption of that kingdom, but only for warehousing, and re-exportation.

With regard to the productions of the countries of Europe, it is understood between the high contracting parties, that such productions shall not be imported, in British ships, into France, for the consumption of that kingdom, unless such ships shall have been laden therewith in some port of the United Kingdom; and that his Britannic Majesty may adopt, if he shall think fit, some corresponding restrictive measures, with regard to the productions of the countries of Europe imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in French vessels; the high contracting parties reserving, however, to themselves the power of making, by mutual consent, such relaxations in the strict execution of the present article, as they may think useful to the respective interests of the 2 countries, upon the principal of mutual concessions, affording each to the other reciprocal or equivalent advantages.

3. All goods which can or may be legally exported from the ports of either of the 2 countries, shall, on their export, pay the same duties of exportation, whether the exportation of such goods be made in British or in French vessels, provided the said vessels proceed, respectively, direct from the ports of the one country to those of the other. And all the said goods so exported in British or French vessels, shall be reciprocally entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, which are granted by the regulations of each country, respectively.

4. It is mutually agreed between the high contracting parties, that in the intercourse of navigation between their 2 countries, the vessels of any third power shall in no case obtain more favourable conditions than those stipulated, in the present convention, in favour of British and French vessels.

5. The fishing-boats of either of the 2 countries, which may be forced by stress of weather to seek shelter in the ports or on the coast of the other country, shall not be subject to any duties or port charges of any description whatsoever; provided the said boats, when so driven in by stress of weather, shall not discharge or receive on board any cargo, or portion of cargo, in the ports or on the parts of the coast where they shall have sought shelter.

6. It is agreed that the provisions of the present convention between the high contracting parties shall be reciprocally extended and in force, in all the possessions subject to their respective dominions in Europe.

7. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years, from the 1st of April of the present year; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate its operation; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is agreed between them, that, at the end of 12 months' extension agreed to on both sides, this convention, and all the stipulations thereof, shall together cease and determine.

8. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London, within the space of 1 month, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1826.

GEORGE CANNING.
WILLIAM HUSKISSON.

LE FRINCE DE POLIGNAC.

Additional Articles.

Article 1. French vessels shall be allowed to sail from any port whatever of the countries under the dominion of his Most Christian Majesty, to all the colonies of the United Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company), and to import into the said colonies all kinds of merchandise (being productions the growth or manufacture of France, or of any country under the dominion of France), with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the British dominion; and the said French vessels, as well as the merchandise imported in the same, shall not be subject, in the colonies of the United Kingdom, to other or higher duties than those to which British vessels may be subject, on importing the same merchandise from any foreign country, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself.

The same facilities shall be granted, reciprocally, in the colonies of France, with regard to the importation in British vessels of all kinds of merchandise, (being productions the growth and manufacture of the United Kingdom, or any country under the British dominion), with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the dominion of France. And whereas all goods, the produce of any foreign country, may now be imported into the colonies of the United Kingdom, in the ships of that country, with the exception of a limited list of specified articles, which can only be imported into the said colonies in British ships, his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom reserves to himself the power of adding to the said list of excepted articles any other, the produce of the French dominions, the addition whereof may appear to his Majesty to be necessary for placing the commerce and navigation to be permitted to the subjects of each of the high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, upon a footing of fair reciprocity.

2. French vessels shall be allowed to export from all the colonies of the United Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company) all kinds of merchandise which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of Great Britain; and the said vessels, as well as the merchandise exported in the same, shall not be subject to other or higher duties than those to which British vessels may be subject, on exporting the said merchandise, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself; and they shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, to which British vessels would be entitled, on such exportation.

The same facilities and privileges shall be granted reciprocally, in all the colonies of France, for the exportation in British vessels, of all kinds of merchandise, which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of France.

These 2 additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the convention signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Jan. 26, 1826.

GEORGE CANNING.

WILLIAM HENNINGSON.

LE PRINCE DE POLIGNAC.

A Treasury letter, dated 28th of March, 1826, directs that French vessels, and their cargoes legally imported or exported on board the same, according to the terms of the convention in the preceding pages, are, from the 5th of April, 1826, to be charged with such and the like duties only, of whatever kind they may be, that are charged on British vessels, and similar cargoes laden on board thereof; and in like manner the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances are to be paid on articles exported in French vessels, that are paid, granted, or allowed on similar articles exported in British vessels. And the necessary instructions are to be transmitted to the officers in the colonies for carrying into effect the stipulations contained in the 2 additional articles of the said convention, respecting French vessels and their cargoes, from the 1st of October, 1826.

A convention regulating the respective limits of the British and French oyster and other fisheries was signed at Paris, on the 2nd of August, 1826.

HANSEATIC TOWNS.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty, and the Free Hanseatic Republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, signed at London, Sept. 29, 1825.

Article 1. From and after the date hereof, British vessels entering or departing from the ports of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg; and Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall not be subject to any other or higher ship duties or charges than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All goods, whether the production of the territories of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or of any other country, which may be legally imported from any of the ports of the said republics into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels; and all goods, whether the productions of any of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or of any other country, which may be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be exported from the said ports in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg vessels. And all goods, which may be legally imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, in national vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, in British vessels.

3. All goods which can be legally imported into the ports of the United Kingdom directly from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or either of them, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in British vessels, or in vessels belonging to either of the said republics; and all goods which can be legally exported from the United Kingdom, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in British or Hanseatic vessels. And the like reciprocity shall be observed, in the ports of the said republics, in respect to all goods which can be legally imported into or exported from any of either of the said ports in vessels belonging to the United Kingdom.

4. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by any or either of the contracting parties, nor by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on their behalf or under their authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of their states respectively, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

5. In consideration of the limited extent of the territories belonging to the republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, and the intimate connection of trade and navigation subsisting between these republics, it is hereby stipulated and agreed, that any vessel which shall have been built in any or either of the ports of the said republics, and which shall be owned exclusively by a citizen or citizens of any or either of them, and of which the master shall also be a citizen of either of them, and provided 3/4ths of the crew shall be subjects or citizens of any or either of the said republics, or of any or either of the states comprised in the Germanic Confederation, such vessel, so built, owned, and navigated, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be taken to be and be considered as a vessel belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg.

6. Any vessel, together with her cargo, belonging to either of the three free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, and coming from either of the said ports to the United Kingdom, shall,

for all the purposes of this convention, be deemed to come from the country to which such vessel belongs; and any British vessel and her cargo trading to the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, directly or in succession, shall, for the like purposes, be on the footing of a Hanseatic vessel and her cargo making the same voyage.

7. It is further mutually agreed that no higher or other duties shall be levied, in any or either of the states of the high contracting parties, upon any personal property of the subjects and citizens of each respectively, on the removal of the same from the dominions or territory of such states, (either upon inheritances of such property, or otherwise,) than are or shall be payable, in each state, upon the like property when removed by a subject or citizen of such state respectively.

8. The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending, even beyond what is comprehended in the convention of this date, the commercial relations of their respective subjects and dominions, citizens and territories, upon the principle either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be; and, in the event of any article or articles being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the present convention.

9. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the one part, or the governments of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, or either of them, on the other part, shall have given notice of their intention to terminate the same; each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either of the parties from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine, as far as regards the states giving and receiving such notice; it being always understood and agreed, that, if one or more of the Hanseatic republics aforesaid shall, at the expiration of 10 years from the date hereof, give or receive notice of the proposed termination of this convention, such convention shall, nevertheless, remain in full force and operation as far as regards the remaining Hanseatic republics or republic which may not have given or received such notice.

10. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within one month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Sept. 29. 1825.

GEORGE CANNING,
W. HURDISON,
JAMES COLQUHOUN.

Supplementary Convention to the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation of the 29th of September, 1825, between the States of the Free Hanseatic Cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, and her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland; signed at London, the 2d of August, 1841.

Art. 1. The senate of the free Hanseatic cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, hereby agree that British vessels coming from countries not being part of the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, shall henceforward, together with their cargoes, be admitted into the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, and all vessels shall on their admission pay dues not higher nor other than those which shall be paid in similar circumstances by vessels belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg, and the duties to be paid upon the cargoes of such British vessels shall not be higher nor other than if such cargoes had been imported in vessels belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburg. And in consideration thereof, her Britannic Majesty agrees that from and after the date of the exchange of the ratification of this present convention, the vessels of the said free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, when coming from Hanseatic ports, shall, together with their cargoes, be admitted into the ports of all her Britannic Majesty's possessions; and such vessels shall, on their admission, pay dues not higher nor other than those which shall be paid in similar circumstances by British vessels; and the duties to be paid upon the cargoes of such Hanseatic vessels shall not be higher nor other than if such cargoes had been imported in British vessels.

2. In consideration of the privileges extended to British trade and navigation by the first article of the present convention, her Britannic Majesty further agrees that all goods, being the produce of the states of the free Hanseatic cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, or of the other states of the Germanic Confederation, or of the states comprised in the Germanic Union of Customs, and which may be imported in any foreign vessels from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, or from any port situated on the Elbe or Weser, into the ports of the British possessions abroad, including Gibraltar and Malta, shall also be permitted to be imported from the said ports of the free cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, into the ports of the said British possessions abroad, including Gibraltar and Malta, in vessels belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, built, owned, and navigated as stipulated in the fifth article of the convention of commerce and navigation, concluded on the 29th of September, 1825, between Great Britain on the one part, and the free Hanseatic cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg on the other part; and such goods, wares, and merchandise being the produce of the free Hanseatic republics, or of the other states of the German Confederation, or of the states of the Germanic Union of Customs, and so imported in Hanseatic vessels into the ports of the said British possessions abroad, including Gibraltar and Malta; and all goods, wares, and merchandise exported in Hanseatic vessels, built, owned, and navigated as aforesaid, from the ports of the British possessions abroad, including Gibraltar and Malta, to any foreign country whatever, shall pay no other or higher duties than if the same were imported or exported in British vessels.

3. The present convention, which shall be considered as supplementary to the convention concluded between Great Britain and the free Hanseatic republics on the 29th of September, 1825, shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London as soon as possible within the space of six weeks.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed the seals of their arms.

Done at London, on the 2d day of August, in the year of our Lord 1841.

PALMERSTON,
BANKS.

By an order in council dated September 14. 1841, her Majesty is pleased to order that all goods being the produce of the states of the free Hanseatic cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, or of the other states of the Germanic Confederation, or of the states comprised in the Germanic Union of Customs, and which may be imported in any foreign vessels from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, or from any port situated on the Elbe or Weser into the ports of the British possessions abroad, including Gibraltar and Malta, shall also be permitted to be imported from the said ports of the free cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, into the ports of the said British possessions abroad (including Gibraltar and Malta) in vessels belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, built, owned, and navigated as stipulated in the fifth article of the convention of commerce and navigation, concluded on the 29th of September, 1825, between Great Britain on the one part, and the free Hanseatic cities of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburg on the other part; and such goods, being the produce of the free Hanseatic republics, or of the other states of the Germanic Confederation, or of the states of the Germanic Union of Customs, and so imported in Hanseatic vessels into the ports of the said British possessions abroad

(including Gibraltar and Malta), and all goods exported in Hanseatic vessels, built, owned, and navigated as aforesaid, from the ports of the British possessions abroad (including Gibraltar and Malta) to any foreign country whatever, shall pay no other or higher duties than if the same were imported or exported in British vessels.

GREECE.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Her Britannic Majesty and the King of Greece, signed at London, October 4th, 1827.

Art. 1. From and after the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention, Greek vessels entering into or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering into or departing from the ports of the Kingdom of Greece, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatsoever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering into or departing from such ports, respectively.

2. All articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Kingdom of Greece, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports, in vessels of the other country.

3. All articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, which are legally imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports of the Kingdom of Greece in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Greek vessels. And, reciprocally, a similar rule shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect of all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Majesty the King of Greece, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Greek vessels.

4. All goods, wares, and merchandises, which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in national vessels or in vessels of the other country; and all goods, wares, and merchandises which can legally be exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the one country or in those of the other.

5. Neither of the two governments, and no company, corporation, or agent, acting on behalf of or under the authority of either government, shall, in the purchase of any article which is the growth, produce, or manufacture of one country, and is imported into the other, give, either directly or indirectly, any priority or preference on account of or in reference to the national character of the vessel in which such article may be imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with regard to the regulations which may determine the conditions which constitute a British or Greek vessel, it is hereby agreed that all vessels built in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, and all vessels which, having been captured from an enemy by her Majesty's ships at war, or by the subjects of her said Majesty, furnished with letters of marque by the lords commissioners of the Admiralty, shall have been regularly condemned in one of her said Majesty's prize courts as lawful prize; and all vessels which shall have been condemned in any competent court for a breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade; and which shall be owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of Greece, or which shall have been captured from an enemy by the ships of war of the Greek government, or by Greek subjects furnished with letters of marque, and shall have been regularly condemned in one of the prize courts of the Kingdom of Greece as a lawful prize, and which shall be wholly owned by any subject or subjects of Greece, and whereof the master and three-fourths of the crew are subjects of Greece, shall be considered as Greek vessels.

7. If any ships of war or merchantmen, of the one nation should be wrecked on the coasts of the other, all such parts of the said ships of war or merchantmen, or of the furniture or appurtenances thereof, as also all goods and merchandises which shall be saved, or the produce thereof, and likewise the papers found on board the vessel, shall be carefully preserved until they are claimed by the proprietors, or their agents duly authorized, or by the respective consuls in whose district such wreck may have taken place, if such claim be preferred within the period fixed by the laws in force in the states of the high contracting parties; and such consul, proprietor, or agent shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, and the rate of salvage which would have been payable, in the like case, upon a national vessel; and the said goods and merchandises saved from the wreck shall not be liable to pay duties, unless cleared for local consumption.

8. Her Britannic Majesty and his Majesty the King of Greece have agreed, that each of the high contracting parties shall have the right to nominate and appoint consuls-general, consuls, and vice-consuls, in all the ports of the dominions of the other contracting party wherein such consular officers are or may be necessary for the advancement of commerce and for the protection of the trade of the subjects of either crown; and it is expressly stipulated that such consuls, of whatever class, shall, in the country in which they are stationed, be placed upon the footing of the consuls of the most favoured nation.

9. Her Britannic Majesty consents to grant to the subjects of his Majesty the King of Greece, the same facilities and privileges, with respect to the commerce to be carried on in Greek vessels with the British dominions in the East Indies, as are or may be enjoyed under any treaty or act of parliament by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; it being always understood that the laws, rules, regulations, and restrictions, which are or may be applicable to the ships and subjects of any other foreign country, enjoying the like facilities and privileges of trading with the said dominions, shall be equally applicable to the subjects of the King of Greece.

10. All subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall, within the dominions of the King of Greece, be as free as native Greeks to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit the management of those affairs to any other person whom they may please to employ as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; and shall British subjects be restrained in their choice of persons to act in such capacities, nor be called upon to pay any salary or remuneration to any person whom they shall not choose to employ. Absolute freedom shall also be allowed, in all cases, to the buyer and seller to bargain together, and to fix as in them may seem best, the price of any goods, wares, or merchandises imported into, or to be exported from, the dominions of the King of Greece, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty by the subjects of his Majesty the King of Greece, under the same conditions.

11. In all that relates to the police of ports, to the lading and unloading of vessels, and to the safety of merchandises, goods, and effects, the local laws and police regulations of each country shall be applied to the subjects of both, without discrimination or distinction; and, throughout the whole extent of the territories of each contracting party, the subjects of both shall enjoy full and entire protection for their persons and property. They shall have free and easy access to the courts of justice in the prosecution and defence of their rights, and shall be at liberty to employ the lawyers, attorneys, or agents, of whatever denomination, whom they may deem the best qualified to maintain and defend their interests; it being understood that they shall conform, in this respect, to the obligations imposed upon native subjects by the laws of the country. In all that concerns the administration of justice, they shall enjoy the same privileges, rights, and franchises, that belong to natives; and to none of these respects shall they be subject to any other duty or tax than is imposed upon natives. They shall be exempted from all com-

pulsory military service, either by sea or by land; no forced loan shall be imposed upon them; and their property shall be subject to no other charge, requisition, or tax, than those to which the property of natives shall be liable.

12. Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of Greece, agree that the subjects of the respective countries shall enjoy, within the dominions of the other, the full benefit of the complete toleration and protection for the professors of all religious opinions, which at present exists in both countries by law.

13. It shall be free for the subjects of her Britannic Majesty residing in the dominions of the King of Greece, and for the subjects of his Majesty the King of Greece residing in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, to dispose of their property, of every description, by will or testament, as they may judge fit; and if any British subject shall die in the territories of the King of Greece, or any Greek subject shall die in the territories of the Queen of Great Britain, without will or testament, the respective consuls or vice-consuls shall exercise the right of administering to the property of subjects of their nation so dying intestate, for the benefit of the legitimate heirs to such property, and of the creditors upon the estate, so far as the laws of the respective countries shall admit.

14. The high contracting parties agree that the stipulations of the present convention shall be applicable to Gibraltar and to the island of Malta.

15. The present convention shall be in force for 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications thereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the 10 years above-mentioned, or at any other period after that time; and it is hereby agreed between them, that at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

16. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 3 months from the date hereof.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 4th day of October, in the year of our Lord 1837.

PALMERSTON.
TALBOT.

An order in council, dated July 5th, 1838, directs that Greek vessels, entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, together with the cargoes on board the same (such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported), shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports, or on similar articles, when imported into or exported from such ports in such vessels; and also, such articles, when exported from the said ports in Greek vessels, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances that are granted on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

MEXICO.

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between Great Britain and Mexico, signed at London, December 26, 1830.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the dominions and subjects of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the United States of Mexico, and their citizens.

2. There shall be, between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe and the territories of Mexico, a reciprocal freedom of commerce. The inhabitants of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come, with their ships and cargoes, to all places and rivers in the territories aforesaid, saving only such particular ports to which other foreigners shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and, generally, the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce.

In like manner, the respective ships of war and post-office packets of the 2 countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbours, rivers, and places, saving only such particular ports (if any) to which other foreign ships of war and packets shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, to anchor, and to remain there and refit; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers, mentioned in this article, the privilege of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood, in which national vessels only are permitted to engage.

3. His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland engages further, that the inhabitants of Mexico shall have the like liberty of commerce and navigation stipulated for in the preceding article, in all his dominions situated out of Europe, to the full extent in which the same is permitted at present, or shall be permitted hereafter, to any other nation.

4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of Mexico, of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed on the territories or dominions of either of the contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, or of the said territories of Mexico, to or from the said dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or to or from the said territories of Mexico, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

5. No higher or other duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed, in any of the ports of Mexico, on British vessels, than those payable in the same ports by Mexican vessels; nor, in the ports of his Britannic Majesty's territories, on Mexican vessels, than shall be payable, in the same ports, on British vessels.

6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of Mexico, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such importation shall be in Mexican or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, whether such importation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels. The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to Mexico of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in Mexican or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels.

* See additional articles at the end of this Treaty.

7. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Mexican vessel, it is hereby agreed that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or vessels which shall have been captured from an enemy by his Britannic Majesty's ships of war, or by subjects of his said Majesty furnished with letters of marque by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty and regularly condemned in one of his said Majesty's prize courts as a lawful prize, or which shall have been condemned in any competent court for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and every vessel so captured, and regularly condemned according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of Mexico, or captured from the enemy by the ships of Mexico, and condemned under similar circumstances, and which shall be owned by any citizen or citizens thereof, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners are citizens of Mexico, excepting where the laws provide for any extreme cases, shall be considered as Mexican vessels.

And it is further agreed, that every vessel, qualified to trade as above described under the provisions of this treaty, shall be furnished with a register, passport, or sea letter, under the signature of the proper person authorised to grant the same, according to the laws of the respective countries (the form of which shall be communicated), certifying the name, occupation, and residence of the owner or owners, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or in the territories of Mexico, as the case may be; and that he or they is or are the sole owner or owners, in the proportion to be specified; together with the name, burden, and description of the vessel as to build and measurement, and the several particulars constituting the national character of the vessel, as the case may be.

8. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of Mexico, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit or to run to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other persons for those purposes than those employed by Mexicans; nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid, in like cases, by Mexican citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed, in all cases, to the buyer and seller, to bargain and fix the price of any goods, imported into or exported from Mexico, as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, by the citizens of Mexico, under the same conditions.

The citizens and subjects of the contracting parties, in the territories of each other, shall receive and enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries, respectively, for the prosecution and defence of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ, in all causes, the advocates, attorneys, or agents of whatever description, whom they may think proper; and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

9. In whatever relates to the succession to personal estates, by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort, and donation, by sale, donation, or testament, or to commit, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the subjects and citizens of the 2 contracting parties shall enjoy, in their respective dominions and territories, the same privileges, liberties, and rights, as native subjects; and shall not be charged, in any of these respects, with any higher imposts or duties than those which are paid, or may be paid, by the native subjects or citizens of the power in whose dominion or territories they may be residing.

10. In all that relates to the police of the ports, the lading and unlading of ships, the safety of merchandise, goods, and effects, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, and the citizens of Mexico, respectively, shall be subject to the local laws and regulations of the dominions and territories in which they may reside. They shall be exempted from all compulsory military service, whether by sea or land. No forced loans shall be levied upon them; nor shall their property be subject to any other charge, rent, alms, or taxes, than such as are paid by the native subjects or citizens of the contracting parties in their respective dominions.

11. It shall be free for each of the 2 contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but, before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as either of them may judge fit to be excepted. The Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls shall enjoy, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or shall be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favoured nation; and, in like manner, the diplomatic agents and consuls of his Britannic Majesty in the Mexican territories shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or may be granted to the Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty.

12. For the better security of commerce between the subjects of his Britannic Majesty and the citizens of the Mexican States, it is agreed that if, at any time, any interruption of friendly intercourse, or any rupture, should unfortunately take place between the 2 contracting parties, the merchants residing upon the coasts shall be allowed 6 months, and those of the Interior a whole year, to wind up their accounts, and dispose of their property: and a safe-conduct shall be given them to embark at the port which they shall themselves select. All those who are established in the respective dominions and territories of the 2 contracting parties, in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing such trade and employment therein, without any manner of interruption, in full enjoyment of their liberty and property, as long as they behave peaceably, and do not commit no offence against the laws; and their goods and effects, of whatever description they may be, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charge or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native subjects or citizens of the respective dominions or territories in which such subjects or citizens may reside. In the same case, debts between individuals, public funds, and the shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, or detained.

13. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty residing in the Mexican territories shall enjoy, in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government; and continuing in possession of what they now enjoy, they shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed, in any manner, on account of their religion, provided they respect that of the nation in which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the country. They shall continue to enjoy, to the full, the privilege already granted to them of burying, in the places already assigned for that purpose, such subjects of his Britannic Majesty as may die within the Mexican territories; nor shall the funerals and sepulchres of the dead be disturbed in any way, or upon any account. The citizens of Mexico shall enjoy, in all the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, the same protection, and shall be allowed the free exercise of their religion, in public or private, either within their own houses, or in the chapels and places of worship set apart for that purpose.

14. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall on no account or pretext whatsoever be disturbed or molested in the peaceful possession and exercise of whatever rights, privileges, and immunities they have at any time enjoyed within the limits described and laid down in a convention signed between his said Majesty and the King of Spain, on the 14th of July, 1796; whether such rights, privileges, and immunities shall be derived from the stipulations of the said convention, or from any other concession which may at any time have been made by the King of Spain, or his predecessors, to British subjects and settlers residing and following their lawful occupations within the limits aforesaid; the 2 contracting parties reserving, however, for some more fitting opportunity, the further arrangements on this article.

15. The government of Mexico engages to co-operate with his Britannic Majesty for the total abolition

of the slave trade, and to prohibit all persons inhabiting within the territories of Mexico, in the most effectual manner, from taking any share in such trade.

16. The 2 contracting parties reserve to themselves the right of treating and agreeing hereafter, from time to time, upon such other articles as may appear to them to contribute still further to the improvement of their mutual intercourse, and the general interests of their respective subjects and citizens; and such articles as may be so agreed upon, shall, when duly ratified, be regarded as forming a part of the present treaty, and shall have the same force as those now contained in it.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London within the space of 6 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.

WILLIAM HUKKISSON,
JAMES J. MORIER.

SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.

Additional Articles.

1. Whereas, in the present state of Mexican shipping, it would not be possible for Mexico to receive the full advantage of the reciprocity established by the articles 6, 7, of the treaty signed this day, if that part of the 7th article which stipulates that, in order to be considered as a Mexican ship, a ship shall actually have been *built* in Mexico, should be strictly and literally observed, and immediately brought into operation: it is agreed that, for the space of 10 years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, any ships, *wherever built*, being *bona fide* the property of and wholly owned by one or more citizens of Mexico, and whereof the master and 3/4ths of the mariners, at least, are also natural-born citizens of Mexico, or persons domiciliated in Mexico, by act of the government, as lawful subjects of Mexico, to be certified according to the laws of that country, shall be considered as Mexican ships; his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland reserving to himself the right, at the end of the said term of 10 years, to claim the principle of reciprocal restriction stipulated for in the article 7, above referred to, if the interests of British navigation shall be found to be prejudiced by the present exception to that reciprocity, in favour of Mexican shipping.

2. It is further agreed that, for the like term of 10 years, the stipulations contained in articles 5, and 6, of the present treaty shall be suspended; and in lieu thereof, it is hereby agreed that, until the expiration of the said term of 10 years, British ships entering into the ports of Mexico from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any of the said dominions, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and, reciprocally, it is agreed, that Mexican ships entering into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, from any port of the States of Mexico, and all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said States, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and that no higher duties shall be paid, or bounties or drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of either country, in the ships of the other, than upon the exportation of the like articles in the ships of any other foreign country.

It being understood that, at the end of the said term of 10 years, the stipulations of the said 5th and 6th articles shall, from thenceforward, be in full force between the two countries.

The present additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.

WILLIAM HUKKISSON,
JAMES J. MORIER.

SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.

An order in council, dated September 3, 1827, orders, that vessels of the United States of Mexico, entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in ballast, or laden direct from the ports of Mexico, or departing from the ports of the said United Kingdom, together with the cargoes on board the same, such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports, or on similar articles when imported into or exported from such ports in British vessels: and also such articles, when exported from the said ports in vessels of the United States of Mexico respectively, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances that are granted on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

N.B.—Treaties similar to the above have been negotiated with Columbia, Buenos Ayres, &c.

NETHERLANDS.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between her Majesty and the King of the Netherlands, signed at the Hague, October 21th, 1837.

Article 1. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between and amongst the subjects of the two high contracting parties; and the subjects of the two sovereigns respectively shall not pay in the ports, harbours, roads, cities, towns, or places whatsoever in either kingdom, any other or higher duties, taxes, or imposts, under whatsoever names designated or included, than those which are there paid by the subjects of the most favoured nation: and the subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions, in matters of commerce and navigation, that are granted, or may hereafter be granted, in either kingdom, to the subjects of the most favoured nation. No duty of customs or other impost shall be charged upon any goods the produce of one country, upon importation, by sea or by land, from such country into the other, higher than the duty or impost charged upon goods of the same kind, the produce of or imported from any other country; and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of the Netherlands, do hereby bind and engage themselves, not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunity, in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects of any other state, which shall not be also, and at the same time, extended to the subjects of the other high contracting party, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state shall have been gratuitous; and on giving as nearly as possible the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession shall have been conditional.

2. No duties of tonnage, harbour, lighthouses, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, shall be imposed in either country upon the vessels of the other, in respect of voyages between the two countries, if laden, or in respect of any voyage if in ballast, which shall not be equally imposed, in the like cases, on national vessels; and in neither country shall any duty, charge, restriction, or prohibition be imposed upon, nor any drawback, bounty, or allowance be withheld from, any goods, imported from or exported to the other country, in

the vessel of that other country, which shall not be equally imposed upon or withheld from such goods, when so imported or exported in national vessels.

2. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with regard to the regulations that determine the conditions which constitute a British or a Dutch vessel, it is hereby agreed, that all vessels built in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, and all vessels which, having been captured from an enemy by her Majesty's ships of war, or by the subjects of her said Majesty, furnished by the lords commissioners of the Admiralty with letters of marque, shall have been regularly condemned in one of her said Majesty's prize courts as a lawful prize; and all vessels which shall have been condemned in any competent court, for a breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade; and all vessels which are owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of the King of the Netherlands, or which, having been captured from an enemy by his Majesty's ships of war, or by the subjects of his said Majesty furnished with letters of marque, shall have been regularly condemned in one of the prize courts of the Kingdom of the Netherlands as a lawful prize; and all vessels which shall have been condemned in any competent court, for a breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, shall, provided they are wholly owned by any subject or subjects of the King of the Netherlands, and provided that the master and three-fourths of the crew are Netherlands subjects, be considered as Netherlands vessels.

4. It is further agreed, that in all cases where, in either kingdom, the duty to be levied upon any goods imported, shall be, not a fixed rate, but a proportion of the value of the goods, such *ad valorem* duty shall be ascertained and secured in the following manner; that is to say, the importer shall, on making his entry for the payment of duty at the custom-house of either country, sign a declaration, stating the value of the goods at such amount as he shall think proper; and in case the officers of customs should be of opinion that such valuation is insufficient, he or they shall be at liberty to take the goods, on paying to the importer the value according to his declaration, together with the addition of 10 per cent., and on returning the duty paid.

The amount of these sums to be paid by the officers on the delivery of the goods to them, which must be within 15 days from the first detention of the goods.

5. Forasmuch as all merchandises, of whatever origin, whether admissible for home consumption or not, may be received and warehoused in all the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which are by law appointed to be warehousing ports for such articles, pending the entry of the same either for home consumption or for re-exportation, as the case may be, under the regulations appointed for this purpose, and without such articles being liable, in the meantime, to the payment of any of the duties with which they would be charged, if upon arrival they were entered for consumption within the United Kingdom; in like manner, the King of the Netherlands consents and agrees, that all the ports of his Netherlands Majesty's dominions, which are now or which shall hereafter become warehousing ports by law, shall be free ports for the reception and warehousing of all merchandises imported in British ships, and of all articles whatever the produce or manufacturers of the British dominions, in whatever ships imported, either for home consumption or for re-exportation, as the case may be; and the articles thus received and warehoused, subject to due regulations, shall not be liable, in the meantime, to any of the duties with which they would be charged, if they were entered for consumption on their arrival in the Netherlands.

6. If any ships of war or merchant vessels should be wrecked on the coasts of either of the high contracting parties, such ships or vessels, or all parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereto, and all goods and merchandise which shall be saved therefrom, or the produce thereof, if sold, shall be faithfully restored to the proprietors, upon being claimed by them or by their duly authorised factors; and if there are no such proprietors or factors on the spot, then the said goods and merchandise, or the proceeds thereof, as well as all the papers found on board such wrecked vessels, shall be delivered to the British or Netherlands consul in whose district the wreck may have taken place; and such consul, proprietors, or factors shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the rate of salvage which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel; and the goods and merchandise saved from the wreck shall not be subject to duties, unless cleared for home consumption.

7. The present treaty shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof, and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years.

And it is hereby agreed between them, that at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this treaty, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

8. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the Hague within one month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at the Hague, this 27th day of October, in the year of our Lord 1837.

VERSTOLK DE SOLEN.

EDWARD CROMWELL DISEBOWS.

Declaration made by the Plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty, on the exchange of the Ratification of the preceding Treaty.

In proceeding to the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of commerce and navigation between her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and his Majesty the King of the Netherlands, concluded and signed at the Hague on the 27th of October, 1837, the undersigned, plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty, is commanded by her Majesty to explain and declare that her Majesty has ratified the said treaty, notwithstanding that the preamble contains the words "in Europe," which her Majesty's government had objected to as redundant; but that her Majesty considers those words to be without meaning, so far as her Majesty's dominions are concerned; because those words appear to establish a distinction between a kingdom in Europe and a kingdom out of Europe, whereas, by the word "kingdom," in the said treaty, her Majesty, as far as regards her own territories, means only the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, which is well known to be in Europe, and does not mean any of the possessions of her Majesty's crown beyond sea. Her Majesty's ratification of the said treaty is exchanged under the explicit declaration and understanding above-mentioned.

Done at the Hague, the 22d day of November, 1837.

EDWARD CROMWELL DISEBOWS.

Counter-Declaration of the Plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of the Netherlands.

The plenipotentiary of her Britannic Majesty having, previously to the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty of commerce and navigation, concluded on the 27th of October 1837, between his Majesty the King of the Netherlands and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, delivered to the undersigned, plenipotentiary of his Majesty the King of the Netherlands, a declaration stating that her Britannic Majesty had not in view in the said treaty the possessions of her crown beyond sea; the undersigned is charged by his Majesty the King of the Netherlands to declare that his said Majesty accepts the above-mentioned declaration, and that he likewise, on his part, has not meant to comprise in the said treaty the possessions of his crown beyond sea.

With regard to the observations made as to the use of the words "in Europe," the cabinet of the

Hague is of opinion, that their interpretation is to be found in the circumstances, that the phrase "in Europe" applies to the word "ports," and not to the word "kingdom."

The Hague, the 22d of November, 1837.

VANSTOLK DE SOELAN.

Treaty between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Netherlands, respecting Territories and Commerce in the East Indies, signed at London, March 17, 1824.

Article 1. The high contracting parties engage to admit the subjects of each other to trade with their respective possessions in the Eastern Archipelago, and on the continent of India and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favoured nation; their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement.

2. The subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay, upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other in the Eastern seas, any duty at a rate beyond the double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs are charged.

The duties paid on exports or imports at a British port, on the continent of India, or in Ceylon, on Dutch bottoms, shall be arranged so as in no case to be charged at more than double the amount of the duties paid by British subjects, and on British bottoms.

In regard to any article upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects or the vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other shall in no case exceed 5 per cent.

3. The high contracting parties, from the conclusion of the present treaty, communication has been made by each of the contracting parties to the other, of all treaties or engagements subsisting between each of them, respectively, and any native powers in the Eastern seas; and that the like communication shall be made of all such treaties concluded by them, respectively, hereafter.

4. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties engage to give strict orders, as well to their civil and military authorities, as to their ships of war, to respect the freedom of trade, established by articles 1, 2, 3, and 4; and in no case to impede a free communication of the natives in the Eastern Archipelago, with the ports of the 2 governments, respectively, or of the subjects of the 2 governments with the ports belonging to native powers.

5. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties, in like manner, engage to concur effectually in repressing piracy in those seas: they will not grant either asylum or protection to vessels engaged in piracy, and they will in no case permit the ships or merchandise captured by such vessels, to be introduced, deposited, or sold, in any of their possessions.

6. It is agreed that orders shall be given by the 2 governments, to their officers and agents in the East, not to form any new settlement on any of the islands in the Eastern seas, without previous authority from their respective governments in Europe.

7. The Molucca Islands, and especially Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and their immediate dependencies, are excepted from the operation of the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th articles, until the Netherland government shall think fit to abandon the monopoly of spices; but if the said government shall, at any time previous to such abandonment of the monopoly, allow the subjects of any power, other than the Asiatic native power, to carry on any commercial intercourse with the said islands, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall be admitted to such intercourse, upon a footing precisely similar.

8. His Netherland Majesty cedes to his Britannic Majesty all his establishment on the continent of India; and renounces all privileges and exemptions enjoyed or claimed in virtue of those establishments.

9. The factory of Fort Marlborough, and all the English possessions on the island of Sumatra, are hereby ceded to His Netherland Majesty; and his Britannic Majesty further engages that no British settlement shall be formed on that island, nor any treaty concluded by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

10. The town and fort of Malacca, and its dependencies, are hereby ceded to his Britannic Majesty; and his Netherland Majesty engages, for himself and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

11. All the colonies, possessions, and establishments which are ceded by the preceding articles, shall be delivered up to the officers of the respective sovereigns on the 1st of March, 1825. The fortifications shall remain in the state in which they shall be at the period of the notification of this treaty in India; but no claim shall be made, on either side, for ordnance, or stores of any description, either left or removed by the ceding power, nor for any arrears of revenue, or any charge of administration whatsoever.

12. It is agreed that all accounts and reclamations, arising out of the restoration of Java, and other possessions, to the officers of his Netherland Majesty in the East Indies,—as well those which were the subject of a convention made at Java on the 24th of June, 1817, between the commissioners of the 2 nations, as all others,—shall be finally and completely closed and satisfied, on the payment of the sum of 100,000*l.*, sterling money, to be made in London on the part of the Netherlands, before the expiration of the year 1825.

13. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at London, within 3 months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 17th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1824.

GEORGE CANNING. CHARLES WATKINS WILLIAMS WYNN. H. FAGEL. A. R. FALCK.

PERSIA.

Treaty of Commerce between Her Majesty and the Shah of Persia, signed at Tehran, October 26, 1814.

Article 1. The merchants of the two mighty states are reciprocally permitted and allowed to carry into each other's territories their goods and manufactures of every description, and to sell or exchange them in any part of their respective countries; and on the goods which they import or export, custom duties shall be levied; that is to say, on entering the country the same amount of custom duties shall be levied, once for all, that is levied on merchandise imported by the merchants of the most favoured European nations; and at the time of going out of the country, the same amount of custom duties which is levied on the merchandise of merchants of the most favoured European nations shall be levied from the merchants, subjects of the high contracting parties; and except this, no claim shall be made upon the merchants of the two states in each other's dominions on any pretext or under any denomination; and the merchants or persons connected with or dependent upon the high contracting parties in each other's dominions, mutually shall receive the same aid and support, and the same respect, which are received by the subjects of the most favoured nations.

2. As it is necessary, for the purpose of attending to the affairs of the merchants of the two parties respectively, that from both governments commercial agents should be appointed to reside in stated places; it is therefore arranged that two commercial agents on the part of the British government shall reside, one

in the capital, and one in Tabreez, and in those places only, and on this condition, that he who shall reside at Tabreez, and he alone, shall be honoured with the privileges of consul-general; and as for a series of years a resident of the British government has resided at Bushire, the Persian government grant permission that the said resident shall reside there as heretofore. And, in like manner, two commercial agents shall reside on the part of the Persian government, one in the capital of London, and one in the port of Bombay, and shall enjoy the same rank and privileges which the commercial agents of the British government shall enjoy in Persia.

3. This commercial treaty, we, the plenipotentiaries of the high contracting parties, have agreed to, and in witness thereof, have set thereunto our hands and seals, at the capital city of Tehran, the twenty-eighth day of October, in the year of our Lord 1841, corresponding to the 12th day of the month Hamsan, in the year of the Hejira 1257.

JOHN McNEILL,
MELISSA ABUL HASSAN KHAN.

PERU-BOLIVIAN CONFEDERATION.

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation between His Majesty and the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, together with 2 additional Articles thereunto annexed.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the dominions and subjects of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, his heirs and successors, and the Peru-Bolivian confederation and its citizens.

2. There shall be, between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, and the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, reciprocal freedom of commerce. The subjects and citizens of the two countries respectively shall enjoy the most complete protection and security in all places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which they may be permitted to come, to enter into, to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purpose of their commerce; and, generally, the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

In like manner, the respective ships of war and post-office packets of the 2 countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbours, rivers, and places to which other foreign ships of war and packets are or may be permitted to come, to enter into the same, to anchor, and to remain there and re-quit; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers mentioned in this article, the privilege of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood, in which national vessels only are permitted to engage.

3. His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland engages further, that the inhabitants of the Peru-Bolivian confederation shall have the like liberty of commerce and navigation stipulated for in the preceding article, in all his dominions situated out of Europe, to the full extent in which the same is permitted at present, or may be permitted hereafter, to any other nation.

4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the dominions of His Britannic Majesty of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, than are or shall be imposed on the like articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed in the territories or dominions of either of the contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories or dominions of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, or of the said territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, to or from the said dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or to or from the said territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

5. No higher or other duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed in any of the ports of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, on British vessels, than those payable, in the same ports, by Peru-Bolivian vessels; nor in the ports of his Britannic Majesty's territories, on Peru-Bolivian vessels, than shall be payable in the same ports on British vessels.

6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such importation shall be in Peru-Bolivian or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, whether such importation shall be in British or in Peru-Bolivian vessels. The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to the ports of the Peru-Bolivian confederation of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in Peru-Bolivian or British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in British or in Peru-Bolivian vessels.

7. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Peru-Bolivian vessel, it is hereby agreed that no ship shall be admitted to be a ship of either country, unless she shall be of the built of such country, or have been made prize of war to such country, and condemned as such; or have been forfeited to such country under any law of the same made for the prevention of the slave trade, and condemned in any competent court as forfeiture for a breach of such law; nor unless she be navigated by a master who is a subject of such country, and by a crew of whom 3/4 at least are subjects of such country; nor unless she be wholly owned by subjects of such country, usually residing therein, or under the dominion thereof; excepting where the laws provide for any extreme cases. And it is further agreed, that no ship, admitted to be a ship of either country, shall be qualified to trade as above described, under the provisions of this treaty, unless furnished with a regular passport, or sea-letter, under the signature of the proper person authorized to grant the same, according to the laws of the respective countries, (the form of which shall be communicated), certifying the name, occupation, and residence of the owner or owners, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or in the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, as the case may be; and that he or they be or are the sole owner or owners, in the proportion to be specified; together with the name, burden, and description of the vessel, as to built and measurement, and the several particulars constituting the national character of the vessel, as the case may be.

8. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, to manage their own affairs, themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other person for those purposes than those employed by Peru-Bolivian citizens, nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid in like cases, by Peru-Bolivian citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed, in all cases, to the buyer and seller to bargain and fix the price of any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into or exported from the Peru-Bolivian confederation, as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country,

should be strictly and liberally observed, and immediately brought into operation; it is agreed that, for the space of 15 years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, any ships, whatsoever built, being *bona fide* the property of and wholly owned by one or more citizens of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, and whereof the masters and three-fourths of the mariners, at least, are also natural-born citizens of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, or persons domiciliated in the Peru-Bolivian confederation by act of the government, as lawful subjects of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, to be certified according to the laws of that country, shall be considered as Peru-Bolivian ships; his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland reserving to himself the right, at the end of the said term of 15 years, to claim the principle of reciprocal restriction stipulated for in the article 7. above referred to, if the interests of British navigation shall be found to be prejudiced by the present exception to that reciprocity in favour of Peru-Bolivian shipping.

5. It is further agreed that, for the like term of 15 years, the stipulations contained in the articles 2, and 6. of the present treaty shall be suspended; and, in lieu thereof, it is hereby agreed that, until the expiration of the said term of fifteen years, British ships entering into the ports of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, from the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and all articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom, or of any of the said dominions, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and reciprocally, it is agreed that Peru-Bolivian ships entering into the ports of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, from any port of the Peru-Bolivian confederation, and all articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said confederation, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and that no higher duties shall be paid, or bounties or drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of either country, in the ships of the other, than upon the exportation of the like articles in the ships of any other foreign country.

It being understood that, at the end of the said term of 15 years, the stipulations of the said 5th and 6th articles shall from thenceforward be in full force between the two countries.

The present additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratification shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at Lima, 5th June, 1837.

ELFORNO HINTON WILSON.
LORENZO BAGO.

PORTUGAL.

Treaty of Commerce between Great Britain and Portugal, signed at Lisbon, December 27. 1703.

Article 1. His Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name and that of his successors, to admit, for ever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accustomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheless, upon this condition:

2. That it is to say, that her Sacred Royal Majesty of Great Britain shall, in her own name and that of her successors, be obliged for ever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britania; so that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more shall be demanded for these wines, by the name of custom or duty, or by whatsoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they shall be imported into Great Britain in pipes or hogsheads, or other casks, than what shall be demanded from the like quantity or measure of French wine, French brandy, or abating a third part of the custom or duty; but if at any time this deduction or abatement of customs which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

3. The most excellent Lords the plenipotentiaries promise, and take upon themselves, that their above named masters shall ratify this treaty, and that within the space of 2 months the ratifications shall be exchanged.

Given at Lisbon, the 27th of December, 1703.

JOHN METHUEN.

MARCOS ALEGRETTINS.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between her Majesty and the Queen of Portugal, signed at Lisbon, July 3. 1842.

Article 1. The subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall, in the dominions of the other, enjoy all the privileges, immunities, and protection enjoyed by the subjects of the most favoured nation. They shall be entitled to travel, to reside, to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of their personal, leasehold, and all other property lawfully held by them, by sale, gift, exchange, or will, or in any other way whatever, without the smallest let, and without any hindrance whatever.

They shall be exempt from forced loans, or any other extraordinary contributions not general, or not by law established, and from all military service by sea or by land. Their dwellings, warehouses, and every thing belonging thereto, shall be respected, and shall not be subjected to any arbitrary visit or search. No examination or inspection shall be made of their books, papers, or accounts, without the legal sentence of a competent court or judge.

The assessment of the amount to be paid by the British subjects in Portugal and its dominions for *manco* or *decima industrial*, and from which they have hitherto enjoyed special exemption, shall in all cases in future be made, if so claimed by them, according to the rate to be given by *informadorea*, of whom two shall be Portuguese and two British merchants, to be named by the *Conseho de Industria*; and in case any objection should be made by the parties assessed to the amount of the said assessment (which shall in all cases bear a just proportion to the rate at which the native subjects of Portugal are assessed), they shall have a right to appeal to the tribunal of the treasury, and to appear in person, or to be heard by counsel, before the said tribunal; and in the meantime no execution shall be made on their property, until an ultimate decision shall have been pronounced by the said tribunal.

It is, however, understood that British subjects resident in Portugal and its dominions, not carrying on trade, or exercising any branch of industry therein, but deriving their incomes from other sources, shall, in like manner with Portuguese subjects, be wholly exempt from the operation of the said *manco* or *decima industrial* tax.

The subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall also, within the dominions of the other, be allowed the free use and exercise of their religion, without being in any manner disturbed on account of their religious opinions: they shall be allowed to assemble together for the purposes of public worship, and to celebrate the rites of their religion in their own dwelling-houses, or in the chapels or places of worship appointed for that purpose, without any the smallest hindrance or interruption whatever, either now or hereafter; and her Most Faithful Majesty does now and ever graciously grant to the subjects of her Britannic Majesty permission to build and maintain such chapels and places of worship within her dominions. It being always understood that the said chapels and places of worship are not to have steeples and bells.

Her Britannic Majesty's subjects shall likewise have full liberty to bury their dead, after the manner

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and with the ceremonies usual in their respective countries, and in the grounds and cemeteries which they shall have purchased and prepared for that purpose; and the sepulchres of the dead, in conformity to ancient and existing practices, shall in no way or on any account be disturbed.

2. The subjects of either of the contracting parties may freely dispose by will of the personal effects which they shall possess in the territories of the other; and their heirs, though subjects of the other contracting party, may succeed to their personal effects, either by will or *ab intestato*, and may obtain possession of the same in due course of law, either in person, or by other persons appointed by them to act on their behalf; in the event of heirs, or of persons duly appointed to act for them, the consul may be authorised to take charge, in due course of law, of the said effects, until the owner shall have made the necessary arrangements for obtaining possession of the property. If disputes shall arise between several claimants with respect to the title which each may have to the property, such disputes shall be decided by the courts of the country in which the property is situated; and if hereafter any favour as regards the possession or inheritance of landed or funded property (*biens fonds*) shall be granted, in the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, to the subjects of any other nation, the same favour shall extend reciprocally to their respective subjects, as the case may be, either in Portugal or Great Britain.

3. The subjects of either contracting party residing within the dominions of the other, shall be free to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit those affairs to the management of any persons whom they may appoint as their broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall any such British subjects be restrained in their choice of persons to act in such capacities, nor shall they be called upon to pay any salary or remuneration to any person whom they shall not choose to employ. Absolute freedom shall be given, in all cases, to the buyer and seller to bargain together, and to fix the price of any goods, wares, or merchandise, imported into, or to be exported from, the dominions of either contracting party, the laws and established customs of the country being duly observed.

The subjects of either of the high contracting parties residing within the dominions of the other shall be at liberty to open retail stores and shops, under the same municipal and police regulations as native subjects; and they shall not, in this respect, be liable to any other or higher taxes or imposts than those which are or may be paid by native subjects.

4. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between the subjects of the two high contracting parties; and the subjects of the two sovereigns respectively shall not pay, in the ports, harbours, roads, cities, towns, or places whatsoever in either kingdom, any other or higher duties, taxes, rates, or imposts, under whatsoever names designated or included, than those which are there paid by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

No duty of customs or other impost shall be charged upon any goods, the produce of the one country, upon importation by sea or by land from that country into the other, higher than the duty or impost charged upon goods of the same kind, the produce of and imported from any other country; and no duty, restriction, or prohibition shall be imposed upon the importation and exportation from one country to the other, of the goods and produce of each, which shall not be imposed upon goods of the same kind, when imported from or exported to any other country; and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and her Majesty the Queen of Portugal, do hereby bind and engage themselves, their heirs and successors, not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunity, in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects or citizens of any other state, which shall not also and at the same time be extended to the subjects of the other high contracting party, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state shall have been gratuitous; and on giving, as nearly as possible, the same compensation or equivalent, if the concession shall have been conditional.

5. No duties of tonnage, and no harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, shall be imposed in either country upon the vessels of the other, in respect of voyages between the two countries, if laden; or in respect of any voyage, if in ballast, which shall not be equally imposed, in the like cases, on national vessels.

6. All goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of their respective possessions, which can legally be imported into either country from the other, in ships of that other country, shall, when so imported, be subject to the same duties, whether they be imported in ships of the one country or in ships of the other; and in like manner, all goods which can legally be exported from either country to the other, in ships of that other country, shall, when so exported, be subject to the same duties, and be entitled to the same drawbacks, bounties, and allowances, whether they be exported in ships of the one country or in ships of the other.

7. In order to promote and encourage the commercial intercourse between the dominions of the high contracting parties, for the mutual benefit of their respective subjects, her Britannic Majesty and her Most Faithful Majesty agree to take into consideration the duties now levied upon articles the produce or manufacture of either country, with a view to make such reductions in those duties as may be consistent with the interest of the high contracting parties respectively.

This matter shall without delay be made the subject of a special negotiation between the two governments.

8. British ships shall be allowed to proceed direct from any port of her Britannic Majesty's dominions to any colony of her Most Faithful Majesty, and to import into such colony any goods the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any of the British dominions, except such goods as are prohibited to be imported into such colony, or which are admitted into it only from the dominions of her Most Faithful Majesty; and such British ships, and such goods so imported in them, shall be liable in such colony of her Most Faithful Majesty to no higher or other duties and charges, than would be there payable on Portuguese ships importing the like sort of goods, or on the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, and allowed to be imported into the said colony in Portuguese ships.

In like manner, Portuguese ships shall be allowed to proceed direct from any port of her Most Faithful Majesty's dominions to any colony of her Britannic Majesty, and to import into such colony any goods the growth, produce, or manufacture of Portugal, or of any of the Portuguese dominions, except such goods as are prohibited to be imported into such colony, or which are admitted into it only from the dominions of her Britannic Majesty; and such Portuguese ships, and such goods so imported in them, shall be liable, in such colony of her Britannic Majesty, to no higher or other duties and charges, than would be there payable on British ships importing the like sort of goods, or on the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, and allowed to be imported into the said colony in British ships.

9. British ships shall be allowed to export from any colony of her Most Faithful Majesty to any place not under the dominion of her said Majesty, any goods not generally prohibited to be exported from such colony; and such British ships, and such goods so exported in them, shall be liable, in such colony, to no other or higher charges than would be payable by, and shall be entitled to the same drawbacks or bounties as would be there allowable on, Portuguese ships exporting such goods, or on such goods exported in Portuguese ships.

In like manner Portuguese ships shall be allowed to export from any colony of her Britannic Majesty to any place not under the dominion of her said Majesty, any goods not generally prohibited to be exported from such colony; and such Portuguese ships, and such goods so exported in them, shall be liable in such colony to no other or higher charges than would be payable by, and shall be entitled to the same drawbacks or bounties as would be there allowable on, British ships exporting such goods, or on such goods exported in British ships.

10. It is hereby declared that the stipulations of the present treaty are not to be understood as applying

to the navigation and carrying trade between one port and another, situated in the dominions of either contracting party, if such navigation and trade should in those dominions be reserved by law exclusively to national vessels. Vessels of either country shall, however, be permitted to discharge part of their cargoes at one port in the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, and then to proceed, with the remainder of their cargo, to any other port or ports in the same dominions, without paying any higher or other duties on such cargo, than national vessels would pay in like circumstances; and they shall be permitted to land, in like manner, at different ports in the same dominions, and to re-embark on board.

11. The reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation declared and stipulated for by the present treaty, shall not extend to contraband of war, or to articles the property of the enemies of either party. The power granted by former treaties to carry, in the ships of either country, goods and merchandise of any description whatever, the property of the enemies of the other country, is now mutually renounced.

12. In all cases in which, in either kingdom, the duty to be levied upon any goods imported from the other kingdom shall be not a fixed rate, but a proportion of the value of the goods, such *ad valorem* duty shall be ascertained and secured in the following manner: that is to say, the importer shall, on making his entry for the payment of duty at the customs, cause to be declared, stating the description and value of the goods at such amount as he shall deem proper; and in case the officer or officers of the customs shall be of opinion that such valuation is insufficient, he or they shall be at liberty to take the goods, on paying to the importer the value thereof according to the declaration of the importer, together with an addition of 10 per cent.; and the custom-house officer shall, at the same time, return to the importer any duty which the importer may have paid upon such goods; and the amount of these sums shall be paid to the importer on the delivery of the goods to the said officer or officers, which must not be later than 15 days from the first detention of the goods.

13. Inasmuch as all merchandise, of whatever origin, whether admissible for home consumption or not, may be received and warehoused in all those ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland which are by law appointed to be warehousing ports for such articles, pending the entry of the same, either for home consumption or for re-exportation, as the case may be, under the regulations appointed for this purpose, and without such articles being liable, in the meantime, to the payment of any of the duties with which they would be charged, if upon arrival they were entered for consumption within the United Kingdom:—In like manner the Queen of Portugal consents and agrees that the ports of Her Most Faithful Majesty, which are by law appointed to be warehousing ports, shall be free ports for receiving and warehousing, either for home consumption or for re-exportation, as the case may be, all merchandise imported in British ships, and all articles whatever, the produce or manufacture of the British dominions, imported by Portuguese ships; and the articles thus received and warehoused, subject to the regulations, shall not be liable, in the meantime, to any of the duties with which they would be charged, if they were entered for consumption on their arrival in the dominions of Her Most Faithful Majesty.

14. All goods or merchandise found on board of, or which shall have formed the cargo or part of the cargo of a vessel of the one country, which shall be wrecked, or left derelict, on or near the coast of the other country, unless the impriation of such goods or merchandise shall be absolutely prohibited by law, shall be admitted for home consumption in the country on or near the coast of which such vessel shall be wrecked, or left derelict, or such goods or merchandise may be found, on payment of the same duty, as if the said goods or merchandise had been imported in a national vessel, even though such goods or merchandise could not by law be imported into the said country in any other than national vessels; and in fixing the amount of duty to be paid on such goods or merchandise, regard shall be had to any damage which the said goods or merchandise may have sustained.

To prevent frauds, the Board of Customs of each nation shall exercise their Judgment as to the causes of wrecks; and when they are satisfied that the said wrecks were the result of accident or misfortune, and free from suspicion of collusion, they shall authorize, at the option of the proprietor or agent, if present, or otherwise of the consul, the transhipment, or the sale for home consumption, of the goods or merchandise provided that such goods and merchandise could have been legally imported by the ships of the one country into the ports of the other country.

If any ships of war or merchant vessels should be wrecked on the coasts of either of the high contracting parties, such ships or vessels, or any parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereto, and all goods or merchandise which shall be saved therefrom, or the produce thereof if sold, shall be faithfully restored to the proprietors, upon being duly claimed by them, or by their agents duly authorized; or if there are no such proprietors or agents on the spot, by the respective consuls of the nation to which the proprietors of the said ships, vessels, or goods may belong, and in whose district such wreck may have taken place, provided such claim be preferred within a year and a day from the time of such wreck; and such consul, proprietor, or agent shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the rate of salvage which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel; and the goods and merchandise saved from the wreck shall not be subject to duties, unless cleared for local consumption.

15. If any merchant vessel of either country should be driven into the ports of the other by stress of weather, for the purpose of effecting necessary repairs, every facility shall be afforded to such vessel for obtaining the assistance it may be in need of.

The strictest reciprocity shall be observed, in the most favourable sense, as to the relief to be afforded to such vessel from the duties, charges, and expenses in the ports of either nation, to which vessels, entering solely for the purposes of trade, are subjected. Sufficient time shall be allowed for the completion of repairs; and while the vessel shall be undergoing repair, its cargo shall not unnecessarily be required to be landed, either in whole or in part; and any difference of opinion which may arise between the custom-house authorities and the masters of the said vessels, as to the necessity of landing all or any part of the cargo, shall be referred to two sworn or public surveyors, one to be named by the chief custom-house authority of the port, and the other by the consul of the nation to which the vessel belongs.

Her Majesty the Queen of Portugal engages that the commerce of British subjects within the Portuguese dominions shall not be restrained, interrupted, or otherwise affected by the operation of any monopoly, contract, or exclusive privilege of sale or purchase whatsoever; but that the subjects of the United Kingdom shall have free and unrestrained permission to buy from and sell to whomsoever they please, and in whatever form and manner may be agreed upon between the purchaser and seller, without being obliged to give any preference or favour in consequence of any such monopoly, contract, or exclusive privilege of sale and purchase. And her Britannic Majesty engages that a like exemption from restraint, in respect to purchases or sales, shall be enjoyed by the subjects of her Most Faithful Majesty trading in or residing in the United Kingdom. But it is distinctly to be understood, that the present article shall not be interpreted as affecting the special regulations now in force, or which may hereafter be enacted, with a view solely to the encouragement and amelioration of the Douro wine trade, (it being always understood that British subjects still in respect of the said trade be placed on the same footing as Portuguese subjects,) or with regard to the exportation of the salt of St. Ubes.

This article does not invalidate the exclusive right possessed by the crown of Portugal, within its own dominions, to the farm for the sale of Ivory, tinsel, gold dust, soap, gunpowder, and tobacco for home consumption provided, however, that should the above-mentioned articles, generally or separately, ever become articles of free commerce within the dominions of her Most Faithful Majesty, the subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall be permitted to traffic in them as freely and on the same footing as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

16. It is agreed and covenanted that neither of the high contracting parties shall knowingly receive into, or retain in its service, any subjects of the other party who have deserted from the naval or military service of that other party; but that, on the contrary, each of the contracting parties shall respectively discharge from its service any such deserters, upon being required by the other party to do so.

It is further agreed and declared, that if either of the high contracting parties shall grant to any state any new favour or facility, with respect to the recovery of deserters, such favour or facility shall be considered as granted also to the other contracting party, in the same manner as if the said favour or facility had been expressly stipulated by the present treaty.

And it is further agreed, that if any apprentices or sailors shall desert from vessels belonging to the subjects of either of the high contracting parties, while such vessels are within any port in the territory of the other party, the magistrates of such port and territory shall be bound to give every assistance in their power for the apprehension of such deserters, on application to that effect being made by the consul of the party concerned, or by the deputy or representative of the consul; and no public body, civil or religious, shall protect or harbour such deserters.

17. Her Britannic Majesty, on the representation of her Most Faithful Majesty, and in contemplation of the improving system of law and justice in Portugal, hereby consents to give up the exercise of the rights connected with the Conservatorial Court, as soon and so long as British subjects are admitted in Portugal to the benefit of securities similar or equivalent to those enjoyed by the subjects of her Most Faithful Majesty in Great Britain, as regards trial by jury, protection from arrest without a warrant from a magistrate, and examination within 24 hours after apprehension *in flagrant delicto*, and admission to bail. It being always understood, that in other respects the subjects of her Britannic Majesty in Portugal shall be placed on the same footing as Portuguese subjects, in all causes, whether civil or criminal; and that they shall not, except in cases *flagrant delicti*, be liable to imprisonment without formal commitment (*cuipa formada*) under a warrant signed by a legal authority.

18. It is hereby agreed that her Britannic Majesty, relying upon the guarantees which are or may be afforded to British subjects by the law of Portugal under the present treaty, renounces all claims and claims for British subjects in Portugal no privileges which are not enjoyed by Portuguese subjects in the Portuguese or British dominions. It being, however, understood, that her Britannic Majesty will be entitled, in the event (which God forbid) of political troubles affecting the operation of the above mentioned guarantees, to claim the re-establishment and observance of the privileges surrendered by the present and preceding articles.

19. The present treaty shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years, or at any subsequent time.

And it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this treaty, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

It is agreed, nevertheless, that either of the two high contracting parties shall have the right, at the end of 5 years, to require a revision of any articles not affecting the principle of the treaty, on giving 3 months' notice of a desire to make such revision; provided, however, that it be distinctly understood that the power of giving such notice shall not extend beyond, nor be recognised after, the termination of the fifth year.

The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Lisbon on the expiration of two months from the date of its signature, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done at Lisbon, the 3d of July, in the year of our Lord 1842.

HOWARD DE WALDEN,
DUQUE DE PALMELLA.

True Intent and Spirit of certain Points of Treaty.

Lisbon, July 5. 1843.
The undersigned, her Britannic Majesty's plenipotentiary for the negotiation of a treaty of commerce and navigation between Great Britain and Portugal, has the honour to declare to His Excellency the Duke of Palmella, that with reference to article 5, all vessels built in the territory of her Most Faithful Majesty, or which shall be British built, or which shall have been captured from the enemy by the ships of the Portuguese government, and slave vessels condemned under similar circumstances, and which shall be wholly owned by any subject or subjects of her Most Faithful Majesty, and wherein the master and three-fourths of the mariners are subjects of her Most Faithful Majesty, will be considered as Portuguese, and will be entitled to be placed on the footing of national vessels, and to be treated on an equality with the vessels of the most favoured nation, in the ports of her Britannic Majesty, *i. e.*, in Great Britain and Ireland and the colonies hereinafter enumerated.

With reference to article 8, in the words "growth, produce, and manufacture," the wines and brandies of Portugal are comprehended.

With reference to article 14, the jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports does not interfere with the stipulations of this article.

With reference to article 17, in respect to the declaration of her Britannic Majesty regarding the conditional surrender of the rights connected with the Conservatorial Court, whenever the Portuguese government shall have officially communicated to her Majesty's government, any law or laws establishing the guarantees in question, her Majesty will recognise the right of the Portuguese government to declare the further jurisdiction and authority of the British Conservatorial Court to have ceased by consent of her Majesty.

The colonies referred to are Canada, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, and all other British possessions in North America, British West India, including the islands and possessions on the continent of South America, Guyana (Guiana), and other possessions in Africa; the Mauritius, the Island of Ceylon, Van Diemen's Land, New South Wales, New Zealand.

Howard de Walden.

Lisbon, July 3. 1843.

The undersigned, her Most Faithful Majesty's plenipotentiary, has the honour to declare, by order of the government, to Lord Howard de Walden, in reference to the article 1, of the treaty of commerce and navigation, by both concluded and signed to-day, between Portugal and Great Britain, that the maximo that can be collected from any British subject for *manut* or *desimal industrial*, will be 20 per cent. upon the rent of their shops, dwellings, and warehouses, which will serve as an invariable rule to the tribunal of the treasury, for deciding the appeals made by British subjects.

Duke of Palmella.

Lisbon, July 3. 1842.

PRUSSIA.

Convention of Commerce between his Britannic Majesty and the King of Prussia, signed at London, April 2. 1842.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of May next, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Prussian Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or

charges whatever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Prussia, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, into the ports of Prussia, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Prussian ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian ships.

4. All goods, which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf or under its authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

7. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their respective Governments.

Done at London, the 2d day of April, in the year of our Lord 1824.

GEORGE CANNING. W. HUBERSON. WEATHERS.

An order in council, dated May 25, 1824, directs that, from May 1, 1824, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports; that all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from the said ports in Prussian vessels; that all articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported from Prussia into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian vessels, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in British ships; that all goods which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, when imported in Prussian vessels, that is charged on similar articles imported in British vessels; and that all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, when exported in Prussian vessels, that are granted, paid, or allowed on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

A Treasury order, dated October 13, 1824, directs, that with respect to pilotage and all other duties charged on vessels belonging to Prussia, Sweden, and Norway, Denmark, Hannover, and Hamburg, which have entered or which may enter the ports of the United Kingdom, either from stress of weather or from any other causes, it was the intention of the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, that such dues should not be higher than are charged upon British vessels, and that it is only in the case of goods imported into this country, and not brought direct from the country to which the vessel belongs, that the equality of duty does not apply.

An order in council, dated May 3, 1823, states, that his Majesty is pleased to declare, that the ships of and belonging to the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia are entitled to the privileges granted by the law of navigation, and may import from the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia, into any of the British possessions abroad, goods the produce of such dominions, and may export goods from such British possessions abroad, to be carried to any foreign country whatever.

PRUSSIA, BAVARIA, &c.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Great Britain, on the one part; and Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Wurtemberg, Baden, the Electorate of Hesse, the Grand Duchy of Hesse, the States forming the Commercial Union of Thuringia, Nassau, and Frankfurt, on the other part.

Article 1. In consideration of the circumstance that British vessels are admitted, together with their cargoes, to entry in the ports of Prussia, and of the other states of the forenamed Union of Customs, when coming from the ports of all countries, and in consideration of the concessions stipulated in the present convention for British trade with all the states of this Union of Customs; in consideration also of the facility which the application of steam power to inland navigation affords for the conveyance of produce and merchandise of all kinds up and down rivers; and in consideration of the new opening which may by these means be given to the trade and navigation between the U. Kingdom and the British possessions abroad, and the states now composing the Union of Customs, on the one hand; and some of which states use as the natural outlet of their commerce ports not within their own dominions; it is agreed that, from and after the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this present convention, Prussian vessels, and the vessels of the other states forming the said Union of Customs, together with their cargoes, consisting of all such goods as can be legally imported into the U. Kingdom and the British possessions abroad, by the said vessels from the ports of the countries to which they respectively belong, shall, when coming from the mouths of the Meuse, of the Ems, of the Weser, and of the Elbe, or from the mouths of any navigable river lying between the Elbe and the Meuse, and forming the means of communication between the sea and the territory of any of the German states which are parties to this treaty, be admitted into the ports of the U. Kingdom, and of the British possessions abroad, in as full and ample a manner, as if the ports from which such vessels may have come, as aforesaid, were within the dominions of Prussia, or of any other of the states aforesaid; and such vessels shall be permitted to import the goods above mentioned upon the same terms on which the said goods might be imported if coming from the national ports of such vessels; and also that, in like manner, such vessels proceeding from Great Britain and her colonial possessions abroad to the places thus referred to, shall be treated as if returning to a Prussian Baltic port;— It being understood that these privileges are to extend to the vessels of Prussia and of the states aforesaid, and to their cargoes, only in respect to each of the said ports in which British vessels and their cargoes shall, upon their arrival thereat, and depar-

ture therefrom, continue to be placed on the same footing as the vessels of Prussia and of the other states of the union.

2. The King of Prussia, in his own name, and in the name of the states aforesaid, agrees to place, always and in every way, the trade and navigation of the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, in respect to the importation of sugar and rice, upon the same footing as that of the most favoured nation.

3. In the event of other German states joining the Germanic Union of Customs, it is hereby agreed that such other states shall be included in all the stipulations of the present convention.

4. The present convention shall be in force until the 1st of January, 1842, and further for the term of 6 years, provided neither of the high contracting parties shall have given to the other 6 months' previous notice that the same shall cease to be in force on the said 1st of January, 1842; and if neither party shall have given to the other six months' previous notice that the present convention shall cease on the 1st day of January, 1848, then the present convention shall further remain in force until the 1st of January, 1854, and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same, each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other; and it is hereby agreed between them, that at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at London, at the expiration of 2 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 23d day of March, in the year of our Lord 1841.

PALMERSTON.
H. LABOUCHÈRE.

By an order in council, dated August 28, 1841, it is ordered, that Prussian vessels, and the vessels of the other states forming the German Union of Customs, together with their cargoes, consisting of all such goods as can be legally imported into the U. Kingdom and the British possessions abroad, by the said vessels, from the ports of the countries to which they respectively belong, shall, when coming from the mouths of the Meuse, of the Elbe, of the Weser, and of the Elbe, or from the mouths of any navigable river, lying between the Elbe and the Meuse, and forming the means of communication between the sea and the territory of any of the German states, which are parties to this treaty, be admitted into the ports of the U. Kingdom and of the British possessions abroad, in as full and ample a manner as if ports from which such vessels may have come as aforesaid, and such vessels shall be permitted to import the goods above-mentioned upon the same terms on which the said goods might be imported if coming from the national ports of the said vessels; and also that, in like manner, and such vessels proceeding from Britain and her colonial possessions abroad, to the ports or places thus referred to, shall be treated as if returning to a Prussian Baltic port; it being understood that these privileges are to extend to the vessels of Prussia and of the states aforesaid, and to their cargoes only in respect to each of the said states, which British vessels and their cargoes shall, upon their arrival thereat and departure therefrom, continue to be placed upon the same footing as the vessels of Prussia and of the other states of the union.

RIO DE LA PLATA (THE STATES OF).

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between His Majesty and the United Provinces of Rio de La Plata.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the dominions and subjects of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata and their inhabitants.

2. There shall be, between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe and the territories of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, a reciprocal freedom of commerce; the inhabitants of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come, with their ships and cargoes, to all such places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are or may be permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and generally, the merchants and traders of each nation respectively shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce, subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

3. His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland engages further, that in all his dominions situated out of Europe, the inhabitants of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata shall have the like liberty of commerce and navigation stipulated for in the preceding article, to the full extent in which the same is permitted at present, or shall be permitted hereafter, to any other nation.

4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of his Britannic Majesty, of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the said United Provinces, of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed, in the territories or dominions of either of the contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories or dominions of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, or of the said United Provinces, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

5. No higher or other duties or charges on account of tonnage, light, or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed, in any of the ports of the said United Provinces, on British vessels of the burden of above 120 tons, than those payable in the same ports by vessels of the said United Provinces of the same burden, nor in the ports of any of his Britannic Majesty's territories on the vessels of the United Provinces of above 120 tons, than shall be payable, in the same ports, on British vessels of the same burden.

6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the said United Provinces of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such importation shall be in vessels of the said United Provinces, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said United Provinces, whether such importation shall be in British vessels, or in vessels of the said United Provinces; the same duties shall be paid, and the same drawbacks and bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions to the said United Provinces, whether such exportation shall be in vessels of the said United Provinces, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same drawbacks and bounties allowed on the exportation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said United Provinces to his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in British vessels or in vessels of the said United Provinces.

7. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British vessel or a vessel of the said United Provinces, it is hereby agreed, that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of the

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said United Provinces, properly registered, and owned by the citizens thereof, or any of them, and whereof the master and three-fourths of the mariners, at least, are citizens of the said United Provinces, shall be considered as vessels of the United Provinces.

8. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall have the same liberty in all the territories of the said United Provinces as the natives thereof to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other persons for those purposes, nor to pay them any salary or remuneration, unless they shall choose to employ them; and absolute freedom shall be allowed in all cases to the buyer and seller to bargain and fix the price of any goods imported into or exported from the said United Provinces, as they shall see good.

9. In whatever relates to the lading and unlading of ships, the safety of merchandises, goods, and effects, the disposal of property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, or exchange, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the subjects and citizens of the two contracting parties shall enjoy, in their respective dominions, the same privileges, liberties, and rights as the most favoured nation, and shall not be charged in any of these respects with any other duties or imposts than those which are paid or may be paid by the native subjects or citizens of the power in whose dominions they may be resident. They shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, whether by sea or land, and from all forced loans, or military exactions or requisitions; neither shall they be compelled to pay any ordinary taxes, under any pretext whatsoever, greater than those that are paid by native subjects or citizens.

10. It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as either of them may judge fit to be so excepted.

11. For the better security of commerce between the subjects of his Britannic Majesty and the inhabitants of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, it is agreed, that if at any time any interruption of friendly commercial intercourse, or any rupture, should unfortunately take place between the two contracting parties, the subjects or citizens of either of the two contracting parties residing in the dominions of the other shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing their trade therein without any manner of interruption, so long as they shall submit to no offices against the laws, rights, or interests of the said effects and property, whether intrusted to individuals or to the state, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native inhabitants of the state in which such subjects or citizens may reside.

12. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty residing in the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata shall not be disturbed, persecuted, or annoyed on account of their religion, but they shall have perfect liberty of conscience therein, and to celebrate divine service either within their own private houses, or in their own particular churches or chapels, which they shall be at liberty to build and maintain in convenient places, approved of by the government of the said United Provinces; liberty shall also be granted to bury the subjects of his Britannic Majesty who may die in the territories of the said United Provinces in their own burial places, which, in the same manner, they may freely establish and maintain. In the like manner, the citizens of the said United Provinces shall enjoy, within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, a perfect and unrestrained liberty of conscience, and of exercising their religion publicly or privately, within their own dwelling houses, or in the chapels and places of worship appointed for that purpose, agreeably to the system of toleration established in the dominions of his said Majesty.

13. It shall be free for the subjects of his Britannic Majesty residing in the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, to dispose of their property, of every description, by will or testament, as they may judge fit; and in the event of any British subject dying without such will or testament in the territories of the United Provinces, the British consul-general, or, in his absence, his representative, shall have the right to nominate curators to take charge of the property of the deceased for the benefit of his lawful heirs and creditors, without interference, giving convenient notice thereof to the authorities of the country; and reciprocally.

14. His Britannic Majesty being extremely desirous of totally abolishing the slave trade, the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata engage to co-operate with his Britannic Majesty for the completion of so beneficial a work, and to prohibit all persons inhabiting within the said United Provinces, or subject to their jurisdiction, in the most effectual manner, and by the most solemn laws, from taking any share in such trade.

15. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London within 4 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done at Buenos Ayres, 3d day of February, in the year of our Lord 1825.

WOODBINE PARSON, H. M. Consul-General.
MANUEL J. GARCIA.

An order in council, dated 3d September, 1827, orders that vessels of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in ballast, or laden direct from any of the ports of Rio de la Plata, or departing from the ports of the said United Kingdom, together with the cargoes on board the same, such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports; or on similar articles when imported into or exported from such ports in British vessels; and also such articles, when exported from the said ports in vessels of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, respectively, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances that are granted on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

Local Dues.—Provided nevertheless, that nothing herein shall extend in any duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges to which any vessels of the United Provinces of Rio de la Plata, of the burden of 120 tons, or of any less burden, are now by law liable in the ports of any of his Majesty's dominions; it appearing to his Majesty and his privy council, that British vessels of the burden of 120 tons, or of any less burden, are subject in the ports of the said United Provinces to higher duties and charges than are levied in those ports on vessels of the said United Provinces of the burden of 120 tons, or of any less burden.

RUSSIA.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the Emperor of all the Russias, signed at St. Petersburg, January 11, 1843.

Article 1. There shall be reciprocal freedom of navigation and commerce for the ships and subjects of the two high contracting powers, in all parts of their respective dominions where navigation and commerce are at present allowed, or may hereafter be allowed, to the ships and subjects of any other nation.

2. From the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, British vessels arriving in or departing from the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, and Russian vessels arriving in or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, shall be subject to no other or higher duties or charges, of whatsoever

nature they may be, than those which are now or shall hereafter be imposed on national vessels, on their entering into or departing from such ports.

3. In consideration that British ships arriving directly from other countries than those belonging to the high contracting parties are admitted, with their cargoes, into the ports of the Russian Empire, without paying any other duties whatsoever than those payable by Russian vessels; and in consideration of the advantages which, in this respect, the present treaty specially grants in British commerce in the Grand Duchy of Finland, it is agreed, that from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, Russian vessels arriving from the mouth of the Vistula, the Niemen, or any other river which forms the outlet of a navigable stream having its source in the dominions of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, or passing through the said dominions, shall be admitted, with their cargoes, into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of all the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, exactly in the same manner as if those vessels arrived directly from Russia or Finnish ports, with all the privileges and immunities agreed upon by the present treaty of commerce and navigation. In like manner, Russian vessels proceeding from any part of Great Britain, or of the British possessions, for the mouth of any of the above-mentioned rivers, shall be treated as if they were returning to a port of the Empire of Russia, or of the Grand Duchy of Finland. It is, however, understood, that these privileges shall apply to Russian vessels and their cargoes, with respect to places situated at the mouths of the above-mentioned rivers, only so long as British vessels and their cargoes shall be treated at those places, on their arrival and departure, on the same footing with Russian vessels.

4. All productions of the soil, industry, and art of the dominions and possessions of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, including the said productions which may be exported by the rivers or streams mentioned in the preceding article, and which may be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom and the possessions of her Britannic Majesty; and also all the productions of the soil, industry, and art of the United Kingdom and possessions of her Britannic Majesty, which in any way be imported into the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, shall enjoy reciprocally, in all respects, the same privileges and immunities, and may be imported and exported exactly in the same manner, in vessels of the one as in vessels of the other high contracting party.

5. All articles which are not the productions of the soil, industry, and art of the respective states or of their possessions, and which may be legally imported from the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, as likewise from those of the rivers and streams mentioned in the third article, into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of all the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, in Russian vessels, shall be subject to the same duties only as would be payable upon the same articles, if they were imported in British vessels.

In like manner, all articles which are not the productions of the soil, industry, and art of the respective states or of their possessions, and which may be legally imported from the ports of the United Kingdom, and of all the possessions of her Britannic Majesty, into the ports of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, in British vessels, shall be subject to the same duties only which would be payable upon the same articles, if they were imported in Russian vessels.

Her Britannic Majesty grants by this treaty to Russian navigation and trade, all the benefits and privileges of navigation and commerce now enjoyed, or which may hereafter be enjoyed, by the most favoured nations, under existing laws and acts of parliament, or in virtue of orders in council, or treaties.

6. All merchandise and articles of commerce which, according to the stipulations of the present treaty, or according to the laws and ordinances in force in the respective empires, may be legally imported into or exported from the dominions and possessions of the two high contracting parties, either under the British flag, or under the Russian flag, shall, in like manner, be subject to the same duties, whether imported in vessels of the one state, or in national vessels; and the same bounties, drawbacks, and advantages shall be granted upon all merchandise and articles of commerce, which may be legally exported from the ports of either state, whether exported in vessels of the one or in vessels of the other state.

7. All merchandise and articles of commerce which shall be imported into, deposited or warehoused in, the ports of the dominions and possessions of the high contracting parties, shall be subject, while so warehoused, to the same regulations, conditions, and duties, whether imported in British or in Russian vessels. In the same manner, the re-exportation of such merchandise or articles of commerce shall be treated in the same manner, and be liable to the payment of the same duties, whether exported in British or in Russian vessels.

8. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by either of the two governments, or by any company, corporation, or agent acting in its name or under its authority, in the purchase of any production of the soil, industry, or art of either of the two states and their possessions, imported into the ports of the other, on account of the nationality of the vessel in which such article may have been imported; it being the fixed intention of the two contracting parties, that no difference or distinction whatever shall be made in this respect.

9. In regard to the commerce to be carried on in Russian vessels with the British possessions in the East Indies, her Britannic Majesty consents to grant to the subjects of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, the same advantages and privileges as are or may be enjoyed, under any treaty or act of parliament, by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; subject to the laws, rules, regulations, and restrictions which are or may become applicable to the vessels and subjects of any other state enjoying the same advantages and privileges for trading with the said possessions.

10. The stipulations of the present treaty shall not apply to the coasting trade carried on between port and port in the dominions of either contracting party, by the sailing or steam vessels of the other, so far as regards the carrying of passengers, merchandise, or articles of commerce; this trade being reserved exclusively to national vessels.

11. The vessels and subjects of the high contracting parties shall, by the present treaty, reciprocally enjoy all such advantages, immunities, and privileges, in the ports of their respective dominions and possessions, as are now enjoyed by the navigation and commerce of the most favoured nations; the intention being to secure, in the United Kingdom and in the British possessions, to Russian vessels and subjects, the full and entire advantages of navigation and commerce granted by existing laws and acts of parliament, orders in council, or treaties, or other powers, or which may hereafter be granted; and, in like manner, British vessels and subjects shall enjoy, in the ports of the dominions and possessions of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, the full and entire advantages of navigation and commerce granted by existing laws, regulations, and ordinances, or by treaties, to foreign powers, or which may hereafter be granted. And their Majesties the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Emperor of all the Russias, engage reciprocally not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunities whatsoever, in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects or citizens of any other state, which shall not be also at the same time granted to the subjects of the other high contracting party, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of the other state shall have been gratuitous, or upon giving as nearly as possible the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession shall have been conditional.

12. It is understood that, in regard to commerce and navigation in the Russian possessions on the north-west coast of America, the convention concluded at St. Petersburg on the 10th February, 1826, continues in force.

13. Any British or Russian vessel which may be compelled by stress of weather or by accident to take

shelter in the ports of either of the high contracting parties, shall be at liberty to reënt therein, to procure all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any other than port and lighthouse dues, which shall be the same as those payable by national vessels. In case, however, the master of such vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray his expenses, he shall be bound to conform to the regulations and tariffs of the place to which he may have come.

In the event of a vessel being wrecked at a place belonging to either of the high contracting parties, there shall not only be afforded every kind of assistance, but, moreover, the merchandise and effects which they may have thrown on board, or which may have been saved, shall not be seized or detained under any pretext whatsoever. The said effects and merchandise shall, on the contrary, be preserved and restored on payment of the same rate of salvage, and of customs or other duties, which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel. In the case either of shipwreck, or of a vessel being driven into port by stress of weather, the respective consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents, shall be authorised to interpose in order to afford the necessary assistance to their fellow-countrymen.

14. The consuls, vice-consuls, or commercial agents of each of the two high contracting parties residing in the dominions of the other, shall receive from the local authorities such assistance as can by law be given to them, for the recovery of deserters from ships of war or merchant vessels of their respective countries.

15. The present treaty shall remain in force during the space of ten years, dating from the exchange of the ratifications thereof; and further, until the expiration of twelve months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to put an end thereto; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the expiration of the first nine years; and it is agreed between them, that at the expiration of twelve months after such notice shall have been received by either of the high contracting parties from the other, the present treaty, and all the stipulations contained therein, shall cease to be binding on the two parties.

The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof exchanged at London, at the expiration of one month, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have fixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1843.

STUART DE ROTHSAY.
NESSELDORF.
CANCINE.

Separate Article I. The commercial intercourse of Russia with the kingdoms of Sweden and Norway being regulated by special stipulations, which may hereafter be renewed, and which do not form part of the regulations applicable to foreign countries in general, the two high contracting parties, being desirous of removing from their commercial relations every kind of doubt or cause of discussion, have agreed that those special stipulations granted in favour of the commerce of Sweden and Norway, in consideration of equivalent advantages granted in those countries to the commerce of the Grand Duchy of Finland, shall in no case apply to the relations of commerce and navigation established between the two high contracting parties by the present treaty.

Separate Article II. It is understood, in like manner, that the exemptions, immunities, and privileges hereinafter mentioned, shall not be considered as at variance with the principle of reciprocity, which forms the basis of the treaty of this date, that is to say:—

1. The exemption from navigation dues during the first three years, which is enjoyed by vessels built in Russia, and belonging to Russian subjects;

2. The exemptions of the like nature granted in the Russian ports of the Black Sea, the sea of Azoff, and the Danube, to such Turkish vessels arriving from ports of the Ottoman Empire situated on the Black Sea, as do not exceed eighty lasts burden;

3. The permission granted to the inhabitants of the coast of the government of Archangel, to import duty free, or on payment of moderate duties, into the ports of the said government, dried or salted fish, as likewise certain kinds of furs, and to export therefrom, in the same manner, corn, rope, and cordage, pitch, and raven-sduck;

4. The privilege of the Russian American Company;

5. The privilege of the Steam Navigation Companies of Lubeck and Havre; lastly,

6. The immunities granted in Russia to certain English companies, called "Yacht Clubs."

The present separate articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have fixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 11th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1843.

STUART DE ROTHSAY.
NESSELDORF.
CANCINE.

Regulations as to Travellers in Russia.

St. Petersburg, Jan. 15th, 1842.

By order of the minister of finance, the department of foreign commerce has just published a notice consequent on the promulgation of the new tariff of customs for the regulation of the trade by the frontiers of Europe:—

1. In what relates to travellers arriving in Russia, the authorities will conform strictly to the regulations concerning travellers, with this single difference—that, in future, it will not be permitted to each traveller to have more than one fur pelisse; and that the duty lately established, of 35 per cent. *ad valorem*, will be levied upon such articles of silver plate as they may have over and above the number specified. The articles that are not comprised in the category of the regulations relating to travellers cannot be introduced without payment of the duties; and as to those of which the importation is prohibited, they can only be re-exported under the circumstances foreseen by the law. In any other case they will be confiscated, especially if there shall not have been made on their behalf any declaration or previous declaim by the superior authorities of the customs authorising their admission.

2. In consequence, articles included in the category of merchandise or provisions of which the importation is permitted by the tariff cannot in any case be introduced duty free.

3. Nothing shall be recognized as the effects of travellers but what they bring with them. Effects separately forwarded shall be considered as merchandise, and be liable to the provisions of the tariff.

4. Nothing shall be recognized as effects for the personal use of travellers—which, under certain circumstances, are admitted free of duty—except those that bear evident marks of the use that has been made of them. Effects not bearing such marks shall be considered as new.

5. The verification, at a private residence, of effects so brought, shall only be permitted in case of works of art.

SARDINIA.

Treaty of Navigation between her Majesty and the King of Sardinia, signed at Turin, September 6, 1841.

Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of Sardinia, desiring to ameliorate, enlarge, and regulate the commercial relations between their respective kingdoms, and to furnish every sort of facility and encouragement to their respective subjects engaged in commercial operations with each other, and being persuaded that nothing can contribute more to the attainment of this desirable object than a reciprocal abrogation of all differential duties of navigation, of whatever nature, with regard to vessels of one of the two nations in the ports of the other, have named plenipotentiaries to conclude a treaty to this effect.

Article 1. British vessels which shall arrive laden in the ports of the kingdom of Sardinia, coming from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and reciprocally, Sardinian vessels which shall arrive laden in the ports of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, coming from the ports of Sardinia; as well as British or Sardinian vessels which shall arrive in ballast, in respect of any voyage whatever, in the ports of one or the other of these kingdoms, shall be treated on their entry, during their stay, and on their departure, on the same footing as national vessels, with respect to duties of tonnage, harbour, light-houses, pilotage, quarantine, wharfage, beaconage, signals, and any other duties of navigation whatever, which affect vessels, and are levied in the name and for the profit of government, public functionaries, communes, or establishments of whatever kind.

2. In order to avoid all misunderstanding with regard to the regulations according to which are fixed the conditions which establish the nationality of vessels, it is agreed that all vessels shall be considered as British vessels which are built in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty; and all those which, having been captured from an enemy by her Majesty's ships of war, or by her subjects furnished with letters of marque by the lords commissioners of the Admiralty, shall have been regularly declared a lawful prize by one of the prize courts of her Britannic Majesty; as well as all vessels which shall have been condemned by any competent court for a breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade; provided that they are owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain; that they are the entire property of one or more of the subjects of her Majesty the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland; and that the master and three-fourths of the crew are British subjects.

3. In the same manner shall be considered as Sardinian vessels which are built in the dominions of his Sardinian Majesty; and all those which, having been captured from an enemy by his Majesty's ships of war, or by his subjects furnished with letters of marque, shall have been regularly declared a lawful prize by one of the prize courts of the kingdom of Sardinia; as well as all vessels which shall have been condemned by any competent court for a breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade; provided that they are owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of the said kingdom; that they are the entire property of one or more subjects of his Sardinian Majesty; and that the master and three-fourths of the crew are Sardinian subjects.

3. In all that regards the stationing of vessels, their loading and unloading in the ports, basins, roadsteads, and harbours, of one of the two countries, no privilege shall be accorded to national vessels which shall not be equally accorded to the vessels of the other country; the desire of the contracting parties being that in this respect likewise vessels shall be treated on a footing of perfect equality.

4. Vessels of the two countries shall be at liberty to discharge the whole or part of their cargo in the ports of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, according as the captain or the proprietor, or whoever is duly authorised to act in the port as agent for the vessel or cargo shall consider advisable; and then proceed with the remainder of their cargo to the other ports of the same country.

5. Should any ships of war or mercantile vessels of one of the two countries be wrecked upon the coast of the other, such ships or vessels, or any part thereof, their rigging, and all the appurtenances thereof, as well as all effects and merchandise which shall be saved therefrom, or the proceeds of the sale thereof, shall be faithfully restored to the proprietors, or their duly authorised factors, upon being claimed by them. In the event of such proprietors or factors not being on the spot, the said appurtenances, merchandise, or the proceeds thereof, shall be delivered, together with all papers found on board such vessels, to the British or Sardinian consul in whose district the wreck may have taken place; and such consul, proprietor, or factor shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the rate of salvage which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel. The merchandise and goods saved from the wreck shall not be subject to the established duties, unless cleared for consumption.

6. It is expressly understood that the preceding articles are not applicable to the navigation of the coast, or coasting trade of each of the two countries which is exclusively reserved to each of the high contracting parties.

7. British vessels arriving from Gibraltar or from Malta shall enjoy, in the ports of his Majesty the King of Sardinia, the same advantages as are accorded to British vessels arriving from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; and reciprocally, Sardinian vessels, which shall enter the ports of the Island of Malta or of Gibraltar, shall enjoy all the advantages which are assured to them by the present treaty, when entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

8. The present treaty shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications thereof, and further until the expiration of 12 months after one of the contracting parties shall have announced to the other the intention to terminate the same, each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years.

The ratifications of the present treaty shall be exchanged at Turin, within the space of 2 months from the date of the signature thereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, we have signed the same in double original, and have affixed thereto the seal of our arms.

Done at Turin, the 6th of September, 1841.

RALPH ABERCROMBY.
SOLAR DE LA MAQUERITE.

THE TWO SICILIES.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Two Sicilies, signed at London, September 26, 1816.

Article 1. His Britannic Majesty consents, that all the privileges and exemptions which his subjects, their commerce and shipping, have enjoyed, and do enjoy, in the dominions, ports, and domains of his Sicilian Majesty, in virtue of the treaty of peace and commerce concluded at Madrid on the 10th of May (24th of May), 1667, between Great Britain and Spain; and of the treaties of commerce between the same powers, signed at Utrecht, the 9th of December, 1713, and at Madrid, the 13th of December, 1715; and of the convention concluded at Utrecht, the 8th of March, 1712-1713, between Great Britain and the kingdom of Sicily, shall be *abolished*; and it is agreed upon in consequence, between their said Britannic and Sicilian Majesties, their heirs and successors, that the said privileges and exemptions, whether of persons, or of flags and shipping, are and shall continue for ever abolished.

2. His Sicilian Majesty engages not to continue, nor hereafter to grant, to the subjects of any other power whatever, the privileges and exemptions abolished by the present convention.

3. His Sicilian Majesty promises that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not be subjected, within

his dominions, to a more rigorous system of examination and search by the officers of customs than that to which the subjects of his said Sicilian Majesty are liable.

4. His Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies promises that British commerce in general, and the British subjects who carry it on, shall be treated throughout his dominions upon the same footing as the most favoured nations, not only with respect to the persons and property of the said British subjects, but also with regard to every species of article in which they may traffic, and the taxes or other charges payable on the said articles, or on the shipping in which the importation shall be made.

5. With respect to the personal privileges to be enjoyed by the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, his Sicilian Majesty promises that they shall have a free and undoubted right to travel, and to reside in the territories and dominions of his said Majesty, subject to the same precautions of police which are practised towards the most favoured nations. They shall be entitled to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of their personal property of every kind and description, by sale, gift, exchange, or will, and in any other way whatever, without the smallest loss or hindrance being given them on that head. They shall not be obliged to pay, under any pretence whatever, other taxes or rates than those which are paid, or that hereafter may be paid, by the most favoured nations in the dominions of his said Sicilian Majesty. They shall be exempt from all military service, whether by land or sea; their dwellings, warehouses, and every thing belonging or appertaining thereto for objects of commerce or residence, shall be respected. They shall not be subjected to any vexatious search or visit. No arbitrary examination or inspection of their books, papers, or accounts, shall be made under the pretence of the supreme authority of the state, but these shall alone be executed by the legal sentence of the competent tribunals. His Sicilian Majesty engages on all these occasions to guarantee to the subjects of his Britannic Majesty who shall reside in his states and dominions, the preservation of their property and personal security, in the same manner as those are guaranteed to his subjects and to all foreigners belonging to the most favoured and most highly privileged nations.

6. According to the tenor of the articles 1. and 2. of this treaty, his Sicilian Majesty engages not to declare null and void the privileges and exemptions which actually exist in favour of British commerce within his dominions, till the same day, and except by the same act, by which the privileges and exemptions, whatsoever they are, of all other nations, shall be declared null and void within the said dominions.

7. His Sicilian Majesty promises, from the date when the general abolition of the privileges according to the articles 1, 2. and 6. shall take place, to make a reduction of 10 per cent. upon the amount of the duties payable according to the tariff in force the 1st of January, 1816, upon the total of the merchandise or production of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, her colonies, possessions, and dependencies, imported into the states of his said Sicilian Majesty, according to the tenor of article 4. of the present convention; it being understood that nothing in this article shall be construed to prevent the King of the Two Sicilies from granting, if he shall think proper, the same reduction of duty to other foreign nations.

8. The subjects of the Ionian Islands shall, in consequence of their being actually under the immediate protection of his Britannic Majesty, enjoy all the advantages which are granted to the commerce and to the subjects of Great Britain by the present treaty; it being well understood, that to prevent all abuses, and to prove its identity, every Ionian vessel shall be furnished with a patent, signed by the Lord High Commissioner or his representative.

9. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof exchanged in London, within the space of 6 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed it, and thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEREAGH.

CASTELCICALA.

Separate and Additional Article.

In order to avoid all doubt respecting the reduction upon the duties in favour of British commerce which his Sicilian Majesty has promised in the 7th article of the convention signed this day between his Britannic Majesty and his Sicilian Majesty, it is declared, by this present separate and additional article, that by the concession of 10 per cent. of diminution, it is understood that in case the amount of the duty should be 20 per cent. upon the value of the merchandise, the effect of the reduction of 10 per cent. is to reduce the duty from 20 to 18; and so for other cases in proportion. And that for the articles which are not taxed *ad valorem* in the tariff, the reduction of the duty shall be proportionate; that is to say, a deduction of a tenth part upon the amount of the sum payable shall be granted.

The present separate and additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it had been inserted word for word in the convention of this day: it shall be ratified and the ratification thereof shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEREAGH.

CASTELCICALA.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, signed at Naples, April 1844.

Article I. Her Britannic Majesty confirms the abolition agreed upon by the first article of the convention of Commerce and Navigation between Great Britain and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, signed at London on the 26th of September, 1816, of all the privileges and exemptions which her subjects, their commerce and merchant ships, did enjoy within the dominions, states, and ports of the Sicilian Majesty, in virtue of the treaty of peace and commerce between Great Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid

on the 23rd May, 1667; of the treaties of commerce between the same powers, signed at Utrecht the 28 November

9th December, 1713, and at Madrid the 3rd December, 1715; and of the convention between Great Britain

and the Kingdom of Sicily, concluded at Utrecht the 25 February, 1712, and it is agreed in consequence, between their said Britannic and Sicilian Majesties, their heirs and successors, that the said privileges and exemptions, whether of persons, flags, or shipping, are and shall continue for ever abolished, even when the present treaty shall cease to be in force.

2. His Sicilian Majesty, on his part, confirms in like manner the engagement contained in the second article of the said convention of the 26th of September, 1816, not to grant for the future, to the subjects of any other power whatever, the privileges and exemptions abolished by that convention, and to which the preceding article refers.

3. With respect to the personal privileges to be enjoyed by the subjects of her Britannic Majesty in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, his Sicilian Majesty engages that they shall have a free and undoubted right to travel and to reside in the territories and dominions of his said Majesty, subject to the same precautions of police which are practised towards the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nations.

They shall be entitled to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of all their personal property, of every kind and description, by sale, gift, exchange, will, or in any other way whatever, without

the smallest hindrance or obstacle. They shall not be obliged to pay, under any pretence whatever, any taxes or impositions other or greater than those which are paid, or may hereafter be paid, by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nations in the dominions of his said Sicilian Majesty. They shall be exempt from all military service, whether by land or sea; from forced loans, and from every extraordinary contribution, not general or by law established. Their dwellings, warehouses, and all premises appertaining thereto, destined for purposes of residence or commerce, shall be respected. No arbitrary search of or visit to the houses of British subjects, and no arbitrary examination or inspection whatever of the books, papers, or accounts of their trade shall be made; but such measures shall be executed only in conformity with the legal sentence of a competent tribunal. And generally, his Sicilian Majesty engages that the subjects of her Britannic Majesty residing in his states or dominions shall enjoy their property and personal security in as full and ample manner as his own subjects, and as the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nations.

Her Britannic Majesty, on her part, engages to insure the enjoyment of the like privileges to the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty within her dominions.

4. The subjects of her Britannic Majesty within the dominions of his Sicilian Majesty, shall be free to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit those affairs to the management of any persons whom they may appoint as their broker, factor, or agent; nor shall such British subjects be restrained in their choice of persons to act in such capacities; nor shall they be called upon to pay any salary or remuneration to any person whom they shall not choose to employ. Absolute freedom shall be given in all cases, to the buyer and seller to bargain together, and to fix the price of any goods or merchandises imported into or to be exported from the dominions of his Sicilian Majesty, save and except generally such cases wherein the laws and usages of the country may require the intervention of any special agents in the dominions of his Sicilian Majesty.

The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, by the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty, and upon the same conditions.

5. The subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall not be liable, within the dominions of his Sicilian Majesty, to a more rigorous system of examination and search by the officers of the customs, than the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty. And in like manner, the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty shall not be liable, within the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, to a more rigorous system of examination and search than British subjects.

6. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies. No duty of customs or other impost shall be charged upon any goods the produce or manufacture of one country, upon importation by sea or by land from such country into the other, either of higher than the duty or impost charged upon goods of the same kind the produce or manufacture of, or imported from, any other country; and her Majesty the Queen of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies, do hereby engage that the subjects or citizens of any other state shall not enjoy any favour, privilege, or immunity whatever in matters of commerce and navigation, which shall not also and at the same time be extended to the subjects of the other high contracting party; gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state shall have been gratuitous, and in return for a compensation, as nearly as possible of proportionate value and effect, to be adjusted by mutual agreement, if the concession shall have been conditional.

7. All articles of the produce or manufacture of either country, and of their respective dominions, which can legally be imported into either country from the other, in ships of that other country, shall, when so imported, be subject to the same duties and enjoy the same privileges, whether imported in ships of the one country or in ships of the other; and in like manner all goods which can legally be exported or re-exported from either country to the other, in ships of that other country, shall, when so exported or re-exported, be subject to the same duties, and be entitled to the same privileges, drawbacks, bounties, and other advantages, whether exported in ships of the one country or in ships of the other.

8. No duties of tonnage, harbour, lighthouses, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar duties, of whatsoever nature or under whatever denomination, shall be imposed in either country upon the vessels of the other, in respect of voyages between the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any of the British possessions in Europe, and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, if laden, or in respect of any voyage if in ballast, which shall not be equally imposed in the like cases on national vessels.

9. In all cases in which, in either kingdom, the duty to be levied upon any goods imported from the other kingdom shall be not a fixed rate but a proportion of the value of the goods, such *ad valorem* duty shall be ascertained and secured in the following manner; that is to say, the importer shall, on making his entry for the payment of duty at the custom-house, sign a declaration stating the value of the goods at such amount as he shall deem proper; and in case the officer or officers of the customs shall be of opinion that such valuation is insufficient, he or they shall be at liberty to take the goods, on paying to the importer the value thereof according to the declaration of the importer, together with an addition of 10 per cent.; and the custom-house officer shall at the same time return to the importer any duty which the importer may have paid upon such goods.

10. It is hereby declared, that the stipulations of the present treaty are not to be understood as applying to the navigation and carrying trade between one port and another situated in the dominions of either contracting party; such navigation and trade being reserved exclusively to national vessels.

Vessels of either country shall, however, be permitted to load or unload part of their cargoes at one port in the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, and then to proceed to complete the said loading or unloading, to any other port or ports in the same dominions.

11. Neither of the two governments, nor any corporation or agent acting in behalf or under the authority of either government, shall in the purchase of any article which, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the one country, shall be imported into the other, give, directly or indirectly, any priority or preference on account of or in reference to the national character of the vessel in which such article shall have been imported; it being the intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

12. Her Britannic Majesty declares that the commerce of Sicilian subjects within the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is not restrained, interrupted, or in any manner affected by the operation of any monopoly, contract, or exclusive privilege of sale or purchase whatsoever; but that the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty within the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, have unrestricted permission to buy from and sell to whomsoever they please, and in any form and manner which may be agreed upon between the purchaser and seller, and without being obliged to give any preference or favour in consequence of any such monopoly, contract, or exclusive privilege of sale or purchase; and her Britannic Majesty engages that no change shall in this respect be made in regard to the trade of the subjects of his Sicilian Majesty. His Sicilian Majesty engages on his part, that a like liberty in respect to purchases or sales shall be enjoyed by her Britannic Majesty's subjects trading to or residing in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies: the royal Sicilian monopolies of tobacco, salt, playing cards, gunpowder, and nitre, being excepted.

It being understood that nothing agreed upon in the present treaty is opposed to the right of his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to grant, whether to the authors or others, patents for inventions or improvements.

13. If any ships of war or merchant-vessels be wrecked on the coasts of either of the high contracting parties, such ships or vessels, or any parts thereof, and all furniture and appurtenances belonging thereto, and all goods and merchandises which shall be saved therefrom, or the produce thereof, if sold,

shall be faithfully restored, with the least possible delay, to the proprietors, upon being claimed by them or by their duly authorised factors; and if there are no such proprietors or factors on the spot, then the said goods and merchandise, or the proceeds thereof, as well as all the papers found on board such wrecked ships or vessels, shall be delivered to the British or Sicilian consul or vice-consul in whose district the wreck may have taken place; and such consul, vice-consul, proprietors, or factors, shall pay only the expenses incurred in the preservation of the property, together with the rate of salvage and expenses of quarantine which would have been payable in the like case of a wreck of a national vessel; and the goods and merchandise saved from the wreck shall not be subject to duties unless cleared for consumption; it being understood that in case of any legal claim upon such wreck, goods, or merchandise, the same shall be referred for decision to the competent tribunals of the country.

14. Her Britannic Majesty consents that as soon as the present treaty shall be carried into effect, she will give up for ever the privilege of the reduction of 10 per cent. stipulated in favour of the trade of her subjects, by the 7th Article of the Convention signed at London on the 26th of September, 1816. And his Sicilian Majesty engages on his part, that, so long as this treaty shall last, the subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall continue to enjoy a reduction of 10 per cent. upon the duties payable according to the customs' tariff, upon the total of the merchandise or productions of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, her colonies, possessions, and dependencies, imported by them into his Majesty's dominions; and further, the subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall not pay any higher duties than those which upon the like merchandise or productions shall be paid by the subjects or citizens of any other nation, conformably always to the terms of the 6th Article of the present treaty, and the principles laid down in that article.

It is, however, understood, that nothing contained in this article shall prevent or restrict the right of his Majesty the King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies to continue to his own subjects the enjoyment of a like reduction of 10 per cent. on the custom-house duties, or to grant it, if he shall think proper, to other nations, and thus to place them in this respect on the same footing with Great Britain; and to make at any time such changes as his Majesty shall deem fit in the tariffs of his royal dominions.

15. The Ionian Islands being under the protection of her Britannic Majesty, the subjects and vessels of those islands shall enjoy, in the Sicilian dominions, all the advantages which are granted by the present treaty to the subjects and vessels of Great Britain, as soon as the government of the Ionian Islands shall have agreed to grant the same reciprocal advantages in those islands to the subjects and vessels of his Sicilian Majesty; it being understood that to prevent abuses, every Ionian vessel claiming the benefits of this treaty shall be furnished with a patent signed by the Lord High Commissioner, or by his representative.

16. The commerce and navigation between the dominions of his Sicilian Majesty and Gibraltar and Malta, shall enjoy all the advantages granted to the subjects and vessels of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, by the present treaty.

17. As soon as the ratifications of the present treaty shall have been exchanged, the stipulations contained in the Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Great Britain and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, signed at London on the 26th of September, 1816, as well as in the Additional Articles of the same date, shall be, without distinction and for ever, considered as null and void.

18. The present treaty shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications thereof, and further until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice at the end of the said term of 10 years, or at any subsequent time.

19. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Naples at the expiration of 3 months from the date of its signature, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at Naples, the 29th day of April, 1845.

WILLIAM TAMPLE,
WOODBRIDGE PARISH.

CAYR. GIUSTINO FORTUNATO,
PRINCE DE COMITINI,
ANTONIO SPINELLI.

TURKEY.

Capitulations and Articles of Peace between Great Britain and the Ottoman Empire, as agreed upon, augmented, and altered, at different Periods, and, finally, confirmed by the Treaty of Peace concluded at the Dardanelles, in 1830.

SULTAN MEHMEED,

MAY HE LIVE FOR EVER.

"Let every thing be done in conformity to these capitulations, and contrary thereto let nothing be done."

1. The English nation and merchants, and all other passengers sailing under the English flag, with their vessels and merchandise of all descriptions, may pass safely by sea, and go and come into our dominions, without any the least prejudice or molestation being given to their persons, property, or effects, by any person whatsoever, but they shall be left in the undisturbed enjoyment of their privileges, and be at liberty to attend to their affairs.

2. If any of the English coming into our dominions by land be molested or detained, such persons shall be instantly released, without any further obstruction being given to them.

3. English vessels entering the ports and harbours of our dominions shall and may at all times safely and securely abide and remain therein, and at their free will and pleasure depart therefrom, without any opposition or hindrance from any one.

4. If it shall happen that any of their ships suffer by stress of weather, and not be provided with necessary stores and requisites, they shall be assisted by all who happen to be present, whether the crews of our imperial ships, or others, both by sea and land.

5. Being come into the ports and harbours of our dominions, they shall and may be at liberty to purchase at their pleasure, with their own money, provisions and all other necessary articles, and to provide themselves with water, without interruption or hindrance from any one.

6. If any of their ships be wrecked upon any of the coasts of our dominions, all beys, cadis, governors, commandants, and others our servants, who may be near or present, shall give them all help, protection, and assistance, and restore to them whatsoever goods and effects may be driven ashore; and in the event

of any plunder being committed, they shall make diligent search and inquiry to find out the property, which, when recovered, shall be wholly restored by them.

7. The merchants, interpreters, bankers, and others of the said nation, shall and may, both by sea and land, come into our dominions, and there trade with the most perfect security; and in coming and going, neither they nor their attendants shall receive any the least obstruction, molestation, or injury, either in their persons or property, from the beys, cadis, sea captains, soldiers, and others our slaves.

17. Our ships and galleys, and all other vessels, which may fall in with any English ships in the seas of our dominions, shall not give them any molestation, nor detain them by demanding any thing, but shall show good and mutual friendship the one to the other, without occasioning them any prejudice.

19. If the corsairs or galliots of the Levant be found to have taken any English vessels, or robbed or plundered them of their goods and effects, also if any one shall have forcibly taken any thing from the English, all possible diligence and exertion shall be used and employed for the recovery of the property, and inflicting condign punishment on those who may have committed such depredations; and their ships, goods, and effects shall be restored to them without delay or intrigue.

21. Duties shall not be demanded or taken of the English, or of the merchants sailing under the flag of that nation, on any pleasures and sequins they may import into our sacred dominions, or on those they may transport to any other place.

26. English merchants, and all others sailing under their flag, may, freely and unrestrictedly, trade and purchase all sorts of merchandises (prohibited commodities alone excepted), and convey them, either by land or sea, or by way of the river Tanala, to the countries of Muscovy or Russia, and bring back thence other merchandise into our sacred dominions, for the purposes of traffic, and also transport others to Persia and other conjoined countries.

38. Should the ships bound for Constantinople be forced by contrary winds to put into Caffa, or any other place of these parts, and not be disposed to buy or sell any thing, no one shall presume forcibly to take out or seize any part of their merchandise, or give to the ships or crews any molestation, or obstruct the vessels that are bound to these ports.

40. On their ships arriving at any port, and landing their goods, they may, after having paid their duties, safely and securely depart, without experiencing any molestation.

41. English ships bound to Constantinople, Alexandria, Tripoli of Syria, Scanderon, or other ports of our sacred dominions, shall in future be bound to pay duties, according to custom, on such goods only as they shall, of their own free will, land with a view to sale; and for such merchandises as they shall not discharge, no duty shall be demanded, neither shall the least molestation or hindrance be given to them.

44. English and other merchants navigating under their flags, who trade to Aleppo, shall pay such duties on the silks, brought and laden by them on board their ships, as are paid by the French and Venetians, and not one asper more.

55. The Imperial fleet, galleys, and other vessels, departing from our sacred dominions, and falling in with English ships at sea, shall in no wise molest or detain them, nor take from them any thing whatsoever.

English ships shall no longer be liable to any further search, or exaction at sea under colour of search or examination.

70. English ships coming to the ports of Constantinople, Alexandria, Smyrna, Cyprus, and other ports of our sacred dominions, shall pay 300 aspers for anchorage duty, without an asper more being demanded of them.

72. No molestation shall be given to any of the aforesaid nation buying camlets, mohairs, or program yarn, at Angora and Beghazar, and desirous of exporting the same from thence, after having paid the duty of 3 per cent., by any demand of customs for the exportation thereof, neither shall one asper more be demanded of them.

75. That it being represented to us that English merchants have been accustomed hitherto to pay no custom or seale duty, either on the silks bought by them at Brusa and Constantinople, or on those which come from Persia and Georgia, and are purchased by them at Smyrna from the Armenians; if such usage or custom really exists, and the same be not prejudicial to the empire, such duty shall not be paid in future.

(N. B.—These capitulations may be found entire in *Herslet's Treaties*; and in *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. ii. pp. 290—511. Appen.)

Treaty between Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, concluded at the Dardanelles, the 5th of January, 1809.

1. From the moment of signing the present treaty, every act of hostility between England and Turkey shall cease.

5. In return for the indulgence and good treatment afforded by the Sublime Porte to English merchants, with respect to their goods and property, as well as in all matters tending to facilitate their commerce, England shall reciprocally extend every indulgence and friendly treatment to the flags, subjects, and merchants of the Sublime Porte, which may hereafter frequent the dominions of his Britannic Majesty for the purpose of commerce.

6. The last Custom-house tariff established at Constantinople, at the ancient rate of 3 per cent., and particularly the article relating to the interior commerce, shall continue to be observed, as they are at present regulated, and to which England promises to conform.

10. English patents of protection shall not be granted to dependants, or merchants who are subjects of the Sublime Porte, nor shall any passport be delivered to such persons, on the part of ambassadors or consuls, without permission previously obtained from the Sublime Porte.

Done near the Castles of the Dardanelles, the 5th of January, 1809, which corresponds with the year of the Hegira 1223, the 15th day of the moon Zilkade.

SEYD MEHMET EMIN VAID EFFENDI.
ROBERT ADAIR.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, with two additional Articles thereto annexed.

Art. 1.—All rights, privileges, and immunities which have been conferred on the subjects or ships of Great Britain by the existing capitulations and treaties are confirmed now and for ever, except in as far as they may be specifically altered by the present convention; and it is, moreover, expressly stipulated that all rights, privileges, or immunities which the Sublime Porte now grants, or may hereafter grant, to the ships and subjects of any other foreign power, or which it may suffer the ships and subjects of any other foreign power to enjoy, shall be equally granted to, and exercised and enjoyed by, the subjects and ships of Great Britain.

Art. 2.—The subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, or their agents, shall be permitted to purchase at all places in the Ottoman dominions (whether for the purposes of internal trade or exportation) all articles, without any exception whatsoever, the produce, growth, or manufacture of the said dominions; and the Sublime Porte formally engages to abolish all monopolies of agricultural produce, or of any other articles whatsoever, as well as all permits from the local governors, either for the purchase of any article or for its removal from one place to another when purchased; and any attempt to compel the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty to receive such permits from the local governors shall be considered as an infraction of treaties, and the Sublime Porte shall immediately punish with severity any vizirs and other officers who shall have been guilty of such misconduct, and render full justice to British subjects for all injuries or losses which they may duly prove themselves to have suffered.

Art. 3.—If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased by the British mer-

chant or his agent, for the purpose of selling the same for internal consumption in Turkey, the British merchant or his agent shall pay, at the purchase and sale of such articles, and in any manner of trade therein, the same duties that are paid, in similar circumstances, by the most favoured class of Turkish subjects engaged in the internal trade of Turkey, whether Mussulmans or Rayha.

Art. 4. — If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased for exportation, the same shall be conveyed by the British merchant or his agent, free of any kind of charge or duty whatsoever, to a convenient place of shipment, on its entry into which it shall be liable to one fixed duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, in lieu of all other interior duties.

Subsequently, on exportation, the duty of 3 per cent., as established and existing at present, shall be paid. But all articles bought in the shipping ports for exportation, and which have already paid the interior duty at entering into the same, will only pay the 3 per cent. export duty.

Art. 5. — The regulations under which firmans are issued to British merchant vessels for passing the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, shall be so framed as to occasion to such vessels the least possible delay.

Art. 6. — It is agreed by the Turkish government that the regulations established in the present convention shall be general throughout the Turkish empire, whether in Turkey in Europe, in Turkey in Asia, in Egypt, or other African possessions belonging to the Sublime Porte, and shall be applicable to all the subjects, whatever their description, of the Ottoman dominions; and the Turkish government also agrees not to object to other foreign powers settling their trade upon the basis of this present convention.

Art. 7. — It having been the custom of Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, with a view to prevent all difficulties and delay in estimating the value of articles imported into the Turkish dominions, or exported therefrom, by British subjects, to appoint at intervals of fourteen years, a commission of men well acquainted with the traffic of such countries, who have fixed by a tariff the sum of money in the coin of the Grand Signior which should be paid as duty on each article; and the term of fourteen years, during which the last adjustment of the said tariff was to remain in force, having expired, the high contracting parties have agreed to name conjointly fresh commissioners to fix and determine the amount in money which is to be paid by British subjects, as the duty of 3 per cent. upon the value of all commodities imported and exported by them; and the said commissioners shall establish an equitable arrangement for estimating the interior duties which, by the present treaty, are established on Turkish goods to be exported, and shall also determine on the places of shipment where it may be most convenient that such duties should be levied.

The new tariff thus established to be in force for 7 years after it has been fixed, at the end of which time it shall be in the power of either of the parties to demand a revision of that tariff; but if no such demand be made on either side within the 6 months after the end of the first 7 years, then the tariff shall remain in force for 7 years more, reckoned from the end of the preceding 7 years; and so it shall be at the end of each successive period of 7 years.

Art. 8. — The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Constantinople within the space of 4 months.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed their seals thereunto.

Done at Balta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 15th day of August, 1838.

PONSOPBY.

(Signed in the Turkish original)

MUSTAFA REŞCHID, &c.

Additional Articles.

Certain difficulties having arisen between the ambassador of her Britannic Majesty and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, in fixing the new conditions which should regulate the commerce in British goods imported into the Turkish dominions, or passing through the same in transit, it is agreed between his Excellency the British ambassador and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, that the present convention should receive their signatures, without the articles which have reference to the above-mentioned subjects forming part of the body of the said convention.

But at the same time it is also agreed — the following articles having been consented to by the Turkish government — that they shall be submitted to the approbation of her Majesty's government, and, should they be approved and accepted by her Majesty's government, they shall then form an integral part of the treaty now concluded.

The articles in question are the following: —

Art. 1. — All articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and its dependencies, and all merchandises, of whatsoever description, embarked in British vessels, and being the property of British subjects, or being brought overland, or by sea, from other countries by the same, shall be admitted, as heretofore, into all ports of the Ottoman dominions, without exception, on the payment of 3 per cent. duty, calculated upon the value of such articles.

And in lieu of all other and interior duties, whether levied on the purchaser or seller, to which these articles are at present subject, it is agreed that the importer, after receiving his goods, shall pay, if he sells them at the place of reception, or if he send them thence to be sold elsewhere in the interior of the Turkish empire, one fixed duty of 2 per cent., after which such goods may be sold and resold in the interior, or exported, without any further duty whatsoever being levied or demanded on them.

But all goods that have paid the 3 per cent. import duty at one port shall be sent to another free of any further duty, and it is only when sold there, or transmitted thence into the interior, that the second duty shall be paid.

It is always understood that Her Majesty's government do not pretend, either by this article or any other in the present treaty, to stipulate for more than the plain and fair construction of the terms employed; nor to preclude in any manner the Ottoman government from the exercise of its rights of internal administration, where the exercise of those rights does not evidently infringe upon the privileges accorded by ancient treaties, or the present treaty, to British merchandise or British subjects.

Art. 2. — All foreign goods brought into Turkey from other countries shall be freely purchased and traded in, in any manner, by the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, or the agents of the same, at any place in the Ottoman dominions; and if such foreign goods have paid no other duty than the duty paid on importation, then the British subject or his agent shall be able to purchase such foreign goods on paying the extra duty of 2 per cent., which he will have to pay on the sale of his own imported goods, or on their transmission for sale into the interior; and after that such foreign goods shall be resold in the interior, or exported, without further duty; or, should such foreign goods have already paid the amount of the two duties (i. e. the import duty and the one fixed interior duty), then they shall be purchased by the British subject or his agent, and afterwards resold or exported, without being even submitted to any further duty.

Art. 3. — No charge whatsoever shall be made upon British goods (such being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. Kingdom, its dependencies, or the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, and charged in British vessels, and belonging to British subjects) passing through the straits of the Dardanelles, of the Bosphorus, and of the Black Sea, whether such goods shall pass through those straits in the ships that brought them, or are transhipped in those straits, or, destined to be sold elsewhere, are landed with a view to their being transferred to other vessels (and thus to proceed on their voyage) within a reasonable time.

All merchandises imported into Turkey for the purpose of being transmitted to other countries, or

which, remaining in the hands of the importer, shall be transmitted by him for sale to other countries shall only pay the duty of 3 per cent. paid on importation, and no other duty whatsoever.

Done at Salta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 16th day of August, 1838.

PONSEBY.

(Signed in the Turkish original)

MUSTARPA HESOHID, &c.

Official Note delivered to Lord Ponsby by his Excellency Nouree Effend, on the 27th of August, 1838, relative to the 2d Article of the preceding Convention.

(Translation.)

It is stipulated by the 2d article of the treaty of commerce concluded between the Sublime Porte and the British government on the 24th Djemazullevel, 1254 (August 16, 1838), that English merchants are at liberty to purchase all kinds of merchandise in the Ottoman empire.

But in order that the right of English merchants to sell within the Ottoman empire, or to export the merchandise which they may purchase, may not be liable to misconception, the embassy of Her Britannic Majesty has desired that an explanation should be given on this point, either in the treaty itself, or in a special note.

The meaning of the passage of which an elucidation is requested is clear, from the relation which the subsequent points in the 2d article bear to each other. But we nevertheless repeat, that English merchants may, in virtue of the treaty, purchase within the Ottoman empire all kinds of merchandise, may, if they think proper, send the same abroad after having paid the duty thereon stipulated by the treaty; or may, if they think fit, resell the same within the Ottoman empire on conforming to the arrangements established by the said treaty with reference to internal commerce.

Such are the arrangements of the treaty; and we give this explanation to the ambassador, renewing to his Excellency the assurances of our sincere and perfect friendship.

The 7th Djemazul-akir, 1254 (August 27, 1838.)

Convention between Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, Russia, and Turkey, respecting the Straits of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus. Signed at London, July 13, 1841.

Article 1. His Highness the Sultan, on the one part, declares that he is firmly resolved to maintain for the future the principle invariably established as the ancient rule of his empire, and in virtue of which it has at all times been prohibited for the ships of war of foreign powers to enter the straits of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus; and that, so long as the Porte is at peace, his Highness will admit no foreign ship of war into the said straits.

And their Majesties the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, the King of the French, the King of Prussia, and the Emperor of all the Russias, on the other part, engage to respect this determination of the Sultan, and to conform themselves to the principle above declared.

2. It is understood that in recording the inviolability of the ancient rule of the Ottoman empire mentioned in the preceding article, the Sultan reserves to himself, as in past times, to deliver firmans of passage for light vessels under flag of war, which shall be employed, as is usual, in the service of the missions of foreign powers.

3. His Highness the Sultan reserves to himself to communicate the present convention to all the powers with whom the Sublime Porte is in relations of friendship, inviting them to accede thereto.

The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at London, at the expiration of 2 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 13th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1841.

PALMSTON.

EATENHAZY.

NEUMANN.

HOUGUENET.

BULOW.

BRUNNOW.

CHEKIB.

UNITED STATES.

Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and the U. States of America, signed at London, the 3d of July, 1815.

Article 1. There shall be between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, and the territories of the U. States, a reciprocal liberty of commerce. The inhabitants of the 2 countries respectively shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes to all such places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; and also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purpose of their commerce; and generally the merchants and traders of each nation respectively shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce; but subject always to the laws and statutes of the 2 countries respectively.

2. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. States, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the U. States, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries on the exportation of any articles to his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, or to the U. States, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. States, or of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, to or from the said territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, or to or from the said U. States, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

No higher or other duties or charges shall be imposed in any of the ports of the U. States on British vessels, than those payable in the same ports by vessels of the U. States; nor in the ports of any of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe on the vessels of the U. States, than shall be payable in the same ports on British vessels.

The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the U. States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, whether such importation shall be in the vessels of the U. States, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of any of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the U. States, whether such importation shall be in British vessels, or in vessels of the U. States.

The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties allowed, on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, to the U. States, whether such exportation shall be in vessels of the U. States, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties allowed, on the exportation of any articles, the growth, pro-

duces, or manufacture of the U. States, to his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, whether such exportation shall be in British vessels, or in vessels of the U. States.

It is further agreed, that in all cases where drawbacks are or may be allowed upon the re-exportation of any goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country respectively, the amount of the said drawbacks shall be the same, whether the said goods shall have been originally imported in a British or American vessel; but when such re-exportation shall take place from the U. States in a British vessel, or from the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe in an American vessel, to any other foreign nation, the said contracting parties reserve to themselves, respectively, the right of regulating or diminishing, in such case, the amount of the said drawback.

The intercourse between the U. States and his Britannic Majesty's possessions in the West Indies, and on the continent of North America, shall not be affected by any of the provisions of this article, but each party shall remain in the complete possession of its rights, with respect to such an intercourse.

6. His Britannic Majesty agrees that the vessels of the U. States of America shall be admitted and hospitably received at the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz. Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Prince of Wales' Island, and that the citizens of the said U. States may freely carry on trade between the said principal settlements and the said U. States, in all articles of which the importation and exportation respectively, to and from the said territories, shall not be entirely prohibited; provided only, that it shall not be lawful for them, in any time of war between the British government and any state or power whatever, to export from the said territories, without the special permission of the British government, any military stores, or naval stores, or rice. The citizens of the U. States shall pay for their vessels, when admitted, no higher or other duty or charge than shall be payable on the vessels of the most favoured European nations, and they shall pay no higher or other duties or charges on the importation or exportation of the cargoes of the said vessels, than shall be payable on the same articles when imported or exported in the vessels of the most favoured European nations.

But it is expressly agreed, that the vessels of the U. States shall not carry any articles from the said principal settlements to any port or place, except to some port or place in the U. States of America, where the same shall be laden.

It is also understood, that the permission granted by this article is not to extend to allow the vessels of the U. States to carry on any part of the coasting trade of the said British territories; but the vessels of the U. States, having in the first instance proceeded to one of the said principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, and then going with their original cargoes, or any part thereof, from one of the said principal settlements to another, shall not be considered as carrying on the coasting trade. The vessels of the U. States may also touch for refreshments, but not for commerce, in the course of their voyage in or from the British territories in India, or from the dominions of the Emperor of China, at the Cape of Good Hope, the island of St. Helena, or such other places as may be in the possession of Great Britain, in the African or Indian seas; it being well understood, that in all that regards this article, the citizens of the U. States shall be subject in all respects to the laws and regulations of the British government from time to time established.

4. It shall be free for each of the contracting parties respectively to appoint consuls, for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall in the usual form be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and it is hereby declared, that in case of illegal and improper conduct towards the laws or government of the country to which he is sent, such consul may either be punished according to law, if the laws will reach the case, or be sent back, the offended government assigning to the other the reasons for the same.

It is hereby declared, that either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as such party shall judge fit to be so excepted.

5. This convention, when the same shall have been duly ratified by his Britannic Majesty and by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of their Senate, and the respective ratifications mutually exchanged, shall be binding and obligatory on his Majesty and on the said U. States for 4 years from the date of its signature; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in 6 months from this time, or sooner if possible.

Done at London, the 3d of July, 1810.

FRED. J. HOBSON,

FRANÇOIS GOUVERNEUR,

WILLIAM ADAMS.

JOHN Q. ADAMS.

H. CLAY.

ALBERT GALATIN.

This convention was subsequently prolonged by conventions for that purpose in 1818 and 1827.

Convention between Great Britain and the United States of America, signed at London, the 30th October, 1818.

Art. 1.—Whereas differences have arisen respecting the liberty claimed by the U. States for the inhabitants thereof, to take, dry, and cure fish, on certain coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America, it is agreed between the high contracting parties, that the inhabitants of the said United States shall have for ever, in common with the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, the liberty to take fish of every kind on that part of the coast of Newfoundland which extends from Cape Ray to the Hameau Islands, on the western and northern coasts of Newfoundland, from the said Cape Ray to the Quirpon Islands, on the shores of the Magdalen Islands, and also on the coasts, bays, harbours, and creeks, from Mount Joly, on the southern coast of Labrador, to and through the Straits of Bellefleur, and thence northwardly indefinitely along the coast, without prejudice, however, to any of the exclusive rights of the Hudson Bay Company; and that the American fishermen shall also have liberty, for ever, in dry and cure fish in any of the unsettled bays, harbours, and creeks of the southern part of the coast of Newfoundland, and of the coast of Labrador; but so soon as the same, or any portion thereof, shall be settled, it shall not be lawful for the said fishermen to dry or cure fish, without previous agreement for such purpose with the inhabitants, proprietors, or possessors of the ground. And the U. States hereby renounce for ever any liberty heretofore enjoyed or claimed by the inhabitants thereof to take, dry, or cure fish on or within three marine miles of any of the coasts, bays, creeks, or harbours of his Britannic Majesty's dominions in America, not included within the above-mentioned limits; provided, however, that the American fishermen shall be admitted to enter such bays or harbours for the purpose of shelter and of repairing damages therein, of purchasing wood, and of obtaining water, and for no other purpose whatever; but they shall be under such restrictions as may be necessary to prevent their taking, drying, or curing fish therein, or in any other manner abusing the privileges hereby reserved to them.

2. It is agreed that a line drawn from the most north-western point of the Lake of the Woods, along the 49th parallel of north latitude, or if the said point shall not be in the 49th parallel of north latitude, then that a line drawn from the said point due north or south, as the case may be, until the said line shall intersect the said parallel of north latitude, and from the point of such intersection due west along and with the said parallel, shall be the line of demarcation between the territories of the U. States and those of his Britannic Majesty, and that the said line shall form the northern boundary of the said territories of the U. States, and the southern boundary of the territories of his Britannic Majesty, from the Lake of Woods to the Stony Mountains.

3. It is agreed that any country that may be claimed by either party on the north-west coast of America, westward of the Stony Mountains, shall, together with its harbours, bays, and creeks, and the navigation of all rivers within the same, be free and open, for the term of 10 years from the date of the signature of the present convention, to the vessels, citizens, and subjects of the two powers; it being well

understood, that this agreement is not to be construed to the prejudice of any claim which either of the two high contracting parties may have to any part of the said country, nor shall it be taken to affect the claims of any other power or state to any part of the said country, the only object of the high contracting parties, in that respect, being to prevent disputes and differences among themselves.

4. All the provisions of the convention to "regulate the commerce between the territories of the U. States and his Britannic Majesty, concluded at London," on the 3d of July, in the year of our Lord 1815, with the exception of the clause which limited its duration to 4 years, and excepting, also, so far as the same was affected by the declaration of his Majesty respecting the island of St. Helena, are hereby extended and continued in force for the term of 10 years from the date of the signature of the present convention, in the same manner as if all the provisions of the said convention were herein specially recited.

5. Whereas it was agreed by the first article of the treaty of Ghent, that "all territory, places, and possessions whatever, taken by either party from the other during the war, or which may be taken after the signing of this treaty, excepting only the islands hereinafter mentioned, shall be restored without delay, and without causing any destruction, or carrying away any of the artillery, or other public property originally captured in the said forts or places, which shall remain therein upon the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, or any slaves, or other private property;" and whereas, under the aforesaid article, the United States claim for their citizens, and as their private property, the restitution of, or full compensation for, all slaves who at the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the said treaty were in any territory, place, or possessions whatsoever, directed by the said treaty to be restored to the U. States, but then still occupied by the British forces, whether such slaves were, at the date aforesaid, on shore, or on board any British vessel lying in waters within the territory or jurisdiction of the U. States; and whereas differences have arisen whether, by the true intent and meaning of the aforesaid article of the treaty of Ghent, the U. States are entitled to the restoration of, or full compensation for, all or any slaves as above described, the high contracting parties hereby agree to refer the said differences to some friendly sovereign or state to be named for that purpose; and the high contracting parties further engage to consider the decision of such friendly sovereign or state to be final and conclusive on all the matters referred.

6. This convention, when the same shall have been duly ratified by the President of the U. States, by and with the consent thereof, and by his Britannic Majesty, and by his plenipotentiaries, the respective ratifications mutually exchanged, shall be binding and obligatory on the said U. States and on his Majesty; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in six months from this date, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 20th October, 1818.

ALBERT GALATIN.
RICHARD RUSH.
FREDERICK JOHN ROBINSON.
HENRY GOULBURN.

URUGUAY.

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between her Majesty and the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, signed at London, August 2d, 1842.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual peace and amity between the dominions and subjects of her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, her heirs and successors, and the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay and its citizens.

2. There shall be between all the territories of her Britannic Majesty in Europe, and the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, a reciprocal freedom of commerce. The subjects and citizens of the two countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come, with their ships and cargoes, to all places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are or may be permitted to come; to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and, generally, the merchants and traders of each nation shall enjoy, within the territories of the other, the most complete protection and security for their commerce; subject always to the laws and statutes of the land.

In like manner the respective ships of war and post-office packets of the two countries shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbours, rivers, and places, in either country, to which other foreign ships of war and packets are or may be permitted to come; and they shall be allowed to enter into the same, to anchor and to remain there and reit; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

It is hereby declared, that the stipulations of the present article are not to be understood as applying to the navigation and carrying trade between one port and another, situated in the dominions of either contracting party; such navigation and trade being reserved exclusively to national vessels.

3. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between and amongst the subjects and citizens of the two high contracting parties; and the subjects and citizens of the two countries respectively shall not pay in the ports, harbours, roads, cities, towns, or places whatsoever in either country, any other or higher duties, taxes, or imposts, under whatsoever names designated or included, than those which are thereto paid by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; and the subjects and citizens of each of the high contracting parties shall enjoy the same rights, privileges, liberties, favours, immunities, and exemptions, in matters of commerce and navigation, that are granted or may hereafter be granted in either country to the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation.

No duty of customs or other impost shall be charged upon any goods the produce of one country, upon importation by sea or by land from such country into the other, higher than the duty or impost charged upon goods of the same kind, the produce of or imported from any other country. And her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, do hereby bind and engage themselves not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunity, in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects or citizens of any other state, which shall not be also and at the same time extended to the subjects or citizens of the other high contracting party; gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state shall have been gratuitous; and on giving as nearly as possible the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession shall have been conditional.

4. No higher or other duties or payments on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any local charges, shall be imposed in any of the ports of the one country upon the vessels of the other, than are payable in those ports upon national vessels.

5. The same duties shall be paid on all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of her Britannic Majesty's dominions, when imported into the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, whether such article be imported in vessels of the said republic, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said republic, when imported into the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, whether such articles be imported in British vessels or in vessels of the said republic. The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of her Britannic Majesty's dominions, when exported to the said republic of the Uruguay, whether such articles be exported in vessels of the said Republic, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said republic, when exported

to the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, whether such articles be exported in British vessels, or in vessels of the said republic.

6. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively designate in the said territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, or a vessel of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, when engaged in commerce between the two countries; it is hereby agreed, that all vessels built in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, or having been made prize of war and condemned as such, or having been forfeited under any law made for the prevention of the slave trade, and condemned in any competent court for a breach of such law, and which shall be owned and navigated by subjects of her Britannic Majesty, and whereof the master and three-fourths at least of the mariners shall be subjects of her Britannic Majesty, and which shall be registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built within the territory of the said Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, or having been made prize of war and condemned as such, or having been forfeited under any law made for the prevention of the slave trade, and condemned in any competent court for a breach of such law, or being of bond *de jure* British construction, built in any port of her Britannic Majesty's dominions, and acquired by purchase; and which shall be owned and navigated by citizens of the said republic, and whereof the master and three-fourths at least of the mariners shall be citizens of the said republic, or matriculated subjects of her Britannic Majesty, and which shall be registered according to the laws of the said republic, shall be considered as vessels of the said Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, so far as shall relate to any commercial rights or privileges in the several ports of her Britannic Majesty's dominions.

And it is further agreed, that no ship considered as being the ship of either country shall be qualified to trade as above described under the provisions of this treaty, unless she be furnished with a register, passport, or sea-letter, under the signature of the proper person authorised to grant the same, according to the laws of the respective countries, and in a form to be reciprocally communicated by the two governments to each other. Such register, passport, or sea-letter shall certify the name, occupation, and residence of the owner or owners in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, or in the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, as the case may be; shall declare that he or they is or are the sole owner of the ship, or owners in the proportion to be specified; and shall state the name, burden, and description of the vessel, as built and management; and if the vessel is of foreign build, of what country, and, as far as may be possible, when and from whom purchased; and all other particulars constituting the national character of the vessel, as the case may be.

7. The subjects of her Britannic Majesty shall have full liberty, in all the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; and they shall not be obliged to employ any other persons in those capacities, than those employed by the citizens of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay; and they shall not be restrained in their choice of persons to act in such capacities, nor be obliged to pay them any other salary or remuneration, than such as is paid in like cases by the citizens of the said republic; and absolute freedom shall be allowed in all cases to the buyer and seller to bargain and fix the price of any goods, wares, or merchandises imported into and exported from the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, as they shall see fit, provided they observe the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty by the citizens of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, under the same conditions.

The subjects and citizens of each of the contracting parties respectively shall, in the territories of the other, receive and enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries respectively, for the prosecution and defence of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ, in all causes, the advocates, attorneys, or agents of whatever description, whom they may think proper; and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

8. In whatever relate to the police of ports; the loading and unloading of ships; the safety of merchandise, goods, and effects; the succession to personal estates by will or otherwise; and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination by sale, donation, exchange, or in any other manner whatsoever; and to the administration of justice; the subjects and citizens of each of the two contracting parties shall enjoy, in the dominions and territories of the other, the same privileges, liberties, and rights, as native subjects or citizens; and they shall not be charged in any of these respects with any higher imposts or duties than those which are or may be paid by natives; conforming of course to the local laws and regulations of such dominions or territories.

And it is further agreed, that the subjects and citizens of the two contracting parties shall have and enjoy, in all the dominions or territories of each other, the most full and perfect liberty to devise or dispose of their property and effects of every kind and denomination, and whosoever situated, by will or testament, to such person or persons, and in such proportions, as their own free will may dictate.

If any subject or citizen of either of the two contracting parties should die without will or testament in the dominions or territories of the other, the consul-general or consul, or, in his absence, the representative of such consul-general or consul, shall have the right to nominate executors to take charge of the property of the deceased, so far as the laws of the country will permit, for the benefit of the lawful heirs and creditors of the deceased, without being interfered with by the authorities of the country, but giving to those authorities due and proper notice.

9. The subjects of her Britannic Majesty residing in the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, and the citizens of the said republic residing in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, shall be exempted from all compulsory military service whatsoever, either by sea or land, and from all forced loans or military exactions or regulations.

Neither shall they be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay any charges, regulations, or taxes, greater than those which are or may be paid by native subjects or citizens of the territories in which they reside.

10. It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but no consul shall act as such until he shall in the usual form be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as they may judge fit to be excepted. The diplomatic agents and consuls of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, in the dominions of her Britannic Majesty, shall enjoy whatever privileges, exemptions, and immunities are or may there be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favoured nation; and in like manner the diplomatic agents and consuls of her Britannic Majesty, in the territories of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exemptions, and immunities are or may there be granted to the diplomatic agents and consuls of the most favoured nation.

11. For the better security of commerce between the subjects of her Britannic Majesty and the citizens of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, it is agreed, that if at any time any interruption of friendly intercourse or any rupture should unfortunately take place between the two countries, the subjects or citizens of either of the two contracting parties who may be within the territories of the other, shall, if residing upon the coasts, be allowed 4 months, and if residing in the interior, 9 months, to wind up their accounts and to dispose of their property; and a safe conduct shall be given to all such of the aforesaid persons as may choose to quit the country, to enable them to embark unmolested at the port which the government of the country shall select. It is, moreover, further agreed, that all subjects or citizens of either of the two contracting parties who, at the time of any such interruption of friendly relations between the two countries, shall be established in the exercise of any trade or special employment in the dominions

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or territories of the other, shall have the privilege of remaining and of continuing such trade and employment therein, without any manner of interruption, in full enjoyment of their liberty and property, so long as they conduct themselves peaceably, and commit no offences against the laws; and their goods and effects, of whatever description, whether in their own custody or intrusted to individuals or to the state, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charges or demands than those to which like effects or property belonging to native subjects or citizens may be liable. Debts between individuals, property in the public funds, and shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, or detained.

12. The subjects of her Britannic Majesty, and the citizens of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, respectively, residing in the territories of the other party, shall enjoy, in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government, and continue in possession of the privileges which they now legally enjoy. They shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed in any manner on account of their religion; but they shall have perfect liberty of conscience, provided they respect the religion of the country in which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the land. They shall also have permission to celebrate divine service, according to the rites and ceremonies of their own church, either within their own private houses, or in their own particular churches or chapels, which they shall be at liberty to build and maintain in convenient places, approved of by the government. Liberty shall also be granted to the subjects or citizens of either of the two contracting parties resident in the territories of the other, to bury, in burial places of their own, such of their fellow-subjects or fellow-citizens who may die in such territories. Such burial places may be freely established and maintained; and the funerals and sepulchres of the dead shall not be disturbed in any way, or upon any account.

13. The present treaty shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date thereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same: each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years, or at any subsequent time.

And it is hereby agreed between them, that at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this treaty, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

14. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, as soon as possible within the period of 18 months from the date thereof.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals:

Done at London, the 26th day of August, in the year of our Lord 1842.

ARCADEEN.
RUFON.
JOSE ELLAURI.

Additional Article.

Whereas by Art. 9. of the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, concluded and signed this day between her Britannic Majesty and the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, it is stipulated that the subjects of her Britannic Majesty residing in the said republic shall not be compelled, under any pretext whatsoever, to pay any charges, requisitions, or taxes, greater than those which are or may be paid by native citizens; and whereas, by a law of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, a foreigner pays for the licence to open a shop, or other establishment included in the provisions of the said law, a sum greater than that which is paid by a native citizen; her Britannic Majesty engages, notwithstanding the provisions of the above-mentioned article, not to insist upon the abolition of this distinction, so long as it exists impartially with regard to the subjects or citizens of every other foreign nation.

And his Excellency the President of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay engages, on his part, that if at any future time the amount payable by British subjects for such licence should be increased, a corresponding increase shall at the same time be made in the sum payable by native citizens of the republic; so that the proportion between the sum payable by British subjects and the sum payable by citizens of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, respectively, shall never be altered to the prejudice of British subjects.

The present additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. It shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of August, in the year of our Lord 1842.

ARCADEEN.
RUFON.
JOSE ELLAURI.

Second Additional Article.

Whereas a strict and immediate execution of that part of article 6. of the treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, signed at London on the 26th of August, 1842, between her Majesty the Queen of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, which stipulates that a ship must have been actually built within the territory of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, to be considered a ship of that republic, would, in the present state of Uruguay shipping, deprive the republic of the full advantage of the reciprocity intended to be established by the treaty; it is agreed that, for the space of 7 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the said treaty, any ships, whatsoever built, being owned, navigated, and registered in conformity with the provisions of article 6. of the treaty, shall be considered as ships of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay; her Majesty the Queen of the U. Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland reserving to herself the right to claim, at the end of the said term of 7 years, the strict enforcement of all the stipulations contained in the said article of the treaty, relative to the conditions which are to determine the national character of vessels of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay.

The present additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it had been inserted, word for word, in the aforesaid treaty of the 26th of August, 1842. It shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time and place as those of the treaty.

In witness whereof, the undersigned, plenipotentiaries of her Britannic Majesty, and of the Oriental Republic of the Uruguay, have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at Montevideo, the 8th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1843.

J. H. MANDEVILLE.
SANTIAGO VAZQUEZ.

TREBISOND, anciently Trapezus, from its resemblance to a trapezium, a town of Asia Minor, on the south-east coast of the Black Sea, lat. 40° 1' N., lon. 39° 44' 52" E. Population variously estimated at from 15,000 to 50,000. The town is built on the declivity of a hill rising gently from the sea. It is a place of great antiquity; and, from the year 1203 to the final subversion of the Eastern empire by Mohammed II.

in the 15th century, was the seat of a dukedom, or, as it was sometimes called, an empire, comprising the country between the Phasia and the Halys. Its fortifications are still of considerable strength, at least for a Turkish city. The space included within the walls is of great extent; but it is principally filled with gardens and groves. The houses are mean in their outward appearance, and comfortless within. — (*Tournfort, Voyage de Levant*, tome ii. pp. 231—239; *Kinneir's Journey through Asia Minor*, &c. p. 338.)

Harbour. — Treblond has two ports, one on the W. and one on the E. side of a small peninsula, or point of land, projecting a short way into the sea. That on the east is the best sheltered, and is the place of anchorage for the largest ships. It is, however, exposed to all but the southerly gales; but it does not appear that, with ordinary care, any danger need be apprehended. The ground, from A to a mile S. from the point, is clean, and holds extremely well. Ships moor with open haws to the N., and a good hawser and stream anchor on shore, as a stern-fast. At night, the wind always comes off the land. Capt'n in Middleton says that the only bad weather is from the N. W.; but that, though the swell be considerable, it does not cause any heavy strain upon the cables. — (*Nautical Magazine*, vol. ii. p. 181.) — At Platana, near Treblond, and quite as exposed, Turkish vessels have from time immemorial rode in safety the whole winter; a satisfactory proof that the dangers supposed to be incident to the roads along the coast are wholly visionary. — (*Ibid.* p. 214.)

Trade. — In antiquity, and in more modern times, previously to the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, and the exclusion of all foreign vessels from the Black Sea, Treblond was the seat of an extensive trade. Any one, indeed, who casts his eye over a map of Asia, must be satisfied that this city is the natural emporium of all the countries to the S. E. of the Black Sea, from Kars on the east, round by Diarbeker to Amaxa on the west. Erzeroum, the principal city of Armenia, is only about 180 miles S. E. from Treblond. Its merchants are distinguished by their superior attainments, and by their enterprise and activity. For a lengthened period, they have derived most part of their supplies of European commodities by this route; and, however, but the impossibility of obtaining them at so convenient a port as Treblond, could have made them resort to such distant markets as those now mentioned; and it may well excite surprise, considering the period during which the Black Sea has been open, that efforts were not sooner made to establish an intercourse with Armenia, Georgia, and the north-western parts of Persia, through this channel. We are glad, however, to have to state, that within these few years that has been done; and notwithstanding the difficulties that necessarily attach to every attempt to open new channels of commerce with semi-civilised nations, the experiment has proved more than ordinarily successful.

The policy of Russia has recently, also, given to Treblond an importance it did not formerly possess. Previously to the 1st of January, 1832, the trade between Europe and Persia, by way of the Black Sea, principally centered in the Russian port of Tiflous Kadé, at the mouth of the Phasis. This was a consequence of the exemption granted in 1822 to the Russian provinces to the south of the Caucasus from the duties charged in the other parts of the empire. But the exemption having ceased at the period referred to, and the Trans-Caucasian provinces having been subjected to the same duties as the other provinces, the transit trade to Persia by way of Baidout Kadé, Tebis, and the Caspian Sea, has almost entirely ceased, and is now carried on through Treblond, Erzeroum, and Tabreez. In consequence, the increase of trade at Treblond has been very remarkable. We subjoin a

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Value of their Cargoes, and distinguishing the Countries to which the same belonged, which entered and cleared at the Port of Treblond in the Year 1835. — (*Consular Return*.)

Countries.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
British	18	1,915	155,200	17	1,861	361,167
Turkish	115	16,948	619,536	109	16,914	619,856
Russian	10	5,051	157,139	11	5,075	312,084
Austrian	11	5,369	61,612	11	5,369	5,515
Greek	6	912	5,141	6	912	5,725
Sardinian	5	881	4,164	6	881	11,777
Sardinian	1	112	10,580	1	112	
Total	170	26,114	1,080,558	156	21,077	696,290

Most of the vessels from Constantinople had on board British produce; and it is believed that from 7-10ths to 9-10ths of the goods imported to be forwarded to Persia are of British origin, consisting principally of cotton goods, woollen, hardware, tin, sugar, &c. Previously to 1831 no British iron had ever been seen at Treblond; but it was then introduced, and is now imported to the exclusion of all other sorts. M. de Hagemelster admits that it has entirely superseded the iron of Russia in this and other markets on the southern side of the Black Sea. — (*Report on the Commerce of the Black Sea*, p. 207.)

In Persia, as in almost all Eastern countries, foreign products are admitted, on paying a low duty. Lately, however, the schah has evinced a disposition to restrict the importation of English goods, or to load them with heavier duties. This conduct, so unusual in an Eastern prince, may, it is probable, have been suggested by the foreign agents at his court.

Direct Trade with Treblond. — The transit trade of Treblond is by far the most important; but, as the goods destined for Persia by this channel are cleared out for Turkey, they appear in the list of exports to it, and, consequently, make our trade with Turkey appear much greater than it really amounts to.

The trade with Treblond itself is, however, far from inconsiderable, and might be indefinitely extended. The iron of Great Britain is now, as stated above, imported to the exclusion of that of Russia, which was formerly the only sort made use of. Considerable quantities of cotton yarn are also supplied through Treblond to the looms in the eastern part of Asia Minor that used to be wholly supplied with native yarn, and a taste for British cottons is beginning to spread among the population.

We carry away from Treblond Persian silk, wool, tobacco, wax, opium, boxwood, nuts, &c. But, owing to the restrictions on exportation, the trade has hitherto laboured under many difficulties; and numbers of ships have sailed in ballast for Odessa, Calcutta, and other ports, where they load.

The principal articles of import are manufactured cottons, mostly from Great Britain, sugar, coffee, rum, salt, tin, wine, &c. Cottons are sold at long credits; sugar, coffee, &c. are sold at shorter credits, and are more regularly paid. The exports consist of silk, sheep's wool, tobacco, shawls and carpets, galls, and drugs of various sorts, boxwood, nuts, &c. There are very rich copper mines in the mountains to the south of Treblond; but they are but little wrought; and the Turks are so billed to their own interests, as to prohibit the exportation of copper, as well as of corn and wax. It is difficult, therefore, to obtain return cargoes. More than half the articles imported are destined for Persia. In 1832, no fewer than 2,186 packages passed through Treblond for Tabreez; and it is believed that of these fully 8,000 consisted of British manufactures.

Money, Weights, and Measures, same as at CONSTANTINOPLE; which see.

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TRIESTE, a large city and sea-port of the Austrian dominions, the capital of a district of Illyria, situated near the N. E. extremity of the Gulph of Venice, lat. $45^{\circ} 38' 37''$ N., lon. $13^{\circ} 46' 27''$ E. Population, in 1836, of the city only, 51,546, and including the district comprised within the limits of the free port, 76,651. It is divided into the old and new towns. The former is built upon elevated ground; the latter, which is lower down, is laid out with greater regularity, and is partly intersected by a canal, into which vessels not drawing more than 9 or 10 feet water enter to load and unload.

Harbour.—The harbour of Trieste, though rather limited in size, is easy of access and convenient. It is protected from the north-westerly gales by the *Molo Teresiano*, an outlet from the Empress Maria Theresa, at the extremity of which the new light-house, mentioned below, has been constructed. The port, with the mole, forms a crescent $\frac{1}{4}$ mile in length, being a contained quay, faced with hewn stones, with stairs and jetties for the convenience of embarkation. On the north side of the port is a dock or harbour, appropriated exclusively for vessels performing quarantines. It is walled round, and is furnished with hotels, warehouses, and every sort of accommodation required for the use of passengers and goods. Ships under 300 tons burden lie close to the quays; those of greater size mooring a little further out.

The principal defects of the port are, its limited size, and its being exposed to the N. W. winds, which sometimes blow with much violence, and throw in a heavy sea. The gales, however, are seldom of long continuance; and the holding ground being good, when the anchors are backed and proper precautions taken, no accident occurs. The tide at Trieste is scarcely perceptible; but the depth of water is influenced by the wind, being increased by a long continued breeze from E. S. E. wind, and diminished by the prevalence of the E. N. E. wind, known by the name of *Bora*. The access in the port is not obstructed by any bar or shallow; and there is good anchorage in the roads, in from 6 to 7 and 10 fathoms water. A good sailing vessel may beat in by night or by day, except it blow hard from the N. E. or E. N. E., when she had better anchor in the Bay of Rosa, or Pirano, where she will ride in perfect safety.

Pilots.—Ships bound for Trieste are under no obligation to take pilots; but those entering the port for the first time would do well to take one on making the coast of Istria. Boats are always hovering off Rovigno; they are not manned by regular pilots, but by fishermen, who, though unfit to be trusted with the management of the ship, know the bearings of the places and the depth of water. The fee usually paid them for pilotage is 20 dollars; in addition to which, they are supported at the ship's expense during the performance of quarantine.

Light-houses.—The light-house at the extremity of the Theresa mole is 106 feet (Eng.) high. The light is intermittent; and may be seen, supposing the eye of the observer to be elevated 12 feet above the level of the sea, about 12 nautical miles, or from Pirano on the side of Istria, and the shoals of Grado on the Italian coast. A light-house has also been erected on the point of Salvore, bearing from Trieste W. by S., distant about 18 miles. The lantern is elevated about 106 feet above the level of the sea. From this point Pirano Bay opens, where vessels may anchor in safety in all sorts of weather.

Money.—Mercantile accounts are usually kept at Trieste in what is commonly called *convention money*, from an agreement entered into with respect to it by some of the German princes, in 1753. The current coins that are legal tender are dollars, $\frac{1}{2}$ dollars or florins, and wanzlers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers. Ten dollars are coined out of the Cologne mark (3,608 gr. Eng.) of pure silver, so that the value of the dollar is 4s. 3d. sterling.

The dorn, or dollar = 2s. 1½d. sterling; wanzlers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers (60 to the marc), = 5½d. sterling. Hence it follows that 1s. sterling = 26½ kreutzers (60 to a florin); and the pound sterling = 9 s. 2½ kr., or, as it is commonly taken, 9 s. 25 kr. All contracts are either expressly declared, or are understood, to be in silver money; gold coins, not being legal tender, pass only as merchandise.

Weights and Measures.—Those chiefly in use at Trieste are those of Vienna and Venice. The commercial pound contains 4 quarters, 16 ounces, or 32 loths; it is = 3580 French grains. Thus, 100 lbs. at Trieste = 128½ lbs. avoirdupois; or 90½ lbs. of Trieste = 112 lbs. avoirdupois.

The principal dry measure is the stajo or saro = 234 Vienna bushels. The Vienna metzen, which is sometimes used, = 1723 Winchester bushel. The poloniek = 0.861 Winchester bushel.

The principal liquid measure is the orna or eimer = 40 lozels = 16 wine or 12½ Imperial gallons very nearly. The barle = 17½ English wine gallons.

The orna of oil contains 5½ camels, and weighs about 107 commercial pounds. It is = 17 wine or 14½ Imperial gallons.

The ell woollen measure 26½ English inches. The ell for silk = 26½ English inches.

Trade.—Trieste has no command of internal navigation; but being the most convenient, or rather the only sea-port, not merely of the Illyrian provinces, but of the duchy of Austria, and the greater part of Hungary, she possesses an extensive commerce. This has been increased by the facilities afforded to all sorts of mercantile transactions by the privilege of *porto franco* conferred on the town, and a considerable extent of contiguous country. Under this franchise, all goods, with but very few exceptions, may be imported into and exported from the city free of all duties whatever. Foreign products, when taken for consumption into the interior, are subject to the duties mentioned under the head *Tariff*, in a subsequent part of this article.

Exports.—These are very various, consisting partly of the raw and partly of the manufactured products of Austria Proper, Illyria, Dalmatia, Hungary, and Italy; with foreign articles imported and warehoused. Among the principal articles of raw produce may be specified, corn, chiefly wheat and maize, with rice, wine, oil, shumac, tobacco, wax, &c.; silk, silk rags and waste, hemp, wool, flax, linen rags, hides, fur, skins, &c.; the produce of the mines makes an important item, consisting of quicksilver, cinabar, iron, lead, copper, brass, litharge, alum, vitriol, &c.; the forests of Carinthia furnish timber, for ship building and other purposes, of excellent quality and in great abundances, with staves, cork wood, box, hoops, &c.; marble also ranks under this head. Of manufactured articles, the most important are, thrown silk, silk stuffs, printed cottons from Austria and Switzerland, coarse and fine linens, and all sorts of leather; under this head are also ranked soap, Venetian tinsels, liquors, &c., with jewellery, tools and utensils of all sorts, glass mirrors, Venetian beads, refined sugar, and a host of other articles. Of foreign articles imported and re-shipped, the most important are sugar, coffee, and dye stuffs. Trieste is also a considerable depot for all sorts of produce from the Black Sea, Turkey, and Egypt.

It is not possible to obtain any accurate account of the quantity and value of the exports; but Mr. Money, the late British consul at Trieste, who carefully inquired into the subject, supposed that they might amount, in 1833, exclusive of those shipped for Venice, Flavia, and other Austrian ports, to about 1,800,000 σ . year, which he divided as follows:—

Raw Produce, viz. —	Grain, rice, oil, honey, wax, shumac, tobacco, &c.	£50,000
	Silk, hemp, wool, rags, hides and skins	280,000
	Metals, mineral and other products; as, quicksilver, iron, lead, copper, brass, zinc, litharge, argol, antimony, arsenic, alum, vitriol, potash, turpentine, marbles, &c.	220,000
	Timber, plank, boards, &c.	180,000
	Manufactures, viz. —	235,000
	Soap, candles, Venetian tinsels, and medicines	80,000
	Tools, machinery, arms, &c.	25,000

Manufactures - - - - - continued.

Household furniture, musical instruments, glass and glass wares, porcelain, &c.	-	20,000
Foreign Articles re-shipped for exportation, exclusive of those for Lombardy and the Papal States	-	200,000
Total	-	218,000

Mr. Money further supposed that these articles were distributed amongst the countries trading with Trieste, as follows:

To Turkey and the Levant	-	380,000
Spain	-	300,000
Greece, the Ionian Islands, and Malta	-	150,000
the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies	-	200,000
Port in France, Sardania, and Tuscany	-	100,000
Spain, Portugal, and Hungary	-	350,000
Great Britain	-	280,000
Port in the North of Germany	-	150,000
the United States of America	-	300,000
South America and the West Indies	-	50,000
Total exports	-	2,100,000

There has, however, been some, though but little, increase in the interval; and we have been assured by high mercantile authority, that the entire value of the exports from Trieste to foreign countries may at present (1818) be estimated at 2,000,000 a year. We subjoin

An Account of the principal Articles of Raw Produce exported from Trieste, with their Prices free on board on the 14th January, 1848, in Austrian and English Money, Tare, and Measures.

Articles.	Trieste Prices.		Per. Cwt.	Free on Board.						
	fl.	fl.		£.	s.	d.	to	£.	s.	d.
Argol, white, sifted	22	20	—	2	1	6	—	2	8	9
red do.	18	20	—	1	13	—	—	1	15	0
Brimstone, Romagna, raw	2	1	—	4	15	0	—	0	0	0
do. Sicily	2	1	—	4	10	0	—	0	0	0
do. refined	3	4	—	1	7	6	—	2	1	8
Corn and seeds: - Barley	2	3	—	1	0	9	—	1	2	6
Beans, Egyptian	5	5-4	—	1	7	6	—	1	7	9
Indian corn	3	4	—	1	1	0	—	0	0	0
Oats	2	2-3	—	0	17	9	—	1	0	0
Rye	4	4-1-6	—	1	9	9	—	1	11	0
Wheat, Black Sea, soft	5	5-3-3	—	1	19	6	—	2	3	6
do. hard	5	5-3-3	—	1	19	6	—	2	3	6
Wheat, Danube, soft	5	5-3-3	—	1	19	6	—	2	3	6
do. Odessa	5	5-3-3	—	1	19	6	—	2	3	6
Rapeseed, Hungarian	7	—	—	2	10	0	—	2	11	0
Clover seed	7	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Cream of tartar	22	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Flax, Egypt, clean	16	—	—	3	10	9	—	3	1	9
do. rough	12	—	—	1	3	0	—	1	5	0
Fruit, almonds, sweet	20	—	—	2	16	3	—	3	0	0
do. bitter	24	—	—	2	4	3	—	2	0	0
currants, Morea	10	—	—	1	1	0	—	1	2	0
figs, Smyrna	12	—	—	0	13	0	—	1	8	6
Calamata	6	—	—	0	11	9	—	0	0	0
raisins, red, Clam	11	—	—	1	11	9	—	0	0	0
do. Smyrna	9	—	—	0	9	9	—	0	0	0
black do. in barrels	6	—	—	2	12	6	—	2	16	3
Sultana	28	—	—	5	1	5	—	5	6	3
Galls, Aleppo, blue	54	—	—	2	12	3	—	3	3	6
do. white	52	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. green	52	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. in sorts	30	—	—	1	18	0	—	2	1	9
Morea	20	—	—	1	15	6	—	1	17	3
Hemp, Bologna roping	20	—	—	0	10	3	—	0	0	0
do. garden	22	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Hungary roping	22	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Liquorice paste, Italian	25	—	—	2	5	3	—	2	7	3
do. Morea	24	—	—	2	2	6	—	2	6	3
Madder roots, Smyrna	22	—	—	2	1	6	—	2	5	3
do. Cyprus	18	—	—	3	14	3	—	0	0	0
Oil, Candia	35	—	—	45	15	0	—	0	0	0
do. Corfu	24	—	—	42	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Greece	22	—	—	42	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Levant	22	—	—	42	0	0	—	45	15	0
do. stallpoll	25	—	—	45	15	0	—	0	0	0
do. Durazzo	22	—	—	42	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Zante	22	—	—	42	0	0	—	0	0	0
Opium, Smyrna	7	—	—	0	12	2	—	0	13	0
do. Egyptian	3	—	—	0	10	3	—	0	0	0
Quicksilver	200	—	—	23	19	0	—	0	0	0
Rags, S.P.F.	15	—	—	1	5	0	—	0	0	0
do. S.P.F.	15	—	—	0	18	6	—	0	0	0
do. P.F.	10	—	—	0	15	6	—	0	0	0
do. F.X.	8	—	—	0	14	6	—	2	16	0
Safflower, Egyptian	29	—	—	4	3	2	—	0	0	0
do. Persian	45	—	—	4	3	2	—	0	0	0
Shumac, Verona	2	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Trieste	3	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Tyrol	7	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Silk, Brusa	4	—	—	0	6	8	—	0	0	0
do. Peria	7	—	—	0	11	9	—	0	0	0
do. Friull	4	—	—	0	15	1	—	1	0	1
do. white	1	—	—	0	1	1	—	0	7	7
do. in sorts	1	—	—	1	14	6	—	2	9	6
Skins, horse	110	—	—	100	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Lamb, Italian	35	—	—	190	0	0	—	4	17	6
do. Morea & Albania, white	35	—	—	5	2	0	—	0	0	0
do. Kid, Trieste	25	—	—	5	2	0	—	0	0	0
do. Trieste	25	—	—	2	2	0	—	0	0	0
do. Dalmatia	22	—	—	2	2	0	—	0	0	0
Tallow, Trieste	4	—	—	15	0	0	—	9	1	0
do. Valona, Smyrna	4	—	—	10	4	0	—	0	0	0
do. Morea Candaria	4	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Dalmatia	22	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Wool, Russia, Demidoff	27	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Odessa	27	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Turkey, Albanian, long	21	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. do. lined	24	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Bosnia, long	28	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. do. half ane	28	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. do. lambs	26	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Smyrna and Adrianople	26	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Goats' wool	26	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. Egypt, fine	—	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. do. in sorts	—	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
do. black	—	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0
Yellow berries, Persian	110	—	—	10	3	6	—	11	0	0
do. 2d quality	97	—	—	8	16	0	—	8	15	6
do. Half berries	—	—	—	0	0	0	—	0	0	0

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£	350,000
do.	380,800
do. sinc,	230,000
do. &c.	180,000
do.	235,000
do.	80,000
do.	25,000

Imports.—There is a great difference between the imports into, and the exports from Trieste; the value of the former being certainly not less than 4,000,000 sterling. The excess of imports is explained partly by the fact that large quantities of foreign goods imported into Trieste, are subsequently re-exported by coasting vessels to Venice, Fiume, and other ports, partly by the residence of English and other foreigners at Vienna, and partly by there being an excess of exports as compared with imports from other parts of the empire. The great articles of import are sugar, cotton goods and raw cotton, oil, coffee, wheat, silks, indigo and other dye stuffs, valonis, &c.

An Account of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Produce imported into, and exported from Trieste during each of the 5 years, ending with 1847, with the Stocks on hand on the 1st of January, 1848.

Articles.	Imports.					Exports.					Stocks, 1st Jan.	
	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1848.
Coffee:												
St. Domingo - centners	49,616	13,453	15,577	37,737	18,451	25,494	15,807	10,810	33,866	10,149		6,797
Hawaii - "	139,175	141,437	108,001	106,839	153,461	143,447	155,584	151,447	117,983	195,007		66,630
Cuba - "	51,017	41,336	26,744	43,043	64,777	41,839	46,090	60,811	41,133	54,628		55,501
Other descriptions - "	39,868	16,115	30,100	35,247	35,651	32,672	18,654	26,470	29,691	29,109		34,123
Total centners	341,576	312,403	310,402	333,537	362,150	324,592	324,555	309,841	317,076	329,863		94,553
Cotton:												
American - bales	34,629	36,851	39,109	50,930	40,500	36,758	43,069	33,929	50,850	36,380		16,000
Brazil - "	30,306	30,306	183	45	2,317	80	17,762	15,661	28,711	29,571		3,500
Egyptian - "	56,041	85,850	55,730	37,167	31,780	41,567	17,564	49,238	55,049	34,749		93,000
Levant - "	16,447	17,787	9,193	4,759	10,300	10,216	16,729	9,801	7,048	14,250		5,425
Other descriptions - "	7,530	1,379	222	18,549	8,873	5,565	4,843	311	1,675	7,573		1,800
Total bales	118,497	142,175	102,409	113,434	104,570	100,178	140,841	93,562	130,739	67,970		44,000
Sugar:												
Brazil - chests	33,980	38,415	35,464	30,867	29,918	36,370	25,603	27,434	49,498	34,769		4,914
Cuba - "	40,076	40,384	50,040	11,411	25,311	24,233	17,762	15,661	21,203	39,628		17,741
Java and East India packages	848	8,075	64	5,565	545	848	6,756	1,383	-	913		5,800
Crushed - hhds.	10,315	8,142	7,070	8,833	10,970	8,653	10,532	8,440	7,853	9,900		5,816
Leaves - "	4036	4036	1,326	801	682	326	264	264	264	1,600		176
Total centners	157,919	605,410	548,077	576,070	676,487	458,838	561,889	578,077	532,974	526,546		160,240
Casia lignea - centners	2,206	2,295	3,180	1,803	1,485	9,054	9,073	3,394	3,285	2,273		537
Cocoa - "	55,361	4,535	2,103	103	4,814	2,257	6,026	5,650	6,215	2,500		1,500
Pepper, Sumatra - "	15,400	11,297	25,911	40,535	1,173	19,070	12,517	31,661	31,280	15,150		11,530
Indigo, East India and Spanish - "	575	238	533	437	586	500	404	414	435	456		600
Rum - "	450	472	1,313	1,491	1,396	1,219	450	1,016	1,221	1,413		600
Logwood - centners	43,000	18,000	66,000	29,355	36,500	58,000	25,000	48,000	50,745	32,000		21,000
Levant, Buenos Ayres & Brazil - hhds.	103,500	103,000	103,000	65,000	115,000	92,000	82,500	101,000	102,000	84,000		32,000
Levant & Black Sea - "	50,000	90,000	40,000	107,000	152,000	55,400	81,000	50,000	105,500	164,000		31,000
Calcutta Kips - "	60,000	110,000	35,000	100,000	47,000	46,000	98,000	90,000	111,000	56,000		25,000

Trieste being a free port, goods destined for its consumption, and that of the adjoining territory, pay no duties whatever, and are exported and imported without notice by the customs. Goods brought from the interior for export at Trieste, are charged an export duty on passing the Custom-house line. Goods imported at Trieste, to be conveyed through the Austrian dominions to those of any other power, are charged a small transit duty.

Gunpowder, salt, and tobacco, being articles monopolised by government, are not allowed to be imported into Trieste except for sale to the government or its contractors. Vessels arriving with gunpowder on board, deliver it at the arsenal, and on their clearing out it is returned to them free of expense. The utmost vigilance is exerted to prevent the introduction of tobacco; but with very little effect. The only articles, the exportation of which from the Austrian dominions is at present prohibited, are gold and silver in bars, and silk cocoons.

Account of the Arrivals of Shipping, and of the principal Articles of Import, at Trieste, in 1843.

Great Britain.—In 40 British, 14 Austrian, 2 Russian, 1 Greek, 1 Roman States, 1 Norwegian, 1 Swedish, and 4 Prussian vessels.—Coffee, 50 tons St. Domingo, 50 tons La Guayra; sugar, 363 casks crushed, 3,822 boxes Havannah, 1,811 cases, 54 barrels, 589 bags Brazil, 1,676 bags East India; cocoa, 24 tons; casia lignea, 123 tons; pepper, 105 tons; pimento, 81 tons; ginger, 101 tons; cinnamon, 101 bales; cochineal, 27 arobas; clover, 10 packages; rum, 112 puncheons; shiloh, 273 packages; indigo, 235 cases, 19 arobas; tea, 107 chests; logwood, 21 tons; Pernambuco wood, 11,400 pieces; span wood, 23,597 pieces, 360 tons; ebony, 1,538 pieces; iron, 518 tons, 19,265 bundles, 39,159 rails; tin, 540 ingots, 150 blocks, 429 barrels, bars, 7,928 boxes, plates; copper, 90,508 ingots, 92 cases, 151 packages; lead, 1,334 ingots; hardware, 165 packages; earthenware, 155 crates; manufactures, 3,773 packages; cotton, 4,158 bales; cotton twist, 1,725 bales; coal, 2,863 tons; herrings, 1,800 barrels; pickhards, 480 cases.

United States.—In 31 American, 1 British, 1 Norwegian, 2 Swedish, 1 Dutch vessel (7 vessels from New York, 11 New Orleans, 4 Mobile, 4 Baltimore, 3 Boston, 2 Savannah, 1 Philadelphia, 1 Charleston, 1 Apalachicola).

Coffee, 139 tons St. Domingo, 64 tons St. Jago, 28 tons La Guayra; sugar, 776 boxes Havannah, 78 casks Porto Rico; pimento, 91 tons; casia lignea, 107 tons; logwood, 749 tons; cotton, 29,210 bales; tobacco, 1,876 bales.

Brazil.—In 36 British, 25 Austrian, 4 Sardinian, 10 Danish, 11 Swedish, 2 Bremen, 2 Hamburg, 1 French, 3 Prussian, 11 Norwegian (37 vessels from Rio, 35 Pernambuco, 13 Bahia, 5 Macao, 5 Paraba, 3 Maroni, 1 Contingui);—Coffee, 1,370 tons Rio, 40 tons Bahia; sugar, 20,428 cases, 463 barrels, 17,766 bags white, 4,001 cases, 510 barrels, 1,356 bags muscovado.

Java.—In 4 British, 1 Austrian, 14 American, 1 Sardinian, 1 Hamburg, 2 Spanish vessels (10 vessels from Havannah, 10 Matara, 8 St. Jago, 1 French);—Coffee, 371 tons Havannah, 1,920 tons Rio, 1,220 sugar, 1,828 boxes white, 25,285 boxes yellow; rum, 87 puncheons; logwood, 24 tons.

St. Domingo.—In 2 British vessels.—Coffee, 445 tons; logwood, 6 tons.

Porto Rico.—In 1 Swedish, 1 Bremen vessel.—Coffee, 203 tons.

Sumatra.—In 1 American vessel.—Pepper, 203 tons.

France.—In 6 French, 35 Austrian, 1 Russian, 7 Roman States, 1 Tuscan vessel (12 vessels from Marseilles, 5 Bordeaux, 2 Havre de Grace, 1 Oetro);—Coffee, 33 tons St. Domingo, 30 tons Havannah, 258 tons St. Jago, 92 tons Porto Rico, 25 tons La Guayra, 9 tons Java; sugar, 215 casks refined, 10 casks crushed, 1,315 casks, 150 barrels Brazil, 100 boxes white, 63 boxes yellow Havannah; cloves, 1,338 packages; rum, 32 puncheons; logwood, 104 tons; cotton, 2,091 bales.

Spain.—In 3 Spanish, 1 British, 2 Austrian, 1 Roman States, 1 Sardinian, 1 Neapolitan vessel (6 vessels from Barcelona, 2 Almeria, 1 Cadix);—Coffee, 20 tons Havannah, 176 tons St. Jago, 55 tons Porto Rico; sugar, 513 boxes white, 618 boxes yellow Havannah; lead, 2,475 ingots, 80 rolls, 4,080 logs shot.

Portugal.—In 2 Austrian, 1 Russian, 2 Sardinian, 1 Swedish, 1 Portuguese vessel (6 vessels from Lisbon, 4 Oporto);—Coffee, 115 tons Rio; sugar, 305 cases, 1,476 barrels, 3,909 bags white Brazil, 157 cases muscovado Brazil; cocoa, 36 tons; cinnamon, 24 bales; cotton, 308 bales.

Holland.—In 10 Dutch, 1 British, 5 Austrian, 2 Russian, 1 Sardinian, 2 Danish, 2 Swedish, 1 Belgian, 1 Hanover, 1 Prussian vessel (14 vessels from Amsterdan, 3 Rotterdam);—Coffee, 10 tons Porto Rico, 125 tons Java, 7 tons Sumatra; sugar, 6,044 cases, 1,178 barrels, 253 boxes crushed, 203 casks refined, 36 cases, 243 barrels white Brazil, 7,199 bags Java.

Norway.—In 10 Belgian, 1 British, 1 Austrian, 1 Neapolitan, 2 Danish, 1 Swedish, 2 Mecklenburg, 1 Prussian vessel;—Sugar, 514 cases, 2,406 boxes crushed, 736 casks refined.

Sweden.—In 11 Hamburg, 4 Danish, 1 Bremen, 1 Neapolitan, 11 Norwegian vessel;—Sugar, 441 boxes white, 106 barrels; salt oil, 225 cases.

Norway.—In 1 Norwegian, 1 Danish, 1 Bremen vessel.—Stockfish, 373 tons.

Stockholm.—In 1 Swedish, 1 Danish vessel.—Tar, 2,068 barrels.

During the year, 1,399 steam rigged vessels have arrived via Sea; Austrian, 368 British, 115 British, 67 Neapolitan, 11 British, 48 American, 48 Russian, 31 Sardinian, 25 Danish, 24 Swedish, 47 Turkish, 125 French, 3 French, 1 French, 10 Italian, 10 Norwegian, 10 Dutch, 10 Prussian, 2 Tuscan, 5 Bremen, 4 Hamburg, 4 Mecklenburg, 2 Belgian, 2 Hanover, 2 Equiptian, 1 Oldenburg, 1 Lubeck, 1 Portuguese, and 1 Argentine.—(From the Circular of Laer, Eyedid, & Co.)

ports from Trieste) the
of imports is explained
seemingly transhipped
of English and other
with imports from other
raw cotton, oil, codice,
to, and exported from
hand on the 1st of

Stocks, 1st Jan.		
1846.	1847.	1848.
5,266	19,189	6,927
7,965	129,907	56,699
1,133	26,658	25,501
4,691	29,109	14,433
7,071	929,063	94,553
0,850	36,380	16,000
1,119	707	250
5,049	21,750	23,500
1,273	1,250	1,200
7,673	7,273	1,200
0,739	87,970	44,000
29,426	24,769	4,714
11,503	59,559	19,841
9,845	9,845	
7,853	9,720	5,316
829	1,500	176
32,774	626,546	160,240
2,283	2,273	537
1,494	5,438	527
11,280	13,150	11,530
453	456	600
4,221	1,413	878
50,121	3,000	21,994
10,591	84,000	82,000
1,000	56,000	25,000

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Goods brought from
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not allowed to be im-
porting with gunpowder
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at Trieste, in 1843.
From Marseilles, 5 Hordenes,
office, 33 tons St. Domingo,
saco, 22 tons Porto Rico, 28
saco, 25 tons Porto Rico, 10
saco, 100 boxes
sh, 1 chives, 1,358 packages;
sh, 2 Austrian, 1 Roman
vessel (6 vessels from Harce,
10 tons; sugar, 521 boxes white,
2,475 ingots, 50 rolls, 1,989
usian, 3 Bardinian, 1 Swed-
from 1 Libon, 6 Oporto); —
cases, 1,450 barrels, 2,100
aseovain Brazil; cocoa, 36
1 tons; cotton, 2,001 bales,
sh, 2 Austrian, 1 Neapolitan,
sh, 1 Prussian vessel, —
308 bales refined.
Danish, 1 Oldenburg, 1 Ha-
sh, 80 tons Havannah, 19
1 tin, 106 blocks; fish oil;
Danish vessel: — Bremen vessel: —
Danish vessel: — Tri, 2,062

signed vessels have arrived:
5 British, 67 Neapolitan, 59
s, 31 Bardinian, 33 Dan-
man States, 1 French, 11
sh, 10 Prussian, 7 Aus-
sh, 1 Portuguese, and 1 Ar-
ack, 4 Swedish, 3 (5)

Shipping. — Since the loss of Flanders, the mercantile navy of Austria has been confined wholly to the ports on the Adriatic. But it is, notwithstanding, very considerable; and engrosses at this moment a very large share of the trade of the Mediterranean and Black Seas. The oak timber of Carniola and the Dalmatian coast is reckoned about the very best in the world; so that the Austrian ships, being built of it, are very strong, at the same time that they are particularly handsome. They are also well manned and provided. The seamen are expert, temperate, and orderly; and Mr. Money says, that the laws for the regulation of the merchant service are excellent.

By far the greater number of vessels of large burthen belong to Trieste, the rest being to Venice, Plims, Ragusa, and the Bocche di Castro. On the other hand, the smaller vessels employed in the coasting trade of the Adriatic are more equally divided; Venice having, probably, as many at Trieste, while a good number belong to the ports of Istria, Hungary, and Dalmatia.

The foreign trade of this port comprises all voyages beyond the limits of the Adriatic; and may be divided as follows:—

1. The Levant trade, including the Ionian Islands, Greece, Constantinople, Smyrna, Odessa, &c., the ports in Syria, Cyprus, Candia, and Egypt, more especially Alexandria.
2. The Persian or Mediterranean trade, in the west, com-

prising the coast of Barbary, Spain, France, and Italy; being principally carried on with Alexandria, Genoa, and Leghorn.

3. The commerce on the ocean, which the Austrian mercantile have attempted with success. Several ships sail for Brazil, the U. States, England, Hamburg.

The number of Austrian vessels engaged in foreign trade is given by the subjoined statement to amount to about 607, having an aggregate burthen of 143,446. But exclusive of these, above 200 vessels of about 40 tons each are engaged in the coasting trade. The fishery is but inconsiderable.

We are indebted to the *Navig. Austriaca* for the following returns respecting the Lloyd of Trieste during 1839:—

Arrivals.	Vessels.	Tons.	Clearances.	Vessels.	Tons.
Sailing vessels engaged in foreign trade	1,858	329,253	Sailing vessels engaged in the foreign trade	1,807	326,553
Steam vessels (ditto)	24	7,748	Steam vessels (ditto)	24	7,748
Sailing boats engaged in the coasting trade	2,828	105,712	Sailing boats engaged in the coasting trade	3,469	107,346
Steam boats (ditto)	213	45,980	Steam boats (ditto)	803	46,890
Smaller craft (ditto)	7,714	179,239	Smaller craft (ditto)	6,68	138,844
Total	12,637	567,841	Total	11,699	542,659

Customs Regulations. — The Custom-house at Trieste has nothing whatever to do with the entry, reporting, &c. of vessels. When a ship arrives, she is reported to the Health Office; which publishes a list of arrivals and departures, with a statement of their cargoes, as they appear in the manifests. Ships are cleared by the same office; the masters being assisted by the consuls of the country to which they belong. As soon as a vessel has performed quarantine, she loads or unloads without any interference or inspection by the customs officers, or by any one else. Goods unsusceptible of contagion may be landed during quarantine.

Being a free port, the bonding and warehousing system is, of course, unknown at Trieste.

Port Charges. — These are paid at the office of the harbour master on clearing out. They are the same, whatever may be the ship's stay; and are, perhaps, the most moderate of any in Europe.

Port Charges paid by Austrian and Foreign Ships.

Austrian, and foreign privileged ships:	Fl. kr.	Foreign ships not privileged:	Fl. kr.
Anchorage, per ton admeasurement	0 3	Anchorage, light-house, and cargo as above, per ton admeasurement, and per ton weight of goods	0 10
Light-house	0 3	New tonnage duty, per ton admeasurement	0 18
Cargo duty, per ton weight of goods	0 3	Abboraggio, payable by ships departing in ballast, or with less than half a cargo	0 9

N. B. — If grain, or 20 stajs.

Comparative Statement of the Port Charges paid at Trieste, respectively, by a native and privileged foreign ship, and a foreign ship not privileged, each of 300 Tons Burden, with mixed Cargoes.

Native or privileged:	Fl. kr.	Foreign, not privileged:	Fl. kr.
Anchorage and light, as above, 300 tons, at 7 kreutzers per ton admeasurement	35 0	Anchorage, light and cargo duty, as above	90 0
Cargo duty, 300 tons, at 3 kreutzers	15 0	Tonnage duty, 300 tons, at 16 kreutzers	130 0
Total	50 0		

or about 4l. 18s. sterling.

Quarantine is strictly enforced at Trieste, and the establishments for facilitating its performance are complete and efficient. The Board of Health at this port is the central or principal one for the Austrian States; and maintains an active correspondence with all the principal ports, both in the Mediterranean and elsewhere. There are 2 lazarettos, — that called St. Teresa, or Lazaretto Nuovo, is appropriated to vessels from the Levant and Egypt, which are, for the most part, subjected to the long or full quarantine of 40 days. It is spacious, and properly guarded; having a sufficient number of military and medical officers and assistants; with extensive quays and magazines for housing and airing goods, dwelling houses and apartments for resident officers and passengers, &c. It is, in fact, one of the most perfect establishments of the kind in existence. The other, or old (*Vecchio*) lazaretto, contiguous to the great mole, is appropriated to ships and passengers performing a quarantine of not more than 28 days; and, though inferior to the former, is sufficiently capacious and convenient. The sanitary officers, including that of harbour master, are near the centre of the port; where also are moored vessels under observation for a term not exceeding 8 days. Here also are facilities for communicating *in voce* with persons under quarantine; and spacious warehouses, with adequate guards and other officers. But, notwithstanding these conveniences, if a vessel arrive having an infectious malady on board, she is not allowed to enter either lazaretto at Trieste, but is sent to an island near Venice, fitted out for the purpose, where assistance may be had with less risk of propagating infection.

The ordinary Board of Health consists of a president; two assistants, one of whom is a doctor of medicine; and three provisors, two of whom are merchants.

Quarantine Charges payable at the port of Trieste, by all Ships.

In pratique:	Arrival.	Currency.		Departure.	Currency.	
		Fl. kr.	s. d.		Fl. kr.	s. d.
Entry with or without cargo, ships, 100 tons and upwards		1 30	3 0	0 45	1 6	
50 to 99		1 15	2 0	0 30	1 0	
10 to 49		0 17	0 6 8	0 9	0 6 8	
In quarantine:				0 17	0 6 8	
For the interrogatory of master		1 30	3 0	1 8	2 3 8	
For do. of guardian on admission to practise		0 34	1 1 6	1 8	2 3 8	

Quarantine Dues payable on Goods. — Non-susceptible goods pay *ad valorem* at the rate of 6 kreutzers per 100 florins or 1 miller. Susceptible goods pay an extra charge, according to tariff, or to clearance, &c. Besides the above *ad valorem* duty, goods not susceptible pay 4 kreutzers (1/4 s.) per every 1,000 lbs. weight of Vienna. Grain is subject to an extra charge of about 1/4 cent.

Brokers, Commission Merchants, Brokerage, &c. — There are a few exceptions to the freedom generally enjoyed of selling and exercising any trade at Trieste. Brokers, for example, are limited in number, and appointed by the Chamber of Commerce. They are obliged to give security, are under various regulations, and may not themselves trade as principals. They are of 2 classes: 1st, brokers for the sale and purchase of merchandise, who are again subdivided into particular classes, according to the articles they are conversant with, as grain, oil, cotton, drugs, hides and leather, colonial produce, manufactures, &c.; 2d, bill brokers, or exchange agents; and 3d, ship and insurance brokers, such authorized brokers are alone allowed to extend contracts, certificates, surveys, or other documents; and they are considered as public functionaries, whose depositions are received as legal evidence.

Any one may be a commission merchant or factor, but he may not issue printed circulars or lists of prices; nor will his books, however regularly kept, be considered as evidence in a court of justice, unless he is matriculated, for which the possession of a certain amount of capital is required. This, however, is little more than mere form, and a great deal of business is done by persons acting both as merchants and brokers, without being duly authorized.

The usual rate of a merchant's or factor's commission on the purchase of goods is 2 per cent.; on sales, 1 per cent.; *des credere* is sometimes added.

A merchant's commission for collecting freight, and doing other shipping business, is 2 per cent. on the inward cargo; and by custom of the place, the house to which a ship is consigned or recommended by the charterers, is entitled to a commission of 2 per cent. on the outward cargo, whether it has or has not been instrumental in procuring the goods that are laden outwards.

A broker's commission for freighting a ship, or procuring a charter, is 2 per cent. This does not include the charge for writing charter, or for any other services performed in the clearance. In case of general cargoes, when the broker has to collect goods from different merchants, he charges 5 per cent. commission. A bill broker's commission (courtage) is sometimes 1 per mille, more commonly 1/2 per mille. Brokerage for the sale or purchase of merchandise varies from 1/2 per cent. to 1 per cent., according to circumstances, and the nature of the article.

Insurance. — The insurance of ships is carried on to a considerable extent at Trieste. The security is unexceptionable, the terms more moderate than in England, and losses are said to be adjusted promptly and liberally. The oppressive duties on policies of insurance in England have been the cause that most insurances on ships for the Adriatic, that were formerly effected in London, Liverpool, &c., are now effected at Trieste. The insurance of houses is universal; and that of lives is also, of late years, practised to a considerable extent. House insurance is carried on by joint companies, of limited responsibility.

Bankruptcy is not of very frequent occurrence at Trieste. The laws with respect to it do not differ much from those in force in most other countries. Frauds are punishable by imprisonment; but here, as elsewhere, they are very difficult to detect. Honest bankrupts are discharged, on making a complete disclosure of their affairs, and a surrender of their assets. Property settled on a wife is not affected by the debts of the husband; a regulation which, it is evident, must lead to fraud.

Communications by Land. — The intercourse between Trieste and Austria, Hungary, &c., is necessarily all carried on by land. The roads leading to Vienna, and to the Hungarian towns, particularly the first, are kept in good repair, and the tolls are moderate; but owing to the rugged nature of the country, the ascent is in some places very considerable. The diligence from Trieste to Vienna, 340 English miles, performs the journey in 72 hours. The draught horses employed on the roads are excellent; but, in some of the mountainous districts, bullocks are used.

Repeated surveys have been made of the country between Vienna and Trieste, in the view of forming a canal. But the difficulties in the way of such a project seem to be all but insuperable. The ground is not only rugged, but the subsoll of the country stretching northwards to a considerable distance from Trieste is so very porous, that, unless precautions were taken to obviate it, the water in the canal would speedily escape. A railroad has been proposed, and it might, no doubt, be accomplished. But the expense would be so very great, that it is extremely problematical whether it would ever yield any thing like a return.

Carrening, Stores, &c. — Timber at Trieste is excellent, workmen good, and their wages moderate; so that it is a very favourable place for carrening and repairing. Water is very good, but rather scarce; so that, in a large supply be required, due notice must be given. Ships are served in regular rotation. Beef is very good, but rather high priced. Butter and cheese are dear; and fuel is excessively so. On the whole, therefore, Trieste cannot be considered as a favourable place for the provisioning of a ship.

Banking. — There are no public banks at Trieste. The bank of Vienna has an office here, but it is merely for the exchange of its notes for cash, or, more frequently, of large notes for small ones. These notes, being guaranteed by government, are legal tender, and in general circulation, but no other company is allowed to issue notes to be used as a circulating medium. There is not, however, any deficiency of currency. Banking business is transacted by private companies, or by individuals, who are subject to certain regulations, and are obliged to lay before competent authority an attested statement of the capital embarked in their concerns. Their business principally consists in procuring bills of exchange from other places for the use of the merchants of Trieste, or in discounting, (in which latter operation they have many private competitors,) at the rate of from 4 to 6 per cent. per annum, according to the nature of the paper offered, and in proportion to the scarcity or abundance of cash.

The principal bankers of Trieste are of undoubted solidity, and do not indulge in dangerous speculations; and notwithstanding the apparent want of great banking establishments, the business of buying and selling, and of making payments and remittances, whether in bills or specie, is transacted at this port with great facility; and there seldom arises any distress, pressure, or stagnation, from want of money or credit.

It is not usual for respectable bankers to give interest on deposits. The partners in joint stock companies, banks, &c., are, in general, responsible only to the extent of their declared capital; and the individuals composing them are only liable each to the extent of their share. The same individuals frequently a general merchant, a partner in a banking house, and a member of an insurance company. All these businesses may at present be said to be prosperous.

Credit. — Goods imported into Trieste are sometimes sold for ready money, a discount being usually understood and allowed in such cases, of 2 or 2 1/2 per cent. But they are commonly sold at 3 months' credit, that is, by bills of that date; occasionally, but rarely, they are sold at 6 months.

Bills thus obtained, though offering no other guarantee than the signature of the drawer or acceptor, may be discounted or insured at a moderate rate by companies who dedicate themselves to this branch of business, and who, from their extensive dealings, are good judges of the risk. The practice has become almost universal, and it not only facilitates sales, but has a tendency to prevent bankruptcies, as it is difficult for a house long to conceal its insolvency; and its credit is, by this mode of trial, soon ascertained.

Tares. — Real tare is allowed on most articles of export; and on all articles of import, except cotton and sugar. The tare on Brazil sugar in chests depends on their length and size, but in general it amounts to from 15 to 18 per cent.; on Brazil sugar in bags the tare is 3 per cent.; on Havannah sugar a tare is allowed of 62 lbs. English per box, being from 13 to 14 per cent.; on Jamaica sugar the tare is 14 per cent. Tare on American cotton, 4 per cent.

An Account of the Number of Vessels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, that were built or purchased in the Austrian Ports on the Adriatic, and also those that were wrecked, broken up, or sold out of the Austrian Mercantile Navy, in the Years 1839, 1840, 1841, and 1842, and showing the total Number existing on the 31st of December, 1842.

	1839.		1840.		1841.		1842.		Total.	
	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.	Vess.	Tonn.
Austrian merchant vessels existing on the 1st of January, 1839	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	458	119,012
Number of vessels built at Trieste	12	4,396	8	9,335	-	5,194	6	1,038	-	-
Number of vessels built at Venice	9	2,138	14	4,519	10	2,413	8	1,938	-	-
Do, built at Hungarian coast	4	4,283	12	4,955	14	4,590	8	2,515	-	-
Do, at other ports	5	1,581	7	1,835	5	1,818	8	5,071	-	-
Total number of vessels built in each year	28	12,067	42	14,075	34	10,018	30	8,560	-	-
Number of vessels purchased	15	3,744	4	1,434	3	924	4	739	-	-
Number of vessels wrecked	30	7,128	17	4,005	11	2,386	7	1,610	-	-
Do, broken up	5	333	1	354	7	1,875	5	1,537	-	-
Do, sold out of the Austrian service	4	224	3	690	5	1,544	4	546	-	-
Increases in each year	14	5,800	24	10,860	14	5,069	17	3,196	69	27,323
Vessels existing on the 31st of December, 1842	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	527	146,246
Number of steam vessels belonging to the Austrian Lloyd's Steam Navigation Company, 31st of December, 1842, of 100 horse power	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1,294
Do, ditto, of 100 horse power	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	850
Do, ditto, of 70 horse power	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	250
Do, ditto, of 50 horse power	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	560
Do, ditto, of 45 horse power	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	260
Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	3,634

Tariff (Austrian).—Subjoined is the existing tariff of the import, export, and transit duties charged in the Austrian empire on some of the most important articles of trade and consumption. It came into operation on the 27th of February, 1838.

The duties imposed by this tariff, though, in some instances, considerably lower than those formerly charged, are still, speaking generally, very heavy. The duty on cotton and woollen goods, for example, is 60 per cent. *ad valorem*; while that on coffee is 38s. the English cwt., that on raw sugar for consumption 32s. the cwt., and so forth. There is, in fact, a singular contradiction in the commercial policy of Austria; in some respects it is as liberal as could be wished for, while in others it is selfish and illiberal in the extreme. In all that respects ports and shipping, the legislation of Austria may be advantageously contrasted with that of almost any other nation. All articles are freely admitted into Trieste and Venice, and may be consumed in them, or warehoused and re-exported, without being liable to any duty, the port charges being at the same time very reasonable. But the moment that it is attempted to introduce any article from a free port into the interior, it is loaded with oppressive duties, and subjected to vexatious regulations. These have been imposed in the view of protecting and encouraging domestic industry; but it is, perhaps, unnecessary to say that their effect in Austria, as in all other countries, has been precisely the reverse. Instead of trusting to their own exertions, and bringing the inexhaustible resources of science and ingenuity to their aid, the native producers, deprived of the stimulus of competition, depend for success on the efforts of the customs officers to exclude foreign products, and to secure them a monopoly. There is, consequently, but little improvement. Every thing has about it an air of languor and routine. Most part, also, of the foreign products now to be met with in the interior have found their way there through clandestine channels. The mischievous influence of such a system is, indeed, too obvious to be disputed by any one not interested in its support. The modifications made of late years in the tariff, and the commercial treaty negotiated with this country, may, we hope, be regarded as the forerunners of still greater changes. A reduction of the duty on most foreign articles to a half or a third part of its present amount would do more than any thing else to promote the industry of the empire, to stimulate commerce, and to increase the customs revenue. Now that the navigation of the Danube is opened, a reduction of this sort is more than ever necessary. The introduction of a taste for the production of foreigners is of all others the most likely means by which the long dormant energies and immense productive capacities of Hungary, Transylvania, and the other eastern provinces of the empire, may be stimulated and developed. Unluckily, however, the existing duties must either go far, by excluding foreign products, wholly to prevent the formation of such a taste in the countries referred to, or, if they should be imported, it will only be in limited quantities, and through the agency of the smuggler. The latter derives employment and wealth from this vicious system; and were it intended for his advantage, it might be said to be well contrived, and the means judiciously adapted to bring about the desired end. But it is directly opposed to invention and industry; paralyses the manufactures it was intended to protect; and either annihilates all commerce, or makes it redound to the advantage only of those who trample on the laws. No system can be more completely at variance with the paternal intentions of the Austrian government; and

its downfall may be expected the moment they become fully aware of its real nature and practical influence.

The great drawback under which Austria labours, is the situation of by far the larger portion of her provinces in the central parts of Europe; and separated from the great markets for their produce, either by a wide tract of intervening country, or by high mountain ridges, Austria is naturally an agricultural country; and, unless compelled by circumstances to divert a portion of her energies to manufactures, will, no doubt, continue such for a lengthened period: and hence, as the products of agricultural industry are at once heavy and bulky in proportion to their value, the advantage of opening improved channels of communication with other countries. In this respect, the free navigation of the Danube is of much importance, though a great deal more stress has been laid upon it in this country than it deserves. The expense of carrying corn and timber from Hungary to the Black Sea, and thence to the ports of Western Europe, will, we apprehend, always be found too heavy to permit of England or France ever supplying themselves, at least to any considerable extent, with the corn, flax, or timber of Hungary or Transylvania. The cost of conveying produce from the interior of the continent to the nearest shipping ports is a most important element, which is too generally lost sight of in this country. To show its influence, we may mention that, on the 28th of November, 1838, wheat sold at Lemberg, one of the principal markets of Galicia, for 15s. 2d. a quarter; when its price at Dantzic, on the 20th of the same month was 41s. 6d.; the difference, amounting to 26s. 4d. a quarter, being occasioned by the difficulty and expense of conveying corn down the Vistula, from Lemberg to Dantzic. We may remark, by the way, that this fact sets in a very striking point of view, the absurdity of the statements so frequently put forth in our newspapers, contrasting prices in this country with those in foreign markets, and ascribing their excess in England wholly to the influence of our corn laws!

The Austrian government and people have long been alive to the many advantages that would result from opening a communication between Hungary and Fiume, and other ports on the Adriatic. And notwithstanding the obstacles opposed by the interposition of the Julian Alps, and other mountain ridges, an excellent road has been carried from Carlstadt to Fiume. Still, however, the expenses of the carriage of bulky products are too great to make this route sufficiently available; and the advantage of further improving and cheapening the communication is too obvious to need being pointed out.

Table of Import, Export, and Transit Duties levied in the Austrian Empire on the following Articles.

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.
Arms, fire, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	fl. k.	fl. k.	fl. k.	ad valorem	sh. s. d.	sh. s. d.	sh. s. d.
Beef and all kinds of butchers' meat, fresh	gross centner	0 50	0 11	0 2	125 1-3 lbs.	0 1 8	0 0 0-5-8	0-4-5
salted	—	1 40	0 64	0 2	—	0 4 11	0 0 2-8-8	0-4-5
from Hungary	—	0 48	0 1	0 2	—	0 2 8	0 0 0-3-5	0-4-5
Beer in casks	—	5 0	0 5	0 2	per bottle	0 10 0	0 0 0	0-4-5
bottles, kegs, &c. packed in casks or hampers	—	0 5	0 0-2	0 2	—	0 0 2-0	0 0 0-1-10	0-4-5
not packed	per bottle	0 5	0 0-2	0 2	—	0 0 0	0 0 0	0-4-5
Bells of bell-metal, or other common metals	nett centner	0 10	—	—	125 1 3 lbs.	0 0 4	—	—
Books with permission of censorship	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0-2	0 2	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0-1-10	31-5
Brass, and all compositions of brass with other than precious metals, raw or in blocks and bars	nett centner	8 20	0 64	0 2	125 1-3 lbs.	0 16 8	0 0 3-5-8	0-4-5
in plates, rolled, wire	—	12 20	0 124	0 2	—	1 6 4	0 0 5	0-4-5
wrought	—	60 0	0 25	0 2	—	6 0 0	0 0 10	3-5-5
Coal (sea coal)	gross centner	15 0	0 85	0 2	—	1 10 0	0 0 10	0-4-5
Coffee	nett centner	21 0	0 17-4	0 5	—	2 2 0	0 0 7	2
Copper, raw, rolled, plates, blocks	—	0 50	0 30	0 2	—	0 1 8	0 1 0	0-4-5
wrought, as kettles, boilers, &c.	—	10 0	0 124	0 5	—	1 0 0	0 0 5	2
wire	—	15 0	0 124	0 5	—	1 10 0	0 0 5	2
Corn, wheat	gross centner	0 224	0 1	0 2	—	0 0 0	0 0 2-5	0-4-5
barley and oats	—	0 17	0 0-2	0 2	—	0 0 6	0 0 0-8-8	0-4-5
rye and buck wheat	—	0 15	0 0-2	0 2	—	0 0 6-4-5	0 0 0-3-8	0-4-5
Indian corn	—	0 15	0 0-2	0 2	—	0 0 6-3-5	0 0 0-3-8	0-4-5
Cotton manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 56	2 38 cent.	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0-1-10	0-4-5
twist	nett centner	15 0	0 50	0 27	125 1-3 lbs.	1 10 0	0 0 1-8	10-4-5
Earthware, common	gross centner	7 30	0 64	0 5	—	0 15 0	0 0 2-4-5	2
Porcelain, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 56	0 0-2	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0-1-10	10-4-5
Fire engines	nett centner	10 0	0 22	0 2	125 1-3 lbs.	1 0 0	0 0 10	—
Fish: stockfish, codfish, herrings, &c. salted or cured	gross centner	2 0	0 5	0 5	—	0 4 0	0 0 2	0-4-5
Glass: tint and crown glass wares, ordinary	—	6 40	0 25	0 2	—	0 12 0	0 0 10	0-4-5
cut, all kinds, plates for looking glasses	—	30 0	0 4	0 2	—	0 13 4	0 0 1-5-5	10-4-5
artificial brilliants	—	30 0	0 4	0 2	—	2 0 0	0 0 1-3-5	0-4-5

Table of Import, Export, Transit Duties, &c. — continued.

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Units of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Units of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.
Hides, beaver, silk, whale-bone and other stuffs, silk, straw and ladies' hats and bonnets	each	1 0	0 1	0 37	each	0 3 0	0 0	0 2-6
Judgments, mathematical instruments, mathematical, surgical, and optical musical	gross centner	7 30	1 50	0 37	123 1-3 lbs.	0 15 0	0 3 9	10 4-6
Iron, raw, in pigs	per 1 fl. value	0 6	0 0	0 3	ad valorem	10 0 0	0 0	0 1-10
Cast, ware of	gross centner	2 34	0 40	0 3	123 1-3 lbs.	0 3 7-5	0 0	9 3-6
Hammered in bars, rods, cast steel	gross centner	5 34	0 31	0 3	ad valorem	0 12 0	0 0	1 4-5
Hammered steel	gross centner	7 19	0 4	0 3	ad valorem	0 7 0	0 0	3 4-5
Sheet iron	gross centner	9 36	0 4	0 3	ad valorem	0 14 4-6	0 0	1 3-6
Tin	gross centner	15 36	0 31	0 3	ad valorem	1 11 2-5	0 0	3 4-5
Steel and iron wire, ironmongery, or anchors, hammered wares, ordinary raps, files, &c.	gross centner	18 0	0 5	0 3	ad valorem	1 4 0	0 0	2 4-5
Locksmiths', ironmiths', and sparmakers' work, also carriage springs and hoops, common locksmiths', &c. work, fine, and all fine polished hardware	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0	0 12	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0	0 1-10
Lead, raw, in blocks	gross centner	6 14	0 3	0 3	ad valorem	0 0 4	0 0	0 1-10
Cast, as balls and shot	gross centner	7 12	0 3	0 3	ad valorem	0 12 7-5	0 0	1 1-10
Leather, ox and cow hides, tanned	gross centner	15 0	0 35	0 3	ad valorem	0 12 0	0 0	1 1-10
Calf skins, tanned and dressed	gross centner	55 0	0 50	0 3	ad valorem	1 10 0	0 0	1 8 3
Linen, knit, as stockings, gloves, &c.	gross centner	5 0	0 0	0 27	ad valorem	0 12 0	0 0	0 1-5
Cambrio	gross centner	6 0	0 0	0 27	ad valorem	0 12 0	0 0	0 1-5
Ribbons, tapes, galons, &c.	gross centner	2 30	0 0	0 27	ad valorem	0 5 0	0 0	0 1-10
Other fine woven linens	gross centner	3 30	0 0	0 27	ad valorem	0 5 3-5	0 0	0 1-10
Oil, olive	gross centner	8 50	0 6	0 3	ad valorem	0 8 0	0 0	4 4-5
Palm, cocoa-nut, lin, or hempseed oil	gross centner	8 50	0 6	0 3	ad valorem	0 5 0	0 0	3 5-6
Fish or train oil	gross centner	0 16	0 0	0 2	ad valorem	0 0 7-5	0 0	0 2
Pitch or tar oil	gross centner	2 0	0 0	0 2	ad valorem	0 4 0	0 0	0 2
Turpentine	gross centner	2 0	0 0	0 2	ad valorem	0 4 0	0 0	0 2
Painters' colours, raw prepared	gross centner	0 25	0 0	0 2	ad valorem	0 0 10	0 0	0 2
Paper, all kinds, except worked into articles of luxury	gross centner	3 30	0 4	0 2	ad valorem	0 6 8	0 0	1 5-6
Powder and tin manufactures	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0	0 12	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0	1 1-10
Plate, gold and silver	gross lb.	0 24	0 0	0 12	per lb.	0 0 6	0 0	0 1-3
Playing cards	per dozen packs	0 36	0 0	0 1	per dozen packs	0 1 15-5	free	0 5-5
Salt	gross centner	prohibited	free	0 0	123 1-3 lbs.	prohibited	free	0 4-5
Silk, woven silks	gross lb.	10 0	0 1	0 37	per lb.	0 0 0	0 0	0 3-5
Spermaceti and wax	gross lb.	0 36	0 0	0 12	per lb.	0 1 15-5	0 0	0 3-5
Spirits, distilled, in casks	gross centner	15 81	0 12	0 12	123 1-3 lbs.	1 6 83-5	0 0	6 5-5
in bottles	gross centner	10 0	0 0	0 12	per bottle	1 0 0	0 0	3 4-5
Sugar, refined, all kinds	gross centner	18 0	0 9	0 3	per cwt.	1 15 0	0 0	10 4-5
raw, powdered for the trade raw, for the use of refiners, others, for raisineries	gross centner	15 0	0 9	0 3	per cwt.	1 10 0	0 0	10 4-5
Tobacco, in leaf	gross lb.	15 0	0 30	0 3	per lb.	0 15 6	0 0	8 3
manufactured	gross lb.	40 0	0 5	0 3	per lb.	2 10 0	0 0	2 3
Wine, Cape wine, French, Spanish, and German wines, in casks, &c.	gross centner	15 0	0 3	0 3	per bottle	1 10 0	0 0	0 4-5
in bottles	per bottle	0 30	0 0	0 3	per bottle	0 1 0	0 0	0 4-5
Woods, dyewoods, in blocks or pieces	gross centner	0 14	0 3	0 3	123 1-3 lbs.	0 5 0	0 0	2 4-5
Woolen manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0	0 12	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0	0 1-10

One Vienna pound=1.235 lb. avoirdupois hence the centner of 100 Vienna pounds=123.5 or 123 1/2 lb. avoirdupois.

The Austrian florin of the standard of 90 to the Cologne mark, is almost exactly 2 shillings sterling. In the Lombard Venetian kingdom, the centner of 100 kilogrammes is still the weight used in levying the duty, the difference between 100 kilogrammes = 78.8 lb. of Austria being allowed.

TRINITY HOUSE. This society was incorporated by Her Majesty, in 1515, for the promotion of commerce and navigation, by licensing and regulating pilots, and ordering and erecting beacons, light-houses, buoys, &c. A similar society, for the like purposes, was afterwards established at Hull; and also another at Newcastle-upon-Tyne in 1597; which 3 establishments, says Hakluyt, were in imitation of that founded by the Emperor Charles V. at Seville in Spain; who, observing the numerous shipwrecks in the voyages to and from the West Indies, occasioned by the ignorance of seamen, established, at the Casa de Contratacion, lectures on navigation, and a pilot-major for the examination of other pilots and mariners; having also directed books to be published on that subject for the use of navigators.

Henry VIII., by his charter, confirmed to the Deptford Trinity House Society all the ancient rights, privileges &c. of the shipmen and mariners of England, and their several possessions at Deptford, from which it is plain that the Society had existed long previously. The corporation was confirmed, in 1685, in the enjoyment of its privileges and possessions, by letters patent of the 1st of James II. by the name of the Master,

Wardens, and Assistants of the Guild or Fraternity of the most glorious and undivided Trinity and of St. Clement's, in the parish of Deptford Strand, in the County of Kent. At first, the corporation appears to have consisted of seamen only; but since the charter of James II., noblemen and gentlemen have been enrolled among its elder brethren. It is governed by 31 elder brothers, of whom 1 is master, 4 wardens, and 8 assistants; but the inferior members of the fraternity, named younger brethren, are not limited in point of number; every master or mate, expert in navigation, being admissible as such. Besides the power of erecting light-houses, and other sea-marks, on the several coasts of the kingdom, for the security of navigation — (see LIGHT-HOUSES), — the master, wardens, assistants, and elder brethren are invested by charter with the following powers; viz. the examination of the mathematical scholars of Christ's Hospital; the appointment of pilots to conduct ships into and out of the Thames; the settling the several rates of pilotage; and the granting licences to poor seamen, not free of the city or past going to sea, to row on the river Thames for their support. They formerly, also, enjoyed several other powers, which have since fallen into disuse or been vested in other hands. To this company belongs the Ballast Office, for clearing and deepening the Thames, by taking up a sufficient quantity of ballast for the supply of all ships that sail out of the river, for which they pay certain rates. — (See BALLAST.) The corporation is authorised to receive voluntary subscriptions, benefactions, &c.; and to purchase, in mortmain, lands, tenements, &c. to the amount of 500*l.* per annum. The ancient Hall of the Trinity House at Deptford, where the meetings of the brethren were formerly held, was pulled down long ago. They now meet in an elegant building erected for the purpose in London, near the Tower.

Trinity House Revenues, &c. — The gross revenue under the management of the Trinity House amounts to about 298,000*l.* a year; but the net revenue is rather under $\frac{1}{2}$ that sum. It arises from the dues payable to the corporation on account of light-houses, buoyage and beaconage, and ballastage; and from the interest of money in the funds, and the rent of freehold property. In 1842, the receipts were as under: —

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.			
<i>Light-houses</i> — Total sum received on account of light-houses				244,032	5	9½						
Deduct commission on collection				9,554	9	4½						
Charges on account of maintenance, &c.*				174,166	14	½						
Net light-house revenue							185,791	3	6½			
<i>Buoyage and Beaconage</i> — gross amount of							11,458	8	8			
Deduct commission on collection							10,447	1	1			
Charges				383	1	1½						
Net buoyage, beaconage, and revenue †									4,011	7	7	
<i>Ballastage</i> — gross amount of							30,906	11	7			
Deduct charges												
Deficiency of ballastage revenue †				81,915	16	11				1,009	5	4
<i>Rent of Land and houses, dividends on account of funded property, &c., all charges deducted</i>										40,851	7	¾
										75,173	17	1½
										1,009	5	4
Total net revenue										72,164	11	9½

By far the greater portion of this large sum is laid out on pensions to poor disabled seamen, and on the maintenance of their widows, orphans, &c. We have seen the number of persons so relieved stated at 3,000; and we believe that the fund is both judiciously and economically administered. Still, however, as we have remarked in another article — (ant. p. 779.) — It does appear to us, considering the vast importance to a maritime nation like this of keeping the charges on shipping as low as possible, that it would be good policy to provide otherwise for the poor persons now dependent on the Trinity House, and to reduce the charges on account of lights, &c. to the lowest sum that would suffice to maintain the establishment in a proper state of efficiency. No one, certainly, would wish to see the poor seamen or their widows or orphans deprived of any part of the pittance they now receive; but a larger amount might be given them from other sources, and be at the same time less felt by the public. Every one knows that nothing contributes so much to facilitate a commercial intercourse by land as good roads and low tolls; and good lights, buoys, beacons, &c., and light charges, have precisely the same influence at sea.

TRIPANG, or SEA SLUG (*Biche de Mer*), a species of fish of the genus *Holothuria*, found chiefly on coral reefs in the Eastern seas, and highly esteemed in China, into which it is imported in large quantities. It is an unseemly looking substance, of a dirty brown colour, hard, rigid, scarcely possessing any power of locomotion, or appearance of animation. Sometimes the slug is as much as 2 feet in length, and from 7 to 8 inches in circumference. A span in length, and 2 or 3 inches in girth, is, however, the ordinary size. The quality and value of the fish, however, do not by any means depend upon its size, but upon properties in it neither obvious to nor discernible by those who have not been long and extensively engaged in the trade. In shallow water the animal is taken out by the hand, but in deeper water it is sometimes speared. When taken it is gutted, dried in the sun, and smoked over a wood fire; this being the only preparation it receives.

* This sum includes 3,481*l.* expended on account of new works; 50,713*l.* for interest paid on monies borrowed to complete the purchase of certain lights; and 10,946*l.* repairs, coals, stores, wages to engineers of the yachts required for conducting the light and buoyage service, and salary to superintendent and storekeeper at the wharf at Blackwall and rates, taxes, repairs, &c. on the establishment at that place.

† It will be seen that the charges on account of ballastage exceed the revenue; the amount of such excess, 1,009*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.*, is deducted at the foot of this account.

The fishery is carried on from the western shores of New Guinea, and the southern shores of Australia, to Ceylon inclusive. Indeed, within the last few years it has been successfully prosecuted on the shores of the Mauritius. The whole produce goes to China. In the market of Macassar, the great staple of this fishery, not less than thirty varieties are distinguished, varying in price from 5 Spanish dollars a piece (133 lbs.) to 14 times that price, each variety being distinguished by well-known names: The quantity of tripping sent annually to China from Macassar is about 7,000 piculs, or 8,333 cwt.; the price usually varying from 8 dollars a picul to 110 and 115, according to quality. — (*Crawford's Indian Archipelago*, vol. III. p. 461.) There is also a considerable export of tripping from Manila to Canton. Besides tripping, *Sida-menus* and *sharks' fins* are exported to China from every maritime country of India.

TROY WEIGHT, one of the most ancient of the different kinds used in Britain. The pound English Troy contains 12 ounces, or 5,760 grains. It is used in the weighing of gold, silver, and jewels; the compounding of medicines; in experiments in natural philosophy; in comparing different weights with each other; and is now (by 5 Geo. 4. c. 74.) made the standard of weight.

TROY WEIGHT, *Scottish*, was established by James VI. in the year 1618, who enacted that only one weight should be used in Scotland, viz. the French Troy stone of 16 pounds, and 16 ounces to the pound. The pound contains 7,680 grains, and is equal to 17 os. 6 dr. avoirdupois. The cwt. or 112 lbs. avoirdupois, contains only 112 lbs. 8 os. of this weight, though generally reckoned equal to 104 lbs. This weight is very nearly identical with that formerly used at Paris and Amsterdam; and is generally known by the name of Dutch weight. Though prohibited by the articles of Union, it has been used to most parts of Scotland in weighing iron, hemp, flax, and other Dutch and Baltic goods, meal, butcher's meat, lead, &c. — (See **WEIGHTS AND MEASURES**.)

TRUCK SYSTEM, a name given to a practice that has prevailed, particularly in the mining and manufacturing districts, of paying the wages of workmen in goods instead of money. The plan has been, for the masters to establish warehouses or shops; and the workmen in their employment have either got their wages accounted for to them by supplies of goods from such *depôts*, without receiving any money; or they have got the money, with a tacit or express understanding that they were to resort to the warehouses or shops of their master for such articles as they were furnished with.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Truck System. — A great deal of contradictory evidence has been given, and very opposite opinions have been held, as to the practical operation and real effect of this system on the workmen. Nor is this to be wondered at, seeing that every thing depends on the mode in which it is administered, and that it may be either highly advantageous or highly injurious to the labourer. If a manufacturer of character establish a shop supplied with the principal articles required for the use of the workmen in his employment, and give them free liberty to resort to it or not as they please, it can, at all events, do them no harm, and will, most likely, render them material service. The manufacturer, having the command of capital, may, in general, lay in his goods to greater advantage than they can be laid in by the greater number of retail tradesmen in moderate-sized towns; and not being dependent on the profits of his shop for support, he is, even though he had no advantage in their purchase, able to sell his goods at a cheaper rate than they can be afforded by the majority of shopkeepers. Some times, also, a factory is established in a district where shops either do not exist at all, or are very deficient; and in such cases the master consults the interest and convenience of those dependent on him when he provides a supply of the principal articles required for their subsistence. It is easy, therefore, to see that the keeping of shops by masters for the use of their workmen may be very beneficial to the latter. But to insure its being so, it is indispensable that the masters should be above taking an advantage when it is within their reach, and that their conduct towards the workmen should not be in any degree influenced by the circumstance of the latter dealing or not dealing with their shops.

Such disinterestedness is, however, a great deal more than could be rationally expected from the generality of men; and hence, though many instances may be specified in which the truck system was advantageous to the workmen, those of a contrary description were unfortunately, far more numerous. It is obvious, indeed, that a practice of this sort affords very great facilities for fraudulent dealings. Under the old law, a manufacturer who had a shop, had means, supposing he were inclined to use them, not possessed by any ordinary shopkeeper as respects his customers, for forcing upon his workmen inferior goods at an exorbitant price. They are at first supplied on liberal terms, and are readily accommodated with goods in anticipation of wages, till they get considerably into debt. The pernicious influence of this deceitful system then begins fully to disclose itself. The workmen cease to be free agents; they are compelled to take such goods and at such prices as the master pleases; for, were they to attempt to emancipate themselves from this state of thralldom by leaving their employment, they would be exposed to the risk of prosecution and imprisonment for the debts they had incurred. It is not easy to imagine the extent to which these facilities for defrauding the labouring class were taken advantage of in various districts of the country. In many instances, indeed, the profits made by the shops exceeded those made by the business to which they were contingent; and thousands of workmen, whose wages were nominally 30s. a week, did not really receive, owing to the bad quality and high price of the goods supplied to them, more than 20s., and often not so much.

and undivided county of Kent. Since the charter of brethren. It assistants; but limited in point asible as such. several coats — the master, the following Hospital; the the settling of the free of the city They formerly, or been vested for clearing and for the supply (See BALLAST.) nefactions, &c.; 100. per annum. of the brethren elegant building

the Trinity House It arises from the and ballasts; and the receipts were as

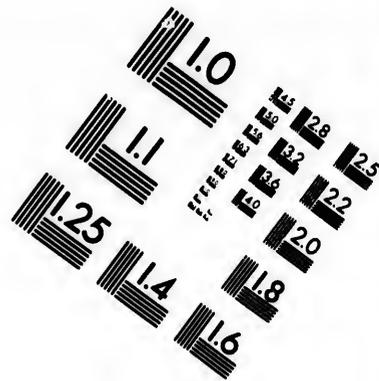
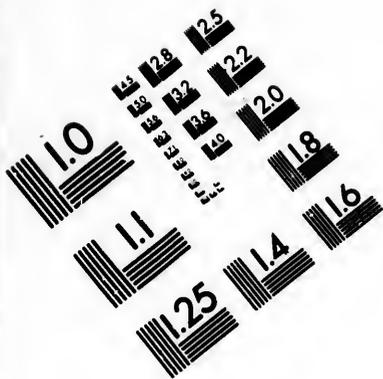
	£	s.	d.
1891	58,211	8	3
1890	4,011	7	7
1889	10,851	7	3
1888	73,173	17	1
1887	1,000	5	4
1886	72,164	11	9

ried seamen, and on as so relieved stated. Still, however, considering the vast as possible, that it Trinity House, and ice to maintain the the poor seamen or arger amount might very one knows that roads and low tolls; hence at sea.

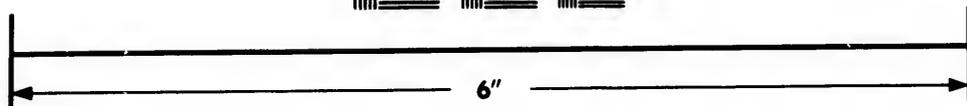
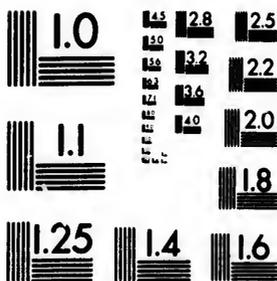
the genus *Holo-* seemed in China, of substance, of a motion, or appearance, and from 7 to 8 is, however, the ny means depend ole by those who water the animal When taken it only preparation

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Abolition of the Truck System. — A system of dealing with the labouring classes, so very susceptible of abuse, and which, in point of fact, was very extensively abused, was loudly and justly complained of. A bill was in consequence introduced for its suppression by Mr. Littleton (now Lord Hatherton), which, after a great deal of opposition and discussion, was passed into a law, 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 32. — (See abstract subjoined.)

Those who opposed this act did so on two grounds; — 1st, that it was improper to interfere at all in a matter of this sort; and, 2d, that the interference would not be effective. The first of these objections does not appear entitled to any weight. In suppressing the truck system, the legislature did nothing that could in anywise regulate or fetter the fair employment of capital; it interfered merely to put down abuse; to carry, in fact, the contract of wages into full effect, by preventing the workman from being defrauded of a portion of the wages he had stipulated for. The presumption no doubt is, in questions between workmen and their employers, that government had better abstain from all interference, and leave it to the parties to adjust their disputes on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. Still, however, this is merely a presumption; and must not be viewed as an absolute rule. Instances have repeatedly occurred where the interference of the legislature to prevent or suppress abuse, on occasions of the sort now alluded to, has been imperiously required, and been highly advantageous. Those who claim its interposition are, indeed, bound to show clearly that it is called for to obviate some gross abuse, or that it will materially redound to the public advantage; and this, we think, was done in the completest manner, by the opponents of the truck system. Regard for the interests of the more respectable part of the masters, as well as for those of the workmen, required its abolition; for, while it continued, those who despised taking an advantage of their dependants were less favourably situated than those who did. It is ludicrous, therefore, in a case of this sort, to set up a cuckoo cry about the "freedom of industry." The good incident to the truck system was in practice found to be vastly overbalanced by the abuses that grew out of it; and as these could not, under the existing law of debtor and creditor, be separately destroyed, the legislature did right in attempting to suppress it altogether.

It was said, indeed, that this would be found to be impracticable; and the manufacturers would enter underhand into partnerships with the keepers of shops, and that the system would really be continued, in another and, perhaps, more objectionable form. This anticipation has, we believe, been in some degree realised; but the system has notwithstanding been in many places abandoned, and is nowhere practised to any thing like the extent to which it was carried previously to the passing of Lord Hatherton's act. It will not, however, be completely rooted out, till all small debts, however they originate, be put beyond the pale of the law. We have already vindicated the expediency of this measure on other grounds — (see *Caxton*); and the influence it would have in effectually destroying whatever is most pernicious in the truck system, is a weighty additional recommendation in its favour. Were all right of action upon debts for less than 50*l.* or 100*l.* taken away, no master would think of acquiring a control over the free agency of his workmen, by getting them in debt to him; and no workman would, under such circumstances, submit to be directed in his choice of shops or goods. The case of the Scotch colliers affords a curious illustration of what is now stated. Down to 1775, these persons were really *adscripti glebe*, or prædial slaves; that is, they and their descendants were bound to perpetual service at the works to which they belonged, — a right to their labour being acquired by any new proprietor to whom the works were sold! The 15 Geo. 3. c. 28. was passed for the emancipation of the colliers from this state of bondage. It, however, failed of practically accomplishing its object; for the masters speedily contrived, by making them advances in anticipation of their wages, to retain them as completely as ever under their control! To obviate this abuse, the 39 Geo. 3. c. 56. was passed; which most properly took from the masters all title to pursue the colliers for loans, unless advanced for the support of the collier and his family during sickness. This act had the desired effect; and the colliers have since been as free as any other class of labourers. — (See edition of the *Wealth of Nations* by the author of this work, p. 172.) In fact, were small debts put beyond the pale of the law, it would not be necessary to interfere directly with the truck system; for it would not then be possible to pervert it to any very injurious purpose.

The following are the principal clauses in the act 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 37., entitled, "An Act to prohibit the Payment in certain Trades, of Wages in Goods, or otherwise than in the Current Coin of the Realm:" —

1. In all contracts hereafter to be made for the hiring of any artificer in any of the trades herein-after enumerated, or for the performance by any artificer of any labour in any of the said trades, the wages of such artificer shall be made payable only in the current coin of this realm, and not otherwise; any contract to the contrary being illegal, null, and void.

2. If such contract contain any stipulations as to the manner in which the wages shall be expended, it is void.

3. Wages must be paid to the workman in coin only. Payment in goods illegal and void.

4. Artificers may recover wages, if not paid in the current coin.

5. In an action brought for wages, no set-off shall be allowed for goods supplied by the employer, or by any shop in which he is interested.

6. No employer shall have any action or suit in equity against his artificer for goods supplied to him on account of wages, or supplied by any shop in which he has an interest.

7. If the artificer, or his wife or children, become chargeable

to the parish, the overseer may recover any wages earned within the 15 previous months and not paid in full.

8. Nothing in this act is to invalidate the payment of wages in bank notes or drafts on any bankers within 15 miles, if a different consent.

9. Any employer of any artificer in any of the trades hereinafter enumerated, who shall, by himself or by the agency of any other person, directly or indirectly state any terms, or make any payment hereby declared illegal, shall for the first offence forfeit a sum not exceeding 10*l.*, nor less than 5*l.*, and for the second offence he shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and be punished by imprisonment, at the discretion of the court, so that the fines shall not in any case exceed 100*l.*

10. Offences shall be inquired of and fines recovered before a Justice, and the amount of the fines shall be in the discretion of such Justice, or in case of misdemeanour, of the court before which the offence may be tried; and in case of a second offence, it shall be sufficient evidence of the previous conviction, if a certificate, signed by the officer having the custody of the record, be produced, stating in a corroborated form the general nature of the offence. But a second or third offence shall only be punished as a first or second offence, if committed within 10 days after the prior conviction; and a fourth or any subsequent offence shall be punished as a third offence. But no second or third offence shall be prosecuted after more than 2 years from the commission of the first offence.

11. Justices may compel the attendance of witnesses, on the request of the parties. Penalty for non-attendance without excuse, and other proof of the service of summonses at the usual place of abode for such persons, 24 hours at the least before the time appointed for appearance, a commitment to some prison within the jurisdiction of the Justice, without bail or mainprize, for not exceeding 14 days, or until such person shall submit to be examined.

Section from 14. to 15. inclusive, regulate proceedings.

19. Act only to apply to the following trades:—Making, casting, converting, or otherwise procuring iron in any shape, branches, or processes thereof; working any mines of coal, ironstone, limestone, salt rock; or working or getting stone, slate, or clay; or making or preparing salt, bricks, tiles, or quarries; or making or manufacturing any kinds of nails, chains, rivets, nails, &c., keys, &c.; or any other article of hardware made of iron or steel, or of iron and steel combined, or of any plated articles of cutlery, or of any goods or wares made of wax, tin, lead, pewter, or other metal, or of any upturned goods or wares whatsoever; or making, spinning, throwing, doubling, twisting, weaving, combing, knitting, bleaching, dyeing, printing, or otherwise preparing any kind of woolen, woollen, yarn, stuff, kersey, linen, fustian, cloth, serge, cotton, leather, fur, hemp, flax, mohair, or silk manufacture whatsoever, or any manufacture whatsoever made of the said last mentioned materials, whether the same be or be not mixed one with another; or making or otherwise preparing, ornamenting, or finishing any glass, porcelain, china, or earthenware whatsoever, or any parts, branches, or processes thereof, or any materials used in any of such last mentioned

TRUFFLES, a sort of vegetable production like a mushroom, formed under ground. A few have been found in Northamptonshire; they are pretty abundant in Italy, the south of France, and several other countries. They are reckoned a great delicacy. The *pîtes aux truffes d'Angoulême* are highly esteemed, and are sent as presents to very distant places.—(Rees's *Cyclopædia*.)

TUNIS, the capital of the regency of the same name, on the northern coast of Africa, the Goletta fort being in lat. 36° 48' 30" N., lon. 10° 25' 45" E. The bay of Tunis is somewhat in the form of a horseshoe. Its western extremity, Cape Carthage, is situated about 4 miles N.E. from the Goletta; and its eastern extremity, Cape Zafra, bears from Cape Carthage E. by S., distant about 13 miles. The bay is about 16 miles deep, and has good anchorage all over, in from 10 to 4 fathoms water. It is exposed to the N. and N. E. gales; but they seldom occasion any damage. Tunisia lies on the west side of the bay, being separated from it by a large lagoon, having, where deepest, about 7 feet water. The port is at the Goletta, or channel, passing through the narrow belt of land separating the lagoon from the sea; the entrance to it is by a canal, in which there is at all times 15 feet water; and ships may use it on paying a fee of 3 dollars a day. It is not, however, much resorted to; all vessels of considerable burden loading and unloading from their moorings in the bay, by means of lighters. The population of Tunis has been variously estimated; and may probably amount to 100,000, being the most populous of any African city after Cairo. The streets are narrow, unvaried, and filthy. The buildings, though of stone, are mean and poor; and the inhabitants present the picture of poverty and oppression. There is a fort at the Goletta, of considerable strength.

Trade.—Notwithstanding the various drawbacks arising out of the nature of the government, and the ignorance and prejudices of the people, commerce and industry are in a more advanced state in Tunis than in any other part of Northern Africa, Egypt excepted. Though subject to droughts, the climate is, on the whole, excellent. The soil still preserves that exuberant fertility for which it was famous in antiquity.

Non quicquid Libyci terit
Fervens arena messibus.—(Senece. in *Thyest.*)

It seldom receives any other manure than that of sometimes burning the weeds and stubble; and yet, in despite of its slovenly culture, the crops are luxuriant; and there is generally a considerable excess of wheat and barley for exportation. Corn is principally shipped at Biserta, about 60 miles W. of Tunis. Olive oil is one of the principal articles of export. It is of various qualities; some good, and some very indifferent. Susa is said to be the best place for its shipment. Soap of an excellent quality is largely manufactured in the regency. It may be had either soft or in wedges. The soft is made of barilla and pure oil, and is much esteemed. The hard soap is made from the lees of oil, and is reckoned

trades; or making or preparing of bone, shrove, silk, or cotton lace, or of lace made of any mixed materials.

21. Not to exceed or any domestic vessel, or servant in household.

22. No one engaged in any of the trades or occupations enumerated, or his father, son, or brother, shall act as a Justice.

23. County magistrates to act in cases where those of towns are disqualified as above.

24. Not to prevent any employer from supplying or contracting to supply to any artificer any medicine of medical assistance, or any food, or any fuel, or any materials, tools, implements, hay, corn, or provender, or such vituals, or for any money advanced to such artificer for any such purpose; but such deduction shall not exceed the true value of such fuel, materials, tools, implements, hay, corn, and provender, if any shall not be in any case made from the wages of such artificer unless the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing and signed by such artificer.

25. Not to prevent any such employer from advancing to any such artificer any money to be by him contributed to any friendly society or bank for savings, or for his relief in sickness, or for the education of any child of such artificer, nor such deducting or contracting to deduct from the wages of such artificer for the education of any such child, provided the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing and signed by such artificer.

26. Workmen, labourers, and other persons in any manner engaged in any employment or operation, in or about the several trades and occupations aforesaid, shall be deemed "artificers;" and all masters, bailiffs, foremen, ranspers, clerks, and other persons employed in the hiring, employment, or superintending of the labour of any such artificers shall be deemed to be "employers;" and any money or other thing had or contracted to be paid, or given as a remuneration for any labour done or to be done, whether within a certain time or to a certain amount, or for a time or an amount uncertain, shall be deemed to be the "wages" of such labour; and any agreement, understanding, device, contrivance, collusion, or arrangement whatsoever on the subject of wages, whether written or oral, whether direct or indirect, to which the employer and artificer are parties, or are assenting, or by which they are mutually bound to each other, or whereby either of them shall have endeavoured to impose an obligation on the other of them, shall be deemed a "contract."

very strong. The principal soap-works are at Susa. Little, however, is prepared on a speculative anticipation of a demand for exportation; but any quantity may be had by contracting for it a few months before the period when it is wanted. A sort of woollen scull-caps are largely exported. They are in extensive demand all over the Levant, and are nowhere made in such perfection as here. Ivory and gold dust, hides, wax, morocco leather, sponge, barilla, coral, dates, ostrich feathers, &c. are among the articles of export.

The imports from Europe consist of woollens, coarse German and Irish linens, cotton stuff, hardware, sugar, coffee, spices, tin plates, lead, alum, dye stuff, wine, silk, Spanish wool, &c. There is very little direct trade between Tunis and England; but a good deal is indirectly carried on, through the intervention of Malta and Gibraltar. Marseilles has probably the largest share of the trade with the regency. In 1830, there entered the different ports of Tunis 194 ships, of the burden of 90,747 tons, exclusive of those engaged in the trade with the other African states and Turkey.

Exclusive of the trade by sea, a considerable trade is carried on between Tunis and the interior of Africa, by means of caravans. These import slaves, gold dust, ivory, feathers, drugs, &c. They carry back cotton stuffs, linens, hardware, spices, cochineal, &c.

Naval and military stores imported into Tunis pay no duty. Other articles pay a duty of 2 per cent. *ad valorem* on a rated tariff. Obstructions arising out of monopolies, &c. are occasionally thrown in the way of exportation; and in general it is necessary, before proceeding to ship, to obtain a *stipendiary*, or licence to that effect, from the bey. That, however, may be, for the most part, procured without much difficulty.

Money.—Accounts are kept in piastres of 18 carobes or 32 sapes. The piastre is worth about 1s. 1d. sterling. The sapor is an imaginary money. The value of foreign coins depends on the state of the exchange.

Weights.—Gold, silver, and pearls are weighed by the ounce of 80 grains; 16 of these ounces make the Tunis pound, 7,778 5/8 Eng. grs. The principal commercial weight is the cistara, containing 100 lbs. or rotoli, being equivalent to 111 1/4 lbs. avoird., or 50 5/16 lbs.

Measures.—The principal corn measure is the catta, divided into 18 whabas; and the whaba into 18 sabs. One catta = 14 Imperial bushels.

The wine measure is the millerotte of Marseilles = 14 1/2 Imp. gallons, or 54 3/8 litres. It is divided into 63 mitras.

The principal oil measure is the metral or metrar = 5-125 wine gallons, or 19 3/4 litres; but it is of different dimensions in different parts of the country; and is longer at Susa, where most of the oil is exported, than at Tunis.

The pic, or principal long measure, is of 3 sorts; viz. the pic woolen measure = 36 3/4 Eng. in.; the pic silk measure = 24 3/4 do., and the pic linen measure = 18 3/4 do.

For further particulars, see that chapter of *Shaw's Travels in Barbary*, &c. (one of the most learned and excellent works of the kind in the English language), that treats of the Kingdom of Tunis; *Murray's Account of Tunis*, passim; *Jackson's Commerce of the Mediterranean*, pp. 55-56; *Kelly's Commerce*, &c.

RUINS OF CARTHAGE. — The famous city of Carthage, one of the greatest emporiums of the ancient world, long the mistress of the sea, and the most formidable enemy of Rome, was situated near the cape which still bears her name, about 10 miles N. E. from Tunis. Such, however, have been the alterations on the coast, that the port of the city, within whose ample expanse whole navies used to ride, is now wholly filled up; antiquaries differ as to its situation; and the sea has in some places receded from 2 to 3 miles from the ruins of the buildings by which it was formerly skirted. The common sewers are still in a very perfect state, as are several cisterns, public reservoirs, and other remains of that sort, with the fragment of a noble aqueduct that supplied the city with water. But besides these and a very few Punic inscriptions that have been dug up, there is nothing left to attest the ancient grandeur and magnificence of the city, or to identify it with the illustrious people by whom it was founded and occupied till its destruction by Scipio Nasica. There are no temples, no triumphal arches, no granite columns or obelisks covered with Phœnician characters, and no ancient entablatures. These have all fallen a sacrifice to hostile attacks, or to the destroying hand of time.

*Nunc passim, vix reliquias, vix nomina servans,
Obtritur, propris non agnoscenda ruina.*

Such mutilated fragments of buildings as still remain are evidently the work of a later age; of those who occupied the city between the period when a colony was sent to it by Augustus, and its final subversion by the Saracens in the 7th century.

TURBITH, or **TURPETH**, the cortical part of the root of a species of *Convolvulus*, brought from different parts of the East Indies. It is a longish root about the thickness of the finger, resinous, heavy, of a brownish hue without and whitish within. It is imported cloven in the middle, lengthwise, and the heart or woody matter taken out. The best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. At first it makes an impression of sweetness on the taste; but, when chewed for some time, betrays a nauseous acrimony. It is used in medicine, but only to a small extent. — (*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

TURBITH (MINERAL), the name given by chemists to the subsulphate of mercury.

TURBOT (*Pleuronectes maximus*), a well-known and highly esteemed species of fish. Very considerable quantities of turbot are now taken on various parts of our coasts, from the Orkneys to the Land's End, yet a preference is given in the London markets to those caught by the Dutch. The latter are said to have sometimes drawn as much as 80,000 in a single year, for turbots sold in London.

Fresh turbots, however taken, or in whatever ship imported, may be imported free of duty. — (See **FISH**.)

TURMERIC, the root of the *Curcuma longa*. It is externally greyish, and internally of a deep lively yellow or saffron colour; very hard; and not unlike, either in figure or size, to ginger. That should be preferred, which is large, new, resinous, difficult to break, and heavy. It is imported from Bengal, Java, China, &c.; but some of a superior quality is said to have been brought from Tobago. Small quantities of it have also been grown in England. It has a somewhat aromatic, and not very agreeable smell; and a bitterish, slightly acrid, but rather warm taste. It used to be in con-

siderable estimation as a medicine; but, in Europe, it is now only used as a dye. It yields a beautiful bright yellow colour; which, however, is extremely fugitive, and no means have hitherto been discovered of fixing it. It is sometimes employed to heighten the yellows made with weld, and to give an orange tint to scarlet; but the shade imparted by the turmeric soon disappears. The Indians use it to colour and season their food. — (*Levis's Mat. Med.*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. i. p. 276.)

The entries of turmeric for consumption amount to about 4,000 cwts.; but as the duty on the article when brought from a foreign possession was reduced in 1842 from 10s. to 5s. per cwt., and when brought from a British possession from 2s. 4d. to 1d. per do., it is probable that the consumption will be materially increased. Its price, duty paid, in London, varies, according to quality, from 10s. to 32s. per cwt.

TURPENTINE (Ger. *Turpentin*; Fr. *Térébenthine*; It. *Tremantina*; Rus. *Shpidar*; Pol. *Terpentyna*). There are several species of turpentine, but all of them possess the same general and chemical properties.

1. *Common Turpentine*, is a resinous juice which exudes from the Scotch fir or wild pine (*Pinus sylvestris*). The trees which are most exposed to the sun, and have the thickest barks, yield it in the greatest abundance. They begin to produce it when about 40 years old. The bark of the tree is wounded and the turpentine flows out in drops, which fall into a hole, or sort of cup, previously dug at the foot of the tree, holding about 1½ pint. It is purified by being exposed to liquify in the sun's rays, in barrels perforated in the bottom, through which it filters. In the U. States, the collection of turpentine is confided chiefly to negroes, each of whom has the charge of from 3,000 to 4,000 trees. The process lasts all the year, although the incisions are not made in the trees till the middle of March, and the flow of the turpentine generally ceases about the end of October. The boxes are emptied 5 or 6 times during the year; and it is estimated that 250 boxes will produce a barrel weighing 320 lbs. Turpentine has a strong, somewhat fragrant odour, and a bitter, disagreeable taste; its consistence is greater than that of honey; its colour dirty yellow; and it is more opaque than the other sorts. We import it almost entirely from the U. States.

2. *Venice Turpentine*, is the produce of the larch (*Pinus Larix*). It is obtained by boring a hole into the heart of the tree about 2 feet from the ground, and fitting into it a small tube through which the turpentine flows into vessels prepared for its reception. It is purified by straining through cloths, or hair sieves. It is more fluid, having the consistence of new honey, a yellowish colour, and is less unpleasant to the smell and taste, than the common turpentine. Genuine Venetian turpentine is principally obtained from the forests of Beye, in Provence; but much of that to be found in the shops comes from America, and is, perhaps, obtained from a different species of fir.

3. *Canadian Balsam*, or *Turpentine*, is obtained from incisions in the bark of the *Pinus Balsamea*, a native of the coldest regions of North America. It is imported in casks, each containing about 1 cwt. It has a strong, not disagreeable odour, and a bitterish taste; is transparent, whitish, and has the consistence of copaiva balsam. — (See **BALSAM**.)

4. *Chios*, or *Cyprus Turpentine*, is obtained from the *Pistacia Terebinthus*, a native of the north of Africa and the south of Europe, and cultivated in Chios and Cyprus. It flows out of incisions made in the bark of the tree in the month of July; and is subsequently strained and purified. It has a fragrant odour, a moderately warm taste, devoid of acrimony or bitterness, and a white or very pale yellow colour; it is about as consistent as thick honey, is clear, transparent, and tenacious. From its comparative high price, Chian turpentine is seldom procured genuine, being for the most part adulterated either with Venetian or common turpentine. The different species of turpentine may be dissolved in rectified spirit, or pure alcohol; and, by distillation, they all give similar oils, which, from their being distilled (and not from any resemblance to alcohol, or spirits properly so called), are vulgarly termed spirit of turpentine. If the distillation be performed with water, the produce is an essential oil, the common spirit of turpentine; and if the distillation be carried on in a *retort*, without water, the product is more volatile and pungent, — a concentrated oil, as it were, — and is called the *etheral spirit of turpentine*. The residuum that is left, in both cases, is a brownish resinous mass, brittle, capable of being melted, highly inflammable, insoluble in water, but mixing freely with oils: it is the common rosin of commerce. — (*Lib. of Entert. Knowledge, Vegetable Substances*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The entries of turpentine for home consumption in 1841 and 1842 amounted, at an average, to 265,986 cwt. a year. It is entirely imported from the U. States.

TURPENTINE, OIL OF (Ger. *Turpentinöl*; Fr. *Huile de raze*, *Huile de térébenthine*; It. *Acqua di rassa*; Sp. *Aguarra*), the essential oil drawn from turpentine by distillation. There are two sorts of this oil: the best, red; and the second, white. It is very extensively used by house painters, and in the manufacture of varnish, &c. The distillers have been charged with using it in the preparation of gin. Oil of turpentine is very often adulterated.

TURQUOISE (Ger. *Türkis*; Fr. *Turquoise*; It. *Turchina*; Sp. *Turquesa*), a precious stone in considerable estimation. Its colour, which is its principal recommendation, is a beautiful celestial blue, which migrates into pale blue, and is sometimes tinged with green. Specific gravity, 3.127. It is destitute of lustre, opaque, and does not admit of a very high polish. It is much worn in necklaces, and every part of ornamental jewellery, from the size of a pin's head to that of an almond: it contrasts beautifully with brilliants, or pearls, set in fine gold, and appears to most advantage when cut spheroidal. —(*Musee on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 129.)

Real turquoises are exclusively furnished by Persia. The mines whence they are obtained are situated near Nishapore. They are the property of the Crown, and are farmed to the highest bidder. They bring a rent of from 2,000l. to 2,700l. a year. —(*Fraser's Travels on the Shores of the Caspian*, pp. 343—347.)

TUTENAG, the name given in commercial language to the zinc or spelter of China. —(See **ZINC**.) This commodity used to be smuggled from China (the exportation of unwrought metals from that empire being prohibited) to Hindostan, the Malay Archipelago, and neighbouring countries, to the amount, it is supposed, of about 50,000 cwt. a year. In 1820, the British free traders introduced German spelter or zinc for the first time into the Indian market. In 1826, the importation of tutenag from China into Calcutta ceased: and it has now been totally superseded throughout India by spelter. Of this latter commodity there were exported from Great Britain, in 1840, to the East India Company's territories and Ceylon, 50,585 cwts., besides the quantities furnished by Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and other continental ports.

TYRE, the principal city of Phœnicia, and the most celebrated emporium of the ancient world. This famous city was situated on the S. E. coast of the Mediterranean, where the inconsiderable town of Tsour now stands, in lat. 33° 17' N., lon. 35° 14' 35" E. The trade that is at present carried on at Tsour is too trifling to deserve notice; but as this work is intended to give some account, however imperfect, of the revolutions in the channels of commercial enterprise, we may, perhaps, be excused for submitting a few statements with respect to the commerce carried on by so renowned a people as the Tyrians.

Tyre was founded by a colony from Sidon, the most ancient of the Phœnician cities. The date of this event is not certainly known, but Larcher supposes it to have been 1,690 years before the Christian æra. —(*Chronologie d'Hérodote*, cap. il. p. 131.) It is singular, that while Homer mentions Sidon, he takes no notice of Tyre, whose glory speedily eclipsed that of the mother city; but this is no conclusive proof that the latter was not then a considerable emporium. The prophets Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel, who flourished from 700 to 600 years before Christ, represent Tyre as a city of unrivalled wealth, whose "merchants were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth." Originally, the city was built on the main land: but having been besieged for a lengthened period by the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar, the inhabitants conveyed themselves and their goods to an island at a little distance, where a new city was founded, which enjoyed an increased degree of celebrity and commercial prosperity. The old city was, on that account, entitled Palætyre, and the other simply Tyre. The new city continued to flourish, extending its colonies and its commerce on all sides, till it was attacked by Alexander the Great. The resistance made by the Tyrians to that conqueror showed that they had not been enervated by luxury, and that their martial virtues were nowise inferior to their commercial skill and enterprise. The overthrow of the Persian empire was effected with less difficulty than the capture of this single city. The victor had not magnanimity to treat the vanquished as their heroic conduct deserved. In despite, however, of the cruelties inflicted on the city, she rose again to considerable eminence. But the foundation of Alexandria, by diverting the commerce that had formerly centered at Tyre into a new channel, gave her an irreparable blow; and she gradually declined till, consistently with the denunciation of the prophet, her palaces have been levelled with the dust, and she has become "a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea."

Commerce, Colonies, &c. of Tyre. — Phœnicia was one of the smallest countries of antiquity. It occupied that part of the Syrian coast which stretches from Aradus (the modern Rouad) on the north, to a little below Tyre on the south, a distance of about 50 leagues. Its breadth was much less considerable, being for the most part bounded by Mount Libanus to the east, and Mount Carmel on the south. The surface of this narrow tract was generally rugged and mountainous; and the soil in the valleys, though moderately fertile, did not afford sufficient supplies of food to feed the population. Libanus and its dependent ridges were, however, covered with timber suitable for ship building; and besides Tyre and Sidon, Phœnicia possessed the ports of Tripoli, Byblos, Berytus, &c. In this situation, occupying a country unable to supply them with sufficient quantities of corn, hemmed in by mountains, and by powerful and warlike neighbours, on the one hand, and having, on the other, the wide expanse of the Mediterranean, studded with islands, and surrounded by fertile countries, to invite the

enterprise of her citizens, they were naturally led to engage in maritime and commercial adventures; and became the boldest and most experienced mariners, and the greatest discoverers, of ancient times.

From the remotest antiquity, a considerable trade seems to have been carried on between the Eastern and Western worlds. The spices, drugs, precious stones, and other valuable products of Arabia and India, have always been highly esteemed in Europe, and have been exchanged for the gold and silver, the tin, wines, &c. of the latter. At the first dawn of authentic history, we find Phœnicia the principal centre of this commerce. Her inhabitants are designated in the early sacred writings by the name of Canaanites, — a term which, in the language of the East, means merchants. The products of Arabia, India, Persia, &c. were originally conveyed to her by companies of travelling merchants, or caravans; which seem to have been constituted in the same way, and to have performed exactly the same part in the commerce of the East, in the days of Jacob, that they do at present. — (*Gen.* xxxvii. 25, &c.) At a later period, however, in the reigns of David and Solomon, the Phœnicians, having formed an alliance with the Hebrews, acquired the ports of Elath and Esion-geber, at the north-east extremity of the Red Sea. Here they fitted out fleets, which traded with the ports on that sea, and probably with those of southern Arabia, the west coast of India, and Ethiopia. The ships are said to have visited Ophir; and a great deal of erudition has been expended in attempting to determine the exact situation of that emporium or country. We agree, however, with Heeren, in thinking that it was not the name of any particular place; but that it was a sort of general designation given to the coasts of Arabia, India, and Africa, bordering on the Indian Ocean; somewhat in the same loose way as we now use the terms East and West Indies. — (See the chapter on the *Navigation and Commerce of the Phœnicians*, in the translation of Heeren's work.)

The distance of the Red Sea from Tyre being very considerable, the conveyance of goods from the one to the other by land must have been tedious and expensive. To lessen this inconvenience, the Tyrians, shortly after they got possession of Elath and Esion-geber, seized upon Rhinoculura, the port in the Mediterranean nearest to the Red Sea. The products of Arabia, India, &c., being carried hither by the most expeditious route, were then put on board ships, and conveyed by a brief and easy voyage to Tyre. If we except the transit by Egypt, this was the shortest and most direct, and for that reason, no doubt, the cheapest, channel by which the commerce between Southern Asia and Europe could then be conducted. But it is not believed that the Phœnicians possessed any permanent footing on the Red Sea after the death of Solomon. The want of it does not, however, seem to have sensibly affected their trade; and Tyre continued, till the foundation of Alexandria, to be the grand emporium for Eastern products, with which it was abundantly supplied by caravans from Arabia, the bottom of the Persian Gulph, and from Babylon, by way of Palmyra.

The commerce of the Phœnicians with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean was still more extensive and valuable. At an early period, they established settlements in Cyprus and Rhodes. The former was a very valuable acquisition, from its proximity, the number of its ports, its fertility, and the variety of its vegetable and mineral productions. Having passed successively into Greece, Italy, and Sardinia, they proceeded to explore the southern shores of France and Spain, and the northern shores of Africa. They afterwards adventured upon the Atlantic; and were the first people whose flag was displayed beyond the pillars of Hercules.*

Of the colonies of Tyre, Gades, now Cadiz, was one of the most ancient and important. It is supposed by M. de St. Croix to have originally been distinguished by the name of Tartessus or Tarabish, mentioned in the sacred writings. — (*De l'Etat et du Sort des Anciennes Colonies*, p. 14.) Heeren, on the other hand, contends, as in the case of Ophir, that by Tarabish is to be understood the whole southern part of Spain, which was early occupied and settled by Phœnician colonists. — (See also *Huet, Commerce des Anciens*, cap. 8.) At all events, however, it is certain that Cadiz early became the centre of a commerce that extended all along the coasts of Europe as far as Britain, and perhaps the Baltic. There can be no doubt that by the Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, visited by the Phœnicians, are to be understood the Scilly Islands and Cornwall. — (See *Tin*.) The navigation of the Phœnicians, probably, also, extended a considerable way along the western coast of Africa; of this, however, no details have reached us.

But, of all the colonies founded by Tyre, Carthage has been by far the most celebrated. It was at first only a simple factory; but was materially increased by the arrival of a large body of colonists, forced by dissensions at home to leave their native land, about 885 years before Christ. — (*St. Croix*, p. 20.) Imbued with the enterprising mercantile spirit of their ancestors, the Carthaginians rose, in no very long period, to the highest eminence as a naval and commercial state. The settlements founded by the Phœnicians in Africa, Spain, Sicily, &c. gradually fell into their hands; and after

* Mons Calpe and Mons Abyla, the Gibraltar and Ceuta of modern times.

the destruction of Tyre by Alexander, Carthage engrossed a large share of the commerce of which it had previously been the centre. The subsequent history of Carthage, and the misfortunes by which she was overwhelmed, are well known. We shall only, therefore, observe, that commerce, instead of being, as some shallow theorists have imagined, the cause of her decline, was the real source of her power and greatness; the means by which she was enabled to wage a lengthened, doubtful, and desperate contest with Rome herself for the empire of the world.

The commerce and navigation of Tyre probably attained their maximum from 650 to 550 years before Christ. At that period the Tyrians were the factors and merchants of the civilised world; and they enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs. The prophet Ezekiel (chap. xxvii.) has described in magnificent terms the glory of Tyre; and has enumerated several of the most valuable productions found in her markets, and the countries whence they were brought. The fir trees of Senir (Hermon), the cedars of Lebanon, the oaks of Beahan (the country to the east of Galilee), the ivory of the Indies, the fine linen of Egypt, and the purple and hyacinth of the isles of Elishah (Peloponnesus), are specified among the articles used for her ships. The inhabitants of Sidon, Arvad (Aradus), Gebel (Byblos), served her as mariners and carpenters. Gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, and vessels of brass; slaves, horses, mules, sheep, and goats; pearls, precious stones, and coral; wheat, balm, honey, oil, spices, and gums; wine, wool, and silk; are mentioned as being brought into the port of Tyre by sea, or to its markets by land, from Syria, Arabia, Damascus, Greece, Tarsishah, and other places, the exact site of which it is difficult to determine.*

Such, according to the inspired writer, was Tyre, the "Queen of the waters" before she was besieged by Nebuchadnezzar. But, as has been already remarked, the result of that siege did not affect her trade, which was as successfully and advantageously carried on from the new city as from the old. Inasmuch, however, as Carthage soon after began to rival her as a maritime and mercantile state, this may, perhaps, be considered as the era of her greatest celebrity.

It would not be easy to over-rate the beneficial influence of that extensive commerce from which the Phœnicians derived such immense wealth. It inspired the people with whom they traded with new wants and desires, at the same time that it gave them the means of gratifying them. It everywhere gave fresh life to industry, and a new and powerful stimulus to invention. The rude uncivilised inhabitants of Greece, Spain, and Northern Africa acquired some knowledge of the arts and sciences practised by the Phœnicians; and the advantages of which they were found to be productive secured their gradual though slow advancement.

Nor were the Phœnicians celebrated only for their wealth, and the extent of their commerce and navigation. Their fame, and their right to be classed amongst those who have conferred the greatest benefits on mankind, rest on a still more unassailable foundation. Antiquity is unanimous in ascribing to them the invention and practice of all those arts, sciences, and contrivances that facilitate the prosecution of commercial undertakings. They are held to be the inventors of arithmetic, weights and measures, of money, of the art of keeping accounts, and, in short, of every thing that belongs to the business of a counting-house. They were also famous for the invention of ship building and navigation; for the discovery of glass—(See GLASS); for their manufactures of fine linen and tapestry; for their skill in architecture, and in the art of working metals and ivory; and still more for the incomparable splendour and beauty of their purple dye.—(See the learned and invaluable work of the President de Gouguet, *Sur L'Origine des Loix*, &c. Eng. trans. vol. i. p. 296., and vol. ii. pp. 95—100.; see also the chapter of Heeren on the *Manufactures and Land Commerce of the Phœnicians*.)

But the invention and dissemination of these highly useful arts form but a part of what the people of Europe owe to the Phœnicians. It is not possible to say in what degree the religion of the Greeks was borrowed from theirs; but that it was to a pretty large extent seems abundantly certain. Hercules, under the name of Melcarthus, was the tutelary deity of Tyre; and his expeditions along the shores of the Mediterranean, and to the straits connecting it with the ocean, seem to be merely a poetical representation of the progress of the Phœnician navigators, who introduced arts and civilisation, and established the worship of Hercules, wherever they went. The temple erected in honour of the god at Gades was long regarded with peculiar veneration.

The Greeks were, however, indebted to the Phœnicians, not merely for the rudiments of civilisation, but for the great instrument of its future progress—the gift of letters. No fact in ancient history is better established than that a knowledge of alpha-

* There is, in Dr. Vincent's *Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients in the Indian Ocean* (vol. ii. pp. 524—525.), an elaborate and (like the other parts of that work) prolific commentary on this chapter of Ezekiel, in which most of the names of the things and places mentioned are satisfactorily explained.—(See also Heeren on the *L'Asiaticans*, cap. iv.)

hetic writing was first carried to Greece by Phœnician adventurers: and it may be safely affirmed, that this was the greatest boon any people ever received at the hands of another.

Before quitting this subject, we may briefly advert to the statement of Herodotus with respect to the circumnavigation of Africa by Phœnician sailors. The venerable father of history mentions, that a fleet fitted out by Necho king of Egypt, but manned and commanded by Phœnicians, took its departure from a port on the Red Sea, at an epoch which is believed to correspond with the year 604 before the Christian era, and that, keeping always to the right, they doubled the southern promontory of Africa; and returned, after a voyage of 3 years, to Egypt, by the Pillars of Hercules.—(Herod. lib. iv. § 42.) Herodotus further mentions, that they related that, in sailing round Africa, they had the sun on their right hand, or to the north,—a circumstance which he frankly acknowledges seemed incredible to him, but which, as every one is now aware, must have been the case if the voyage was actually performed.

Many learned and able writers, and particularly Gosselin (*Recherches sur la Géographie Systématique et Positive des Anciens*, tome i. pp. 204—217.), have treated this account as fabulous. But the objections of Gosselin have been successfully answered in an elaborate note by Larcher (*Herodote*, tome iii. pp. 458—464. ed. 1802.; and Major Rennell has sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the voyage (*Geography of Herodotus*, p. 682, &c.). Without entering upon this discussion, we may observe, that not one of those who question the authenticity of the account given by Herodotus, presumes to doubt that the Phœnicians braved the boisterous seas on the coasts of Spain, Gaul, and Britain; and that they had, partially at least, explored the Indian Ocean. But the ships and seamen that did this much, might, undoubtedly, under favourable circumstances, double the Cape of Good Hope. The relation of Herodotus has, besides, such an appearance of good faith; and the circumstance, which he doubts, of the navigators having the sun on the right, affords so strong a confirmation of its truth; that there really seems no reasonable ground for doubting that the Phœnicians preceded, by 2,000 years, Vasco de Gama in his perilous enterprise.

Present State of Syria.—The principal modern ports on the coast of Syria are Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, Beyrout, Seyde, and Acra. The commerce which they carry on is but inconsiderable. This, however, is not owing to the badness of the ports, the unsuitableness of the country, or to any natural cause, but wholly to long continued oppression and misgovernment. There is a passage in the dedication to Sandys' *Travels*, that describes the state of Syria, Asia Minor, Egypt, &c. about two centuries ago, with a force and eloquence which it is not very likely will soon be surpassed:—

“Those countries, once so glorious and famous for their happy estate, are now, through vice and ingratitude, become the most deplored spectacles of extreme misery; the wild beasts of mankind having broken in upon them and rooted out all civility, and the pride of a sterner and barbarous tyrant possessing the thrones of ancient and just dominion; who, aiming only at the height of greatness and sensuality, hath in tract of time reduced so great and goodly a part of the world, to that lamentable distresse and servitude under which (to the astonishment of the understanding beholders) it now faints and groveth. Those rich lands at this present remain waste and overgrown with bushes, receptacles of wild beasts, of thieves and murderers; large territories dispeopled or thinly inhabited; goodly cities made desolate; sumptuous buildings become ruins; glorious temples either subverted, or prostituted to impiety; true religion discountenanced and oppressed; all nobility extinguished; no light of learning permitted, nor virtue cherished: violence and rapine insulting over all, and leaving no security save to an abject mind and unlookt on poverty.”

Those who compare this beautiful passage with the authentic statements of Volney—incomparably the best of the modern travellers who have visited the countries referred to—will find that it continues to be as accurate as it is eloquent.

U. V.

VALONIA, a species of acorn, forming a very considerable article of export from the Morea and the Levant. The more substance there is in the husk, or cup of the acorn, the better. It is of a bright drab colour, which it preserves so long as it is kept dry; any dampness injures it; as it then turns black, and loses both its strength and value. It is principally used by tanners, and is always in demand. Though a very bulky article, it is uniformly bought and sold by weight. A ship can only take a small proportion of her registered tonnage of valonia, so that its freight per ton is always high.

Of 163,983 cwts. of valonia imported in 1840, 143,095 cwts. were brought from Turkey, 15,196 cwts. from Italy, and the residue from Greece and the Ionian islands. The entries for home consumption amounted, during the 3 years ending with 1842, to about 5,200 tons, or 164,000 cwt. a year. The duty was reduced in 1843 from 20s. to 5s. a ton. The price of valonia in the London market in 1845 varied from 18s. to 22s. a ton.

VALPARAISO, the principal sea-port of Chili, in lat. $33^{\circ} 1' 48''$ S., lon. $71^{\circ} 31' 8''$ W. Population perhaps 10,000 or 12,000. The water in the bay is deep, and it affords a secure anchorage, except during northerly gales, to the violence of which it is exposed; but as the holding ground is good, and the pull of the anchor against a steep hill, accidents seldom occur to ships properly found in anchors and cables. There is no mole or jetty; but the water close to the shore is so deep, that it is customary for the smaller class of vessels to carry out an anchor to the northward, and to moor the ship with the stern anchors by another cable made fast to the shore. Large ships lie a little further off, and load and unload by means of lighters. The best shelter is in that part called the Fisherman's Bay, lying between the castle and fort St. Antonio, where, close to a clear shingle beach, there is 9 fathoms water. In the very worst weather, a landing may be effected in this part of the bay. — (See *Miers's Chili and La Plata*, i. 440., where there is a plan of Valparaiso.) The harbours of Valdivia and Concepcion are much superior to that of Valparaiso; the former being, indeed, not only the best in Chili, but second to few in any part of the world. But Valparaiso, being near the capital, Santiago, and being the central *dépot*, for the resources of the province, is most frequented. The town is inconveniently situated, at the extremity of a mountainous ridge; most of the houses being built either upon its acclivity or in its breaches. Large quantities of corn and other articles of provision are shipped here for Callao and Panama, but principally for the former. Exclusive of wheat, the principal articles of export are tallow and hides, copper, the precious metals, indigo, wool, sarsaparilla, &c. It appears from the accounts laid before the reader in another article — (see *anté*, p. 1003.) — that the productiveness of the Chili mines has materially increased during the last few years, and that the average produce of those of gold and silver may now be taken at about 2,500,000 dol. or 500,000*l.* a year. There is a great want of capital in the country; and the anarchy and insecurity that have prevailed since the commencement of the revolutionary war have been very unfavourable to all sorts of industry. There can, however, be no doubt that Chili has already gained considerably, and that she will every day gain more, by her emancipation from the yoke of Old Spain. Our exports to this distant country amount to above 1,000,000*l.* a year; and the probability is that they will become still more extensive.

A country with a scanty population which imports so largely cannot be in the wretched condition that Mr. Miers and other disappointed travellers would have us to believe. The candour and good sense of M. de la Perouse are above all question; and every one who compares his remarks on the condition of Chili with what has now been stated, must see that its commerce, at least, has gained prodigiously by the revolution.

“The influence of the government is in constant opposition to that of the climate. The system of prohibition exists at Chili in its fullest extent. This kingdom, of which the productions would, if increased to their maximum, supply all Europe; whose wool would be sufficient for the manufactures of France and England; and whose herds, converted into salt provisions, would produce a vast revenue; — this kingdom, alas! has no commerce. Four or five small vessels bring, every year, from Lima, tobacco, sugar, and some articles of European manufacture, which the miserable inhabitants can obtain only at second or third hand, after they have been charged with heavy customs duties at Cadiz, at Lima, and lastly, at their arrival in Chili; in exchange they give their tallow, hides, some deals, and their wheat, which, however, is at so low a price, that the cultivator has no inducement to extend his tillage. Thus Chili, with all its gold, and articles of exchange, can scarcely procure sugars, tobacco, stuffs, linens, cambrics, and hardware, necessary to the ordinary wants of life.” — (*Perouse's Voyage*, vol. i. p. 50. Eng. ed.)

Instead, however, of 4 or 5 small ships from Lima, in 1842, no fewer than 214 British ships, of the burden of 61,535 tons, entered Valparaiso only, exclusive of those at the other ports, and exclusive also of a great number of American, French, and other ships. All sorts of European goods are carried direct to Chili, and are admitted at reasonable duties. The advantages resulting from this extensive intercourse with foreigners, and from the settlement of English adventurers in the country, have been already immense, and will every day become more visible. It was impossible, considering the ignorance of the mass of the people, that the old system of tyranny and superstition could be pulled to pieces without a good deal of violence and mischief; but the foundations of a better order of things have been laid; nor can there be a doubt that Chili is destined to become an opulent and a flourishing country.

Monies, Weights, and Measures of Chili are the same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ. The quintal of 4 arrobas, or 100 lbs., = 101.44 lbs. avoirdupois. The fanega, or principal corn measure, contains 2,429 English cubic inches, and is therefore = 1.69 Winchester bushels. Hence 5 fanegas = 1 Winchester quarter very nearly. The vara, or measure of length, = 33.864 Eng. inches.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.

1377

Gross Returns of British and Foreign Trade at the Port of Valparaiso in Chili during the Year ending 31st December, 1843.

Nation.	Arrived.			Departed.		
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Crews.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Crews.
British	214	21,353	3,664	200	59,727	3,628
Chilian	204	26,031	2,771	213	30,920	2,134
Peruvian	28	4,337	264	26	4,194	213
Ecuadorian	2	1,820	74	2	1,172	28
Mexican	2	228	21	2	278	28
Spanish	12	5,860	199	10	5,086	162
Greece or Polynesian	2	26	2	1	26	2
United States of America	20	17,198	994	47	15,983	911
French	24	14,260	367	26	12,205	268
Swedish	2	210	26	2	210	26
Hamburg	17	4,120	226	15	2,795	212
Lubeck	2	246	15	1	146	13
Denish	17	4,124	210	18	4,224	220
Swedish	17	5,820	255	17	5,628	255
Norwegian	2	170	26	2	170	26
Russian	2	1,227	103	7	1,244	92
Sardinian	2	1,420	23	7	1,240	100
Tuscan	2	160	11	1	160	11
American	2	1,124	41	2	1,068	40
Prussian	2	208	21	2	208	21
Danish	2	748	54	2	295	16
Total	651	126,783	9,297	647	149,865	9,160

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, or TASMANIA, a large island belonging to Great Britain, forming part of Australia, lying between 41° 20' and 43° 30' S. lat., and 144° 40' and 148° 20' W. lon. It is supposed to contain about 27,000 square miles. — (See the *Mercator's Chart* prefixed to this work.)

This land was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, in 1642, and was named in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, at that time governor-general of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies; but it is now frequently called Tasmania, from its discoverer. Previously to 1798, it was supposed to form part of New Holland, but it was then ascertained to be an island. It was taken possession of by the British in 1803; and in 1804 Hobart Town, the capital, was founded.

The surface is generally hilly and mountainous; but, though none of the land be of the first quality, there are several moderately fertile plains, and a good deal of the hilly ground is susceptible of being cultivated. On the whole, however, it is not supposed that more than about a third part of the entire surface of the island can be considered arable; but about a third more may be advantageously used as sheep pasture. As compared with New Holland, it is well watered. The climate, though variable, is, generally speaking, good, and suitable for European constitutions; and it is not exposed to the tremendous droughts that occasion so much mischief in New South Wales. Wheat is raised in considerable quantities. Wool, however, is at present the staple produce of the colony.

Van Diemen's Land, like New South Wales, was originally intended to serve as a penal colony, and convicts are still sent to it; latterly, however, it has received a very considerable number of free settlers. In 1841, the total population of the island, exclusive of aborigines, was as follows:—

Males	19,762	Males	14,118
Females	14,453	Females	2,275
Military	991		
Females	243		
	33,059	Grand total	16,391
			51,450

The prosperity of the colony was formerly a good deal retarded by the enormities committed by a banditti of runaway convicts, known by the name of bush-rangers; and more recently by the hostilities of the natives. Vigorous measures were, however, adopted for the suppression of such outrages, by confining the natives within a limited district; and these, we are glad to say, appear to have been effectual for their object.

Hobart Town is situated in the southern part of the island, on the west side of the river Derwent, near its junction with Storm Bay, in lat. 42° 54' S., lon. 147° 28' E. The water is deep, and the anchorage good. A jetty has been constructed, accessible to the largest ships. The situation appears to have been very well chosen; and the town has been judiciously laid out. In 1838, the district of Hobart Town contained 14,382 inhabitants, of whom 3,553 were convicts. The houses are supposed to be worth, at an average, 50*l.* a year. There are several printing establishments in the town, and various newspapers, some of them very well conducted. There is also a Book Society, a Mechanics' Institute, and several respectable schools and academies. The Van Diemen's Land Banking Company, the Derwent Bank, and the Commercial Bank, have each offices in Hobart Town. They are joint stock companies.

Launceston, the second town in the island, is situated in the northern part, at the head

of the navigable river Tamar, which falls into Port Dalrymple. Its population may amount to about 10,000. It has a considerable trade with Sydney and Hobart Town, and with England.

Trade of Van Diemen's Land. — Hardware, haberdashery, apparel, cotton and linen goods, woollens, malt liquor, spirits, wine, &c. form the principal articles of import.

Here, as in New South Wales, wool forms by far the most important article of export; next to it is whale oil, and then follows wheat and flour, live stock, timber, whalebone, mimoso bark, and various less important articles. The usual excess of the imports over the exports is accounted for here, as at Sydney, by the remittances to defray the cost of the convict establishment.

Account of the Import and Export Trade of Van Diemen's Land in 1839, 1840, and 1841.

Countries from and to which Imports and Exports were made.	Value of Imports.			Value of Exports.		
	1839.	1840.	1841.	1839.	1840.	1841.
Great Britain	572,491	737,951	685,874	898,369	334,158	397,992
British colonies	159,961	317,633	126,144	549,168	351,921	371,999
United States of America	8,613	6,496	5,277	2,600	1,630	80
Foreign states	17,282	27,178	24,261	-	-	660
	748,347	989,258	841,556	1,448,137	687,709	870,651
	1839.	1840.	1841.			
Shipping towards	79,363	85,081	84,214			
Ditto outwards	77,268	86,701	85,201			

Account of Imports into and Exports from Van Diemen's Land in 1841, distinguishing those from and to the U. Kingdom.

Principal Articles.	From the United Kingdom.	From other Countries.	Total.	Principal Articles.	From the United Kingdom.	From other Countries.	Total.
Imports.				Exports — continued.			
Apparel	69,886	3,388	73,274	Woolens and cloths	68,134	2,060	70,194
Beef and pork	29,079	11,446	40,525	All other articles	103,528	61,361	164,889
Broads and shoes	11,464	95	11,559				
Butter and cheese	16,375	1,784	18,159	Total imports	685,875	166,106	851,981
Canvas and bagging	15,557	3,870	19,427				
Cottons and linens	36,154	283	36,437				
Glass and earthenware	26,460	536	27,000				
Hardware	59,092	1,647	60,739				
Hard ware	80,690	5,816	86,506				
Iron and copper	16,140	88	16,228				
Law stock	530	44,403	44,933				
Malt liquor	26,711	4,588	31,299				
Diemen's ware	26,108	4,889	31,043				
Milk and military	15,000	295	15,295				
Soap	15,849	480	16,329				
Stationery	22,780	864	23,644				
Spirits, viz. brandy	18,213	1,781	20,004				
Wine	6,555	488	7,043				
Tobacco	16,533	1,399	17,932				
Wine	13,901	8,513	22,414				
	21,290	9,683	31,013				
				Exports.			
				Principal Articles.	To the U. Kingdom.	To other Countries.	Total.
				Flour	-	54,930	54,930
				Wheat	-	80,301	80,301
				Live stock	-	94,943	94,943
				Oil	-	11,411	11,411
				Iron	81,779	-	81,779
				Timber	80,000	-	80,000
				Whalebone	15,218	80	15,298
				Wool	238,815	1,036	239,851
				All other articles	6,238	161,171	167,409
				Total exports	537,829	279,659	817,488

The increase in the production of wool has been quite as rapid here as in N. S. Wales. The stock of sheep, which in 1839 amounted to 558,699 head, had, in 1839, increased to 1,914,000 head; and while the imports of wool from Van Diemen's Land into the U. Kingdom in 1830 did not exceed 908,979 lbs., they amounted in 1842 to 3,491,685 lbs. | Latterly, however, this colony has been involved in the same distress and difficulty that have occasioned such severe suffering in New South Wales. Owing to a variety of circumstances, of which the most important, perhaps, was the increase of the issues of bank paper and the facility of obtaining discounts, the prices of most descriptions of insular property increased rapidly down to 1836, and a mania for speculative purchases became all but universal. Land which in 1834 would not have realised more than from 5s. to 10s. an acre, was, in 1836, eagerly bought up at prices ranging from 40s. to 80s.; and sheep and cattle, which in the former year might have been purchased respectively for 5s. and 40s., could not in the latter be bought for less than 2l. and 12l. But latterly all this baseless fabric has fallen to pieces; and the prices of most articles have reverted to the level of 1834, or even lower, occasioning, by their fall, the ruin of a vast number of persons. The sale of crown lands has almost entirely ceased; and the prices of lands belonging to private parties are little better than nominal. But, though severe, in the meantime, a crisis of this sort affects no real source of wealth, and cannot, therefore, be of long duration. But the lesson it affords should not be thrown away; and the colonists would do well to remember that a rapid rise of prices and great facilities of obtaining discounts, how desirable soever in the meantime, are the sure precursors of glutted and falling markets, bankruptcy, and ruin. The upset price of land in this colony is fixed at the same extravagant rate as in New South Wales; and has had, and no doubt will continue to have, the same pernicious consequences.

CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS, RATES OF PILOTAGE, HARBOUR DUES, ETC.

Custom-house Regulations.		Duties.	
(Hours for public business from 10 to 3 daily, excepting on Saturday, from 10 to 12.)	\$ s. d.	On brandy, per gallon	0 10 0
Entry of a British vessel, not colonial, with merchandise	1 10 0	On Holland and Geneva, per gallon	0 10 0
Entry of any foreign vessel	3 0 0	On rum, per gallon, the produce of the West Indian colonies	0 7 6
Permit to trade	1 1 0	On British gin, per gallon	0 7 6
Dues on each bond	0 10 0	On tobacco, per lb.	0 1 8
Dues on port clearance and fee	0 7 6	The duty on all spirits, either British or foreign, is increased in proportion to strength, if over proof, according to Britain's hydrometer.	
Transports are free from port charges.		On all merchandise of foreign produce or manufacture, an ad valorem duty of 5 per cent. on importation, payable by the act of Geo. 3. c. 63., with the exception of wine, which is subject to a duty of 15 per cent. Goods of British manufacture are not subjected to any duty.	
Colonial Passes. — Entry, and clearance to the ports	0 4 0	Wine, &c. — On landing each cask, bale, or package	0 5 0
Fee on ditto	0 2 0	On landing iron, per ton	0 9 0
Entry and clearance to the factory or the out-lettlement	0 10 0	On landing salt, per ton	0 3 0
Fee on ditto	0 2 0		
Clearance of an open boat	0 1 0		
Annual licence for a boat	0 2 6		

population may
Hobart Town,
otton and linen
of import.

port; next to it to
bark, and various
used for here, as at

0, and 1841.

Value of Exports.	
1840.	1841.
£ 351,136	£ 257,268
501,221	371,939
1,630	660
867,107	630,201
1841.	
Value.	
84,314	
85,501	

Shipping those from and

From other Countries.	Total.
£ 1,900	£ 41,084
01,361	164,597
166,106	351,081

To other Countries.	Total.
£ 54,930	£ 54,930
30,561	30,561
34,543	34,543
1,311	35,610
10,375	16,675
80	16,755
1,026	35,633
141,171	148,009
278,659	630,201

Wales. The stock of
head; and while the
ceed 993,979 lbs., they
plied in the same dis-
Owing to a variety
uses of bank paper and
berry increased rapidly
Land which in 1824
ly bought up at prices
have been purchased
1 1/2. But latterly, all
ed to the level of 1824,
the sale of crown lands
are little better than
source of wealth, and
brown away; and the
of obtaining discount,
markets, bankruptcy,
rate as in New South
sequences.

Wales, &c.	£ s. d.
Value of the West	0 10 0
	0 10 0
	0 7 8
	0 7 6
	0 1 6

er. British or foreign, in
of over 1000, according to

Woolens or manufactures, on importation, agreeably to the exception of wine, which is not.	Goods of British manufac- ture.	£ s. d.
		0 9 0
		0 9 0
		0 3 0

On landing tobacco, per 1,000 lbs. 0 0 0
On shipping each cask, bottle, or package 0 0 0
On shipping salt, per ton 0 0 0
On shipping salt, per ton 0 0 0
Colonial produce, when landed or shipped, is not subjected to any charge, except for a surcharge.

For. — A surcharge to land or ship goods 0 1 0
A warrant to remove goods from under bond 0 1 0
On landing each cask or package of spirits or wine 0 0 0
On the registry of vessels not exceeding 40 tons 0 0 0
On the registry of vessels above 40 tons, per ton 0 1 0
To the chief clerk, on the registry of vessels 0 10 0
On increasing charge of master 0 0 0

Warehouse Rent and Charges. — A government order published the 7th of February, 1816, fixes the following rents on spirits and tobacco, in the King's bonded stores, viz. —
1st. All spirituous liquors, 1s. 3d. per ton of 200 gallons, the every week, or any period less than a week, during which the same shall be deposited.

2dly. Tobacco, 6d. per ton for every week, or any period less than a week, during which the same shall be deposited.
3dly. The amount of all such warehouse rents, in respect of any cask or package required to be delivered, must be paid before the same can be so delivered.

4thly. No allowance whatsoever will at any time be made, in respect of new till the government be answerable for, any loss by fire, leakage, robbery, or casualty of any kind.

Government Order, 25th of February, 1819. — Representations having been made to the lieutenant governor of the Incon- tinence and delay attending the storing and unshipping of goods in the bonded warehouse, a gang of men has been appointed to be employed in the warehouse, for this purpose exclusively, and the following scale of charges will be required to be paid:—
For spirits. — Per pipe, 1 pipe, or puncheon, each stow- ing 6d., unstowing 1d.
Per 1/2 pipe, hogshead, or barrel, stowing 6d., unstow- ing 5d.
For case containing 3 or more dozen bottles, stowing 5d., unstowing 4d.
For case containing a less quantity than 3 dozen, stowing 5d., unstowing 5d.
For Tobacco. — In large stores, each, stowing 6d., unstow- ing 5d.
In cases, each, stowing 5d., unstowing 4d.
In kegs, each, stowing 5d., unstowing 5d.
In buckets, rolls, or small stores, stowing 1d., unstow- ing 1d.

In consequence of this arrangement, it is to be understood that no labourers are to be admitted into or employed at the bonded warehouse, except the storekeeper's gang for this purpose. Goods intended to be warehoused under bond must be landed before 11 o'clock.

Hours of attendance at the Custom-house quay, from a o'clock till 4 from the 1st of September to the 30th of April, and from 2 till 4 from the 1st of May till the 31st of August.

The appointed days for opening the bonded warehouse for the delivery of goods are Mondays and Thursdays in every

These details have been principally derived from the *Statistics of the Colony*, published at Hobart Town in 1843; and partly from Lieut. Breton's book, and different *Parliamentary Papers*.

VANILLA, the fruit of the *Epidendrum Vanilla*, a species of vine extensively cultivated in Mexico. It has a trailing stem, not unlike the common ivy, but not so woody, which attaches itself to any tree that grows near it. The Indians propagate it by planting cuttings at the foot of trees selected for that purpose. It rises to the height of 18 or 20 feet; the flowers are of a greenish yellow colour, mixed with white; the fruit is about 8 or 10 inches long, of a yellow colour when gathered, but dark brown or black when imported into Europe; it is wrinkled on the outside, and full of a vast number of seeds like grains of sand, having, when properly prepared, a peculiar and delicious fragrance. It is principally used for mixing with and perfuming chocolate; and is, on that account, largely imported into Spain; but as chocolate, owing to oppressive duties, is little used in England, vanilla is not much known in this country.

Vanilla is principally gathered in the intendancy of Vera Cruz, in Mexico, at Misantla, Colipa, Vacustla, and other places. It is collected by the Indians, who sell it to the whites (*gente de razon*), who prepare it for market. They spread it to dry in the sun for some hours, then wrap it in woollen cloths to sweat. Like pepper, it changes its colour in this operation — becoming almost black. It is finally dried by exposing it to the sun for a day. There are four varieties of vanilla, all differing in price and excellence; viz. the *vanilla fina*, the *zavala*, the *rezucate*, and the *oscura*. The best comes from the forests surrounding the village of Zenilla, in the intendancy of Oaxaca. According to Humboldt, the mean exportation of vanilla from Vera Cruz may amount to from 900 to 1,000 millares, worth at Vera Cruz from 30,000 to 40,000 dollars. — Vanilla is also imported from Brazil, but it is very inferior. The finest Mexican vanilla is extremely high priced. All sorts are subjected in this country to a duty of 5s. per lb. — (See *Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, 2d edit. tome iii. pp. 37. 46.; *Poisson's Notes on Mexico*, p. 194. &c.)

VELLUM, a species of fine parchment. (See **PARCHMENT**.)

VENICE, a famous city of Austrian Italy, formerly the capital of the republic of that name, on a cluster of small islands towards the northern extremity of the Adriatic, in lat 45° 25' 53" N., lon. 12° 20' 31" E. Population about 100,000. The commerce of Venice, once the most extensive of any European city, is now comparatively trifling; and the population is gradually diminishing both in numbers and wealth

at 1 s. a clerk, on which days the duties need be paid prior to 11 o'clock. Tobacco is taxed on the same days, from 10 to 11 o'clock.

Rate of Pilgrage of the Derived.

Draught of water.	Tons.	
	Into.	Out.
10 feet and under	3 9 11 1/2	4 0 0 0
11 ditto	3 9 9 1/2	3 10 0 0
12 ditto	3 9 9 1/2	3 10 0 0
13 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
14 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
15 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
16 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
17 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
18 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
19 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0
20 ditto	4 0 0 0	3 10 0 0

At Port Dalrymple.

Proceeding above Wharfedale Reach.	Remaining below Wharfedale Reach.
7 feet and under	3 5 6 1/2
Above 7 feet per foot	0 0 0 0

If the pilot does not board the vessel outside the middle ground at the Heads at Hobart Town, or the weather not permitting his going aboard, if he be not ready to show the channel by keeping his boat in the fair way until the ship can be heaved, he shall forthwith half the pilgrage in wain.

For every number of inches below 6, no charge is to be made; but for 6 feet and upwards, 1 foot is to be charged. Colonial vessels are exempted from the payment of pilotage, unless the master shall make the signal for a pilot and accept his service.

Harbour Dues of the Derived.

For mooring and unmooring a vessel within the harbour, per register ton 0 0 1
For each removal of the ship within the harbour, per register ton 0 0 1
Colonial vessels under 80 tons per register to be exempted from the payment of the foregoing dues, unless the services of the harbour master be specifically required.

At Port Dalrymple.

For each removal of a ship or vessel from anchorage or mooring, to other anchorage or mooring, under 500 tons 0 18 0
500 tons and under 500 1 0 0
500 tons and under 400 1 10 0
400 tons and under 500 2 0 0
500 tons and upwards 3 10 0

Each vessel entering the harbour will be charged with 6 removals.

Vessels belonging to the port are not to pay harbour dues. No vessels to be deemed colonial that are not registered in Van Diemen's Land.

Her imports consist of wheat and other sorts of grain, from the adjoining provinces of Lombardy and the Black Sea; olive oil, principally from the Ionian Islands; cotton stuffs and hardware from England; sugar, coffee, and other colonial products from England, the United States, Brazil, &c.; dried fish, dye stuffs, &c. The exports principally consist of grain, raw and wrought silk, paper, woollen manufactures, fruits, cheese, &c., the products of the adjoining provinces of Italy, and of her own industry; but her manufactures, so famous in the middle ages, are now much decayed.

Port. — The islands on which Venice is built lie within a line of long, low, narrow islands, running N. and S., and enclosing what is termed the lagoon, or shallows, that surround the city, and separate it from the main land. The principal entrances from the sea to the lagoon is at Malamocco, about $\frac{1}{2}$ league S. from the city; but there are other, though less frequented, entrances, both to the S. and the N. of this one. There is a bar outside Malamocco, on which there are not more than 10 feet at high water at spring tides; but there is a channel between the western point of the bar and the village of San Pietro, which has 16 feet water at springs, and 14 at neaps. Merchant vessels usually moor off the ducal palace; but sometimes they come into the grand canal which intersects the city, and sometimes they moor in the wider channel of the Giudecca. Vessels coming from the south for the most part make Pirano or Rovigno on the coast of Istria, where they take on board pilots, who carry them to the bar opposite to Malamocco. But the employment of Istrian pilots is quite optional with the master, and is not, as is sometimes represented, a compulsory regulation. When one is taken, the usual fee from Pirano or Rovigno to the bar is 30 Austrian dollars, or about 4*l.* On arriving at the bar, ships are conducted across it and into port by pilots, whose duty it is to meet them outside, or on the bar, and of whose services they must avail themselves. — (For the charges on account of pilotage, see *post*.)

Money. — Formerly there were various methods of accounting here; but now accounts are kept, as at Genoa, in lire italiane, divided into centesimi, or 100th parts. The lira is supposed to be of the same weight, fineness, and, consequently, value as the franc. But the lira *actually in circulation*, denominated lire, are respectively equal in sterling value to about 5*d.* and 4*d.* The latter are coined by the Austrian government.

Weights and Measures. — The commercial weights are here, as at Genoa, of two sorts; the *peso sottile* and the *peso grosso*. The French kilogramme, called the *libra italiana*, is also sometimes introduced.

100 lbs. peso grosso =	105-186 lbs. avoirdupois.	100 lbs. peso sottile =	66-428 lbs. avoirdupois.
—	127-830 lbs. Troy.	—	80-728 lbs. Troy.
—	47-698 kilogrammes.	—	30-123 kilogrammes.
—	98-485 lbs. of Hamburg.	—	62-196 lbs. of Hamburg.
—	96-969 lbs. of Amsterdam.	—	60-986 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The moggio, or measure for corn, is divided into 4 staja, 16 quarte, or 61 quartaroli. The staja = 27 Winchester bushels.

The measure for wine, anfora = 4 bigonni, or 8 mastelli, or 48 sechli, or 192 bozze, or 768 quartucci. It contains 137 English wine gallons.

The botta = 5 bigonni. Oil is sold by weight or measure. The botta contains 2 miglaja, or 80 miri of 26 lbs. peso grosso. The miri = 4-028 English wine gallons.

The braccio, or long measure, for woollen = 26-8 English inches; the braccio for silks = 24-8 do. The foot of Venice = 13-68 English inches. — (*Nelkenbrecher, and Kelly.*)

Historical Notice. — Venice was the earliest, and for a lengthened period the most considerable, commercial city of modern Europe. Her origin dates from the invasion of Italy by Attila in 452. A number of the inhabitants of Aquileia, and the neighbouring territory, flying from the ravages of the barbarians, found a poor but secure asylum in the cluster of small islands opposite the mouth of the Brenta, near the head of the Adriatic Gulph. In this situation they were forced to cultivate commerce and its subsidiary arts, as the only means by which they could maintain themselves. At a very early period they began to trade with Constantinople and the Levant; and notwithstanding the competition of the Genoese and Pisans, they continued to engross the principal trade in Eastern products, till the discovery of a route to India by the Cape of Good Hope turned this traffic into a totally new channel. The crusades contributed to increase the wealth and to extend the commerce and the possessions of Venice. Towards the middle of the 15th century, when the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II., entered Constantinople sword in hand, and placed himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian, the power of the Venetians had attained its maximum. At that period, besides several extensive, populous, and well cultivated provinces in Lombardy, the republic was mistress of Crete and Cyprus, of the greater part of the Morea, and most of the isles in the Egean Sea. She had secured a chain of forts and factories that extended along the coasts of Greece from the Morea to Dalmatia; while she monopolised almost the whole foreign trade of Egypt. The preservation of this monopoly, of the absolute dominion she had early usurped over the Adriatic, and of the dependence of her colonies and distant establishments, were amongst the principal objects of the Venetian government; and the measures it adopted in that view were skillfully devised, and prosecuted with inflexible constancy. With the single exception of Rome, Venice, in the 15th century, was by far the richest and most magnificent of European cities; and her singular situation in the midst of the sea, on which she seems to float, contributed to impress those who visited her with still higher notions of her wealth and grandeur. Sannazarius is not the only one who has preferred Venice to the ancient capital of the world; but none have so beautifully expressed their preference.

Viderat Adriacis Venetum Neptunus in undis,
Stare urbem, et tota parere jura mari,
Nunc mihi Tarpeta quantumvis, Jupiter, arces
Obiice, et illa tua membra Martia, ait;
Si Tiberim pelago præfers, urbem aspice utramque,
Illum homines dicunt, hanc possuisse Deos.

Though justly regarded as one of the principal bulwarks of Christendom against the Turks, Venice had to contend, in the early part of the 16th century, against a combination of the European powers. The famous league of Cambray, of which Pope Julius II. was the real author, was formed for the avowed purpose of effecting the entire subjugation of the Venetians, and the partition of their territories. The emperor and the kings of France and Spain joined this powerful confederacy. But, owing less to the valour of the Venetians, than to dissensions amongst their enemies, the league was speedily dissolved without materially weakening the power of the republic. From that period the policy of Venice was comparatively pacific and cautious. But notwithstanding her efforts to keep on good terms with the Turks, the latter invaded Cyprus in 1570; and conquered it, after a gallant resistance, continued for 11 years. The Venetians had the principal share in the decisive victory gained over the Turks at Lepanto in 1571; but owing to the discordant views of the confederates, it was not properly followed up, and could not prevent the fall of Cyprus.

The war with the Turks in Candia commenced in 1645, and continued till 1670. The Venetians exerted all their energies in defence of this valuable island; and its acquisition cost the Turks above 200,000 men. The loss of Candia, and the rapid decline of the commerce of the republic, now almost wholly turned into other channels, reduced Venice, at the close of the 17th century, to a state of great exhaustion. She may be said, indeed, to have owed the last 100 years of her existence more to the forbearance and jealousies of others than to any strength of her own. Nothing, however, could avert that fate she had seen overwhelm so many once powerful states. In 1797, the "maiden city" submitted to the yoke of the conqueror; and the last surviving witness of antiquity — the link that united the ancient to the modern world — stripped of independence, of commerce, and of wealth, is now slowly sinking into the waves whence she arose.

The foundation of Venice is described by Gibbon, c. 35; and in his 60th chapter he has eloquently depicted her prosperity in the year 1200. Mr. Hallam, in his work on the *Middle Ages* (vol. i. pp. 470—487.), has given a brief account of the changes of the Venetian government. Her history occupies a considerable space in the voluminous work of M. Siamondi on the *Italian Republics*; but his details as to her trade and commercial policy are singularly meagre and uninteresting. All previous histories of Venice have, however, been thrown into the shade by the valuable work of M. Daru (*Histoire de la République de Venise*, 2d ed. 8 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1821.) Having had access to genuine sources of information, inaccessible to all his predecessors, M. Daru's work is as superior to theirs in accuracy, as it is in most other qualities required in a history.

Trade, Navigation, and Manufactures of the Venetians in the 15th Century. — The Venetian ships of the largest class were denominated galleasses, and were fitted out for the double purpose of war and commerce. Some of them carried 50 pieces of cannon, and crews of 600 men. These vessels were sometimes, also, called argosiers or argosies. They had early an intercourse with England; and argosies used to be common in our ports. In 1325, Edward II. entered into a commercial treaty with Venice, in which full liberty is given to the Venetians, for 10 years, to sell their merchandise in England, and to return home in safety, without being made answerable, as was the practice in those days, for the crimes or debts of other strangers. — (*Anderson's Chron. Deduction, Anno 1325.*) Sir William Monson mentions, that the last argosie that sailed from Venice for England was lost, with a rich cargo and many passengers, on the coast of the Isle of Wight, in 1587.

In the beginning of the 15th century, the annual value of the goods exported from Venice by sea, exclusive of those exported to the states adjoining her provinces in Lombardy, was estimated, by contemporary writers, at 10,000,000 ducats; and the profits of the out and home voyage, including freight, being estimated at 4,000,000 ducats. At the period in question, the Venetian shipping consisted of 3,000 vessels of from 100 to 200 tons burden, carrying 17,000 sailors; 300 ships with 8,000 sailors; and 45 galleys of various size, kept afloat by the republic for the protection of her trade, &c., having 11,000 men on board. In the dock-yard, 16,000 labourers were usually employed. The trade to Syria and Egypt seems to have been conducted principally by ready money; for 500,000 ducats are said to have been annually exported to these countries; 100,000 were sent to England. — (*Daru, tome ii. p. 189, &c.*) The vessels of Venice visited every port of the Mediterranean, and every coast of Europe; and her maritime commerce was, probably, not much inferior to that of all the rest of Christendom. So late as 1518, 5 Venetian galleasses arrived at Antwerp, laden with spices, drugs, silks, &c. for the fair at that city.

The Venetians did not, however, confine themselves to the supply of Europe with the

* This is the statement of the native authorities; but there can be no doubt that it is greatly exaggerated; — 1,000 would be a more reasonable number.

commodities of the East, and to the extension and improvement of navigation. They attempted new arts, and prosecuted them with vigour and success, at a period when they were entirely unknown in other European countries. The glass manufacture of Venice was the first, and for a long time the most celebrated, of any in Europe; and her manufactures of silk, cloth of gold, leather, refined sugar, &c. were deservedly esteemed. The jealousy of the government, and their intolerance of any thing like free discussion, was unfavourable to the production of great literary works. Every scholar is, however, aware of the fame which Venice early acquired by the perfection to which she carried the art of printing. The classics that issued from the Aldine presses are still universally and justly admired for their beauty and correctness. The Bank of Venice was established in the 12th century. It continued throughout a bank of deposit merely, and was skillfully conducted.

But the policy of government, though favourable to the introduction and establishment of manufactures, was fatal to their progressive advancement. The importation of foreign manufactured commodities into the territories of the republic for domestic consumption was forbidden under the severest penalties. The processes to be followed in the manufacture of most articles were regulated by law.—“*Dès l'année 1172, un tribunal avoit été créé pour la police des arts et métiers, la qualité et la quantité des matières furent soigneusement déterminées.*”—(Daru, iii. 153.) Having, in this way, little to fear from foreign competition, and being tied down to a system of routine, there was nothing left to stimulate invention and discovery; and during the last century the manufactures of Venice were chiefly remarkable as evincing the extraordinary perfection to which they had early arrived, and the absence of all recent improvements. An unexceptionable judge, M. Berthollet, employed by the French government to report on the state of the arts of Venice, observed, “*Que l'industrie des Vénitiens, comme celle des Chinois, avoit été précoce, mais étoit restée stationnaire.*”—(Daru, tome iii. p. 161.)

M. Daru has given the following extract from an article in the statutes of the State Inquisition, which strikingly displays the real character of the Venetian government, and their jealousy of foreigners:—“If any workman or artisan carry his art to a foreign country, to the prejudice of the republic, he shall be ordered to return; if he do not obey, his nearest relations shall be imprisoned, that his regard for them may induce him to come back. If he return, the past shall be forgiven, and employment shall be provided for him in Venice. If, in despite of the imprisonment of his relations, he persevere in his absence, an emissary shall be employed to despatch him; and after his death his relations shall be set at liberty!”—(Tom. iii. p. 150.)

The 19th book of M. Daru's history contains a comprehensive and well-digested account of the commerce, manufactures, and navigation of Venice. But it was not possible, in a work on the general history of the republic, to enter so fully into the details as to these subjects as their importance would have justified. The *Storia Civile e Politica del Commercio de' Veneziani*, di Carlo Antonio Marin, in 8 vols. 8vo., published at Venice at different periods, from 1798 to 1808, is unworthy of the title. It contains, indeed, a great many curious statements; but it is exceedingly prolix; and while the most unimportant and trivial subjects are frequently discussed at extreme length, many of great interest are either entirely omitted, or are treated in a very brief and unsatisfactory manner. The commercial history of Venice remains to be written; and were it well executed, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

Present Trade and Manufactures of Venice.—From the period when Venice came into the possession of Austria, down to 1830, it seems to have been the policy of the government to encourage Trieste in preference to Venice; and the circumstance of the former being a free port, gave her a very decided advantage over the latter. Latterly, however, a more equitable policy has prevailed. In 1830, Venice was made a free port, and has since fully participated in every privilege conferred on Trieste. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the latter still continues to preserve the ascendancy; and the revival of trade that has taken place at Venice has not been so great as might have been anticipated. The truth is, that except in so far as she is the entrepôt of the adjoining provinces of Lombardy, Venice has no considerable natural advantage as a trading city; and her extraordinary prosperity during the middle ages is more to be ascribed to the comparative security enjoyed by the inhabitants, and to their success in engrossing the principal share of the commerce of the Levant, than to any other circumstance. Still, however, her trade is far from inconsiderable. But, unfortunately, there are no means by which to ascertain its precise amount. The great articles of import are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; indigo and other dye stuffs, olive oil, salted fish, various descriptions of cotton, woolsens, and other manufactured goods; wheat and other grain, from the Black Sea; tin plates and hardware, raw cotton, &c.; amounting, in all, to the value probably of 1,600,000, or 1,600,000*l.* The exports principally consist of silk and silk goods, wheat and other grain, paper, jewellery, glass, and glass wares, Venetian tracels, books, with a great variety of other articles, including portions of most of those that are imported. It should, however, be observed, that by far the greater part both of the import and export trade of the city is carried on through Trieste by coasting vessels, that are every day passing between the two cities. The smuggling of prohibited and overtaxed articles into Austrian Lombardy is practised to a great extent. It is believed that fully two thirds of the coffee made use of in Lombardy is clandestinely introduced; and sugar, British cottons, and hardware, with a variety of other articles, are supplied through illegitimate channels. The facilities for smuggling, owing to the nature of the frontier, and the ease with which the officers are corrupted, are such, that the articles passing through the hands of the fair trader afford no test of the real extent of the business done. It is to be hoped that the Austrian government may take an enlightened view of this important matter. It cannot but be anxious for the suppression of smuggling; and it may be assured that this is not practicable otherwise than

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by a reduction of duties. The regulations as to the payment of the duties on goods destined for the interior, the clearing of ships, &c., are the same at Venice as at Trieste; which see.

The manufactures of Venice are very various, and more extensive than is generally supposed. The glassworks, which produce magnificent mirrors, with every variety of artificial pearls and gems, coloured beads, &c., situated on the island of Murano, employ, in all, about 4,000 hands, including the women and children employed in arranging the beads. — (*Bouring's*.) Jewellery, including gold chains, is also extensively produced; as are gold and silver stuffs, velvets, silks, laces, and other expensive goods; and treacle, soap, earthenware, wax-lights, &c., to a greater or less extent. Printing is more extensively carried on in this than in any other city of Italy, and books form a considerable article of export. Ship-building is also carried on to some extent, both here and at Chioggia. In 1836, the first steam-engine seen in Venice was set up for a sugar refinery.

From the circumstance of Venice being situated nearly opposite the mouths of the Brenta, which bring down large quantities of mud, the probability is that the lagoon, by which she is surrounded, will ultimately be filled up. Under the republic this was a subject of great apprehension, and every device was resorted to that seemed likely to avert a result so pregnant with danger to the independence of the city. But now that there is no particular motive for hindering the mud from accumulating in the lagoon, it is probable that, in the course of time, the shallow will be converted into terra firma, and Venice lose her insular position.

Railway to Venice. — But whether the lagoon should, or should not, be filled up, Venice will very speedily be connected with the mainland by artificial means. A railway is now in the course of being constructed, which is to extend from the city to Padua, and thence to Verona, &c. That part of this important work which passes through the lagoon is to be supported on arches, the construction of which is already far advanced. It may be expected that the formation of this new and easy channel of communication with some of the most fertile districts of Lombardy, will be of considerable service to Venice; and will tend, in some degree, to revive her decaying energies.

There belong to the city, exclusive of fishing-boats, about 30,000 tons of shipping, of which a large proportion is employed in the coasting trade. Many of the inhabitants depend for their subsistence on fishing in the lagoon, and the contiguous portion of the Adriatic. — (*Exclusive of the authorities already referred to, see Bouring's Report on the Statistics of Italy; Geog. Dict.; Commercial Circulars, &c.*)

A steam-packet has been established between Venice and Trieste.

Shipping Charges in the Port of Venice on Ships of different Nations, of the Burden of 300 Tons.

Description of Charge.	If Austrian, or of a Nation having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.			If of a Nation not having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.		
	Austrian Liores.	£ s. d.	¢	Austrian Liores.	£ s. d.	¢
<i>Pilgrage.</i> From the bar to the place of finally mooring	61	57	2 1 01	61	57	2 1 01
Out of the port of departure	11	17	3 1 04	61	57	2 1 01
<i>Tonnage Duty.</i> One Austrian livre (8d. sterling) per ton — (Originally levied on all ships not Austrian.)	Free.	-	-	300	0	10 0 0
<i>Clearing Charges.</i> If to a port out of the Gulph of Venice (but if to a port in the Gulph, 1s. 5½d. less in all cases.)	2	30	0 1 64	16	78	0 11 92
<i>Quarantine Charges.</i> If performing 7 days, being the usual time for vessels from England —	39	27	1 6 2	53	58	1 15 7
Total of ordinary charges —	104	71	5 9 94	493	30	16 8 104
If in long quarantine, all ships pay extra —	23	74	0 17 2	45	74	0 17 2
If departing in ballast, or with less than ½ cargo, all ships, not Austrian, or not under treaty to be charged as such, pay extra tonnage duty, 45 cents (about 8½d. sterling) per ton, being, on a 300 ton ship —	Free.	-	-	135	0	4 10 0
Total of extreme charges —	190	45	6 6 114	638	94	21 16 04

Banking Establishments. — The old bank of Venice was founded so far back as 1171, being the most ancient establishment of the kind in Europe. It was a bank of deposit; and such was the estimation in which it was held, that its paper continued to bear an agio as compared with coin down to 1797, when the bank fell with the government by which it had been guaranteed. At present there are no corporate banking establishments in the city; and no bank notes are in circulation. There are, however, several private banking houses, which buy, sell, and discount bills; and make advances on land and other securities. They are under no legal regulations of any sort, except formally declaring the amount of their capital to the authorities when they commence business. The legal and usual rate of interest and discount is 8 per cent. It is not the practice to allow interest on deposits. Bills on London are usually drawn at 3 months, and on Trieste at 1 month.

Brokers, Commission, &c. — The number of brokers is limited, and they are licensed by government; but the business of commission merchant and factor is open to every one. Before, however, commencing any trade or profession at Venice, a petition must be presented for leave to the authorities; but this is more a matter of form than any thing else; its prayer being rarely, if ever, refused.

The usual rate of commission and factorage on the purchase or sale of colonial produce is 2 per cent., and on manufactured goods 3 per cent., inclusive of broker's commission, 1 per cent. A ship broker's commission on the freight of a whole cargo is 2 per cent., and on a general cargo 4 per cent. By the custom of the place, merchants charge 2 per cent. on the inward and 2 per cent. on the outward freight of all ships consigned to them; and this, though they had done no more than recommend the master to a broker! A bill broker's commission is ½ per mille. Merchants and bankers charge a commission on internal bills of ½ per cent., and on foreign do. of 1 per cent.

Insurances are effected by companies and individuals. The government charges no duty on the policies.

Communications with Lombardy are effected by flat-bottomed vessels, which, passing through the lagoon, enter the canals and rivers, and make their way through most part of the country watered by the Po and its tributaries. The freight of goods from Milan to Venice, distant about 170 miles, is about 12, per ton. The principal products they bring down are grain, silk, hemp, and flax, cheese, rhubarb, &c. The country to the north of Venice affords large quantities of deals, which are shipped for Malta, Sicily, and the Levant.

Quarantine is enforced here the same as at Trieste. Ships coming from without the Straits of Gibraltar, provided there be no infectious disease on board, are admitted to *pratique* on performing a short quarantine of 7 days in a part of the lagoon, about a mile from the city. Long quarantine is performed a little farther off. The lazareto, and establishments for passengers, &c. performing quarantine, are among the best in Europe. Ships having foul bills, or coming from suspicious places, are sent thither from Trieste. — (For the quarantine charges, see *anti*.)

Provisions, Ships' Stores, &c. — These articles may all be had at Venice of excellent quality, but not

cheap, with, perhaps, the exception of br. ad. Water is conveyed to the city by lighters, and is, consequently, pretty dear; fuel is very scarce, and very high priced.

Three.—On goods leaving the free port of Vera Cruz for the interior of the Austrian states, the Custom-house allows no taxes; but cloths, coats, and other coverings go into the scale with their contents, and the duty is levied on the gross weight. Wine, spirits, &c. consumed in this city, being liable to an excise duty to cover the municipal expenses, have an allowance, if in iron-bound casks, of 18 per cent. on the weight; and if not in iron-bound casks, of 15 per cent. The taxes allowed between merchants are as follows:—

Cotton wool, Pernambuco and Bahia 2 per cent.
East India, &c. 4

Sugar, Brazil	15 to 18 per cent.
Jamaica, muscovade	10
Bourbon, brown and yellow, and East India of all colours	8
refined, crushed	12
Prunella	10
Italian hemp	5
Madder root	4
Hungary ryeish	10

On other articles, real taxes are usually taken.

VERA CRUZ, the principal sea-port on the western coast of Mexico; lat 19° 11' 52" N., lon. 96° 8' 45" W. Population (supposed) 16,000. Opposite the town, at the distance of about 400 fathoms, is a small island on which is built the strong castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa, which commands the town. The harbour lies between the town and the castle, and is exceedingly insecure; the anchorage being so very bad, that no vessel is considered safe unless made fast to rings fixed for the purpose in the castle wall: nor is this always a sufficient protection from the fury of the northerly winds (*los vortes*), which sometimes blow with tremendous violence. Humboldt mentions, in proof of what is now stated, that a ship of the line, moored by 9 cables to the castle, tore, during a tempest, the brass rings from the wall, and was dashed to pieces on the opposite shore.— (*Nouvelle Espagne*, ed. 2de, iv. 59.) Its extreme unhealthiness is, however, a more serious drawback upon Vera Cruz, than the badness of its port. It is said to be the original seat of the yellow fever. The city is well built, and the streets clean; but it is surrounded by sand hills and ponds of stagnant water, which, within the tropics, are quite enough to generate disease. The inhabitants, and those accustomed to the climate, are not subject to this formidable disorder; but all strangers, even those from the Havannah and the West India Islands, are liable to the infection. No precautions can prevent its attack; and many have died at Xalapa, on the road to Mexico, who merely passed through this pestilential spot. During the period that the foreign trade of Mexico was carried on exclusively by the *flota*, which sailed periodically from Cadix, Vera Cruz was celebrated for its fair, held at the arrival of the ships. It was then crowded with dealers from Mexico and most parts of Spanish America; but the abolition of the system of regular fleets in 1778 proved fatal to this fair, as well as to the still more celebrated fair of Portobello.

A light-house has been erected on the N.W. angle of the castle of St. Juan. The light, which is a revolving one of great power and brilliancy, is elevated 79 feet above the level of the sea.

Commerce.—An individual, looking at a map of the world, would be apt to conclude that Mexico is one of the most favourably situated countries for commerce; and, in some respects, this is true. But her trade labours, notwithstanding, under some serious disadvantages. Though washed by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, neither of her coasts is accessible for several months of the year. On the E. coast, or that bordering the Gulph of Mexico, there is not a single good harbour; and during the season when the coasts are accessible, they are extremely unhealthy. Owing also to the rapid ascent from the shores to the interior, the construction of roads, and the transport of commodities to and from the inner provinces, is alike difficult and expensive. No doubt, however, an efficient government and an industrious people would speedily, in a great measure, overcome these obstacles to an extensive intercourse with the foreigner. But Mexico has neither the one nor the other; and, at present, her trade is confined within the narrowest limits. Down to 1778, when the Spanish government relaxed the old prohibitive system, the foreign goods legally imported into Mexico comprised only a few Chinese and European manufactures; the former brought annually in one galleon of about 1,400 tons, and the latter sent *once in three years* exclusively in ships chartered by government from Seville or Cadix! On the opening of the trade in 1779, private capitalists engaged in it; and after that period, at an average of 12 years before and after, the returns for exports alone rose from 11,000,000 to 19,000,000 of dollars, the difference being chiefly in the quantity of specie. How much greater would the increase have been, if the trade had not been fettered with vexatious duties, first on articles of Spanish produce in the markets of Seville and Cadix; 2. on shipping for Mexico; 3. at Vera Cruz; and, 4. with an *alcavala*, or transfer duty, at every step, from the merchant to the consumer? On the breaking out of the civil war, the ports of Tampico, Mazatlan, and San Blas were opened by the new government; and soon afterwards foreign vessels were admitted into all the ports on the same terms as Spaniards. The Spanish capitalists retired to Cuba or Spain; and their places were supplied by British and American merchants, who established themselves in the interior, and supplied the inhabs. in return for dollars with manufactured goods, the superior quality and cheapness of which has, no doubt, had some influence in depressing native manufactures. The jealousy of the natives, however, and the absurd threats of the

government against foreign artificers and traders, has tended to prevent their settling in the country, and engaging in any considerable undertaking, other than the mines; and the depressed state of the latter, which have always furnished the principal article of export, has tended still further to depress and paralyse commerce. The roads, too, instead of being improved, have been suffered to fall into a state of almost irreparable decay. In this respect, the following extract from one of the letters of M. Chevalier is decisive. "The splendid road which, during the domination of the Spaniards, was constructed across deserts and precipices, by the merchants of Vera Cruz, to the summit of the upper country, is a melancholy instance of the carelessness with which the public interests of the country are directed. During the war of independence, this road was cut up in various points; and, down to this day, the enfranchised Mexicans have not replaced a single stone, nor filled up a single trench, nor even cut down one of the trees, which, in the absence of any considerable traffic, and under the influence of a tropical sun, are rapidly growing up to a magnificent size in the very middle of the road. In the upper country nothing would be more easy than to open noble means of communication. The soil is naturally level: and basaltic rocks, particularly adapted for the construction of roads, are found in great abundance. But even where there are roads, the Mexicans make little use of them. They carry to a yet more extravagant length the inconceivable predilection of the Spanish race in favour of transporting their goods on the backs of animals. You expect to meet with carts and waggons: no such thing; every thing is conveyed on the backs of mules or Indians. Troops of little consumptive donkeys bring into the city, in parcels not much bigger than a man's two fists, the charcoal required for the culinary operations of the inhabitants. The price of every bulky article is thus increased to an enormous degree. The interior districts are as inaccessible as if they were cut off by an enemy's army, and famine frequently ensues."

In consequence of this wretched state of the roads, of the insecurity consequent to the prevalence of revolutions, and the torpor and indolence of the inhabitants (occasioned partly and principally by physical, but partly, also, by moral causes), industry of all kinds is at an extremely low ebb; and the commerce of the republic is far from being commensurate either with her population, or the number and value of her exportable products.

The following table furnishes an official account of the vessels entering the ports of Vera Cruz, Tampico, San Blas, and Mazatlan during the year 1838, with the invoice value of their cargoes, &c.

Countries.	Inward.			Outward.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Value.	Ships.	Tons.	Value.
I. Vera Cruz:—						
British	6	1,388	167,750	7	1,551	Port blockaded by the French, and value not stated.
Mexican	98	1,999		19	1,398	
American	3	1,450	Not stated	11	1,873	
French	5	1,153		5	2,113	
Others	2	929		2	289	
Total at Vera Cruz—	44	5,879	167,750	47	7,219	
II. Tampico:—						
British	25		\$95,180	27		1,181,838
Mexican	16	1,390	16,500	18	1,366	900
American	40	2,229	155,000	30	3,316	237,833
Others	9	992	104,900	7	685	7,000
III. San Blas:—						
British	6	970	110,800	6	970	108,000
American	3	783	70,900	3	783	17,470
Spanish	2	492	19,000	2	492	2,360
Others	6	815	31,000	4	695	10,000
IV. Mazatlan:—						
British	6	1,485	37,000	4	1,198	65,800
American	4	1,110	80,000	4	618	48,000
Others	5	2,807	78,600	4	713	?
	147	18,018	1,165,870?	142	18,876	1,679,621

The above statement, though not complete, shows the comparative trade of different countries with Mexico, and proves that about half her imports come from Great Britain, which also takes off about 5-6ths of her exports, bullion, the chief article, amounting to about 17,000,000 doll.

For a considerable period after the town of Vera Cruz had thrown off the Spanish yoke, the castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa continued in possession of the Spaniards. During this interval, the commerce of Vera Cruz was almost entirely transferred to the port of Alvarado, 12 leagues to the south-east. Alvarado is built upon the left bank of a river of the same name. The bar at the mouth of the river, about 1½ mile below the town, renders it inaccessible for vessels drawing above 10 or 12 feet water. Large ships are obliged to anchor in the roads, where they are exposed to all the violence of the north winds, loading and unloading by means of lighters. Alvarado is supposed, but probably without much foundation, to be a little healthier than Vera Cruz. The trade has now mostly reverted to its old channel.

But within these few years, Tampico has risen to considerable importance as a commercial sea-port. It is situated about 60 leagues N. N. W. of Vera Cruz, in lat. 20° 15' 30" N., lon. 97° 52' W., being about 104 leagues from Mexico. Hitherto it is said to have been free from fever. The shifting of the bar at the mouth of the river, and the shallowness of the water on it, which is sometimes under 8, and rarely above 15 feet, are serious obstacles to the growth of the port. Vessels coming in sight are boarded by pilots, who conduct them, provided they do not draw too much water, over the bar. Those that cannot enter the port load and unload by means of lighters; mooring so that they may get readily to sea in the event of a gale coming on from the north.

Exports and Imports.—The precious metals have always formed the principal article of export from Mexico. During the 10 years ending with 1801, the average annual produce of the Mexican mines amounted, according to M. Humboldt, to \$3,000,000 dollars—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, iv. 137.); and in 1805 the produce was 27,163,888 dollars.—(*Id.* iv. 83.) But during the revolutionary war, the old Spanish capitalists, to whom most of the mines belonged, being proscribed, emigrated with all the property they could scrape together: and this withdrawal of capital from the mines, added to the injury several of them sustained by the destruction of their works during the contest, the interruption of all regular pursuits which it occasioned, and the insecurity and anarchy that afterwards prevailed, caused an extraordinary falling off in the produce of the mines. Within these few years, however, a considerable improvement has taken place. The efforts, and the lavish expenditure, of a few of the companies formed in this country for working the mines, have been so far successful, that some of them have been got again into good order, and a large increase of produce may be fairly anticipated, provided they are permitted to prosecute their operations without molestation. But, as we have elsewhere stated (see *anté*, p. 831.), some of the parties who sold or leased the mines began to put forward claims never heard of before, the moment they perceived that there was a reasonable prospect of the companies succeeding; and in some instances they have not scrupled to enforce their claims by violence! It is to be hoped that the Mexican government will exert itself to repress these outrages. If it have power to put down, and yet wink at or tolerate such disgraceful proceedings; it will make itself responsible for the consequences; and will merit chastisement as well as contempt.

The total quantity of gold and silver coined in the different Mexican mints in 1840 and 1841 was, in 1840, 13,134,610 dollars; in 1841, 13,587,805 dollars; to which may be added about 4,000,000 dollars a year for the gold and silver raised and exported without being brought to the mints to be coined. Hence the exports of the precious metals from Mexico may at present be estimated at from 17,000,000 to 18,000,000 dollars a-year.

Besides the precious metals, cochineal, flour, indigo, provisions, leather, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, logwood, and pimento are the principal articles exported from Vera Cruz.

The imports consist principally of cotton, woollen, linen, and silk goods, paper, brandy, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, &c.

According to Humboldt, the imports at Vera Cruz, before the revolutionary struggles, might be estimated, at an average, at about 15,000,000 dollars, and the exports at about 22,000,000 do.

It must, however, be observed that this statement refers only to the registered articles, or to those that paid the duties on importation and exportation. But exclusive of these, the value of the articles clandestinely imported by the ports on the Gulph, previously to the revolution, was estimated at 4,500,000 dollars a year; and 2,500,000 dollars were supposed to be annually smuggled out of the country in plate and bars, and ingots of gold and silver. A regular contraband trade used to be carried on between Vera Cruz and Jamaica: and notwithstanding all the efforts of government for their exclusion, and the excessive severity of its laws against smuggling, the shops of Mexico were always pretty well supplied with the products of England and Germany.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, iv. 125.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 139.)

Humboldt states, that the total population of Mexico, exclusive of Guatemala, may be estimated at about 7,000,000. Of this number about 2 are Indians, the rest being Europeans, or descendants of Europeans, and mixed races. But notwithstanding this large amount of population, the trade we carry on with Mexico is very inferior to that which we carry on with Brazil. The following is an account of the real or declared value of all sorts of British produce and manufactures exported to the States of Central and Southern America in 1842:—

Mexico	-	-	-	£	374,069	States of the Rio de la Plata	-	-	£	100,791
Guatemala	-	-	-	-	-	Chili	-	-	-	300,493
Colombia	-	-	-	-	231,711	Peru	-	-	-	684,313
Brazil	-	-	-	-	1,756,805					

The imports of British goods at second hand into Mexico and Colombia from the West Indies is still, however, far from inconsiderable; and a pretty large proportion of the British goods sent to Chili are conveyed thence to Acapulco and other Mexican ports on the Pacific. We subjoin—

An Account of the declared Value of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported from the U. Kingdom to Mexico, during each of the 23 Years ending with 1842.

Years.	Cotton Manufactures.		Cotton Twist and Yarn.	Earthen-ware of all Sorts.	Hurd-wares and Caskery.	Linen Manufactures entered by the Vard.	Silk Manufactures.	Woollen Manufactures.	Total declared Value of British Produce and Manufactures.
	Entered by the Vard.	Home, Loc., and Small Wares.							
1820									
1821				94	2,559	167			2,758
1822	20,545	3,758		1,456	7,076	3,258		21,317	35,350
1823	180,468	9,239		2,288	7,407	15,576		8,889	212,387
1824	285,647	9,356		4,050	8,297	16,292		4,354	331,997
1825	680,946	7,618		7,763	15,568	35,299		44,172	743,664
1826	261,144	11,548	22	3,897	14,017	41,144		9,478	471,265
1827	207,537	26,235	1,668	8,974	25,569	35,745		6,906	695,200
1828	227,254	21,810	41	173	7,656	26,619		4,114	305,507
1829	204,277	9,441	6,660	398	6,140	47,965		9,277	283,562
1830	223,000	29,543	29,068	3,214	11,491	32,814		14,678	328,218
1831	471,208	25,712	27,279	2,920	16,440	75,074		13,448	526,834
1832	101,068	5,608	29,337	4,283	8,201	19,485		2,437	153,562
1833	201,426	16,927	43,594	1,669	3,628	11,614		3,640	245,713
1834	251,177	7,278	27,264	6,165	21,037	65,918		5,008	375,007
1835	204,671	7,881	29,184	4,403	11,496	62,450		5,128	325,713
1836	141,065	6,028	43,533	1,669	16,833	17,158		6,128	245,284
1837	189,456	13,339	144,488	3,287	11,618	55,872		11,901	306,433
1838	250,220	5,114	15,707	2,215	7,568	76,756		9,998	348,778
1839	200,725	13,167	427	7,853	16,129	98,719		14,990	268,170
1840	229,912	14,004	3,150	5,940	9,717	91,989		18,442	268,330
1841	188,436	5,133	29,656	7,600	17,558	97,958		20,430	249,901
1842									274,959

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Merchandise, exclusive of Bullion, imported into the U. Kingdom from Mexico, during each of the 22 Years ending with 1841.

Years.	Cochineal (including Gracilla and Dase).		Fustic.	Hides (untanned).	Jalap.	Indigo.	Logwood.	Sarsaparilla.
	Lbs.	Tons.						
1820								
1821					14,873			
1822	1,918							
1823	156,094	54				13,288		
1824	114,900	115		4,465		2,809		522
1825	76,536			5,443		1,968		4,056
1826	65,125	106			19,748	455		3,349
1827	119,744			2,474	22,807			2,144
1828	132,586	313		73	34,717			6,126
1829	124,596	282		68	31,256			5,669
1830	85,045	753		3,983	64,467			6,135
1831	26,470	990		163	31,265			4,885
1832	128,490	123		1,429	5,426			6,264
1833	28,513	106		61	14,626			6,410
1834	169,785	422		3,359	7,153			7,611
1835	41,244	191			12,152			6,214
1836	85,686	178	54		7,508			2,527
1837	76,408	102	32		16,098			5,649
1838	131,472	30	98		34,265			7,768
1839	195,079	28	68		18,405			7,076
1840	43,074	548	418		22,200			5,901
1841	29,678	216	516		5,742			11,236

The Mexican government issued a new tariff in 1843. It prohibits the importation of a great many articles; and the duties it imposes on those that may be imported are, for the most part, heavy. This, however, is of comparatively little consequence, in so far at least as the foreigner is concerned; for the smuggler takes off nearly as large a supply of the prohibited and over-taxed products as would be taken off by the legitimate traders, were they admitted under reasonable duties.

VERDIGRIS (Ger. *Grünspan*; Fr. *Vert-de-gris*, *Verdet*; It. *Verderame*; Sp. *Cardenillo*, *Verdete*, *Verde-gris*; Rus. *Jar*), a kind of rust of copper, of a beautiful bluish green colour, formed from the corrosion of copper by fermented vegetables. Its specific gravity is 1.78. Its taste is disagreeably metallic; and, like all the compounds into which copper enters, it is poisonous. It was known to the ancients, and various ways of preparing it are described by Pliny. It is very extensively used by painters, and in dyeing; it is also used to some extent in medicine. The best verdigris is made at Montpellier; the wines of Languedoc being particularly well suited for corroding copper, and forming this substance. It is generally exported in cakes of about 25 lbs. weight each. It is also manufactured in this country, by means of the refuse of cider, &c.; the high duty of 2s. per lb. on the foreign article giving the home producers a pretty complete monopoly of the market. The goodness of verdigris is judged of from the deepness and brightness of its colour, its dryness, and its forming, when rubbed on the hand with a little water or saliva, smooth paste, free from grittiness. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Rees's Cyclopaedia*.)

VERJUICE (Ger. *Agrast*; Fr. *Verjus*; It. *Agresto*; Sp. *Agraz*), a kind of harsh, austere vinegar, made of the expressed juice of the wild apple, or crab. The French give this name to unripe grapes, and to the sour liquor obtained from them.

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VERMICELLI (Ger. *Nudeln*; Du. *Moeinopen, Proppen*; Fr. *Vermicelli*; It. *Vermicelli, Tagliolini*; Sp. *Aletrias*), a species of wheaten paste formed into long, slender, hollow tubes, or threads, used amongst us in soups, broths, &c. — (See MACCARONI.)

VERMILLION. See CINNABAR.

VINEGAR (Ger. *Essig*; Du. *Azyn*; Fr. *Vinaigre*; It. *Aceto*; Sp. and Port. *Vinagre*; Rus. *Ukzuz*; Lat. *Acetum*). — (See ACID (ACETIC), for a description of vinegar.) A duty being imposed on vinegar of 2d. the gallon, its manufacture is placed under the control of the excise. A licence, costing 3*l.*, and renewable annually, has to be taken out by every maker of vinegar, or acetic acid. In 1843, the duty on vinegar produced 23,842*l.*, showing that 2,861,040 gallons had been brought to the charge. The manufacture is almost confined to England; the quantities produced in Scotland and Ireland being quite inconsiderable. The duty was reduced, in 1836, from 4d. to 2d. per gallon.

All places for manufacturing or keeping vinegar must be entered, under a penalty of 50*l.* No vinegar maker is to receive any vinegar, or acetic acid, or sugar wash, or any preparation for vinegar, without giving 12 hours' notice to the excise, under penalty of 100*l.* Any person sending out or receiving vinegar shall, unless the duty on it be paid, and it be accompanied by a permit, forfeit 200*l.* All vinegar makers are to make entries at the next Excise-office of the quantity made within each month, and are bound to clear off the duties within a month of such entry, on pain of double duties.

VITRIOL. See COPPERAS.

VITRIOL, OIL OF. See ACID (SULPHURIC).

ULTRAMARINE (Ger. *Ultramarin*; Fr. *Bleu d'outremer*; It. *Oltramarino*; Sp. *Ultramar*; Rus. *Ultramarin*), a very fine blue powder made from the blue parts of *lapis lazuli*. It has the valuable property of neither fading, nor becoming tarnished, on exposure to the air, or a moderate heat; and on this account is highly prized by painters. Owing to its great price, it is very apt to be adulterated. It was introduced about the end of the fifteenth century.

USANCE, a period of one, two, or three months, or of so many days, after the date of a bill of exchange, according to the custom of different places, before the bill becomes due. Double or treble usance is double or treble the usual time; and $\frac{1}{2}$ usance is $\frac{1}{2}$ the time. When a month is divided, the $\frac{1}{2}$ usance, notwithstanding the differences in the lengths of the months, is uniformly 15 days. Usances are calculated exclusively of the date of the bill. Bills of exchange drawn at usance are allowed the usual days of grace, and on the last of the 3 days the bill should be presented for payment. — (See EXCHANGE.)

USURY. See INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

W.

WALNUTS, the fruit of the *Juglans*, or walnut-tree, of which there are several varieties. The walnut is a large handsome tree, with strong spreading branches. The fruit is a pretty large, smooth, ovate nut, containing an oily kernel, divided into four lobes. The nut has been always held in high estimation; it was called by the Romans *Jovis glans*, the acorn or mast of Jove, and hence the name of the tree. The walnut tree is indigenous to Persia and the countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. It has long been introduced into Great Britain; but the fruit seldom ripens in the more northerly parts of the island. Previously to the very general introduction of mahogany, the wood of the walnut tree was extensively used among us in making of furniture; and it continues to be largely employed for that purpose in many parts of the Continent. It is much used by turners; and is superior to every other sort of wood for the mounting of guns; a circumstance which caused great devastation among our walnut plantations during the latter years of the war. Great numbers of walnut trees are annually consumed in the Haute Vienne and other departments of France, in the manufacture of the wooden shoes or clogs used by the peasantry. The nuts are either gathered when ripe, being served up at desserts without any preparation; or they are plucked green, and pickled. — (*Poiret, Histoire Philosophique des Plantes*, tome vii. p. 213.; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.)

Account of Walnuts Imported, exported, and retained for Home Use, during 1841 and 1842, with the Nett Duty thereon, and the Rate of Duty.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Home Use.		Duty.	Rate of Duty.
			Bush.	St.		
1841	Bush. 21,106	Bush. 171	Bush. 25,125	St. 2,482	£ 2,319	Per Bush. 9s. 2 <i>d.</i>
1842	33,288	7	51,201			

WANGHEES, sometimes called JAPAN CANES, a species of cane imported from China. They should be chosen pliable, tough, round, and taper; the knots at regular distances from each other; and the heavier the better. Such as are dark-coloured, badly glazed, and light, should be rejected. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

WAREHOUSING SYSTEM. By this system is meant the provisions made for lodging imported articles in public warehouses, at a reasonable rent, without payment of the duties on importation till they be withdrawn for home consumption. If re-exported, no duty is ever paid.

1. *Expediency and Origin of the Warehousing System.* — It is laid down by Dr. Smith, in one of his justly celebrated maxims on the subject of taxation, that "Every tax ought to be levied at the time and in the manner that is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it." — (*Wealth of Nations*, p. 371.) No one can doubt the soundness of this maxim; and yet it was very strangely neglected, down to 1803, in the management of the customs. Previously to this period, the duties on most goods imported had either to be paid at the moment of their importation, or a bond, with sufficient security for their future payment, had to be given to the revenue officers. The hardship and inconvenience of such a system is obvious. It was often very difficult to find sureties; and the merchant, in order to raise funds to pay the duties, was frequently reduced to the ruinous necessity of selling his goods immediately on their arrival, when, perhaps, the market was already glutted. Neither was this the only inconvenience that grew out of this system; for the duties having to be paid all at once, and not by degrees as the goods were sold for consumption, their price was raised by the amount of the prompt on the capital advanced in payment of the duties; competition, too, was diminished in consequence of the greater command of funds required to carry on trade under such disadvantages; and a few rich individuals were enabled to monopolise the importation of those commodities on which heavy duties were payable. The system had, besides, an obvious tendency to discourage the carrying trade. It prevented this country from becoming the *entrepôt* for foreign products, by hindering the importation of such as were not immediately wanted for home consumption; and thus tended to lessen the resort of foreigners to our markets, inasmuch as it rendered it difficult, or rather impossible, for them to complete an assorted cargo. And in addition to all these circumstances, the difficulty of granting a really equivalent drawback to the exporters of such commodities as had paid duty, opened a door for the commission of every species of fraud.

But these disadvantages and drawbacks, obvious as they may now appear, did not attract the public attention till a comparatively late period. Sir Robert Walpole seems to have been one of the first who had a clear perception of their injurious influence; and it was the principal object of the famous *Excise Scheme*, proposed by him in 1733, to oblige the importers of tobacco and wine to deposit them in public warehouses; relieving them, however, from the necessity of paying the duties chargeable on them till they were withdrawn for home consumption.

No doubt can now remain in the mind of any one, that the adoption of this scheme would have been of the greatest advantage to the commerce and industry of the country. But so powerful was the delusion generated in the public mind with respect to it, that its proposal well nigh caused a rebellion. Most of the merchants of the day had availed themselves of the facilities which the existing system afforded of defrauding the revenue; and they dexterously endeavoured to thwart the success of a scheme which would have given a serious check to such practices, by making the public believe that it would be fatal to the commercial prosperity of the country. The efforts of the merchants were powerfully seconded by the spirit of party, which then ran very high. The political opponents of the ministry, anxious for an opportunity to prejudice them in the public estimation, contended that the scheme was only the first step towards the introduction of such a universal system of excise as would inevitably prove alike subversive of the comfort and liberty of the people. In consequence of these artful misrepresentations, the most violent clamours were everywhere excited against the scheme. On one occasion Sir Robert Walpole narrowly escaped falling a sacrifice to the ungovernable fury of the mob, which beset all the avenues to the House of Commons; and, after many violent and lengthened debates, the scheme was ultimately abandoned.

The disadvantages of the old plan, and the benefits to be derived from the establishment of a voluntary warehousing system, were most ably pointed out by Dean Tucker, in his "Essay on the Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of Great Britain and France with respect to Trade," published in 1750. But so powerful was the impression made by the violent opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's scheme, and such is the force of prejudice, that it was not till 1803 that this obvious and signal improvement — the greatest, perhaps, that has been made in our commercial and financial system — could be safely adopted.

Regulations as to Warehousing. — The statute of 43 Geo. 3. c. 132. laid the founda-

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tion of this system; but it was much improved and extended by subsequent statutes, the regulations of which have been embodied in the following act, 8 & 9 Vict. c. 91., which took effect on the 4th of August, 1845.

This act empowers the commissioners of the customs, under the authority and direction of the Lords of the Treasury, to nominate the ports at which goods may be warehoused without payment of duty, and the warehouses in which particular descriptions of goods may be deposited. It also fixes the time during which goods are allowed to remain in the warehouse; and prescribes the regulations as to their removal from port to port, their sale and stowage in the warehouse, the remission of the duties in case of loss by accident, the allowances for waste, &c. But being of much importance, we subjoin a full abstract of the statute.

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT 8 & 9 VICT. c. 91. FOR THE WAREHOUSING OF GOODS.

Act to commence from the 4th August, 1845.—§ 1.

Treasury to appoint warehousing Ports.—It shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury of the U. K., by their warrant from time to time, to appoint the ports in the U. K. which shall be warehousing ports for the purposes of this Act; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, subject to the authority and directions of the lords of the treasury, by their order from time to time to appoint in what warehouses or places of special security, or of ordinary security, as the case may require, in such ports, and in what different parts or divisions of such warehouses or places, and in what manner, any goods, and what sorts of goods, may and may only be warehoused and kept and secured without payment of any duty upon the first entry thereof, or for exportation only, in cases where the same may be prohibited to be imported for home use; and also in such order to direct in what cases (if any) security by bond, in manner herein-after provided, shall be required in respect of any warehouse so appointed by them.—§ 2.

Warehouses of special Security to be so stated on their Appointment.—Whenever any warehouse shall have been approved of by the said commissioners of customs as being a warehouse of special security, it shall be stated in their order of appointment that such warehouse is appointed as a warehouse of special security; provided always, that all warehouses connected with the wharfs for the landing of the goods to be lodged therein, and inclosed together with such wharfs within walls such as are or shall be required by any Act for the constructing of such warehouses and wharfs, and being appointed to be legal quays, shall, without any order of the said commissioners, be warehouses for the purposes of this Act for all goods landed at such wharfs or quays, at any port appointed by the lords of the treasury to be a warehousing port as aforesaid, and all such warehouses shall be warehouses of special security.—§ 3.

Appointments made and Bonds given previous to Act to continue in force.—All appointments of warehouses for the warehousing of goods made under the authority of any other Act in force at the time of the commencement of this Act, shall continue in force as if the same had been made under the authority of this Act; and all bonds given in respect of any goods warehoused or entered to be warehoused under any Act in force at the time of the commencement of this Act, shall continue in force for the purposes of this Act.—§ 4.

Commissioners to provide Warehouses for Tobacco, and Treasury to fix Rent.—The commissioners of customs shall, out of the moneys arising from the duties of customs, provide from time to time warehouses for the warehousing of tobacco at the ports into which tobacco may be legally imported; provided always, that in every hoghead, chest, case or other package of tobacco so warehoused the importer or proprietor thereof shall pay as for warehouse-rent such sum or sums, not exceeding any sum payable under any Act in force at the time of the commencement of this Act, and at such periods and in such manner as the lords of the treasury shall from time to time by their warrant appoint and direct, and all such sums shall be paid, received, and appropriated as duties of customs.—§ 5.

Power to revoke or alter Appointment.—It shall be lawful for the said lords of the treasury by their warrant, and for the said commissioners of customs by their order, from time to time to revoke any former warrant or any former order, or to make any alteration in or addition to any former warrant or any former order made as aforesaid by them respectively.—§ 6.

Publication of Appointment in Gazette.—Every order made by the said commissioners of customs in respect of warehouses of special security, as well those of original appointment as those of revocation, alteration, or addition, shall be published in the London Gazette for such as shall be appointed in Great Britain, and in the Dublin Gazette for such as shall be appointed in Ireland.—§ 7.

Warehouse Keeper may give general Bond, if willing.—Before any goods shall be entered to be warehoused in any warehouse, in respect of which security by bond shall be required as aforesaid, the proprietor or occupier of such warehouse, if he be willing, shall give general security by bond, with two sufficient sureties, for the payment of the full duties of importation on all such goods as shall at any time be warehoused therein, or for the due exportation thereof; and if such proprietor or occupier be not willing to give such general security, the different importers of the separate quantities of goods shall upon each importation, before such goods shall be entered to be warehoused, give such security by bond with one sufficient surety, in respect of the particular goods imported, the penalty of such bond being double the amount of the duty to which such goods are subject.—§ 8.

Sale of Goods in Warehouse by Proprietor to be valid.—If any goods lodged in any warehouse shall be the property of the occupier of such warehouse, and shall be *bona fide* sold by him, and upon such sale there shall have been a written agreement signed by the parties, or a written contract of sale made, executed, and delivered by a broker, or other person legally authorized for or in behalf of the parties respectively, and the amount of the price stipulated in the said agreement or contract shall have been actually paid or secured to be paid by the purchaser, every such sale shall be valid, although such goods shall remain in such warehouse; provided that a transfer of such goods, according to such sale, shall have been entered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the officer of the customs having the charge of such warehouse, who is hereby required to keep such book and to enter such transfers, with the dates thereof, upon application of the owners of the goods, and to produce such book upon demand made.—§ 9.

Stowage in Warehouse to afford easy Access.—All goods warehoused shall be stowed in such manner as that easy access may be had to every package and parcel of the same, and if the occupier of the warehouse shall omit so to stow the same, he shall for every such omission forfeit the sum of £5; and if any goods shall be taken out of any warehouse without due entry of the same with the proper officers of the customs, the occupier of the warehouse shall be liable to the payment of the duties due thereon.—§ 10.

Occupiers of Warehouses to produce, on Demand, Goods to Officers of Customs, or to forfeit them.—The occupier or occupiers of any warehouse in which goods are deposited under the provisions of this Act shall, upon any request being made by any officer duly authorized by the commissioners of customs, immediately produce to such officer any goods deposited therein, or received into his or their custody, for the delivery of which the said occupier or occupiers has or have not received an order duly signed by the proper warehouse officer, and upon every failure so to do such occupier or occupiers shall forfeit the

sum of *bl. over* and above the duties to which every package or parcel of goods not so produced may be liable.—§ 11.

Goods fraudulently concealed or removed, forfeited.—If any goods warehoused shall be fraudulently concealed in or removed from the warehouse, the same shall be forfeited; and if any importer or proprietor of any goods warehoused, or any person in his employ, shall by any contrivance fraudulently open the warehouse, or gain access to the goods, except in the presence of the proper officer acting in the execution of his duty, such importer or proprietor shall forfeit and pay for every such offence, the sum of 100*l.*—§ 12.

Persons assisting in the removing of Goods entered for the Warehouse, subjected to Penalties.—If any goods entered to be warehoused under any law made for the warehousing of goods shall be removed and not deposited in a warehouse or place of security, in pursuance of such entry, every person who shall remove or assist or be otherwise concerned in the removing of any such goods, or who shall knowingly harbour, keep, or conceal, or shall knowingly permit or suffer to be harboured, kept, or concealed, any such goods so removed, and every person to whose hands and possession any goods so removed shall knowingly come, shall forfeit either treble the value thereof, or the penalty of 100*l.*, at the election of the commissioners of customs, and such goods shall be forfeited.—§ 13.

Examination on Entry and Landing.—Within one month after any tobacco shall have been warehoused, and upon the entry and landing of any other goods to be warehoused, the proper officer of customs shall take a particular account of the same, and shall mark the contents on each package, and shall mark the word "prohibited" on such packages as contain goods prohibited to be imported for home use; and all goods shall be warehoused and kept in the packages in which they shall have been imported, and no alterations shall be made in the packages or the packing of any goods in the warehouse, except in the cases herein-after provided.—§ 14.

Goods to be carried to Warehouse under Authority of Officer of Customs.—All goods entered to be warehoused or to be re-warehoused shall be carried into the warehouse under the care or with the authority or permission of the proper officer of customs, and in such manner and by such persons, and by such roads or conveyances, as shall be directed by the proper officer of customs shall authorise, permit, or direct, and all such goods not so carried shall be forfeited.—§ 15.

Goods to be cleared in three Years; Ship's Stores in one Year.—All goods which have been so warehoused shall be duly cleared either for exportation or for home use within three years, and all surplus stores of ships within one year from the day of the first entry thereof, unless further time be given by the lords of the treasury; and if any such goods be not so cleared, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to cause the same to be sold, and the produce shall be applied to the payment of the warehouse rent and other charges, and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the proprietor; and such goods, when sold, shall be held subject to all the conditions to which they were subject previous to such sale, except that a further time of three months from the date of the sale shall be allowed to the purchaser for the clearing of such goods from the warehouse; and if the goods so sold be not duly cleared from the warehouse within such three months, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 16.

In case of Accident in landing or shipping Goods, Duty may be remitted.—If any goods entered to be warehoused, or entered to be delivered from the warehouse, shall be lost or destroyed by any unavoidable accident, either on ship-board or in the landing or shipping of the same, or in the receiving into or delivering from the warehouse, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to remit or return the duties payable or paid on the quantity of such goods so lost or destroyed.—§ 17.

Duties on Goods lost or destroyed in Warehouse by Accident remitted.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to remit the duties payable or paid on the whole or any portion of any goods which shall be lost or destroyed by any unavoidable accident in the warehouse in which the same shall have been deposited under the provisions of this or any other Act passed for the warehousing of goods; and the duties payable upon the following articles deposited in warehouses of special security, viz.:—wines, currants, raisins, figs, hams, and cheese, when taken out of the warehouse for home use, shall be charged upon the quantities ascertained by the measure or weight of the same actually delivered.—§ 18.

Entry for Exportation or Home Use.—No goods which have been so warehoused shall be taken or delivered from the warehouse, except upon duty entry, and under care of the proper officer for exportation, or upon duty entry and payment of the full duties payable thereon for home use, if they be such goods as may be used in the U. K., save and except goods delivered into the charge of the searcher to be shipped as stores, and which shall and may be so shipped without entry or payment of any duty for any ship of the burden of sixty tons at least, bound upon a voyage to foreign parts, the probable duration of which, out and home, will not be less than forty days; provided always, that such stores shall be duly borne upon the ship's victualling bill, and shall be shipped in such quantities and subject to such directions and regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct and appoint.—§ 19.

Run for Stores and surplus Stores.—Run of the British plantations may be delivered into the charge of the searcher to be shipped as stores for any ship without entry or payment of any duty, and any surplus stores of any ship may be delivered into the charge of the searcher to be re-shipped as stores for the same ship, or for the same master in another ship, without entry or payment of any duty, such run and such surplus stores being borne upon the victualling bills of such ships respectively, and if the ship, for the future use of which any surplus stores have been warehoused, shall have been broken up or sold, such stores may be so delivered for the use of any other ship belonging to the same owners, or may be entered for payment of duty, and delivered for the private use of such owners, or any of them, or of the master or purser of such ship.—§ 20.

Duties to be paid on original Quantities.—Upon the entry of any such goods to be cleared from the warehouse, if the same be for home use, the person entering such goods inwards shall deliver a bill of the entry and duplicates thereof, in like manner as directed by law in the case of goods entered to be landed, as far as the same is applicable, and at the same time shall pay down to the proper officer of the customs the full duties of customs payable thereon, and not being less in amount than according to the account of the quantity first taken of the respective packages or parcels of the goods in such entry at the examination thereof, at the time of the first entry and landing of the same, without any abatement on account of any deficiency, except by this Act it otherwise provided; and if the entry be for exportation or for removal to any other warehouse, and any of the packages or parcels of the goods be deficient of the respective quantities of the same according to the account first taken as aforesaid, a like entry inwards shall also be passed in respect of the quantities so deficient, and the full duties shall be paid on the amount thereof before such packages or parcels of goods shall be delivered or taken for exportation or removal, except as by this Act it otherwise provided; and if any goods so deficient in quantity shall be such as are charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be estimated at the price for which the like sorts of goods of the best quality shall have been last or lately sold.—§ 21.

Duties on Tobacco, Sugar, and Spirits.—Duties payable upon tobacco, sugar, and spirits respectively, when taken out of warehouse for home use, shall be charged upon the quantities ascertained by the weight, measure, or strength of the same actually delivered, save and except that if the sugar shall not be in a warehouse of special security no greater abatements on account of deficiency of the quantity, first ascertained as aforesaid, shall be made than shall be after the rate of 3 per cent., of such quantity for the first three months, and 1 per cent., for every subsequent month during which such sugar shall have been warehoused; and also save and except that if the spirits (being any other spirit than rum of the British plantations) shall not be in a warehouse of special security, no greater abatement on account of deficiency of the quantity or strength first ascertained as aforesaid shall be made than shall be after the several rates of allowances following; (that is to say),

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For every hundred gallons hydrate-proof:—
 For any time not exceeding six months, one gallon;
 For any time exceeding six months, and not exceeding
 eighteen months, three gallons;
 For any time exceeding eighteen months, and not exceed-
 ing two years, five gallons.

Provided always, that no statement shall be made in respect of any deficiency in quantity of any spirits
 occasioned by leakage and not by natural evaporation, in whatever warehouse the same may be, except
 as by this Act is otherwise specially provided.— 22.

Allowances for natural Deficiency on Corn or Grains in Warehouse.—In respect of any wheat or barley,
 or any rye or any oats, lodged in warehouses without payment of duty on the first importation thereof,
 the following allowances for natural waste shall be made upon the exportation thereof, or upon the
 entry thereof for home consumption: viz.—

In respect of all wheat, barley, and rye, except as below,
 which has been in warehouse one month and less than
 three months, there shall be allowed 1½ per cent.;

In respect of all wheat, barley, and rye, except as below,
 which has been in warehouse three months and less than
 six months, there shall be allowed 2 per cent.;

In respect of all wheat, barley, and rye, except as below,
 which has been in warehouse six months and less than
 twelve months, there shall be allowed 2½ per cent.;

And in respect of all wheat, barley, and rye, except as below,
 which has been in warehouse twelve months and upwards,
 there shall be allowed 3 per cent.;

For any time exceeding two years, and not exceeding two
 years and a half, six gallons;
 For any time exceeding two years and a half, and not ex-
 ceeding three years, seven gallons;
 And for every additional year, two gallons:

In respect of oats, except as below, which have been in
 warehouse one month and less than three months, there
 shall be allowed 1½ per cent.;

In respect of oats, except as below, which have been in
 warehouse three months and less than six months, there
 shall be allowed 2 per cent.;

In respect of oats, except as below, which have been in
 warehouse six months and less than twelve months, there
 shall be allowed 2½ per cent.;

And in respect of oats, except as below, which have been in
 warehouse twelve months and upwards, there shall be
 allowed 3 per cent.;

The exception referred to above is, that only half the above allowances hereby directed to be made on
 wheat and barley and oats respectively shall be made upon Spanish wheat and barley and oats respec-
 tively, and upon wheat and barley kiln-dried abroad respectively, and that no such allowance shall be
 made in respect of rye being kiln-dried; provided also, that no such allowance shall be made unless
 there shall be an actual deficiency in the quantity of such wheat, rye, barley, and oats originally ware-
 housed.— 23.

Importers may enter Goods for Home Use or for Exportation.—If after any goods shall have been duly
 entered and landed to be warehoused, and before the same shall have been actually deposited in the
 warehouse, the importer shall further enter the same, or any part thereof, for home use or for exporta-
 tion, as from the warehouse, the goods so entered shall be considered as virtually and constructively
 warehoused, although not actually deposited in the warehouse, and shall and may be delivered and taken
 for home use, or for exportation, as the case may be.— 24.

Goods may be removed to other Ports to be re-warehoused.—Any goods which have been warehoused
 at some port in the U. K. may be removed by sea or inland carriage to any other port in the same in
 which the like goods may be warehoused upon importation, to be re-warehoused at such other port, and
 again as often as may be required to any other such port, to be there re-warehoused, subject to the
 regulations hereinafter mentioned, viz.— 25 hours' notice in writing of the intention to remove such goods
 shall be given to the warehouse officer, specifying the particular goods intended to be removed, the
 marks, numbers, and description of the packages in which the same are contained, in what ship im-
 ported, when and by whom entered inwards to be warehoused, and if subsequently re-warehoused when
 and by whom re-warehoused, and to what ports the same are to be removed; and thereupon the ware-
 house officer shall take a particular account of such goods, and shall mark the contents on every package
 in preparation for the delivering of the same for the purposes of such removal, and previous to the
 delivery thereof may cause the proper seals of office to be affixed thereto; provided always, that tobacco,
 the produce of the British possessions in America, or of the U. S. of America, and purchased for the
 use of the navy, may be removed by the purser of any ship of war in actual service to the ports of
 Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, to be re-warehoused, in the name of such purser, in such
 warehouse as shall be approved for that purpose by the commissioners of customs.— 25.

Entry of Goods for Removal.—Before such goods shall be delivered to be removed due entry of the
 same shall be made, and a proper bill of such entry, with duplicates thereof, be delivered to the collector
 or comptroller, containing the before-mentioned particulars, and an exact account of the quantities of
 the different sorts of goods; and such bill of entry, signed by the collector and comptroller, shall be the
 warrant for the removal of such goods; and an account of such goods, containing all such particulars,
 shall be transmitted by the proper officers of the port of removal to the proper officers of the port of
 destination; and upon the arrival of such goods at the port of destination due entry of the same to be
 re-warehoused shall in like manner be made with the collector and comptroller at such port, containing
 all the particulars and accounts before mentioned, together with the name of the port from which such
 goods have been removed, and the description and situation of the warehouse in which they are to be
 warehoused; and the bill of such entry, signed by such collector and comptroller, shall be the warrant
 to the landing officer and the warehouse officer to admit such goods, to be there re-warehoused, under
 such examination as is made of the like goods when first warehoused upon importation from parts be-
 yond the sea; and the particulars to be contained in such notices and in such entries shall be written
 and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and the officers
 at the port of arrival shall transmit to the officers at the port of removal an account of the goods so
 arrived, according as they shall upon examination prove to be, and the warehouse officers at the port of
 removal shall notify such arrival in their books.— 26.

Bond to re-warehouse may be given at either Port.—The person removing such goods shall at the
 time of entering the same give bond, with one sufficient surety, for the due arrival and re-warehousing
 of such goods, within a reasonable time, with reference to distance between the respective ports, to be
 fixed by the commissioners of customs, which bond may be taken by the collector and comptroller
 either of the port of removal or of the port of destination, as shall best suit the residence or conveni-
 ence of the persons concerned in such goods; and if such bond shall have been given at the
 port of destination, a certificate thereof, under the hands of the collector and comptroller of such port,
 shall, at the time of entering such goods, be produced to the collector or comptroller of the port of
 removal.— 27.

Bond how to be discharged.—Such bond shall not be discharged unless such goods shall have been
 duly re-warehoused at the port of destination within the time allowed for such removal, or shall have
 been otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the said commissioners, nor until the full duties
 due upon any deficiency of such goods shall have been paid, nor until fresh security shall have been given
 in respect of such goods in manner hereinafter provided, unless such goods shall have been lodged in
 some warehouse in respect of which general security shall have been given by the proprietor or occupier
 thereof, or in some warehouse in respect of which no security is required.— 28.

Goods re-warehoused held on Terms of first warehousing.—Such goods when so re-warehoused may
 be entered and shipped for exportation, or entered and delivered for home use, as the like goods may be
 when first warehoused upon importation, and the time when such goods shall be allowed to remain re-
 warehoused at such port shall be reckoned from the day when the same were first entered to be ware-
 housed.— 29.

On arrival, after re-warehousing, Parties may enter to export, &c.—If upon the arrival of such goods
 at the port of destination the parties shall be desirous forthwith to export the same, or to pay duty
 thereon for home use, without actually lodging the same in the warehouse for which they have been

entered and examined to be re-warehoused, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at such port, after all the formalities of entering and examining such goods for re-warehousing have been duly performed, except the labour of carrying and lodging in the same in the warehouse, to cause the same to be virtually or constructively re-warehoused, and to permit the same to be entered as being re-exportation, or to be entered and delivered for home use, upon payment of the duties due thereon, in like manner as if such goods had been actually so carried and lodged in such warehouse; and the account taken for the re-warehousing of such goods may serve as the account for delivering the same as if from the warehouse for payment of duties, as the case may be, and all goods so exported, or for which the duties have been so paid, shall be deemed to have been duly cleared from the warehouse.—§ 20.

Removal in the same Port.—Any goods which have been warehoused in some warehouse in the port of London may, with the permission of the commissioners of customs first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the same port in which the like goods may be warehoused on importation; and any goods which have been warehoused in some warehouse in any other port may, with the permission of the collector and comptroller of such port first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the same port in which the like goods may be warehoused on importation, under such general regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct.—§ 21.

Goods and Packages subject to original Conditions.—All goods which shall have been removed from one warehouse for or to another, whether in the same port or in a different port, and all proprietors of such goods, shall be held subject in all respects to all the conditions to which they would have been held subject if such goods had remained in the warehouse where the same had been originally warehoused.—§ 22.

Goods sold, new Owner may give Bond, and release the original Bond.—If any goods shall have been warehoused in any warehouse in respect of which general security has been heretofore provided shall not have been given by the proprietor or occupier of such warehouse, and particular security, as in such case is required, shall have been given by the importer of such goods in respect of the same, and such goods shall have been sold or disposed of, so that the original bond shall be no longer interested in or have control over such goods, it shall be lawful for the proper officers to admit fresh security to be given by the bond of the new proprietor of such goods, in the same manner as if the same were the same, with his sufficient surety, and to cancel the bond given by the original bond of such goods, or to exonerate him and his surety to the extent of the fresh security so given.—§ 23.

Bond of Remover to be in force in new Warehouse until fresh Bond be given.—If the person removing any goods from one port to another, and who shall have given bond in respect of such removal and re-warehousing, shall be and shall continue to be interested in such goods after the same shall have been duly re-warehoused, and such goods shall have been so re-warehoused in some warehouse in respect of which security is required, and the proprietor or occupier of the same shall not have given general security, the bond in respect of such removal and re-warehousing shall be conditioned and continue in force for the re-warehousing of such goods until fresh bond be given by some new proprietor or other person in a manner heretofore provided.—§ 24.

Lawful to sort, separate, and re-pack in some or equal Packages.—It shall be lawful in the warehouse to sort, separate, pack and re-pack any goods, that in such warehouse there shall be any such goods, and may be necessary either for the preservation of such goods, or in order to the sale, shipment, or exportation of such goods, or for such goods to be re-packed in the same packages in which the same goods, or some part of the whole quantity of the same parcel of goods, or in packages of equal quantity equal thereto, or in such other packages as the commissioners of customs shall permit (not being less in any case, if the goods be to be re-exported, or to be provided for any other use, than may be required by law for the importation of such goods) and also in the warehouse to draw off any wine or any rum of the British plantations into repeated quart bottles or repeated pint bottles, for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse, and to draw off any such rum into casks, containing not less than 30 gallons each, for the purpose only of being disposed of as stores for ships; and also in the warehouse to draw off any other spirits into repeated quart bottles, under such regulations as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse; and also in the warehouse to draw off and mix with any wine any brandy, secured in the same warehouse, not exceeding the proportion of 10 gallons of brandy to 100 gallons of wine; and also in the warehouse to fill up any casks of wine or spirits from any other casks of the same, respectively secured in the same warehouse; and also in any warehouse of special security to rack off any wine from the lees, and in such warehouse to mix any wines of the same sort, arising from the cask all import brands; and also in the warehouse to take such moderate samples of goods as may be allowed by the commissioners of customs, without entry and without payment of duty, except as the same may eventually become payable on a deficiency of the original quantity.—§ 25.

No Alteration to be made in Goods or Packages.—No alteration shall be made in any such goods or packages, (except such wine, rum, brandy, or spirits be bottled, drawn, or filled up, nor shall any such samples be taken, except after such notices given by the respective importers or proprietors, and at such times and in such manner, and under such regulations and restrictions, as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct.)—§ 26.

Re-packing in proper Packages, &c.—Whereas it may happen that after the re-packing into proper packages of any parcel of goods which have been unsorted and separated or drawn off from the original package in any of the cases heretofore provided for, there may remain in the warehouse of such goods, or respective parcels of such goods which may not be sufficient to make off full up any one of such proper packages, or it may happen that some of the parcels of such goods, or any of other parts may be such refuse, or in so damaged a state as to be worthless, or that the total quantity of such parcel of goods may be reduced by the separation or sorting, or by the dispersion of dust or otherwise; And whereas the duties payable on such goods may have been levied at a rate having regard to a just allowance for the state in which such goods are imported, and it is not proper that any manufacturing process should be performed on such goods, or that any duties (except such revenue) be thereunto enacted, that after such goods have been so re-packed in proper packages, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to permit the proprietor or occupier of such warehouse, to cause or permit any such refuse, damaged, or surplus goods not contained in any of such packages, to be destroyed, or to be re-packed in any other package, or to be delivered for home use, the duties shall be immediately paid upon any part of such goods, and the same shall be so delivered for home use accordingly; and if they be such as may not be so delivered, such surplus as may remain shall be dis-

posed of for the purpose of exportation (in such manner as the commissioners of customs shall direct) and the quantity contained in such such proper packages, and the quantity contained in such such proper packages, shall be ascertained by a comparison of the total quantity in each proper package with the total quantity in each warehouse, and the proportion which such deficiency may bear to the quantity in each package shall also be marked on the same, and added to such quantity, and the total sum so determined shall be the imported contents of such package, and be held subject to the full duties of importation, except as otherwise in any case provided, and also upon the same shall be held subject to the duties of any quantity of tobacco or cut pipe, or any other article, or any rum, and also of any whole packages of other goods, and to cause or permit the same to be destroyed, and to deduct such quantity of tobacco or cut pipe, or any other article, or any rum, from the total quantity of the same importation in computing the amount of the deficiency of such total quantity.—§ 27.

No Foreign Goods, to be used for re-packing unless Duties paid.—No foreign goods, bottles, casks, packages, or materials whatsoever, except any in which some mark shall have been imported and warehoused, shall be used in the re-packing of any goods in the warehouse, unless the full duties shall have been first paid thereon.—§ 28.

Goods may be delivered out of Warehouse by leave of Commissioners of Customs.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to permit any goods to be taken out of warehouse for any such purpose as may appear to them to be expedient, under such regulations and restrictions as they may think fit to direct, without payment of duty of customs under security, nevertheless, by bond to the satisfaction of the said commissioners, that such regulations and restrictions shall be duly complied with, and that such goods shall be returned to the warehouse with such time as they shall appoint.—§ 29.

Goods in Bulk delivered.—No parcels of goods so warehoused which were imported in bulk shall be delivered, except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than 1 ton weight, unless by special leave of the proper officers of customs.—§ 30.

Packages to be marked before Delivery.—No goods so warehoused shall be delivered, unless the same, or the packages containing the same, shall have been marked in a distinguishing manner as the commissioners of customs shall deem necessary and practicable, and shall from time to time direct.—§ 31.

Commissioners of Customs may approve of Premises for refining Sugar.—Upon the application to the commissioners of customs of any person actually carrying on the business of a refinery in the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, or Glasgow, or in any other port, or in any other town of the treasury, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs by their order to approve of such premises as bonded sugar houses for the refining of sugar for exportation only, and in being made appear to the satisfaction of the said commissioners that the said premises are fit in every respect for refining such sugars, and wherein the same may be safely deposited.—§ 32.

As Appointed the duties Officers empowered to deliver Sugars Duty free for refining for Exportation.—On the approval of any premises as bonded sugar houses as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the officers of customs at the ports respectively in which such premises are situated to deliver, without payment of duty, to the party or parties so applying as aforesaid, on entry with the proprietor of such premises, any quantity of refined sugar or sugar the produce of any British possession, for the purpose of being there refined under the local laws of the said port, or any island; and all sugars so delivered shall be lodged and secured in such premises, under such conditions, regulations, and restric-

times of the said commissioners shall from time to time direct or provide, always, that it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, by their order, to revoke or alter any former order of approval of any such premises.—§ 45.

Refiner to give Bond.—Upon the entry of the sugar to be refined in any premises approved of under the authority of this Act, the refiner on whom premises the same to be refined shall give bond to the satisfaction of the officers of the customs in the penalty of double the amount of the duty payable upon a like quantity of sugar of the British plant, and the whole of the duties that the whole of such sugar shall be actually subjected to the process of refinement upon the said premises, and that within four months from the date of such bond the whole of the refined sugar and treacle produced by such process shall be either duly exported from the said premises or delivered into an approved bonded warehouse under the lock of the crown, for the purpose of being eventually exported to foreign parts.—§ 44.

Decrease and Increase may be ascertained and allowed, under Regulations of the Treasury.—Whereas some sorts of goods are liable in time to decrease, and some to increase, and some to fluctuation of quantity, by the effect of the atmosphere and other natural causes, and it may be necessary in some cases that the duties should not be charged upon the deficiency arising from such causes; but if theretofore exacted, that it shall be lawful for the lords of the treasury to make regulations for ascertaining the amount of such decrease or increase of the quantity of any particular sort of goods, and to direct in what proportion any abatement of duty payable under this Act for deficiencies shall be made on account of any such decrease; provided always, that if such goods be lodged in warehouses of special security, or declared in the order of appointment to be of special security, no duty shall be charged, and no amount whatever of deficiency of any such goods on the exportation thereof, except in cases where suspicion shall arise that part of such goods has been clandestinely conveyed away, not shall any such goods (unless they be wine or spirits) be measured, counted, weighed, or gauged for exportation, except in such cases of suspicion.—§ 43.

Allowance for natural Waste of Wine, &c.—For any wine, spirits, coffee, cocoa nuts, or pepper, lodged in warehouses not being of or being declared to be of special security, the following allowances for natural waste, in proportion to the time during which any such goods shall be retained in the warehouse, shall be made upon the exportation thereof, according as such allowances are hereinafter respectively set forth; viz.

- Wine, upon every cask.
For any time not exceeding one year, one gallon;
For any time exceeding one year and not exceeding two years, two gallons;
- For any time exceeding two years, three gallons;
- Spirits, upon every one hundred gallons hydrometer proof;
For any time not exceeding six months, one gallon;
For any time exceeding six months and not exceeding twelve months, two gallons;
- For any time exceeding twelve months and not exceeding eighteen months, three gallons;
- For any time exceeding eighteen months and not exceeding two years, four gallons;
- For any time exceeding two years, five gallons;
- Coffee, cocoa nuts, pepper, for every one hundred pounds, and so in proportion for any less quantity, two pounds.—§ 46.

Cases of Embezzlement and Waste through Misconduct of Officers.—In case it shall as any time happen that any embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction shall be made of or in any goods or merchandise which shall be warehoused in warehouses under the authority of this Act, by or through any willful misconduct of any magistrates or officers of customs or excise, such officers or officers shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall upon conviction suffer such punishment as may be inflicted by law in cases of misdemeanor; and if such officers shall be so prosecuted to conviction by the importer, consignee, or proprietor of the goods or merchandise so embezzled, wasted, spoiled, or destroyed, then and in such case no duty or excise or cesses shall be payable for or in respect of such goods or merchandise so embezzled, wasted, spoiled, or destroyed, and no forfeiture or seizure shall take place of any goods and mer-

chandise so warehoused in respect of any deficiency caused by such embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction, and the damage occasioned by such embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction of such goods or merchandise, not being occasioned by the fault of the importer, consignee, or proprietor, by the commissioners of customs or excise under such orders, regulations, and directions as shall be for that purpose made and given by the lords of the treasury, or any three of them.—§ 47.

Bond on Entry of Goods.—Whereas it is expedient to make regulations for the exporting of such goods to parts beyond the seas as have been imported into the U. K. from parts beyond the seas, and warehoused in bonded warehouses, or in warehouses theretofore, or notwithstanding the same may be prohibited to be used in the U. K. by the Treasury enacted, that upon the entry of such goods to be exported from the warehouse to parts beyond the seas, and before such bond be granted, the person in whose name the same shall be entered, shall give security by bond in double the amount of duty payable by law upon the importation of such goods, with one sufficient surety, that such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, and shall be landed at the place for which they be entered on wards, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs.—§ 48.

Goods removed from Warehouse under Care of the Officers.—Goods taken from the warehouse for removal or for transportation to any other place, or removed, or shall be carried to be shipped, under the care of and with the authority or permission of the proper officer of customs, and in such manner, and by such persons, and within such spaces of time, and by such roads as shall be directed by the proper officer of customs shall authorize, permit, or direct, and all such goods not so removed or carried shall be liable to the same duties as if they were not so removed or carried.

Ships of not less than Sixty Tons to export such Goods.—It shall not be lawful for any person to export any goods so warehoused as aforesaid, or to enter for exportation, or to load any goods so warehoused, in any ship which shall not be of the burden of sixty tons or upwards.—§ 50.

Goods landed in Docks liable to Claims for Freight as before Landing.—All goods or merchandise which shall be landed in docks, and lodged in the custody of the proprietors of the said docks under the provisions of this Act, and the goods so landed as aforesaid to H. M., shall, when so landed, continue and be subject or liable to such and the same claim for freight in favour of the master, owner, or owners of the respective ships or vessels, or of any other person or persons interested in the freight of the same, from the date of which such goods or merchandise shall be so landed, as such goods, wares, or merchandise respectively were subject and liable to while the same were on board such ships or vessels, and before the landing thereof; and the directors and proprietors of any such docks at or in which any such goods or merchandise may be landed and lodged as aforesaid, or their servants or agents, or any of them, shall and may, and they are hereby authorized, empowered, and required, upon due notice in that behalf given to them by such master or masters, owner or owners, or other person as aforesaid, to detain and keep such goods and merchandise, not being seized as aforesaid to H. M., in the warehouses belonging to the said docks as aforesaid, until the respective freight to which the same shall be subject and liable as aforesaid shall be duly paid or satisfied, together with the rates and charges to which the same shall have been subject and liable, or until a deposit shall have been made by the owner or owners or consignee or consignees of such goods or merchandise, or in lieu of the claim or demands made by the master, owner, or owners of the respective ships or vessels, or other person as aforesaid, for the freight of the same, or until the goods or merchandise, which deposit the said directors or proprietors of such docks, or their agents respectively, be lawfully authorized and directed to receive and hold in trust, until the claim or demand for freight upon such goods shall have been satisfied, upon proof of which, and amount made by the person or persons, their executors, administrators, or assigns, by whom the said deposit shall have been made, and the rates and charges due upon the said goods being first paid, the said deposit shall be returned to him or them by the said directors or proprietors, or their agents on their behalf, with whom the said deposit shall have been made as aforesaid.—§ 51.

Warehousing Ports, &c.—Certain ports only are warehousing ports; nor may all sorts of goods be warehoused in every warehousing port. We subjoin a list of the warehousing ports in Great Britain and Ireland. Goods of all sorts may, speaking generally, be warehoused in the principal ports; but the regulations as to those that may be warehoused in the lesser ports are perpetually varying.

ENGLAND.

Aberystwith	Carmarvon	Gainsborough	Lyme	Plymouth	Stockton
Aldershot	Chepstow	Gloucester	Lynn	Pool	Stanhurst
Arundel	Chichester	Grimsby	Marine	Portsmouth	Swalecliffe
Barnstaple	Colchester	Hartlepool	Maldon	Reading	Tipton
Berwick	Dartmouth	Hull	Manchester	Rebecca	Truro
Blisford	Deal	Ipswich	Maryport	Rye	Weymouth
Boston	Dover	Kingston	Milford	Scarborough	Whitby
Bridgewater	Exeter	Lancaster	Newcastle	North Shields	Whithaven
Bristol	Falmouth	Lancilly	Newburgh	Southampton	Widnes
Cardiff	London	Liverpool	Newport	St. Ives	Woolbridge
Cardigan			Pasador	Shoreham	Worthington
Carlisle			Preston	South Shields	Wormley

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeen	Borrowstonness	Fisherrow	Greenock	Montrose	Peterhead
Alton	Dumfries	Hillago	Inverness	Newburgh	Fife Glasgow
Ayr	Dunbar	Greenock	Leith	Perth	Stirling

IRELAND.

Dublin	Galway	Wexford	Sligo	Wexford
Belfast	Limerick		Waterford	
Cork	Londonderry			

WAREHOUSES RENT.

Rates for warehouse rent on goods deposited in the king's warehouses at the several outports, viz.—
On large cases and vats containing toys or other merchandise, and packages of wine and other liquors, per week, 6d. each.

Packages of baggage, small packages of presents, viz. boxes, kegs, jars, &c., per week, 6d. each. All other packages not before described (except tobacco), per week, 4d. each.
For every hogshead of tobacco deposited in the king's warehouse at London, 2s.; and for every hogshead taken out of the same, 2s. For every hogshead of tobacco warehoused in the king's warehouse at the outports, 1s. per week.

WATCHES (Ger. *Uhren, Tuschenuhren*; Fr. *Montres*; It. *Oriuoli da tasca, o da saccoccia*; Sp. *Relojes de faltriguera*; Rus. *Karmannie tohasii*), portable machines, generally of a small size and round flat shape, that measure and indicate the successive portions of time; having, for the most part, their motions regulated by a spiral spring. When constructed on the most approved principles, and executed in the best manner, a watch is not only an exceedingly useful, but a most admirable piece of mechanism. It has exercised the genius and invention of the most skilful mechanics, as well as of some of the ablest mathematicians, for nearly 3 centuries. And, considering the smallness of its size, its capacity of being carried about uninjured in every variety of position, the number and complexity of its movements, and the extraordinary accuracy with which it represents the successive portions of time as determined by the rotation of the earth on its axis, we need not wonder at Dr. Paley having referred to it as a striking specimen of human ingenuity.

Spring watches are constructed nearly on the same principle as pendulum clocks. Instead of the pendulum in the latter, a spring is used in the former, the isochronism of the vibrations of which corrects the unequal motions of the balance.

Historical Notices. — The invention of spring watches dates from about the middle of the 16th century, and has been warmly contended for Huygens and Hooke. The English writers generally incline in favour of the latter. Dr. Hutton says — (*Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *Watch*), that the words “Rob. Hooke inventi, 1658,” were inscribed on the dial plate of a watch presented to Charles II. in 1675. But Montucla affirms (*Histoire des Mathématiques*, tom. II. p. 413. ed. 1800), that Huygens made this “*belle découverte*” in 1656, and presented a spring watch to the States of Holland in 1657. Comparing these statements, it certainly appears that the claim of Huygens to the priority of the discovery is the better established of the two. We do not, however, believe that either of those distinguished persons owed, in this respect, any thing to the other. The probability seems to be, that the happy idea of employing a spring to regulate the motion of watches occurred to them both nearly at the same time.

Improvement of Watches. — Owing to the facility with which the longitude may be determined by the aid of accurately going watches, it is of great importance to have them made as perfect as possible. In this view, liberal premiums have been offered to the makers of the best marine watches, or chronometers, by the governments of England, France, Spain, &c. In the reign of Queen Anne, parliament offered a reward of 30,000*l.* to any one who should make a watch, or other instrument, capable of determining the longitude at sea, within certain limits. This magnificent premium was awarded, in 1762, to the celebrated John Harrison, for a marine watch, which, being tried in a voyage to Barbados, determined its longitude with even more than the required accuracy. Other premiums, though of inferior amount, were subsequently given to Messrs. Mudge, Arnold, Karslaw, &c. Since 1722, 2 prizes, one of 300*l.* and one of 300*l.*, have been annually given to the makers of the Chronometers adjudged to be the best, after having been submitted to a twelve-months’ trial at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich. And to such perfection has the manufacture attained, that some of the chronometers employed by navigators, though carried into the most opposite climates, have not varied to the extent of 3 seconds in their mean rate of going throughout the year.

Watch Manufacture. — The watch-making business, though lately a good deal depressed, is largely carried on in London; the artists of which have attained to a high degree of excellence in this department. There may be about 14,000 gold and 45,000 silver watches annually assayed at Goldsmiths’ Hall, London. — (*Journal des Propriétés Métales*, vol. II. p. 418.) — the aggregate value of which is, probably, not much under 600,000*l.* The manufacture is also carried on to a considerable extent at Liverpool, Coventry, Edinburgh, &c. Watch movements used to be extensively manufactured at Frascat in Lancashire; but latterly, we believe, the manufacturers have been withdrawing to Liverpool.

On the Continent, watches are principally manufactured in Paris, Geneva, and in Nuremberg. Some of the French and Swiss watches, particularly the latter, are excellent; but, generally speaking, they are slight, and inferior to those made in London. Paris and Geneva watches are largely exported to foreign countries; and are everywhere in high estimation, particularly among the ladies.

Watches impressed with any mark or stamp, appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay mark or stamp, or purporting by any mark or appearance to be of the manufacture of the U. Kingdom, or not having the name and place of abode of some foreign maker abroad visible on the frame and also on the face, or not being in a complete state, with all the parts properly fixed in the case, may not be imported into the U. Kingdom, even for the purpose of being warehoused. — (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. § 58.)

Watches in China. — Pretty considerable numbers of European watches are imported into China; and it may be worth mentioning, as a curious instance of the diversity of tastes, that the Chinese, as well as most other Eastern nations, who can afford it, uniformly wear *watches in pairs*! This sort of extravagance is not, however, confined to watches, but extends to a variety of other articles. Shawls, for example, are invariably worn in India in pairs of exactly the same pattern; and it is hardly possible, indeed, to find a native dealer who will sell a single shawl.

WATER. It may be thought unnecessary, perhaps, to say any thing in a work of this sort with respect to a fluid so well known and so abundant. But, besides being an indispensable necessary of life, water is, in most large cities, an *important commercial article*. It is in the latter point of view, principally, that we mean to consider it. — Inasmuch, however, as the mode of supplying different places with water, and its price, necessarily vary in every possible way, we shall limit our remarks on these subjects to the metropolis only. The few remarks we intend to offer of a general nature will apply indifferently to any populous place, the supply of which with water occasions a considerable expense.

1. **Quality of Water.** — Dr. Ure has made the following statements with respect to the quality of water: — “Water,” says he, “is a very transparent fluid, possessing a moderate degree of activity with regard to organised substances, which renders it friendly to animal and vegetable life, for both which it is, indeed, indispensably necessary. Hence it acts but slightly on the organs of sense, and is therefore said to have neither taste nor smell. It appears to possess considerable elasticity, and yields in a perceptible degree to the pressure of air in the condensing machine.

“Native water is a solution, it were, found perfectly pure. The waters that flow within or upon the surface of the earth contain various earthy, saline, metallic, vegetable, or animal particles, according to the substances over or through which they pass. Rain and snow waters are much purer than these, although they also contain whatever floats in the air, or has been exhaled along with the water vapours.

deficiency caused by destruction, and the amt. waste, spoil, or not being covered, or such importers, owners of customs or great directions, as shall the treasury,

is expedient to make the parts beyond the l. from parts beyond the same may be pro- therefore entered, that be exported from the and before cockpit be same shall be entered amount of duty pay- goods, with one suf- be duly shipped and use for which they be for to the satisfaction

Care of the Officers. — removal or for exportation be shipped, under the of the proper officer of each person, and within the same way as the proper mill, or direct, and all shall be liable to the same as each Goods. — It shall any goods so “re- be received by the person which shall not be of the

for Freight as before which shall be landed in proprietors, and shall not be in goods seized landed, continue and we claim for freight in persons interested in the which such goods or mer- wares, or merchandise to what the same and before the landing rates of any such docks at unfiled may be landed and or agents, or any of them, authorized, empowered, or behalf given to them by owners, or other persons as goods and merchandise, not the warehouses belonging to the respective freight to liable as aforesaid shall be the rates and charges to subject and liable, or until a owner or owners or persons or proprietors of such are hereby authorized and in pursuance of the intent of the master, owner, vessels, or other persons as upon such goods or mer- or proprietors of such are hereby authorized and in pursuance of the intent of the master, owner, vessels, or other persons as upon such goods or mer- have been satisfied, upon the said deposit shall be by the person or persons the rates and charges due to the directors or proprietors, or when the said deposit shall

nor may all sorts of a list of the ware- ay, speaking gene- to those that may

Stockton
Sunderland
Banana
Tapanan
Truro
Tromsø
Widly
Whitburn
Wales
Woodbridge
Worthington
Yarmouth

Peterhead
Port Glasgow
Stirling

Westport
Wexford

boxes of presents: 1*l.* box, 2*l.* other packages not per week, 4*l.* each deposited in the King's ware- house taken out of the 1*l.* box warehouse in the 1*l.* per week.

- "The purity of water may be known by the following marks or properties of pure water:—
- "1. Pure water is lighter than water that is not pure.
 - "2. Pure water is more fluid than water that is not pure.
 - "3. It has no colour, smell, or taste.
 - "4. It wets more easily than the waters containing metallic and earthy salts, called hard waters, and feels softer when touch'd.
 - "5. Soap, or a solution of soap in alcohol, mixes easily and perfectly with it.
 - "6. It is not rendered turbid by adding to it a solution of gold in aqua regia; or a solution of silver, or of lead, or of mercury, in nitric acid; or a solution of acetate of lead in water.
- "Water was, till modern times, considered as an elementary or simple substance; but it is now ascertained to be a compound of oxygen and hydrogen."

2. *Supply of Water.*—London was very ill supplied with water previously to the early part of the 17th century, when the New River water was introduced into the city. This exceedingly useful work was planned and carried into effect by the famous Sir Hugh Middleton, who expended his whole fortune on the project; having, like many other public benefactors, entailed poverty on himself and his posterity by embarking in an undertaking productive of vast wealth to others, and of great public utility. The New River has its principal source near Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware, about 20 miles from London; but the artificial channel in which the water is conveyed is about 40 miles in length. Sir Hugh Middleton encountered innumerable difficulties during the progress of the undertaking, which it is probable would have been abandoned, at least for a time, but for the aid afforded by James I. The New River Company was incorporated in 1619, 6 years after the water had been brought to the reservoir at Islington. The undertaking yielded very little profit for a considerable number of years; but it has since become extremely profitable; so much so, that an original 500*l.* share has been sold for 16,000*l.*

The Chelsea Water-Works Company was formed in 1723, and (with the aid of 3 smaller companies, none of which are now in existence) it, and the New River, supplied all that part of the metropolis north of the Thames with water, down to the year 1810. In that year, however, 3 new companies, the East London, West Middlesex, and Grand Junction, were established, under the authority of different acts of parliament. At this moment the metropolis is supplied with water by the following companies:—

New River, Chelsea, East London, West Middlesex,		Grand Junction, Lambeth, Vauxhall, or South London, and Southwark Water Works.
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The following statements with respect to these companies are taken from Mr. Wade's treatise on the police of the metropolis. The Report of the commissioners appointed by government in 1827, to inquire into the state of the supply of water in the metropolis, is the principal authority on which they are founded.

"The New River Company get their supply from the spring at Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware. It comes in an open channel, of about 40 miles in length, to reservoirs at Clerkenwell. There are 2 reservoirs, having between them a surface of about 5 acres, and an average depth of 10 feet. These reservoirs are 84½ feet above low water mark in the Thames; and, by means of steam engines and a stand-pipe, an additional height of 66 feet can be given to the water, so that all the mains belonging to this Company are kept full by a considerable pressure of water. The highest service given by the New River is the cistern on the top of Covent Garden Theatre. The aqueduct by which the water is brought has only a fall of 2 inches per mile; thus it wastes, by evaporation, during the drought of summer, and is impeded by frost in the winter. At these times the Company pump an additional supply from the Thames, at Broken Wharf, between Blackfriars and Southwark Bridges. To this, however, they seldom have recourse; and their engine, erected since the works at London Bridge were broken down, has worked only 176 hours in the year. The New River Company supply 66,000 houses with water, at an annual average of about 1,100 hogheads each, or, in all, about 75,000,000 hogheads annually.

"The East London Water Works are situated at Old Ford, on the river Lea, about 3 miles from the Thames, and a little below the point to which the tide flows up the Lea. By the act of parliament, this Company must take its water when the tide runs up and the mills below have ceased working. The water is pumped into reservoirs and allowed to settle; and a supply of 6,000,000 gallons is daily distributed to about 42,000 houses. This Company supply no water at a greater elevation than 30 feet, and the usual height at which the delivery is made to the tenants is 6 feet above the pavement; they have 200 miles of iron pipes, which, in some places, cost 7 guineas a yard. This and the New River are the only companies which do not draw their supply of water entirely from the Thames.

"The West Middlesex derive their supply of water from the Thames, at the upper end of Madder-smith, about 9½ miles above London Bridge, and where the bed of the Thames is gravel. The water is forced by engines to a reservoir at Kennington, 369 feet long, 123 wide, and 20 deep, paved and lined with bricks, and elevated about 120 feet above low water in the Thames. They have another reservoir on Little Primrose Hill, about 70 feet higher, and containing 98,000 hogheads of water, under the pressure of which the drains are kept charged, in case of fire. They serve about 15,000 tenants, and the average daily supply is about 2,260,000 gallons.

"The Chelsea Water Works derive their supply from the Thames, about ¼ of a mile east of Chelsea Hospital; and they have 2 reservoirs—one in the Green Park and another in Hyde Park—the former having an elevation of 44 feet, and the latter of 70. These reservoirs, till within these few months, had never been cleaned, nor had there been any preparation made for that purpose in their construction. About ¼ of the water served out by this Company is allowed to settle in these reservoirs, and the remaining ¾ are sent directly from the Thames. Lately, the Company have been making preparations for filtering the water; and also for allowing it to settle in reservoirs, at Chelsea, before it is delivered into the mains. The Chelsea Company serve about 12,400 houses, and the average daily supply is 1,760,000 gallons.

"The Grand Junction Company derive the whole of their supply from the Thames, immediately adjoining Chelsea Hospital; thence it is pumped, without any filtration or settling, into 2 reservoirs at Paddington. These reservoirs are about 71, 80, and 92 feet above high water mark in the Thames; their

urited contents are 19,355,940 gallons; and by means of a stand-pipe, the water is forced to the height of 147 feet, or about 61 feet above the average height in the reservoir. The number of houses supplied by the Grand Junction Company is 7,700, and the average daily supply is about 2,800,000 gallons.

"The Lambeth Company take their supply from the Thames, between Westminster and Waterloo Bridges. It is drawn from the bed of the river by a suction pipe, and delivered to the tenants without being allowed to stand; there being only a column of 400 barrels at the works, as a temporary supply, until the engines can be started. The greatest height to which the Company force water is about 40 feet; the number of houses that they supply is 16,000, and the average service is 1,244,000 gallons daily.

"The South London, or Vauxhall Company, take their supply from the river Thames by a tunnel, which is laid 5 feet below low water mark, and as far into the river as the third arch of Vauxhall Bridge. At that particular place, the bed of the Thames is described as being always clean, and without any of those depositions of mud and more offensive substances that are found in many other places. Besides the greater purity of the bed of the Thames here than where any other Company on the south side take their supply, the Company allow the water to settle in reservoirs. The Vauxhall Company supply about 10,000 houses with about 1,000,000 gallons of water daily.

"The Southwark Water Works (the property of an individual) are supplied from the middle of the Thames, below Southwark and London Bridges; and the water thus taken is sent out to the tenants without standing to settle, or any filtration further than it receives from passing through wire grates and small holes in metallic plates. The number of houses supplied by these works is about 7,000, and the average daily supply about 730,000 gallons.

The results may be collected into a Table, as follows:—

Companies.	Services.	Average per Day, Gallons.	Gallons Annually.	Average per House, Gallons.
1. New River	-	13,000,000	4,056,000,000	352
2. East London	-	42,000	1,374,000,000	113
3. West Middlesex	-	15,000	709,000,000	120
4. Chelsea	-	2,760,000	829,160,000	142
5. Grand Junction	-	7,700	873,600,000	263
6. Lambeth	-	16,000	389,138,000	77
7. South London	-	10,000	312,000,000	100
8. Southwark	-	7,000	224,540,000	104
Total	-	185,100	8,274,000,000	157

Average per house north of the river - 195 gallons.

Average per house south of the river - 93 ditto.

It would appear from this Table, as if the supply of water were either excessive on the Middlesex side of the river, or very deficient on the Surrey side. But this discrepancy is more apparent than real. The inhabitants in the northern district are, speaking generally, decidedly richer than those in the southern district; they have, particularly in the west end of the town, larger families, and a much greater number of horses. There is also a much larger expenditure of water upon the roads in Middlesex than in Surrey. Still, however, we believe that there is a more liberal supply in the former than in the latter.

Monopoly of the Water Companies.—The sanction of parliament was given to the 3 new companies formed in 1810, not so much in the view of increasing the actual supply of water, as of checking monopoly, and reducing the rates by their competition. But these expectations have not been realised. For a while, indeed, the competition of the several companies was exceedingly injurious to their interests, and occasioned the total destruction of some of the inferior ones; but no sooner had this happened, than the others discovered that their interests were in reality the same, and that the true way to promote them was to concert measures together. In furtherance of this object, the 5 companies for the supply of that part of the metropolis north of the river proceeded to divide the town into as many districts, binding themselves, under heavy penalties, not to encroach on each other's estates; and having in this way gone far to secure themselves against any new competitors, their next measure was to add, *five and twenty* per cent. to the rates established in 1810; and these have, in several instances, been still further augmented! The benefits that were expected to result from their multiplication have, therefore, proved quite imaginary; and though the supply of water has been increased, it is neither so cheap nor so good as it might have been under a different system.

The results given in the above table apply to 1827; but in 1834 the following statement was laid before the House of Commons. It exhibits the number of houses supplied with water by the different companies, the quantity furnished to each house, and the different rates of charge.

Water Companies.	Houses supplied.	Total Yearly supply.	Daily Average to each.	Charge for 1,000 Hhds.	s.	d.
New River Company	70,145	114,630,000	314	17	2	
Chelsea do.	15,822	15,755,000	169	29	0	
Grand Junction do.	8,703	11,770,000	366	18	8	
W. Middlesex do.	16,000	20,000,000	185	45	8	
E. London do.	49,421	37,910,584	141	29	0	
S. London do.	13,016	8,100,000	160	15	0	
Lambeth do.	16,684	11,098,600	124	17	0	
Southwark do.	7,100	7,000,000	103	21	0	
Total water supply	191,068	237,014,761				

The striking discrepancies that appear in this table tend to confirm the principle we endeavoured to enforce in the article COMPANIES, that certain restrictions should, in almost all cases, be imposed on companies for the supply of water to a large city. These are not undertakings that can be safely trusted to the free principles that may generally be relied upon. If there be only one set of springs adjacent to a town, or if there be certain springs more conveniently situated for supplying it with water than any other, a company acquiring a right to such springs, and incorporated for the purpose of conveying the water to town, thereby gain an *exclusive advantage*; and if no fruits be set to its dividends, its partners may make an enormous profit at the expense of the public, without its being possible materially to reduce them by means of competition. What has happened in the case of the New River Company sufficiently evinces the truth of what has now been stated. Had its dividends been limited to any thing like a reasonable profit, the water that is at present supplied by its means might have been furnished for a small part of what it actually costs. But in cases of this sort, priority of occupation, even without any other peculiar advantage, goes far to exclude all regular and wholesome competition. A company that has got pipes laid down in the streets may, if threatened by the competition of another company, lower its rates so as to make the latter withdraw from the field; and as soon as this is done, it may revert to its old, or even to higher charges. It is not, in fact, possible, in common concerns of this sort, to have any thing like competition, in the ordinary sense of the term; and experience shows that whenever it is attempted, it only continues for a limited period, and is sure to be in the end effectually suppressed. We are, therefore, clearly of opinion, that no company should ever be formed for the conveyance of water into a large city, without a maximum being set both to the rates and the dividends;

giving the company an option, in the event of the maximum rate yielding more than the maximum dividend, either to reduce the rate, or to apply the surplus to the purchase of the company's stock; so that ultimately the charge on account of the dividends may be got rid of.

We are glad to have to add, that we are supported in what is now stated by the *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the supply of water for the metropolis, printed in 1821*. It is there said — "The public is at present without any protection even against a further indefinite extension of demand. In cases of dispute there is no tribunal but the Boards of the companies themselves, to which individuals can appeal; there are no regulations but such as the companies may have voluntarily imposed upon themselves, and may therefore at any time revoke, for the continuance of the supply in its present state, or for defining the cases in which it may be withdrawn from the householders. All these points, and some others of the same nature, indispensably require legislative regulation. All the subject matter is an article of the first necessity, and the supply has, from peculiar circumstances, got into such a course that it is not under the operation of those principles which govern supply and demand in other cases.

"The principle of the acts under which these companies were instituted, was to encourage competition; and certainly in this, as in other cases, it is only from competition, or the expectation of competition, that a perfect security can be had for a good supply. But your committee are satisfied, that, from the peculiar nature of these undertakings, the principle of competition requires to be guarded by particular checks and limits in its application to them, in order to render it effectual, without the risk of destruction to the competing parties and thereby, ultimately, of a serious injury to the public." And the committee proceeds to remark — "The submission of their accounts annually to parliament, for a few years, would necessarily throw light on this part of the question."

"We think that it would be highly expedient to adopt the suggestions of the committee, by calling upon the companies to lay annually detailed statements of their affairs before parliament. They should be obliged in these statements to give an account of the rates charged by them, and to make a special report as to every case in which they have withdrawn water from a householder. It is to no purpose to repeat, in opposition to this proposal, the common-places about competition securing for the citizens a sufficient supply of water at the lowest prices, in the same way that the competition of bakers and butchers secures them supplies of beef and bread! The statements already made show that there is no analogy whatever in the circumstances under which these articles are supplied. If a man be dissatisfied with any particular butcher or baker, he may to another place; but it is not possible for him to change his residence, unless he also change the place of his residence. No water company will encroach upon the district assigned to another; and supposing an individual unlucky enough to quarrel with those who have the absolute monopoly of the supply of the district in which he resides, he must either migrate to another, or be without water, unless he can get a supply upon his own premises! Such being the actual state of things, it is quite ludicrous to talk about competition affording any real security against extortion and abuse. Even the publication of the proceedings of the companies would be a very inadequate check on their conduct; but such as it is, it is perhaps the only one that can now be resorted to; and as it would have considerable influence, it ought not, certainly, to be neglected.

3. *Quality of the London Water.* — All the companies, with the exception of the New River and East London Companies, derive their supplies of water from the Thames; and in consequence of their taking it up within the limits to which the tide flows, it is necessarily, in the first instance, loaded with many impurities. But the reports that were formerly so very prevalent, with respect to the deleterious quality of the water taken from the river, have been shown to be very greatly exaggerated. The statement of Dr. Bostock, given in the *Report of the commissioners*, shows that by far the greater part of the impurities in the Thames water are mechanically suspended in, and not chemically combined with, it; and that they may be separated from it by filtration, or by merely allowing it to stand at rest. Most of the companies have recently made considerable efforts to improve their water; and though they have not done in this respect as much as they might and should have done, a considerable improvement has, on the whole, been effected: and notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, we have been assured, by those best qualified to form an opinion on such a subject, that, though not nearly so pure as a little pains would render it, there is not the slightest foundation for the notion that its impurities have been such as to affect, in any degree, the health of the inhabitants.

4. *Water for Ships.* — Various improvements have been made in the art of preserving water on board ships. Of these, the principal are the charring the inside of the casks in which the water is kept, and the substitution of iron tanks for casks. The latter, being made of the required shape, may be conveniently stowed into any part of the ship. In men-of-war, the iron tanks serve as ballast; the water being brought up by a forcing pump. Water is found to preserve better in them than in any other sort of vessel. Drip-stones may be employed with much advantage in the purification of water. When water is taken on board from a river into which the tide flows, it should, of course, be raised at low ebb.

WAX (*Ger. Wachs*; *Fr. Cire*; *It. and Sp. Cera*; *Rus. Воск*), a vegetable product. Several plants contain wax in such abundance, as to make it worth while to extract it from them. But all that is known in commerce consists of bees' wax. The honey is first pressed from the comb, and the wax is then melted into cakes. It has a slight odour of honey, is insipid, and of a bright yellow hue. It is brittle, yet soft, and somewhat unctuous to the touch. It is often adulterated with earth, pea meal, resin, &c. The presence of the former may be suspected when the cake is very brittle, or when its colour inclines more to gray than to yellow; and the presence of resin may be suspected when the fracture appears smooth and shining, instead of being granulated. Wax, when bleached or purified, is white, perfectly insipid, inodorous, and somewhat translucent; it is harder, less unctuous to the touch, heavier, and less fusible than yellow wax. It is sometimes adulterated with the white oxide of lead to increase its weight, with white tallow, and with potato starch. The first is detected by melting the wax in water, when the oxide falls to the bottom; the presence of tallow is indicated by the wax being of a dull opaque white, and wanting the transparency which distinguishes pure wax; and starch may be detected by applying sulphuric acid to the suspected wax, as the acid carbonises the starch, without acting on the wax. — (*Thomson's Chemistry, and Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Notwithstanding the large supply of wax produced at home, a considerable quantity is imported from abroad; and there can be no doubt that the imports would have been much greater, but for the magnitude of the duty, which formerly amounted to 10s. a cwt. on wax brought from a British possession, and to 15s. 30s. a cwt. on that brought from a foreign country. In 1843, however, these duties were reduced to 1s. and 2s. a cwt., which, there can be little doubt, will lead to a material increase of consumption. Of 8,468

cwt. of wax imported in 1840, 3,778 cwt. were brought from the western coast of Africa; 1,814 cwt. from Tripoli, Tunis, &c.; 1,435 from the East India Company's territories, &c.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. Weights are used to ascertain the gravity of bodies,—a quality depending partly on their magnitude, and partly on their density. Measures are used to determine the magnitude of bodies, or the space which they occupy.

(For an account of the weights and measures used in foreign countries, and their equivalents in English weights and measures, see the notices of the great sea-port towns dispersed throughout this work. Thus, for the Russian weights and measures, see *PETZASBURG*; for those of China, see *CANTON*; &c.)

Neither the magnitude nor the weight of any one body can be determined, unless by comparing it with some other body selected as a standard. It is impossible, indeed, to form any idea in respect of magnitude or weight, except in relation to some definite space or weight with which we are acquainted. We say that one article weighs 1 pound, another 2 pounds, a third 3, and so on; meaning not only that these weights are to each other as 1, 2, 3, &c., but also that the weight or specific gravity of the first is equal to the known and determinate weight denominated a pound, that the second is equal to 2 pounds, and so on.

Standards of Weight and Measure.—Standards of lineal measure must have been fixed upon at the earliest period, and appear to have consisted principally of parts of the human body,—as the cubit, or length of the arm from the elbow to the tip of the middle finger: the foot; the *ulna*, arm, or yard; the span; the digit, or finger; the fathom, or space from the extremity of one hand to that of the other, when they are both extended in opposite directions; the pace, &c. Large spaces were estimated by measures formed out of multiples of the smaller ones; and sometimes in day's journeys, or by the space which it was supposed an ordinary man might travel in a day, using a reasonable degree of diligence.

But lineal measures can only be used to determine the magnitude of solid bodies; the magnitude of bodies in a liquid or fluid state has to be determined by what are called measures of capacity. It is probable that, in the infancy of society, shells, or other hollow instruments afforded by nature, were used as standards. But the inaccuracy of the conclusions drawn from referring to them must soon have become obvious; and it early occurred, that to obtain an accurate measure of liquids nothing more was necessary than to constitute an artificial one, the dimensions, and consequently the capacity, of which should be determined by the lineal measures previously adopted.

The determination of the gravity or weight of different bodies supposes the invention of the balance. Nothing is known of the steps which led to its introduction; but it was used in the remotest antiquity. It seems probable that, at first, cubes of some common lineal measure, as a foot, or the fraction of a foot, formed of copper, iron, or some other metal, were used as standards of weight. When the standard was selected, if it was desired to ascertain the specific gravity or weight of any given article, all that was necessary was to put it into one of the scales of the balance, and as many cubes or parts of cubes on the other as might be necessary to counterpoise it.

Weights have, however, been frequently derived from grains of corn. Hence, in this, and in some other European countries, the lowest denomination of weight is a *grain*; and 32 of these grains are directed, by the ancient statute called *Compositio Mensurarum* to compose a pennyweight, whercof 20 makes an ounce, 12 ounces a pound, and so upwards.

In every country in which commercial transactions are extensively carried on, the importance of having weights and measures determined by some fixed standard becomes obvious to every one. But as the size of different parts of the human body differ in different individuals, it is necessary to select some durable article,—a metallic rod, for example,—of the length of an ordinary cubit, foot, &c., and to make it a standard with which all the other cubits, feet, &c. used in mensuration shall correspond. These standards have always been preserved with the greatest care: at Rome, they were kept in the temple of Jupiter; and among the Jews, their custody was intrusted to the family of Aaron.—(*Pausan, Métrologie*, p. 223.)

The principal standards used in the ancient world, were, the cubit of the Jews, from which their other measures of length, capacity, and weight were derived; and the foot of the Greeks and Romans.

In England, our ancient historians tell us that a new, or rather a revived, standard of lineal measure was introduced by Henry I., who ordered that the *ulna*, or ancient ell, which corresponds to the modern yard, should be made of the exact length of his own arm, and that the other measures of length should be raised upon it. This standard has been maintained, without any sensible variation. In 1742, the Royal Society had a yard made, from a very careful comparison of the standard ells or yards of the reigns of Henry VII. and Elizabeth kept at the Exchequer. In 1758, an exact copy was

made of the Royal Society's yard; and this copy having been examined by a committee of the House of Commons, and reported by them to be equal to the standard yard, it was marked as such; and this identical yard is declared, by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., to be the standard of lineal measure in Great Britain. The clause in the act is as follows:—

"From and after the 1st of May, 1825 (subsequently extended to the 1st of January, 1826), the straight line or distance between the centres of the 2 points in the gold studs in the straight brass rod, now in the custody of the clerk of the House of Commons, whereon the words and figures 'STANDARD YARD, 1760,' are engraved, shall be the original and genuine standard of that measure of length or lineal extension called a yard; and the same straight line or distance between the centres of the said 3 points in the said gold studs in the said brass rod, the brass being at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, shall be and is hereby denominated the 'IMPERIAL STANDARD YARD,' and shall be and is hereby declared to be the unit or only standard measure of extension, wherefrom or whereof all other measures of extension whatsoever, whether the same be lineal, superficial, or solid, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and that all measures of length shall be taken in parts or multiples or certain proportions of the said standard yard; and that 1-3d part of the said standard yard shall be a foot, and the 16th part of such foot shall be an inch; and that the pole or perch in length shall contain 64 such yards, the furlong 220 such yards, and the mile 1,760 such yards."— § 1.

The superficial measures are formed on the basis of the square of this standard; it being enacted, that

"The rod of land shall contain 1,210 square yards, according to the said standard yard; and that the acre of land shall contain 4,840 such square yards, being 160 square perches, poles, or rods."— § 2.

Uniformity of Weights and Measures.—The confusion and inconvenience attending the use of weights and measures of the same denomination, but of different magnitudes, was early remarked; and there is hardly a country in which efforts have not been made to reduce them to the same uniform system. Numerous acts of parliament have been passed, having this object in view, and enjoining the use of the same weights and measures, under very severe penalties. But, owing to the inveteracy of ancient customs, and the difficulty of enforcing new regulations, these statutes have always had a very limited influence, and the greatest diversity has continued to prevail, except in lineal measures. But the statute of 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. seems to have, at length, effected what former statutes failed of accomplishing. It is, perhaps, indebted for its success in this respect to the moderate nature of the changes which it introduced. We have already seen that it made no alteration in the lineal measures previously in use. Neither did it affect the previously existing system of weights: both the Troy and the Avoirdupois weights having been preserved.

"The Troy weight," says Mr. Davies Gilbert, late President of the Royal Society, "appeared to us (the commissioners of weights and measures) to be the ancient weight of this kingdom, having, as we have reason to suppose, existed in the same state from the time of St. Edward the Confessor; and we have no reasons, moreover, to believe that the word Troy has no reference to any town in France, but rather to the monkish name given to London, of Troy Novant, founded on the legend of Ilrute. Troy weight, therefore, according to this etymology, is, in fact, London weight. We were induced, moreover, to preserve the Troy weight, because all the coinage has been uniformly regulated by it; and all medical prescriptions or formulas now are, and always have been, estimated by Troy weight, under a peculiar subdivision which the College of Physicians have expressed themselves most anxious to preserve."

It was resolved, therefore, to continue the use of Troy weight; and also, on account of the accuracy of the Troy standard, to raise the Avoirdupois weight from this basis.

"We found," said Mr. Davies Gilbert, "the Avoirdupois weight, by which all heavy goods have been for a long time weighed (probably derived from *Avoles* (*Averia*), the ancient name for goods or chattels, and *Foida*, weight), to be universally used throughout the kingdom. This weight, however, seems not to have been preserved with such scrupulous accuracy as Troy weight, by which more precious articles have been weighed: but we had reason to believe that the pound cannot differ by more than 1, 2, or 3 grains, from 7,000 grains Troy; some being in excess, and others, though in a less degree, in defect, but in no case amounting to above 1, 2, or 3 grains. It therefore occurred to us, that we should be offering no violence to this system of weights, if we declared that 7,000 grains Troy should be hereafter considered as the pound Avoirdupois."

In accordance with these views, it was enacted,—"That from and after the 1st day of May, 1826, the standard brass weight of 1 pound Troy weight, made in the year 1758, now in the custody of the clerk of the House of Commons, shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the original and genuine standard measure of weight, and that such brass weight shall be, and is hereby denominated, the Imperial Standard Troy pound, and shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the unit or only standard measure of weight, from which all other weights shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and that 1-12th part of the said Troy pound shall be an ounce; and that 1-20th part of such ounce shall be a pennyweight; and that 1-24th part of such pennyweight shall be a grain; so that 5,760 such grains shall be a Troy pound; and that 7,000 such grains shall be, and they are hereby declared to be, a pound Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of the said pound Avoirdupois shall be an ounce Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of such ounce shall be a dram."

The measures of capacity were found to be, at the period of passing the late statute, in the greatest confusion; and a considerable change has consequently been made in them. The wine gallon formerly amounted to 231 cubic inches, the corn gallon to 268 8, and the ale gallon .282. But these are superseded by the Imperial gallon, which contains 277 274 cubic inches, or 277 1/2 very nearly. It is deduced as follows:—

"The standard measure of capacity, as well for liquids as for dry goods, is measured by heaped measure, shall be the GALLON, containing 10 lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water weighed in air, at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer being at 30 inches; and a measure shall be forthwith made of brass, of such contents as aforesaid, under the directions of the Lord High Treasurer or the commissioners of His Majesty's treasury; and such brass measure shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the Imperial standard gallon, and shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the unit and only standard measure of capacity, from which all other measures of capacity to be used, as well for

wine, beer, ale, spirits, and all sorts of liquids, as for dry goods not measured by heaped measure, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and all measures shall be taken in parts or multiples or certain proportions of the said Imperial standard gallon; and the quart shall be $\frac{3}{4}$ part of such standard gallon, and the pint shall be $\frac{1}{2}$ part of such standard gallon, and 2 such gallons shall be a peck, and 8 such gallons shall be a bushel, and 8 such bushels a quarter of corn or other dry goods, not measured by heaped measure."—§ 6.

We subjoin a Table showing the contents of the different gallons, both in measure and weight.

	Cubic Inches.	Avoirdupois Weights.	Troy Weight.
Imperial gallon	277.274	10 0 0	12 1 10 16
Corn gallon	368.8	9 10 0	11 9 0 13
Wine gallon	231	8 0 6 8	10 1 9 13
Ale gallon	362	10 2 11 1	11 6 8 6

Heaped Measures.—The greatest blemish, by far, in the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 74, was the continuance and legitimation of the practice of selling by heaped measure. This practice has since, however, been abolished, along with the use of all local and customary measures, by the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 63., which contains several important provisions.

This act sets out with repealing the 4 & 5 of Will. 4. c. 49., and the provisions in the acts 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. and 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., which require that all weights and measures shall be exact models or copies in shape or form of the standards deposited in the exchequer; and those allowing the use of weights and measures, not in conformity with the Imperial standard, established by said acts; or that allow goods or merchandise to be bought or sold by weights or measures established by local custom, or founded on special agreement. It then goes on to enact as follows:—

Weights and Measures stamped at the Exchequer declared legal.—Weights and measures verified and stamped at the exchequer as copies of standard weights and measures, shall be taken to be legal weights and measures, to be used for comparison as copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures, although not similar in shape to those required under the provisions of the said acts; and the comptroller-general, or other duly authorized officer of the exchequer, may compare and verify, and stamp as correct, standard measures of a yard, standard weights and standard measures of capacity, any weights and measures which correspond in length, weight, and capacity with the standards, or parts or multiples thereof, deposited in the exchequer, under the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., although such weights and measures may not be models or copies in shape or form of the standards so deposited.—§ 4.

Copies of the Standard Weights and Measures worn to be re-verified.—All copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures which have become defective, or have been mended, in consequence of wear or accident, shall forthwith be sent to the exchequer, for the purpose of being again compared and verified, and shall be stamped as re-verified copies of such standard weights and measures, provided the comptroller-general, or other officer appointed for such verification, deem them fit for the purposes of standards; and every new comparison and verification shall be indorsed upon the original indenture of verification; and such weights and measures shall be stamped upon payment of fees of verification only; and the comptroller-general, or other officer, shall keep an account of all copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures verified at the exchequer.—§ 5.

Local and Customary Measures abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, the Winchester bushel, the Scotch ell, and all local or customary measures, shall be abolished; and every person who shall sell by any measure other than one of the Imperial measures, or some multiple or aliquot part thereof, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s. for every such sale; but nothing therein shall prevent the sale of any articles in any vessel, where such vessel is not represented as containing any amount of Imperial measure, or of any fixed, local, or customary measure heretofore in use.—§ 6.

Heaped Measure abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, so much of the said acts as relates to heaped measure is hereby repealed, and the use of heaped measure shall be abolished, and all bargains, sales, and contracts made after the passing of this act, by heaped measure, shall be null and void; and every person who shall sell any articles by heaped measure shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40s. for every such sale.—§ 7.

Articles sold by Heaped Measure, how to be sold.—Whereas some articles heretofore sold by heaped measure are incapable of being stricken, and may not be conveniently sold by weight; it is enacted, that all such articles may henceforth be sold by a bushel measure, corresponding in shape with the bushel prescribed by the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. for the sale of heaped measure, or by any multiple or aliquot part thereof, filled in all parts as nearly to the level of the brim as the size and shape of the articles will admit; but nothing herein shall prevent the sale by weight of any article heretofore sold by heaped measure.—§ 8.

Coals to be sold by Weight.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, all coals, slack, culm, and cannel of every description shall be sold by weight, and not by measure, under a penalty of 40s. for every sale.—§ 9.

All Articles to be sold by Avoirdupois, except, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, all articles sold by weight shall be sold by avoirdupois weight, except gold, silver, platinum, diamonds, or other precious stones, which may be sold by troy weight; and drugs, which, when sold by retail, may be sold by apothecaries' weight.—§ 10.

The Stone, Hundred Weights, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, the weight denominated a stone shall, in all cases, consist of 14 standard pounds avoirdupois, the hundred weight of 8 such stones, and the ton of 20 such hundred weights; but nothing herein shall prevent any bargain, sale, or contract being made by any multiple or aliquot part of the pound weight.—§ 11.

Contents of Weights and Measures to be stamped on them.—All weights made after the passing of this act of the weight of one pound avoirdupois, or more, shall have the number of pounds contained in them stamped or cast on the top or side thereof in legible figures and letters; and all measures of capacity made after the passing of this act, shall have their contents stamped or marked on the outside thereof in legible figures and letters.—§ 12.

Weights of Lead or Pewter not to be stamped.—The stamping of weights of lead or pewter, or of any mixture thereof, is prohibited after the 1st of January, 1836; but nothing herein shall prevent the use of lead or pewter, or any mixture thereof, in the manufacture of weights wholly and substantially cast with brass, copper, or iron, and legibly stamped or marked "cased," or prevent the insertion of such a plug of lead or pewter into weights as shall be found necessary for adjusting them and affixing the stamp thereon.—§ 13.

Conversion of Rents, Tolls, &c.—Clause 14. and 15. regulate the proceedings that are to take place in England, Ireland, and Scotland, for the conversion of rents, tolls, &c. payable in weights or measures now abolished into Imperial standard weights and measures.

Flar Prices.—In Scotland, from and after the passing of this act, the flar prices of all grain in every county shall be struck by the Imperial quarter, and all other returns of the prices of grain shall be set forth by the same, without any reference to any other measure whatsoever; and any sheriff clerk, clerk of a market, or other person offending against this provision, shall forfeit not exceeding 5s.—§ 16.

Copies of Standards, Inspectors, &c.—Clauses 17, 18, 19, and 20, prescribe the mode in which copies of the standard weights and measures shall be provided in counties, cities, boroughs, &c., the appointment of inspectors of weights and measures, &c. Clause 22, orders, that the expense of providing copies of standard weights, with the remuneration to inspectors, be defrayed out of the county rate. Clause 23, prohibits any maker or seller of weights or measures from being appointed inspector, and orders all inspectors to enter into a bond of 50*l.* for the due performance of the duties of their office, and the safe custody of the stamps and standard weights and measures committed to their care. Clause 24, orders inspectors to attend at market towns when ordered by justices. The following clauses are of general importance.

Magistrates to procure Stamps for Inspectors for stamping all Weights, &c.—In England, the justices in general or quarter sessions assembled, and in Scotland the justices and magistrates at a meeting called by the sheriff, and in Ireland the grand juries, shall provide the inspectors with good and sufficient stamps for stamping or sealing weights and measures; and all weights and measures whatsoever, except as herein expressed, used for buying and selling, or for the collecting of any tolls or duties, or for the making of any charges on the conveyance of any goods or merchandise, shall be examined and compared with one or more copies of the imperial standard weights and measures provided under authority of this act for such inspectors, who shall stamp, so as best to prevent fraud, such weights and measures, if they be found to correspond with the said copies; and the fees for such examination, comparison, and stamping shall be those in the schedule at the end of this act; and every person using any weight or measure other than those authorized by this act, or some aliquot part thereof, or which has not been stamped as aforesaid, except as herein excepted, or which shall be found light or otherwise unjust, shall forfeit not exceeding 5*s.* and any contract, bargain, or sale made by such weights or measures shall be wholly null and void; and every light or unjust weight and measure shall, on being discovered by any inspector, be seized, and, on conviction, forfeited; but nothing herein shall require any single weight above 56 lbs. to be inspected and stamped, nor any wooden or wicker measure used in the sale of lime, or other articles of the like nature, or any glass or earthenware jug or drinking cup, though represented as containing the amount of any imperial measure, or of any multiple thereof; but any person buying by any vessel resembling the imperial or any other measure, or of any multiple thereof, is authorized to require the contents of such vessel to be ascertained by comparison with a stamped measure, such measure to be provided by the person using such wooden or wicker measure, glass, jug, or drinking cup; and in case the person using such last-mentioned measure or vessel refuse to make such comparison, or if, upon comparison being made, it be found to be deficient in quantity, the person using the same shall be subject to the forfeitures and penalties imposed on those using light or unjust weights or measures.—§ 21.

Weights and Measures once stamped need not be re-stamped.—No weight or measure duly stamped by any inspector appointed under the 4 & 5 Will. 4, c. 49., or this act, or by any person or persons authorized to examine and stamp weights or measures, shall be liable to be re-stamped, although the same be used in any other place than that at which it was originally stamped, but shall be considered as a legal weight or measure throughout the U. K., unless found to be defective or unjust.—§ 27.

Power to Justices, &c. to enter Shops and inspect Weights and Measures.—Justices, sheriffs, magistrates, and inspectors are authorized to examine weights and measures, and to order such as are light or otherwise unjust to be seized and forfeited; those using such weights and measures are subjected to a penalty of not more than 5*s.*; and a like penalty is imposed on those refusing to produce such weights and measures, or obstructing the magistrates.—§ 28.

Penalties on Inspectors counterfeiting Stamps, &c.—Inspectors or other persons authorized to inspect weights or measures, who shall stamp any weight or measure without verifying the same, or who shall otherwise misconduct themselves in their office, shall for every such offence forfeit not more than 5*s.*; persons forging or counterfeiting any stamp or mark used for stamping or marking weights or measures, forfeit for every offence not more than 50*l.* and not less than 10*l.*; and persons knowingly using weights or measures marked with such counterfeit stamps, forfeit for every offence not more than 10*l.* nor less than 2*s.*—§§ 29, 30.

Penalty on Price Lists, &c.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, any person printing, or clerk of any market or other person making any return, price list, price current, or any journal or other paper containing price list or price current, in which the weights and measures quoted or referred to denote or imply a greater or less weight or measure than is denoted or implied by the same denomination of imperial weights and measures under the provisions of this act, shall forfeit and pay not exceeding 10*s.* for every copy of every such return, price list, price current, journal, or other paper which they publish.—§ 31.

The remaining clauses relate to the recovery of penalties; and save the rights of the Founders' Company, and of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Schedule of fees to be taken by all inspectors of weights and measures appointed under the authority of this act:—

For examining, comparing, and stamping all brass weights, within their respective jurisdictions,—

Each half hundred weight	0 9
Each quarter of a hundred weight	0 5
Each stone	0 4
Each weight under a stone to a pound inclusiv	0 1
Each weight under a pound	0 0½
Each set of weights of a pound and under	0 2

For examining, comparing, and stamping all iron weights, or weights of other descriptions, not made of brass, within their respective jurisdictions,

Each half hundred weight	0 0
Each quarter of a hundred weight	0 2
Each stone	0 1
Each weight under a stone	0 0½
Each set of weights of a pound and under	0 1

For examining, comparing, and stamping all wooden measures, within their respective jurisdictions,—

Each bushel	0 3
Each half bushel	0 2
Each peck, and all under	0 1
Each yard	0 0½

For examining, comparing, and stamping all measures of capacity of liquids, made of copper or other metal, within their respective jurisdictions,—

Each five gallon	0 4
Each four gallon	0 3
Each three gallon	0 2
Each two gallon	0 1
Each gallon	0 0
Each half gallon	0 0
Each quarter and under	0 0½

Invariable or Natural Standards.—As the standards adopted in most countries have been in a great degree arbitrary, it has long been the opinion of scientific men, that, to construct a more perfect system of weights and measures, some natural and unchangeable basis should be adopted. It has, indeed, been contended by Pautcon and Bailly, that the measures of the ancients were deduced from a basis of this sort; and that the *stadium* always formed an aliquot part of the earth's circumference, that part differing amongst different nations and authors. But no learning or ingenuity can induce any one to believe what is so obviously incredible. The ancients had no means of determining the earth's circumference with any thing like the accuracy required to render it the great unit of a system of measures; and, what is equally decisive, no ancient author ever makes the slightest allusion to any such standard.

In more modern times, however, the idea of seeking for a unit of weight and measure in some unchanging natural object has been practically carried into effect. The standards that have been usually proposed for this object, have been some aliquot part of the quadrant of the meridian, or the length of a pendulum vibrating seconds at a given latitude. The latter has been in so far adopted into the existing system of weights and measures established by the act of 1823, that the length of the standard yard, as compared with that of a pendulum vibrating seconds in the latitude of London, is specified in the act as follows:—

"Whereas it has been ascertained by the commissioners appointed by his Majesty to inquire into the subject of weights and measures, that the said yard hereby declared to be the Imperial standard yard, when compared with a pendulum vibrating seconds of mean time in the latitude of London, in a vacuum at the level of the sea, is to the proportion of 36 inches to 39 inches and 1,363 ten-thousandth parts of an inch; be it therefore enacted and declared, that if at any time hereafter the said Imperial standard yard shall be lost, or shall be in any manner destroyed, defaced, or otherwise injured, it shall and may be restored by making, under the direction of the Lord High Treasurer, or the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any 3 of them for the time being, a new standard yard, bearing the same proportion to such pendulum as aforesaid, as the said Imperial standard yard bears to such pendulum."

TABLES OF ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, ACCORDING TO THE NEW OR IMPERIAL MEASURE.

IMPERIAL TROY WEIGHT.

The standard pound containing 5,760 grs.

	French Grammes.
1 Grain	= 0.0648
24 Grains	= 1 Pennyweight = 1.5552
20 Pennyweights	= 1 Ounce = 31.1027
12 Ounces	= 1 Pound = 373.2330

Troy weight is used in the weighing of gold, silver, jewels, &c. It is also used in ascertaining the strength of spirituous liquors; in philosophical experiments; and in comparing different weights with each other.

APOTHECARIES' WEIGHT.

	Fr. Gram.
1 Grain	= 0.0648
20 Grains	= 1 Scruple = 1.296
3 Scruples	= 1 Dram = 3.888
8 Drams	= 1 Ounce = 31.102
12 Ounces	= 1 Pound = 373.233

This weight is essentially the same as Troy weight, but differently divided. It is chiefly used for medical prescriptions; but drugs are mostly bought and sold by avoirdupois weight.

DIAMOND WEIGHT.—Diamonds and other precious stones are weighed by carats, the carat being divided into 4 grains, and the grain into 16 parts. The diamond carat weighs $\frac{3}{16}$ grains Troy; thus,

	Troy Weight.	Decigrammes.
16 Parts	= 1 Grain = $\frac{1}{16}$ Grains	= 51 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 Grains	= 1 Carat = $\frac{3}{16}$	= 205 $\frac{1}{2}$

IMPERIAL AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

	Fr. Gram.
1 Dram	= 1.771
1 Ounce	= 28.348
1 Pound	= 453.544
1 Quarter	= 12.699 1/4
1 Hundred wt.	= 50.796
1 Ton	= 1015.920

The dram is subdivided into 3 scruples, and each scruple into 10 grains; the pound, or 7,680 grains avoirdupois, equals 7,000 grains Troy, and hence 1 grain Troy equals 1.067 grains avoirdupois.

Hence also 144 lbs. avoirdupois = 175 lbs. Troy, and = 192 or ditto = 175 or ditto.

The stone is generally 14 lbs. avoirdupois weight, but for butcher's meat or fish it is 8 lbs. Hence, the hundred weight (cwt.) equals 8 stone of 14 lbs. or 14 stone of 8 lbs.

A stone of glass is 5 lbs. A seam of glass 24 stone, or 120 lbs.

Hay and straw are sold by the load of 36 trusses. The truss of hay weighs 36 lbs. and of straw 36 lbs. The truss of new hay is 60 lbs. until the 1st of September.

The custom of allowing more than 16 ounces to the pound of butter used to be very general in several parts of the country.

CHEESE AND BUTTER.

8 Pounds	= 1 Clove.
32 Cloves	= 1 Wey in Essex.
42 do.	= 1 do. in Suffolk.
56 Pounds	= 1 Firkin of Butter.

IMPERIAL LONG MEASURE.

	Fr. Metres.
12 Inches	= 1 Foot = 0.3048
3 Feet	= 1 Yard = 0.9144
5 1/2 Yards	= 1 Pole or Rod = 5.0291
40 Poles	= 1 Furlong = 201.1632
8 Furlongs	= 1 Mile = 1609.3069
3 Miles	= 1 League = 4827.9179
60 Geographical or 69 1/2 Eng. Miles	} 1 Degree = 11120.7442

Besides the above, there are the palm, which equals 3 inches; the hand, 4 inches; the span, 9 inches; and the fathom, 6 feet.

IMPERIAL SUPERFICIAL MEASURE.

	Fr. Sq. Metres.
144 Inches	= 1 Square foot = 0.0929
9 Square feet	= 1 Square yard = 0.8316
30 1/2 Square yards	= 1 Square pole = 25.2961
40 Square poles	= 1 Rood = 1011.6563
4 Roods	= 1 Acre = 4046.6548

The inch is generally divided, on scales, into 10ths or decimal parts; but in squaring the dimensions of artificers' work, the duodecimal system is adopted; the inch being divided into 12 parts or lines, each part into 12 seconds, and each second into 12 thirds.

Land is usually measured by a chain of 4 poles, or 22 yards, which is divided into 100 links. Ten chains in length and 1 in breadth make an acre, which equals 160 square perches, or 4,840 square yards.

CUBIC OR SOLID MEASURE.

	Fr. Cubic Metres.
1,728 Cubic inches	= 1 Cubic foot = .0283
27 Cubic feet	= 1 Cubic yard = .7654
40 Feet of rough timber, or 50 Feet hewn do.	} 1 Load or Ton = 1.1336
12 Cubic feet	= 1 Ton of shipping = 1.1892

By cubic measure, marble, stone, timber, masonry, and all artificers' works of length, breadth, and thickness, are measured, and also the contents of all measures of capacity, both liquid and dry.

IMPERIAL LIQUID AND DRY MEASURE.

Reduced from the Standard Gallon, containing 10 lbs. weight of distilled water, temperature 62°, barometer 30 inches.

Weight of Water	Cubic Feet.	Cubic Inches	Gals.	Quarts.	Pints.	Gills.	Fluid Ounces.	Minims.
5 lbs.		8-683	1					
10 lbs.		17-366	2					
15 lbs.		26-049	3					
20 lbs.		34-732	4					
25 lbs.		43-415	5					
30 lbs.		52-098	6					
35 lbs.		60-781	7					
40 lbs.		69-464	8					
45 lbs.		78-147	9					
50 lbs.		86-830	10					
55 lbs.		95-513	11					
60 lbs.		104-196	12					
65 lbs.		112-879	13					
70 lbs.		121-562	14					
75 lbs.		130-245	15					
80 lbs.		138-928	16					
85 lbs.		147-611	17					
90 lbs.		156-294	18					
95 lbs.		164-977	19					
100 lbs.		173-660	20					

In which copies of the appointments of the various officers, and orders all other, and the safe Clause 34. orders are of general

land, the justices a meeting called and sufficient witnesses, except duties, or for the and compared authority of this measures, if they comparison, and og any weight or which has not been wise unjust, shall measures shall be discovered by any any single weight the sale of lime, or gh represented as a person buying by multiple thereof, is in a stamped measure, glass, jug, or fuse to make such the person using or adjust weights

are duly stamped on or persons au- though the same is considered as a legal

a, sheriff, magis- such as are light or are subjected to a

authorized to inspect same, or who shall not more than 5l. in weight or measure, or exceeding 10s. for which they publish.

printing, or clerk of the peace, or other paper referred to denote or nomination of in- exceeding 10s. for which they publish.

the Founders' Com-

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The dimensions of the imperial standard bushel are as follows:—The outer diameter 19½ inches, and the inner diameter 18½. The depth is 12½, and the height of the cone, for heaped measure, is 8 inches. The contents of the imperial heaped bushel were 2815·4887 cubic inches. The subdivisions and multiples are in the same proportion.

WOOL WEIGHT.

Like all other bulky articles, wool is weighed by avoirdupois weight, but the divisions differ, thus, 7 Pounds = 1 Clove. 6½ Tods = 1 Wey. 1 Clove = 1 Stone. 3 Ways = 1 Sack. 2 Stone = 1 Tod. 12 Sacks = 1 Laet. A pack of wool contains 240 lbs.

OLD MEASURES SUPERSEDED BY THE IMPERIAL SYSTEM.

OLD WINE MEASURE.

	Cub. In.	Fr. Liter.
1 Pint	28·875	0·4731
2 Pints	57·75	0·9463
4 Quarts	115·5	1·8926
4½ Gallons	514 feet	159·0673
2 Tierces	11·228	317·9345
63 Gallons	8·421	238·4509
3 Hogshds. 1 Pipe or Butt	10·842	476·9018
2 Pipes	33·684	953·8036

The pint is subdivided into halves and quarters (the latter is called a gill. A rundlet is 18 gallons, and an anker 9.

Conversion of Old Wine Measure into Imperial Measure.—The old wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and the imperial gallon 277·274 ditto. Hence, to convert wine gallons into imperial gallons, multiply by $\frac{231}{277.274}$, or by $\frac{8331}{100000}$, and to convert imperial gallons into wine gallons, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{277.274}{231}$, or by $\frac{100000}{8331}$. But for most practical purposes, wine measure multiplied by 5 and divided by 6 will give imperial measure with sufficient accuracy, and conversely.

N.B.—The multipliers and divisors employed to reduce old wine, ale, &c. measures to imperial measure, serve also to reduce prices by the former to the latter.

We borrow, from the very complete and valuable work of Mr. Buchanan, of Edinburgh, on Weights and Measures, a

Table of English Wine Gallons, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.

Wine Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.
1	0·833111	26	31·66088	81	49·48666	76	63·51843
2	1·666222	27	29·93999	82	43·39177	77	61·14994
3	2·499333	28	32·71111	83	41·54666	78	64·99665
4	3·332444	29	34·16222	84	41·98777	79	65·81876
5	4·165555	30	34·99333	85	40·66111	80	66·64087
6	4·998666	31	35·82444	86	46·55421	81	67·46298
7	5·831777	32	36·65555	87	47·47722	82	68·18509
8	6·664888	33	37·48666	88	48·40022	83	69·00720
9	7·497999	34	38·31777	89	49·15322	84	69·82931
10	8·331111	35	39·14888	90	49·90622	85	70·65142
11	9·164222	36	39·97999	91	50·15922	86	71·47353
12	9·997333	37	40·81111	92	51·03222	87	72·29564
13	10·830444	38	41·64222	93	51·90522	88	73·11775
14	11·663555	39	42·47333	94	52·77822	89	73·93986
15	12·496666	40	43·30444	95	44·15221	90	74·76197
16	13·329777	41	34·13555	96	44·98522	91	75·58408
17	14·162888	42	34·96666	97	45·85822	92	76·40619
18	14·995999	43	35·79777	98	56·63145	93	77·22830
19	15·829111	44	36·62888	99	57·46445	94	78·05041
20	16·662222	45	37·45999	100	58·29745	95	78·87252
21	17·495333	46	38·29111	101	59·13045	96	79·69463
22	18·328444	47	39·12222	102	59·96345	97	80·51674
23	19·161555	48	39·95333	103	60·79645	98	81·33885
24	19·994666	49	40·78444	104	61·62945	99	82·16096
25	20·827777	50	41·61555	105	62·46245	100	82·98307

Hence, supposing the former denominations to be preserved, a tierce of wine = 35 imperial gallons very nearly; a putton = 70 ditto very nearly; a hogshd. = 92 ditto very nearly; a pipe or butt = 106 ditto very nearly; and a tun = 210 ditto very nearly.

OLD ALE AND BEER MEASURE.

	Cub. In.	Fr. Liter.
3 Pints	1 Quart = 20·25	0·3278
4 Quarts	1 Gallon = 282	1·1829
8 Gallons	1 Firkin ale = 1305 feet	36·9669
9 Gallons	1 ditto beer = 1468	41·6873
3 Firkins	1 Kilderkin = 2987	83·1744
3 Kilderkins	1 Barrel = 3·872	59·2448
1½ Barrel	1 Hoghead = 8·812	249·6282
2 Barrels	1 Punccheon = 10·750	332·6876
3 Hogheads	1 Butt = 17·624	499·0464
3 Butts	1 Tun = 33·248	998·0928

Conversion of Old Ale and Beer Measure into Imperial Measure.—The old ale gallon contains 282 cubic inches, and the imperial standard gallon 277·274 ditto. Hence, to convert ale gallons into imperial gallons, multiply by $\frac{277.274}{282}$, or by $\frac{1070445}{1000000}$; and to convert imperial gallons into ale gallons, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{282}{277.274}$, or by $\frac{983911}{1000000}$. Unless extreme accuracy be required, the first 3 decimals need only be used. And for most practical purposes, ale measure multiplied by 59 and divided by 60 will give imperial measure with sufficient accuracy, and conversely.

Table of English Ale Gallons, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.

Ale Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Imperial Gallons.
1	1·01704	36	36·44516	51	51·86927	76	77·89358
2	2·03408	37	37·49029	52	52·89030	77	78·91460
3	3·05112	38	38·47783	53	53·90333	78	79·92912
4	4·06816	39	39·49486	54	54·93036	79	80·94615
5	5·08520	40	40·51189	55	55·93739	80	81·96318
6	6·10224	41	41·52892	56	56·95442	81	82·98021
7	7·11928	42	42·54595	57	57·97145	82	83·99724
8	8·13632	43	43·56298	58	58·98848	83	85·01427
9	9·15336	44	44·57999	59	59·99551	84	86·03130
10	10·17040	45	45·59702	60	60·99854	85	87·04833
11	11·18744	46	46·61405	61	61·99857	86	88·06536
12	12·20448	47	47·63108	62	62·99860	87	89·08239
13	13·22152	48	48·64811	63	63·99863	88	90·09942
14	14·23856	49	49·66514	64	64·99866	89	91·11645
15	15·25560	50	50·68217	65	65·99869	90	92·13348
16	16·27264	51	51·69920	66	66·99872	91	93·15051
17	17·28968	52	52·71623	67	67·99875	92	94·16754
18	18·30672	53	53·73326	68	68·99878	93	95·18457
19	19·32376	54	54·75029	69	69·99881	94	96·20160
20	20·34080	55	55·76732	70	70·99884	95	97·21863
21	21·35784	56	56·78435	71	71·99887	96	98·23566
22	22·37488	57	57·80138	72	72·99890	97	99·25269
23	23·39192	58	58·81841	73	73·99893	98	100·26972
24	24·40896	59	59·83544	74	74·99896	99	101·28675
25	25·42600	60	60·85247	75	75·99899	100	102·30378

OLD DRY OR WINCHESTER MEASURE.

	Cub. In.	Fr. Liter.
4 Gills	1 Pint = 33·6	0·50685
2 Pints	1 Quart = 67·2	1·01370
2 Quarts	1 Pottle = 134·4	2·02740
2 Pottles	1 Gallon = 268·8	4·05480
2 Gallons	1 Peck = 637·8	8·08960
4 Pecks	1 Bushel = 2150·42	35·23430
4 Bushel	1 Coom = 4·977 feet	140·8721
2 Cooms	1 Quarter = 9·954	281·7443
5 Quarters	1 Wey or Load 43·770	249·37216
2 Weys	1 Last = 59·540	1018·74432

The Winchester bushel is 18½ inches wide, and 8 inches deep. Corn and seeds are measured by striking the bushel from the brim, with a round piece of light wood, about 2 inches in diameter, and of equal thickness from one end to the other. All other dry goods are heaped.

Conversion of Winchester Bushels into Imperial Bushels.—The Winchester bushel contains 2150·42 cubic inches, and the imperial standard bushel 218·192 ditto. Hence, to convert Winchester bushels into imperial bushels, multiply by $\frac{218.192}{2150.42}$, or by $\frac{96944}{100000}$; and to convert imperial bushels into Winchester bushels, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{2150.42}{218.192}$, or by $\frac{1031517}{100000}$. For practical purposes, multiply Winchester measure by 31 and divide by 32 for imperial measure, and the contrary.

Fr. Litres.
 = 0.9776
 = 1.1059
 = 4.6276
 = 96.9669
 = 41.5873
 = 83.1744
 = 159.2458
 = 249.9283
 = 332.0876
 = 409.0464
 = 998.0028

Measures into gallon contains standard galvert ale gallons or by 27.7573 or by 48 gallons into ale fraction 877.274 882 accuracy be read only used. The measure multiplie give Imperial and conversely.

om 1 to 100, with all Gallons.

Imperial Gallon	Ale Gallons	Imperial Quarts
86297	79	77.290338
86313	79	77.301469
86329	79	77.312600
86345	79	77.323731
86361	79	77.334862
86377	79	77.345993
86393	79	77.357124
86409	79	77.368255
86425	79	77.379386
86441	79	77.390517
86457	79	77.401648
86473	79	77.412779
86489	79	77.423910
86505	79	77.435041
86521	79	77.446172
86537	79	77.457303
86553	79	77.468434
86569	79	77.479565
86585	79	77.490696
86601	79	77.501827
86617	79	77.512958
86633	79	77.524089
86649	79	77.535220
86665	79	77.546351
86681	79	77.557482
86697	79	77.568613
86713	79	77.579744
86729	79	77.590875
86745	79	77.602006
86761	79	77.613137
86777	79	77.624268
86793	79	77.635399
86809	79	77.646530
86825	79	77.657661
86841	79	77.668792
86857	79	77.679923
86873	79	77.691054
86889	79	77.702185
86905	79	77.713316
86921	79	77.724447
86937	79	77.735578
86953	79	77.746709
86969	79	77.757840
86985	79	77.768971
86999	79	77.780102
87015	79	77.791233
87031	79	77.802364
87047	79	77.813495
87063	79	77.824626
87079	79	77.835757
87095	79	77.846888
87111	79	77.858019
87127	79	77.869150
87143	79	77.880281
87159	79	77.891412
87175	79	77.902543
87191	79	77.913674
87207	79	77.924805
87223	79	77.935936
87239	79	77.947067
87255	79	77.958198
87271	79	77.969329
87287	79	77.980460
87303	79	77.991591
87319	79	78.002722
87335	79	78.013853
87351	79	78.024984
87367	79	78.036115
87383	79	78.047246
87399	79	78.058377
87415	79	78.069508
87431	79	78.080639
87447	79	78.091770
87463	79	78.102901
87479	79	78.114032
87495	79	78.125163
87511	79	78.136294
87527	79	78.147425
87543	79	78.158556
87559	79	78.169687
87575	79	78.180818
87591	79	78.191949
87607	79	78.203080
87623	79	78.214211
87639	79	78.225342
87655	79	78.236473
87671	79	78.247604
87687	79	78.258735
87703	79	78.269866
87719	79	78.281000
87735	79	78.292131
87751	79	78.303262
87767	79	78.314393
87783	79	78.325524
87799	79	78.336655
87815	79	78.347786
87831	79	78.358917
87847	79	78.370048
87863	79	78.381179
87879	79	78.392310
87895	79	78.403441
87911	79	78.414572
87927	79	78.425703
87943	79	78.436834
87959	79	78.447965
87975	79	78.459096
87991	79	78.470227
88007	79	78.481358
88023	79	78.492489
88039	79	78.503620
88055	79	78.514751
88071	79	78.525882
88087	79	78.537013
88103	79	78.548144
88119	79	78.559275
88135	79	78.570406
88151	79	78.581537
88167	79	78.592668
88183	79	78.603799
88199	79	78.614930
88215	79	78.626061
88231	79	78.637192
88247	79	78.648323
88263	79	78.659454
88279	79	78.670585
88295	79	78.681716
88311	79	78.692847
88327	79	78.703978
88343	79	78.715109
88359	79	78.726240
88375	79	78.737371
88391	79	78.748502
88407	79	78.759633
88423	79	78.770764
88439	79	78.781895
88455	79	78.793026
88471	79	78.804157
88487	79	78.815288
88503	79	78.826419
88519	79	78.837550
88535	79	78.848681
88551	79	78.859812
88567	79	78.870943
88583	79	78.882074
88599	79	78.893205
88615	79	78.904336
88631	79	78.915467
88647	79	78.926598
88663	79	78.937729
88679	79	78.948860
88695	79	78.959991
88711	79	78.971122
88727	79	78.982253
88743	79	78.993384
88759	79	79.004515
88775	79	79.015646
88791	79	79.026777
88807	79	79.037908
88823	79	79.049039
88839	79	79.060170
88855	79	79.071301
88871	79	79.082432
88887	79	79.093563
88903	79	79.104694
88919	79	79.115825
88935	79	79.126956
88951	79	79.138087
88967	79	79.149218
88983	79	79.160349
88999	79	79.171480
89015	79	79.182611
89031	79	79.193742
89047	79	79.204873
89063	79	79.216004
89079	79	79.227135
89095	79	79.238266
89111	79	79.249397
89127	79	79.260528
89143	79	79.271659
89159	79	79.282790
89175	79	79.293921
89191	79	79.305052
89207	79	79.316183
89223	79	79.327314
89239	79	79.338445
89255	79	79.349576
89271	79	79.360707
89287	79	79.371838
89303	79	79.382969
89319	79	79.394100
89335	79	79.405231
89351	79	79.416362
89367	79	79.427493
89383	79	79.438624
89399	79	79.449755
89415	79	79.460886
89431	79	79.472017
89447	79	79.483148
89463	79	79.494279
89479	79	79.505410
89495	79	79.516541
89511	79	79.527672
89527	79	79.538803
89543	79	79.549934
89559	79	79.561065
89575	79	79.572196
89591	79	79.583327
89607	79	79.594458
89623	79	79.605589
89639	79	79.616720
89655	79	79.627851
89671	79	79.638982
89687	79	79.650113
89703	79	79.661244
89719	79	79.672375
89735	79	79.683506
89751	79	79.694637
89767	79	79.705768
89783	79	79.716899
89799	79	79.728030
89815	79	79.739161
89831	79	79.750292
89847	79	79.761423
89863	79	79.772554
89879	79	79.783685
89895	79	79.794816
89911	79	79.805947
89927	79	79.817078
89943	79	79.828209
89959	79	79.839340
89975	79	79.850471
89991	79	79.861602

In some markets, corn is sold by weight, which is the fairest mode of dealing, though not the most convenient in practice. Even where measures are used, it is customary to weigh certain quantities or proportions, and to regulate the prices accordingly. The average bushel of wheat is generally reckoned at 60 lbs.—of barley 47 lbs.—of oats 38 lbs.—peas 64, beans 63, clover 66, rye and canary 53, and rape 48 lbs. In some places, a load of corn, for a man, is reckoned 5 bushels, and a cart load 40 bushels.

Table of Winchester Quarters, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Quarters.

Winchester Quarters	Imperial Quarters	Winchester Quarters	Imperial Quarters	Winchester Quarters	Imperial Quarters	Quarters	Imperial Quarters
1	0.96945	26	25.90562	51	49.44180	76	73.67737
2	1.93890	27	26.17607	52	50.41184	77	74.64749
3	2.90835	28	27.14652	53	51.38188	78	75.61761
4	3.87780	29	28.11697	54	52.35192	79	76.58773
5	4.84725	30	29.08742	55	53.32196	80	77.55785
6	5.81670	31	30.05787	56	54.29200	81	78.52797
7	6.78615	32	31.02832	57	55.26204	82	79.49809
8	7.75560	33	31.99877	58	56.23208	83	80.46821
9	8.72505	34	32.96922	59	57.20212	84	81.43833
10	9.69450	35	33.93967	60	58.17216	85	82.40845
11	10.66395	36	34.91012	61	59.14220	86	83.37857
12	11.63340	37	35.88057	62	60.11224	87	84.34869
13	12.60285	38	36.85102	63	61.08228	88	85.31881
14	13.57230	39	37.82147	64	62.05232	89	86.28893
15	14.54175	40	38.79192	65	63.02236	90	87.25905
16	15.51120	41	39.76237	66	63.99240	91	88.22917
17	16.48065	42	40.73282	67	64.96244	92	89.19929
18	17.45010	43	41.70327	68	65.93248	93	90.16941
19	18.41955	44	42.67372	69	66.90252	94	91.13953
20	19.38900	45	43.64417	70	67.87256	95	92.10965
21	20.35845	46	44.61462	71	68.84260	96	93.07977
22	21.32790	47	45.58507	72	69.81264	97	94.04989
23	22.29735	48	46.55552	73	70.78268	98	95.01999
24	23.26680	49	47.52597	74	71.75272	99	95.99011
25	24.23625	50	48.49642	75	72.72276	100	96.96023

COAL MEASURE.
 Coals were formerly sold by the chaldron, which bears a certain proportion to Winchester measure.
 4 Facks = 1 Bushel.
 3 Bushels = 1 Sack.
 3 Sacks = 1 Vat.

French System of Weights and Measures.—The new metrical system established in France subsequently to the Revolution, is founded on the measurement of the quadrant of the meridian, or of the distance from the pole to the equator. This distance having been determined with the greatest care, its ten-millionth part was assumed as the *mètre*, or unit of length, all the other lineal measures being multiples or submultiples of it, in decimal proportion. The *mètre* corresponds pretty nearly to the ancient French *aune*, or yard, being equal to 3.07844 French feet, or 3.281 English feet, or 39.3708 English inches.

The unit of weight is the *gramme*, which is a cubic centimetre, or the 100th part of a *mètre* of distilled water of the temperature of melting ice; it weighs 19.424 English Troy grains.

In order to express the decimal proportion, the following vocabulary of names has been adopted, in which the terms for multiplying are Greek, and those for dividing Latin.

For multipliers, the word
Deca prefixed means - 10 times.
Hecto - - - - - 100 -
Kilo - - - - - 1,000 -
Myria - - - - - 10,000 -
 On the contrary, for divisors,
 the word *Deci* expresses the 10th part.
Centi - - - - - 100th -
Milli - - - - - 1,000th -

Thus, *Decamètre* means 10 *mètres*.
Decimètre - - - - - the 10th part of a *mètre*.
Kilogramme - - - - - 1,000 grammes, &c.
 The *are* is the element of square measure, being a square decamètre, equal to 3.655 English perches.
 The *stère* is the element of cubic measure, and contains 35.317 cubic feet English.
 The *litre* is the element of all measures of capacity. It is a cubic decimètre, and equals 2.1135 English pints, 100 litres maketh hectolitre, which equals 26.419 wine gallons, or 2.838 Winchester bushels.

SYSTEME DOUBLE, OR BINARY SYSTEM.—This new system has the metrical standards for its basis, but their divisions are binary, that is, by 2, 4, 8, &c.,

Measures of Capacity.

Millitre	-	=	0.00108 cubic inches.
Centilitre	-	=	0.01028 "
Déclilitre	-	=	0.10280 "
Litre (a cubic	}	-	7.6102808
decimètre)			
Décalitre	-	=	61.02838 cubic inches,
			or 2.1136 wine pints.
Hectolitre	-	=	3.8317 cubic feet, or
			36.419 wine gallons, 22 Imperial gallons,
			or 2.839 Winchester bushels.
Kilolitre	-	=	35.3171 cubic feet, or
			1 tun and 13 wine gallons.
Myrialitre	-	=	353.17146 cubic feet.

Superficial Measures.

Centiare	-	=	1.1960 sq. yards.
Are (a square decamètre)	-	=	119.6046 "
Décare	-	=	1199.0480 "
Hectare	-	=	11967.4604 "
			or 3 acres 1 rood 35 perches.

Weights.

Milligramme	-	=	0.0154 grains.
Centigramme	-	=	0.1543 "
Décligramme	-	=	1.5434 "
Gramme	-	=	15.4340 "
Déca gramme	-	=	154.3402 "
			or 5.64 drams avoirdupois
Hectogramme	-	=	3.2154 oz. Troy, or
			3.927 oz. avoirdupois.
Kilogramme	-	=	3 lbs. 5os. 3 dwt. 2 gra. Troy,
			or 3 lbs. 3 os. 4.682 drams avoirdupois
Myriagramme	-	=	25.753 lbs. Troy, or
			22.0485 lbs. avoirdupois.
Quintal	-	=	1 cwt. 3 gra. 35 lbs. nearly.
Millier, or Bar	-	=	9 tons 16 cwt. 3 gra. 13 lbs.

SYSTEMS USUEL.

Comparison of Weight.

Kilogrammes	Grammes.	Troy Weight.		Avoirdupois.
		Lbs. oz. dw. gr.	Lbs. oz. dr.	
1,000	=	2 5 2 3	7 13	35
Livre usuelle	=	1 4 1 13	1 3	1 10 1/2
Half	=	5 0 18 5	1 8	5 13 1/2
Quarter	=	4 0 9 25	4 6	4 6 1/2
Eighth	=	5 8 8	3 0 4 8	3 3 1/2
Once	=	31 2	1 0 2 25	1 1 1/2
Half	=	15 6	10 1 1 1/2	4 1/2
Quarter	=	7 6	5 0 6	2 1/4
Gros	=	3 0	2 12 25	2 1/2

Comparison of Linear Measures.

Measures usuelles	English Measure.	
Toise usuelle	Mètres.	Feet. Inch. Parts.
Pied, or foot	=	0.3 = 1 1 1 1/2
Inch	=	0.025 = 0 1 1 1/2
Aune	=	1 1/2 = 3 11 3
Half	=	0 1/2 = 1 11 7 1/2
Quarter	=	0 1/4 = 0 11 9 1/2
Eighth	=	0 1/8 = 0 3 10 1/2
Sixteenth	=	0 1/16 = 0 3 11 1/2
One third of an aune	=	0 1/2 = 1 3 0
Sixth	=	0 1/3 = 0 7 1 1/2
Twelfth	=	0 1/6 = 0 3 10 1/2

Comparison of Measures of Capacity.

Boisseau usuel	Litres.	Eng. Winch. Bush.
12 1/2	=	0.35474
With halves and quarters in proportion.		
Litron usuel	Paris Pints.	English Pint.
-	=	1.074
With halves and quarters in proportion.		

Ancient Weights and Measures. — This subject is involved in considerable difficulty; and to enter fully into it would be quite inconsistent with our objects and limits. But the following details, abstracted from the best authorities, may be useful to such of our readers as have occasion to look into the ancient authors.

TABLE OF VARIOUS ANCIENT WEIGHTS (according to different Authorities).

Attie obolus	-	{	English Troy Grains.
		{	8.2 Christiani.
		{	9.1 Arbuthnot.
Attie drachma	-	{	54.6 Chr.
		{	69 Pautoti.
Lesser Mina	-	-	3,892 Chr.
Greater Mina	-	{	5,180 Chr.
		{	5,454 Arb.
		{	6,900 Pauc.
Medical Mina	-	-	6,994 gr. Arb.
Talent = 60 minæ	=	-	cwt. English.
Old Greek drachm	-	{	146.5 Eng. Troy gr. Arb.
		{	67.5 = Roman denarius, Arb.
Old Greek mina	-	-	6,425 Do.
Egyptian mina	-	-	5,326 Do.
Ptolemaic mina of Cleopatra	-	-	5,985 Do.
Alexandrian mina	-	-	5,992 Do.
Dioscorides	-	-	5,992 Do.
Roman denarius	-	{	61.9 = Rom. os. Chr.
		{	62.5 = Rom. os. Arb.
Denarius of Nero	-	-	54 Pauc.
Papyrus	-	-	61.7 Do.
Ounce	-	{	418.1 Chr.
		{	437.2 Arb.
		{	431.2 Pauc.
Pound of 10 os.	-	-	4,150 Chr.
		-	4,941 Chr.
12 os.	-	-	5,248 Arb.
		-	5,174.4 Pauc.

SCRIPTURE MEASURES OF LENGTH. — (Arbuthnot and Hutton.)

Digit	-	=	Inches.
Palm	-	=	0.7496
Span	-	=	2.97
		=	9.91
Lesser cubit	-	=	1.485
Sacred cubit	-	=	1.7325
Fathom	-	=	2.21
Ezekiel's reed	-	=	3.465
Arabian pole	-	=	4.62
Schenus	-	=	46.2

Stadium	-	=	Yards.
Sabbath day's journey	-	=	1,155
Eastern mile	-	=	Miles.
Parasang	-	=	4.178
Day's journey	-	=	33.264

GRECIAN MEASURES OF LENGTH. — (Arbuthnot and Hutton.)

Dactylos	-	=	Inches.
Doron	-	=	0.75546
Doche	-	=	3.92187
Dichas	-	=	7.55468
Orthodoron	-	=	83.1018
Sphame	-	=	9.06562
Pous	-	=	12.0675
Pous	-	=	Eng. Feet.
Pygne	-	=	1.00729
Pygon	-	=	1.13203
Pechys	-	=	1.25011
Oryga	-	=	Eng. Paces.
Stadlos	-	=	1.00729
Dulos	-	=	100.72916
Millon	-	=	805.8338

ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH. — (Arbuthnot and Hutton.)

Digitus transversus	-	=	Eng. Inches.
Uncia, the ounce	-	=	0.7567
Palmus minor	-	=	2.901
Pes, the foot	-	=	11.954
Palmpes	-	=	Eng. Feet.
Cubitus	-	=	1.20675
Gradus	-	=	1.4505
Passus	-	=	2.4175
Stadium	-	=	0.967
Millare	-	=	120.875
		=	907

ROMAN DEY MEASURES. — (Arbuthnot and Hutton.)

Hemina	-	=	Eng. Pints.
Sextarius	-	=	0.8774
Modius	-	=	1.0148
		=	Eng. Feet.
		=	1.0141

thick viscid oil (train oil). The common whale is now rarely found, except within the Arctic circle; but at a former period it was not unfrequently met with on our coasts. There is a good account of the common whale, and of the manner in which the fishery is carried on, in Mr. John Laing's "Voyage to Spitzbergen;" one of the shortest, cheapest, and best of the innumerable books published on this hacknied subject.

The *Physeter macrocephalus*, or black-headed spermaceti whale, is chiefly found in the Southern Ocean. It usually measures about 60 feet in length, and 30 in circumference at the thickest part. The valuable part of the fish is the spongy, oily mass dug from the cavity of the head; this is crude spermaceti; and of it an ordinary sized whale will yield about 12 large barrels.

WHALE FISHERY (NORTHERN). We do not propose entering, in this article, into any details as to the mode in which the fishery is carried on; but mean to confine ourselves to a brief sketch of its history, and value in a commercial point of view.

It is probably true, as has been sometimes contended, that the Norwegians occasionally captured the whale before any other European nation engaged in so perilous an enterprise. But the early efforts of the Norwegians were not conducted on any systematic plan, and should be regarded only in the same point of view as the fishing expeditions of the Esquimaux. The Biscayans were certainly the first people who prosecuted the whale fishery as a regular commercial pursuit. They carried it on with vigour and success in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. In 1388, Edward III. relinquished to Peter de Puyanne a duty of 6*l.* sterling a whale, laid on those brought into the port of Biarritz, to indemnify him for the extraordinary expenses he had incurred in fitting out a fleet for the service of his Majesty. This fact proves beyond dispute that the fishery carried on from Biarritz at the period referred to must have been very considerable indeed; and it was also prosecuted to a greater or less extent from Cibourre, Vieux Boucan, and subsequently from Rochelle and other places.*

The whales captured by the Biscayans were not so large as those that are taken in the Polar seas, and are supposed to have been attracted southward in pursuit of herrings. They were not very productive of oil, but their flesh was used as an article of food, and the whalebone was applied to a variety of useful purposes, and brought a very high price.

This branch of industry ceased long since, and from the same cause that has occasioned the cessation of the whale fishery in many other places—the want of fish. Whether it were that the whales, from a sense of the dangers to which they exposed themselves in coming southwards, no longer left the Icy Sea, or that the breed had been nearly destroyed, certain it is, that they gradually became less numerous in the Bay of Biscay, and at length ceased almost entirely to frequent that sea; and the fishers being obliged to pursue their prey upon the banks of Newfoundland and the coasts of Iceland, the French fishery rapidly fell off.

The voyages of the Dutch and English to the Northern Ocean, in order, if possible, to discover a passage through it to India, though they failed of their main object, laid open the haunts of the whale. The companions of Barentz, who discovered Spitzbergen in 1596, and of Hudson, who soon after explored the same seas, represented to their countrymen the amazing number of whales with which they were crowded. Vessels were in consequence fitted out for the Northern whale fishery by the English and Dutch, the harpooners and a part of the crew being Biscayans. They did not, however, confine their efforts to a fair competition with each other as fishers. The Muscovy Company obtained a royal charter, prohibiting the ships of all other nations from fishing in the seas round Spitzbergen, on pretext of its having been first discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby. There can, however, be no doubt that Barentz, and not Sir Hugh, was its original discoverer; though, supposing that the fact had been otherwise, the attempt to exclude other nations from the surrounding seas, on such a ground, was not one that could be tolerated. The Dutch, who were at the time prompt to embark in every commercial pursuit that gave any hopes of success, eagerly entered on this new career, and sent out ships fitted equally for the purposes of fishing, and of defence against the attacks of others. The Muscovy Company having attempted to vindicate its pretensions by force, several encounters took place between their ships and those of the Dutch. The conviction at length became general, that there was room enough for all parties in the Northern seas; and in order to avoid the chance of coming into collision with each other, they parcelled Spitzbergen and the adjacent ocean into districts, which were respectively assigned to the English, Dutch, Hamburgers, French, Danes, &c.

The Dutch, being thus left to prosecute the fishery without having their attention diverted by hostile attacks, speedily acquired a decided superiority over all their competitors.

When the Europeans first began to prosecute the fishery on the coast of Spitzbergen, whales were every where found in vast numbers. Ignorant of the strength and strata-

* See *Mémoire sur l'Antiquité de la Pêche de la Baleine*, par Noel, 12mo. Paris, 1795.

gems of the formidable foe by whom they were now assailed, instead of betraying any symptoms of fear, they surrounded the ships and crowded all the bays. Their capture was in consequence a comparatively easy task, and many were killed which it was afterwards necessary to abandon, from the ships being already full.

While fish were thus easily obtained, it was the practice to boil the blubber on shore in the North, and to fetch home only the oil and whalebone. And, perhaps, nothing can give a more vivid idea of the extent and importance of the Dutch fishery in the middle of the 17th century, than the fact, that they constructed a considerable village, the houses of which were all previously prepared in Holland, on the Isle of Amsterdam, on the northern shore of Spitzbergen, to which they gave the appropriate name of *Smeerenberg* (from *smeeren*, to melt, and *berg*, a mountain). This was the grand rendezvous of the Dutch whale ships, and was amply provided with boilers, tanks, and every sort of apparatus required for preparing the oil and the bone. But this was not all. The whale fleets were attended with a number of provision ships, the cargoes of which were landed at *Smeerenberg*; which abounded during the busy season with well-furnished shops, good inns, &c.; so that many of the conveniences and enjoyments of Amsterdam were found within about 11 degrees of the Pole! It is particularly mentioned, that the sailors and others were every morning supplied with what a Dutchman regards as a very great luxury — *hot rolls* for breakfast. *Batavia* and *Smeerenberg* were founded nearly at the same period, and it was for a considerable time doubted whether the latter was not the more important establishment. — (*De Reste Histoire des Pêches*, &c. tome 1. p. 42.)

During the flourishing period of the Dutch fishery, the quantity of oil made in the North was so great that it could not be carried home by the whale ships; and every year vessels were sent out in ballast to assist in importing the produce of the fishery.

But the same cause that had destroyed the fishery of the Biscayans, ruined that which was carried on in the immediate neighbourhood of Spitzbergen. Whales became gradually less common, and more and more timid and difficult to catch. They retreated first to the open seas, and then to the great banks of ice on the eastern coast of Greenland. When the site of the fishery had been thus removed to a very great distance from Spitzbergen, it was found most economical to send the blubber direct to Holland. *Smeerenberg* was in consequence totally deserted, and its position is now with difficulty discoverable.

But though very extensive, the Dutch whale fishery was not, during the first 30 years of its existence, very profitable. This arose from the circumstance of the right to carry it on having been conceded, in 1614, to an exclusive company. The expense inseparable from such great associations, the wastefulness and unfaithfulness of their servants, who were much more intent upon advancing their own interests than those of the company, increased the outlays so much, that the returns, great as they were, proved little more than adequate to defray them, and the fishery was confined within far narrower limits than it would otherwise have reached. But after various prolongations of the charter of the first company, and the formation of some new ones, the trade was finally thrown open in 1642. The effects of this measure were most salutary, and afford one of the most striking examples to be met with of the advantages of free competition. Within a few years the fishery was vastly extended; and though it became progressively more and more difficult from the growing scarcity of fish, it proved, notwithstanding these disadvantages, more profitable to the private adventurers than it had ever been to the company; and continued for above a century to be prosecuted with equal energy and success. The famous John de Witt has alluded as follows to this change in the mode of conducting the trade: —

“ In this respect,” says he, “ it is worthy of observation, that the authorised Greenland Company made heretofore little profit by their fishery, because of the great charge of setting out their ships; and that the train oil, blubber, and whale fins were not well made, handled, or cured; and being brought hither and put into warehouses, were not sold soon enough, nor to the Company’s best advantage. Whereas now that every one equips their vessels at the cheapest rate, follow their fishing diligently, and manage all carefully, the blubber, train oil, and whale fins are employed for so many uses in several countries, that they can sell them with that conveniency, that though there are now 15 ships for 1 that formerly sailed out of Holland on this account, and consequently each of them could not take so many whales as heretofore, and notwithstanding the new prohibition of France and other countries to import these commodities, and though there is greater plenty of them imported by our fishers — yet those commodities are so much raised in the value above what they were whilst there was a company, that the common inhabitants do exercise that fishery with profit, to the much greater benefit of our country than when it was (under the management of a company) carried on but by a few.” — (*True Interest of Holland*, p. 63. 8vo. ed. London, 1746.)

The private ships sent by the Dutch to the whale fishery were fitted out on a principle that secured the utmost economy and vigilance on the part of every one connected with them. The hull of the vessel was furnished by an individual, who commonly took upon himself the office of captain; a sail-maker supplied the sails, a cooper the casks, &c. The parties engaged as adventurers in the undertaking. The cargo being brought to Holland and disposed of, each person shared in the produce according to his

proportion of the outfit. The crew was hired on the same principle; so that every one had a motive to exert himself, to see that all unnecessary expenses were avoided, and that those that were necessary were confined within the narrowest limits. This practice has been imitated to some extent in this and some other countries, but in none has it been carried so far as in Holland. It appears to us, that it might be advantageously introduced into other adventures.

When in its most flourishing state, towards the year 1680, the Dutch whale fishery employed about 260 ships, and 14,000 sailors.

The English whale fishery, like that of Holland, was originally carried on by an exclusive association. The Muscovy Company was, indeed, speedily driven from the field; but it was immediately succeeded by others, that did not prove more fortunate. In 1725, the South Sea Company embarked largely in the trade, and prosecuted it for 8 years; at the end of which, having lost a large sum, they gave it up. But the legislature, having resolved to support the trade, granted, in 1732, a bounty of 20s. a ton to every ship of more than 200 tons burden engaged in it; but this premium being insufficient, it was raised, in 1749, to 40s. a ton, when a number of ships were fitted out, as much certainly in the intention of catching the bounty as of catching fish. Deceived by the prosperous appearance of the fishery, parliament imagined that it was firmly established, and in 1777 the bounty was reduced to 30s. The effects of this reduction showed the factitious nature of the trade, the vessels engaged in it having fallen off in the course of the next 5 years from 105 to 39! To arrest this alarming decline, the bounty was raised to its old level in 1781, and of course the trade was soon restored to its previous state of apparent prosperity. The hostilities occasioned by the American war reduced the Dutch fishery to less than half its previous amount, and gave a proportional extension to that of England. The bounty, which had in consequence become very heavy, was reduced, in 1787, to 30s. a ton; in 1792 it was further reduced to 25s.; and in 1795 it was reduced to 20s., at which sum it continued till 1824, when it ceased.

It appears from accounts given in Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce* (vol. iii. p. 511., vol. iv. p. 130.), that the total bounties paid for the encouragement of the whale fishery, in the interval between 1750 and 1788, amounted to no less than 1,577,935*l.* It will be seen from the official account which follows, that there are no means of furnishing any accurate account of the sums paid as bounties from the year 1789 to 1813 inclusive; but it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain that the total bounties paid during the period from 1789 to 1824 considerably exceeded 1,000,000*l.* Here, then, we have a sum of upwards of two millions and a half laid out since 1750 in promoting the whale fishery. Now we believe that if we estimate the entire average value of the gross produce of the Northern whale fishery (and it is to it only that the preceding statements apply) during the last 3 or 4 years, at 100,000*l.* a year, we shall be considerably beyond the mark. But had the 2,500,000*l.* expended in bolstering up this branch of industry been laid out as capital in any ordinary employment, it would have produced 125,000*l.* a year of *net* profit; being 25,000*l.* a year more than the total value of the produce of the fishery, without allowing any thing for the capital wasted, and ships lost in carrying it on. Whatever, therefore, may be the value of the whale fishery as a nursery for seamen, it is absurd to regard it as contributing any thing to the public wealth. The remark of Dr. Franklin, that he who draws a fish out of the sea draws out a piece of silver, is ever in the mouths of those who are clamouring for bounties and protection against competition. But we apprehend that even Franklin himself, sagacious as he was, would have found it rather difficult to show how the wealth of those is to be increased, who, in fishing up one piece of silver, are obliged to throw another of greater value into the sea. We subjoin

An Account of the Number of Ships annually fitted out in Great Britain for the Northern Whale Fishery, of the Tonnage and Crews of such Ships, and of the Bounties paid on their Account, from 1789 to 1814.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
1789	161	46,599			1801	64	18,568	2,544	
1790	116	35,828	4,488	The documents from which the amount of bounties paid in the years 1789 to 1809 could be shown, were destroyed in the fire at the late Custom-house.	1802	79	25,529	3,129	
1791	112	35,928	4,583		1803	95	28,608	3,405	
1792	98	29,983	4,627		1804	93	29,056	3,597	
1793	82	25,487	3,310		1805	91	27,570	3,536	
1794	60	18,366	2,350		1806	91	27,097	3,713	
1795	44	11,748	1,601		1807				
1796	51	16,333	1,916		There are no documents in this office by which the accounts for these years can be rendered.				
1797	60	16,371	2,063		1811	113	36,076	4,708	45,799 11 0
1798	66	18,754	2,333						
1799	67	19,862	2,483						
1800	61	17,789	2,459						

It is not even certain whether the expenditure of 2,500,000*l.* upon bounties would really have had the effect of making the whale fishery be carried on upon a considerable scale, but for the occupation of Holland by the French, and the consequent hostilities in which she was involved with this country. These did more to promote and consolidate

the British fishery than any thing else. The war entirely annihilated that of the Dutch: and our government having wisely offered to the fishers of Holland all the immunities enjoyed by the citizens of Great Britain in the event of their settling amongst us, many availed themselves of the invitation, bringing with them their capital, industry, and skill. In consequence of this signal encouragement, the whale fishery of England was prosecuted with greater success than at any previous period; and at the termination of the late war, in 1815, there were nearly 150 valuable ships and about 6,000 seamen engaged in the Northern fishery, and about 30 ships and 800 men in that to the South.

After peace was restored, the English capitalists and others became apprehensive lest the Dutch should engage anew with their ancient vigour and success in the whale fishery. But these apprehensions were without any real foundation. The Hollanders, during the 30 years they had been excluded from the sea, had lost all that practical acquaintance with the details of the fishery, for which they had long been so famous, and which is so essential to its success. The government attempted to rouse their dormant energies by the offer of considerable premiums and other advantages to those who embarked in the trade. Three companies were in consequence formed for carrying it on; 1 at Rotterdam, 1 at Harlingen, and 1 in South Holland. But their efforts have been very limited, and altogether unfortunate. In 1826, the company of South Holland was dissolved, while that of Harlingen despatched 4 ships, and that of Rotterdam 2. In 1827, Rotterdam sent only 1 ship, and Harlingen 2. In 1828, 1 solitary ship sailed from Holland—a feeble and last effort of the company of Harlingen! and since then a ship or two has been occasionally fitted out by private adventurers, but generally without success.

Such has been the fate of the Dutch whale fishery. The attempts to revive it failed, not because the ships sent out were ill calculated for the service, but because they were manned by unskilful seamen. In the early ages of the fishery, this difficulty would have been got over, because, owing to the fewness of competitors, and the scanty supply of oil and whalebone, even a small cargo brought a high price; but at present, when the fishery is prosecuted on a very large scale and at a very low rate of profit by the English, the Americans, the Hamburgers, &c., no new competitor coming into the field could expect to maintain himself unless he had nearly equal advantages. The Dutch have, therefore, done wisely in withdrawing from the trade. Any attempt to establish it by the aid of bounties and other artificial encouragements would be one of which the ultimate success must be very doubtful, and which could lead to no really useful result. During the 20 years preceding the late French war, the fishery of Holland was gradually declining, and had, in a great measure, ceased to be profitable. It would be folly to endeavour to raise anew, and at a great expense, a branch of industry that had become unproductive at a former period, when there is no ground for supposing that it would be more productive at this moment.

We have already noticed several changes of the localities in which the whale fishery has been carried on at different periods; and within these few years others of the same kind have taken place. The Dutch fishers first began to frequent Davis's Straits in 1719; and as the whales had not hitherto been pursued into this vast recess, they were found in greater numbers than in the seas round Spitzbergen. From about this period it was usually resorted to by about 3-10ths of the Dutch ships. It was not till a comparatively late period that Davis's Straits began to be frequented by English whalers; and down to 1820, when Captain Scoresby published his elaborate and valuable work on the whale fishery, that carried on in the Greenland seas was by far the most considerable. But it will be seen from the subjoined account, that from 1826 down to 1837 the Greenland seas were nearly abandoned. This was principally a consequence of the greater abundance of whales in Davis's Straits, but it was, also, in part owing to the various discoveries made by the expeditions fitted out by government for exploring the seas and inlets to the westward of Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay having made the fishers acquainted with several new and advantageous situations for the prosecution of their business. Since 1837, however, the few ships that have been sent out have gone mostly to the Greenland seas.

The sea in Davis's Straits is less incommoded with field ice than the Greenland and Spitzbergen seas, but it abounds with icebergs; and the fishery, when carried on in Baffin's Bay and Lancaster Sound, is more dangerous, perhaps, than any that has hitherto been attempted.

The subjoined table shows how rapidly the Northern fishery has declined of late years, and it also shows the extremely hazardous and fluctuating nature of the trade. It may now, however, be considered as all but abandoned, in so far at least as the capture of whales is concerned, the produce of the fishery, during the 3 years ending with 1842, scanty as it was, having consisted principally of seals. Nor is this to be regretted. For many years past it has partaken more of the nature of a gambling pursuit than of a branch of sober industry; and has, on the whole, been productive of a heavy loss.

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Years.	Tons of Blow.	Price of Common Oil per Tun.
1800	958	47
1801	813	33
1802	813	33
1803	539	38
1804	668	47
1805	516	39
1806	555	43
1807	422	36
1808	474	35
1809	533	32
1810	580	26
1811	668	32
1812	753	37
1813	802	35
1814	802	35
1815	802	43
1816	802	43
1817	802	43
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1850	802	43

latterly it has been unprosperous and declining, in consequence principally of the competition of the colonists in Australia, who are incomparably better situated for the prosecution of this branch of industry. The *Macrorhynchus*, or sperm whale, is particularly abundant in the neighbourhood of the Spice Islands; and Mr. Crawford, in his valuable work on the *Eastern Archipelago* (iii. 447.), has entered into some details to show that the fishery carried on there is of greater importance than the spice trade. Unluckily, however, the statements on which Mr. Crawford founded his comparisons were entirely erroneous, neither the ships nor the men employed amounting to more than 1-5th or 1-6th part of what he has represented.

We subjoin a

Statement of the Southern Whale Fishery carried on from Great Britain since 1800; exhibiting the Total Number of Ships annually absent from Great Britain on Whaling Expeditions; the Total Number of Ships that annually returned to Great Britain; and the annual Imports of Sperm and Common Oil, with the Prices of each.

Years.	Ships at Sea.	Ships return- ed.	Sperm Oil Imported.			Common Oil imported.	Price of Sperm Oil per Tun.	Price of Common Oil per Tun.	Total Value of Imports.	
			British.	Colonial.	American.					
			Tons.			Tons.	£	£	£	
1800	54	35	1,351			2,836	70	20	173,550	
1801	78	33	1,551			3,536	61	30	185,040	
1802	90	36	1,108			3,949	80	29	260,972	
1803	92	28	1,770			4,486	80	25	396,390	
1804	99	37	1,504			4,210	73	32	365,976	
1805	86	22	2,413			3,059	75	30	273,545	
1806	60	28	2,538			3,739	70	26	300,304	
1807	43	30	1,551			1,473	78	21	160,730	
1808	33	30	1,681			2,140	93	34	223,098	
1809	43	15	1,684			3,008	63	30	235,567	
1810	43	10	1,410			763	103	44	180,190	
1811	59	37	2,404			966	100	37	376,142	
1812	48	19	1,259			636	49	20	207,486	
1813	41	23	2,298			2,181	82	60	309,596	
1814	48	19	2,695			1,977	66	40	346,330	
1815	46	15	1,121			1,267	66	28	145,228	
1816	54	31	2,505			2,996	55	26	327,749	
1817	74	34	1,969			3,008	63	30	318,558	
1818	91	31	2,298			4,002	75	36	408,469	
1819	110	40	2,678			4,285	83	26	473,275	
1820	137	39	2,712			5,051	71	25	515,458	
1821	123	34	3,616			4,570	60	19	503,190	
1822	118	41	6,011			1,970	54	22	356,934	
			British.	Colonial.	American.	British.	Colonial.			
1823	114	57	5,291	296	-	1,732	668	45	31	583,598
1824	96	48	3,495	150	-	1,432	118	40	21	273,010
1825	85	32	4,331	65	-	1,104	412	48	50	256,488
1826	78	28	5,095	308	-	454	260	63	34	335,567
1827	80	29	4,476	334	-	583	474	70	27	267,433
1828	83	30	3,216	116	-	156	238	79	25	375,078
1829	85	32	4,495	218	-	108	476	74	23	495,989
1830	104	35	4,157	496	-	419	904	72	23	392,049
1831	101	37	5,008	1,676	-	192	1,568	73	23	634,747
1832	106	30	3,276	1,269	-	402	1,750	61	23	482,201
1833	110	19	3,431	2,808	-	320	1,845	62	25	457,293
1834	99	34	4,621	1,719	-	149	2,094	63	25	635,044
1835	69	25	3,631	2,280	-	311	1,157	73	28	648,319
1836	82	26	4,285	2,716	-	289	1,180	80	29	697,006
1837	86	19	3,118	1,681	-	381	4,223	84	33	845,578
1838	84	31	3,901	1,434	-	30	7,914	84	33	721,840
1839	77	24	4,250	1,328	-	170	6,315	85	33	691,360
1840	72	16	2,849	1,719	1,712	184	6,270	101	25	901,542
1841	57	30	3,310	1,264	228	101	3,423	96	31	688,406
1842	59	18	2,027	673	1,178	-	3,217	80	40	364,680

* The ships for this and the succeeding years, as for the previous ones, do not include colonial ships, but those from Britain only.
† From this year commenced the Imperial Measure.

American Whale Fishery. — For a lengthened period, the Americans have prosecuted the whale fishery with greater vigour and success than, perhaps, any other people. They commenced it in 1690, and for about 50 years found an ample supply of fish on their own shores. But the whale having abandoned them, the American navigators entered with extraordinary ardour into the fisheries carried on in the Northern and Southern Oceans. From 1778 to 1775, Massachusetts employed annually 183 vessels, carrying 19,820 tons, in the former; and 121 vessels, carrying 14,026 tons, in the latter. Mr. Burke, in his famous speech on American affairs in 1774, adverted to this wonderful display of daring enterprise as follows: —

“As to the wealth,” said he, “which the colonies have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought these acquisitions of value, for they seemed to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised esteem and admiration. And pray, Sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the New England people carry on the whale fishery. While we follow them among the trembling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson’s Bay and Davis’s Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the South. Falkland Island, which seemed so remote and so romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place for their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both poles. We learn, that while some of them draw the line or strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brazil. No sea, but what is vexed with their fisheries; no climate that is not witness of their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterity and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pursued by this recent people; a people who are still in the graticle, and not hardened tutu manhood.”

The unfortunate war that broke out soon after this speech was delivered, checked for a while the progress of the fishery; but it was resumed with renewed vigour as soon as peace was restored. The American fishery has been principally carried on from Nantucket and New Bedford in Massachusetts; and for a considerable time past the ships have mostly resorted to the Southern seas. "Although," says Mr. Pitkin, "Great Britain has, at various times, given large bounties to her ships employed in this fishery, yet the whalemens of Nantucket and New Bedford, unprotected and unsupported by any thing but their own industry and enterprise, have generally been able to meet their competitors in a foreign market."—(*Commerces of the U. States*, 2d ed. p. 46.)

We subjoin

An Account of the Arrivals of Whale Ships at the different Ports of the U. States in 1841, and of the Imports of Sperm and common Oil in that Year and 1842.

Ports of Arrival.	Arrivals in 1841.			Imports of Oil in 1841.		Imports of Oil in 1842.	
	Ships and Barques.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sperm.	Whale.	Sperm.	Whale.
New Bedford	48	7	2	Barrels. 54,880	Barrels. 49,550	Barrels. 71,293	Barrels. 51,113
Nantucket	31	3	1	29,291	3,403	46,239	600
Fairhaven	15	-	-	8,860	16,450	14,400	13,000
Dartmouth	1	-	-	3,900	-	1,100	900
Westport	3	3	-	3,180	-	3,040	160
Matapoisett and Stippican	9	0	-	3,980	70	3,070	500
Wareham	-	5	-	1,430	220	1,240	3,800
Edgartown	3	1	-	8,160	80	9,287	18
Holmes Hole	1	-	-	503	1,800	800	9,000
Fall River	3	-	-	800	900	3,550	1,100
Newburyport	1	-	-	400	400	-	-
Plymouth	-	1	3	400	13	598	8
Rahm	-	-	-	1,300	973	7,430	9,300
Boston	2	5	-	6,210	1,000	7,214	4,784
Falmouth	-	-	-	1,300	278	800	-
Provincetown	1	5	-	1,025	40	1,370	165
Newport	-	2	1	4,297	45	3,940	370
Bristol	3	3	-	3,350	175	4,300	3,400
Warren	3	1	-	3,115	5,300	1,500	858
Providence	3	-	-	1,670	7,350	-	-
New London	15	3	2	4,115	27,000	4,218	28,494
Stonington	3	-	-	1,400	2,400	1,781	6,132
Mystic	1	1	-	601	1,000	773	5,963
Sagharbour	24	-	-	1,400	46,000	3,293	24,490
Groswamp	4	-	-	1,400	6,000	750	574
New Suffolk	1	-	-	867	1,000	-	-
Bridgeport	1	-	-	408	5,700	-	-
Hudson	1	-	-	800	2,500	350	5,470
Poughkeepsie	1	-	-	800	3,000	-	-
Wilmington	1	-	-	3,400	3,400	-	-
Newark	1	-	-	40	3,400	-	-
Cold Spring	2	-	-	-	4,200	-	-
Jamaicport	1	-	-	150	1,300	-	1,800
Wicasset	1	-	-	900	1,000	-	-
Portland	1	-	-	200	3,000	-	-
New York	-	-	-	-	1,000	2,100	5,000
Somerset	-	-	-	-	-	250	500
Portsmouth	-	-	-	-	-	470	1,800
Bucksport	-	-	-	-	-	110	-
Total	171	42	9	137,443	903,164	165,697	185,216

French Whale Fishery.— France, which preceded the other nations of Europe in the whale fishery, can hardly be said, for many years past, to have had much share in it. In 1784, Louis XVI. endeavoured to revive the fishery. With this view he fitted out 6 ships at Dunkirk on his own account, which were furnished with harpooners and a number of experienced seamen brought at a great expense from Nantucket. The adventure was more successful than could have been reasonably expected, considering the auspices under which it was carried on. Several private individuals followed the example of his Majesty, and in 1790 France had about 40 ships employed in the fishery. The revolutionary war destroyed every vestige of this rising trade. But since the peace, government has made great efforts for its renewal; and, at present, high bounties are granted to all vessels fitted out for the whale fisheries, but especially to those engaged in the sperm fishery. These, however, have not been so successful in forcing ships into this trade as might have been anticipated; for it appears from the official accounts, that in 1841, only 27 ships entered the different ports of France from the whale fisheries; while only 4 ships cleared out for the same in the course of that year!—(*Administration des Douanes* for 1841, p. 588.)

WHARF, a sort of quay, constructed of wood or stone, on the margin of a roadstead or harbour, alongside of which ships or lighters are brought for the sake of being conveniently loaded or unloaded.

There are 2 denominations of wharfs, viz. *legal quays* and *suffrance wharfs*. The former are certain wharfs in all sea-ports, at which all goods are required by the 1 Edw. c. 11. to be landed and shipped, and they were set out for that purpose by commission from the Court of Exchequer, in the reign of Charles II. and subsequent sovereigns. Many others have been legalised by act of parliament. In some ports, as Chelstow, Gloucester, &c., certain wharfs are deemed legal quays by immemorial practice, though not set out by commission, or legalised by act of parliament.

Suffrance wharfs are places where certain goods may be landed and shipped, such as hemp, flax, coal, and other bulky goods, by special suffrance granted by the Crown for that purpose.

WHARFAGE, the fee paid for landing goods on a wharf, or for shipping them off.

The stat. 22 Chas. 2. c. 11., after providing for the establishment of wharfs and quays, makes it lawful for any person to lade or unlade goods, on paying wharfage and craneage at the rates appointed by the king in council.

WHEAT (Ger. *Weitzen*; Du. *Tarwe*; Da. *Hvede*; Sw. *Hoete*; Fr. *Froment*, *Bled*, *Blé*; It. *Grano*, *Formento*; Sp. and Port. *Trigo*; Rus. *Pachenzia*; Pol. *Pazznica*), a species of bread corn (*Triticum* Lin.), by far the most important of any cultivated in Europe. We are totally ignorant of the country whence this valuable grain was first derived; but it was very early cultivated in Sicily. It is raised in almost every part of the temperate zones, and in some places as high as 2,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The kinds of wheat sown are numerous, but they may be classed under 4 heads: viz. cone or bearded wheat, which, however, is now little cultivated; white wheat, of which there are innumerable varieties, the *white Dantzic* being considered one of the best; red wheat, which is seldom sown where the climate is good and early, and the land in proper condition; and spring wheat. A greater number of people are nourished by rice than by wheat; but owing to the greater quantity of gluten which the latter contains, it makes by far the best bread. Rye comes nearer to wheat in its bread-making qualities than any other sort of grain; still, however, it is very inferior to it. The finest samples of wheat are small in the berry, thin skinned, fresh, plump, and bright, slipping readily through the fingers.

Being very extensively cultivated on soils of very various qualities, and frequently with very imperfect preparation, the produce of wheat crops in Great Britain varies from about 12 to 56 bushels per acre.

The counties most distinguished for the quantity and quality of their wheat are, Kent, Essex, Suffolk, Rutland, Hertfordshire, Berkshire, Hampshire, and Herefordshire, in England; and Berwickshire, and the Lothians, in Scotland. In the northern counties it is, speaking generally, of an inferior quality; being cold to the feel, dark coloured, thick skinned, and yielding comparatively little flour. In the best wheat countries, and in good years, the weight of a Winchester bushel of wheat is from 60 to 62 lbs. In the Isle of Sheppey, in Kent (where, perhaps, the best samples of wheat sent to the London market are produced), this grain, in some favourable seasons, weighs 64 lbs. a bushel. Where the climate is colder, wetter, or more backward, or in bad seasons, the weight of the bushel of wheat is not more than 56 or 57 lbs. It is calculated that the average weight of the bushel of good English wheat is 58½ lbs.; and that the average yield of flour is 13 lbs. of flour to 14 lbs. of grain. — (See Mr. Stevenson's very valuable article on *England*, in *Brewster's Encyclopædia*, vol. viii. p. 720.; *Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*, &c.)

For a view of the regulations with respect to the importation and exportation of wheat, &c., see CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE. The price of wheat in 1842 was 57s. 3d. per quarter.

WHISKY, a spirit obtained by distillation from corn, sugar, or molasses, though generally from the former. Whisky is the *national spirit*, if we may so term it, of Scotland and Ireland; but that distilled in the former is generally reckoned superior to that of the latter. — (See *SPIRITS*.)

WINE (Ger. *Wein*; Fr. *Vin*; It. and Sp. *Vino*; Port. *Vinho*; Rus. *Wino*, *Wino-gradoe winoe*; Lat. *Vinum*; Gr. *Oinos*; Arab. *Al-Amur*), the fermented juice of the grape, or berries of the vine (*Vitis vinifera*).

The vine is indigenous to Persia and the Levant; but it is now found in most temperate regions. The limits within which it cultivated in the northern hemisphere of the Old World vary from about 15° to 48° and 52°; but in North America it is not cultivated farther north than 38° or 40°. It is rarely grown at a greater altitude than 3,000 feet. From Asia the vine was introduced into Greece, and thence into Italy. The Phœceans, who founded Marseilles, carried the vine to the south of France; but it is doubtful whether it was introduced into Burgundy till the age of the Antonines.* The species of *Vitis* indigenous to North America is very different from the *Vitis vinifera*. In favourable seasons, the vine ripens in the open air in England; and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, considerable quantities of inferior wine were made from native grapes. Vineyards are now, however, unknown in this country; but the grapes raised in hot-houses, and used in desserts, are excellent.

The vine grows in every sort of soil; but that which is light and gravelly sees best suited for the production of fine wines. It succeeds extremely well in volcanic countries. The best wines of Italy are produced in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius; the famous Tokay wine is also made in a volcanic district, as are several of the best French wines; many parts of the south of France bearing evident marks of extinct volcanoes. Hermitage

* The ancient writers give the most contradictory accounts with respect to the introduction of the vine into Gaul. — (See the learned and excellent work of Le Grand d'Aussy, *Vie Privée des Français*, tome II. pp. 326—335.) The statement given above seems the most probable.

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Barrels.	Whale.
7,500	81,114
6,300	601
4,400	15,100
3,100	100
2,000	200
2,000	81
1,400	2,000
1,300	18
1,300	2,000
1,300	1,100
886	8
7,400	2,300
7,514	4,781
800	601
1,570	103
2,000	810
430	2,400
1,300	308
6,518	20,404
790	6,400
770	5,000
6,780	24,400
750	675
230	5,470
	1,350
2,100	5,300
300	1,300
470	
110	
182,007	162,618

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is grown among the *débris* of granite rocks. The most favourable situation for a vineyard is upon a rising ground or hill facing the south-east, and the situation should not be too confined ;

—————apertos
Bacchus amat colles.

The art of expressing and fermenting the juice of the grape appears to have been practised from the remotest antiquity. The sacred writings tell us that Noah planted a vineyard soon after the deluge — (*Gen. ix. 20.*) ; and a modern Latin poet ingeniously represents the vine as a gift from Heaven, to console mankind for the miseries entailed upon them by that grand catastrophe !

Omnia vastatis ergo quum cerneret arvis
Desolata Deus, nobis felicla vina
Dona dedit ; tristes hominum que munere fovit
Reliquias, mundi solatus vite rutnam !

Vanicri Præd. Rusticum, lib. xi.

Species of Wine. — There are many varieties of vines ; and this circumstance, combined with differences of soil, climate, mode of preparation, &c., occasions an extreme variety in the species of wine. But between places immediately contiguous to each other, and where even a careful observer would hardly remark any difference, the qualities of the wines, though produced by the same species of grape, and treated in the same way, are often very different. A great deal evidently depends upon the aspect of the vineyard ; and it is probable that a good deal depends on peculiarities of soil. But whatever may be the cause, it is certain that there are wines raised in a few limited districts, such as Tokay, Johannisberger, Constantia, the best Burgundy, Champagne, claret, &c., that no art or care has hitherto succeeded in producing of equal goodness in other places.

ANCIENT WINES. — The wines of Lesbos and Chios among the Greeks, and the Falernian and Cecuban among the Romans, have acquired an immortality of renown. Great uncertainty, however, prevails as to the nature of these wines. Dr. Henderson thinks that the most celebrated of them all, the Falernian, approached, in its most essential characters, near to Madeira. In preparing their wines, the ancients often inspissated them till they became of the consistence of honey, or even thicker. These were diluted with water previously to their being drunk ; and, indeed, the habit of mixing wine with water seems to have prevailed much more in antiquity than in modern times.

MODERN WINES. — The principal wines made use of in this country are port, sherry, claret, Champagne, Madeira, hock, Marsala, Cape, &c.

Port, the after-dinner wine most commonly used in England, is produced in the province of Upper Douro, in Portugal ; and is shipped at Oporto, whence its name. When it arrives in this country, it is of a dark purple or inky colour ; has a full, rough body, with an astringent bitter-sweet taste, and a strong flavour and odour of brandy. After it has remained some years longer in the wood, the sweetness, roughness, and astringency of the flavour abate ; but it is only after it has been kept 10 or 15 years in bottle, that the odour of the brandy is completely subdued, and the genuine aroma of the wine developed. When kept to too great an age, it becomes tawny, and loses its peculiar flavour. During the process of melioration, a considerable portion of the extractive and colouring matter is precipitated on the sides of the vessels in the form of crust. In some wines this change occurs much earlier than in others.

A large quantity of brandy is always mixed with the wine shipped from Oporto for England. Genuine unmixed port wine is very rarely met with in this country. We have been so long accustomed to the compounded article, that, were it possible to procure it unmixed, it is doubtful whether it would be at all suited to our taste. According to Mr. Brande's analysis, on which, however, owing to the differences in the quality of the wine, no great stress can be laid, port, as used in England, contains about 23 per cent. of alcohol. In 1841, 2,887,017 gallons of port were retained for consumption in the U. Kingdom.

Oporto Wine Company. — The quality of the wine shipped from Oporto has been materially injured by the monopoly so long enjoyed by the Oporto Wine Company. This company was founded in 1766, during the administration of the Marquis Pombal. A certain extent of territory is marked out by its charter as the only district on the Douro in which wine is to be raised for exportation ; the entire and absolute disposal of the wines raised in this district is placed in the hands of the Company ; who are further authorised to fix the prices to be paid for them to the cultivators, to prepare them for exportation, and to fix the price at which they shall be sold to foreigners ! It is obvious that a company with such powers cannot be any thing else than an intolerable nuisance. What could be more arbitrary and unjust than to interdict the export of all wines raised out of the limits of the Company's territory ? But even in its own district, its proceedings have been most oppressive and injurious. The Company annually fix, by a fiat of their own, 2 rates of prices — one for the *vinho de feitoria*, or wine for exportation, and the other for *vinho de ramo*, or wine for home consumption — at which the cultivators are to be paid, *whatever may be the quality of their wines !* They have, therefore, no motive to exert superior skill and ingenuity ; but content themselves with endeavouring to raise, at the least possible expense, the greatest supply of *vinho de feitoria*, for which the Company allow the highest price. All emulation is thus effectually extinguished, and the proprietors who possess vineyards of a superior quality invariably adulterate their

wines with inferior growths, as as to reduce them to the average standard. "In this way," says Dr. Henderson, "the finer products of the Douro vineyards have remained in a great measure unknown to us; and port wine has come to be considered as a single liquor, if I may use the expression, of nearly uniform flavour and strength; varying, it is true, to a certain extent in quality, but still always approaching to a definite standard, and admitting of few degrees of excellence. The manipulations, the admixtures — in one word, the adulteration — to which the best wines of the Cimo do Douro are subjected, have much the same effect as if all the growths of Burgundy were to be mingled in one immense vat, and sent into the world as the only true Burgundian wine. The delicious produce of Romanée Chambertin and the Clos Vougeot, would disappear, and in their places we should find nothing better than a second-rate Beaune or Macon wine." — (*History of Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 216.)

Not only, however, have the Oporto Company deteriorated the quality, but they have also raised the price of their wines to an enormous height. Secured against the competition of their countrymen, and enjoying down to 1831, a nearly absolute monopoly of the British markets by means of the high duties on French wines, they have filled their pockets at our expense. At the very moment when the Company have been shipping wine for England at 40s. a pipe, they have frequently shipped the same wine to other countries at 20s. ! — (*Fleetwood Williams on the Wine Trade*.) And the authentic Tables published by Balbi show that the price of wine has been trebled or quadrupled under the management of this corporation. — (*Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal*, tome 1. p. 187.)

But though the abuses inherent in the constitution of the Company have been carried of late years to an enormous extent, it is long since its injurious effects on the commerce of this country were distinctly perceived and pointed out. So far back as 1767, the Board of Trade laid a memorial before his Majesty in council, in which they state, "With respect to many particular regulations of the Oporto Company, which we think justly objected to by the merchants as highly grievous and oppressive, we have not thought it necessary to enter into a minute description of them, being of opinion that one general and fatal objection lies against them all; viz. — that they all contribute to establish in the Company a monopoly against your Majesty's subjects from which by treaty they have a right to be exempted."

But notwithstanding this authoritative exposition of the injury done to the English by this monopoly, and the experience which every subsequent year afforded of its mischievous influence, such has been the inveteracy of ancient prejudice, that it was not till the session of 1831 that we took the only step by which we could hope to rid ourselves of its evils, as well as of others, by equalising the duties on French and Portuguese wines, and putting an end to the absurd and injurious preference in favour of the latter established by the Methuen treaty.

England and Brazil are the only countries to which any considerable quantity of port wine is exported. Our imports amounted, at an average of the 8 years ending with 1841, to 36,270 pipes a year; of which, however, a portion is subsequently exported; while the exports from Portugal to all other countries, Brazil inclusive, have not recently exceeded 7,000 pipes. It was supposed, that the abolition of the discriminating duty in favour of port would make its consumption in this country gradually fall off, its place being filled by French and other wines; but though such a result may not improbably take place in the end, it has hitherto been hardly sensible. The falling off in the consumption of port in 1843 was wholly occasioned by the anticipation of a reduction being about to be made in the duty, and a consequent disinclination on the part of the dealers and the public to buy wine subject to the high duty.

Sherry is of a deep amber colour; when good, it has a fine aromatic odour; its taste is warm, with some degree of the agreeable bitterness of the peach kernel. When new, it tastes harsh and fiery; it is mellowed by being allowed to remain 4 or 5 years or longer in the wood; but it does not attain to its full flavour and perfection until it be kept for 15 or 20 years. It is a very strong wine, containing about 19 per cent. of alcohol. It is principally produced in the vicinity of Xeres, not far from Cadiz, in Spain. It is very extensively used in this country as a dinner wine. Dry Sherry, or *amontillado*, when genuine and old, fetches a very high price. Perhaps no wine is so much adulterated as sherry. With the exception of Marsala, the consumption of sherry has been far more influenced than that of any other wine by the reduction of the duties in 1825. In 1842, the quantity retained for home consumption amounted to 2,261,786 gallons, being more than double the quantity retained for consumption at an average of 1825 and 1824 ! — (See post.)

Claret, — the term generally used in England to designate the red wines, the produce of the Bordelais. Of these, Lafitte, Latour, Château-Margaux, and Haut-Brion, are so generally esteemed, that they always sell at from 20 to 25 per cent. higher than any others of the province. The first mentioned is the most choice and delicate, and is characterised by its silky softness on the palate, and its charming perfume, which partakes of the nature of the violet and the raspberry. The Latour has a fuller body, and at the same time a considerable aroma, but wants the softness of the Lafitte. The Château-Margaux, on the other hand, is lighter, and possesses all the delicate qualities of the Lafitte, except that it has not quite so high a flavour. The Haut-Brion, again, has more spirit and body than any of the preceding, but is rough when new, and requires to be kept 6 or 7 years in the wood; while the others become fit for bottling in much less time.

Among the second-rate wines, that of Roan, in the parish of St. Margaux, approaches in some respects to the growth of the Château-Margaux; while that of Gorce, in the same territory, is little inferior to the Latour; and the vineyards of Leoville, Larose, Bran-Mouton, and Pichon-Longueville, in the canton of Pauillac, afford light wines of good flavour, which, in favourable years, have much of the excellence of the finer growths. In the Entre-deux-Mers, the wines of Canon and St. Emilion in the vicinity of Libourne, are deemed the best, being of a full body and very durable. When new, these wines are always harsh and astringent; but they acquire an agreeable softness, and are characterised by a peculiar flavour, which has been not unaptly compared to the smell of burning wax. The aroma of the first growths is seldom fully developed till after they have been kept 8 or 9 years; but the secondary qualities come to perfection a year or two sooner. The colour often grows darker as the wine advances in age, in

consequence of the deposition of a portion of its tartar; but, when well made, and thoroughly fined, it seldom deposits any crust.

(These particulars are borrowed from the valuable work of Dr. Henderson, on *Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 184. We have given, in a previous article—(see *BOURDEAUX*)—full and authentic details as to the trade in claret. We beg, also, to refer the reader to that article for some observations on the wine trade of France, and on the injury done to it by the restrictive system of commerce.)

There is generally a very good supply of claret in bond in the docks in London. Its price varies from about 15*l.* per hogshead for the inferior to 50*l.* and 54*l.* per hogshead for the superior growths. What are called cargo or shipping clarets may be bought at from 5*l.* to 10*l.* per hogshead. The finest case claret sells in bond at about 50*s.* per dozen; but parcels of very well flavoured wine may be bought at 25*s.*

Champagne,—so called from the province of France, of which it is the produce,—is one of the most deservedly esteemed of the French wines. The wines of Champagne are divided into the 2 grand classes of white and red wines; and each of these again into still and sparkling: but there is a great variety in the flavour of the produce of different vineyards. Sillery is universally allowed to be the best of the still wines. It is dry, of a light amber colour, has a considerable body, and a charming aroma. "La corps," (says M. Jullien,) "le spiritueux, le charmant bouquet, et les vertus toniques dont il est pourvu, lui assurent la priorité sur tous les autres."—(*Topographie de tous les Vignobles*, p. 30.) Dr. Henderson agrees with Jullien, in considering it as one of the whole-
somest of the Champagne wines. The sparkling wines are, however, the most popular, at least in this country. Of these, the wine of Ay, 5 leagues south from Rheims, is, perhaps, the best. It is lighter and sweeter than Sillery, and has an exquisite flavour and aroma. That which merely crems on the surface (*demi-mousseux*) is preferred to the full frothing wine (*grand-mousseux*). Being bright, clear, and sparkling, it is as pleasing to the eye as it is grateful to the palate.

"Cernis micanti concolor ut vitro
Latex in auras, gemmeus asplei,
Seintillet exultim; utque dulces
Naribus illecebras propinet
"Succet latentis proditor hâltus!
Ut spuma motu lactea turbido
Crystallinum lætis referre
Mox oculis properet nitorem."

Hautvilliers, about 4 leagues from Rheims and 1 from Epernay, used formerly to produce wine that equalled, and sometimes surpassed, the wine of Ay. But it is no longer cultivated with the same care; so that, though still very good, it now only ranks in the 2d class.

The best of the red wines of Champagne are those of Verzy, Verzenay, Mailly, Bouzy, and St. Basle. "Ils ont une belle couleur, du corps, du spiritueux, et surtout beaucoup de finesse, de sève, et de bouquet."—(*Jullien*, p. 27.) The Clos St. Thierry, in the vicinity of Rheims, produces wine which, according to Jullien, unites the colour and the aroma of Burgundy to the lightness of Champagne.

The province of Champagne produces altogether about 1,100,000 hectolitres of wine; of which, however, the finest growths make but a small part. The principal trade in wine is carried on at Rheims, Avise, and Epernay. The vaults in which the vintages are stored are excavated in a rock of calcareous tufa to the depth of 30 or 40 feet. Those of M. Moët, at Epernay, are the most extensive, and few travellers pass through the place without going to see them. The brisket wines (*grands-mousseux*) keep the worst.—(*Jullien*, p. 34.)

Burgundy.—The best wines of this province, though not so popular in England as those of Champagne, probably because they are very apt to be injured by a sea-voyage, enjoy the highest reputation. "In richness of flavour and perfume, and all the more delicate qualities of the juice of the grape, they unquestionably rank as the first in the world; and it was not without reason that the dukes of Burgundy, in former times, were designated as the *princes des bons vins*."—(*Henderson*, p. 161.) M. Jullien is not less decided:—"Les vins des premiers crus, lorsqu'ils proviennent d'une bonne année, réunissent, dans de justes proportions, toutes les qualités qui constituent les vins parfaits; ils n'ont besoin d'aucun mélange, d'aucune préparation pour attendre leur plus haut degré de perfection. Ces opérations, que l'on qualifie dans certains pays de *soins qui aident à la qualité*, sont toujours nuisibles aux vins de Bourgogne."—(p. 104.)

Romané-Conti, Chambertin, the Clos Vougeôt, and Richebourg are the most celebrated of the *crus* wines of Burgundy. Chambertin was the favourite wine of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon. It is the produce of a vineyard of that name, situated 7 miles south from Dijon, and furnishing each year from 130 to 150 puncheons, from an extent of about 65 acres. It has a fuller body and colour, and greater durability, than the Romané, with an aroma nearly as fragrant.

The white wines of Burgundy are less numerous, and, consequently, less generally known, than the others; but they maintain the highest rank among French white wines, and are not inferior to the red either in aroma or flavour.

The entire annual produce of wine in Burgundy and Beaujolais may at present be estimated, at an average, at nearly 3,500,000 hectolitres, of which about 750,000 suffice for the consumption of the inhabitants. Since the Revolution, the cultivation of the vine has been greatly extended in the province. Many of the new vineyards having necessarily been planted in comparatively unfavourable situations, a notion has been gaining ground that the wines of Burgundy are degenerating. This, however, is not the case. On the contrary, the quantity of *bons crus*, instead of being diminished, has increased considerably; though, as the supply of inferior wines has increased in a still greater degree, the fine wines bear a less proportion to the whole than they did previously to the Revolution. — (Jullien, p. 90.)

The principal trade in Burgundy is carried on at Dijon, Gevrey, Châlons-sur-Saône, &c.

Besides the above, France has a great variety of other excellent wines. Hermitage, Sauterne, St. Péry, &c. are well known in England; and deservedly enjoy, particularly the first, a high degree of reputation.

Account of the Quantities and Value of the Wines exported from France in 1841; distinguishing between those of the Gironde and those of other Departments, and between those exported in Casks and Bottles; and specifying the Quantities of those sent to each County and their total Value.—(Administration des Douanes for 1841, p. 348.)

Countries to which exported.	Wine in Casks.				Wine in Bottles.			
	Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.		Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Litres.</i>		<i>Litres.</i>		<i>Litres.</i>		<i>Litres.</i>	
	<i>Francs.</i>		<i>Francs.</i>		<i>Francs.</i>		<i>Francs.</i>	
Russia	1,475,031	-	1,751,067	-	40,819	-	729,840	-
Sweden	2,011,127	-	479,683	-	10,739	-	38,638	-
Norway	486,654	-	89,888	-	7,334	-	9,111	-
Denmark	1,051,737	-	667,983	-	8,579	-	31,439	-
Germany	3,186,101	-	1,831,578	-	12,086	-	1,002,960	-
Holland	5,143,783	-	3,911,200	-	17,709	-	315,298	-
Belgium	5,089,806	-	4,235,410	-	43,117	-	315,298	-
Hanse Towns	11,704,716	-	4,639,918	-	-	-	570,266	-
Hanover	103,156	-	185,600	-	-	-	-	-
Mecklenburg Schwaria	805,967	-	180,488	-	1,777	-	39,079	-
England	337,356	-	434,541	-	403,128	-	998,509	-
Perussia	3,710	-	1,933	-	610	-	5,068	-
Spain	50,483	-	1,010,100	-	8,239	-	48,698	-
Amazilia	35,484	-	70,968	-	27,893	-	38,038	-
Sardinian States	4,169	-	7,647,628	-	6,307	-	11,771	-
The Two Sicilies	30	-	84,556	-	30	-	47,589	-
Tuscany	-	-	415,537	-	-	-	3,127	-
Roman States	-	-	18,231	-	-	-	37,733	-
Switzerland	-	-	12,811,622	-	-	-	66,448	-
Greece	-	-	18,231	-	-	-	3,127	-
Turkey	1,198	-	129,355	-	188	-	37,418	-
Egypt	-	-	425,504	-	-	-	15,509	-
Berber States	-	-	81,694	-	-	-	8,049	-
Algeria	2,970	-	27,497,589	-	38	-	101,401	-
West coast in Africa	31,734	-	3,738,885	-	5,036	-	5,513	-
Mauritius	5,165,908	21,455,194	5,165,908	17,857,559	64,140	5,711,074	11,262	5,661,811
Other places in Africa	3,000	-	26,813	-	403	-	240	-
India, English	185,668	-	100,975	-	360,397	-	36,751	-
Dutch	56,818	-	450	-	49,069	-	8,996	-
French	34,350	-	69,500	-	31,033	-	-	-
China	-	-	57,556	-	-	-	-	-
United States of America	5,606,808	-	5,415,890	-	664,183	-	255,559	-
Haiti	66,554	-	1,944,453	-	7,018	-	30,791	-
English Guiana	19,844	-	488,803	-	8,516	-	96	-
Cuba and Porto Rico	674,786	-	254,708	-	73,497	-	29,061	-
St. Thomas	139,447	-	516,967	-	75,969	-	31,747	-
Brazil	636,807	-	4,237,848	-	29,894	-	70,880	-
Mexico	188,605	-	11,909	-	184,178	-	10,701	-
Venezuela	73,401	-	18,164	-	95,536	-	7,673	-
New Granada	60,456	-	10,715	-	5,077	-	1,980	-
Peru	9,130	-	17,500	-	36,393	-	8	-
Chili	818,373	-	81,131	-	170,418	-	43,629	-
Rio de la Plata	-	-	1,106,906	-	-	-	23,279	-
Uruguay	1,005,666	-	1,444,453	-	147,745	-	70,399	-
Marocco	-	-	85,000	-	-	-	1,138	-
Guadaloupe	1,296,887	-	1,347,013	-	59,636	-	51,438	-
Martinique	975,983	-	5,089,272	-	51,129	-	30,610	-
Bourbon	2,759,356	-	1,031,170	-	24,618	-	33,194	-
Senegal	468,500	-	618,034	-	113,612	-	6,871	-
Cayenne	381,709	-	159,978	-	5,167	-	5,138	-
Fisheries	234,044	-	204,649	-	257	-	1,980	-
Totals	47,185,405	21,455,194	69,287,658	17,857,559	2,855,637	5,711,074	5,661,811	5,661,811

Exclusive of the above, there were exported from France, in the same year, 2,607,820 litres of *vins de liqueurs*, valued at 3,911,731 francs.

The total produce of the vineyards of France is estimated at about 35,000,000 hectolitres (770,000,000 Imp. gallons), worth 540,000,000 francs (21,600,000*l.*). We beg to refer the reader to the article *BOURDEAUX*, for an account of the influence of the French system of commercial policy on this great department of industry.

Account of the Total Quantities of Wine exported from France during each of the 34 Years ending with 1841.

Years.	Quantities.	Years.	Quantities.	Years.	Quantities.
1711	974,594	1806	1,190,068	1834	1,303,598
1712	1,185,681	1807	1,070,975	1835	1,500,860
1713	1,135,991	1808	1,114,080	1836	1,300,119
1714	1,077,784	1809	1,114,737	1837	1,114,898
1715	1,055,075	1810	874,673	1838	1,124,515
1716	1,077,845	1811	905,718	1839	1,180,175
1717	946,782	1812	1,207,785	1840	1,333,580
1718	1,055,844	1813	1,207,468	1841	1,419,598

Dispute as to the comparative Merit of Champagne and Burgundy. — The question, whether the wines of Champagne or Burgundy were entitled to the preference, was agitated during the reign of Louis XIV. with extraordinary keenness. The celebrated Charles Coffin, rector of the University of Beauvais, published, during this controversy, the classical ode, partly quoted above, in which Champagne is eulogised, and its superiority vindicated, with a spirit, vivacity, and delicacy worthy of the theme. The citizens of Rheims were not ungrateful to the poet; but liberally rewarded him with an appropriate and munificent donation of the wine he had so happily panegyricised. Gréneau wrote an ode in praise of Burgundy; but, unlike its subject, it was flat and insipid, and failed to procure any recompense to its author. The different pieces in this amusing controversy were collected and published in octavo, at Paris, in 1719 — (See *Le Grand d'Aussy, Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 39., and the *Biographie Universelle*, tom. ix. art. *Coffin (Charles)*.) Erasmus attributes the restoration of his health to his having drunk liberally of Burgundy; and has eulogised it in the most extravagant terms. An epistle of his, quoted by *Le Grand d'Aussy*, shows that Falstaff and he could have spent an evening together less disagreeably than might have been supposed: — “Le premier qui enseigna l'art de faire ce vin (Bourgogne), ou qui en fit present, ne doit-il point passer plutôt pour nous avoir donné la vie que pour nous avoir gratifié d'une liqueur.” — (*Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 9.)

Consumption of French Wine in England. Discriminating Duties. — Owing to the intimate connection subsisting between England and France for several centuries after the Conquest, the wines of the latter were long in almost exclusive possession of the English market: but the extension of commerce gradually led to the introduction of other species; and in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., the dry white wines of Spain seem to have been held in the highest estimation. This, however, was only a temporary preference. Subsequently to the Restoration, the wines of France regained their former ascendancy. In 1687 their importation amounted to 15,518; in 1688, to 14,218; and in 1689, to 11,106 tons. It is exceedingly doubtful whether so much as a single pipe of port had ever found its way to England previously to this period — (*Henderson*, p. 313.); and it is most probable that the wines of France would have continued to preserve their ascendancy in our markets, had not their importation been artificially checked.

The trade with France had occasionally been prohibited previously to the accession of William III. but it was not until 1693 that any distinction was made between the duties payable on French and other wines. But Louis XIV. having espoused the cause of the exiled family of Stuart, the British government, in the irritation of the moment, and without reflecting that the blow aimed at the French would infallibly recoil upon themselves, imposed, at the period above-mentioned, a discriminating duty of 8*l.* a tun on French wines, and in 1697 increased it to 3*l.* In consequence of this enormous augmentation of duty on French wines, the merchants began to import wine from Oporto as a substitute for the red wines of Bordeaux, excluded by the high duties. It is probable, however, that these discriminating duties would have been repealed as soon as the excitement which produced them had subsided, and that the trade would have returned to its old channels, had not the stipulations in the famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen in 1703, given them permanence. Such, however, was unluckily the case: for, according to this treaty, we bound ourselves to charge in future 33½ per cent. higher duties on the wines of France than on those of Portugal; the Portuguese, by way of compensation, binding themselves to admit our woollens into their markets in preference to those of other countries, at a fixed and invariable rate of duty.

Though very generally regarded at the time as the highest effort of diplomatic skill and address, the Methuen treaty was certainly founded on the narrowest views of national interest, and has proved, in no common degree, injurious to both parties, but especially to England. By binding ourselves to receive Portuguese wines for two thirds of the duty payable on those of France, we, in effect, gave the Portuguese growers a monopoly of the British market, and thereby attracted too great a proportion of the deficient capital of Portugal to the production of wine; while, on the other hand, we

Quantities.

1,368,598
1,306,866
1,306,818
1,114,598
1,024,215
1,185,778
1,335,580
1,419,598

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diplomatic skill rowest views of oth parties, but es for two thirds uese growers a oporation of the uth hand, we

not only excluded one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our commodities, and proclaimed to the world that we considered it better to deal with two millions of poor beggarly customers, than with thirty millions of rich ones, but we also provoked the retaliation of the French, who forthwith excluded most of our articles from their markets!

The injurious effects of the regulations in the Methuen treaty were distinctly pointed out by Dr. Davenant and Mr. Hume. The latter, in his *Essay on the Balance of Trade*, published in 1752, says, "Our jealousy and hatred of France are without bounds. These passions have occasioned innumerable barriers and obstructions on commerce, where we are commonly accused of being the aggressors. But what have we gained by the bargain? *We lost the French market for our woollen manufactures, and transferred the commerce of wine to Spain and Portugal, where we buy much worse liquor at a much higher price!* There are few Englishmen who would not think their country absolutely ruined, were French wine sold in England so cheap, and in such abundance, as to supplant ale and other home-brewed liquors. But, would we lay aside prejudices, it would not be difficult to prove that nothing could be more innocent; perhaps, more advantageous. Each new acre of vineyard planted in France, in order to supply England with wine, would make it requisite for the French to take an equivalent in English goods, by the sale of which we should be equally benefited."

In consequence of the preference so unwisely given to the wines of Portugal over those of France, — a preference continued, in defiance of every principle of sound policy and common sense, down to 1831, — the imports of French wine were for many years reduced to a mere trifle; and notwithstanding their increased consumption, occasioned by the reduction of the duties in 1825, the quantity of all sorts entered for consumption in 1841 did not exceed 353,740 gallons; while the consumption of Portuguese wines amounted in the same year to 2,987,017 gallons! This is the most striking example, perhaps, in the history of commerce, of the influence of customs duties in diverting trade into new channels, and altering the taste of a people. All but the most opulent classes having been compelled, for a long series of years, either to renounce wine, or to use port, the taste for the latter has been firmly rooted; the beverage that was originally forced upon us by necessity having become congenial from habit. It is probable, however, now that the discriminating duty in favour of port is abolished, that the excellence of the French wines will ultimately regain for them some portion of that favour in the English market they formerly enjoyed.

Madeira — so called from the island of that name — is a wine that has long been in extensive use in this and other countries. Plants of the vine were conveyed from Crete to Madeira in 1421, and have succeeded extremely well. There is a considerable difference in the flavour and other qualities of the wines of Madeira: the best are produced on the south side of the island. Though naturally strong, they receive an addition of brandy when racked from the vessels in which they have been fermented, and another portion is thrown in previously to their exportation. This is said to be required to sustain the wine in the high temperature to which it is subjected in its passage to and from India and China, to which large quantities of it are sent; it being found that it is mellowed, and its flavour materially improved, by the voyage. It does not, however, necessarily follow that the wines which have made the longest voyages are always the best. Much must obviously depend on the original quality of the wine; and many of the parcels selected to be sent to India are so inferior, that the wine, when brought to London, does not rank so high as that which has been imported direct. But when the parcel sent out has been well chosen, it is very much matured and improved by the voyage; and it not only fetches a higher price, but is in all respects superior to the direct importations. Most of the adventitious spirit is dissipated in the course of the Indian voyage.

Madeira wines may be kept for a very long period. "Like the ancient vintages of the Surrentine hills, they are truly *firmissima vinu*, retaining their qualities unimpaired in both extremes of climate, suffering no decay, and constantly improving as they advance in age. Indeed, they cannot be pronounced in condition until they have been kept for 10 years in the wood, and afterwards allowed to mellow nearly twice that time in bottle; and even then they will hardly have reached the utmost perfection of which they are susceptible. When of good quality, and matured as above described, they lose all their original harshness, and acquire that agreeable pungency, that bitter sweetness, which was so highly prized in the choicest wines of antiquity; uniting great strength and richness of flavour with an exceedingly fragrant and diffusible aroma. The nutty taste, which is often very marked, is not communicated, as some have imagined, by means of bitter almonds, but is inherent in the wine." — (*Henderson*, p. 255.)

The wines of Madeira have latterly fallen into disrepute in England. The growth of the island is very limited — not exceeding 20,000 pipes, of which a considerable quantity goes to the West Indies and America. Hence, when Madeira was a fashionable wine in England, every sort of deception was practised with respect to it, and large

quantities of spurious trash were disposed of for the genuine vintage of the island. This naturally brought the wine into discredit; so that sherry has been for several years the fashionable white wine. It is difficult, however, to imagine that adulteration was ever practised to a greater extent upon Madeira than it is now practised upon sherry. It is not, therefore, improbable, that a reaction may take place in favour of Madeira. The quantity entered for home consumption in 1827 amounted to 308,295 gallons, whereas the quantity entered for home consumption in 1842 amounted to only 65,209 gallons.

Malmsey, a very rich luscious species of Madeira, is made from grapes grown on rocky grounds exposed to the full influence of the sun's rays, and allowed to remain on the vine till they are over-ripe.

The trade in Madeira wine is carried on at Funchal, the capital of the island, in lat. 32° 37' N., lon. 17° 6' W. *Weights and measures* same as at Lisbon.

Teneriffe wine — so called from the island of that name — resembles Madeira, and is not unfrequently substituted in its place; but it wants the full body and rich flavour of the best growths of Madeira.

German Wines. — The wines of Germany imported into England are principally produced on the banks of the Rhine and the Moselle. The Rhine wines constitute a distinct order by themselves. They are drier than the French white wines, and are characterised by a delicate flavour and aroma, called in the country *güre*, which is quite peculiar to them, and of which it would, therefore, be in vain to attempt the description. A notion prevails, that they are naturally acid; and the inferior kinds, no doubt, are so; but this is not the constant character of the Rhine wines, which in good years have no perceptible acidity to the taste, at least not more than is common to them with the growths of warmer regions. Their chief distinction is their extreme durability. The wines made in warm dry years are always in great demand, and fetch very high prices.

The Johannisberger stands at the head of the Rhine wines. It has a very choice flavour and perfume, and is characterised by an almost total want of acidity. The vineyard is the property of Prince Metternich. The Steinberger ranks next to the Johannisberger. It is the strongest of all the Rhenish wines, and in favourable years has much flavour and delicacy.

The produce of certain vineyards on the banks of the Moselle is of superior quality. The better sorts are clear and dry, with a light pleasant flavour and high aroma; but they sometimes contract a slaty taste from the strata on which they grow. They arrive at maturity in 5 or 6 years; though, when made in a favourable season, they will keep twice that time, without experiencing any deterioration. — (*Henderson*, p. 226.)

Tokay — so called from a town in Hungary near which it is produced — is but little known in England. It is luscious, possessing at the same time a high degree of flavour and aroma. It is scarce and dear; and very apt to be counterfeited.

Marsala. — The Sicilian white wine called Marsala, from the town (the ancient Lilybæum) whence it is shipped, and near which it is made, is now pretty largely consumed in England; the entries for home consumption having increased from 79,686 gallons in 1823, to 393,028 in 1842; an extraordinary increase, particularly when it is considered that during the same period the consumption of most sorts of wine has been nearly stationary. Marsala is a dry wine; the best qualities closely resembling the lighter sorts of Madeira; but the increasing demand for it seems to be owing as much to its cheapness as to any peculiarity of quality. It is, however, when good, an agreeable dinner wine. Marsala has been brought to its present state of perfection and repute by the care and exertions of 2 Englishmen, the Messrs. Woodhouse, established in Sicily, who have an extensive factory in the neighbourhood of Marsala. The wine is shipped in large quantities for America; whence a considerable quantity is again conveyed to the West Indies, where it is not unfrequently disposed of as real Madeira.

With the exception of Marsala, very little wine either of Sicily or Italy is imported into England. The wines of those countries are, indeed, without, perhaps, a single exception, very inferior to those of France. The natives bestow no care upon the culture of the vine; and their ignorance, obstinacy, and want of skill in the preparation of wine, are said to be almost incredible. In some districts, the art is, no doubt, better understood than in others; but had the Falernian, Cecuban, and other famous ancient wines, not been incomparably better than the best of those that are now produced, they never would have elicited the glowing panegyrics of Horace.

Wines of Greece and Cyprus. — The soil in most parts of Greece and of the Grecian islands is admirably fitted for the growth of the vine; and, in antiquity, they produced some of the choicest wines. But the rapacity of the Turks, and the insecurity of person and property that has always prevailed under their miserable government, has effectually prevented the careful cultivation of the vine; and has occasioned, in many places, its total abandonment. It may, however, be fairly presumed, now that Greece has emancipated herself from the iron yoke of her oppressors, that the culture of the vine will attract

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some portion of that attention to which it is justly entitled; and that, at no distant period, wine will form an important article of export from Greece.

Nowhere, perhaps, has the destructive influence of Turkish barbarism and misgovernment been so apparent as in Candia and Cyprus. While these 2 renowned and noble islands were possessed by the Venetians, they supplied all Europe with the choicest dessert wines. Bacci affirms, that towards the end of the 16th century, Candia sent annually 200,000 casks of malmsey to the Adriatic; whereas at present it hardly produces sufficient to supply the wants of its few impoverished inhabitants. — (Henderson, p. 243.) The wines of Cyprus, particularly those produced from the vineyard called the Commandery, from its having belonged to the Knights of Malta, were still more highly esteemed than those of Crete. In the earlier part of last century, the total produce of the vintage of the island was supposed to amount to above 2,000,000 gallons, of which nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ was exported; but now the wine grown and exported does not amount to $\frac{1}{4}$ th part of these quantities! The oppression of which they have been the victims, has reduced the peasantry to the extreme of indigence. The present population of the island is not supposed to exceed 60,000, — a number insufficient to have peopled one of its many ancient cities; and small as this number is, it is constantly diminishing by the inhabitants availing themselves of every opportunity of emigrating. Recently Cyprus has passed into the hands of Mahomet Ali; but unless the Pacha establishes a different government in it from what he has established in Egypt, the inhabitants will gain nothing by the change. — (See *Geog. Dict.* art. *Cyprus*.)

Cape Wines. — Of the remaining wines imported into England, those of the Cape of Good Hope form the largest proportion; the quantity annually entered for home consumption, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1842, being 422,937 Imperial gallons a year. The famous Constantia wine is the produce of 2 contiguous farms of that name, at the base of Table Mountain, between 8 and 9 miles from Cape Town. The wine is very rich and luscious; though, according to Dr. Henderson, it yields, in point of flavour and aroma, to the muscadine wines of Languedoc and Roussillon. But, with this exception, most of the Cape wines brought to England have an earthy disagreeable taste, are often acid, want flavour and aroma, and are, in fact, altogether execrable. And yet this vile trash, being the produce of a British possession, enjoys peculiar advantages in our markets; for while the duty on Cape wine is only 2s. 11d. a gallon, that on all other wines is 5s. 9d. The consequences of this unjust preference are doubly mischievous: in the first place, it forces the importation of an article of which little is directly consumed, but which is extensively employed as a convenient menstruum for adulterating and degrading sherry, Madeira, and other good wines; and, in the second place, it prevents the improvement of the wine; for, while the legislature thinks fit to give a bounty on the importation of so inferior an article, it is to be supposed that the colonists should exert themselves to produce any thing better? It is not easy to imagine a more preposterous and absurd regulation. The act enforcing it should be entitled, an act for the adulteration of wines in Great Britain, and for encouraging the growth of bad wine in the Cape colony!

Consumption of Wine in Great Britain. Duties. — We have repeatedly had occasion, in the course of this work, to call the reader's attention to the injurious operation of unequal and exorbitant duties. Perhaps, however, the trade in wine has suffered more from this cause than any other department of commerce. We have already endeavoured to point out some of the effects resulting from the inequality of the duties, or from the preference so long given to the inferior wines of Portugal and Spain over the superior wines of France. But the exorbitance of the duties was, if possible, still more objectionable than the partial principle on which they were imposed. It appears from the subjoined Table, that during the 3 years ending with 1792, when the duty on French wines was 3s. 9d., and on Portuguese 2s. 6d. per wine gallon, the consumption in Great Britain amounted, at an average, to 7,410,947 gallons a year, producing about 900,000*l.* of revenue. It is probable, had the increase taken place gradually, that these duties might have been doubled without any material diminution of consumption. But in 1795 and 1796 they were raised to 8s. 6d. per gallon on French, and to 5s. 6d. per gallon on Portuguese and Spanish wine; and the consequence of this sudden and inordinate increase, as exhibited in the Table, was, that the consumption fell from nearly 7,500,000 gallons in 1795, to 5,732,383 gallons in 1796, and to 3,970,901 in 1797! But this unanswerable demonstration of the ruinous effect of heavy and sudden additions to the duties did not prevent them being raised, in 1804, to 11s. 5d. on French, and to 7s. 8d. on Portuguese and Spanish wine. They continued at this rate till 1825; and such was their influence, that notwithstanding the vast increase of wealth and population since 1790, and the general improvement in the style of living, the total consumption of wine, during the 3 years ending with 1824, amounted, at an average, to only 5,348,707 gallons a year; being no less than 2,102,180 gallons under the annual consumption of the 3 years ending with 1792! It may, therefore, be truly said, making allowance for the increase of population, that the consumption of wine in Great Britain fell off more than fifty per cent. between 1790 and 1824.

On Mr. Robinson (now Lord Ilipon) becoming Chancellor of the Exchequer, he resolved upon the effectual reduction of the wine duties; and took, in 1828, nearly 50 per cent. from the previously existing duties; and notwithstanding the spirit duties were at the same time reduced in a still greater degree, the consumption of wine in Great Britain has been increased in ordinary years from little more than 4,150,000 to 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 Imperial gallons, while there has been no loss of revenue. We are, therefore, justified in affirming that this measure has been very successful, and that it is a most valuable example of the superior productiveness of low duties.*

* An article in the Edinburgh Review, No. 80., contributed to bring about this measure. See also an excellent tract on the *Wine Trade*, by Mr. Warre, published in 1824.

The duties, as reduced by Mr. Robinson, were 7s. 3d. per imperial gallon on French wines, 4s. 10d. per do. on all other foreign wines, and 2s. 3d. on those of the Cape of Good Hope. They continued on this footing till the equalisation act (1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 30.), which imposed a duty of 5s. 6d. per imperial gallon on all foreign wines, and of 2s. 9d. on those of the Cape.

But the equalisation effected by this act should not have been brought about by adding any thing to the duties on port, sherry, &c., but by reducing those on French wines to their level. The subjoined Tables show that the consumption of wine in the U. Kingdom was about stationary from 1695 to 1831; and the addition of 8d. a gallon, that was then made to the duties on all sorts of foreign wine except French, from which 1s. 9d. was deducted, appears to have sensibly affected the consumption of 1832. Considering, indeed, the increasing wealth and population of the British empire, and the more generally diffused use of wine, the stationary amount of the quantities retained for consumption is not a little surprising. A good deal, we believe, ascribable to adulteration. It is certain, however, that the duties are still too high; but they are principally objectionable from the mode of their assessment. The trade will never be placed on a proper footing till the duty is imposed on an *ad valorem* principle. The imposition of the same duty on inferior and cheap wines, worth 10s. a hoghead, as on the choicest Burgundy and Champagne, worth 50s. or 60s. a hoghead, is so utterly subversive of all principle, that one is astonished it should be maintained for an instant. Its absurdity would not be exceeded, were the same duty charged on small beer that is charged on gin! The effect of this apparently equal, but really most unequal duty, is to exclude all low priced wines from the English markets; and to deprive the middle classes of the gratification derivable from their use. Commercially speaking, Bordeaux is much nearer London than Paris; and but for this preposterous system, the cheap wines of the Gironde, Languedoc, and Provence might be bought here at a less price than in most parts of France. Were it necessary for the sake of revenue to continue the present system, it might be reluctantly submitted to; but it is abundantly certain that a fairly assessed *ad valorem* duty would, by increasing the consumption of the middle classes, yield a much larger amount of revenue than is produced by the constant duty. It is said, indeed, that the imposition of an *ad valorem* duty would lead to the commission of fraud; but we have been assured, by those familiar with the custom, that such precautions might with little difficulty be adopted, and would prevent any danger on this head. And though it were otherwise — though a few thousand gallons of wine were admitted for home consumption at a somewhat lower duty than they should have paid — the injury would be of the most trivial kind, and would hardly, indeed, deserve a moment's attention. In the United States, most duties are imposed on an *ad valorem* principle; and it is not alleged that any real difficulty has to be encountered in their collection.

Account of the Quantity of French and other Sorts of Wine retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1789 to 1832; specifying the Produce of the Duty, and the Rates of Duty, &c.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.			Rates of Duty.							Net Revenue.					
	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.	French.	Ma. deira.	Port of France.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Other Sorts.	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.				
	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	Wine Gall.	£	£	£				
1789	234,299	5,330,366	5,564,665	8	9	3	5	1	2	1	1	1	36,519	684,969	721,518	
1790	246,254	5,845,953	6,092,207	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	41,532	779,809	821,341	
1791	236,979	7,107,437	7,344,416	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43,517	875,253	918,770	
1792	303,727	7,175,527	7,479,254	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	39,635	952,561	1,032,196	
1793	306,169	6,684,750	6,990,919	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	36,508	660,377	696,885	
1794	391,118	6,700,108	7,091,226	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40,579	750,043	790,622	
1795	318,287	6,408,334	6,726,621	6	11	4	11	0	6	4	6	5	44,579	1,375,145	1,419,724	
1796	50,261	5,691,504	5,741,765	8	6	8	5	2	7	3	6	11	6	35,253	1,342,470	1,377,723
1797	Excess of exports, 4,874 gals.			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
1798	45,267	4,715,890	4,761,157	8	9	3	5	1	2	1	1	1	35,247	1,339,414	1,374,661	
1799	51,196	4,746,563	4,797,759	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31,315	1,461,510	1,492,825	
1800	83,471	7,648,490	7,731,961	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43,541	1,964,471	2,008,012	
1801	141,683	6,065,617	6,207,300	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	45,066	1,608,210	1,653,276	
1802	193,280	6,236,169	6,429,449	8	10	3	11	0	7	6	2	7	8	61,514	1,870,538	1,932,052
1803	132,136	7,393,330	7,525,466	10	4	6	11	0	7	6	10	6	73,103	1,909,232	1,982,335	
1804	21,204	4,918,313	4,939,517	11	3	6	11	0	7	6	7	6	54,125	1,779,899	1,834,024	
1805	63,983	4,501,563	4,565,546	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	81,398	1,924,480	2,005,878	
1806	125,012	4,793,833	4,918,845	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	94,915	1,925,615	2,020,530	
1807	160,114	5,767,823	5,927,937	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	89,139	2,043,428	2,132,567	
1808	186,944	6,221,590	6,408,534	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	126,936	2,196,800	2,323,736	
1809	135,366	5,682,321	5,817,687	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.			
1810	190,817	6,614,359	6,805,176	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,261,113			
1811	63,221	5,797,633	5,860,854	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,215,615			
1812	77,312	5,059,178	5,136,490	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,169,871			
1813	186,747	4,831,221	4,716,968	16	5	7	8	7	9	4	8	6	7	1,911,538 Customs records destroyed.		
1814	36,880	4,304,743	4,341,623	11	5	7	8	7	9	4	8	7	73,185	1,650,658	1,723,843	
1815	361,084	5,667,411	5,968,495	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	139,669	1,779,637	1,919,306	
1816	126,293	4,494,139	4,620,432	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	70,046	1,534,252	1,654,298	
1817	147,871	5,469,821	5,617,692	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	87,413	1,609,232	1,696,645	
1818	266,424	5,473,063	5,739,487	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	158,370	1,906,010	2,064,380	
1819	315,566	4,629,734	4,945,300	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	126,667	1,675,429	1,802,096	
1820	199,175	4,687,748	4,886,923	11	5	7	8	7	9	4	8	7	106,492	1,711,635	1,818,127	
1821	165,191	4,830,778	4,995,969	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	97,486	1,700,004	1,797,491	
1822	277,738	4,797,401	5,075,139	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	106,822	1,810,268	1,917,090	
1823	185,226	5,106,114	5,291,340	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	107,982	1,804,494	1,912,476	
1824	304,901	4,874,331	5,179,232	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	117,209	1,820,751	1,937,960	
1825	534,215	5,191,078	5,725,293	6	0	4	0	4	0	3	0	4	0	109,131	1,646,669	1,755,799
														Allowances for stock in hand - - - - -		
														794,000		
1826	526,248	5,093,968	5,620,216	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	107,222	1,468,283	1,575,505	
1827	346,471	5,201,637	5,548,108	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	102,560	1,529,653	1,632,213	
1828	461,261	7,195,404	7,656,665	7	1	14	10	14	1	1	1	1	136,024	1,810,926	1,946,950	
1829	316,511	5,104,809	5,421,320	7	1	14	10	14	1	1	1	1	113,890	1,178,529	1,292,419	
1830	365,063	5,416,686	5,781,749	7	1	14	10	14	1	1	1	1	120,000	1,200,000	1,320,000	
1831	328,218	5,229,170	5,557,388	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	70,935	1,264,475	1,335,413	
1832	303,202	4,995,251	5,298,453	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66,268	1,351,629	1,417,897	

Price of Wine in London. — The following is an account of the price of wine in bond in London, in June 1843, from the Circular of the eminent brokers Messrs. Clark, Keeling, and Co.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Port, very superior old	28	0	44	0	Madeira, East India, good	20	0
good do.	25	0	30	0	other qualities	20	0
other quality do.	18	0	25	0	West India, 1st quality	40	0
1840	30	0	40	0	do., good	40	0
good young wines	22	0	28	0	other qualities	25	0
other quality do.	15	0	20	0	direct Lond. partic. 1st quality	50	0
Hemitting, red & white (1st grade) per hhd.	None.				good	30	0
3d and 4th quality	30	0	35	0	other qualities	15	0
Claret, 1st growth	45	0	45	0	Lalton	30	0
3d quality	30	0	34	0	Bucellas	34	0
2d and 4th do.	10	0	25	0	Caracvelos	30	0
cargo	6	0	6	0	Monsieur, London particular	15	0
French, white, Beaune, Barac, &c.	22	0	25	0	3d and 4th quality	15	0
1st quality	18	0	20	0	Taverilla, London particular	30	0
3d and 4th do.	10	0	15	0	cargo	8	0
Champagne, 1st quality	2	0	10	0	Figueras, red	11	0
good do. and other qualities	0	15	1	13	Spanish, red	11	0
Hock, superior old	40	0	50	0	St Julian, red	None.	
3d quality	25	0	30	0	white	None.	
2d and 4th do.	18	0	20	0	Broni or Marsala	11	0
Moselle, 1st quality	18	0	20	0	Cape, white, 1st quality	13	0
3d do.	10	0	15	0	3d and other qualities	10	0
Sherry, very superior	70	0	80	0	Cape, red, 1st quality	12	0
3d do.	50	0	60	0	3d and other qualities	10	0
4th do.	35	0	45	0	Fayal, Madeira, good	None.	
4th do. and other qualities	9	0	15	0	cargo	None.	
Madeira, East India, 1st quality	70	0	85	0			

WOAD (Ger. *Waid*; Du. *Weede*; Fr. *Pastel, Guêde, Vouêde*; It. *Guadone, Guado, Glastro*; Sp. *Pastel, Glasto*), the *Isatis tinctoria* of botanists, a biennial plant, with a fusiform fibrous root, and smooth branchy stem, rising from 3 to 5 feet in height. Woad is indigenous to most parts of Europe; and was extensively used from a very remote period, down to the general introduction of indigo, in the dyeing of blue. It is still cultivated to a considerable extent in France; but in this country its cultivation is chiefly restricted to a few districts in Lincolnshire. After being bruised by machinery, to express the watery part, it is formed into balls, which ferment and fall into a dry powder, which is sold to the dyer. Woad is now seldom employed without a mixture of indigo. By itself, it is incapable of giving a bright and deep blue colour; but the colour which it does give is very durable. The best methods of conducting the fermentation and preparation of woad are still so very ill understood, that the goodness of any parcel of it can never be ascertained till it be actually used; so that it has the disadvantage of being purchased under the greatest uncertainty as to its true value. At the proper age, indigo plants yield about 30 times as much colouring matter, and of a far superior quality, as an equal weight of woad; so that there is no prospect that any improvement that may be made in its preparation will ever render it, either in goodness or cheapness, a rival of the former. — (*London's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Baneroff on Colours*, vol. i. p. 167.) We have previously — (see *Indigo*) — given some account of the efforts made by the woad growers to prevent the use of indigo.

WOOD. See **TRUSS.**

WOOL (Ger. *Wolle*; Du. *Wol*; Da. *Uld*; Sw. *Ull*; Fr. *Laine*; It. and Sp. *Lana*; Port. *Lã, Lãa*; Rus. *Wolna, Scherst*; Pol. *Włna*; Lat. *Lana*), a kind of soft hair or down. The term is not very well defined. It is applied both to the fine hair of animals, as sheep, rabbits, some species of goats, the vicuña, &c.; and to fine vegetable fibres, as cotton. In this article, however, we refer only to the wool of sheep, — an article which has continued, from the earliest period down to the present day, to be of primary importance, having always formed the principal part of the clothing of mankind in most temperate regions.

Species of Wool. — It has been customary in this country to divide wool into 2 great classes — long and short wools; and these again into subordinate classes, according to the fineness of the fibre.

Short wool is used in the cloth manufacture; and is, therefore, frequently called clothing wool. It may vary in length from 1 to 3 or 4 inches; if it be longer, it requires to be cut or broken to prepare it for the manufacture.

The *felting* property of wool is known to every one. The process of hat making, for example, depends entirely upon it. The wool of which hats are made is neither spun nor woven; but locks of it, being thoroughly intermixed and compressed in warm water, cohere and form a solid tenacious substance.

Cloth and woollen goods are made from wool possessing this property; the wool is carded, spun, woven, and then, being put into the fulling mill, the process of felting takes place. The strokes of the mill make the fibres cohere; the piece subjected to the operation contracts in length and breadth, and its texture becomes more compact and uniform. This process is essential to the beauty and strength of woollen cloth. But the long wool of which stuffs and worsted goods are made is deprived of its felting properties. This is done by passing the wool through heated iron combs, which takes away the laminae or feathery part of the wool, and approximates it to the nature of silk or cotton.

Long or combing wool may vary in length from 3 to 8 inches. The shorter combing

... will be improved by the use of the North, where wine and spirits are ...
 ... in the South of Europe, where the temperature is higher, and the soil is more fertile ...
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wools are principally used for hose, and are spun softer than the long combing wools; the former being made into what is called hard, and the latter into soft worsted yarn.

The fineness of the hair or fibre can rarely be estimated, at least for any useful purpose, except by the wool sorter or dealer, accustomed by long habit to discern those minute differences that are quite inappreciable by common observers. In sorting wools, there are frequently 8 or 10 different species in a single fleece; and if the best wool of one fleece be not equal to the finest sort, it is thrown to a 2d, 3d, or 4th, or to a still lower sort, of an equal degree of fineness with it. The best English short native fleeces, such as the fine Norfolk and Southdown, are generally divided by the wool sorter into the following sorts, all varying in fineness from each other:—viz. 1. Prime; 2. Choice; 3. Super; 4. Head; 5. Downrights; 6. Seconds; 7. Fine Abb; 8. Coarse Abb; 9. Livery; 10. Short coarse or breech wool. The relative value of each varies, according to the greater demand for coarse, fine, or middle cloths.

The softness of the fibre is a quality of great importance. It is not dependent on the fineness of the fibre; and consists of a peculiar feel, approaching to that of silk or down. The difference in the value of 2 pieces of cloth made of 2 kinds of wool equally fine, but one distinguished for its softness and the other for the opposite quality, is such, that, with the same process and expense of manufacture, the one will be worth from 20 to 25 per cent. more than the other. Mr. Bakewell showed that the degree of softness depends principally on the nature of the soil on which sheep are fed; that sheep pastured on chalk districts, or light calcareous soils, usually produce hard wool; while the wool of those that are pastured on rich, loamy, argillaceous soils, is always distinguished by its softness. Of the foreign wools, the Saxon is generally softer than the Spanish. Hard wools are all defective in their *felting* properties.

In clothing wool, the colour of the fleece should always approach as much as possible to the purest white; because such wool is not only necessary for cloths dressed white, but for all cloths that are to be dyed bright colours, for which a clear white ground is required to give a due degree of richness and lustre. Some of the English fine woolled sheep, as the Norfolk and Southdown, have black or gray faces and legs. In all such sheep there is a tendency to grow gray wool on some part of the body, or to produce some gray fibres intermixed with the fleece, which renders the wool unfit for many kinds of white goods; for though the black hairs may be too few and minute to be detected by the wool sorter, yet when the cloth is stoved they become visible, forming reddish spots, by which its colour is much injured. The Herefordshire sheep, which have white faces, are entirely free from this defect, and yield a fleece without any admixture of gray hairs.

The cleanness of the wool is an important consideration. The Spanish wool, for example, is always scoured after it is shorn; whereas the English wool is only imperfectly washed on the sheep previously to its being shorn. In consequence, it is said that while a pack of English clothing wool of 240 lbs. weight will waste about 70 lbs. in the manufacture, the same quantity of Spanish will not waste more than 48 lbs. Cleanness, therefore, is an object of much importance to the buyer.

Before the recent improvements in the spinning of wool by machinery, great length and strength of staple was considered indispensable in most combing wools. The fleeces of the long woolled sheep fed in the rich marshes of Kent and Lincoln used to be reckoned peculiarly suitable for the purposes of the wool-comber; but the improvements alluded to have effected a very great change in this respect; and have enabled the manufacturer to substitute short wool of 3 inches staple, in the place of long combing wool, in the preparation of most worsted articles. A great alteration has, in consequence, taken place in the proportion of long to short wool since 1800; there having been in the interim, according to Mr. Hubbard's calculations—(see *post*),—an increase of 132,033 packs in the quantity of the former produced in England, and a decrease of 72,820 in the quantity of the latter.

Whiteness of fleece is of less importance in the long combing than in clothing wool, provided it be free from gray hairs. Sometimes, however, the fleece has a dingy brown colour, called a *winter stain*, which is a sure indication that the wool is not in a thoroughly sound state. Such fleeces are carefully thrown out by the wool sorter; being suitable only for goods that are to be dyed black. The fineness of heavy combing wool is not of so much consequence as its other qualities.

The Merino or Spanish breed of sheep was introduced into this country about the close of last century. George III. was a great patron of this breed, which was for several years a very great favourite. But it has been ascertained that, though the fleece does not much degenerate here, the carcase, which is naturally ill formed, and affords comparatively little weight of meat, does not improve; and as the farmer, in the kind of sheep which he keeps, must look not only to the produce of wool, but also to the butcher market, he has found it his interest rather to return to the native breeds of his own country, and to give up the Spanish sheep. They have, however, been of considerable service to the flocks of England; having been judiciously crossed with the Southdown, Ryeland, &c.

Deterioration or Change in the Character of British Wool.—It appears to be sufficiently established, by the evidence taken before the House of Lords in 1828, and other authorities, that a considerable deterioration, or rather, perhaps, change, has taken place in the quality of British wool, particularly during the 30 preceding years. The great object of the agriculturist has been to increase the weight of the carcase and the quantity of the wool; and it seems very difficult, if not quite impossible, to accomplish this without injuring the fineness of the fleece. Mr. Culley says, that the Herefordshire sheep, that produce the finest wool, are kept lean, and yield 1½ lb. each; he adds, "if they be better kept, they grow large and produce more wool, but of an inferior quality." This would seem to be universally true. The great extension of the turnip husbandry, and the general introduction of a larger breed of sheep, appears, in every instance, to have lessened the value of the fleece. Speaking of the Norfolk fleeces, Mr. Fison, a wool sorter, says that 25 years ago the weight was 2½ lbs. a fleece, and that now it is 3 lbs. or 3½ lbs. — (Report, p. 356.) But according to a Table furnished by the same gentleman containing the results of his experience, it appears that of 15 tods, or 420 lbs., of washing wool grown in Norfolk in 1790, 200 lbs. were prime, while, in 1828, the same quantity of Norfolk wool only yielded 14 lbs. prime! — (Ibid. p. 207.) The statements of other witnesses are to the same effect. — (Ibid. pp. 388, 640, and 644.) According to the estimate in Mr. Lucock's *Treatise on English Wool*, which has always enjoyed the highest reputation, the produce of all sorts of wool in England, in 1800, was 384,000 packs, of 240 lbs. a pack. But Mr. Hubbard, a very intelligent and extensive wool-stapler at Leeds, has shown, that, supposing Mr. Lucock's estimate of the number of sheep to be correct, the quantity of wool produced in 1828 could not, owing to the greater weight of the fleece, be estimated at less than 463,169 packs; and it is now (1844) believed to amount to fully 500,000 packs. It is, therefore, probable, notwithstanding the decline in the price of wool, that, taking into account the greater weight of the carcase, and the greater weight of the fleece, sheep produce more at present to the farmer than at any former period.

Number of Sheep in Great Britain.—It is not possible to form any accurate estimate either of the number of sheep or of the quantity of wool annually produced. With the exception of Mr. Lucock's, most of the statements put forth with respect to both these points seem much exaggerated. But Mr. L.'s estimate, which is considerably under any that had previously appeared, was drawn up with great care; and is supposed to approach near to accuracy. According to Mr. Lucock, the

Number of long woolled sheep in England and Wales in 1800, was	4,153,208	
of short woolled ditto	14,854,389	
Total number shorn		19,007,597
Slaughter of short woolled sheep per annum	4,221,748	
Carrion of ditto	211,037	
Slaughter of long woolled ditto	1,160,413	
Carrion of ditto	88,020	
Slaughter of lambs	1,400,560	
Carrion of ditto	70,028	
		7,140,156
Total number of sheep and lambs		26,147,753

In some parts of England there has been an increase in the number of sheep since 1800, and in others they have decreased. But we have been assured by competent judges, that, on the whole, the number has not materially varied in the interim.

During the last half century a very decided increase has taken place in the number of sheep in Scotland, and a very great improvement in the breed, particularly in the Highlands. In this district, many of the proprietors have let their estates in large farms to *store farmers*, who have introduced the Cheviot breed of sheep, instead of the small black-faced heath breed that was formerly the only one to be met with. We may remark, by the way, that a good deal of unmerited odium has attached to the patrons of this system; for, though it be true that, in a few instances, the peasantry were rudely ejected from their little possessions, there can be no doubt that it has, on the whole, been decidedly advantageous. Besides rendering large tracts of country more valuable to the proprietors and the public generally, the condition and habits of the peasantry have been materially improved. Instead of loitering away more than half their time, as was their former practice, they have now either become the servants of the large farmers, or have resorted to towns and villages, and been metamorphosed into industrious tradesmen, fishermen, &c. A very small proportion of the whole has emigrated; and the country is more populous at present than before the sheep farming system began.

In the *General Report of Scotland* (vol. iii. Appen. p. 6.), the number of sheep is estimated at 2,850,000; and allowing for the increase that has taken place since 1814, we may, perhaps, estimate the total number of sheep in that part of the empire at this moment at 3,500,000. And in consequence of the rapid extension, during the last dozen years, of the practice of turnip-feeding, both the weight of the carcase and of the fleece have been largely increased.

WOOL.

1431

1800—Total quantity of short wool	-	193,475	
Ditto ditto of long wool	-	121,794	
1825—Total quantity of short wool	-	180,655	226 269
Ditto ditto of long wool	-	268,847	
			284,502
Increase of wool	-		65,283 fleeces.
Increase of skin and lambs' wool	-		10,760
Total increase	-		65,983

N.B.—The wool from slaughtered sheep and carrion not mentioned in this Table; but allowed for above.

British Trade in Wool.—From 1660 down to 1825, the export of wool was strictly prohibited. A notion grew up towards the end of the 17th, and continued to gain ground during the first half of last century, that the wool of England was superior to that of every other country; that long wool could not be produced anywhere else; and that if we succeeded in keeping the raw material at home, we should infallibly command the market of the world for our woollen manufactures. In consequence, innumerable statutes were passed, the enactments in some of which were the most arbitrary and severe that can be imagined, to prevent the clandestine exportation of wool. Mr. John Smith was one of the first who, in his excellent work, entitled *Memoirs of Wool*, exposed the injustice and absurdity of this system, by proving that whatever advantages the manufacturers might gain by preventing the exportation of wool, were more than lost by the agriculturists. But in despite of Mr. Smith's reasonings, which were enforced by many later writers, and which experience had proved to be in all respects accurate, the prohibition of the exportation of wool was continued till 1825, when Mr. Huskisson happily succeeded in procuring the abolition of this miserable remnant of a barbarous policy. The improvement of machinery, by enabling short or clothing wool to be applied to most of those purposes for which long or combing wool had been exclusively appropriated, had annihilated the only apparently tenable argument on which the prohibition of exportation had ever been vindicated; and even this, it will be observed, applied only to a small proportion of the whole wool produced in England.

Down to 1802, the importation of foreign wool into Great Britain had been quite free; and, being the raw material of an important manufacture, the policy of allowing it to be imported free of duty is obvious. In 1802, however, a duty of 5s. 3d. a cwt. was laid on all foreign wool imported. In 1813, this duty was raised to 6s. 8d.; and in 1819, Mr. Vansittart raised it to the enormous amount of 56s. a cwt., or to 6d. per lb. Had English wool sufficed for all the purposes of the manufacture, such a duty would have been less objectionable; but the very reverse was the case. The use of foreign wool had become, owing to the deterioration, or rather, perhaps, to the change in the character, of British wool, and other circumstances, quite indispensable to the prosecution of the manufacture: and as our superiority over the foreigner in several departments of the trade was by no means decided, it is plain that the imposition of a duty which amounted to about 50 per cent. upon the price of a considerable quantity of the wool we were obliged to import, must, had it been persevered in, have ruined the manufacture. It occasioned, indeed, during the period of its continuance, a considerable decline of the exports of woollens, and was productive of other mischievous effects, from which the manufacture suffered for a considerable period after it was repealed.

The evidence as to the absolute necessity of employing foreign wool, taken before the Lords' committee, was as decisive as can well be imagined. Mr. Gott, of Leeds, one of the most extensive and best informed manufacturers in the empire, informed the committee, that, in his own works, he used only foreign wool. On being asked whether he could carry on an export trade to the same extent as at present, if he manufactured his cloth of British wool, Mr. G. replied, that, in certain descriptions of cloth, "he could not make an article that would be merchantable at all for the foreign market, or even for the home market, except of foreign wool." We subjoin a few additional extracts from the evidence of this most competent witness.

"Can you give the committee any information with respect to the competition that now exists between foreigners and this country in woollen cloths?"—"I think the competition is very strong. In some instances the foreigner has, probably, the advantage; and in others, the superiority of the British manufacture, I think, has greatly the advantage; that would apply, I should say, particularly to the fine cloths of Great Britain compared with foreign cloths; in some descriptions of low cloths, the foreigners are nearly on a footing, and in some instances, perhaps, superior to us."

"Speaking of the finer cloths, is the competition such as to render an additional duty on the importation of foreign wool likely to injure the export trade?"—"I have no doubt,

* This learned and accurate work contains a great deal of information with respect to the progress of manufactures and commerce in England.

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1800.	
Number of Fleeces of Short Wool.	Number of Fleeces of Long Wool.
6,197	4,168
-	3,618
-	5,930
7,823	
4,660	4,220
4,900	7,634
5,708	1,907
-	2,870
-	477
6,211	
3,218	
-	5,090
-	6,210
-	3,691
-	48,261
-	3,981
-	12,641
-	2,830
-	15,000
-	6,574
-	10,013
-	8,243
-	4,215
-	3,981
-	9,873
-	6,686
5,315	5,916
-	8,241
-	2,860
-	4,532
3,778	4,980
3,344	
-	3,508
-	4,930
4,471	
-	4,480
1,370	
-	1,390
8,901	
4,373	8,246
-	1,703
3,660	
3,825	2,983
997	
-	10,380
-	5,970
-	3,354
4,137	
3,960	
6,337	
6,437	
1,016	
6,984	
1,958	
9,873	
3,373	
-	6,895
-	6,438
-	5,290
180,655	268,847

-	180,655
-	268,847
-	384,502
lambs' wool	69,263
-	458,907
-	9,262
-	468,169
-	131,794
-	268,847
Increase	129,655

speaking on my oath, that it would be fatal to the foreign cloth trade of the country. I would say further, that it would be equally injurious to coarse manufactures of all kinds made of English wool. The competition now with foreigners is as nearly balanced as possible; and the disturbing operation of attacks of that description would necessarily enable the foreigner to buy his wool cheaper than we should do it in this country: the result would be, that foreigners would, by such a premium, be enabled to extend their manufactures, to the exclusion of British manufactures of all descriptions."

In another part of his evidence, Mr. Gott says,—"If 2 pieces of cloth at 10s. a yard were put before a customer, one made of British wool, the other of foreign wool, one would be sold, and the other would remain on hand: I could not execute an order with it. If any person sent to me for cloth of 7s. or 8s. a yard, and it were made of English wool, it would be sent back to me, and I should resort to foreign wool or foreign mixed with British, to execute that order."

On Mr. Gott being asked whether, in his opinion, the price of British wool would have been higher, had the duty of 6d. per lb. on foreign wool been continued, he answered,—"My opinion is, that the price of British wool would have been less at this time; the demand for British wool would have been very much less. *British manufactures would have been shut out of every foreign market*; and the stock of wool would have accumulated, as it will do if ever that duty be imposed again."—(*Mr. Gott's Evidence*, pp. 292, 293.)

The view taken by Mr. Gott of the effect of the importation of foreign wool on the price of British wool was supported by the concurrent testimony of all the manufacturing witnesses examined by the committee. Blankets, flannels of all sorts, baizes, carpets, bearskins, &c. are made principally of English wool; and the command of foreign wool enables the manufacturers to use a considerable quantity of English wool in the manufacture of certain descriptions of cloth, which, if made entirely of it, would be quite unsaleable. On Mr. Goodman, a wool-stapler of Leeds, being asked whether, if a duty were laid on foreign wool, it would force the use of English wool in the manufacture of cloths, from which it is now excluded, he answered,—"Certainly not: we could not get people to wear such a cloth; they want a better, finer cloth; it is so much handsomer in its wear, and so much more durable."—(*Report*, p. 241.) Mr. Francis, of Heytesbury, declared, that there was no demand for cloth made wholly of British wool; that it was principally applicable to the manufacture of blankets, baizes, &c.; and that the exclusion of foreign wool would only injure the manufacture, without raising the price of British wool,—(p. 268.) Statements to the same effect were made by Mr. Webb (p. 270.), Mr. Sheppard (p. 294.), Mr. Ireland (p. 319.), and, in short, by every one of the witnesses conversant with the manufacture.

The history of the manufacture since 1828 has completely confirmed the accuracy of the statements made by Mr. Gott and the other witnesses. Very large quantities of foreign wool have been imported during the interval; but the price of British wool has, notwithstanding, maintained its proper level; and has, in fact, been at an average considerably higher since the reduction of the duty on foreign wool than previously.

Foreign Wool imported into England.—A very great change has taken place, within the course of the present century, both as respects the quantity of foreign wool imported, and the countries whence it is derived. Previously to 1800, our average imports of wool did not much exceed 3,000,000 lbs., mostly brought from Spain; the wool of which long maintained a high character. In 1800, our imports amounted to near 9,000,000 lbs.; and they have since gone on gradually increasing, till they now amount to between 35,000,000 and 75,000,000 lbs. Instead, however, of being principally derived from Spain, as was the case down to 1814, the greater part by far of this immense supply of foreign wool is at present furnished by Germany, the Australian colonies, and the East Indies. The late king of Saxony, when elector, introduced the breed of Merino sheep into his dominions, and exerted himself to promote the growth of this valuable race of animals. His praiseworthy efforts have been crowned with the most signal success. The Merino sheep seem to succeed better in Saxony and other German states than in Spain; and have increased so rapidly, that the Spanish wool trade has become insignificant compared with that of Germany! The importations of German wool were quite trifling during the war—amounting, in 1812, to only 28 lbs.; but since the peace they have increased beyond all precedent. In 1814, they amounted to 3,432,456 lbs.; in 1820, they were 5,113,442 lbs.; in 1825, they rose to 26,799,661 lbs.; but this being a year of overtrading, they declined in 1826 to 10,545,232 lbs. Subsequently, however, they recovered from this depression, and, in 1836, amounted to 31,766,194 lbs. They have since, however, sunk very rapidly, principally in consequence of the rapidly increasing imports of colonial wool.

The breed of sheep that was carried out to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land has succeeded remarkably well; and Australia is already, perhaps, the principal wool-growing country of the world. The imports into Great Britain have increased

Account of the Quantities of Sheep and Lambs' Wool imported into the U. Kingdom during each of the 8 Years ending with 1845, specifying the Countries whence it was imported, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.
	<i>Lbs.</i>							
Russia	4,272,740	5,414,313	6,114,345	3,770,102	7,994,594	6,517,598	4,131,402	4,228,254
Denmark	1,258,449	1,341,229	1,480,227	1,480,227	1,534,623	1,508,281	1,775,245	1,717,743
Germany	25,738,158	31,758,124	15,705,438	27,206,562	35,835,803	31,813,654	30,235,775	15,814,509
France	104,535	1,004,265	1,067,339	226,830	48,141	48,430	1,029	2,847
Portugal	880,565	1,338,507	1,610,574	877,592	1,006,951	874,916	875,071	655,750
Spain and the Islands	1,808,708	3,816,137	3,844,317	1,814,877	3,409,494	1,968,505	1,008,500	670,520
Italy and the Italian Islands	1,001,005	3,224,202	1,214,007	1,758,224	1,229,057	1,028,541	1,205,254	226,370
Sweden	1,258,449	1,341,229	1,480,227	1,480,227	1,534,623	1,508,281	1,775,245	1,717,743
Prussia	121,254	381,273	469,911	428,026	426,214	751,741	1,275,819	1,244,768
East India Com. Territories and Ceylon	285,542	1,008,508	1,880,741	1,207,266	2,103,546	2,441,570	2,008,504	1,316,971
British settlements in Australia	4,810,801	4,998,645	7,080,545	7,837,433	10,128,714	9,721,545	10,999,080	12,336,288
States of the Rio de la Plata	989,800	1,072,418	1,207,321	1,108,638	826,731	618,731	5,106,327	1,460,100
Chili	508,114	646,216	574,217	544,244	1,235,586	320,130	322,332	175,588
Peru	306,292	353,323	431,611	304,368	349,571	1,770,519	5,184,623	1,072,265
All other countries	2,269,868	5,415,547	4,839,635	1,430,300	1,783,241	1,194,028	908,549	1,242,520
Totals	49,174,222	64,239,977	67,879,708	59,564,505	67,379,923	69,456,284	67,191,274	65,281,229

Return of the Rates of Duty chargeable on Foreign and Colonial Wool, the Quantities imported, the Prices of Southdown and Kent Long Wool, and the declared Value of British Wooleden Manufactures exported in each Year, from 1818 to 1845.—(Parl. Paper No. 102. Sess. 1846, amended.)

Years.	Rates of Duty.	Foreign Wool Imported.	Colonial Wool Imported.	Total Wool Imported.	Prices of		Declared Value of Exports.	
					Southdown.	Kent Long.	Wooleden and Wreath Yarn.	Wooleden Manufactures.
		<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>per lb. a. d.</i>	<i>per lb. a. d.</i>	<i>£.</i>	<i>£.</i>
1818	4d. per lb.	24,720,159	-	-	1 7 8	1 8	-	-
1819	6d. per lb.	10,094,599	-	-	1 7 8	1 8	-	-
1820	-	6,535,566	-	-	1 7 8	1 8	-	-
1821	-	19,416,206	305,781	1,922,567	1 2 8	1 1	-	-
1822	-	16,850,365	106,812	19,058,080	1 2 8	1 1	-	-
1823	-	18,566,266	605,458	19,566,725	1 2 8	1 0	-	-
1824	{Duty, 1824, 1d. per lb. of 10-12 lbs. under value	22,147,540	416,243	22,564,455	1 2	1 1	6,043,061	-
1825	Colonial free	45,465,889	281,564	48,218,966	1 4	1 4	4,165,548	-
1826	-	14,747,108	1,348,009	15,982,113	0 10	0 11	4,986,279	-
1827	-	26,594,748	509,829	29,112,841	0 9	0 10	5,245,648	-
1828	-	28,528,147	1,207,638	30,538,015	0 9	0 9	5,009,741	-
1829	-	18,828,228	1,577,020	21,615,649	0 8	0 9	4,467,803	-
1830	-	30,305,175	1,508,141	32,505,215	0 10	0 10	4,778,628	-
1831	-	29,110,078	3,651,856	31,454,028	1 0	1 0	158,111	5,890,124
1832	-	32,831,206	2,461,191	38,145,498	1 0	1 0	354,479	6,473,726
1833	-	24,481,527	5,014,866	30,775,415	1 0	1 0	346,204	6,540,738
1834	-	45,866,328	3,710,200	49,576,528	1 2	1 2	328,444	7,236,871
1835	-	37,478,078	4,079,600	45,174,322	1 6	1 6	305,091	6,840,511
1836	-	37,418,971	5,458,928	46,857,277	1 6	1 6	358,868	7,296,044
1837	-	38,845,575	6,434,133	49,575,708	1 8	1 8	338,098	6,655,977
1838	-	45,430,109	10,194,832	59,594,255	1 8	1 8	324,232	6,179,694
1839	-	44,504,811	12,675,118	57,375,923	1 8	1 8	435,220	6,271,645
1840	-	38,498,188	12,555,112	49,436,894	1 2	1 2	459,227	5,227,825
1841	-	36,078,153	16,498,221	58,170,974	0	0 11	596,148	5,748,672
1842	-	37,261,920	16,465,718	55,881,639	0	0 10	627,322	5,221,330
1843	-	36,635,515	17,101,146	47,784,001	0 11	0 11	749,888	5,200,439
1844	{From June 6 free	46,472,228	22,606,226	65,078,524	1 2	1 2	806,217	6,163,058
1845	-	44,970,723	31,645,728	76,818,255	1 6	1 6	1,026,925	7,098,118

Account of the Quantity of Sheep and Lambs' Wool imported into the United Kingdom in the Year 1845, specifying the Countries from which it came, and the Quantity brought from each; with the Quantities of Foreign Wool re-exported during the same Period, and the Countries to which it was sent.—(Parl. Paper No. 341. Sess. 1846.)

Imports.	Wool, Foreign and Colonial.		Exports.	Wool, Foreign and Colonial.	
	Countries whence imported.	<i>Lbs.</i>		Countries whence imported.	<i>Lbs.</i>
Russia	-	5,708,754	Western Australia	-	480
Sweden	-	399	South Australia	-	1,209,117
Denmark (including Iceland)	-	1,350,745	New Zealand	-	26,630
Prussia	-	811,424	British North American Colonies	-	8,672
Odenburg	-	6,293	British West Indies	-	4,103
Hannoverian Towns	-	16,465,231	Carcas	-	813
Holland	-	29,019	United States of America	-	835,448
Belgium	-	398,222	Mexico	-	819
France	-	115,227	Brazil	-	114,482
Portugal	-	786,274	States of the Rio de la Plata	-	2,283,737
Spain	-	1,074,540	Chili	-	228,874
Ciudadela	-	454,231	Peru	-	1,626,723
Italy, Sardinian Territories	-	22,407	The Channel Islands	-	170
Ditto, Tuscany	-	150,244			
Ditto, Naples	-	445,265	Total		78,561,280
Ditto, Austrian Territories	-	2,679,242			
Holland	-	115,791			
Mexico and Greek Islands	-	265,227			
Turkey	-	1,639,450			
Egypt and Syria	-	311,474	Hannoverian Towns	-	25,083
Mexico	-	323,283	Holland	-	180,526
Cape of Good Hope	-	8,418,284	Belgium	-	3,148,221
St. Helena	-	27,481	France	-	64,211
British Territories in the East Indies	-	3,975,266	Portugal	-	1,626,723
Java	-	19,551,289	Spain	-	460
New South Wales	-	4,288,281	United States of America	-	126,509
Van Diemen's Land	-	-	The Channel Islands	-	160
			Total		5,609,161

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with extraordinary rapidity. In 1833 they amounted to 3,518,869 lbs., in 1838, to 10,128,774 lbs., and in 1845 to 24,177,317 lbs. The imports of wool from India only began in 1833, when they amounted to the inconsiderable quantity of 3,721 lbs.; but such has been their increase in the interval, that in 1845 they amounted to 3,975,886 lbs. Of late years Russia has become of primary importance among the wool exporting countries.

WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE, the art of forming wool into cloth and stuff. This has always ranked as an important branch of national industry; and, until surpassed by the cotton manufacture, was decidedly the most important of all the manufactures carried on in England.

Rise and Progress of the British Woollen Manufacture. Exports. — There can be no doubt that the arts of spinning wool, and manufacturing the yarn into cloth, were introduced into England by the Romans, the inhabitants being previously clothed only in skins. From the period of the Romans quitting England, down to the 10th century, there are no notices of the manufacture; and those relating to the period from the 10th to the 13th century are but few and imperfect. It is certain, however, that the manufacture of broad cloths was established soon after the year 1200, if not previously. — (*Smith's Memoirs of Wool*, i. 17.) But the woollen manufactures of Flanders being at this period, and long afterwards, in a comparatively advanced state, English wool was exported in large quantities to Bruges and other Flemish cities, whence fine cloths and other products were brought back in exchange. Edward III. took the most judicious measures for improving the English manufacture by inviting over Flemish weavers, fullers, dyers, and others, and protecting them from the assaults of the rabble. Shortly after the first immigration of Flemings, or in 1337, an act was passed, prohibiting the wear of any cloths made beyond sea, and interdicting the export of English wool. — (*Ibid.* i. 25.) But in these turbulent times such restraining acts were little better than a dead letter; and this, indeed, was soon after repealed. — (*Ibid.* i. 32. 39.) From this remote period the manufacture has always been regarded as of primary importance, and has been the object of the especial solicitude of the legislature. It may be doubted, however, whether it has derived any real advantage from the numberless statutes that have been passed in the view of contributing to its advancement. With the exception, indeed, of the prohibition of the export of English wool, which was finally put a stop to in 1660, the other acts, being mostly intended for the regulation of the manufacture, could not be otherwise than mischievous; and the benefit derived by the manufacturers from the prohibition was more apparent than real; inasmuch as it occasioned a diminished growth of wool, at the same time that it was impossible to prevent its clandestine exportation. Mr. Smith has proved that the manufacture made a far more rapid progress during the reign of Elizabeth, when wool might be freely carried out of the kingdom, than it ever did during any equal period subsequent to the restriction on exportation. Foreign wool began to be imported in small quantities in the 13th century.

At first, the manufacture seems to have been pretty equally distributed over the country. In an insurrection that took place in 1525, more than 4,000 weavers and other tradesmen are said to have assembled out of Laneham, Sudbury, and other towns in Suffolk. The manufacture had been previously introduced into Yorkshire. In 1539 an act was passed (34 & 35 Hen. 8. c. 10.), reciting, "that the city of York afore this time had been upholden principally by making and weaving of coverlets, and the poor thereof daily set on work in spinning, carding, dyeing, weaving, &c.;" "that the manufacture, having spread into other parts, was "thereby debased and discredited;" and enacting, as a remedy for this evil, that henceforth "none shall make coverlets in Yorkshire, but inhabitants of the city of York!" This may be taken as a fair specimen of the commercial legislation of the time. Indeed, it was enacted, nearly at the same period, that the manufacture should be restricted, in Worcestershire, to Worcester and 4 other towns. Worsteds goods, so called from Worsted, now an inconsiderable town in Norfolk, where the manufacture was first set on foot, were produced in the reign of Edward II., or perhaps earlier; but Norwich soon after became, and, notwithstanding the competition and superior advantages of Bradford, is still, a principal seat of this branch of the manufacture. In an act of Henry VIII. (38 Hen. 8. c. 16.) worsted yarn is described as "the private commodity of the city of Norwich." In 1614 a great improvement took place in the woollen manufacture of the west of England, by the invention of what is called medley or mixed cloth, for which Gloucestershire is still famous. During the reign of Charles II., there were many, though unfounded, complaints of the decay of the manufacture; and, by way of encouraging it, an act was passed (30 Car. 2. st. i. c. 3.), ordering that all persons should be buried in woollen shrouds! This act, the provisions of which were subsequently enforced, preserved its place on the statute book for more than 130 years!

Towards the end of the 17th century, Mr. Gregory King and Dr. Davenant—*Davenant's Works*, Whitworth's ed. li. 293.)—estimated the value of the wool shorn in England at 2,000,000*l.* a year; and they supposed that the value of the wool (including that imported from abroad) was quadrupled in the manufacture; making the entire value of the woollen articles annually produced in England and Wales, 8,000,000*l.*, of which about 2,000,000*l.* were exported. In 1700 and 1701, the official value of the woollens exported amounted to about 3,000,000*l.* a year. Owing to the vast increase of wealth and population, the manufacture must have been very greatly extended during last century; but the increase in the amount of exports was comparatively inconsiderable. At an average of the 6 years ending with 1789, the official value of the exports was 3,544,160*l.* a year, being only about 340,000*l.* above the amount exported in 1700. The extraordinary increase of the cotton manufacture soon after 1780, and the extent to which cotton articles then began to be substituted for those of wool, though it did not occasion any absolute decline of the manufacture, no doubt contributed powerfully to check its progress. In 1802, the official value of the exports rose to 7,321,012*l.*, being the largest amount they ever reached till 1833, when they amounted to 7,777,952*l.* They have not, however, been so high since; and though there be no reason for supposing that the manufacture, taken as a whole, has sensibly declined during the last few years, it certainly has not increased, and may be regarded as in a stationary state.

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.—The most discordant estimates have been given as to both these points. For the most part, however, they have been grossly exaggerated. In a tract published in 1739, entitled *Considerations on the Running (Smuggling) of Wool*, the number of persons engaged in the manufacture is stated at 1,500,000, and their wages at 11,737,500*l.* a year. Dr. Campbell, in his *Political Survey of Great Britain*, published in 1774, observes,—“Many computations have been made upon this important subject, and, amongst others, one about 80 years since, which, at that time, was thought to be pretty near the truth. According to the best information that can be obtained, there may be from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 sheep in England, some think more. The value of their wool may, one year with another, amount to 3,000,000*l.*; the expense of manufacturing this may probably be 9,000,000*l.*, and the total value 12,000,000*l.* We may export annually to the value of 3,000,000*l.*, though one year we exported more than 4,000,000*l.* In reference to the number of persons who are maintained by this manufacture, they are probably upwards of 1,000,000. Sanguine men will judge these computations too low, and few will believe them too high.”—(ii. 158.) But the moderation displayed in this estimate was very soon lost sight of. In 1800, the woollen manufacturers objected strenuously to some of the provisions in the treaty of union between Great Britain and Ireland, and were allowed to urge their objections at the bar of the House of Lords, and to produce evidence in their support. Mr. Law (afterwards Lord Ellenborough), the counsel employed by the manufacturers on this occasion, stated, in his address to their Lordships, on information communicated to him by his clients, that 600,000 packs of wool were annually produced in England and Wales, worth, at 11*l.* a pack, 6,600,000*l.*; that the value of the manufactured goods was 3 times as great, or 19,800,000*l.*; that not less than 1,500,000 persons were immediately engaged in the operative branches of the manufacture; and that the trade collaterally employed about the same number of hands.—(*Account of the Proceedings of the Merchants, Manufacturers, &c.*, p. 34.)

It is astonishing that reasonable men, conversant with the manufacture, should have put forth such ludicrously absurd statements. We have already seen that the quantity of wool produced in England and Wales, in 1800, did not really amount to 400,000 packs; and the notion that three out of the nine millions of people then in the country were directly and indirectly employed in the manufacture, is too ridiculous to deserve notice, though it was generally acquiesced in at the time.—(See *Middleton's Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 644.; *Adolphus's British Empire*, iii. 236, &c.)

Mr. Stevenson, who is one of the very few writers on British statistics to whose statements much deference is due, has given the following estimate of the value of the woollen manufactured goods annually produced in England and Wales, and of the interest, &c. of the capital, and the number of persons employed in the manufacture:—

Total value of manufactured articles	- - - - -	£18,000,000
Value of raw material	- - - - -	£6,000,000
Interest on capital, sum to replace its wear and tear, and manufacturers' profits	- - - - -	2,400,000
Wages of workmen	- - - - -	9,600,000
		£18,000,000

Number of people employed, 480,000, or perhaps 500,000.

But even this estimate requires to be materially modified. Taking Scotland into account, and allowing for the increase of population and of exportation since Mr. Stevenson's estimate was made, the total value of the various descriptions of woollens

annually produced in Great Britain may, at present, be moderately estimated at from 23,000,000L. to 25,000,000L. or 24,000,000L. at a medium. We have further been assured by the highest practical authorities, that Mr. Stevenson's distribution of the items is essentially erroneous; and that, assuming the value of the manufacture to be 24,000,000L. it is made up nearly as follows:—

Total value of manufactured articles	-	-	-	-	-	24,000,000
Raw material, 110,000,000 lbs. British wool, at 1s. 3d. per lb.,	-	-	-	-	-	1,600,000*
and 50,000,000 do. foreign, at 2s.	-	-	-	-	-	7,500,000
Wages	-	-	-	-	-	1,300,000
Oil, dye stuff, soap, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	4,200,000
Profits, sum to replace wear and tear of capital, &c.	-	-	-	-	-	24,000,000

At present, the average wages of the people employed may be taken at about 24l. a year, making the total number employed 312,500. And, however small this may look as compared with former estimates, we believe it is fully up to the mark, if not rather beyond it.

Most of the innumerable statutes formerly passed for the regulation of the different processes of the manufacture have been repealed within these few years; and the sooner every vestige of the remainder disappears from the statute book, the better.

I. Account of the Quantity of the Different Descriptions of British Woolen Manufactures exported from the U. Kingdom in the Year 1842, and of their Total Declared Value; specifying the Quantities and Value of those sent to each Country.

Countries to which exported.	Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Coatings, Duflins, &c.	Key-seys.	Balms of all Sorts.	Stuffs, Woolens or Worsted.	Flannels.	Blankets and Blanketing.	Carpets and Carpeting.	Woolens mixed with Cotton.	Stockings Woolen or Worsted.	Sundries Rugs, Coverlets, Tapes, &c.	Declared Value of British Woolen Manufactures exported from U. Kingdom.
	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Dos. Pcs.	Doz.	Doz.	£
Russia	680	85	362	-	62,050	2,158	700	5,384	134,013	211	185	111,659
Sweden	450	17	308	-	13,243	1,343	1,000	3,363	18,000	7	683	94,496
Norway	766	163	243	18	5,031	5,134	1,350	1,158	4,910	634	615	18,248
Denmark	59	3	56	-	345	360	60	1,120	-	32	374	1,573
Prussia	107	-	-	-	248	65	-	1,402	450	-	-	814
Germany	15,640	4,070	2,779	283	620,044	406,480	25,718	68,768	831,291	1,256	19,466	855,564
Holland	1,586	651	375	1,767	189,631	125,456	1,714	58,674	24,699	7,435	9,431	536,101
Belgium	609	336	180	85	84,864	123,973	1,198	32,531	66,865	5,276	608	112,765
France	378	162	243	85	31,962	20,596	1,700	19,383	646,670	1,500	1,684	91,143
Portugal, Austria, and Madra	275	51	946	3,189	5,189	1,699	5,480	56,575	1,790	1,563	137,025	
Spain and the Canaries	1,120	10	586	254	17,068	14,184	11,996	4,649	15,951	403	741	40,241
Algeria	4,780	12	205	37	46,110	3,656	1,050	5,794	128,238	1,693	1,322	84,358
Italy	1,301	-	1,913	8	104,741	3,548	3,344	84,885	669,352	1,907	5,396	230,277
Malta	1,828	12	80	1	6,277	5,419	3,026	6,283	16,918	265	276	17,138
Ionian Islands	87	-	4	4	481	1,397	550	300	8	2	197	901
Morocco and Greek Islands	1	-	-	-	663	-	-	180	-	-	6	777
Turkey and Constantinople	653	12	71	2	17,262	2,444	500	9,656	51,337	428	1,107	35,201
Syria and Palestine	24	-	-	-	256	-	110	-	-	-	-	800
East Indies and China	26,567	-	375	7	99,167	22,145	28,530	9,717	95,496	5,677	19,560	362,068
Settlements in Australia	2,727	140	756	173	18,428	106,888	119,750	25,498	136,493	5,170	6,464	88,466
New Zealand	18	-	9	14	120	1,644	26,300	1,659	977	73	759	3,667
Cape of Good Hope	2,149	1,028	750	204	9,415	45,204	34,900	5,013	49,484	268	9,913	81,774
Other parts of Africa	901	-	75	69	6,043	8,319	6,190	2,131	34,765	994	5,216	56,300
British colonies in North America	15,938	1,028	3,711	1,747	91,432	379,758	329,804	171,864	619,099	22,449	24,019	425,192
British West Indies	2,419	15	360	190	24,922	49,733	63,244	3,256	183,112	2,291	3,496	99,474
Foreign West Indies	1,600	-	66	288	12,831	8,283	83,308	1,042	59,601	103	5,619	25,745
United States of America	22,722	60	3,021	2	223,035	53,484	327,545	179,279	1,693,866	6,216	23,485	1,616,611
Brazil	2,627	-	1,168	2,004	64,757	18,100	100,181	6,374	112,618	4,081	6,631	238,308
Mexico and the States of South America	26,09	-	5,064	1,988	124,500	44,451	60,806	77,800	896,865	9,227	11,353	648,496
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	2,006	10	9	141	3,368	96,990	26,864	29,684	-	16	1,124	40,541
Total	161,675	8,433	22,467	24,271	1,978,499	1,619,498	1,292,561	783,768	6,800,010	137,062	152,923	5,120,245

II. Account of the Total Declared Value of the Woolen Manufactures, exclusive of Woolen and Worsted Yarn, exported from the U. Kingdom in each Year since 1820.

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1820	5,265,138	1828	5,065,741	1836	7,529,234
1821	6,462,036	1829	4,267,403	1837	7,625,977
1822	6,498,167	1830	4,725,666	1838	8,795,689
1823	2,636,906	1831	5,531,015	1839	6,371,643
1824	6,043,051	1832	5,244,413	1840	8,307,833
1825	6,165,248	1833	6,684,322	1841	6,748,673
1826	4,669,379	1834	7,356,211	1842	8,262,046
1827	5,245,649	1835	6,240,311		

* We inadvertently underrated the value of the raw material in the former edition of this work. The mistake was pointed out by Mr. Youatt in his excellent work on sheep (p. 226.), which embodies a great deal of most valuable information respecting the woolen manufacture.

III. Account of the Quantity and declared Value of the Woollen and Worsted Yarn exported in each Year from 1820.

Years.	Quantity.		Declared Value.	Years.	Quantity.		Declared Value.	Years.	Quantity.		Declared Value.
	Lbs.	£			Lbs.	£			Lbs.	£	
1820	5,994	810		1866	436,722	56,243		1836	2,446,177	358,090	
1821	9,191	1,217		1867	409,468	73,648		1837	2,615,716	355,098	
1822	12,512	1,509		1868	1,108,025	122,450		1838	2,676,892	364,285	
1823	6,422	1,197		1869	1,592,455	156,111		1839	3,320,461	425,280	
1824	12,642	1,114		1870	2,094,464	235,207		1840	2,796,644	424,267	
1825	17,091	1,427		1871	2,101,478	246,204		1841	4,905,291	559,148	
1826	151,229	22,714		1872	1,801,514	228,244		1842	-	637,205	
1827	225,183	27,508		1873	2,537,236	309,291					

The stationary, or rather declining, amount of the exports of woollen manufactures in the second of the above tables, strikingly contrasts with the rapid increase in the exports of yarn, as exhibited in the third. We believe, too, that the contrast would have been still greater had we been able to insert the returns for 1843; for, though the exports of manufactured woollens in that exceeded those of the preceding year, the increase in the export of yarn was comparatively much greater.—(See the valuable circular of Messrs. Gibson, Ord, and Co., Manchester, 19th January, 1844.)

This different progress of the exports of manufactured goods and yarn depends, no doubt, on various causes; but principally, we believe, on the change, previously noticed, that has taken place in the character of our wool, which fits it much better than formerly for being made into worsted yarn, which is almost the only description of yarn that is exported. The operation of this change is evinced in a still more striking manner by comparing the export of cloth, properly so called, with that of stuffs, in the undermentioned years:—

	1816.	1826.	1840.	1842.
Exports of cloth, pieces	- - - 636,268	284,508	215,746	161,675
stuffs, pieces	- - - 593,306	1,138,586	1,718,617	1,979,492

It is obvious that this continued and rapid fall on the one hand, and continued and equally rapid increase on the other, must be occasioned by the operation of some powerful and permanent cause; and none such can be assigned other than the decreasing suitability of British wool for being made into cloth; and its increasing suitability for being made into worsted yarn and stuffs. We do not think that the existing duty on wool has much influence either one way or the other.

Latterly the stuff trade has been in a state of unexampled prosperity. This has been mainly occasioned by the change of fashion in this and other countries, by which stuffs made of a mixture of cotton and worsted have been largely substituted for cloths; and the home and foreign demand for them proportionally increased. In so far, indeed, as the extraordinary extension of the stuff trade depends on this change, it cannot, perhaps, be regarded as resting on any very solid foundation. But it is on the whole abundantly obvious that the export trade in cloth has seriously declined; and that it is only in the stuff trade, and in the production of yarn, that we have any very decided superiority over foreigners.—(For an account of the recent history of the woollen trade, see the 2d vol. of *Biachuff's History of the Woollen and Worsted Manufactures*; a useful work formed on the plan of *Smith's Memoirs of Wool*, but less learned and able.)

Shoddy Trade.—The greater number, perhaps, of our readers may never have heard of that branch of the woollen manufacture called the *shoddy trade*, which has grown up of late years, and is now of very considerable value and importance. It is principally carried on at Dewsbury in Yorkshire, in the centre of the clothing district. Shoddy cloth is fabricated either wholly or partly of old wool; and instead of being neglected, or used only as manure, old woollen rags are now everywhere carefully collected, and conveyed to Dewsbury. After being subjected to various processes, they are torn to pieces by the aid of powerful machinery, and reduced to their original state of wool; and this wool, being repun, either with or without an admixture of fresh wool, is again made into cloth! Formerly, shoddy cloth was used only for padding and such like purposes; but now, blankets, flushings, druggets, carpets and table covers, cloth for pilot and Petersham great coats, &c., are either wholly or partly made of shoddy. The clothing of the army, and the greater part of that of the navy, consists principally of the same material, which, in fact, is occasionally worn by everybody. Large quantities of shoddy cloth are exported. Great improvements have been effected of late years, not only in the fabric of the cloth, but also in the dyes: this is especially seen in the cloth for soldiers' uniforms, which is no longer of a brick-dust colour, but makes a much nearer approach to scarlet. The beautiful woollen table covers are made wholly of shoddy, being printed by *aqua fortis* from designs drawn in London and Manchester, and out on holly and other blocks on the spot. The analogy between this manufacture and that of paper is so striking, that it must force itself on the attention of every

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Woolen or Worsted.	Stuffs, Hosiery, Knapp., Coverlids, Tapes, &c.	Declared Value of British Woollen Manufactures exported from U. Kingdom.
£. Prs.	£	£
111	185	117,650
74	805	28,409
954	273	19,366
95	374	1,273
	21	614
1,236	19,866	935,569
4,282	8,271	338,103
6,778	2,516	179,476
150	1,994	93,412
1,798	1,528	157,265
469	741	49,241
1,683	1,095	64,252
1,907	5,998	250,127
268	276	17,159
8	187	901
	0	777
428	1,197	35,291
	-	909
5,577	12,360	363,000
6,170	6,484	86,466
73	729	3,657
268	2,013	16,174
904	2,516	56,290
5,449	24,019	425,121
108	9,496	89,417
	5,609	55,745
1,016	25,482	875,641
	6,251	258,200
9,627	11,553	648,496
16	1,124	40,241
1,028	129,629	5,185,015

Woolen and Worsted

Value.
£
7,539,254
4,265,277
5,795,020
6,371,646
5,237,853
6,748,672
3,180,046

of this work. The
embodies a great

one; the vilest and most worthless materials being converted in both into the most beautiful and useful fabrics. The shoddy trade is, in fact, one of the greatest triumphs of art and civilisation. Though of comparatively recent origin, it is rapidly extending itself. It is most active in summer, and is much more languid in winter. — (See *Geog. Dict. art. Dewsbury.*)

WRECK, in navigation, is usually understood to mean any ship or goods driven ashore, or found floating at sea in a deserted or unmanageable condition. But in the legal sense of the word in England, *wreck* must have come to land; when at sea, it is distinguished by the barbarous appellations of *flotsam, jetsam, and lagan*. — (See *FLOTSAM.*)

In nothing, perhaps, has the beneficial influence of the advance of society in civilisation been more apparent than in the regulations with respect to the persons and property of shipwrecked individuals. In most rude and uncivilised countries, their treatment has been cruel in the extreme. Amongst the early Greeks and Romans, strangers and enemies were regarded in the same point of view. — (*Hostis apud antiquos, peregrinus dicebatur.* — *Pomp. Festus*; see also *Cicero de Offic. lib. i. c. 12.*) Where such inhospitable sentiments prevailed, the conduct observed towards those that were shipwrecked could not be otherwise than barbarous; and in fact they were, in most instances, either put to death or sold as slaves. But as law and good order grew up, and commerce and navigation were extended, those who escaped from the perils of the sea were treated in a way less repugnant to the dictates of humanity: and at length the Roman law made it a capital offence to destroy persons shipwrecked, or to prevent their saving the ship; and the stealing even of a plank from a vessel shipwrecked or in distress, made the party liable to answer for the whole ship and cargo. — (*Pand. 47. 9. 3.*)

During the gloomy period which followed the subversion of the Roman empire, and the establishment of the northern nations in the southern parts of Europe, the ancient barbarous practices with respect to shipwreck were every where renewed. Those who survived were in most countries reduced to servitude; and their goods were every where confiscated for the use of the lord on whose manor they had been thrown. — (*Robertson's Charles V., i. note 29.*) But nothing, perhaps, can so strongly evince the prevalence and nature of the enormities, as the efforts that were made, as soon as governments began to acquire authority, for their suppression. The regulations as to shipwreck in the Laws of Oleron are, in this respect, most remarkable. The 35th and 38th articles state, that "pilots, in order to ingratiate themselves with their lords, did, like faithless and treacherous villains, sometimes willingly run the ship upon the rocks, &c.," for which offence they are held to be accursed and excommunicated, and punished as thieves and robbers. The fate of the lord is still more severe. "He is to be apprehended, his goods confiscated and sold, and himself fastened to a post or stake in the midst of his own mansion house, which being fired at the four corners, all shall be burned together; the walls thereof be demolished; the stones pulled down; and the site converted into a market place, for the sale only of hogs and swine, to all posterity." The 31st article recites, that when a vessel was lost by running on shore, and the mariners had landed, they often, instead of meeting with help, "were attacked by people more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman, than mad dogs; who, to gain their monies, apparel, and other goods, did sometimes murder and destroy these poor distressed seamen. In this case, the lord of the country is to execute justice, by punishing them in their persons and their estates; and is commanded to plunge them in the sea till they be half dead, and then to have them drawn forth out of the sea and stoned to death."

Such were the dreadful severities by which it was attempted to put a stop to the crimes against which they were directed. The violence of the remedy shows better than any thing else how inveterate the disease had become.

The law of England, like that of other modern countries, adjudged wrecks to belong to the king. But the rigour and injustice of this law was modified so early as the reign of Henry I., when it was ruled, that if any person escaped alive out of the ship, it should be no wreck. And after various modifications, it was decided, in the reign of Henry III., that if goods were cast on shore, having any marks by which they could be identified, they were to revert to the owners, if claimed any time within a year and a day. By the statute 27 Edw. 3. c. 13., if a ship be lost and the goods come to land, they are to be delivered to the merchants, paying only a reasonable reward or *SALVAGE* (which see) to those who saved or preserved them. But these ancient statutes, owing to the confusion and disorder of the times, were very ill enforced; and the disgraceful practices previously alluded to continued to the middle of last century. A statute of Anne (12 Ann. st. 2. c. 18.), confirmed by the 4 Geo. 1. c. 12., in order to put a stop to the atrocities in question, orders all head officers and others of the towns near the sea, upon application made to them, to summon as many hands as are necessary, and send them to the relief of any ship in distress, on forfeiture of 100*l.*; and in

case of any assistance given, salvage is to be assessed by 3 justices, and paid by the owners. Persons secreting any goods cast ashore, are to forfeit treble their value; and if they wilfully do any act by which the ship is lost or destroyed, they are guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. But even this statute seems not to have been sufficient to accomplish the end in view; and in 1753, a new statute (26 Geo. 2. c. 19.) was enacted, the preamble of which is as follows:—"Whereas, notwithstanding the good and salutary laws now in being against plundering and destroying vessels in distress, and against taking away shipwrecked, lost, or stranded goods, many wicked enormities have been committed, to the disgrace of the nation, and the grievous damage of merchants and mariners of our own and other countries, be it," &c. : and it is then enacted, that the preventing of the escape of any person endeavouring to save his life, or wounding him with intent to destroy him, or putting out false lights in order to bring any vessel into danger, shall be capital felony. By the same statute, the pilfering of any goods cast ashore is made petty larceny.

By statute 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. it is enacted, that any person or persons wilfully cutting away, injuring, or concealing any buoy or buoy rope attached to any anchor or cable belonging to any ship, whether in distress or otherwise, shall be judged guilty of felony, and may, upon conviction, be transported for 7 years.

We regret, however, to have to state that the plunder of shipwrecked property is still by no means uncommon on the British coasts. The late committee on shipwrecks state, that "there is on many parts of the coast a want of that moral principle which should inculcate a just regard for the rights of such property. It is looked upon as a chance gift, which every one has a right to scramble for as he can, notwithstanding the laws which have been passed, from the earliest period, to prevent or punish such depredations. The plunder of shipwrecked property on the coasts has been carried on to an enormous extent, and this seems to have arisen from there having been no persons on the spot, when a wreck had taken place, to look after the property." The committee state, that the establishment of the coast-guard has done much to repress these abuses. The latter, however, cannot legally interfere, except when the castaway articles are subject to customs duties; and the committee suggest that all abandoned property should be vested in the government in trust for those to whom it may belong, as is done in France and Holland. — (*Report of Committee of 1843*, p. viii.)

(For an account of the sums to be paid to those assisting in the saving of wreck, see art. SALVAGE in this Dictionary; see also the chapter on Salvage in Abbott's (*Lord Tenterden's*) work on the *Law of Shipping*.)

Number of Shipwrecks.—The loss of property by shipwreck is very great. It appears from an examination of *Lloyd's List* from 1793 to 1829, that the losses in the British mercantile navy only amounted, at an average of that period, to about 557 vessels a year, of the aggregate burden of about 66,000 tons, or to above 1-40th part of its entire amount in ships and tonnage. The following account of the casualties of British shipping in 1829 is taken from *Lloyd's List*:—

On Foreign Voyages—157 wrecked; 284 driven on shore, of which 224 are known to have been got off, and probably more; 21 foundered or sunk; 1 run down; 35 abandoned at sea, 8 of them afterwards carried into port; 12 condemned as unseaworthy; 6 upset; 1 of them righted; 27 missing, 1 of them a packet, no doubt foundered. *Coasters and Colliers*—109 wrecked; 297 driven on shore, of which 121 known to have been got off, and probably more; 67 foundered or sunk, 4 of them raised, 6 run down; 13 abandoned, 5 of them afterwards carried in; 3 upset, 2 of them righted; 16 missing, no doubt foundered. During the year, 4 steam vessels were wrecked; 4 driven on shore, but got off; and 2 sunk.

We are glad, however, to have to state that it would appear from the returns given in the Report of the Commons' Committee of 1843, on Shipwrecks (Appen. p. 52.), that these casualties are less frequent now than formerly. At all events, it would seem that at an average of the 3 years ending with 1835, when the mercantile navy comprised about 24,500 ships, 610 were annually lost, whereas, at an average of 1841 and 1842, when the mercantile navy had increased to about 28,700 ships, the annual loss amounted to 611 ships; the average burden of the lost ships being in both cases, as near as can be ascertained, 210 tons. Hence, if we estimate the value of the ships and cargoes at 20*l.* a ton, the loss of property in 1841 and 1842, from shipwreck only, will have been 2,566,200*l.* a year! The loss of life is not exactly known, but it may be taken at from 1,450 to 1,500 individuals a year.

These heavy losses might be materially diminished by building better and stronger ships, to which nothing, probably, would contribute so much as allowing them to be built in bond, as previously suggested (*antè*, p. 1111.). No doubt, however, the carelessness, ignorance, and incapacity of the masters is the great source of loss; and nothing, certainly, would do so much to obviate this as to make the obtaining of a certificate of fitness, after undergoing an examination by some public board, indis-

pensible to enable any individual to be appointed to the command of a ship (*anté*, p. 894.).

During the last war with France, 32 ships of the line went to the bottom, besides 7 fifty-gun ships, 86 frigates, and a vast number of smaller vessels. And the losses sustained by the navies of France, Spain, Holland, Denmark, &c. must have very greatly exceeded those of ours. Hence, as Mr. Lyell has observed, it is probable that a greater number of monuments of the skill and industry of man will, in the course of ages, be collected together in the bed of the ocean, than will be seen at one time on the surface of the continents. — (*Principles of Geology*, 2d edit. vol. ii. p. 265.)

Y.

YARD, a long measure used in England, of 3 feet, or 36 inches. — (See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

YARN (Ger. *Garn*; Du. *Garen*; Fr. *Fil*; It. *Filato*; Sp. *Hilo*; Port. *Fio*; Rus. *Prusha*), wool, cotton, flax, &c. spun into thread.

Z.

ZAFFER, or ZAFRE. After the sulphur, arsenic, and other volatile parts of cobalt have been expelled by calcination, the residuum is sold, mixed or unmixed with fine sand, under the above name. When the residuum is melted with siliceous earth and potash, it forms a kind of blue glass, known by the name of smalts — (see SMALTS), — of great importance in the arts. When smalts is ground very fine, it receives in commerce the name of powder blue. Zaffer, like smalts, is employed in the manufacture of earthenware and China, for painting the surface of the pieces a blue colour. It suffers no change from the most violent fire. It is also employed to tinge the crystal glasses, made in imitation of opaque and transparent precious stones, of a blue colour. It is almost wholly brought from Germany. The duty of 1s. a cwt. produced in 1840 239l., showing that 4,660 cwt. had been entered for consumption.

ZEA, INDIAN CORN, or MAIZE. See MAIZE.

ZEDOARY (Ger. *Zitwer*; Fr. *Zédoaire*; It. *Zedoaria*; Sp. *Cedoaria*; Arab. *Judear*; Hind. *Nirbisi*), the root of a plant which grows in Malabar, Ceylon, Cochinchina, &c., of which there are 3 distinct species. It is brought home in pieces of various sizes, externally wrinkled, and of an ash colour, but internally of a brownish red. Those roots which are heavy and free from worms are to be chosen; rejecting those which are decayed and broken. The odour of sedoary is fragrant, and somewhat like that of camphor; the taste biting, aromatic, and bitterish, with some degree of acrimony. It was formerly employed in medicine; but is scarcely ever used by modern practitioners. — (*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ZINC, or SPELTER (Ger. *Zink*; Fr. *Zinc*; It. *Zinco*; Sp. *Zinco*, *Cinck*; Rus. *Schpianter*; Lat. *Zincum*), a metal of a brilliant white colour, with a shade of blue, composed of a number of thin plates adhering together. When this metal is rubbed for some time between the fingers, they acquire a peculiar taste, and emit a very perceptible smell. It is rather soft; tingling the fingers, when rubbed upon them, with a black colour. The specific gravity of melted zinc varies from 6.861 to 7.1, the lightest being esteemed the purest. When hammered, it becomes as high as 7.1906. This metal forms, as it were, the limit between the brittle and the malleable metals. Its malleability is by no means to be compared with that of copper, lead, or tin: yet it is not brittle, like antimony or arsenic. When struck with a hammer, it does not break, but yields, and becomes somewhat flatter; and by a cautious and equal pressure, it may be reduced to pretty thin plates, which are supple and elastic, but cannot be folded without breaking. When heated to about 400°, it becomes so brittle that it may be reduced to powder in a mortar. It possesses a certain degree of ductility, and may, with care, be drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is such, that a wire whose diameter is equal to $\frac{1}{16}$ th of an inch, is capable of supporting a weight of about 26 lbs. Zinc has never been found in a state of purity. The word zinc occurs for the first time in the writings of Paracelsus, who died in 1541; but the method of extracting it from its ores was not known till the early part of last century. — (*Thomson's Chemistry*.) The compounds of zinc and copper are of great importance. — (See BRASS.)

Manufacture of Zinc, &c. — There used to be 3 smelting-houses for the preparation of zinc near Bristol, and 3 near Swansea, but they have been all abandoned, with the exception of 1 of the latter. The material used by the English manufacturer is blende, or black jack (sulphuret of zinc); it is commonly found with lead, and is procured of the best quality in Flintshire and the Isle of Man. Besides its employment in the manufacture of brass, bell metal, and other important compounds, zinc has of late years

been formed into plates, and applied to many purposes for which lead was formerly used, such as the roofing of buildings, the manufacture of water-spouts, dairy pans, &c. Foreign zinc, being less brittle, is better fitted for rolling than that of England.

The duties on spelter, which were formerly prohibitory, were reduced in 1833 to 2*l.* a ton on that formed into plates, or cakes, and to 10*s.* on what is crude; the duty on the latter being farther reduced in 1843 to 1*l.* per ton. In consequence of these reductions, considerable quantities are now imported, partly for home use, and partly for re-exportation to India and China. Foreign zinc is principally made in Upper Silesia; whence it is conveyed by an internal navigation to Hamburg. The freight from the latter to Hull and London is nominal merely; the wool-ships being glad to take it as ballast. Hainault near Namur, has also some part of the spelter trade. A good deal of spelter is shipped from Hamburg, for France and America.

Zinc is produced in the province of Yunan, in China; and previously to 1850, large quantities of it were exported from that empire to India, the Malay Archipelago, &c. But about that time the free traders began to convey European spelter (principally German) to India; and being, though less pure, decidedly cheaper than the Chinese article, it has entirely supplanted the latter in the Calcutta market; latterly, indeed, it has begun to be imported even into Canton. — (See *TURKAO.*) In 1840 the exports of foreign spelter from this country for India and China amounted to 50,885 cwt.; in addition to which considerable quantities were exported from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c. We subjoin an

Account of the Zinc or Spelter imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, and the Duties thereon, in 1841 and 1842.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Duty.
1841	Cwt. 130,198	Cwt. 22,194	Cwt. 75,317	£ 7,705
1842	131,440	22,300	55,740	2,000

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SUPPLEMENT.

ADELAIDE, a city of S. Australia, cap. of the British colony of that name, about 7 m. S.E. from its port, an inlet on the E. side of St. Vincent's Gulph, lat. 34° 57' S., long. 138° 38' E. Though founded so recently as 1834, this is a well-built, prosperous, and rapidly increasing town. Some of the houses, and most part of the principal buildings, are of brick and stone. Pop. in 1846, 7,143; and now (November 1848) probably more than 10,000.

The river Torrens, on which Adelaide is built, loses itself in a marsh before reaching the sea, so that the city is about 7 m. distant from its port, an inlet of St. Vincent's Gulph. This inland situation is a serious drawback on the trade of the city; and it would seem that a mistake was committed in not building it on, or much nearer to, the coast. This, we are aware, has been denied, though, as we think, upon very unsatisfactory grounds. There appears, indeed, to be but little doubt that in no very lengthened period most part of the commerce of the town will be transferred to the port; and that it will be preferred as a residence by all commercial people. In the rainy season the Torrens is much flooded, though it seldom overflows its banks, which are steep and lofty; but in the dry season it has no current, its bed being then formed into a series of pools or tanks.

Fort Adelaide, 7 m. N. W. from the city, in a low and marshy situation, consists of a number of dwelling houses and warehouses, some of which are of stone, with wharves, partly belonging to government, and partly to the South Australian Company. Pop. in 1848 about 1800. The inlet of the sea, forming the harbour, opposite the entrance to which a light vessel is moored, stretches from the gulph, from which it is separated by a narrow neck of land, for about 8 m. southward surrounding Torrens' island. At its mouth is a sandy bar with 8 ft. water at ebb and 16 ft. at flood tide; this depth being considerably increased during S. and S. W. winds. Ships of 400 or 500 tons may, consequently, pass the bar in safety, and once over, there is depth enough for the largest ships to the head of the harbour. (*Dutton, S. Australia*, p. 112.) Large vessels are, however, obliged to lie in mid channel; but projects were recently on foot, and are now, probably, being realised, for improving the harbour, either by carrying out piers into the deep water, or by establishing a new port about 3 m. nearer to the harbour's mouth, where the water in-shore is deeper, and the situation affords greater facilities for the accommodation of shipping. Fort Adelaide has a custom-house; but vessels are exempted from all port charges in this and in the other parts of the colony. A railway planned to unite the city with the port, will, most likely, be completed at an early date.

The trade of Adelaide is already extensive; and it will, no doubt, continue to increase with the increase of the population and trade of the colony, of which it is the grand emporium. The mine of copper, lead, &c., discovered in its vicinity, appear to be of the richest description, and the ores furnished by them form at present the principal article of export. Wool is, also, an important article; and the shipments of it, which, in 1846, amounted to about 1,500,000 lbs.,* are increasing with the same extraordinary rapidity, in this as in other parts of Australia. We subjoin the following statements with respect to the trade, shipping, &c. of Port Adelaide in the following years.

Imports and Exports at Port Adelaide.

	Total Imports.			Total Exports.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1843	109,013	0	9	80,855	12	9
1844	118,815	6	11	95,278	14	6
1845	104,819	16	6	108,058	4	7
1846	379,099	18	9	318,837	16	6
1847	410,893	9	6	350,344	12	9

	Exports the Produce of South Australia.			Imports re-exported.			Imports consumed in the Colony.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1844	418,868	12	6	12,821	10	10	128,003	13	1
1845	131,500	0	0	16,658	18	7	168,160	19	10
1846	877,058	15	0	26,778	5	0	385,591	7	0
1847	975,115	18	0	75,133	0	9	355,608	9	4

Account of Shipping and Passengers arrived Inwards and cleared Outwards at Port Adelaide.

	Inwards.				Outwards.			
	Ships.	Tons.	Crews.	Passengers.	Ships.	Tons.	Crews.	Passengers.
1843	81	7,592	496	292	53	8,001	537	450
1844	70	6,530	645	1114	68	8,458	587	536
1845	116	13,795	1018	8356	111	12,765	384	448
1846	182	85,376	1650	4938	126	91,071	1548	263
1847	150	31,761	1945	5686	151	20,880	1795	810

	Passengers arrived.			Total.	Passengers departed.	Increase by excess of Immigration.
	Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States.			
1844	120	810	184	1114	547	787
1845	898	1748	349	3356	445	3401
1846	1738	5100	689	4424	863	3561
1847	3798	1905	717	5446	880	4768

* The wool is mostly all sent to England; the imports of it into this country in 1846 were 1,473,760 lbs

ADELAIDE. — ALIENS.

1443

Tariff of Customs Duties on the principal Articles imported into South Australia, (Act of Legislative Council, 9th October, 1847.)

Articles	Rates of Duty.				Articles.	Rates of Duty.			
	Of or from Foreign Countries.		Of or from G. Britain or H. Possessions.			Of or from Foreign Countries.		Of and from G. Britain or H. Possessions.	
	£ s. d.	free	£ s. d.	free		£ s. d.	free	£ s. d.	free
Agricultural implements	—	—	—	—	Hops	per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 0
Arms	ad valorem	10 per cent.	—	—	Iron	per gallon	0 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
Apparel and shawls	—	—	—	—	Iron	per ton	10 0 0	10 0 0	10 0 0
Artwork and tapica	per cwt.	0 10 0	0 3 0	—	Iron— manufactures, ironmongery, and nails.	ad valorem	10 per cent.	6 per cent.	—
Bags and sacks—corn	per 100	0 5 0	0 3 0	—	Iron— pig.	per ton	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 5 0
— — — gunny	—	0 3 0	0 3 0	—	Jewellery	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
Bales for wool	each	0 0 3	0 0 3	—	Lead— sheet	per cwt.	0 1 6	0 1 6	—
Beer, porter, ale, cider, perry, in wood.	per gallon	0 0 3	0 0 3	—	Lead— manufactures	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
Beer, porter, ale, cider, perry, in bottles.	—	0 0 4	0 0 4	—	Leather— sole	per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 0	—
Blacking	—	0 0 4	0 0 4	—	— — — calf	per lb.	0 6 0	0 6 0	—
Bliss paste	per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 1	—	— — — barilla	per dozen	0 0 6	0 0 6	—
Books—printed	—	—	—	—	— — — hairgates	per gallon	0 0 7 1/2	0 0 3	—
Books—men's	per doz. pairs.	0 12 0	0 6 0	—	Lime and lime juice, and syrup	per gallon	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
— women's	—	0 6 0	0 3 0	—	Linen— manufactures	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
Shoes—men's, and half-boots	—	0 6 0	0 3 0	—	Macaroni and vermicelli	per lb.	0 0 4	0 0 2	—
— women's and children's	—	0 4 0	0 2 0	—	Machinery	ad valorem	—	free	—
Boots and shoes.	—	—	—	—	Mats and matting	ad valorem	—	free	—
Brass manufactures	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	Medical instruments	—	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
Bottles—glass and stone	per dozen	0 0 3	0 0 1	—	Oilman's stores	—	—	—	—
Briso—fire and Bath	per 1000	0 5 0	0 2 0	—	Paper, stained	per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	—
Briso—other brisks	—	0 2 0	0 2 0	—	— — — brown, wrapping, and blotting.	per cwt.	0 6 0	0 5 0	—
Brimstone	per cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6	—	Parish writing	per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 1	—
Cables—galvanic	—	0 3 0	0 1 6	—	Parishment	per roll	3 0 0	3 0 0	—
Canvas	per bolt	0 4 0	0 3 0	—	Pepper	per cwt.	0 2 3	0 1 6	—
Carriages	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—	Perfumery	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
Casks—empty	per doz.	0 4 0	3 0 0	—	— — —	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
China and porcelain	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—	Picture and prints	—	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
Chocolate and cocoa	per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	—	Plaster of common clay	per bush.	0 0 3	0 0 1	—
Clocks and watches	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—	Plate and plated goods	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
Coal	—	—	—	—	Quills	per 100	0 0 3	0 0 2	—
Coffee	per cwt.	0 6 0	0 3 0	—	Saddlery and harness	per cwt.	0 2 0	0 1 0	—
Coffin	—	0 0 6	0 0 3	—	Sago	per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	—
Copper—sheathing and sails	per cwt.	0 10 0	0 3 0	—	Salt	per ton	0 3 0	0 3 0	—
Copper and manufactures	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	Saltpetre	per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 0	—
Cordage—Europe	per cwt.	0 4 0	0 2 0	—	Shot	—	—	—	—
— Manila	—	0 2 0	0 1 0	—	Silk manufactures	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
— Cord	—	0 1 6	0 0 8	—	Skins and furs	—	—	—	—
Cork	—	0 4 0	0 2 0	—	Soap	per cwt.	0 3 0	0 1 0	—
Cotton manufactures	per gross	0 2 0	0 1 0	—	— — — sweetened or mixed with any article.	per gallon	0 12 0	0 8 0	—
Cotton manufactures	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	Starch	per cwt.	0 4 0	0 2 0	—
Cutlery	—	—	—	—	Stationery	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
Densary	—	—	—	—	Steel	per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	—
Drugs	—	—	—	—	Stones, cut diamonds	per foot diam.	0 0 1	0 0 1	—
Earthenware	—	—	—	—	Stones, cut diamonds, under 2 ft. in diameter.	—	—	—	—
Embroidery and needlework	—	—	—	—	— — — above	per lb.	0 0 1 1/2	0 0 1 1/2	—
Flowers—artificial	—	—	—	—	Sugar, refined and candy	per cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0	—
Feathers—ornamental	—	—	—	—	Muscovado molasses	per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	—
Feathers—bed	per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 1	—	Tar	per barrel	0 0 0	0 0 0	—
Fiaz	per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	—	Tin plates	per box	0 2 0	0 2 0	—
Furniture	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	Tin ware	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—
Glass plate, in squares exceeding 600 in.	per sq. ft.	0 0 3	0 0 3	—	Tobacco, manufactured	per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	—
— in squares not exceeding 600 in.	per 100 feet	0 5 0	0 2 6	—	— — — unmanufactured	—	—	—	—
— crown and sheet, exceeding 600 in.	—	0 3 0	0 1 6	—	— — — pipes and cheroots	per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	—
— crown and sheet, not exceeding 600 in.	—	—	—	—	Tobacco, manufactured	per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	—
— — — cut, cast, mirrors, and manufactured	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	— — — cruff	—	—	—	—
Gloves—men's	per dozen	0 1 0	0 1 0	—	Turnery and wooden ware	ad valorem	15 per cent.	10 per cent.	—
— women's & children's	—	0 0 9	0 0 6	—	Vinager	per gallon	0 0 1 1/2	0 0 1 1/2	—
Gunpowder—sporting, in casks.	per cwt.	0 10 0	0 5 0	—	Wine	—	—	—	—
Gunpowder—blasting	—	0 5 0	0 2 0	—	Wine	per gallon	0 0 1 1/2	0 0 1 1/2	—
Haberdashery and millinery	ad valorem	10 per cent.	5 per cent.	—	Wine	per gallon	0 1 6	0 0 6	—
Hardware	—	—	—	—	Wine	per gallon	0 1 6	0 0 6	—
Hats, caps, and bonnets	per cwt.	0 1 6	0 1 6	—	Wine	per gallon	0 1 6	0 0 6	—
Hemp—dressed	—	0 1 0	0 1 0	—	Zinc, and manufactures of do.	—	—	—	—
— undressed, tow, and calcium.	—	—	—	—					

Demand for Labour.— There is at present a great demand for labour in this, as in most other parts of Australia. In March 1848, blacksmiths, carpenters, masons, wheelwrights, coopers, &c. were accustomed to obtain from 7s. to 8s. a-day; saddlers and millers from 5s. 6d. to 10s.; bullock-drivers and day labourers from 3s. 6d. to 4s.; domestic servants (besides board and lodging)—male, from 25s. to 32s., and females from 14s. to 22s. a-year. The retail prices of provisions in the colony at the same date were quoted as follows:—Bread, 1 1/2d. per lb.; butter from 10d. to 1s.; cheese, 9d.; candles, 7d.; flour, 1 1/2d.; beef and mutton, 2d. to 3 1/2d.; rice, 2 1/2d.; sugar, 6 1/2d.; tobacco, 3s. 6d. per lb.; and lamp-oil, 3s. per gallon; wheat, 4s. to 5s. per bushel. Clothing may generally be had at but a small advance upon the home prices; but tools are often scarce and dear.

ALIENS. An act passed in 1844, the 7 & 8 Vict. c. 66., has given every reasonable facility for the naturalisation of aliens. It authorises the Secretary of State for the Home Department to grant certificates of naturalisation, on his receiving such evidence, in regard to any application for a certificate, as he may think necessary. A certificate, when granted, conveys (unless some special reservation be made in it) all the rights and capacities of a natural-born British subject, except that of being a member of either House of Parliament, and of being a privy councillor.

The following regulations have been issued by the Secretary of State in reference to this subject:—

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" I. Upon an application to the Secretary of State for the grant of a certificate of naturalisation, it will be necessary that the applicant should present to one of H. M.'s principal secretaries of state a memorial praying for such grant, stating the age, profession, trade, or other occupation of the memorialist, the duration of his residence within the U. K., and of what friendly state he is a subject; whether he intends to continue to reside within this kingdom, and all other grounds on which he seeks to obtain any of the rights and capacities of a natural-born British subject.

" II. That the memorialist should make an affidavit before a magistrate, or other person authorised by law to administer an oath, verifying all the statements in his memorial.

" III. That a declaration should be made and signed by four householders at least, vouching for the respectability and loyalty of the memorialist, verifying also the several particulars stated in the memorial as grounds for obtaining such certificate; and that this declaration should be made in due form before a magistrate, or other person authorised by law to receive such declaration, in pursuance of the act passed in the 5th & 6th years of His late Majesty King William IV."—*Home Office, 16th October, 1844.*

An act passed in 1848, 11 Vict. c. 20., empowers the principal secretaries of state and the lord lieutenant of Ireland to order aliens out of the kingdom on a representation being made to them that such a step would conduce to the public tranquillity. But despite the obvious expediency of vesting a discretionary power of this sort in the functionaries referred to, the act is limited to a year's duration. Probably, however, it will be made perpetual.

AUCTIONS. The duties on auctions, which had become partial from the numerous exemptions in favour of various articles, and oppressive from the severity with which they pressed on others, were repealed in 1845, by the 8 Vict. c. 15.

This act directs that in future all persons acting as auctioneers shall take out an annual licence costing 10*l.*, which shall enable them to sell all sorts of articles by auction, whether special licences be required for dealing in the same or not: it is enacted by clause 5, that a licence shall not be necessary in the case of sales under distress, where the sum does not exceed 20*l.*, and a few others. Any person acting as an auctioneer, and not producing, on being required to do so by any officer of customs or excise or of stamps and taxes, his licence, or paying forthwith 10*l.* into the hands of the officer, may be committed to goal for a month, besides being liable to penalties incurred for acting without a licence. Auctioneers are farther directed, under a penalty of 20*l.*, to have their names and places of abode written in legible characters, and placed in some conspicuous part of the premises where auctions are held.

BANKS.—BANKING.

An Account of the Rate of Interest charged by the Bank of England, from 1694 to 1848.

From Aug. 8, 1694 to Aug. 30, 1804	On Foreign bills	6 per cent.	From Feb. 15, 1838 to May 16, 1839	On Bills and notes (5 days to run)	4 per cent.
Aug. 30, 1694	Jan. 18, 1695	do.	May 15, 1839	June 30, 1839	do.
Oct. 4, 1694	Jan. 16, 1695	Inland bills	June 30, 1839	Aug. 1, 1839	do.
Jan. 16, 1695	May 19, 1695	Foreign bills	Aug. 1, 1839	Jan. 25, 1840	do.
Jan. 16, 1695	July 26, 1716	do.	Jan. 25, 1840	Oct. 15, 1840	do.
May 19, 1695	Feb. 29, 1703	Foreign bills	Oct. 15, 1840	June 5, 1841	do.
Do.	on Foreign bills, not payable at the bank	4	June 5, 1841	April 5, 1842	do.
Feb. 29, 1704	June 29, 1710	Foreign bills	April 7, 1842	Sept. 5, 1842	do.
June 29, 1710	July 26, 1716	For. & inland do.	Sept. 5, 1842	Mar. 15, 1843	do.
July 26, 1716	April 30, 1719	do.	Mar. 15, 1843	Oct. 16, 1843	do.
April 30, 1719	Oct. 27, 1720	Inland bills	Oct. 16, 1843	Nov. 6, 1843	do.
Oct. 27, 1720	Aug. 25, 1728	do.	Nov. 6, 1843	Aug. 17, 1844	do.
Aug. 25, 1728	Oct. 19, 1748	Inland bills	Aug. 17, 1844	Jan. 14, 1847	do.
Do.	do.	Foreign bills	Jan. 14, 1847	Jan. 21, 1847	do.
Oct. 19, 1748	Dec. 19, 1748	do.	Jan. 21, 1847	April 6, 1847	do.
Dec. 19, 1748	May 1, 1774	(15 d. to run)	April 6, 1847	Aug. 5, 1847	do.
Do.	do.	Inland bills	Aug. 5, 1847	Sept. 30, 1847	do.
May 1, 1746	April 5, 1773	Foreign do.	Sept. 30, 1847	Dec. 25, 1847	do.
May 1, 1746	June 30, 1824	Bills and notes (35 days to run)	Dec. 25, 1847	Nov. 29, 1847	do.
June 30, 1822	Dec. 15, 1823	do.	Nov. 29, 1847	Dec. 31, 1847	do.
Dec. 15, 1823	July 5, 1827	do.	Dec. 31, 1847	Dec. 31, 1847	do.
July 5, 1827	July 31, 1836	do.	Dec. 31, 1847	Jan. 27, 1848	do.
July 31, 1836	Sept. 1, 1836	do.	Jan. 27, 1848	June 16, 1848	do.
Sept. 1, 1836	July 15, 1838	do.	June 16, 1848	do.	do.

(From Bankers' Magazine for July, 1848.)

An Account of the Notes in circulation of the Bank of England, and of the other Banks of Issue in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, specifying also the Bullion in the Bank of England.

Four Weeks ending	England.			Scotland.		Ireland.		Total.	Bullion in the Bank of England.
	Bank of England.	Private Banks.	Joint Stock Banks.	Chartered, Private, and Joint Stock Banks.	Bank of Ireland.	Private and Joint Stock Banks.			
24 July, 1841	17,976,000	6,907,682	3,418,810	3,181,494	5,025,925	1,905,672	35,444,785	5,011,000	
31 August, 1841	17,998,000	6,844,300	3,215,553	3,074,293	4,990,875	1,868,361	34,981,192	4,801,000	
7 September, 1841	17,989,000	6,781,136	3,211,581	3,092,929	4,847,923	1,929,093	34,019,481	4,803,000	
16 October, 1841	17,540,000	6,253,964	3,219,384	3,208,703	3,060,750	1,885,398	35,263,199	4,691,000	
23 November, 1841	17,985,000	6,390,725	3,441,135	3,365,056	3,253,575	1,811,514	36,102,588	4,218,000	
11 December, 1841	16,492,000	5,719,411	3,077,812	3,448,690	3,200,472	1,201,712	34,961,671	4,031,000	
6 January, 1842	16,305,000	5,476,189	2,948,197	3,070,075	3,305,875	1,215,677	33,065,015	5,639,000	
13 February, 1842	16,085,000	5,269,825	2,906,801	2,994,984	3,279,075	1,201,059	34,723,841	5,692,000	
6 March, 1842	16,894,000	5,499,453	4,990,986	3,811,109	3,149,750	1,407,625	35,291,925	6,091,000	
4 April, 1842	16,574,000	5,289,970	3,047,656	3,670,290	3,074,400	1,229,256	35,011,677	7,006,000	
20 April, 1842	16,404,000	4,484,188	3,161,000	3,590,715	2,829,275	1,650,097	33,663,418	6,803,000	
9 May, 1842	17,091,000	5,263,624	3,101,440	3,931,363	3,095,940	1,061,128	35,466,930	7,283,000	
25 June, 1842	17,543,000	4,995,598	3,860,329	3,847,038	3,201,225	1,169,183	36,916,873	7,640,000	
13 July, 1842	17,909,000	4,165,091	3,839,193	3,715,090	3,829,275	1,111,592	36,491,511	7,080,000	
30 August, 1842	20,531,000	4,150,628	3,925,990	3,674,835	4,831,750	1,138,611	40,167,930	9,370,000	
17 September, 1842	19,911,000	5,029,459	3,917,449	3,668,449	4,440,625	1,065,014	38,049,594	9,516,000	
12 October, 1842	19,492,000	4,489,061	3,084,299	3,747,193	3,011,160	1,002,290	35,843,899	9,011,000	
18 November, 1842	20,103,000	4,374,828	3,186,964	3,811,963	3,162,200	1,166,989	36,916,880	9,907,000	
12 December, 1842	19,885,000	4,085,963	3,084,290	3,691,828	3,139,263	1,101,953	35,855,508	10,511,000	
7 January, 1843	19,283,000	4,943,823	3,239,909	3,770,828	3,112,900	1,099,041	34,044,123	11,040,000	
4 February, 1843	21,106,000	5,024,716	4,308,005	3,698,891	3,197,475	1,117,341	36,985,029	10,353,000	
12 March, 1843	20,570,000	4,165,091	3,844,077	3,908,005	3,160,125	1,007,422	35,601,591	10,294,000	
1 April, 1843	19,539,000	4,716,206	3,864,186	4,207,804	3,005,400	1,010,420	34,681,256	11,480,000	
20 April, 1843	20,389,000	4,980,000	3,117,448	4,487,511	3,533,550	1,171,750	36,047,265	11,216,000	
27 May, 1843	19,842,000	4,765,778	3,017,167	3,906,800	3,060,800	1,060,320	35,116,510	12,345,000	
24 June, 1843	18,411,000	4,405,476	3,863,779	3,969,063	3,105,150	1,174,730	35,488,000	11,875,000	
22 July, 1843	19,969,000	4,480,096	3,240,812	3,665,320	3,099,100	1,081,998	34,545,711	11,274,000	
19 August, 1843	20,671,000	4,537,676	3,781,212	3,618,750	3,018,250	1,091,812	36,125,350	10,511,000	
16 September, 1843	19,174,000	4,488,180	3,765,520	3,659,176	3,075,950	1,099,946	35,318,534	10,250,000	
14 October, 1843	19,024,000	4,721,109	2,130,000	3,768,353	3,432,570	1,036,843	34,928,984	12,086,000	

An Account of the Irish Banks empowered to issue Notes, specifying the maximum authorised issue of each, under the 8 & 9 Vict. c. 37., with other Particulars.

Names of Banks.	Head Office.	When established.	Branches and Sub-Branches.	Number of Partners.	Capital advanced.	Circulation authorised by 8 & 9 Vict. c. 37.
Bank of Ireland	Dublin	1743	34	897	8,000,000	8,738,428
Provincial Bank of Ireland	London	1845	56	815	500,000	877,667
National Bank of Ireland	London	1833	58	1050	350,000	761,757
National Bank of Ireland at Clonmel						66,418
National Bank of Ireland at Carrick on Sully						54,084
Ulster Banking Company	Belfast	1836	13	489	500,000	511,079
Belfast Banking Company	Belfast	1847	22	304	185,000	581,611
Northern Banking Company	Belfast	1846	12	175	100,000	545,640
						6,254,494

Total authorised Maximum Circulation of the U. Kingdom.

Bank of England (variable).						5,011,007
English Private Banks						3,477,321
Scottish Banks						3,067,200
Irish Banks						6,254,494

Being £17,920,121, exclusive of Issue of Bank of England.

BANKS (SAVINGS). It has been seen (Dictionary, p. 117.), that the public has sustained a considerable loss from having to pay a larger sum to the trustees of Savings Banks and Friendly Societies, on account of interest, than the dividends on the stock and other public securities purchased by the money received from them have amounted to. This source of loss has, however, been either entirely or in a great degree obviated by the act 7 & 8 Vict. c. 83., which has reduced the interest payable to the trustees of savings banks from *Sl. 16s. 0½d.* to *Sl. 5s.* per cent.; and which has also enacted that the rate of interest payable to depositors shall not exceed *Sl. 0s. 10d.* per do. This act has farther raised the maximum amount of the government annuity that may be purchased by depositors in savings banks and others from *20l.* to *30l.*

BANK OF FRANCE.—The Revolution of 1848 involved the Bank of France in difficulties, under which, had she been established on a less solid foundation, she must have broken down. She could not, however, avoid suspending cash payments under a decree of the provisional government of the 16th March, 1848; and she was also compelled to advance large sums to government, and to the city of Paris. To set some limit to the abuses that might have taken place under the suspension, the maximum circulation of the bank was fixed, by the decree now referred to, at 350,000,000 fr.; while, in the view of supplying a currency suited to the smaller class of payments, she was permitted to issue notes of 100 fr. The departmental banks were soon after consolidated with and made branches of the Bank of France. We subjoin a copy of the decree of the 27th of April, 1848, by which this amalgamation was effected.

Art. 1. The banks of France, of Rouen, Lyons, Havre, Lille, Toulouse, Orleans, and Marseilles are united.

Art. 2. The departmental banks above enumerated will continue in operation as branches of the Bank of France, conformably to the regulations stipulated in the decree of the 18th of May, 1806, and the ordinance of the 25th of March, 1841. The present number of the administration of the departmental banks is maintained, as also the boards of discount, organised for the service of several of them.

The number of shares, the possession of which is at present required as a guarantee from the directors, censors, administrators, and members of the councils of discount of those departmental banks, is provisionally maintained.

Art. 3. The shares of those banks are annulled, and the holders shall receive in exchange shares of the Bank of France at a nominal value of 1,000 fr. for a nominal value of 1,000 fr.

Art. 4. In order to execute the above article the Bank of France is empowered to issue 17,800 new shares, which will increase its capital to 85,100 shares of 1,000 fr.

Art. 5. By the union of those new shares to the shareholders of the banks of Rouen, Lyons, Havre, Lille, Toulouse, Orleans, and Marseilles, the Bank of France shall become proprietor of the equities of those banks, and be made chargeable with their engagements. The reserve funds, existing in each of those banks, shall be added to the reserve fund of the Bank of France. The unities of the landed and chancel property, resulting from the present article, shall be subjected to the fixed registry duty imposed on deeds of partnership.

Art. 6. The Bank of France is authorised to add to the maximum of circulation, fixed by the decree of the 15th of March last, the maximum of the circulation fixed for each of the departmental banks by the decree of the 25th of the same month.

From the date of the promulgation of the present decree

the notes issued by the banks, incorporated with the Bank of France, shall be received throughout the republic as a legal tender by all the branches of the public treasury and private individuals. The holders of said notes shall have to present them to the Bank of France, or to its branches, within the following six months, in order to exchange them for notes of that bank. Beyond that period, those notes shall cease to be current as a legal tender, but the Bank of France and its branches shall not be exonerated from the obligation of exchanging them.

Art. 7. The inspectors of the finance department, on an order of the minister, may verify the situation of the branch banks.

Art. 8. In future the branch banks of the Bank of France shall bear the following denomination:—"Bank of France, Branch Bank of . . ."

	Shares.	Fr.
Bank of Rouen	3,000	3,000,000
Lyons	2,000	2,000,000
Havre	4,000	4,000,000
Lille	2,000	2,000,000
Toulouse	1,800	1,800,000
Orleans	1,000	1,000,000
Marseilles	4,000	4,000,000
Bank of France	17,800	17,800,000
	67,900	67,900,000
	85,100	85,100,000

The banks of Bordeaux and Nantes were at first disposed strenuously to resist the project for their incorporation with the Bank of France. In the end, however, they gave way; and, in consequence, 6,150 shares, and an additional capital of 6,150,000 fr. was added to the shares and capital of the Bank of France, making at present (1849), the former 74,050, and the latter 91,250,000 fr. The maximum circulation of the departmental banks was at the same time added to that of the Bank of France.

On the whole, we are inclined to think that this conversion of the departmental banks into branches of the Bank of France is a considerable improvement. It gives an equality

authorised issue of

Year	Circulation authorised by R & S Vict. c. 37.
1860	8,738,428
1861	927,967
1862	781,757
1863	66,428
1864	34,086
1865	311,079
1866	361,611
1867	243,440
	6,354,494

5,011,007
3,477,321
3,067,209
6,354,494

that the public to the trustees of the dividends on from them have or in a great interest payable to it which has also 10s. 10d. per do. annuity that may

Bank of France in relation, she must payments under a commission. To set some on, the maximum £350,000,000 fr.; of payments, she soon after con- in a copy of the acted.

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department, on an situation of the branch

of the Bank of France

of the Bank of France

Shares.	Pr.
3,000	3,000,000
2,000	2,000,000
4,000	4,000,000
2,000	2,000,000
1,000	1,000,000
1,000	1,000,000
4,000	4,000,000
17,500	17,500,000
67,500	67,500,000
85,100	85,100,000

usly to resist the however, they gave 6,150,000 fr. was present (1849), the on of the depart-

partmental banks gives an equality

of value to the paper currency, which it could not otherwise have had, and makes it equally serviceable in all parts of the republic. It is surprising, indeed, how soon the Bank of France has recovered from the severe shocks to which she was exposed in 1848, and to what a degree she has regained the public confidence. But despite the able management of the Bank, her intimate connection with the government, coupled with the insecurity of the latter, and the disordered state of the finances, preclude any confident expectations in regard to her permanent stability. She may exist for a longer or a shorter period; but unless the government be established on some more solid foundation, and the revenue and the public expenditure be brought nearer to a level, the existence of the Bank, and of a convertible paper currency, must be in the last degree precarious.

BANKS OF GERMANY.—We borrow from Hunt's Commercial Magazine, the following statements with respect to the German banks:—

Bank of Prussia.—The Bank Royal of Prussia was founded at Berlin in 1765, upon the model of that of Hamburg. So it existed until 1846, when it was re-organised under a new charter, by which more extension was given to its operations. In accordance with this new constitution, which has been in force since the 1st January last, the issue of notes has been carried to fifteen millions of thalers (the thaler equal to 2s. 10½d. sterling). In 1850 this issue is to be raised to twenty-one millions of thalers. The capital of the bank is always to be, in proportion with the notes in circulation, two-sixths in silver, three-sixths in bills discounted, and the rest in loans on securities. The bank notes are from twenty-five to fifty thalers each. The share of the government in the bank amounts, at most, to 500,000 thalers. The shareholders are entitled to an annual interest of 3½ per cent. upon the capital, and, after deduction of the sum set apart for the reserve or rest, which is not to exceed 30 per cent. of the capital, one moiety of the surplus profits is apportioned to them in addition, and the other goes to the treasury. The bank has branches in a great number of cities, as Breslau, Königsberg, Danzig, Stettin, Magdeburg, Münster, Cologne, Glogau, Posen, Stolpe, Elberfeld, Treves, Aix-la-Chapelle, Düsseldorf, Coblenz, Minden, Erfurt, Frankfurt-am-Main, Straßburg, Kottin, Liegnitz, and Oppeln, and thus forms a vast network of financial operations through all the kingdom.

The private bank of the noblesse of Pomerania was founded at Stettin, in 1824, by an association of noble proprietors, with a capital of 1,000,000 thalers. After the crisis of 1830, this capital was carried to 1,584,500 thalers. The operations of this bank embrace discount, loans upon judgments of merchandise, loans upon public and private securities, current accounts, and deposits with interest. Formerly, it issued promissory notes to bearer; but this privilege was withdrawn from it in 1835. There is a circulation of about ninety millions of thalers of mortgage notes in Prussia (these are, in fact, for one hundred and five millions). They have been issued, at different periods, by associations of proprietary nobles in various parts of the kingdom, and carry interest at 3½ per cent.

The National Bank of Vienna was founded in 1816, to re-establish order in the finances of Austria, and more particularly for the re-purchase or the conversion of the paper money in circulation, the value of which was become almost nominal. The different creations of shares have raised its capital to about 89,000,000 florins. This capital is divided into 50,631 shares of 1800 florins each. The actual operations of the bank are discount; the issue of bank notes, a privilege which it enjoys exclusively throughout the Austrian empire; loans upon deposits, and negotiations of loans. The bank pays an annual interest of 6 per cent. upon the primitive capital, and a dividend, after deduction of the reserve fund, in its privilege, or charter, extends to the year 1866. It has branches at Prague, Brinn, Troppau, Ogen, Namesswar, Kaahan, Lenberg, Trieste, Innspruck, Goritz, Lina, and Hermsstadt.

The Bank of Extraordinary Credit of Vienna, was constituted in 1846 by imperial decree, and has for object to devote a part of the sums destined for the redemption of the national debt, to the purchase of certain shares in railways and other enterprises, in order to sustain useful undertakings, and communicate a greater impulse to them.

The Loan and Exchange Bank of Bavaria was founded at Munich, in 1835, by shares, under the surveillance and control of the government. It is privileged for ninety-nine years. The original capital was 10,000,000 florins, with liberty of increase to 20,000,000. In 1846, there was a new emission of shares of 600 florins. The net profits are divided as follows:—Three per cent. as dividend to the shareholders, and, of the surplus, three-fourths, as extra dividend, and the remaining fourth carried to the reserve, until it shall reach to one-tenth of the capital. Three-fifths of the capital are employed in loans on mortgage. The other operations are discounts, loans on securities and ingots; the issue of bank notes, whose amount is limited to four-tenths of the capital, and three-fourths of it to be covered by a value of double the sum in mortgage credits, or in silver. The bank has a branch at Augsburg.

The Royal Bank of Bavaria, first established at Ansbach, and now at Nuremberg, is one of the oldest establishments of the kind. Its operations are discounts, deposits, loans upon personal and other securities. The government is entitled to half the profits. It has branches at Ansbach and Bamberg.

The Royal Bank of the Court of Wurtemberg, founded in 1802 at Stuttgart, limits its operations to discounts and loans.

The Bank of Leipzig was founded in 1839, under the auspices of the government, with a capital of 1,500,000 thalers, divided into shares of 250 thalers, receiving 8 per cent. interest. Its operations are deposits, loans, and discounts. It has the right of issuing notes of 20 and 100 thalers each, of which the two-thirds should be guaranteed by values to the amount in specie or ingots.

There exists, besides, at Dresden, a loan bank, which makes advances to land proprietors and farmers for the payment of taxes, tithes, &c. Leipzig has also an institution of this kind under the name of "Union of Credit for the hereditary lands of the Saxon nobility."

It was in 1846, that was founded at Dessau a great national establishment, to answer the purpose of a vast banking system for the north of Germany. It was proposed to endow it with an accumulation of capitals to the extent of from 50,000,000 to 100,000,000 thalers. But this gigantic project has resolved itself into a private enterprise, established, in the beginning of 1847, under the title of the Provisional Bank of Anhalt-Dessau, with a capital of 2,500,000 thalers, divided in shares of 900 thalers. This establishment issues notes of 1 s., 10 s., 20 s., 100, 600, and 1000 thalers each. One-fourth the value of the bank notes in circulation should be covered by an equivalent sum in specie.

The Bank of Hamburg was founded in 1619. The minimum deposit of a member desiring to open an account, is 100 marcs banco in bar silver, or in a bill, for the same sum, of one of the members of the bank, which is then transferred from the account of the latter to that of the former. Transfers cannot take place for a less sum than 100 marcs, except some days before Christmas, or in the middle of July. Until now, for each marc of fine silver of Cologne, the depositor was accredited with 27½ marcs banco; while, in withdrawing his money for a similar sum, he was debited with 27½ marcs banco, so that the simple usage of the operation brought a cost of 9-20 per cent. A new regulation, which is to come into force on the 16th of next August, is that the marc of fine silver of Cologne shall be credited 27½ marcs banco, and debited at a similar rate after deduction of 1 per mille. Independently of this sort of business, the bank lends upon Spanish and American dollars, and sometimes also on copper. These are its only operations.

The association of the new loan, established equally at Hamburg in 1839, possesses a capital of 100,000 marcs banco, and does business prohibited to the bank, principally loans on securities, public funds, &c.

BRAZIL (EXPORTS OF).—We have obtained from a quarter on which every reliance may be placed, the following Table.

Account of the Quantities and Values of the different Articles of native Produce exported from the various Ports of Brazil in 1844-45.

Articles.	Quantity.	Average Prices.		Amount.	
		£	s.	£	s.
Rio de Janeiro.					
Coffee	1,980,000	2	0	3,960,000	
Hides	269,000	0	10	164,000	
Sugar	11,818	10	0	118,180	
Rum	3,800	10	0	38,000	
Rosewood	12,000	0	18	12,000	
Rice	3,000	0	0	3,000	
Ham	5,000	0	0	5,000	
Tobacco	81,870	0	80	81,870	
Peppers	5,128	about 54. 10 lb.		7,680	
Gold and diamonds, in 1844	241,000	18s. 10	about	4,884	
				450,000	3,368,114
Bahia.					
Coffee	80,000	2	0	60,000	
Cotton	5,500	2	0	11,000	
Sugar	25,000	12	0	1,050,000	
Tobacco	350,000	0	6	70,000	
Hides	180,000	0	0	84,000	
Rum	4,000	0	0	30,000	
Rose and other fancy woods	—	—	—	5,750	
Diamonds (supposed value)	—	—	—	500,000	1,377,000
Mercy.					
Cotton	80,000	2	2	80,000	
Sugar	5,000	12	0	60,000	
Hides	15,000	0	8	6,000	126,000
Pernambuco.					
Cotton	85,000	4	0	100,000	
Sugar	40,000	20	0	800,000	
Hides	300,000	0	8	120,000	1,000,000
Paraguay.					
Cotton	30,000	4	0	60,000	
Sugar	3,500	20	0	70,000	
Hides	30,000	0	8	19,000	169,000
Quard.					
Cotton	8,000	4	0	32,000	
Hides	40,000	0	8	18,000	
Peas	300	4	8	1,200	68,000
Moracohem.					
Cotton	40,000	4	0	160,000	
Hides	30,000	0	8	6,000	
Rice, &c.	—	—	—	40,000	208,000
Para.					
Cocoa	35,000	0	80	35,000	
India rubber	—	—	—	25,600	
Cotton, indigo, rice, drugs, &c.	220	80	0	100,000	160,000
Southern Provinces — Rio Grande do Sul.					
Hides, dry	677,000	0	10	338,000	
Ditto, mixed	299,000	0	18	274,250	
Jerked beef	2,000,000	0	0	400,000	
Tallow	300,000	0	7	70,000	
Hair, wool, horn, &c.	—	—	—	80,000	
Deduct from the above about 800,000 dry hides, and for jerked beef and tallow exported to ports of Brazil	—	—	—	1,083,750	
	—	—	—	570,000	513,750
Bahia.					
Sugar, rice, coffee, &c. to Rio, but forming exports, about	—	—	—	—	190,000
Total value of exports	—	—	—	—	7,504,014

* A great portion of sugar is shipped in barrels and bags.

BRISTOL.—DOCK RATES, &c. as fixed in 1848.

Dock Rates and other Charges on Goods entered Inwards at Bristol:—

	Dock Dues.		Wharfrage.		Town Dues.	
	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.
Apples	cut.	0 1	ton	0 6		
Blacklead	ton	2 0	ton	0 6	Free.	
Brandy	punchoon	2 6	ton	0 6	punchoon	0 10
Brimstone	ton	1 0	ton	0 6		
Cream of Tartar	cut.	0 1 1/2	ton	0 6		
Chicory	ton	1 0	ton	0 6		
Cider	ton	1 0	ton	0 6		
Cocoa	ton	2 0	ton	0 6	Free.	
Cocoa nuts	100	0 2	100	0 1		
Coffee	ton	5 0	ton	0 6		
Clove seed	cut.	0 2	ton	0 6		
Copper ore	ton	0 6	ton	0 3		
Cori.	cut.	0 1 1/2	ton	0 5		
Currants	ton	1 1/2	ton	0 1	ton	0 10
Earth, brown	ton	1 0	ton	0 1		
red	ton	1 0	ton	0 1		
yellow	ton	1 0	ton	0 1	Free.	
Elephant's tooth	cut.	1 0	ton	0 6		
Flint	ton	0 1 1/2	ton	0 6		
Flaxseed and linseed	quarter	0 1	quarter	0 6		
Figs	cut.	0 1 1/2	ton	0 6	ton	0 10
Gin	punchoon	2 6	ton	0 6	punchoon	0 9
Guinea grains	100 lbs.	0 6	ton	0 6	Free.	
Guano	cut.	0 6	ton	0 1	ton	0 1
Herap	cut.	0 1 1/2	ton	0 6		
Hides	score	1 0	ton	0 6	Free.	
Iron	ton	1 0	ton	0 1		
Isas	cut.	0 1	ton	0 6		
Lac dye	cut.	0 3	ton	0 6		

	Deck Dues.	Wharfigs.	Town Dues.
Lead	ton 1 2	—	ton 2 0
Lemons	chest 0 8	chest 0 0 0 0	chest 0 1 0
Madder	swt. ton 1 1 0	—	box 0 0 0
Marble	ton 1 0 0	—	—
Meat	100 0 0	100 0 0	Free.
Melange	ton 0 0 0	—	—
Nails	barrel 0 0 0	3 barrels 0 0 0	—
Oil, fish and blubber	ton 1 0 0	—	ton 0 0
olive	swt. ton 0 1 0	—	Free.
palm	—	—	—
salad	gallon 0 1 0	—	—
seed or nut	—	—	—
Oil cake	ton 0 0 0	—	ton 0 0
Oranges	chest 0 0 0	chest 0 0 0	chest 0 1 0
Onions	ton 0 1 0	—	ton 0 0 0
Palm-tree leaf	—	—	—
Plaster of Paris	ton 1 0 0	—	—
Pepper	100 lbs. 0 0 0	—	—
Pimento	—	—	—
Pitch	barrel 0 1 0	barrel 0 0 0	Free.
Pot and pearl ashes	swt. ton 0 0 0	—	—
Pumice stone	ton 1 0 0	—	—
Prunes	swt. ton 0 0 0	—	—
Plums	—	—	—
Raisins	box 0 0 0	—	—
Rice	barrel 0 1 0	—	Free.
Salt-petre	ton 0 0 0	—	punchoon 0 0
Sesam	—	—	—
Skinn—kid, goat, and lamb	dozen 0 0 0	—	—
seal	100 0 0	—	—
Soda	ton 0 0 0	—	Free.
Stone	—	—	—
Sturmes	swt. ton 0 0 0	—	—
Sugar	ton 0 0 0	hoghead 0 0 0	hoghead 0 0
Tallow	ton 0 0 0	ton 0 0 0	ton 0 0
Tar	barrel 0 1 0	barrel 0 0 0	Free.
Tea	100 lbs. 0 0 0	ton 0 0 0	chest 0 4
Tobacco	hoghead 0 0 0	hoghead 0 0 0	do. 0 0
Tour	ton 1 0 0	ton 0 0 0	do. 0 1
Valonia	swt. ton 0 1 0	—	—
Vancho	quarter 0 0 0	quarter 0 0 0	ton 1 0
Wine	pipe or butt 0 0 0	—	pipe 1 0
Wood—Brazil	ton 0 0 0	—	—
Brazillette	—	—	—
oak	—	—	—
cedar	—	—	—
cherry	—	—	—
fuels	—	—	—
lignum vitae	—	—	—
log-saw	—	—	—
mahogany	—	—	Free.
Nicaragua	—	—	—
red or bar	—	—	—
rosewood	—	—	—
sapan	—	—	—
sanders	—	—	—
hatters	100 0 0	—	—
deals and deck plank	—	100 0 0	—
from 16 feet upwards	—	—	—
deal ends 6 feet	—	100 0 0	100 1 0
handspikes	—	—	— 0 0
lath-wood	—	—	— 0 0
masts 6 to 8 inches diameter	fathom 0 0 0	fathom 0 1 1	—
6 to 12 inches diameter	each 0 0 0	each 0 1 1	—
above 12 inches	—	—	—
oars and oar rafters	100 0 0	—	—
plating boards	—	—	—
pine plank and boards	—	—	—
spars 12 feet long	—	—	—
under 12 feet	—	—	—
staves, Danzic pipe	—	1000 0 0	Free.
hoghead and barrel	—	—	—
Quebec, exceeding 50 inches	—	—	—
hoghead and barrel not exceeding 50 inches	—	—	—
Wood, —staves, Quebec, exceeding 50 in. under 1 1/2 in. thick	—	—	—
hoghead and barrel, not exceeding 50 in. under 1 1/2 in. thick	—	—	—
American pipe, exceeding 50 in.	—	—	—
hoghead and barrel, under 50 in.	—	—	—
Timber,—fir, birch, and beech	load 0 0 0	load 0 0 0	see below.
oak	—	—	—
walnut logs	—	—	—
14 feet long	—	—	—
7 ditto	—	—	—
boards	100 feet 0 0 0	100 feet 0 0 0	Free.
Zinc	ton 1 0 0	ton 0 0 0	100 bushels 0 0
Corn (oats)	—	Free.	— 1 0 0
(wheat and other grain)	—	—	— 0 0 0
Flour (wheat)	—	barrel 0 0 0	— 0 0 0
(oats of other grains)	—	—	— 0 1 0
Rice	—	ton 0 0 0	— 0 1 0
spirit, excepting brandy	—	—	punchoon 0 0 0
Timber	(see above.)	load 0 0 0	load 0 0 0
All other articles not herein enumerated	Free.	[maximum is 6d. some few articles may be less.]	Nominal, viz. per 100 tons 0 1

Freemen of Bristol are exempt from Town Dues.

BUENOS AYRES—PORT CHARGES.—The Argentine government has notified, that—

1. From the 1st of January 1947 national vessels sailing for ports beyond sea shall pay 3 dollars per ton.

2. Foreign vessels shall pay 4 dollars per ton, except those which, in virtue of existing treaties, are assimilated to national vessels.
3. Foreign vessels shall pay, for the visit of the health officer, 25 dollars, and the same amount for the bill of health.
4. Foreign vessels belonging to nations having no consul, and whose roll is made out by the captain of the port, shall pay 40 dollars for it.
5. The duties fixed by the preceding articles shall be paid one-half on the entrance of the vessel, and the other half on her departure.
6. National and foreign vessels, which do not leave nor receive cargoes, shall pay one-half of the duties here established.
7. Let this decree be communicated and published in the official register.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Produce exported from the Port of Buenos Ayres during the year ended the 30th of June 1849.

Beef, jerked	quintals	457,689	skins, deer	dozens	32
preserved	kins	1,990	goat	dozens	4
Bones	tons	3,125,500	sheep	dozens	96
goats		583	stags	dozens	160
horses		49	bunches	dozens	54
Feathers		49	bales	dozens	15
parrots		3,101	bales	dozens	2,059
Hair		957	bales	dozens	144
of goats		18	bales	dozens	417
of sheep		4,583	bales	dozens	192
Hide cuttings		864,536	bales	dozens	34,949
Hides, ox and cow, salted		2,098,997	Tallow		35,816
dry		37,675			5,506
horns, dry		105,236	Wool		99,998
salted		1,968,791			2,419
Horns, ox and cow		685			150
of sheep		1,430			

CALCUTTA.

Abstract Statement of the external Commerce of Bengal (Calcutta) in 1847-48 and 1848-49, exhibiting the Values of the Imports from and of the Exports to each country.

From and to what Countries or States.	Imports.					
	1847-48.			1848-49.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
From	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.
Great Britain	5,40,53,423	19,05,297	5,59,58,720	5,07,16,392	3,99,369	5,11,08,051
France	7,50,981	30,299	7,81,280	8,11,072	-	8,11,072
North America	6,45,491	4,00,001	10,45,492	12,30,094	1,81,843	14,11,938
Madras Coast	15,60,760	3,56,500	19,17,260	15,35,472	2,79,598	18,14,970
Ceylon	89,497	500	90,000	1,50,391	16,181	1,66,572
Maldives and Laccadives	2,03,732	-	2,03,732	1,81,776	5,000	1,86,776
Malabar Coast	20,40,297	10,375	20,50,672	20,53,033	-	20,53,033
Arabian and Persian Gulfs	8,49,368	16,148	8,65,516	6,29,359	43,500	6,72,859
Singapore	5,59,690	24,16,093	29,75,783	18,10,843	89,381	18,99,924
Penang and Malacca	7,57,304	59,990	8,17,294	7,37,841	79,810	8,17,651
China	15,43,473	51,14,203	66,57,676	10,96,993	88,05,707	1,04,00,000
New Holland	84,483	-	84,483	81,869	-	81,869
Java and Sumatra	30,892	-	30,892	79,467	19,000	98,467
Togo	4,80,013	3,37,750	8,17,763	6,66,417	4,36,016	11,02,433
Mauritius	38,238	3,64,489	4,02,727	59,661	6,72,410	7,32,071
Norbon	31,394	2,52,975	2,84,369	99,112	5,01,989	6,01,101
Cape and St. Helena	39,474	-	39,474	38,166	-	38,166
Hamburg	1,08,874	-	1,08,874	1,53,623	-	1,53,623
Lisbon	19,580	-	19,580	-	-	-
Genoa	51,045	-	51,045	55,958	-	55,958
Calcutta	47,196	-	47,196	28,646	-	28,646
Manilla	-	-	-	15,915	-	15,915
Norway	-	-	-	13,400	-	13,400
South America	-	-	-	8,79,679	-	8,79,679
Total Company's Rupees	4,47,01,060	92,80,607	5,39,81,667	4,97,50,181	1,43,09,586	5,70,59,767

From and to what Countries or States.	Exports.					
	1847-48.			1848-49.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
To	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.	Co.'s Rep.
Great Britain	4,04,29,535	1,05,248	4,25,54,783	4,75,10,319	31,121,730	5,06,22,049
France	23,80,180	-	23,80,180	29,04,353	-	29,04,353
North America	41,58,072	-	41,58,072	56,31,549	-	56,31,549
Madras Coast	11,56,914	49,438	12,06,352	10,23,406	-	10,23,406
Ceylon	5,61,074	4,60,000	10,21,074	1,59,196	1,63,371	3,22,567
Maldives and Laccadives	144,085	-	144,085	88,437	-	88,437
Malabar Coast	23,56,573	-	23,56,573	27,04,339	-	27,04,339
Arabian and Persian Gulfs	14,51,440	30,000	14,81,440	18,09,735	-	18,09,735
Singapore	42,00,297	-	42,00,297	36,61,647	-	36,61,647
Penang and Malacca	4,96,150	12,500	5,08,650	4,13,381	-	4,13,381
China	2,14,82,209	20,000	2,16,82,209	2,51,86,259	-	2,51,86,259
New Holland	84,181	-	84,181	86,967	3,000	90,967
Java and Sumatra	1,16,178	-	1,16,178	1,13,688	-	1,13,688
Togo	17,28,448	1,85,670	19,14,118	16,71,773	1,33,395	18,05,168
Mauritius	17,45,216	11,82,793	29,28,009	16,15,981	9,83,173	26,00,154
Norbon	6,11,660	40,000	6,51,660	8,71,150	-	8,71,150
Cape and St. Helena	1,18,800	-	1,18,800	1,67,703	-	1,67,703
Hamburg	171	-	171	15,039	-	15,039
Lisbon	1,88,807	-	1,88,807	1,69,411	-	1,69,411
Genoa	-	-	-	50,680	-	50,680
Antwerp	-	-	-	71,383	-	71,383
Gibraltar	-	-	-	3,247	-	3,247
Total Company's Rupees	8,33,22,053	30,53,860	8,63,75,913	9,41,96,591	45,46,908	9,87,43,499

Merchandise.	1847-48.		1848-49.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Sugars - - - - - Ind. mds.	-	-	-	-
Tallow - - - - -	3,593	27,493	6,068	68,654
Teel seed - - - - -	2,591½	10,781	5,108	60,880
Teel seed oil - - - - -	40	890	-	6,416
Tobacco leaf - - - - -	4,166	18,898	11,927	56,638
Turmeric - - - - -	5,612	15,944	6,962	18,678
All other exports - - - - -	-	-	-	469,906
Total exports Company's rupees	-	80,284,878	-	90,801,199
Goods re-exported - - - - -	-	3,097,355	-	3,397,359
Treasure exported - - - - -	-	85,055,860	-	94,346,506
		86,375,893		98,545,097
	1847-48.	1848-49.		
* In addition	Specie exported by the Hon. Company - 6,940,255 Co.'s rupees.	3,330,186 Co.'s rupees.		

CANTON.—We subjoin some details, supplementary to those in the Dictionary, respecting the trade of this great emporium, and that of China generally, in 1848, &c.

A Return of the Number and Tonnage of Merchant Vessels which arrived at and departed from the Port of Cantou during the Year ending the 31st December, 1848, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged.

Arrived.			Departed.		
Under what Colours.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.	Under what Colours.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.
British - - - - -	171	78,545	British - - - - -	176	75,975
American - - - - -	67	50,943	American - - - - -	60	47,847
French - - - - -	1	837	French - - - - -	1	837
Spanish - - - - -	1	550	Spanish - - - - -	1	550
Portuguese - - - - -	3	337	Portuguese - - - - -	3	337
Dutch - - - - -	5	1,683	Dutch - - - - -	7	2,493
Hamburgh - - - - -	7	1,598	Hamburgh - - - - -	4	833
Bojian - - - - -	1	375	Bojian - - - - -	1	375
Miscellaneous - - - - -	5	8,390	Miscellaneous - - - - -	6	1,335
Total - - - - -	361	110,848	Total - - - - -	457	108,401

RAMANCA.—This and the following returns have been compiled from the entries in the books kept at this consulate, and the quantities specified are those that have paid duty. The weights and measures stated are those in use at Canton. 1 catty is equal to 1½ lb. avoirdupois and 100 catties corre-

spond with 133½ lb. in England. 1 cheng is 4 English yards nearly. The value given has been computed upon the average prices of the year in the Canton market. The Spanish dollars have been reduced to sterling at 46.10, the average exchange of the year.

But, in addition to the trade with Canton, we carry on a considerable trade with the ports of Shanghai, Amoy, and Ningpo, especially the first, which is becoming an important emporium, and is, in various respects, better situated for trade than Canton. We subjoin an abstract of the total British trade with China, exclusive of opium, in 1847 and 1848.

Statement of the British Import Trade into China during the years 1847 and 1848.

Port of Trade.	1847.			1848.			Increase in 1848.			Decrease in 1848.		
	% of Total	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Total	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.
Canton - - - - -	221	88,876	9,645,760	171	78,545	8,354,597	-	-	-	50	16,331	3,091,163
Shanghai - - - - -	76	19,361	4,311,494	75	23,966	4,239,968	-	3,605	-	1	-	1,778,238
Amoy - - - - -	39	7,619	849,658	84	6,399	381,949	-	-	-	15	1,020	447,703
Ningpo - - - - -	6	1,093	84,396	-	-	Not given	-	-	-	6	1,093	84,396
Total - - - - -	342	116,949	14,821,302	270	101,910	9,449,514	-	3,605	-	72	18,444	5,371,785

Statement of the British Export Trade from China during the years 1847 and 1848.

Port of Trade.	1847.			1848.			Increase in 1848.			Decrease in 1848.		
	% of Total	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Total	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.	% of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value in Dollars.
Canton - - - - -	91.5	84,757	15,791,940	176	75,975	8,435,033	-	-	-	87	10,788	7,068,907
Shanghai - - - - -	7.5	18,818	6,745,731	66	18,318	5,079,942	-	-	-	9	-	1,643,749
Amoy - - - - -	9	8,444	38,048	80	4,738	67,467	-	8,480	-	5	-	-
Ningpo - - - - -	6	1,093	8,875	-	-	Not given	-	-	-	6	1,093	8,875
Total - - - - -	303	107,008	22,483,694	262	97,615	13,900,442	11	8,482	-	58	11,873	8,717,511

Remarks on Trade with China.—It is obvious, however, that these returns are most defective, from their omitting all reference to opium. Though not recognised by the Chinese laws, everybody knows that opium is by far the most important and valuable of all the foreign articles brought into the empire. In 1847, the imports of this drug

At present, it would seem that the greatest portion of the exportable produce of China is applied to the purchase of opium. And as the taste for, and the consumption of, the drug appear to be rapidly extending, it is probable, that any addition to the exports from China would rather be expended upon additional supplies of opium, than upon additional supplies of cottons, woollens, hardware, or other British produce. The extraordinary demand for opium in China, is, in fact, the greatest drawback upon the trade with this country. It absorbs all the means at the disposal of the people, and makes them comparatively careless about other things.

A more intimate acquaintance with the tastes and habits of the Chinese, and greater facilities for the introduction of British goods into the interior of the empire, may probably lead, in the end, to an increased demand for them. But, at present, there does not seem to be much prospect of the outlet for them in China being materially increased. Their importation, in 1846, was completely overdone; and the markets have not yet recovered from the glut that was thereby occasioned.

The reader will find some valuable information in regard to the trade with China, in the elaborate Reports of Mr. Alcock, consul at Shanghai, in the papers on the Chinese trade laid before parliament in 1849.

Account of Teas exported from China for the United Kingdom during each of the 4 years ended 30th June, 1849, specifying the different Varieties of Tea, and the Quantities of each.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Teas, Black.	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>lbs.</i>	<i>lbs.</i>
Congoo - - -	37,173,541	40,175,000	56,603,900	35,677,000
Souchong - - -	1,266,190	1,045,000	767,600	1,049,700
Caper - - -	1,637,424	665,000	1,027,900	1,571,600
Big Leaf and Flow. Pekoe - -	961,011	715,000	166,600	419,600
Orange Pekoe - - -	2,594,701	1,558,000	1,498,500	1,687,300
Sots and H. Muey - - -	924,360	941,000	757,100	854,500
Total Black	44,975,557	45,501,000	60,730,500	56,765,500
Teas, Green.				
Hyson Skin - - -	206,978	48,000	3,100	49,880
Young Hyson - - -	2,323,841	2,225,000	2,164,300	2,077,800
T'wankey - - -	2,280,250	1,510,000	815,300	118,100
Hyson - - -	1,683,051	1,495,000	1,068,300	967,500
Imperial - - -	1,104,083	870,000	254,500	618,500
Gunpowder - - -	2,537,051	2,051,000	2,338,500	3,647,000
Total Green	13,609,004	7,864,000	6,968,700	8,479,800
Total Black and Green	57,584,561	53,365,000	67,699,200	65,245,300

CATTLE.—The duties imposed in 1849 on cattle, sheep, and hogs when imported, having been repealed in 1846, the quantities brought to this country have been, in consequence, materially increased. They have, however, decreased since 1847, and are too limited to have any material influence over prices. We subjoin

An Account of the Importation of Cattle, Sheep, and Hogs, during 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Oxen and bulls - - - No.	17,191	27,811	24,590	21,751
Cows - - -	25,949	25,135	23,508	17,991
Calves - - -	4,508	12,309	15,648	18,645
Sheep - - -	91,739	136,997	128,406	136,347
Lambs - - -	3,892	5,349	4,177	5,018
Pigs and Hogs - - -	2,856	1,244	2,119	2,635

CHAMPAGNE.—An official report, made by the directors of the indirect taxes for the department of Marne, furnishes the following information as to the trade in champagne between the 1st of April, 1846, and the 1st of April, 1847. The produce is distributed among the arrondissements of Chalons, Epernay, and Rheims. On the 1st of April last there were, in the cellars of the wholesale dealers, 18,815,367 bottles of this wine, viz.: Chalons, 4,604,237 bottles; at Epernay, 5,710,753; and at Rheims, 8,500,377. The number of bottles sold and delivered between the 1st of April, 1846, and the 1st of April, 1847, were, at Chalons, 2,497,355; at Epernay, 2,187,553; at Rheims, 4,090,577; making a total of 8,775,485 bottles. These quantities were thus distributed:—

From Chalons	" Epernay	" Rheims	Total	To go Abroad.	To other Depts.	Within the Dept.
				Bottles.	Bottles.	Bottles.
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	1,074,214	753,115	609,066
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	300,063	306,425	994,465
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	2,831,038	1,215,766	457,712
- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	4,711,915	2,555,266	1,707,304

CINNAMON.—The duty on this spice when exported from Ceylon was reduced in 1848 from 1s. to 4d. per lib.

COFFEE. —

Account of the Imports of Coffee into the U. Kingdom in each of the 5 years ending with 1849, distinguishing between British Colonial and Foreign Coffee, of the Quantities entered for Consumption in each of the above-mentioned years and of the Revenue accruing thereon.

	Imports.				
	W. Indies.	Ceylon.	India and Mauritius.	Foreign Countries.	Total.
1845	5,335,970	15,637,464	5,723,371	91,609,107	50,577,915
1846	5,437,784	17,735,406	5,337,083	21,425,886	51,113,659
1847	5,770,793	17,190,034	2,532,740	15,850,458	51,353,024
1848	-	-	-	21,082,943	57,033,450
1849	-	-	-	22,943,376	63,380,504

	Entered for Consumption.			
	B. Possessions.	Foreign.	Total.	Revenue.
1845	20,798,439	15,525,256	34,318,095	717,871
1846	23,781,190	13,031,871	36,793,061	756,338
1847	27,007,449	10,435,304	37,441,373	746,438
1848	26,147,771	5,859,508	32,107,279	710,892
1849	29,769,750	4,661,344	31,431,074	643,210

It will be seen from the above table that the consumption of coffee was nearly stationary during the three years ending with 1848, but that it has declined considerably during last year (1849). This decline may, in part at least, be ascribed to the great rise that has taken place in the price of coffee, Ceylon having advanced from 30s. a cwt. in January, 1849, to 65s. in January, 1850. This rise of price has not, however, been the only cause of the decline of the consumption; for, in 1848, when prices were at the lowest, the quantities taken for home use were less than in 1847.

It is easy, however, to see that the substitution of chicory for coffee is the great cause of the declining or stationary state of the latter. Since the article on chicory in the Dictionary was written, it has been subjected, when imported, to a duty of 6d. per lib., plus 5 per cent., being the same that is laid on foreign coffee. But chicory raised at home continues to be exempted from all duty; and as it is grown here with quite as much facility as in any other country, the duty on imported chicory operates merely as a bounty on the production of British chicory, and subjects the coffee-grower to an unfair competition with an article exempted from duty.

Chicory may be sold, roasted and ground, for 2d. or 3d. per lib.; but as the cheapest species of coffee cannot be sold roasted for less than 1s. 1d., or 1s. 2d. per lib., the temptation to adulterate is obviously very great. And we are assured by those who have carefully inquired into the subject that the consumption of chicory is at present (1850) little, if at all, short of 12,500 tons a year; of which, probably, not more than 1,000 tons is sold as chicory, the rest being substituted for, or employed to mix with, or adulterate, coffee. Supposing we are nearly right in these statements, it will follow that were the 12,500 tons of chicory subjected to the same duty that is laid on British plantation coffee, that is, to 4d. per lib. plus 5 per cent., it would produce about 500,000*l.* a year, which may, consequently, be looked upon as the bonus paid to encourage the growth of chicory, and the practice of adulteration.

A state of things so fraught with injustice should not be tolerated: and to put all parties on the same equal footing one or other of the following plans should be adopted, viz. 1st, the chicory culture should be proscribed; or, 2d, its produce should be charged with a duty of 4d. per lib., plus 5 per cent.; or, 3d, British plantation coffee should be admitted duty free. In dealing with the subject we may adopt whichever of these plans may be thought preferable; but till one or other of them be adopted and carried into effect, our colonists are entitled to complain not merely of harsh, but of unfair and unjust treatment.

Chicory, however, though it be the most extensively employed, is not the only or the worst article used to adulterate coffee. Roasted rye, roasted carrots and parsnips, burnt treacle and such like articles are largely substituted for coffee in the inferior quarters of the metropolis, and still more in the mining and manufacturing districts. It is difficult to guard against frauds of this sort unless it be by buying coffee in the bean, or by dealing only with shops of the first character.

Various estimates have lately been put forth, some of them in the shape of advertisements, of the supply and consumption of coffee, making it appear that the last greatly exceeds the former. But the greater number of these estimates deserve very little attention. The statements in them regarding the consumption in most countries are at best little better than rough guesses; and though, owing to the deficient crop in Brazil, the supply from it in the present season will be reduced, there will probably be a considerable increase in the supplies from other quarters. But, independently of these considerations, it is quite obvious that the late rise of prices will effectually check the con-

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sumption of coffee, and hinder any material discrepancy from taking place between the supply and the demand.

COLLISION (*Fr. Abordage*), in a general sense, is the act of any two or more bodies coming forcibly together; but in commercial navigation it means the shock of two ships coming into sudden and violent contact at sea, by which one or both may be more or less injured.

From the great increase of navigation, the risk of accidents by collision at sea has been proportionally augmented; and it is, therefore, of importance to be able satisfactorily to determine by whom the loss should, in such cases, be borne. This, however, is by no means an easy matter; and the laws of different countries, and the opinions of the ablest jurists, have differed widely with respect to it.

Every master of a ship is bound, as well by the duty he owes to his employers and to those on board his ship, as by positive rule, to keep a proper watch at sea, especially in channels much frequented by shipping, and to use every precaution to avoid coming into contact with other vessels. In order still better to provide against danger, and to obviate disputes, the Trinity House promulgated, on the 30th of October, 1840, the Rule of Navigation given below. And though not in itself a law, all masters not complying with this rule will, in ordinary cases, be held to be guilty of unseamanlike conduct, and their owners or themselves will be responsible for the consequences. But it is, at the same time, to be borne in mind, that no rule of this sort is to be regarded as inflexible; and that no master will be warranted in abiding by it when by doing so he must plainly incur danger. A. may be in his proper course; but if by pursuing it he will run a great risk of coming into collision with B., who is upon a wrong course, he is bound to alter his course so as to avoid the collision. The fact of one master being ignorant, careless, or in fault, is no reason why another should not use every means in his power to provide for the safety of his ship, and consequently of the lives and property entrusted to his care.

The conditions under which cases of collision take place may differ extremely. Thus, 1st, it may be occasioned by circumstances beyond the power of control, as by the violence of the wind or waves dashing or impelling the ships together; or, 2d, it may be merely accidental, as in a fog at sea or otherwise, without blame being imputable to either party; or 3d, it may be owing to the culpable negligence or misconduct of one party, or both. In adjudicating upon losses growing out of collisions that have taken place under such different circumstances, the conclusions must also be very different.

With respect to the first class of cases there is little difficulty; and all authorities agree that the loss should be borne by the party on whom it falls. In the second case the rule to be followed is not quite so obvious; according to the Roman law, the loss arising from all collisions where blame could not be imputed to either party was borne by the sufferer; and this principle has been ingrafted into the law of England. (*Marshall on Insurance*, c. 12. s. 2.) The law of Rome has not, however, been in this respect followed by most maritime states, the usual practice in them being, in cases of accidental collision without blame, to divide the damage equally between both parties. (*Ordonnance* of 1681, lib. iii. tit. xii. art. 10., with the Observations of Valin.) This, also, is the rule sanctioned by the law of England in cases where both parties are to blame, but where the blame cannot be discriminated. Those cases in which the blame is clearly ascribable to either party present no difficulty.

The leading doctrines of the law of England with regard to collisions have been clearly and succinctly stated by Lord Stowell. "In the first place," says his lordship, "a collision may happen without blame being imputable to either party, as when the loss is occasioned by a storm or any other *ris major*. In that case the misfortune must be borne by the party on whom it happens to light; the other not being responsible to him in any degree. Secondly, a misfortune of this kind may arise where both parties are to blame, where there has been a want of due diligence or of skill on both sides; in such a case the rule of law is that the loss must be apportioned between them, as having been occasioned by the fault of both of them. Thirdly, it may happen by the misconduct of the suffering party only; and then the rule is, that the sufferer must bear his own burden. Lastly, it may have been the fault of the ship which ran the other down, and in this case the innocent party would be entitled to an entire compensation from the other." (*2 Dodson's Admiralty Reports*, 83.)

We may add, that the rule of the equal division of the damage where both vessels are to blame has been, since Lord Stowell's time, fully recognised and finally established by a decision of the House of Lords, on an appeal from Scotland.

Various authorities have spoken disparagingly of the rule now referred to, and have called it a *judicium rusticorum*. But its policy has been successfully vindicated by Valin. "C'étoit," says he, "le moyen le plus propre à rendre les capitaines ou maîtres des navires extrêmement attentifs à éviter tout abordage, surtout ceux des bâtimens

faibles et plus susceptibles d'être incommodés par le moindre choc, en leur rendant toujours présent la crainte de supporter la moitié du dommage qu'ils en pourroient recevoir. Et si l'on dit qu'il auroit été plus simple et plus court de laisser pour le compte particulier d'un chacun le dommage qu'il auroit reçu, comme provenant d'un cas fortuit; la réponse est qu'alors les capitaines de gros navires n'auroient plus craint de heurter les bâtimens d'une beaucoup moindre force que le leurs; rien donc de plus juste que la contribution par moitié." — (*Commentaire sur Ordonnance de 1681, ii. 179. ed. 1776.*)

In apportioning the damage in cases where both parties have been in fault, the question occurs, whether the damage done to the cargo shall be taken into account or left out in the estimate on which the apportionment is to be made. This knotty point has been differently decided in different countries; but, according to the existing law of England, it would be included in the estimate. It is, however, to be observed, that the statutes by which the liability of owners is limited to the value of the ship and freight apply to cases of damage by collision. (For further observations on this curious and important subject, in addition to Valin and the other authorities already referred to, the reader may consult the valuable chapter on collision added by Mr. Serjeant Shee to his edition of Lord Tenterden's work on the Law of Shipping.) We subjoin the

RULE OF NAVIGATION ISSUED BY THE TRINITY HOUSE.

The attention of this Corporation having been directed to the numerous severe, and in some instances fatal, accidents which have resulted from the collision of vessels navigated by steam, and it appearing to be indispensably necessary, in order to guard against the recurrence of similar calamities, that a regulation should be established for the guidance and government of persons entrusted with the charge of such vessels; and whereas,

1. "The recognised Rule for Sailing Vessels is, that those having the wind fair shall give way to those on a wind;

"That when both are going by the wind, the vessel on the starboard tack shall keep her wind, and the one on the larboard tack bear up strongly, passing each other on the larboard hand;

"That when both vessels have the wind large or a-beam, and meet, they shall pass each other in the same way on the larboard hand, to effect which two last-mentioned objects the helm must be put to port;

And as steam-vessels may be considered in the light of vessels navigating with a fair wind, and should give way to sailing vessels on a wind of either tack, it becomes only necessary to provide a rule for their observance when meeting other steamers, or sailing vessels going large.

Under these considerations, and with the object before stated, this Board has deemed it right to frame and promulgate the following rule, which, on communication with the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, the Elder Brethren find has been already adopted in respect of steam-vessels in her Majesty's service; and they desire earnestly to press upon the minds of all persons having charge of steam vessels the propriety and urgent necessity of a strict adherence thereto: viz.

11. "Rule for Steam Vessels on different Courses. When such vessels meet inevitably or necessarily cross so near that, by continuing their respective courses, there would be a risk of their coming in collision, each vessel shall put her helm to port, so as always to pass on the larboard side of each other.

"A steam-vessel passing another in a narrow channel must always leave the vessel she is passing on the larboard hand." By order.

Trinity House, London,
30th October, 1840.

J. HERBERT, Secretary.

CORN LAWS.—*Remarks on the Abolition of the Corn Laws.*—The time that has elapsed since the introduction of the new system is much too short to admit of any accurate estimate being formed of its practical working. The imports during the past year (1849) have been much larger than was anticipated. But this seems to have been principally a consequence of our high prices during the two preceding years, and of the unusually productive harvest of 1848, on the Continent, and in the U. States; and it is besides certain that a considerable portion of the imports of last year have entailed a loss on the importers. On the whole, we are not inclined, from any thing that has since occurred, materially to modify the estimate given in the Dictionary, of the future price of corn. We supposed, that under the new system, it would probably average, during the next few years, from 45s. to 48s. a quarter. And the additional information since obtained from the principal corn exporting countries, appears to warrant the conclusion that, speaking generally, corn cannot be bought from them and sold here, with a reasonable profit, at less than the above rates. That in an unusually productive year here and on the Continent, prices may fall considerably under this level, to 35s. a quarter, or lower, is not improbable. On the other hand, however, their rise would be equally great under the opposite circumstances, or in years like 1846-47, when there is a bad harvest here and in Europe generally. But if we refer to average prices, that is, to the prices for some continuous ten or twelve years, the oscillations on the one side are compensated by those on the other; and we apprehend, that the medium will not be very different from 45s. or 48s. a quarter. And, supposing that it does not exceed the least of these sums, or 45s., it follows, seeing that the average prices during the ten years ending with 1845, were 57s. 11d. a quarter, that the abolition of the corn laws will have occasioned a fall of 10s. or 15s. a quarter in the price of corn.

Now, it is of importance to bear in mind that the average price of corn fell, in the interval between 1814 and 1846, above 30s. a quarter; and yet, despite this enormous

fall, and contemporaneously with it, there was an extraordinary improvement of agriculture, and a great rise of rent. And when such has been the case, it appears visionary to suppose that agriculture should be seriously injured by a fall of 10s. or 12s. a quarter below the average prices that ruled previously to 1846.

At the same time, it were idle to deny that there must necessarily be a great deal of conjecture in all speculations in regard to the future price of grain. At present there are many indications of a gradual rise of prices, depending partly on the rapid increase of population in Europe and the New World, and partly on the fall in the value of the precious metals, that may be expected from the vast increase of their supplies from Russia and America; but it is possible that these causes of high price may be overcome by others of a contrary tendency, by improvements in the practice of agriculture here and in other countries, the use of more efficient manures, and an endless variety of other circumstances. Hence it will by no means follow, should the ordinary price of corn a few years hence be lower than was anticipated in 1846, that such decline is either to be wholly or principally ascribed to the repeal of the corn laws. It may have originated in wholly different circumstances,—in changes that could neither be foreseen nor provided against. But though a return to any thing like the old system of protection be alike undesirable and impossible, still, should there be at any time so very abundant a season in this country and in the north of Europe, as to threaten such a fall of prices as might give a serious shock to the industry of the husbandman, the crisis may be averted or mitigated by some temporary expedient. It is not, however, very probable that it will be necessary to interpose in the way now alluded to. Instead of being unfavourable to the agriculturists, the chances are that they will gain by the late change. They have greater capital, skill, and industry, and richer customers than those of any other country; and being aware that they must, in time to come, rely wholly on these to preserve their place in society, and not on the miserable resource of custom-house regulations and parliamentary majorities, the rapid improvement of agriculture may be confidently expected. And, apart from this powerful stimulus, the new measure gives the agriculturists increased security, and identifies their interests in opinion, as well as in fact, with those of the public.

At the same time, we are ready to admit that, had it been practicable, we should have much preferred seeing this great question settled by the adoption of a measure for opening the ports, under a fixed duty of 5s., 6s., or 7s. a quarter on wheat, and proportionally on other grain, accompanied with a corresponding drawback. We make this statement on general grounds, and without any reference to the peculiar burdens that affect the agriculturists, though these should neither be forgotten nor overlooked. The question is, may not those oscillations of high and low prices that are so injurious, the former to the consumers, and the latter to the growers, be mitigated by the interference of the legislature? In our view of the matter, this important question must be answered in the affirmative. In scarce years a reasonable duty on imports would have no influence over prices, but would fall wholly on the foreigner, and be deducted from the large extra profit he is then sure to make. On the other hand, when the home crops are unusually abundant, the duty would help to prevent the markets from being overloaded, and prices from being reduced so low as to be injurious to agriculture; while, if such a contingency should notwithstanding take place, the drawback would come into operation, and assist in relieving them of the surplus. We have seen nothing in the shape of argument to satisfy us that the arrangement now suggested, would not have the anticipated effect, that is, that it would not give greater steadiness to prices, and therefore be for the advantage of all classes. We say of all classes; for either unusually high or unusually low prices are disadvantageous to the public. Our present system protects us in as far as possible against the former, but it does not protect us against the latter; and is, consequently, less advantageous than the system we have ventured to recommend, which would secure both objects.

It may be said, perhaps, that a fall of price is always advantageous, and that they cannot in fact be too low; and such is unquestionably the case when the fall is occasioned by an increased facility of production, or by a permanent reduction in the cost of the supplies. But the low price that we have referred to, and have exclusively had in view in these statements, is of a different description. It originates in the accidental occurrence of a peculiarly luxuriant harvest; and, whilst it entails a serious loss on the growers, it cannot be permanent. It is a mistake to suppose that a temporarily low price of this sort can be really advantageous to any class of the community. To whatever extent the manufacturers may profit by it in the reduced price of their food, they will, most likely, lose proportionally through the reduced demand of the agriculturists for their peculiar products. All the leading interests of a great country like this are intimately connected; and it is contradictory to suppose that one or two can permanently flourish at the cost of the others. The hardship that high prices of corn entail on the manufacturing and commercial classes is not compensated by their advantage

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to the agriculturists; nor is the injury which low prices entail on the latter, balanced by the benefits they confer on the former. Steadiness of price, whether the average rate be low or high, is most conducive to the interests of all classes; and we think it sufficiently plain that it would be more likely to be realised by imposing a reasonable duty on corn when imported, accompanied with a corresponding drawback, than by any other means.

Considerations such as those now stated, were totally lost sight of when the question of the corn laws came to be discussed in 1846. The pertinacity with which the agriculturists opposed every approach to a more liberal system, roused a spirit which would not be satisfied with any thing short of a complete abandonment of restrictions. The time for compromise and arrangement was, unhappily, allowed to go by, and government had to deal with an unreasoning necessity: *Cum ventis humano tibi negotium est, nec rationem patitur, nec equitate mitigatur, nec ulla prece flectitur populus.* — (Seneca, de Brev. Vitæ, c. 18.) What was practicable became of more consequence than what was either just or proper. And even had it been possible to effect an arrangement of the question in the way now stated, the pernicious trade of agitation would most likely have continued to flourish; the object and influence of the duty would have been misrepresented; and neither landlords nor farmers would have felt any confidence in the permanence of the new arrangements. Under these circumstances, their unconditional repeal was, if not really, at all events practically, the best, or rather the only safe, course that could be adopted in dealing with the corn laws.

It would be singular, however, if in a measure so carried, there should be no defects. But neither these nor its peculiar advantages can as yet be fairly appreciated. They will, however, be gradually disclosed; and it will be the business of the legislature to obviate the former and to secure the latter. It is not a little remarkable that the immense entries of last year, amounting, including flour and meal, to nearly 12,000,000 quarters, should not have reduced prices far more than they actually have done. Their modified influence in this respect has been owing to a variety of causes, but principally, perhaps, to the greatly increased consumption of corn by the manufacturing and commercial classes, occasioned partly by their comparatively prosperous condition, partly by the reduced supply of potatoes, and partly, also, we believe, by our last harvest being less productive than was supposed. But it is not very likely that the importations of last year will often be equalled, much less exceeded. Their limited effect in reducing prices ought, consequently, to give confidence to the agriculturists. Indeed, the average price of wheat last year (1849) amounted, despite the vast importations, to 4s. 3d. a quarter, being 1s. 6d. above the average price of 1834 and 1835, when the protective system was in its greatest vigour!

Account of the Quantities of Corn, Meal, and Flour imported in 1848 and 1849, with the Quantities entered for Consumption, and the Duties in these Years.

Corn and Meal.	Imports in 1848.	Imports in 1849.	Entered for Consumption in 1848.	Entered for Consumption in 1849.	Duty paid in 1848.	Duty paid in 1849.
Wheat - - - qrs.	3,580,359	3,272,124	1,865,236 *	4,509,698	418,780	226,783
Barley - - - "	1,034,274	1,529,793	499,960	1,554,960	94,834	78,998
Oats - - - "	967,056	1,289,419	699,659	1,569,873	55,616	69,163
Rye - - - "	69,635	341,470	48,731	356,308	4,091	13,083
Peas - - - "	316,014	356,438	167,983	385,487	15,905	14,540
Beans - - - "	87,939	439,650	434,469	445,450	39,905	84,678
Indian corn, w. maize - - "	1,075,021	2,947,434	1,086,755	2,949,571	66,578	118,402
Buckwheat - - - "	197	208	203	308	11	15
Beer or bigg - - - "	906	643	-	1,749	-	57
Total - - - qrs.	6,945,491	9,749,679	3,899,037	10,710,018	737,580	640,691
Wheatmeal or flour - - - cwts.	1,754,449	2,371,301	1,227,754	9,937,819	48,811	73,968
Barley meal - - - "	65	594	66	224	3	4
Oatmeal - - - "	6,595	40,416	6,165	40,654	145	758
Rye meal - - - "	35,984	15,596	30,354	34,031	1,018	465
Pea meal - - - "	104	300	104	300	3	6
Beans meal - - - "	28	26	26	2	1	1
Indian corn meal - - - "	233,819	102,173	233,880	109,161	2,889	1,916
Buckwheat meal - - - "	193	1,095	194	1,095	3	22
Total - - - cwts.	9,030,237	9,334,437	1,496,733	4,105,107	62,565	77,193

* The consumption of the several species of Corn, exhibited above, for the year 1848, includes not only the "Quantities charged with Duty," but also those quantities entered previously to the 1st March, 1848, which were exempted from duty under the temporary Act 11 Vict. c. 64.

COTTON MANUFACTURE. The subjoined table, taken from the carefully compiled and comprehensive annual statement of Messrs. George Holt & Co., eminent cotton brokers of Liverpool, dated 31st of December, 1849, shows, in a very striking manner, the progress of the manufacture in this country, and the fall in the price of cotton wool.

It is seen from the subjoined statements that the cotton crop of the U. States in 1846-47, was much less abundant than it had been for several years previously; and this falling off in the grand source of supply had a most unfavourable influence over the cotton manufacture in this country. Happily, however, the crop of the U. States in 1847-48 regained its former level; and the crop of 1848-49 was the largest ever known, having reached the prodigious amount of 2,738,528 bales. But it is not supposed that the crop of 1849-50 will exceed 2,260,000 or 2,360,000 bales.

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Statement of the Imports into, the Exports from, and of the Consumption, Prices, &c. of Cotton Wool in Great Britain, in different Years, from 1816 to 1849, both inclusive.

Average Consumption.	1816.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1835.	1840.	1843.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Upland - - - - -	-	2,918	5,715	6,493	8,896	5,346	7,059	5,118	6,519	3,844
Oleana and Alabama - - -	990	1,191	2,443	6,756	7,823	15,344	17,779	11,923	15,929	16,667
Sea Island - - - - -	-	409	360	460	564	562	598	983	437	577
Total United States - - -	4,056	4,519	6,518	10,568	14,078	19,592	24,404	16,683	22,815	24,088
Brazil - - - - -	-	1,589	2,502	3,594	2,339	1,454	2,192	1,638	1,119	2,061
Egypt - - - - -	-	-	891	508	446	640	1,069	894	745	989
East India - - - - -	-	807	1,218	1,095	910	1,089	2,227	1,988	5,191	3,077
Demerara, West India, &c. - - -	-	656	654	587	936	481	260	351	158	167
Total wool consumption - - -	6,488	8,979	11,631	16,002	18,616	24,063	30,277	22,625	26,146	30,546
Package actually consumed - - -	337,400	466,508	569,500	833,100	954,100	1,241,500	1,574,400	1,157,800	1,453,600	1,590,100
Average weight of packages consumed, in lbs. - - - - -	263	258	276	296	333	327	385	381	394	398
Weekly consumption in packages, average 1844 lbs. - - - - -	5,773	8,023	10,306	14,051	15,798	22,599	29,437	21,221	28,004	20,546
Average weight of packages imported, in lbs. - - - - -	456	348	379	300	331	355	366	377	395	396
Packages exported - - - - -	89,500	85,400	73,400	35,400	109,500	119,700	128,800	221,800	189,500	184,500
Lbs. weight annually imported in millions and tenths - - -	93.9	145.9	229.4	361.4	361.7	383.4	718.3	461.0	386.4	724.3
Lbs. weight consumed, ditto - - - - -	88.7	120.3	168.8	247.6	318.1	456.9	606.6	441.4	576.6	699.9
Lbs. weight in Great Britain, ditto - - - - -	19.4	110.5	107.0	91.4	79.3	168.9	400.3	181.4	128.6	208.9
Average price per lb. of uplands in Liverpool - - - - -	181d.	114d.	11.6d.	6.9d.	101d.	6d.	4.37.5d.	6.37.5d.	4d.	5d.
Ditto, ditto, Demerara - - - - -	162d.	126d.	13.1d.	9.6d.	13.7d.	9d.	6.37.5d.	7.53.5d.	8d.	5d.
Ditto, ditto, Purata - - - - -	154d.	8d.	8.9d.	5d.	7d.	4.6.5d.	5d.	4.50.5d.	3d.	3d.

N.B.—Messrs. Holt and Co. estimate the average weight of the packages imported in 1849 at 380 lbs. per bag Upland; 452 lbs. Oleana and Alabama; 350 lbs. Sea-Island; 180 lbs. Brazil; 210 lbs. Egyptian; 376 lbs. East Indian; and 310 lbs. West Indian.

The following statements are taken from the circular of Messrs Dufay and Co. of the 1st of Feb. 1850.—

The Exports from the U. Kingdom have been as follows:	1849.	1848.	1847.	1846.	1845.	1844.
To all of yarn and thread - - - - -	60	132	120	159	137	95
Totals of manufactured goods - - - - -	1,183	921	889	987	1,000	921
	In millions of yards.					

The crisis in 1847 caused a great falling off in the export trade, but the whole deficiency is now made up to a point, which formerly created a glut in foreign markets. We subjoin an

Estimate of the Quantities of Raw Cotton taken by the Consumers in the chief Manufacturing Countries (in Millions of Pounds), during each of the 14 years ending with 1849.

Countries.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Great Britain - - - - -	850	369	455	562	473	428	469	331	543	597	804	485	391	621
France (including all other countries) - - - - -	8	121	153	110	107	104	163	139	145	158	159	188	127	156
Russia, Germany, Holland, and Belgium - - - - -	57	58	61	48	74	65	78	82	86	98	97	105	112	160
Countries bordering on the Adriatic - - - - -	28	32	36	36	38	39	39	44	36	38	39	31	49	47
U. States of North America - - - - -	86	81	92	103	111	115	103	131	143	156	175	175	209	205
Total - - - - -	659	661	777	649	661	728	816	940	944	1,047	1,074	868	1,068	1,265

The following estimate, by Messrs. Dufay and Co. of Manchester, though some of the items of it may, perhaps, be a little questionable, sets in a very striking light the beneficial influence of a low price and an abundant supply of the raw material over the interests of the cotton manufacturers.

Estimate of the Difference in Pounds sterling of the Sums accruing to the Cotton Manufacturers, &c. of the U. Kingdom, during 1846, 1847, and 1848, to pay for the Expenses of Fuel, Machinery, Drugs for Dyeing, Printing, and Bleaching, Interest of Capital, and every kind of Wages, Profit, &c., after deducting the actual Cost of the Raw Material.

	1846.	1847.	1848.		1846.	1847.	1848.
Cotton consumed in Great Britain - - - - -	598,260,000	439,177,231	350,000,000	Average cost of cotton in each year - - - - -	£ 12,463,750	£ 11,659,311	£ 9,739,600
Waste in spinning this, 11 os. per lb. - - - - -	85,434,687	48,046,030	60,156,000	Declared value, as per published statements - - - - -	£ 7,815,747	£ 5,667,000	£ 5,589,000
Production of yarn in lbs. - - - - -	585,825,313	391,131,200	489,844,000	Ditto, ditto, ditto - - - - -	£ 17,765,968	£ 17,100,000	£ 15,711,000
Disposed of as follows:—				Estimated in it a same proportion as the declared value of the exported goods, plus & - - - - -	£ 16,861,605	£ 9,500,000	£ 19,845,000
Exported in yarn & thread - - - - -	159,501,484	119,422,254	151,674,250	Total value of production - - - - -	£ 42,448,299	£ 34,667,000	£ 41,144,000
Ditto in manufactured goods reduced into weight of yarn - - - - -	317,693,617	191,969,597	183,929,250	Deduct the cost of the cotton as above - - - - -	£ 12,463,750	£ 11,659,311	£ 9,739,600
Consumed at home, and not otherwise enumerated - - - - -	155,830,214	79,839,669	174,847,480	Sums remaining to be distributed as stated above - - - - -	£ 30,018,516	£ 20,786,686	£ 31,404,400
As above - - - - -	538,825,313	391,131,200	489,844,000				

Account of the Cotton Crop of the U. States during the following Years, ending each on the 31st of August

	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
New Orleans	1,000,846	839,178	929,188	1,037,144	705,979	1,190,748	1,093,797
Mobile	69,174	487,000	817,198	431,866	323,448	526,336	418,708
Florida	151,088	140,569	198,993	141,184	137,888	185,778	300,188
Texas	151,088	151,088	151,088	151,088	151,088	151,088	151,088
Georgia	999,491	958,997	995,449	184,911	845,789	924,983	391,774
S. Carolina	351,058	301,870	436,281	231,405	260,000	261,788	408,117
N. Carolina	9,020	8,618	19,187	10,887	5,061	1,218	10,041
Virginia	15,639	10,900	25,908	18,288	15,991	5,908	17,040
Total	8,578,878	8,030,469	8,394,208	8,100,437	1,175,651	9,247,694	8,798,698

GALACZ, THE DANUBE, &c. The anticipations in which we ventured to indulge in the Dictionary (See GALACZ, in regard to the probable increase of the trade of the Danube, have been more than realised. The high prices of corn in France, Italy, and England, in 1846 and 1847, gave an extraordinary stimulus to the export trade of Galacz and Ibraila, or Braihlow. The exports of wheat from both ports in 1847, amounted to no fewer than 570,978 quarters, worth on board ship 875,603*l.*; the exports of Indian corn during the same year were 937,720 quarters, worth 1,172,150*l.*; and among the other exports were about 320,000 quarters of barley, and 42,000 cwt. of tallow, with a variety of other articles. The total value of the exports from the two ports during the above year, amounted to the very large sum of 2,568,472*l.*, of which about two-thirds were from Ibraila. The latter is the port of Wallachia, but the exports from it are partly also from Bulgaria, being conveyed to the port by the vessels which navigate the Danube and its tributaries. The exports from Galacz are principally the produce of Moldavia, being in great part conveyed to the port by the Sereth and the Pruth.

We may also avail ourselves of this opportunity to state that there has been an equal, or even greater, increase in the exports from Bulgaria, independently of those that come down the Danube to Ibraila. About six or eight years ago, the entire exports of wheat from Varna and the other Bulgarian ports between the Gulph of Bourghas and Kustenjee, did not certainly exceed 200,000 quarters, whereas in 1847 they amounted to 896,000 quarters! And it is necessary to bear in mind that this is exclusive of the exports, which are very considerable, from Tulcha, a port of Bulgaria, on the Danube, about 40 miles W. of the entrance to the Sulinah mouth. We subjoin the following statements in regard to the trade of Galacz, Ibraila, and Varna, the capital of Bulgaria, in 1847. (See next page.)

The port of Varna is situated on the W. coast of the Black Sea; at the bottom of a rather small bay, about 3 m. N.W. Cape Galata, the latter being in lat. 49° 10' N., long. 27° 58' E. The ordinary anchorage is to the S.E. of the town, in 7 or 8 fathoms, bottom sand and oaze. It is open to all winds between E. and S.E. Vessels load and unload by means of lighters, it being dangerous to approach within ¼ m. of the shore.

Varna has about 15,000 or 16,000 inhabs. It is famous in Turkish history for the great victory gained in its vicinity in 1444 by the Turks, under their sultan Achmet II., over the Hungarians, whose king, Ladislaus, was killed in the battle.—(*L'Art de Verifier les Dates*, Part. 2de. v. 250, 8vo ed.)

Both hard and soft wheat are shipped from Varna, the value of the former being from 95 to 50 per cent. greater than that of the latter. An export duty is charged on wheat when exported, and being a fixed duty of about 2*s.* 8*d.* a quarter, it is high when prices are low, and low when they are high.

It may be worth while, perhaps, to mention that the export trade of Wallachia and Moldavia did not become considerable till after the treaty of Adrianople, dictated by the Russians in 1829. Previously to that epoch, corn and provisions could only be sent to Turkey for consumption; wool being the only article that could be sent to other countries. Since 1829 the export of all articles to all parts of the world has been permitted under low duties. The vast sums that have been received for exports during the last 9 or 4 years in the Danubian provinces and in Bulgaria, have given an extraordinary stimulus to all sorts of improvement. Whatever, therefore, may be said of the policy of Russia in other parts, here, at all events, it has been highly conducive to the interests of commerce and of civilisation.

of Cotton

1848.	1849.
8,518	8,844
18,288	16,457
427	577
29,810	24,688
1,119	2,000
2,725	989
8,977	9,112
150	187
28,148	30,544
1,168,800	1,590,100
394	398
28,004	30,246
395	398
189,600	254,800
688	745
878	899
198	308
290	840
24	24
24	24

in 1849 at 390 lbs. 210 lbs. Egyptian;

1st of Feb, 1850:—

1846.	1845.	1844.
159	137	35
997	1,000	991

iciency is now made

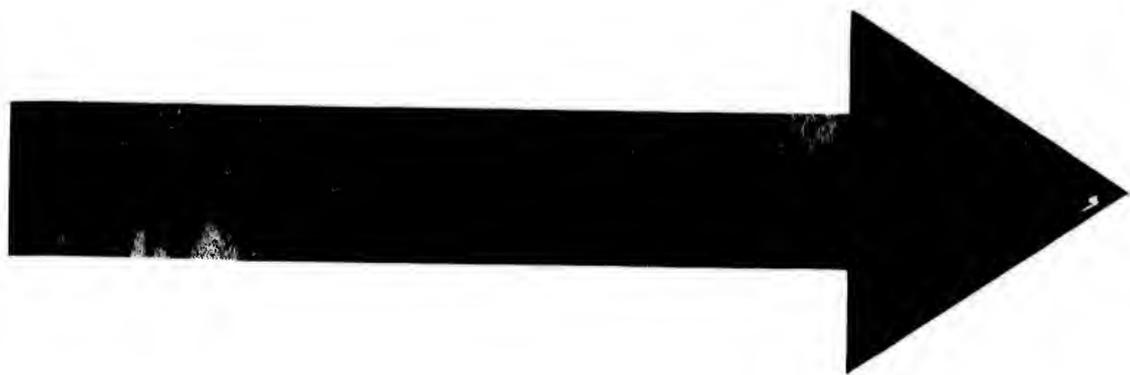
Manufacturing with 1849.

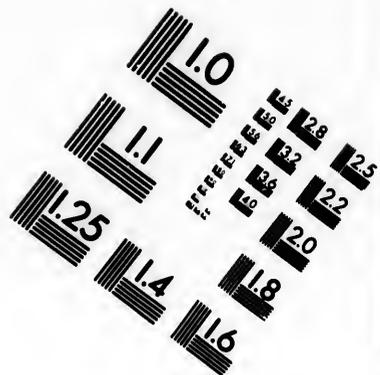
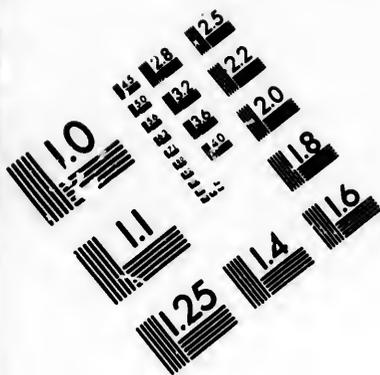
1848	1847	1846	1845
304	483	591	627
159	186	127	156
97	105	118	160
39	31	29	47
175	175	209	205
071	868	1,068	1,005

of the items of it may be of a low price and

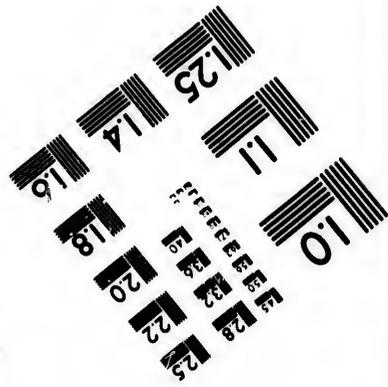
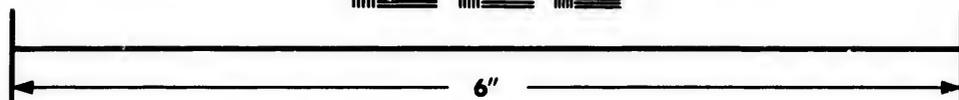
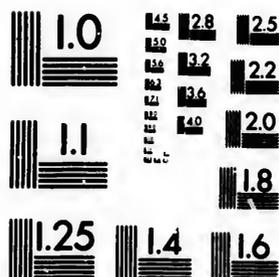
Manufacturers, &c. of Machinery, Drugges, Profit, &c., after

46.	1847.	1844.
65,750	11,668,214	9,738,600
17,572	5,867,000	5,288,000
96,966	17,100,000	15,211,000
961,601	9,500,000	19,845,000
489,899	32,467,000	41,144,000
463,754	11,668,214	9,738,600
018,518	20,738,088	31,404,400





**IMAGE EVALUATION
TEST TARGET (MT-3)**



**Photographic
Sciences
Corporation**

23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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Account of Exports from Galacs by Sea in 1847, in English Weights and Measures, with their Value in Sterling Money, free on Board.

Articles.	Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value.	Total Value.
Wheat	Quarters.	160,860	32s.	£490,378
Indian corn	—	318,603	21s.	£669,258
Rye	—	25,697	20s.	£51,394
Barley	—	15,296	12s.	£18,355
Kidney beans	—	78	7s.	£546
Linned	—	2,258	32s.	£723
Tallow and cheevic ^a	Cwt.	14,100	32s.	£45,120
Cheese or caskeval	—	99	32s.	£316
Hog's Bristles	—	47	10s.	£470
Wine	—	285,000	6d.	£7,125
Walnuts	Gallons.	1,300	5s.	£650
Prunes	—	3,678	2s.	£735
Flanks and deels	Pieces.	145,998	5d.	£3,649
Misc and spears	Rafts.	9	500s.	£4,500
Emarved beef in tin	Cases.	79,898	5s.	£39,949
Salt beef	Barrels.	274	40s.	£10,960
Ox hides	Pieces.	491	10s.	£4,910
				£775,588

Destination of Vessels departing loaded from Galacs in 1847.

Destination.	No. of vessels.	Wheat.	Indian Corn.	Rye.	Barley.	Tallow.	Sundries.
England	806	25,281	178,878	3,033	3,019	cwt. 2,009	79,893
Marseilles	145	78,190	49,858	12,486	4,403	96	1,010 qrs. linned, 58 cwt. cheese, 57 qrs. kidney beans, 1,246 qrs. linned, 40 cwt. hog's bristles, 700 planks.
Constantinople	123	17,223	37,681	600	1,198	9,833	144,593 planks, 9 rafts, 27 barl. salt beef, 481 hides, 81 cwt. cheese, 15 qrs. kidney beans.
Genoa	58	36,722	5,731	—	—	—	—
Malta	39	2,917	86,922	—	—	—	—
Trieste	34	10,237	17,330	—	—	—	—
Venice	18	2,217	7,270	—	—	—	—
Odessa	17	—	—	—	—	—	—
Laghorn	10	7,417	2,900	—	—	—	—
Ionian Islands	7	9,285	3,629	—	—	—	—
Alicon	4	—	635	—	—	—	—
Amsterdam	1	—	—	841	—	—	—
	662	190,861	318,603	26,697	13,538	12,018	79,293
							288,400 gall. wine, 1,200 cwt. walnuts, 1,244 cwt. prunes.

Account of Exports from Ibralla by Sea in 1847, in English Weights and Measures, with their Value in Sterling Money, free on Board.

Articles.	Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value.	Total Value.
Wheat	Quarters.	380,218	30s.	£1,140,554
Indian corn	—	619,113	21s.	£1,299,137
Barley	—	300,382	12s.	£360,458
Tallow and cheevic (estimated at)	Cwt.	21,649	30s.	£64,937
				£2,195,086

Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles Imported into and exported from Varna in 1847.

Imports.				Exports.			
Articles.	Quantities.	Value in £ sterling.		Articles.	Quantities.	Value in £ sterling.	
Almonds	cwt.	84	60	Wheat	quarters	377,600	471,000
Corn	—	10,803	6,000	Barley	—	10,000	4,000
Coffee	—	14,263	30,000	Hides	No.	100,000	81,456
Cotton twist	pieces	150,000	32,000	Tallow	cwt.	99,714	176,800
Cloths, woollen	—	200	10,000	Butter	—	9,482	21,816
Cloths, cotton	—	300	7,000	Cheese	—	94,000	63,636
Tigs	cwt.	2,000	2,400	Walnuts	— bushels	10,000	1,000
Iron	tons	500	7,000	Wool	— lbs.	112,600	2,000
Olive oil	cwt.	2,107	2,867	Dried beef or pasturmas	cwt.	56,817	250,000
Olives	—	2,000	2,400	Miscellaneous, including poultry and eggs	—	—	25,000
Pepper and other spices	lbs.	15,500	1,812				
Raisins	cwt.	10,535	6,522				
Sugar	—	2,466	11,583				
Soap	—	1,873	4,185				
Salt	—	923	1,500				
Tin (in bars)	barrels	727	2,000				
Spirits	gallons	500,000	75,000				
Miscellaneous	—	—	10,000				
Total			£214,561	Total			£273,704

^a Tallow is here divided into two qualities, called tallow and cheevic. The latter is the clean fat of the carcass and marrow boiled, and is much used in Constantinople for culinary purposes; tallow is the fat of the intestines, &c., &c. It is generally sold in parcels, consisting of ½ cheevic

and ½ tallow. For the Constantinople market cheevic is worth 10 per cent. more than tallow, but for other European markets tallow is worth as much as cheevic. — (Commingham on the Trade of the Danube, p. 2.)

GLASS. We are glad to have to state that the glass manufacture has been emancipated from all fiscal restraints, the duties on glass having been abolished by the act 8 Vict. c. 6, which took effect from the 5th of April, 1845. The beneficial influence of this liberal and most judicious measure is already obvious in the increased cheapness

and greater variety of descriptions of glass in the market; and there can be no doubt that its advantages will become still more and more obvious from the facilities it gives for the introduction of improvements, and, consequently, for ameliorating the quality as well as reducing the cost of one of the most useful and admirable of the products of art and industry.

GOLD (PRODUCE OF) IN RUSSIA AND THE U. STATES.

Account of the Produce in Gold of the Mines of the Oural and of the Washings of Siberia since 1837, with its Value in Sterling.

	In the Oural Mountains.	In the Siberian Washings.	Total.	Quantity of fine Gold.	In Troy Weight.	Value at the Rate of 115.051 Ounces Troy per £1 s.
	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Lbs.	£ s. d.
1837	309.5	132.97	442.50	402.68	17,869.40	£ 807,873
1838	309.17	133.16	433.33	449.68	19,590.08	1,084,160
1839	309.78	183.80	493.58	449.61	19,883.00	1,093,419
1840	309.41	249.41	558.82	488.59	21,375.00	1,130,000
1841	309.48	349.39	658.87	588.86	25,830.40	1,386,800
1842	322.40	615.93	938.33	888.36	36,370.83	1,944,800
1843	313.78	981.90	1,295.68	1,170.83	51,310.19	2,552,800
1844	310.06	1,031.93	1,341.99	1,280.84	55,870.64	2,750,000
1845	328.00	1,015.80	1,343.80	1,248.54	54,377.16	2,786,100
1846	314.63	1,568.88	1,883.51	1,808.53	66,869.01	3,114,400

The gross produce of the mines and washings in 1847 amounted to very near 1781 poods, being equal to about 3,700,000. sterling; and their produce in 1848, and we believe also in 1849, was still greater. And it will be observed, that this and the other sums mentioned above are derived from the official returns, which take no account of the quantities produced which have not paid duty, though these are admitted to be very considerable.

This extraordinary increase in the supply of gold could hardly fall, even were there no increase in the supplies from other quarters, to reduce its value; at least, this would certainly be the case, should the produce of the Siberian washings increase for the next ten or twelve years as rapidly as it has done during the last ten or twelve. But vast as the increase from this source has been, it appears highly probable that it will be, if it has not already been, exceeded by the supplies from California. There is still, it is true, much discrepancy in the accounts from that region; but after making every allowance for exaggeration, there can be no doubt that the sands of many of the Californian rivers, and the soils in various parts of the country, are richly impregnated with gold, large quantities of which have been collected and exported. In 1848, the exports from California were estimated at from 800,000. to 1,000,000.; and in 1849, they have been estimated, apparently with a good deal of care, at about 4,000,000. And it is plain, unless this estimate be very greatly exaggerated (which we do not think is the case), that should the supply be maintained at this level for a few years, it will, combined with the increased supplies from Russia, increase the total annual supply of gold to an amount unknown at any former period. And as there is not, and cannot well be, any corresponding increase in the demand for gold, its value will sustain a corresponding fall. And hence we think that a rise in the prices of most articles may be fairly anticipated. This rise will, probably, be slow; but should eight or nine millions of pounds sterling of gold be henceforth annually added to the existing stock of the commercial world, a repetition of the effects consequent on the first discovery of the American mines will most likely be experienced. And we have elsewhere stated our reasons for thinking that such a contingency, or that a gradual and considerable fall in the value of gold, would be of the greatest advantage to this country. — (*Principles of Political Economy*, 4th ed. part iii. c. 7.)

Were the supply of silver to increase in the same proportion as that of gold, the value of both would be equally depressed, so that, though they fell as compared with other things, they would continue to bear the same relation to each other. It does not, however, appear, that the supply of silver is increasing equally with that of gold; and already there are indications of the value of the latter declining as compared with that of the former. But we are not thence to conclude that the supply of silver is continuing stationary; on the contrary, there can be no doubt that it also is increasing, though less rapidly than the supply of gold. The coinage of silver in the different Mexican mints amounted, as seen in the subjoined statement, in 1848, to 18,339,560 dollars, or taking the dollar at 4s. to 3,647,912*l*. And if to the supply of coined silver from Mexico, we add the quantities not brought to the mints, and the further supplies afforded by Peru, Bolivia, Chili, and other American countries, and by Europe, it will be seen that the entire supply is very large indeed, and that it has materially increased of late years. The demand for it is, however, much more extensive than that for gold; so that an increase of its supply has less effect on its value. And, therefore, unless some unlooked-for increase in the supply of silver should speedily occur, its value may be expected to rise as compared with gold.

Value in
al Value.
56,376
34,258
50,007
5,491
101
8,218
19,232
134
470
7,310
507
218
3,787
5,430
11,894
543
265
775,536

kidney beans,
10 cwt. bags
by 57 barl. and
cwt. cheese.

100 cwt. wal-
nuts.

their Value in
Total Value.
586,827
715,494
180,249
32,474
30,000
£1,598,944

ed from Varna

Year	Value in £ sterling.
1800	471,000
1801	5,000
1802	83,456
1803	176,860
1804	81,516
1805	61,636
1806	1,499
1807	4,000
1808	200 00
1809	25,000
1810	200 00
1811	25,000
1812	25,000
1813	25,000
1814	25,000
1815	25,000
1816	25,000
1817	25,000
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1888	25,000
1889	25,000
1890	25,000
1891	25,000
1892	25,000
1893	25,000
1894	25,000
1895	25,000
1896	25,000
1897	25,000
1898	25,000
1899	25,000
1900	25,000

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Account of the Coinage of Gold and Silver in the Mints of the Mexican Republic during the Years 1847 and 1848.

	1847.		1848.	
	Gold. Value in Dollars.	Silver. Value in Dollars.	Gold. Value in Dollars.	Silver. Value in Dollars.
Mexico	130,800	1,634,815	94,575	1,818,709
Zacatecas	-	4,181,351	-	2,050,000
Guanaxtoto	480,406	6,001,500	688,000	7,475,400
Durango	39,618	925,511	-	1,117,120
Chihuahua	137,000	478,000	175,014	456,145
San Luis Potosi	-	1,084,692	-	1,344,737
Huastlayuca	5,501	697,818	4,994	747,730
Huastlayuca y Cabre	250,034	416,550	199,134	458,864
Coliaca	65,565	195,001	211,538	619,714
	1,043,409	15,880,539	1,287,194	16,350,560
Total		16,923,948		19,508,754
Or at 4s. per doll.		3,584,590		3,901,251

GRIMSBY (GREAT). We have been obligingly furnished by the secretary to the Dock Company, Charles Neate, Esq., with the following statements in regard to the important works now in progress at this place. They are already considerably advanced; and, if completed on the proposed plan, will be of the greatest advantage, not merely to Grimsby, but to the shipping engaged in the trade on the E. coast of England, and to the manufacturing districts of Yorkshire and Lancashire.

"In its present condition the Port of Grimsby possesses but very limited resources for the accommodation of shipping or merchandise. It has a floating basin of about ten acres area with 17 feet water, but this, being approached by a shallow creek, is only available for entrance at or near the time of high water, and is further deficient in proper quays and warehouses.

"These defects, however, will entirely cease with the completion of the works now in progress, which are designed upon a large and comprehensive scale, commensurate with the natural advantages afforded by the situation of Grimsby, and capable, with these, of raising it to high importance.

"Grimsby, lying on the south side of the Humber estuary, which at this point is seven miles in breadth, possesses the double advantage of close proximity to the open sea and of complete shelter from its violence; the latter being afforded by that projecting arm on the north side of the Humber mouth, which, terminating in Spurn Head, encloses a very capacious and secure roadstead, extensively frequented by ships of all classes, and especially valuable to the coasting traders. The entrance to the new docks will be within a mile of these roads.

"The new works, which project half a mile into the river, and reclaim from it 130 acres of land, will comprise a dock of 30 acres in extent, two entrance locks, and a tidal entrance basin 15 acres in area, in addition to space for the construction of graving docks, building ships, &c. The thirty-acre dock, affording quay-room for nearly a mile in length, will be surrounded by landing sheds and warehouses, whilst a branch of the railway will extend along its sides. Of the two locks leading into it, one will be sufficiently large to admit the largest steam frigate in the navy. The constant depth of water in the dock will be amply sufficient for any full laden vessel whatever, and the average depths of water at the entrance to the locks will be 8 feet at low and 26 feet at high water. The entrance basin, to be formed by two piers, together about 1,700 feet in length, and provided with landing slips, will be frequented especially by those steamers which do not require to enter the docks, and which, under ordinary circumstances, will remain afloat in it at all times of the tide.

"Grimsby is a terminus of the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire, and of the East Lincolnshire Railways, which place it in direct and ready communication with London, Sheffield, Manchester, and Liverpool. With the exception of Hull, which is 20 m. higher up the Humber than Grimsby, it is the only port on this part of the east coast of England."

GUTTA PERCHA, a vegetable product, in various respects similar to caoutchouc or India rubber, but much harder and less elastic, obtained from trees found in the forests of Borneo, Malacca, Singapore, &c. It does not appear to have been known to the British public previously to 1843; but it has since been largely imported, and is now used for a great variety of purposes. On being immersed in boiling water, or heated, it becomes plastic, and is easily moulded into any shape, recovering, when cold, its original hardness. Being impervious to water, it has been extensively employed in the manufacture of soles for shoes; it is also made into whips, frames for pictures and mirrors, driving straps for machinery, pipes for conveying water, and various other articles.

The trees from which it is usually obtained, called the Percha (whence its name) and Tuban, are of a large size, being 60 or 70 feet in height, and from 2 to 3 feet in diameter. It might, no doubt, be obtained by periodically bleeding the trees; but the natives cut them down, and then make incisions in the bark, whence the gum exudes into cocoa-nut shells, or other rude instruments placed for its reception. It is stated in an interesting article on Gutta Percha in the Journal of the Indian Archipelago (No. I. p. 24.), that 6,918 piculs (8,235 cwt) were shipped from Singapore for England in the interval between the 1st of July, 1845, and the 1st of July 1847; and that to obtain this quantity, estimating the average produce of a tree at 10 cettias (19½ lb.), no fewer than 69,180 trees must have been sacrificed! In consequence of this destruction of the sources of supply, it is said to be already becoming scarce. It is imported in the shape of blocks and of scraps like leather clippings. It is usually adulterated with sawdust, leaves, and other impurities; but these, being merely entangled in its fibres, may be easily separated from the gutta by immersing or softening it in boiling water, and then picking them out.—(See Journal referred to above, and Low's "Sarawak," &c., p. 50.)

ICE.—The sale of ice and snow preserved in the caverns of Vesuvius and on the more elevated parts of Ætna, has long been a considerable branch of trade in Naples, Catania, and the adjoining towns; but it was reserved for the Americans to carry the trade in ice to an extent which could not previously have been anticipated. The extreme heat of the summer in the New England States occasions a natural demand for ice, which the extreme cold of the winter gives the means of supplying. The fresh water lakes adjoining Boston and other large towns being deeply frozen in winter, large ice-houses are filled with the ice taken from them, which is retailed in summer at a low price. This practice had not, however, been long established till it occurred to some ingenious speculators to attempt to realise a profit by shipping ice to the southern parts of the Union and the West Indies: and the speculation having succeeded, the trade was subsequently extended to the Spanish Main and South America, and more recently to Europe, India, and China! The business has, in fact, become of the first importance; numerous companies and a very large amount of tonnage being now engaged in the ice trade from Boston. And owing to the greater skill and economy with which the business is at present conducted, the ice which used a few years ago to cost 6 cents per lib. in New Orleans and the Havannah, may now be had for 1 cent.; and there has been a like fall in its price in India and other more distant places. An immense warehouse has recently been constructed at Calcutta for the reception of the ice brought by the ships, whence it is supplied in the quantities required for the public accommodation. This singular fabric has triple walls, five distinct roofs, incloses about three-fourths of an acre, and is fitted to hold upwards of 30,000 tons of ice! It is said that a similar dépôt is about to be formed at Canton. Our readers do not require to be told that in some late years London has been a considerable market for American ice. This, however, is only a casual occurrence, depending principally on the circumstance of an unusually hot summer having followed an unusually mild winter, which, on the one hand, occasions a large demand for ice, while, on the other, it lessens or annihilates the home supply. And the same may be said generally in regard to the demand of other European countries. The ice shipped from America is principally obtained from Fresh Pond, Spy Pond, and Wenham Pond, in an elevated position, about 18 miles from Boston, to which it is conveyed by railway; but it is also obtained from various other ponds and lakes. It is kept stored up in large warehouses adjoining the lakes till it is required for shipment. The holds of the ships used for the conveyance of ice have a space between the planking of the ship and the ice boxed in and usually filled with sawdust or some other substance reckoned a non-conductor of heat. Formerly the ice was packed with straw and hay, in boxes or thin lumber made air-tight; but now this mode of packing is comparatively little used. The ice is beautifully transparent and free from air cells, and is usually cut into blocks about a foot thick. The shipments during the course of 1847 amounted to 75,000 tons. (See art. Boston in this work; and an article in the American Almanac for 1849.)

Owing to the mildness of our winters we have sometimes little or no frost, and when it is most severe, ice in this country rarely exceeds two or three inches in thickness; and is usually, also, a good deal stained with impurities. Occasionally a supply of ice is brought from Norway, but it wants the solidity and transparency of the American ice.

the Years

Silver.	
value in Dollars.	
1,818,709	
5,060,000	
7,073,000	
14,117,190	
436,188	
1,284,797	
747,130	
423,684	
819,714	
18,439,560	
54	
51	

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INDIGO.—

Bengal Indigo Crops, their Distribution, during Seventeen Years, and Estimate of that of the Current Season.

	Great Britain.	France and F. Europe.	United States.	F. Gulf.	Total Exports from Calcutta.	Stock in Calcutta.	Total Crops.
1830-31	88,665	19,858	5,516	11,547	119,600	-	119,600
1831-32	85,259	17,250	10,229	8,016	120,754	-	120,754
1832-33	90,961	24,308	5,428	4,265	127,060	-	127,060
1833-34	90,514	29,717	5,160	2,14	127,505	-	127,505
1834-35	87,723	24,785	4,426	3,761	119,677	-	119,677
1835-36	70,498	27,336	8,236	3,678	110,338	-	110,338
1836-37	76,193	20,578	4,100	3,090	108,761	-	115,500
1837-38	85,268	19,247	8,999	5,177	120,294	1,500	121,794
1838-39	49,438	27,744	5,268	7,125	89,511	-	89,511
1839-40	83,350	24,730	4,900	6,270	119,250	1,925	121,175
1840-41	88,010	25,419	4,201	6,121	124,381	400	124,781
1841-42	105,253	29,308	5,819	6,261	146,666	15,200	161,866
1842-43	66,323	27,483	1,369	3,163	98,000	1,800	99,800
1843-44	116,974	35,248	4,153	9,156	165,535	5,500	171,035
1844-45	97,108	35,530	4,203	5,100	142,038	1,545	143,583
1845-46	75,492	36,011	2,085	5,993	119,594	5,172	124,766
1846-47	84,016	32,221	3,170	6,186	125,605	1,550	127,155
1847-48	88,000	12,500	3,500	5,000	110,000	-	110,328

LABUAN, a small island off the N. W. coast of Borneo, a dependency of the British crown, about 6 m. distant from the nearest point of the mainland, and 30 m. N. from the city of Borneo or Bruni, lat. 5° 12' N., long. 115° 19' 36" E. It is from 25 to 30 m. in circ., flat, and covered with wood. The anchorage, on the S. side of the island, is protected by a greater and three smaller islands; and the town of Victoria has been commenced at the embouchure of a rivulet in a small bay, at the head of the anchorage. Coal of good quality is found on the island, and it is well supplied with fresh water. It was ceded by the Sultan of Borneo to Great Britain in 1844; and the celebrated Sir James Brooke, who negotiated its cession, has since been appointed its governor. When it came into our possession it was uninhabited; but its situation is such that, provided it be moderately healthy, it can hardly fail to become an important emporium. It lies near the best route for shipping from the Straits of Singapore to China, and, while it is extremely well situated for carrying on trade with the W. and N. coasts of Borneo and the Philippine islands, it will serve as a harbour of refuge, and as a convenient station for the steamers and other ships of war required to put down the piracy that has been, to the great injury of commerce, carried on to so great an extent from the ports and rivers of Borneo, and of some of the adjacent islands. In this respect its abundant supply of coal will be of the greatest service. In war the possession of Labuan will give us the entire command of the Chinese sea. (Brooke's Journal, and a paper by Mr. Craufurd in Keppel's Borneo, ii. p. 144. and p. 209.)

As regards the suppression of piracy, the possession of Labuan has already been of the most essential service. The steamers refitted at it have inflicted a severe chastisement on some of the piratical hordes by which the neighbouring seas have been infested; and, whatever may be said to the contrary, the suppression of piracy is indispensable as a preliminary step to the introduction of civilisation into Borneo and the surrounding islands. It is probable that in prosecuting hostilities against the pirates, other parties may be made to suffer for offences of which they have not been guilty. But this is a contingency inseparable from all sorts of hostilities; and it is right that those who suffer pirates to get an asylum on their shores, should be made to feel that by thus harbouring them, and enabling them to prosecute their schemes of robbery and blood, they make themselves responsible for the consequences. It is mere drivelling to suppose that the interests of humanity require that pirates and their abettors should be tenderly treated. They will not leave off their atrocities at the bidding of *soi-disant* peace societies. The chastisement they have received at the hands of Sir James Brooke and Captain Keppel, is the only discipline suited to their habits and deserts.

Borneo, or Bruni, on the adjacent shore of the mainland, the residence of the Sultan of Borneo Proper, has been termed the Venice of the East. It contains from 50,000 to 40,000 inhabitants, mostly Malays, and really seems as if it floated on the waves. It is situated on an estuary, and though built with little regard to regularity, it is intersected crosswise by two main streets, which divide it into four portions, on only of which stands on dry land. The houses in the other three parts are of wood built on piles, which support them above the water, with streets, if so they may be called, to admit the passage of canoes. The steamer which conveyed Sir James Brooke to Borneo, when Labuan was ceded, anchored in the main street in the centre of the town! "The greatest novelty at Bruni," says Mr. Marryat, from whom we have borrowed these details, "is the floating bazaar. There are no shops in the city, and the market is held every day in canoes. These come in at sunrise every morning from every part of the river, laden with fresh fruit, tobacco, pepper, and every other article which is produced

in the vicinity; a few European productions, such as handkerchiefs, check-cotton prints, &c., also make their appearance. Congregated in the main street, the *ennoes* are tacked together, forming lanes through which the purchasers in their own *ennoes* paddle, selecting and bargaining for goods with as much convenience as if the whole were transacted on *terra firma*. Iron is here so valuable that it is used as money. One hundred flat pieces an inch square are valued at a dollar, and among the lower classes these iron pieces form the sole coin. They are unstamped, so that any person appears to be at liberty to cut his own iron into money; but whether such is really the case, I cannot vouch." (Marryat's Borneo, &c., p. 113.)

But though deficient in iron the gold mines of Borneo are amongst the richest in the world. Sir Stamford Raffles estimated that in his time about 59,000 Chinese labourers were employed in these mines on the W. coast of Borneo; and it is not easy to say how productive they might become, were the miners in a condition to prosecute their undertakings in safety, and to bring the resources of science and of capital to their aid. Antimony is also found in abundance in Borneo, especially in the district of Sarawak, of which Sir James Brooke is now rajah; and the diamonds of Borneo rival those of India and Brazil. But independently of its coal, and of its precious and other metals, its vegetable products might alone furnish the materials of an extensive commerce. The sago palm grows in great perfection in many parts of the island, and sago is largely exported in a rough state to Singapore. The areca nut, rattans, gutta perata, gumbenjamin, camphor, birds' nests, &c., are also considerable articles of export; and sugar, pepper, and all the products of tropical regions, might, with a little care, be raised to any extent in most parts of this vast island. The numbers and ferocity of the savages by whom it is occupied present, indeed, formidable obstacles to its improvement. But civilisation is beginning to make its way amongst them; and, though probably slow, its progress cannot well be arrested.

LEECHES.—A tract published at Paris in 1845, by M. Joseph Marth, leech merchant, contains a great variety of curious and instructive details in regard to the natural history of leeches, the trade carried on in them, and the frauds of the dealers. They are, we believe, much more extensively used in medical practice in France than in England; and, at all events, their consumption in the former seems to be quite immense. Notwithstanding the exhaustion of some of the marshes and ponds in different parts of the country, whence supplies of leeches were formerly procured, great numbers are still obtained at home. By far the largest portion of the necessary supplies is, however, brought from abroad; principally from Germany, Spain, Sardinia, Turkey in Europe, Algiers, Asia Minor, &c. In the French Custom-house the imports are estimated at 500 leeches per kilog.; but M. Marth affirms that 1000 leeches do not, at an average, weigh more than a kilog. Hence the numbers and values of the leeches imported into France during each of the 5 years, ending with 1847, will be,

	Number, according to official returns.	Numbers corrected.	Official value.
1815	17,607,636	25,915,899	49,253
1816	15,237,673	20,455,516	470,304
1815	15,915,493	17,580,510	219,318
1816	12,721,552	20,125,000	26,127
1847	11,790,540	22,581,580	26,6710

(French Official Returns.)

LIGHT DUES.

The *Madrid Gazette* of the 15th April, 1849, has published the following royal decree, dated 7th of the same month, regulating the future payment of light dues in the Spanish ports:—

Art. 1.—In place of the variable charges at present recovered in the ports of the Peninsula and the adjacent islands, under the denomination of light-house and harbour-light dues, for the future one general light duty will be demanded at all ports having a custom-house, payable at the same time as the other navigation charges, agreeably to the regulations contained in the following articles:—

Art. 2.—Spanish merchant vessels proceeding from national possessions by sea, or from foreign ports, to pay 1 real per ton. Art. 3.—Foreign merchant vessels proceeding from the same, will pay 3 reals per ton; her Majesty's government reserving the power of altering this rate according to the amount of dues paid by Spanish ships in foreign ports.

Art. 4.—To be exempted from this duty:— 1st. Spanish ships returning from the same countries in ballast.

2nd. Those of all flags which enter Spanish ports and sail therefrom in ballast.

3rd. Those which enter the same through stress of weather; whenever these do not discharge or take in cargo at the said

ports. Should the latter be done, then the integral duty must be paid; the vessels so paying thereby becoming exempt from a renewal of the same charges in the other ports to which they may be ultimately bound with part of their cargo. This rule will be equally observed with respect to the ships, which, without being forced by stress of weather, should enter two or more ports to discharge the goods contained in their manifests.

Art. 5.—National vessels engaged in the coasting trade will pay for each voyage, going or coming, half a real per ton. To be exempted:—

1st. Vessels not measuring more than 60 tons.

2nd. Those of larger measurement which do not make a voyage of more than 60 maritime leagues.

3rd. The latter are exempted from the said charges, when touching at intermediate ports, before arriving at their destination, whatever may be the distance of the latter from the place where their manifests were originally issued.

4th. Those returning in ballast from the ports to which they may have been bound.

Art. 6th and last.—The light duty, to be considered as a temporary measure, and will be reduced to an amount sufficient to provide for the expenses of conservation and repairs, after covering the cost of establishment.

MANILLA.

Port Charges.—On foreign vessels, 2 rs. per ton, and one-half on such as neither load nor unload cargo, beside fees amounting from 25 to 315, according to the size of vessels. Import Duties.—Spanish commodities, by Spanish vessels, 3 per cent. of *volome*, and 8, by foreign. Foreign commodities, by Spanish vessels, 15 per cent., and 7 by Spanish;

in general, being 8 per cent. under national flag from Singapore, and 9 from China. Spirits and strong liquors produce of Spain, by Spanish vessels, 12 per cent.; and 8 by foreign; if they be foreign produce, by Spanish vessels, 80 per cent.; and 60 by foreign. Other and lower produce of Spain, by Spanish vessels, 2 per cent., and 10 by foreign; if they be foreign

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Year	Total Crop.
1850	192,500
1851	129,199
1852	125,500
1853	83,000
1854	105,970
1855	111,800
1856	115,500
1857	115,545
1858	89,000
1859	125,000
1860	125,500
1861	124,500
1862	79,000
1863	172,250
1864	145,208
1865	127,964
1866	101,528
1867	110,328

ney of the Bri... and 50 m. N. E. It is from the S. side of and the town of all bay, at the and it is well great Britain in has since been inhabited; but by fail to become on the Straits of on trade with ve as a harbour of war required carried on to so adjacent islands, ce. In war the sea. (Brooke's p. 209.)

already been of severe chastise- been infested; indispensable as the surrounding es, other parties . But this is a that those who that by thus har- and blood, they dling to suppose could be tenderly *soi-ditant* peace mens Brooke and ce of the Sultan rains from 50,000 and on the waves. larity, it is inter- ons, one only of of wood built on may be called, to rooke to Borneo, the town! "The borrowed these the market is held every part of the which is produced

produce, by Spanish vessels 80, and 25 foreign. All Spanish or ex. by national vessels, 5 per cent., and 5 by foreign. Foreign wines, by Spanish vessels, 40 per cent., and 50 by foreign, except champagne, which pays, by Spanish vessels, 7 per cent., and 14 by foreign. Cotton twist, grey, black, blue, and purple—twines, or holes, such as the natives use—ready-made clothes, boots, shoes, preserved fruits, confectionery and vinegar, by Spanish vessels, 80 per cent., and 30 by foreign. British and other foreign cotton and silk manufactures, made in imitation of native cloths, chiefly stripes or checks of black, blue, and purple colours, Madras and Bengal, grey, white, and printed cotton, broads, table linens, and table cloths, 15 per cent., by Spanish vessels, and 25 by foreign. Bells de mer, trawls, diamonds, tortoise-shell, mother-of-pearl shells, and birds' nests, 1 per cent., by Spanish vessels, and 5 by foreign. Machinery of all sorts for the promotion of the industry of the country, cotton twist of red, rose, yellow, and green colours, gold and silver, coined or uncoined, and medals, &c. Tropical productions similar to those of the Philippines, also struck and gusseted, are prohibited. Opium is only admitted to be deposited for re-exportation. Swords, fowling-piece, muskets, pistols, and warlike stores may be deposited for re-export, and cannot be introduced without the special licence of government; but canoes and dress swords are admitted.

Export Duties.—Commodities and produce of every description to Spain, by national vessels, 10 per cent., and 2 by foreign. Mauritius, 14 by Spanish vessels, and 2 by foreign. Sherry, by national vessels in a hallow destination, 1 per cent., and 4 by foreign. Rice, by Spanish vessels, free, and 4 per cent. by foreign. Manufactured tobacco, and coriaria of Manila hemp, free by all flags. Gold dust, sold in bars, and silver in bars, free.

Import Duties.—One per cent. of value, and 1 per cent. of the exportation, with 1 per cent. more if the commodities should be kept there more than twelve months, two years being the longest time allowed for it.

Free and Custom-house Regulations.—Vessels newly arrived are not to communicate with the shore until having been visited by the port captain's boat and within thirty hours after their arrival, a manifest must be presented, stating packages, marks, and numbers, but the vessel may retain her cargo ten days in transit without stating whether for consumption or deposit, and without being obliged to land, or incurring any charges on the same, except gunpowder, pocket pistols, and forbidden arms.

Terms for Sales and Purchases.—Sales and purchases made, duty paid, at three to five months' credit, occasionally at 25 per cent. discount for prompt payment, and exports are bought for cash.

Account of the Exports of Sugar (clayed and not clayed) from Manila during each of the 10 Years ending with 1844.

Years.	Tons.	Cwts.	Qrs.	Years.	Tons.	Cwts.	Qrs.
1835 - - -	11,692	18	2	1840 - - -	16,564	7	3
1836 - - -	14,878	8	3	1841 - - -	15,321	8	1
1837 - - -	12,294	0	0	1842 - - -	18,541	10	2
1838 - - -	12,375	17	1	1843 - - -	22,239	18	2
1839 - - -	15,632	8	2	1844 - - -	21,520	9	2

MELBOURNE, the cap. of the British colonial territory of Port Phillip in Australia, occupying the S.E. portion of that continent, stretching through 9 degs. of long. from Cape Howe on the E. to the Glenelg river on the W. The town is situated on the N. bank of the Yarra-Yarra river, about 9 m. (following its windings) from its mouth in the basin of Port Phillip, lat. 37° 49' 25" S., lon. 140° 57' 30" E. Pop. (1846) 10,954. It was founded in 1837, and now extends for 2 m. in length by 1 d. in breadth, along the banks of the river. But its site is unfortunate; for the rivet, being obstructed by a bar and shallows, is not generally navigable for vessels of more than 60 tons burden; and it has the further disadvantage of being low, and liable to be flooded by the overflowing of the river during the wet season. It has been proposed to facilitate the trade of the town by removing the bar at the mouth of the river, and deepening its channel; but this would be a very expensive undertaking, and one of which the success would be not a little doubtful. The excavation of a ship canal from the deep water in the bay to Melbourne has also been proposed; and it, probably, would be the preferable plan. It seems, however, most likely that the trade of the town, and even the greater part of its population, will ultimately centre at Williamstown, a village a few miles distant, on a headland extending into the bay, opposite to which all large vessels coming to Melbourne are obliged to anchor. The principal objection to Williamstown is the scarcity and bad quality of the fresh water; but this serious defect might, it is said, be obviated by sinking wells, or by conveying thither a supply of water from some of the adjacent streams.

The basin of Port Phillip, which receives the Yarra-Yarra and other rivers, is a large circular bay, or inlet of the sea, whence the colony derives its name. It has a narrow entrance, not more than 1 1/2 m. in width, partly occupied with rocks and shoals. A lighthouse has been erected near the extremity of Point Lonsdale, on the W. side of the entrance, lat. 38° 16' S., lon. 144° 40' E., and another on Point Gillibrand, near the head of the bay, between Williamstown and the mouth of the Yarra-Yarra river, lat. 37° 52' S., lon. 140° 55' E. The bay is about 40 m. in depth from S. to N., and where widest is about 40 m. from E. to W. It is said to cover an area of above 800 sq. m., and might accommodate all the navies of all the countries in the world.

The whole trade of the colony, which is already very extensive, and is increasing with extraordinary rapidity, is at present (1848) carried on from this basin. And from its advantageous situation, and its stretching so far inland, it is probable it will always continue to enjoy the largest share of the trade, though, no doubt, it will be partly also, carried on from other parts. Geelong, at the head of a deep bay on the W. side of the basin, has a considerable trade. We subjoin an

Account of the Quantities and Values of the Articles, the Produce of New South Wales, exported from the District of Port Phillip in 1846.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Wool - - -	563 tons.	£1,463	Beef and Pork	22,315 cwt.	£19,989
Hark - - -	511 gals.	88	Provisions	300 No.	21
Horses, horns and hoofs	6 tons	306	Tongues	309	13
Butter - - -	15,000 lbs.	1,570	Skins (New Cattle)	5,456	2,011
Cheese - - -	36,289 "	750	Skins (Sheep)	9,260	3,169
Candles - - -	22 tons.	806	Soap	28 tons.	1,209
Flour - - -	26 "	267	Starch	19 cases.	309
Trawls (wheat)	6,822 bush.	1,510	Tallow	2,440 cwt.	2,440
Leathers, unmanufactured	73 cwt.	249	Timber	37,211 feet.	391
Live Stock (Horned Cattle)	4,925 No.	15,121	Whalebone	57 cwt.	100
Sheep - - -	31,107 "	15,842	Wool	4,606,930 lbs.	351,441
Oil, Black	50 tons.	1,000	Steads	-	431
					£ 405,815

and produce of every de-
... pay 1 per cent, and 1
... 1 per cent, and 1 per cent
... 1 per cent, and 1 per cent
... 1 per cent, and 1 per cent

including other articles (re-exports) the total value of the exports from Puerto Rico in 1846 amounted to \$23,211,114. In 1847 the total value of the exports had increased to \$68,511,114. The increase in the value of sheep and cattle having, of late years, been much more rapid in this district than in that of Sydney, its trade has increased with comparative rapidity.

MEXICO. The following regulations introduced in the new tariff of this republic came into operation on the 1st day of February, 1846.

1. No change shall be made in the despatching of ships for foreign ports, the present regulation remaining in force.
2. All the goods which in the present tariff are specified shall continue open.
3. All goods now duty free shall enjoy the same advantage, no matter in what ships they may be imported.
4. The following articles remain strictly prohibited:—All spirits, except brandy, rum, and such others as are specified in the tariff, which may come in bottles or cases, not containing more than four pounds in each lot; starch; oilseed; sugar of all kinds; rice; raw cotton, new or cases of special license, when the duty will be specified; indigo; copper and tin ware; diamonds and jewels, according to the law of the 20th of September, 1840; sulphur; men's, women's, and children's boots and shoes; stamped buttons of all metals; coffee; wax; nails of all sizes; copper plates and studs for domestic use; tortoiseshell; epaulettes of all metals; Spanish leather; tin and tin plates; engravings and paintings and figures of an obscene kind; bristles; silk and spirits, as are made in the republic; gold and metal lace; all leather, with the exception of that used in the country; and such other articles as are used in manufactures; coarse flannel; woolen yarn except in Yucatan; cotton thread of all kinds and numbers; ditto, thread; ditto, cord; with linen; soap of all kinds; toys and children's playthings; earthenware; books and pamphlets that are prohibited by authority; molasses; butter woods of all kinds; except skins, furs, and skins, which are permitted in Yucatan and Matamoros by the law of June 5d., 1841; molasses; gold leaf; raw or false; coarse cloth; parchment; lead; powder; except the finer kinds and that used in mines; ploughshares; rascos (women's shawls) and their imitations; trade-made clothes of all kinds, including ecclesiastical costumes, with the exception of military scarfs; covered buttons of all kinds; shirts and drawers, worn of cotton, silk, or wool; shawls; slippers; gloves, stockings, pocket-handkerchiefs, hats, and breeches; common salt; saltpetre; saccharine; salow of all kinds; tobacco in all classes, which can also be imported by the tobacco administration; cotton goods, plain or fancy, brown or white, pure or mixed, not exceeding 30 threads in warp and wool in the square of one Mexican inch at each side; cotton goods, like serge, &c., pure or mixed, not exceeding 30 threads in the same square; cotton goods, plain or colored, like muslin, not exceeding 25 threads in the same square, of fast colours by fast colours is meant such as not only make water or sun, but as cannot, when faded, be mistaken for white goods; salted pork, not including sausages or sausages; wheat and all kinds of grain with the exception of maize, according to the law of the 5th of March, 1847; shoes and slippers; sarapes or blankets of all kinds.

The duties on goods not specified in the schedule shall be 20 per cent, on the declared value as at present, and the same basis will be used in calculating interim duties. Harbour and municipal duties remain the same as they now are.

All long goods mentioned in this tariff not being 1 vara in width shall pay the specified duty, and those more than a yard wide shall pay by the square vara.

Importation Duties.

	Doll. etc.
Oil or gin in bottles or jars, not exceeding four liquid pounds, including the weight of the package	16 0
Rum, arrack, ditto	18 0
Brandy, without allowance for absorption or leakage	12 0
Sweet and bitter almonds	8 0 per 100 lb.
Nutmeg in oil	10 0 per lb.
Cod or ling, dry fish	8 0 per 100 lb.
Cocoa, of Guaymas	4 0 —
Ditto, from other places	8 0 —
Cinnamon of all kinds	12 0 per lb.
Malins and all dried fruits	3 0 per 100 lb.
Pepper and common pepper	8 0 —
Vinegar	8 0 —
White wine of all kinds in casks, without allowance for leakage	6 0 —
Ditto, in bottles	8 0 —
Red wine, in casks	7 0 —
Ditto, in bottles	8 0 —
Sherry	7 0 —
White or iron wine	12 0 —
Spermaceti candles	25 0 —
Iron of all kinds in bars, round, square, or flat	11 0 —
Ditto, worked and smelted	5 0 —
Raw iron as at present	8 0 each
Ditto, made of all kinds and materials	3 0 —
Ditto, of all kinds and shapes	4 0 per 100 lb.

All articles of ironware, mechanics, and hardware, which were prohibited by the law of August 14th, 1845, can be imported, excepting those that are specially prohibited. And even those, as well as those referred to, introduced, shall be classified as much as possible, a duty being imposed on them per quantity of 100 lb. rough weight, viz. ironware per 100 lb. from \$2 dollars to 10 dollars, and necessary and hardware, from \$2 dollars to 40 dollars.

OPORTO.

The port charges, including tonnage duties, on a vessel of 500 tons, amount to about 30 dollars. Vessels sailing without a cargo pay for lights and repairs, included. All rules, in order to encourage the export trade. (Commission 21 per cent., and del credere 21 per cent.)
Pilot's Hourly rate.—These were published at Oporto in 1841. They declare that the navigation over the bar of the

	Doll. etc.
Glass, diamonds, glassware of all kinds and forms, colours, and shapes, with the exception of window-panes or weights	6 0 per 100 lb.
New and old furniture of all kinds, and goods, plain or ornamental, painted, varnished, or gilt	15 0 —
Common carriages with two wheels	25 0 each
Ditto, with four wheels	100 0 —
Cabrioles with two wheels	60 0 —
Carriages, two seats	150 0 —
Ditto, four seats, or more	300 0 —
Cochin, landais, and other carriages of two or more seats	500 0 —
Diligences and omnibuses of any number of seats	100 0 —

These duties apply to old as well as to new carriages, and are not to be admitted to pay on public roads, nor of the dimensions prescribed by law.

Curtains, linen, or hemp	0 7 per vara.
Ribbands	0 66 p.w. lb.
Flax or hemp thread	4 0 per 100 lb.
Rough hemp	80 0 —
Linen thread	3 0 —
Linen or white cloth, brown or coloured, or liver or low of like same linen	0 6 per vara.
The same not exceeding 36 threads per square and a quarter of the Mexican inch at each side	0 7 —
Ditto, of more than 36 threads	0 8 —
Ditto, printed striped	0 9 —
Ditto, white, brown, or coloured, worked or damasked	0 11 —
Ditto, coloured or worked	0 15 —
All these goods, if mixed with cotton, shall be considered as cotton only.	
Carpets and seating	0 75 per vara.
Assesores	0 75 —
Knives	0 7 per 100 lb.
First quality cloth	1 0 per vara.
Open goods, plain, white, or coloured	0 12 —
Ditto, any darning, bearded and square, of all colours	0 15 —
The same worn out, not mixed with metal or silk thread, are to pay duty as if solely of wool.	
Bills.—Blind in cases	12 0 per lb.
Blind in cases	0 0 —
Brun ditto	0 0 —
Tanned ditto	3 0 —
Woven goods of all kinds composed of silk only	3 0 —
All goods mixed with silk pay the following duties:—	
Cotton and silk	1 50 per lb.
Linen and silk	2 50 —
Wool and silk	3 0 —
Silks mixed with metal pay by valuation.	0 75 —

Woven goods, white or brown, exceeding 30 threads of warp and wool in one quarter of a Mexican square inch at each side	0 15 per vara.
Ditto, coloured and twilled, exceeding 30 threads in the same square	0 15 —
Ditto, plain or fancy, not fast colours, exceeding 30 threads in the same square	0 15 —
Ditto, white twilled, plain damask, embroidered, open work, or velvet work	0 15 —
Coloured goods, such as Marcellis, cottons, drills, and ducks, are excepted, and to pay 0 11 —	
Printed goods of fast colours, 36 threads in the square web	0 10 —
Ditto, painted	0 10 —
Networks, mixed with wool, including pocket-socks	0 50 per lb.
Men and women's stockings	1 50 per dozen.
Children's ditto	0 50 —
Plain white muslin, embroidered or open work, exceeding 30 threads in the square, warp and wool	0 18 per vara.
Muslin, lawn, and other cotton goods, open work, white or coloured, without restriction of the number of threads	0 12 —
Printed pocket handkerchiefs, fancy or square, of fast colours, 8 m 25 threads to one vara in the said square web	0 8 each.
Ditto, plain white, the latter white, or of fast colour, exceeding 30 threads per square	0 11 —
Ditto white, with embroidered corners	0 15 —
Ditto white and coloured, with open work	0 18 —
Faint or other laces, including the canal	8 0 —
All alterations has been made in the export duty on silvers, which amounts, with the circulation or inland duty, to 10 per cent.	

Plain calicos, and white plain cotton goods of all descriptions, are not released from prohibitory duties, but the reduction of duty on prints and muslins and on linen is equal to 30 per cent. Iron wire. Hardware, helves, and tools, can now be introduced at a reasonable duty.

Duties must be conducted by pilots regularly appointed, and their number shall be nineteen of the first and second class, and twelve supernumerary pilots.
The outward and inward pilotage of every vessel over the bar to be confined to the nineteen pilots of the first and second class; the pilotage in the river by the supernumerary pilots. Pilots are prohibited to stipulate for the sum to be received

each of the 10 Years

Tons.	Cvts.	Qrs.
16,564	7	3
15,321	8	1
16,541	10	3
22,203	18	2
21,529	9	3

port Phillip in August 9 days of long-tow'n is situated on windings) from its 30° E. Pop. (1846) length by 1 do. in for the river, being vessels of more than w, and liable to be has been proposed th of the river, and taking, and one of of a ship canal from ; and it, probably, at the trade of the centre at Williams- bay, opposite to ner. The principal fresh water; but this by conveying hither

is a large circular bay, ice, not more than 18 m. near the extremity of, and another on Point of the Yarra-Yarra river, N., and where widest is might accommodate all

using with extraordinary outrageous situat- n, and the largest share of the steeling, at the head of

Wales, exported from

Quantities.	Value.
22,215 cwt.	415,490
300 —	21
8,458 —	13
9,240 —	1,071
59 tons.	814
10 cases.	3,109
2,840 cwt.	30
37,511 cwt.	391
406,950 lbs.	190
	351,441
	431
	\$ 409,813

when they board vessels in distress, and are bound to give immediate assistance, under pain, in case of the slightest delay, of suspension from their functions; or, in case of misconduct, to incur severe punishment.

"The pilots are obliged to reside at St. José de Fios; and all vessels, except small craft, are bound to take over the last a supernumerary pilot.

When a supernumerary pilot is on board a vessel exercising his functions, and cannot be taken into port, he must remain on board such vessel; the master or owner of which to pay him the whole of his day, and a ration per day, until he is landed at Oporto. In case of illness, the Portuguese consuls are required to make the foreign master fulfil the above regulation.

The distance rates for the entrance and departure of vessels, in ordinary cases, are fixed as follows:—

	Rate.	Dolls.	Cts.
Small craft	-	-	0 50
Fishing boats	-	-	1 50
Steam vessels	-	2 50	3 75
Sloops	-	4 00	4 50
Three-masted schooners and brig	-	4 00	4 50
Also to each pilot boat (including the crew)	-	4 00	3 75
To each supernumerary pilot boat	-	1 50	1 50
To each pilot, per day, outside the bar	-	1 00	0 50

The gratification to pilots is optional. The remuneration

due, in extraordinary cases, to pilot boats outside the bar, is to be rated in accordance to the difficulty of the pilotage and the danger incurred.

The pilot, first, and, in his absence, the second, will be charged to hold council with the others as to the possibility of the entrance or suspension of the vessel, and decide by the majority of voices. A pilot who, in the execution of his duties, does not conform to such decision, will immediately be suspended from his functions, and be liable for all indemnifications, and subject also to corporal punishment.

When an accident happens on account of a pilot refusing to conform to the above results, the pilot cannot demand, for his defence, the opinion of the vessel, and proceed to suspend vessels to the free exercise of his functions, except this disposition was manifested with violence; in which case, the pilot must immediately protest, so as to cover his responsibility.

The first pilot is bound to sound the bell at least every seven days, and to make known the result to the intendancy of the marine, as well as any change that may take place in the river.

Any pilot leaving a vessel, in consequence either of illness or incapacity, will be punished according to the full extent of the law. Every pilot is bound to have by him the regulations of signals appropriated for the service of the Douro.

PASSENGERS.—The following important statute, enacted in 1849, extends to all vessels conveying passengers to any place out of Europe, except H. M.'s ships of war, ships of war in the service the E. I. Company, and H. M.'s mail steamers:—

ACT OF 1849, THE 12 & 13 VICT. c. 33., FOR REGULATING THE CARRIAGE OF PASSENGERS IN MERCHANT VESSELS.

From and after 1st of October, 1849, certain Acts repealed.—The existing laws relating to the carriage of passengers by sea, viz. the 5 & 6 Vict. c. 107.; 8 & 9 Vict. c. 14.; 10 & 11 Vict. c. 108.; 11 & 12 Vict. c. 8.; shall from and after the 1st of October, 1849, be severally repealed, and from that date this act shall take effect and have the force of law: provided nevertheless, that all acts and provisions repealed by the said recited acts or any of them shall remain repealed; and provided also, that any fine, forfeiture, or penalty to which any person may have become liable under the said recited acts shall and may be sued for and recovered, and that any right of action which may have accrued to any person by virtue of the said recited acts, and that any bond which may have been given thereunder to H. M. may be enforced in such and the same manner in all respects as if this present act had not been passed; provided also, that nothing in this act shall be held to invalidate any order in council made by H. M. in council, in pursuance of the powers given by the last-recited act, but the same shall remain in force until altered or revoked by any order in council made under the provisions of this act.—§ 1.

Clause 2. enacts that this act shall be called "Passengers Act, 1849."

Clause 3. defines the terms used in the act.

To what Vessels and Voyages this Act shall extend.—This act shall extend to every "passenger ship" proceeding on any voyage from the U. K. to any place out of Europe, and not being within the Mediterranean Sea, and on every colonial voyage as herein-after described, but shall not extend to any of H. M.'s ships of war, nor to any ships in the service of the Lords of the Admiralty, nor to any ship of war or transport in the service of the E. I. Company, nor to any steam-vessel carrying the royal mails or carrying mails under contract with the government of the country to which such steam-vessel may belong.—§ 4.

Clause 5. enacts that the Commissioners of Emigration shall carry this act into execution.

Clause 6. directs all emigration officers and assistants to act under the Commissioners.

Clause 7. enacts that the duties of emigration officer may be performed by his assistant, or officer of customs in certain cases.

Clause 8. enacts that facilities be given to the proper officers for the inspection of all ships fitting for passengers.

Clause 9. enacts that no "passenger ship" be cleared out without a certificate from the emigration officer first obtained.

Number of Passengers to be limited both by Tonnage and Space.—No ship shall be allowed to clear out or shall proceed on her voyage with a greater number of persons on board (including the master and crew, and cabin passengers, if any) than in the proportion of one person to every 2 tons of the registered tonnage of such ship, nor whatever may be the registered tonnage of such ship, with a greater number of passengers on board, exclusive of *bona fide* cabin passengers, than in the following proportions to the space occupied by such passengers and appropriated for their use, and unoccupied by stores, not being their personal luggage; (that is to say,) on the main deck, and on the deck immediately below the same, or in any compartment of either, appropriated as aforesaid, one passenger for every 12 such clear superficial feet; or if such ship is destined to pass within the tropics, and the duration of the intended voyage, computed as after-mentioned, exceeds 12 weeks, one passenger for every 15 clear superficial feet: provided always, that no passenger shall in any case be carried on an orlop deck; and if there shall be on board of any ship at or after the time of clearance a greater number either of persons or of passengers than in the proportions respectively before mentioned, the master of such ship shall be liable, on conviction, to the payment of a penalty not exceeding 5*l.* nor less than 2*l.* sterling for each person or passenger constituting any such excess.—§ 10.

Computation of Children.—For the purposes of this act 2 children, each being under the age of 14 years, shall be computed either as one person or as one passenger, as the case may require, except in the case after mentioned, but children under the age of 1 year shall not be included in such computation.—§ 11.

Two Lists of Passengers to be made out.—The master of every ship, whether a "passenger ship" or otherwise, carrying passengers on any voyage to which this act extends, shall, before demanding a clearance for such ship, sign two lists, made out according to the form contained in schedule (A), hereto annexed, setting forth in the manner therein directed the name and other particulars of the ship, and of every passenger on board thereof; and the said lists, when signed, shall be delivered to the officer of the customs from whom a clearance of the said ship shall be demanded, and such officer shall thereupon countersign and return to the said master one of such lists, to be called "the master's list," and the said master shall exhibit such list, with any additions which may from time to time be made thereto, as herein directed, to the chief officer of H. M.'s customs at any port or place in H. M.'s possessions, or to H. M.'s consul at any foreign port at which the said passengers or any of them shall be landed, and shall deposit the same with such chief officer of customs, or such consul, at the final port or place of discharge.

Lists of additional Passengers taken on board after Clearance.—If at any time after such lists shall have been signed and delivered as aforesaid there shall be taken on board any additional passenger, in every such case the master shall, according to the form aforesaid, add to "the master's list" the names and other particulars of every such additional passenger, and shall also sign a separate list, made out according to the form aforesaid, containing the names and other particulars of every such additional passenger; and such last-mentioned list, when signed, shall, together with "the master's list" to which such addi-

the boats outside the bar, in the capacity of the pilotage and the...
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 ed for the service of the Home...

1849, extends to all
 H. M.'s ships of war,
 steamers:—
PASSENGERS IN MERCHANT

relating to the carriage
 et. c. 103, § 11 & 12, &c.
 from that date this act
 and provisions repealed
 that any fine, forfeiture,
 and such other penalties
 to any person who is
 under to H. M., may be
 not been passed; pro-
 nounced made by H. M. in
 shall remain in force until
 4.—§ 11.

Every "passenger ship"
 being within the Medi-
 shall not extend to any
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will be allowed to clear out
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 persons or of passengers
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 each person or passenger

under the age of 14 years,
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 such computation.—§ 11.
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 ter's list" the names and
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 such additional passenger;
 list" to which such addi-

tion shall have been made, be delivered to the chief officer of customs as aforesaid, and thereupon such officer shall count and sign "the master's list," and shall return the same to the said master, and shall retain the separate list; and so on in like manner whenever any additional passenger or passengers may be taken on board; or if no officer of customs shall be stationed at the port or place where such additional passenger or passengers may be taken on board, the said lists shall be delivered to the officer of customs at the next port or place at which such vessel shall touch or arrive, and where any such officer shall be stationed, to be dealt with as before mentioned.—§ 12.

All Passenger Ships to be surveyed.—No "passenger ship" shall be allowed to clear out or proceed on her voyage unless she have been surveyed, under the direction of the emigration officer at the port of clearance, but at the expense of the owner or charterer thereof, by one or more competent surveyors, to be duly authorised and approved of by the said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners for each port at which there may be an emigration officer, and for other ports by the Commissioners of Customs, nor unless it be reported by the same, or by some other authorised surveyor, that such "passenger ship" is in their opinion seaworthy, and fit in all respects for her intended voyage; provided always, that the precautions for ascertaining the seaworthiness of ships and their fitness for their intended voyages respectively shall be the same for foreign as for British ships.—§ 14.

Construction of Decks and Berths in "Passenger Ships".—In every "passenger ship" every deck on which passengers may be carried shall be at least 1½ in. in thickness, and shall be supported by beams of adequate strength, forming part of the permanent structure of the ship, and firmly secured with hanging and lodging knees, and shall be properly laid upon such beams, or substantially secured thereto, at least 2 in. clear above the bottom thereof, to the satisfaction of the emigration officer at the port of clearance; and that between every such deck and the deck immediately above it there shall be a height of at least 6 ft.; and further that there shall not be more than two tiers of berths on any one deck in any such "passenger ship," and that the interval between the floor of the berths and the deck or platform immediately beneath them shall not be less than 6 in., and that the berths shall be securely constructed, and of dimension not less than 4 ft. in length and 18 in. in width for each passenger; and that persons of different sexes above the age of 14, unless husband and wife, shall not be placed in the same berth; and that no berths occupied by passengers during the voyage shall be taken down until 44 hours after the arrival of such ship at the port of final discharge, unless all the passengers shall have voluntarily quitted the ship before the expiration of that time.—§ 15.

Light and Ventilation.—For the purpose of ensuring a proper supply of light and air in every "passenger ship," the passengers shall at all times during the voyage (weather permitting) have free access to and from the between decks by the whole of each hatchway situate over the space appropriated to the use of such passengers; provided always, that if the main hatchway be not one of the hatchways appropriated to the use of the passengers, or if the natural supply of light and air through the same in any manner unduly obstructed, it shall be lawful for the emigration officer at the port of clearance to direct such other provision to be made for affording light and air to the between decks as the circumstances of the case may, in the judgment of such officer, appear to require; and in case of noncompliance with any such directions the owner, charterer, or master of such ship shall be liable, on such conviction as hereinafter is mentioned, to pay a penalty not exceeding 50*l.*, nor less than 20*l.*; provided also, that no "passenger ship" having on board as many as 100 passengers shall clear out or proceed on her voyage without having on board an adequate and proper ventilating apparatus, to be approved by the emigration officer at the port of clearance, and fitted to his satisfaction.—§ 16.

Passenger Ships shall carry Boats.—Every "passenger ship" shall carry a number of boats according to the following scale:—
 Two boats for every ship of 100 tons, and upwards;
 Three boats for every ship of 400 tons and upwards, in case the number of passengers shall exceed 50;
 Four boats for every ship of 500 tons and upwards, in case the number of passengers shall exceed 90;

Provided always, that one of such boats shall in all cases be a long boat, and one shall be a properly fitted life boat, and that each of such boats shall be a suitable one, to be approved by the emigration officer at the port of clearance, and shall be seaworthy, and properly supplied with all requisites for use; provided also, that there shall likewise be on board two properly fitted life buoys, kept ready at all times for immediate use.—§ 17.

Clause 18, enacts that no "passenger ship" be cleared out until properly manned.
 Certain Articles prohibited as Cargo.—No "passenger ship" shall clear out or proceed on her voyage if there shall be on board as cargo any gunpowder, vitriol, gun, green hides, or any other article likely to endanger the safety of the ship or the health or lives of the passengers, or if any part of the cargo be on deck.—§ 19.

Computation of Voyages.—For the purposes of this act the following shall be the number of weeks deemed to be necessary for the voyage of any ship carrying passengers from the U. K., to the under-mentioned places respectively:—

- To N. America, except the W. coast thereof, 10 weeks;
- To the W. Indies, 10 weeks;
- To any part of the E. coast of the continent of Central or S. America, northward of the 50° S. L., except British Guiana, 12 weeks;
- To the W. coast of Africa, 12 weeks;
- To the Cape of Good Hope, or the Falkland Islands, or to any part of the E. coast of S. America, S. of 50° S. L., 15 weeks;
- To the Mauritius, and to the W. coast of America, S. of the equator, 15 weeks;
- To Ceylon, 20 weeks;
- To W. Australia, 20 weeks;
- To any other of the Australian colonies, 22 weeks;
- To New Zealand, and to the W. coast of America N. of the equator, 24 weeks;

Provided nevertheless, that for the like purposes it shall be lawful for the said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, by any notice in writing issued under their hands of any two of such commissioners, and published in the London Gazette, to declare what shall be deemed to be the length of the voyage from the U. K. to any of the said above-mentioned places, or to any other port or place, anything herein contained to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 20.

Provisions and Water to be provided by Owners or Charterers, &c.—No "passenger ship" shall be allowed to clear out or proceed on her voyage until there be supplied, by and at the expense of the owner or charterer thereof, and properly stowed away on board under hatches for the use of the passengers during the voyage, pure water, and wholesome provisions in a sweet and good condition, of a quality to be approved by the emigration officer, and in quantities sufficient to afford the allowances to each passenger as hereinafter prescribed; and if any person shall fraudulently obtain a clearance for any "passenger ship" which shall not be then stored with the requisite quantities of such water and provisions as aforesaid, he shall be liable, on conviction, to the payment of a penalty not exceeding 100*l.*, nor less than 50*l.*—§ 21.

Water Tanks or Casks.—In every "passenger ship" the water to be laden on board, as herein required, shall be carried in tanks or casks to be approved by the emigration officer at the port of clearance; provided always, that such casks shall be sweet and tight, of sufficient strength, and properly charred inside, and shall not be made of fir or soft wood staves, nor be capable severally of containing more than 300 gall. each.—§ 22.

Provisions and Water to be surveyed before clearing out.—Before any "passenger ship" be cleared out the emigration officer at the port of clearance may, if so directed by any two of some competent person the provisions and water required to be placed on board for the consumption of the passengers, and shall ascertain that the same are of good quality and in a sweet and good condition, and shall also ascertain, that over and above the same there is on board an ample supply of water and stores for the victualling of the crew of the ship and all other persons, if any, on board; provided nevertheless, that if

any "passenger ship" be destined to call at any intermediate port or place during the voyage for the purpose of taking in water, and if an engagement to that effect be inserted in the bond herein-after mentioned, then it shall be sufficient to place on board at the port of clearance such supply of water as may be requisite, according to the rate herein mentioned for the voyage of the said ship to such intermediate port or place, subject to the following conditions: viz.

1st. That the emigration officer signify his approval in writing of the arrangement, to be certified amongst the papers of the ship, and exhibited to the chief officer of customs or to H. M.'s consul, at such intermediate port or place, and to be delivered to the chief officer of customs, or to H. M.'s consul, on the arrival of the said ship at the final port or place of discharge;

2dly. That if the length of either portion of the voyage, whether to such intermediate port or place or from such in-

termediate port or place to the final port or place of discharge, be not prescribed under the provisions of this act, the emigration officer at the port of clearance shall in such cases declare the same;

3dly. That the ship shall have on board, at the time of clearance, so many barrels, tunks or water casks, of the description hereinafter mentioned, sufficient for stowing the quantity of water required for the longest of such portions of the voyage as aforesaid.

Dietary Scale for the Voyage.—In addition to and irrespective of any provisions of their own which any passengers may have on board, the master of every "passenger ship" shall make to each passenger during the voyage, including the time of detention, if any, at any port or place before the termination of such voyage, the following issues of pure water and sweet and wholesome provisions: viz. of water at least 3 quarts daily, and of provisions after the rate per week of 24 lbs. of bread or biscuit, not inferior in quality to what is usually called navy biscuit, 1 lb. of wheaten flour, 5 lbs. of oatmeal, 3 lbs. of rice, 3 na. of tea, 1 lb. of sugar, and 1 lb. of molasses: provided always, that such issues of provisions shall be made in advance, and not less often than twice a week, the first of such issues to be made on the day of embarkation: provided also, that potatoes and good and sound, may be substituted for either the oatmeal or rice, in the proportion of 5 lbs. of potatoes to 1 lb. of oatmeal or rice; and that in ships clearing out from the port of Liverpool, or from Irish or Scotch ports, oatmeal may be substituted in equal quantities for the whole or any part of the issues of rice.—§ 24.

Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners empowered, &c.—It shall be lawful for the said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners (or either of them) from time to time, by writing under the public seal, to be issued under the hands of two of such Commissioners, and published in the "London Gazette," to substitute for any of the articles of food above mentioned, any other articles of food, as to the said Commissioners shall seem meet, and any such notice from time to time to alter, amend, or revoke, as occasion may require: provided always, that all the requirements and provisions in this act contained respecting the articles of food herein-before mentioned shall extend and are hereby extended to the case of such substituted articles.—§ 25.

Cook and Cooking Apparatus to be approved by Emigration Officer.—No "passenger ship" carrying as many as 100 passengers shall clear out or proceed on her voyage unless there be on board a seafaring person who shall be rated in the ship's articles as passengers' cook, to be approved by the emigration officer at the port of clearance, and engaged for the purpose of cooking the food of the passengers; nor unless a convenient place for that purpose shall have been set apart on deck, and a sufficient cooking apparatus, properly covered in and arranged, shall have been provided to the satisfaction of the said emigration officer, together with a proper supply of fuel adequate in his opinion for the intended voyage.—§ 26.

No ship carrying a certain Number of Passengers to proceed on her Voyage without a Medical Practitioner on board.—It shall not be lawful for any "passenger ship" having on board as many as 50 persons, if the length of the intended voyage, computed as before mentioned, shall exceed 12 weeks, nor, whatever may be the computed duration of the voyage, for any "passenger ship" having on board as many as 100 persons, except she be bound to N. America, (including in both cases the master and crew, and cabin passengers, if any,) to clear out or proceed on her voyage, unless there be on board, and rated on the ship's articles, some person duly authorized by law to practise in the U. K. as physician, surgeon, or apothecary, and whose name shall have been notified to the emigration officer at the port of clearance and not objected to by him; and further, that no "passenger ship" bound to N. America having on board as many as 100 persons, exclusive of the master and crew, and cabin passengers, if any, shall clear out or proceed on her voyage, unless there be on board, and rated on the ship's articles, some person duly authorized medical practitioners, whose name shall have been notified to the emigration officer at the port of clearance, and not objected to by him; provided nevertheless, that if in any ship bound to N. America there be appropriated on every deck on which passengers may lawfully be carried instead of 12 clear superficial feet as herein-before required, 14 clear superficial feet unoccupied by stores out being the personal luggage of the passengers, for each passenger on board, counting for this purpose each child above the age of one year as one passenger, then and in such case, but not otherwise, it shall be lawful for such ship to clear out and proceed to sea without having on board a medical practitioner as aforesaid.—§ 27.

As to Supply of Medicines.—In every "passenger ship" there shall be furnished and laden on board, at the expense of the owner or charterer thereof, a medicine chest containing a supply of medicines, instruments, and other things proper and necessary for diseases and accidents incident to sea voyages, and for the medical treatment of the passengers during the voyage, including an adequate supply of disinfecting fluid or agent, together with printed or written directions for the use of the same respectively; and that such medicines and other things shall be good in quality, and, in the judgment of the emigration officer at the port of clearance, sufficient in quantity for the probable exigencies of the intended voyage, and shall be placed under the charge of the surgeon, when there is one on board, to be used at his discretion.—§ 28.

Medical Inspection of Passengers and Medicines.—Except as herein-after provided, no "passenger ship" shall clear out or proceed on her voyage until some medical practitioner, to be appointed by the emigration officer at the port of clearance, have inspected the medicine chest of the said ship, and also all the passengers about to proceed in her, and shall certify to the said emigration officer that the said ship contains a sufficient supply of medicines, disinfecting fluid or agent, instruments, and other things requisite for the medical treatment of the passengers during the intended voyage, and that none of the passengers appear to such medical practitioner likely, by reason of being affected by any infectious or other disease, to endanger the health of the other persons about to proceed in such voyage: provided always, that such medical inspection of the passengers shall take place either on board the vessel, or, at the discretion of the said emigration officer, at such convenient place on shore before embarkation as he may appoint; and that the master, owner, or charterer of the ship shall pay to such emigration officer, on account of such medical examination, a sum at the rate of 20s. for every 100 persons examined: provided also, that in case on any particular occasion the emigration officer shall be unable to obtain the attendance of such medical practitioner, it shall be lawful for the master of any such ship to clear out and proceed on her voyage, on receiving from the said emigration officer written permission for the purpose.—§ 29.

Diseased Passengers may be relanded.—In case any such medical practitioner shall notify to the emigration officer at the original port of clearance, or at any other port or place in the U. K., into which the vessel may subsequently put, or in case the said emigration officer shall be otherwise satisfied, that any person about to proceed in any such "passenger ship" as aforesaid is likely, by reason of being affected by any infectious or other disease, to endanger the health of the other persons on board, it shall be lawful for such officer to reland or cause to be relanded any such person, and such member of his family, if any, as may be dependent on him, or as may be unwilling to be separated from him, together with their clothes and effects; and no "passenger ship" shall clear out or proceed on her voyage so long as any such diseased person shall be on board.—§ 30.

Passengers so retained may recover Passage Money.—Any person being a passenger who shall be so retained, or any emigration officer on his behalf, shall be entitled to recover, by summary process, in manner herein provided, the whole of the money which has been paid by such person or on his account for his passage in such "passenger ship," from the party to whom the same may have been paid, or from the owner, charterer, or master of such ship.—§ 31.

Return of Passage Money and Compensation to Passengers.—If any passenger, or person acting on his behalf, shall have contracted with the owner, charterer, or master of any ship, whether a "passenger ship" or otherwise, or with any person acting on behalf of such owner, charterer, or master, for a passage for such passenger, or for him and his family, in any ship proceeding on any voyage to which this act extends, and such passenger, or such passenger and his family, shall be at the place of embarkation at the time appointed for that purpose in and by such contract, and such passenger shall apply for such passage, and shall, on demand, pay or tender such part of the passage money not already paid as shall be payable under such contract previously to embarkation, and if, owing to the previous departure of the ship in which such passage shall have been engaged, or to the want of room therein, or to the neglect, refusal, or other default of the owner, charterer, or master thereof, or of the party with whom such passage shall have been contracted for, such passenger shall not obtain a passage in such ship, or shall not, together with all the immediate members of his family who may have contracted for a passage as aforesaid, obtain, within 48 hours from the expiration of the day named in such contract, a passage in some other equally eligible ship to the same port, and in the meantime be paid subsistence money, at the rate herein-after mentioned, such passenger shall be entitled to recover, in manner herein-after provided, all monies which shall have been paid by or on his account for such passage, from the party to whom the same may have been paid, or to pay such monies, as shall, in the opinion of the Justices of the Peace who shall adjudicate on the complaint, be a reasonable compensation for the loss or inconvenience occasioned to such passenger or his family by the loss of such passage.—§ 32.

Subsistence in case of Detention.—If any ship, whether a "passenger ship" or otherwise, shall not actually put to sea and proceed on her intended voyage on the day appointed for such purpose in and by contract made by the owner, charterer, or master of such ship, or by his or their agent, with any passenger who shall on that day be on board the same, or ready to go on board and proceed on such intended voyage, then in every such case the owner, charterer, or master of such ship, or his or their agent shall pay to every such passenger, or if no passenger shall be lodged and maintained in any establishment under the superintendence of the said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, then to the emigration officer at the port of embarkation, subsistence money after the rate of 1s. for each passenger in respect of each day of delay, until the actual clearing out and final departure of such ship on such voyage, and the same may be recovered in manner herein-after mentioned: provided always, that if any such ship be unavoidably delayed, either by wind or weather, and the passengers be maintained on board in the same manner as if the voyage had commenced, no such subsistence money shall be payable.—§ 33.

In case of Wreck, &c. Passengers to be provided with a Passage by some other Vessel.—In case any "passenger ship" be wrecked or otherwise destroyed, or shall by any other cause whatsoever be prevented from proceeding on her intended voyage, or passengers on board thereof may have respectively contracted to land, or in case such ship shall put into any port or place in a damaged state, and shall not, within a reasonable time, according to the circumstances of each case, but not exceeding 6 weeks in any case, be ready to proceed with her passengers on her intended voyage, after having been first efficiently repaired, and in all respects put into a sound and seaworthy condition, then and in any of such cases such passengers respectively shall be entitled to recover, by summary process, the same sum as if they had respectively contracted to land, at which they respectively may have originally contracted to land; and in default thereof such passengers respectively, or any emigration officer on their behalf, shall be entitled to recover, by summary process, as herein-after mentioned, all monies which shall have been paid by or on account of such passengers or any of them for such passage, from the party to whom the same may have been paid, or from the owner, charterer, or master of such ship, and also such further sum, not exceeding 5l. for each passenger, as shall, in the opinion of the Justices of the Peace who shall adjudicate on the complaint be a reasonable compensation for any loss or inconvenience occasioned to any such passenger, or his or her family, by reason of the loss of such passage: provided always that no policy of assurance effected in respect of such passenger, or of such passage and compensation monies, by any person hereby made liable in the events aforesaid to provide such passenger, or to pay such monies, shall be deemed to be invalid by reason of the nature of the risk or interest sought to be covered by such policy of assurance.—§ 34.

Irregularly landing Passengers.—The master of any ship, whether "passenger ship" or otherwise, shall not land or cause to be landed any passenger, without his previous consent, at any port or place other than the port or place at which such passenger may have contracted to land.—§ 35.

Clause 36, enacts that passengers are to be maintained for 48 hours after arrival.

Clause 37, reserves to passengers all right of action.

Ships putting back to replenish Provisions, &c.—If any "passenger ship" shall, after having obtained her clearance, be detained in port for more than 7 days, or shall, after having been to sea, put into or touch at any port or place in the U. K., it shall not be lawful for any such "passenger ship" to proceed on her voyage until there shall have been laden on board, at the expense of the owner, charterer, or master of such ship, such further supply of pure water, wholesome provisions of the requisite kinds and quantities, and medicinal stores, as may be necessary to make up the full quantities of those articles herein before required for the use of the passengers during the whole of the intended voyage, nor until the master of the said ship shall have obtained from the emigration officer or his assistant, or, where there is no such officer, or in his absence, from the officer of customs at such port or place, a certificate to the same effect as the certificate herein before required to enable the ship to be cleared out: and in case of any default herein the said master shall be liable, on conviction, as herein-after mentioned, to the payment of a penalty not exceeding 100l. nor less than 50l.; and further, if the master of any "passenger ship" so putting into or touching at any port or place as aforesaid shall not within 94 hours thereafter reappear at his arrival, and the cause of his putting back, and the condition of his ship and of her stores and provisions, to the emigration officer, or, as the case may be, to the officer of customs at the port, and shall not produce to such officer the official or "master's list" of passengers, such master shall for each offence be liable to the payment of a penalty not exceeding 10l. nor less than 2l.—§ 38.

H. M. ship takes Order in Council, &c.—It shall be lawful for H. M. and her successors, by any order in Council, to prescribe such rules and regulations as to H. M. or her successors may seem fit, for preserving order, and for securing cleanliness and ventilation, on board of "passenger ships" proceeding from the U. K. to any port or place in H. M.'s possessions abroad, and the said rules and regulations from time to time in like manner to alter, amend, and revoke, as occasion may require: and that any copy of such order in Council contained in the "London Gazette," or purporting to be printed by the Queen's printer, shall throughout H. M.'s dominions be received in all legal proceedings as good and sufficient evidence of the making and contents of any such order in Council.—§ 39. (For Order in Council, see post.)

Surgeon or Master to exact Obedience to Rules and Regulations.—In every such "passenger ship" it shall be lawful for the medical practitioner on board, aided and assisted by the master thereof, or in the absence of such medical practitioner, for the master of such ship, to exact obedience to any such rules and regulations as aforesaid, and any person on board who shall neglect or refuse to obey any such rule or regulation, or who shall obstruct the medical practitioner or master of such ship in the execution of any duty imposed upon him by any such rule or regulation, shall be liable for each offence to the payment

of a penalty not exceeding 2*l.*; and it shall be lawful for any two justices of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions before whom any person shall be convicted of such obstruction as aforesaid to order such person, in addition to the penalty herein-before mentioned, to be confined in the common goal for any period not exceeding one month.—§ 40.

Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners to prepare an Abstract of Act and Orders in Council.—The said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners shall from time to time prepare such abstracts as they may think proper of the whole or part of this act, and of any such order in council as aforesaid; and 5 copies of the said abstracts, together with 3 copies of this act, shall, on demand, be delivered by the principal officer of customs at the port of clearance to the master of every "passenger ship" proceeding from the U. K. to any port or place in H. M.'s possessions abroad; and such master shall, on request made to him, produce one copy of the act to any passenger on board, for his perusal, and, further, shall post, previous to the embarkation of the passengers, and shall keep posted so long as any passenger shall be entitled to remain in the ship, in at least 2 conspicuous places between the decks, in which passengers may be carried, copies of such abstracts; and such master shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40*s.* for every day during any part of which by his act or default such abstracts shall fail to be so posted; and any person displacing or defacing such abstracts so posted shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40*s.*—§ 41.

Sale of Spirits prohibited.—It shall not be lawful, in any "passenger ship," to sell to any passenger during the voyage any spirits or strong waters; and if any person shall during the voyage, directly or indirectly, sell or cause to be sold any spirits or strong waters to any such passenger, he shall be liable for every such offence to the payment of a penalty not exceeding 20*l.* nor less than 5*l.*—§ 42.

Clause 43. orders that the owners or charterers of all "passenger ships" shall give bond for the performance of the requirements of the act and of any order in council, and also for payment of the dues.

Clause 44. enacts that no person act as a passage broker in respect of passengers to N. America without a licence.

Clause 45. directs how passage brokers' licences may be obtained.

Clause 46. enacts that licences taken out in pursuance of act 5 & 6 Vict. c. 107., unless forfeited, to continue in force until 1st February 1850.

Contract Tickets to be given in respect of Passages to N. America.—If any owner, charterer, or master of a ship, or any passage broker or passage dealer, agent, or other person, shall receive any money from any person for or in respect of a passage or intended passage from the U. K. to any port or place in N. America, the person receiving such money shall give to the party from whom the same shall have been received a contract ticket in plain and legible characters, and made out upon a printed form, which shall be in all respects according to the form in the Schedule (H.) hereto annexed, or according to such other form as may from time to time be prescribed by the said Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, by any notice issued under their hands and published in the "London Gazette," and shall also comply with all the directions contained on the face of such form, and in default thereof shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 10*l.* nor less than 5*l.*, in respect of each passenger on account of whose passage such money shall have been received, to be sued for and recovered as herein-after is mentioned; provided always, that such contract ticket shall not be liable to any stamp duty.—§ 47.

Penalty for inducing any one to part with Contract Ticket.—Any owner, charterer, or master of a ship, or any passage broker or other person, who shall fraudulently alter or cause to be altered, after it is once issued, or shall induce any person to part with, render useless, or destroy, any such contract ticket as aforesaid, during the continuance of the contract which it is intended to evidence, shall be liable in each case to a penalty not exceeding 5*l.* nor less than 2*l.* to be recovered as herein-after mentioned.—§ 48.

Clause 49.—59. relates to the imposition and recovery of penalties.

Colonial Voyages defined.—For the purposes of this act the term "colonial voyage" shall signify any voyage from any port or place within any of such possessions (except the territories under the government of the E. I. Company) to any other port or place whatever, of which the duration, computed as herein-after mentioned, shall exceed 3 days.—§ 60.

Extension of the Act to Colonial Voyages.—Except as herein-after excepted, the provisions of this act shall apply, so far as they are applicable, to all ships carrying passengers on any "colonial voyage;" provided always, that as to ships carrying passengers on any "colonial voyage," the provisions of this act shall not extend or apply so far as they relate exclusively to passages from the U. K. to N. America, and so far as they relate to the following matters; (namely,)

The giving of a bond to Her Majesty;

The keeping on board copies of the act, and abstracts of any order in council;

The return of passage money, and compensation in case the

party cannot be forwarded by the appointed ship, or in case of wreck;

The payment of subsistence money in case of detention;

Provided also, that as to ships carrying passengers on any "colonial voyage," whereof the duration computed in the manner herein-after mentioned shall be less than 3 weeks, in addition to the matters lastly herein-before excepted, the provisions of this act shall not extend or apply so far as they relate to the following subjects; (namely,)

The construction or thickness of the decks

The berths;

The height between decks;

Light and ventilation;

Manning;

Passengers' cook and cooking apparatus;

The surgeon and medicine chest;

The maintenance of passengers for 48 hours after arrival;

Provided also, that in the case of such last-mentioned voyage, whereof the computed duration is less than 3 weeks, the requirements of this act respecting the issue of provisions shall not, except as to the issue of water, be applicable to any passenger who may have contracted to furnish his own provisions.—§ 61.

Governor of Colonies may by Proclamation, &c.—It shall be lawful for the governor of any of H. M.'s possessions abroad, by any proclamation to be by him issued for that purpose, to declare the rule of computation by which the length of the voyage of any ship carrying passengers from such possession to any other place shall be computed for the purposes of this act, and to substitute for the articles of food and provisions specified in this act such other articles of food and provisions as shall be a full equivalent for the same, and also to declare what medicines, medical instruments, and other matters shall be deemed necessary for the medical treatment of the passengers during such "colonial voyage;" Provided always, that every such proclamation be transmitted by the governor by whom the same may have been issued to H. M. for H. M.'s confirmation or disallowance: Provided also, that on the production in any other of H. M.'s possessions abroad of an attested copy of any such proclamation under the hand of the governor of the colony wherein the same may have been issued, and under the public seal of such colony, such attested copy shall, in the colony wherein the same shall be so produced, be received as good and sufficient evidence of the issuing and of the contents of any such proclamation.—§ 62.

Provisions for Survey of Ships in the Colonies, &c.—It shall be lawful for the governors of any such possessions respectively to authorise such person or persons as they may think fit to make the like survey and examination of "passenger ships" sailing from such possessions respectively as it herein-before required to be made by two or more competent surveyors in respect of "passenger ships" sailing from the U. K., and also to authorise any competent person to act as medical practitioner on board any "passenger ship" proceeding on "colonial voyage;" in those cases where a medical practitioner would be required by this act if the ship were a "passenger ship" proceeding from the U. K.—§ 63.

Power to the Governor-General of India in Council to adopt this Act.—Nothing herein-before contained shall apply to any of the territories or places under the government of the E. I. Company, or to any of the governors appointed by the said Company, nor shall any thing herein-before contained affect the

19. No loose hay or straw shall be allowed below for any purpose.

20. No smoking shall be allowed between decks.

21. All gambling, fighting, riotous or quarrelsome behaviour, swearing, and violent language, shall be at once put a stop to. Swords and other offensive weapons shall, as soon as the passengers embark, be placed in the custody of some master or mate.

22. No sailors shall be allowed to remain on the passenger-deck, among the passengers, except on duty.

23. No passenger shall go to the ship's cook-house without special permission from the master, nor remain in the fore-cabin among the sailors on any account.

24. In vessels not expressly required by the said "Passengers Act, 1849," to have on board such ventilating apparatus as therein mentioned, such other provision shall be made for ventilation as shall be required by the emigration officer, at the port of embarkation, or in his absence by the officer of customs.

25. And to prevent all doubts in the construction of this Order in Council, it is hereby further ordered that the terms "United Kingdom" and "passenger ship," shall herein have the same significations as are assigned to them respectively in the said "Passengers Act, 1849."

And the Right Hon. Earl Grey, one of H. M.'s principal secretaries of state, is to give the necessary directions herein accordingly.
Wm. L. BARNARD.

Account of the Emigration from the United Kingdom, during the Twenty-four Years from 1835 to 1858 inclusive, specifying the Countries to which the Emigrants have gone, and the Numbers that sailed for each Country.

Years.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Australian Colonies and New Zealand.	All other Places.	Total.
1835	8,741	5,551	485	114	14,891
1836	19,718	14,598	803	116	35,235
1837	19,648	14,598	715	114	35,075
1838	19,648	14,598	1,056	103	35,405
1839	15,707	10,716	2,116	157	28,796
1840	30,574	24,897	1,242	204	56,917
1841	59,027	25,818	1,661	114	85,620
1842	66,339	32,872	5,733	196	105,140
1843	28,806	39,109	4,083	517	62,515
1844	40,160	50,574	2,800	378	93,912
1845	15,573	26,720	1,400	325	44,018
1846	51,229	57,774	5,744	258	115,005
1847	29,881	36,710	2,458	268	69,317
1848	4,577	14,332	14,021	292	33,222
1849	12,536	12,536	15,787	62	40,921
1850	2,293	40,642	15,830	1,938	60,703
1851	38,164	45,017	28,822	2,786	114,792
1852	63,129	63,129	8,351	835	135,444
1853	25,518	28,355	3,178	1,081	57,132
1854	24,921	45,660	2,229	1,273	74,083
1855	51,703	28,538	1,820	375	82,436
1856	43,439	82,239	2,347	1,426	129,451
1857	18,114	144,114	4,410	434	267,172
1858	51,065	48,233	23,901	4,887	128,086
Total -	767,373	1,040,797	153,191	21,821	1,983,682

QUARANTINE. — MALTA. — Regulations as to Quarantine in observance at the Lazaretto of Malta, as established by the Board of Health, 7th December, 1846, for arrivals from the Levant, and from various ports in Barbary.

A bill of health shall be considered as foul, when the country from which a vessel arrives is actually infected with plague; if it shall be considered as suspected after the expiration of 41 days from the last case of plague; and clean after the expiration of 1 year and 1 day from the last case of plague.

Bills of health of vessels arriving from Egypt and Syria are never to be considered clean.

Foul Bill of Health. — For merchant vessels and goods, 21 days after the unloading of susceptible articles; for steam vessels, 19 days after the landing of passengers and their effects in the Lazaretto; for ships of war, 17 days after the landing of passengers and their effects in the Lazaretto; for passengers arriving either in steam vessels, ships of war, or merchant vessels, admitted in the Lazaretto, 17 days after exposing their effects to ventilation; for vessels carrying pilgrims, 22 days; for pilgrims, 23 days after being landed and their effects placed in deputation in the Lazaretto.

Suspected Bill of Health. — For merchant vessels and goods, 15 days after the unloading of susceptible articles; for steam vessels and ships of war, 12 days after the landing of passengers and their effects in the Lazaretto; for passengers landed from steam vessels, ships of war, or merchant vessels, 12 days in the Lazaretto, after exposing their effects to ventilation; for vessels carrying pilgrims, 20 days after their effects being placed in deputation.

Clean Bill of Health. — For merchant vessels and goods, 12 days after the unloading of susceptible articles; for steam vessels, ships of war, and passengers admitted in the Lazaretto, 9 days after their effects to being exposed to ventilation.

QUARANTINE. — PORTUGAL. — We extract the following regulations in regard to quarantine in the Portuguese ports, from a Decree issued 26th November, 1845.

Art. 108. All captains and masters of vessels entering any port of Portugal, and islands adjacent, are bound —
 Sect. 1. To hoist in some conspicuous situation of their vessel a yellow flag, when ordered so to do, and not lower it until admitted to pratique.
 Sect. 2. To allow no communication whatever between their vessels and other ships, or with the land, until admitted to pratique.

Sect. 3. To comply with the sanitary regulations, and adhere to such instructions as they may receive from the health officers of the port.

Sect. 4. To anchor the ship at the ground pointed out to them for quarantine, and to lay to, or even dry anchor to await the visit, weather permitting, and when ordered so to do in compliance with the regulations.

Sect. 5. To present themselves at the Pratique office when directed so to do by the health officer, and proceed thence in their own boats, which are to bear a yellow flag or streamer, to show that they are in a suspected state, and not to allow any communication.

Sect. 6. To present all the ship's papers to the pratique-officers, and truly to answer on oath or otherwise any interrogations or questions that may be put to them, stating every fact and occurrence that may come to their knowledge, which it may be desirable to be known with reference to the public health.

Art. 138. All ships or vessels of any nation entering any of the ports of Portugal and islands adjacent, coming from or

bound to any place whatsoever, shall be provided with a proper bill of health, showing not only the sanitary condition of the port of departure and of any other touched at, or put into, but also of the crew, and the number of passengers at the time of leaving, excepting only in cases of constraint or other-
 wise uncontrollable, agreeably to the terms of this decree.

Art. 139. Bills of health granted by any of the ports of Portugal and islands adjacent, will be null and void, and issued by a physician duly appointed by the Board of Health of the port. In foreign ports, bills of health may be issued by the Portuguese consular agents to ships bound for any Portuguese port.

Bills of health granted by the proper authorities at foreign ports must be endorsed by the resident Portuguese consular agent.

Art. 140. Ships sailing from foreign ports where there is no such resident agent, require to be provided with a proper bill of health from the competent authorities of the place, to have the same endorsed by a Portuguese consular agent at any other port which the ship may subsequently touch at, at its option.

Art. 141. Any ships or vessels detained at the port of landing, or leaving any other they may have put into, on any account, 8 days after the date of the bill of health, or of any endorsement thereon, must have the same renewed or re-endorsement.

Art. 142. Bills of health having any interlineation, erasure, or alteration whatever, will be deemed suspicious, and subject

Periods of Quarantine actually in observance in pursuance of the preceding Regulations at this date.

	Merchant Vessels.	Steam Vessels.	Ships of War.	Susceptible Articles.	Passengers in the Lazaretto.
Suspected Bill of Health.	15	12	12	15	12
Clean Bill of Health.	12	9	9	12	9

The Regency of Tripoli 12 9 9 12 9
 The Regency of Tunis 5 5 5 — —
 The Black Sea, Constantinople, the Dardanelles, Scandola, Salonico, Smyrna, Cyprus, Rhodes, Candia, and all other Ottoman Islands and ports, 3 entire days of observation, when the duration of the voyage shall not have been less than 12 days. In cases where the voyage had been performed in less than 12 days, the quarantine shall last for as many days more as are required to complete the 12 days, but in no case to be less than 3 days.

the vessel to quarantine, and the captain to judicial proceedings.

"Art. 142. All captains and masters of vessels are forbidden:—

"§ Sect. 1. To destroy, abandon, or otherwise neglect to present at the port of arrival, the bill of health they may have received at that of departure.

"§ Sect. 2. To take on board more than the original bill of health issued at the port of departure.

"§ Sect. 3. To receive on board their vessels any sailor who may seem to be suffering from any of those contagious or epidemic diseases which subject vessels to quarantine.

"§ Sect. 4. To receive on board any clothes, apparel, or goods, without first ascertaining their origin, and that they have not been worn or used by any persons suffering from any contagious disorder, nor come from any infected place.

"Art. 144. All captains, master mariners, or commanders of vessels, are bound to note down in their logbook every case of illness or death happening on board their vessels during the voyage, together with the symptoms observed to have attended the same.

"§ But when there is a surgeon belonging to the ship, it will then be his duty to comply with the foregoing, as to symptoms.

"Art. 145. Captains or commanders of all vessels are bound to note down in their logbook the performance and fulfilment of the provisions of this decree for the security of the public health, all communications held at sea, and every other occurrence whatever that may directly or indirectly concern the public health.

"Art. 202. Every individual on board of a vessel, who shall communicate with the shore before the visit of the pratique boat, will without admission to pratique immediately after, be fined from 50,000 reis to 200,000 reis, independent of any heavier punishment he may have incurred as broker of quarantine; and if the communications shall be from the shore to the ship, the fine to be paid will only be one-half, and the persons who were to receive and follow up the individuals.

"§ Sect. 1. These penalties are applicable to every individual

whom shall knowingly admit or receive any person or things from any vessel previous to being visited.

"§ Sect. 2. Pilots and Customs house officers, in the performance and discharge of their respective duties, are hereby exempted from the operation of the penalties aforesaid; but, in all cases, have to proceed and remain with the vessel till admitted to pratique.

"§ Sect. 3. Should the vessel be put into quarantine, the transgressors will have to undergo the same in the lazaretto, and afterwards be imprisoned and delivered over to the competent judges to be punished according to law.

"§ Sect. 4. The period intervening between the arrival of the vessel at the port and admission to pratique, is held as equivalent to a term of quarantine, for all the purposes of infliction of the pains and penalties incurred in the foregoing provisions.

"Art. 203. Any captains, masters, or commanders of vessels who shall present a bill of health with any untrue insertion, or by any other similar alteration, that may induce suspicion of its having been falsified, will be prosecuted as the presumed falsifiers, and incur the punishment awarded by the laws to the falsifiers of public documents.

"Art. 206. Any individual who shall through ignorance or omission anyway risk or endanger the public health, or who shall infringe or allow any infringement of the legislative enactments or regulations and provisions tending to preserve the same, will be punished with a fine of 20,000 reis. And all captains or masters of merchant vessels who shall bring no bill of health, or one with any irregularity, will be included in the provision of this article, although the ship may not be placed in quarantine; but the fine will only be 10,000 if the vessel is once admitted to pratique.

"§ Sect. 1. When the captain or a master shall be enabled to show satisfactorily at the Pratique Office that any irregularity in his bill of health arose from accident or circumstances over which he had no control, he will be relieved from all liability.

RAILWAYS. — The summer and autumn of 1845 and the earlier portion of 1846 witnessed the rise and development of a most gigantic railway speculation or mania. Various circumstances conspired to bring this about. The vast advantages which railways conferred on the country generally, and especially on the districts through which they passed, strongly recommended them to the public patronage and support. Most branches of industry were also, in 1845, in a more than ordinarily prosperous condition; and large dividends (whether really derived from profits is questionable) being paid by some of the principal lines, their stock rapidly rose to a high price. These circumstances inflamed the cupidity of the public, who began to imagine that speculation in railway shares afforded the shortest and easiest means of acquiring wealth. Hence, an extraordinary stimulus was given to all sorts of projects, which were multiplied with an almost inconceivable rapidity. Of these a few were well devised and judicious; and were patronised by gentlemen of wealth, respectability, and experience. But the great majority were of a totally opposite description, being got up by parties anxious only to profit by the credulity of the public, and founded on plans which could not be executed, or which, if executed, would be ruinous. And yet such was the disposition of the public to take *omne ignotum pro magifico*, that shares in these swindling devices, for such was their real character, were greedily bought up at high premiums, which, of course, went into the pockets of the members of parliament, attorneys, and engineers, by whom the traps had been set and the hooks baited. It is difficult, indeed, to imagine any more disgraceful exhibition of fraud and quackery on the one part, and of folly and voracity on the other, than was displayed during the autumn of 1845 and the spring of 1846, by the manufacturers and buyers of railway shares. Some 700 or 800 new projects, requiring, it was stated, a capital of about as many hundred millions, were spawned during this gambling saturnalia; and of these it would be a high estimate to say there were 150 which held out any legitimate prospect of remunerating their projectors. The great majority of the others were never, indeed, intended to do more than to transfer the money of the unwary dupes who bought shares into the pockets of the crafty directors by whom they were issued; and, thus far, some of them answered the views of their projectors. Luckily, however, this was not the case with others; not a few of those who dug the pit-falls having themselves fallen into them.

But despite the number of schemes that were abandoned, the number of those that were carried forward, and received the sanction of the legislature, was astonishingly great. In proof of this we borrow from the *Times* of the 10th of October, 1847, the Table, on the next page, compiled by Mr. Spackman for that journal.

It appears from this table that, in the course of 1845 and 1846, no fewer than 347 acts were carried through parliament, authorising the construction of 7,654 miles of railway, at an estimated cost of 190,344,087*l.* sterling.

Under any circumstances, such gigantic, and generally ill-advised, undertakings must have involved the parties in vast loss. In this case the depressing influence of the heavy railway calls on the money market, having been increased by the failure of the potato crop of 1846, occasioned the greatest difficulty in obtaining pecuniary accommodations, and led to the crisis of 1847. In consequence many of the projects for which acts had been obtained have been suffered to sink into oblivion, while others have been, or are to be very imperfectly carried out. An extraordinary fall has, also, taken place in the value of the stock even of the best lines. And this is not

ailing apparatus as shall be made for migration office, at the by the officer. of construction of this and that the terms shall herein have them respectively in of H. M.'s principal directions herein in. Le. Barstman. rs from 1835 to the Numbers that

Total.	
14,891	
20,900	
29,003	
25,702	
31,138	
66,507	
62,160	
62,527	
105,140	
44,478	
75,117	
14,031	
35,222	
10,007	
90,715	
115,592	
128,314	
57,214	
79,656	
10,007	
139,851	
89,370	
249,089	
1,945,688	

servance at le mber, 1846, for

ance in pursuance of this date.

Ships of War	Susceptible Articles	Passengers in the Lazaretto.
12	12	12
9	9	9
5	5	5
Scas, Rhodes, Candia, and ports, 3 entire rates of the voyage 12 days. In cases framed in less than 12 or for as many days etc the 12 days, but		

a regard to quarantine, 1845.

to be provided with a the sanitary condition her touched at, or put her of passengers at the of constraint or other terms of this decree. at any of the ports of be medico-official, and the Board of Health of th may be issued by the and for any Portuguese er authorities at foreign at Portuguese consular an ports where there is provided with a proper of the place, and ofesee consular agents at ossequently touch at, or retained at the port of have put into, on any ill of health, or of any same removed or re-intermination, erases, suspicious, and subject

Summary of Railway Legislation from 1826 to 1847.

Year.	Number of Acts passed.				Amount of Money authorized to be raised.						Length of Railway authorized to be constructed.			
	England and Wales.	Ireland.	Scotland.	Total.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total.		
1826	6	1	4	11	£290,000	£167,055	£600,000	£1,057,055						
1827	3	-	3	6	126,600	125,000	-	251,600						
1828	7	-	2	9	431,000	-	-	431,000						
1829	7	-	2	9	709,250	154,175	-	863,425						
1830	6	-	2	8	867,500	651,500	-	1,519,000						
1831	6	-	2	8	1,158,875	71,000	£70,000	1,299,875	81½	7½	36	977		
1832	7	1	-	8	557,000	-	10,000	567,000						
1833	9	-	1	10	5,500,333	20,000	-	5,520,333						
1834	9	-	1	10	5,301,000	8,053	-	5,309,053						
1835	10	-	1	11	4,598,333	163,000	£8,700	4,810,033						
1836	25	2	4	29	30,995,000	485,000	1,400,000	32,879,000	87½	20	88	678		
1837	40	3	4	47	10,654,166	1,176,833	1,461,000	12,292,000	339	83	104	526		
1838	7	-	3	10	792,000	1,244,100	-	2,036,100	5	48	-	53		
1839	17	-	4	21	6,181,800	373,501	-	6,555,301	60	9	-	69		
1840	14	-	1	15	2,381,258	100,700	-	2,481,958	7	9	-	16		
1841	19	-	2	21	5,021,535	386,333	-	5,407,868	6	4	-	10		
1842	15	-	3	18	4,553,018	718,600	-	5,271,618	43	4	-	47		
1843	10	1	6	17	5,111,284	450,666	£9,400	5,671,350	41	6	122	169		
1844	41	1	6	48	15,209,781	1,684,100	1,733,300	18,627,181	68	6	122	196		
1845	22	13	15	50	43,495,112	8,561,929	10,629,332	62,686,373	1,065	479	844	2,348		
1846	193	25	61	279	111,798,098	16,618,968	10,273,435	138,690,501	5,518	851	710	6,079		
1847	141	16	136	393	47,210,743	8,488,708	4,033,690	59,733,141	969	933	120	1,822		
637	63	169	889	1,321	456,780,619	41,308,710	28,613,579	526,702,908	8,738	1,874	1,615	11,167		
Total amount of money authorized to be raised									£168,678,811			398,643,171		
Amount nominally raised or called up, to the end of 1847									-			-		
Amount of calls to the end of sept. 1848									-			125,317,106		
Liabilities still resting on the public in respect of railway projects not completed									-			£131,236,111		

to be wondered at. The recklessness evinced by many companies in engaging in hazardous, and sometimes ruinous subsidiary projects has, however, been a comparatively venial offence. Recent disclosures have shown that leading directors, in whose sagacity and honesty the public reposed all but unlimited confidence, have been, in fact, nothing but gigantic swindlers; their sole object (in which it was to be hoped they may be disappointed) having been to enrich themselves by defrauding and robbing their constituents and the public. And these disclosures have also shown, that, if the boards of directors associated with the parties now referred to did not actively assist them in their villainous schemes, they, at all events, opposed no obstacle of any kind to their development. Hence the just discredit that at present attaches to all railway companies. Some of them have put forward detailed statements of their affairs; but these, how accurate soever, command, and really deserve, very little confidence. This ignorance is, however, alike prejudicial to the public interests, and to those of all really well managed companies, and is at once an incentive to and a cloak for all sorts of nefarious practices. We do, therefore, hope that some fit tribunal may be established for inquiring into the past and present state and management of railway companies; that their true history and real condition may be set forth; that honest men may not suffer in the public estimation from the practices of others of a different character; that those, how high soever their rank or great their fortune, who have swindled the public, may be not merely exposed but punished; and that the disgrace and ruin that would follow from a recurrence of the mania of 1845-46 may be averted.

Among the greater lines of railway now (1849) existing, may be specified that from London by Manchester, Liverpool, and Carlisle, to Glasgow and Edinburgh; this is one of the greatest public works ever executed in any country, and is a striking result of the wealth, science, and civilisation of modern times. The railway from London to Bath and Bristol, and thence to Exeter, is also a magnificent work; and is, in some respects, superior to any other in the kingdom. Among the other leading railways may be specified those from London to Southampton, Brighton, and Dover; the Eastern Counties; Midland; North Midland; and North of England Railways; and those from Liverpool to Manchester; from Carlisle to Newcastle; from the latter to Edinburgh; from Edinburgh to Glasgow and Ayr, with a host of others.

Traffic on Railways. — Comparative Statement of the Traffic on all the Railways in the U. Kingdom for the five Years ending 30th June, 1845, 1846, 1847, 1848, and 1849, together with the Length of Railway open at the Termination of each Period: —

Year ending 30 June,	Miles open on 30th June in each Year.	No. of Passengers conveyed.	Receipts from Passengers.			Receipts from Goods Traffic.			Total Receipts.		
			£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1845	2,513	32,781,825	3,078,511	0	0	2,428,373	0	0	6,809,714	0	0
1846	2,765	45,700,983	3,749,815	10	0	2,810,353	10	0	7,560,168	10	0
1847	3,603	81,359,183	5,148,008	5	0	3,569,883	19	7	8,519,896	4	7
1848	4,478	117,965,070	5,789,988	9	8	4,213,169	14	5	9,993,157	3	7
1849	5,417	161,808,150	6,605,272	7	7	5,024,862	18	11	11,629,201	6	8

Accidents.—By an analysis of the returns made to the railway department, it appears that of the 208 persons killed, and 195 injured, on all the railways open for public traffic in G. Britain and Ireland during the year ending 30th June, 1849, there were—

8	Passengers killed, and	-	-	96	Injured from causes beyond their own control.
14	Passengers killed, and	-	-	7	{ injured, owing to their own misconduct or want of caution.
18	Servants of companies or of contractors killed, and	-	-	27	Injured from causes beyond their own control.
124	Servants of companies or of contractors killed, and	-	-	24	{ injured owing to their own misconduct or want of caution.
43	Trespassers and other persons, neither passengers nor servants of the company killed, and	-	-	9	{ injured by improperly crossing or standing on the railway.

Suicide 1

Total 208 killed, and 195 injured.

The total length of railway authorized by parliament up to 31st December, 1849, amounted to 12,026 miles, of which there were open at that date 5,966. The number of persons employed on all the railways open for traffic on the 1st of May, 1848, amounted to 88,000. And the number employed on those in course of construction in 1848, 198,177.

Making a total of 246,965

The total capital (in shares and loans) authorized by parliament up to 31st December, 1848, amounted to 348,800,700. Of which there was paid up at that period 200,178,000.

RUSSIA (TRADE). We subjoin some notices of the trade of Russia in 1846, 1847, and 1848.

Number of Vessels which entered Russian Ports in 1815, 1816, 1817, and 1818.

	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.
Baltic ports	6,987	7,778	8,231	5,092
Ports in the Black Sea	2,245	2,412	4,201	2,818
White Sea	573	801	924	330
Caspian Sea	181	116	110	183
	9,986	7,127	11,326	8,401
With cargoes	8,637	9,970	3,063	3,010
In ballast	2,299	4,193	8,303	3,391
	5,926	7,125	11,326	4,401
Tonnage	567,792	651,826	966,031	661,540

The greater part were English, Swedish, and Dutch vessels; owing to the Spanish war, very few Prussian and other German vessels arrived.

Number of Vessels cleared out for Foreign Ports in 1815, 1816, 1817, and 1818.

	1815.	1816.	1817.	1818.
From the Baltic ports	2,090	3,790	6,244	3,023
From ports in Black Sea	3,221	2,132	4,231	2,083
White Sea	348	807	829	237
Caspian Sea	140	184	130	162
	5,910	7,213	11,434	6,197
With cargoes	5,812	7,028	10,964	5,488
In ballast	128	185	456	711
	5,910	7,213	11,434	6,197
Tonnage	579,911	672,864	999,284	688,897

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported in 1816, 1817, and 1818.

	1816.	1817.	1818.
Hemp	Footed 100.	Footed.	Footed.
Flax	2,093,639	2,211,683	2,110,668
Flax	2,504,350	2,340,606	3,735,814
Tallow	3,322,614	3,251,856	5,395,840
Potatoes	181,618	298,479	832,504
Wool	498,163	434,350	378,696
Bristles	80,851	85,433	77,131
Iron	691,203	886,741	660,410
Copper	186,616	135,113	52,190
Lined and hempen	Cateterium about 1 bush.	Cateterium about 1 bush.	Cateterium about 1 bush.
	948,248	1,376,470	1,824,104
	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.
	Value.	Value.	Value.
Wood	3,745,358	3,762,178	2,438,668
Raw hides	1,119,358	1,601,012	838,982
Leather (tuffen)	1,169,172	1,029,333	638,632
Horn	89,929,916	71,979,502	21,925,615

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles imported in 1816, 1817, and 1818.

	1816.	1817.	1818.
Cotton	Footed 100 lbs.	Footed.	Footed.
Wool	748,428	861,293	1,331,233
Wool	14,118	30,193	80,741
Cotton yarn	860,111	410,370	589,143
Oil—olive, &c.	511,444	3,350,011	287,008
Coffee	190,416	192,410	367,707
Raw sugar	936,790	808,437	1,308,429
Wine and other	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.
Drinks	Value.	Value.	Value.
Wine	6,876,089	6,173,793	7,216,278
Beer	9,448,666	6,170,689	5,262,953
Machinery and instruments	1,919,974	1,881,847	1,838,841
Cotton manufactures	6,674,053	3,449,708	5,823,823
Wool, ditto	8,302,306	4,902,792	6,238,800
Linens, ditto	866,714	900,474	441,863
Refined sugar (lumps)	Footed.	Footed.	Footed.
	779,947	677,871	800,960
Woolen manufactures	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.	Nil. Roub.
	Value.	Value.	Value.
	9,810,809	9,807,690	9,118,102

* Increased import owing to the failure of the beet crop.

1848.		1848.	
Exports, value	Nil. Roub. = 25. 2d. 6d. per £.	Imports, value	Nil. Roub. = 25. 2d. 6d. per £.
Europe	£1,071,719	Europe	£6,114,386
Asia	£4,644,338	Asia	£9,372,750
Poland	£2,091,809	Poland	£1,252,000
Finland	£1,646,811	Finland	£68,726
	£10,554,617		£10,778,278

Account of the Value of the Exports of Corn in

	Nil. Roub.
1841	16,830,920
1842	19,372,750
1843	19,925,618
1844	17,278,208
1845	21,305,648
Precious metals exported in 1848	Nil. Roub.
Imported	19,850,425
Excess of Exports	6,778,197

N. B.—Permitted to export ceased in April, 1848, and continued until the beginning of this month, (December, 1849).

authorized to
routed.

Impaled.	Total.
68	979
104	686
19	50
11	11
14	14
4	45
45	45
122	832
641	2,745
710	4,309
129	1,351
1,815	12,181
326,643,917	
195,317,106	
219,236,111	

engaging in comparatively those sagacity fact, nothing may be dis- their consti- boards of them in their their develop- y companies. at these, how this ignorance all really well as of nefarious established for mpanies; that may not suffer character; that led the public, in that would

ified that from ough; and this is striking resul on London to d is, in some dig railway r; the East- ailways; and rom the latter ets.

the U. Kingdom Length of Rail-

Total Receipts.	6 d.
6,209,714	0
7,365,359	8
8,510,896	8
9,538,559	3
11,200,201	6

TRADE WITH THE TRANS-CASPIAN TERRITORIES AND IN THE CASPIAN SEA.

Exports from Russia of the principal Articles:—

	1847.	1848.
	<i>Sil. Roub.</i>	<i>Sil. Roub.</i>
Grain	174,137	112,441
Silk manufactures	62,287	35,621
Milk	86,428	65,436
Raw hides	105,259	143,235
Metal goods	35,212	69,353
Wool	80,113	47,114
Building wood	15,450	40,644
Precious metals		3,559,267

Imports (principal Articles).

	1847.	1848.
	<i>Sil. Roub.</i>	<i>Sil. Roub.</i>
Cotton manufactures	1,569,577	2,063,376
Milk	506,781	515,459
Raw silk	460,471	379,664
Sugar and sugar candy	51,244	948,631
Wax	103,545	110,611
Skins	36,858	53,165

N.B. The imports always considerably exceed the exports.

KIACHTA TRADE.

In 1848 the amount of manufactured goods bartered at fixed prices for 136,217 boxes of fine tea of the Chinese, was 5,349,918 silver roubles, and the principal articles consisted of—

Russian manufactured cloths	814,800
Russian fur goods	1,141,915
Foreign fur goods	199,716
Cotton manufactures	852,433
Wool manufactures	80,394
Woolen and other leather	314,403

The Kiachta Customs duty yielded, in 1849, 5,511,320 *sil. roub.*, which was 224,023 more than in 1847. From this duty is to be deducted 73,815 *sil. roub.* allowed as premiums or drawback on the Russian cotton goods bartered.

In 1848 were forwarded from Kiachta into the interior of Russia:—

Flaxen (tea) or pelon	Profr.
Ordinary tea	59,577
Brick tea	183,757
Equal to about 15,000,000 lb. English.	118,849

In 1848,—

The Customs' duties amounted to	<i>Sil. Roub.</i>
Excise on Krim salt	49,127,015
Two per cent. on foreign goods for the new bridges, now building	244,670
Extra duty for the benefit of sundry cities	323,071
Warehouse rent	242,568
Freight and passage-money derived from the Ocean steamers	59,680
	51,290,148

Less premiums on Russian manufactures	164,868
Less expenses of collection and maintaining frontier guard (7 per cent.)	2,185,410
	2,509,818

Net income 28,869,930
Times, 1st Jan. 1850.

STADE-DUTIES.—We are glad to have to state that an arrangement was effected with Hanover in 1844, by which these duties have been reduced, and placed on an improved footing. British vessels, and those belonging to countries having reciprocity treaties with Hanover, are no longer obliged to *leave-to* in passing the guard-ship opposite Brunshausen, but may proceed direct to Hamburg, and pay the duties in the toll-office in that city. These are specified in the schedule annexed to a bulky paper laid before parliament in 1844; but for some unknown, though certainly very bad reasons, these duties are not computed, even in the translation of this paper, in English, but in German weights, measures, and monies, and are consequently unintelligible to 99 out of every 100 English merchants and ship-masters. We should have translated them had they not been too voluminous for insertion in this place; and it is the less necessary as summaries of them may readily be had in Hamburg. Still, however, this arrangement is merely an attempt to improve what is in its nature incurably bad. The toll on the Elbe is an outrage on all commercial nations; and instead of being modified, should be wholly repealed.

STEAM VESSELS (REGULATION OF). The following statute, the 9 & 10 Vict. c. 100, for regulating the built, navigation, &c. of steam vessels, and for obliging sea-going vessels of more than 100 tons to carry boats, came into operation on the 1st of January, 1847:—

Iron Steamers of 100 Tons Burden and upwards to be divided by Water-tight Partitions.—All steam vessels built of iron of 100 tons burden or upwards, built after the passing of this act, shall be divided by transverse water-tight partitions, so that the fore part of the vessel shall be separated from the engine room by one such partition, and so that the after part of such vessel shall be separated from the engine room by another such partition.—§ 2.

Sea-going Vessels to be provided with Boats.—From and after the 1st of January, 1847, no vessel, the tonnage of which shall be 100 tons or upwards, shall proceed to sea from any port whatsoever unless it be provided with boats duly supplied with all requisites for their use, of the dimensions set forth in the following table; but the dimensions in the table are not to be considered applicable to vessels engaged in the whale fishery:—

Tonnage of Vessels.	Number of Boats.	Long Boat, Launch, or Pinnace.						Other Boats.					
		Length.		Breadth.		Feet.	In.	Length.		Breadth.		Feet.	In.
		Feet.	In.	Feet.	In.			Feet.	In.	Feet.	In.		
450 and upwards	4	36	6	0	0	24	6	0	0	16	3	0	0
350 to 450	4	36	7	0	0	22	6	6	0	16	3	0	0
250 to 350	3	30	6	6	0	18	5	6	0	14	5	0	0
150 to 250 inclusive	2	18	6	0	0	12	5	6	0	14	5	0	0
100 to 150	2					15	5	6	0	and a Punt or small Boat.			

no vessel carrying more than 10 passengers shall proceed to sea on any voyage unless, in addition to the boats herein-before required, it shall also be provided with a boat fitted up as a life boat with all requisites for its use, together with 2 life buoys.—§ 3.

Steam Vessels, in addition, to have such other Boats as the Admiralty may direct.—Every steamer built after the passing of this act, and which shall proceed to sea with passengers, shall, in addition to the boats specified in the foregoing table, and in lieu of a boat fitted up as a life boat, be provided either with such boats as are usually called paddle-box boats, or with such other boats as may be directed in lieu thereof by the Lords of the Admiralty for the time being.—§ 4.

No Steamer to proceed to Sea without a Hose.—No steamer vessel of 100 tons burden or upwards shall proceed to sea unless it be provided with a hose for the purpose of extinguishing fire capable of being connected with the engines of the vessel.—§ 5.

Mode of ascertaining Tonnage.—For the purposes of this act the tonnage of vessels shall be ascer-

tained according to the rules of admeasurement prescribed by any act of parliament for the time being in force regulating the admeasurement of the tonnage and burden of the merchant ships of the U. Kingdom.—§ 6.

Penalty on Masters, &c. neglecting to provide Boats, Hoas, &c.—If any steam vessel as aforesaid proceed to sea without being provided with such hose as aforesaid, or being an iron steam vessel without being so divided as aforesaid, or if any steam or other vessel of 100 tons burden or upwards proceed to sea without being so provided with boats as aforesaid, or if any such boats be lost or rendered useless in the course of the voyage through the wilful fault or negligence of the owner or master, or if in case of any of such boats being accidentally lost or injured in the course of the voyage, the master or other person having charge of the vessel wilfully neglect to replace or repair the same on the first convenient opportunity, then and in every case where the owner shall appear to be in fault he shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 100*l.*, and in every case where the master or other person having charge of the vessel shall appear to be in fault he shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 50*l.*—§ 7.

Officers of Customs not to clear out Vessels complying with these Regulations.—It shall not be lawful for any officer of customs to clear out any steam vessel as aforesaid for any voyage to parts beyond the sea without being provided with such hose as aforesaid, or being an iron steam vessel without being so divided as aforesaid, nor to clear out any steam or other vessel of 100 tons burden or upwards for any voyage to parts beyond the seas unless the same be provided with such boats as are here before required.—§ 8.

Penalty on Masters, &c. not observing the Regulations as to passing and repassing other Vessels.—Every steam vessel when meeting or passing any other steam vessel shall pass as far as may be safe on the port side of such other vessel; and every steam vessel navigating any river or narrow channel shall keep as far as is practicable that side of the fairway or mid-channel of such river or channel which lies on the starboard side of such vessel, due regard being had to the tide and to the position of each vessel in such tide; and the master or other person having the charge of any such steam vessel, and neglecting to observe these regulations, or either of them, shall for each and every instance of neglect forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 50*l.*—§ 9.

Admiralty to make Regulations respecting the Exhibition of Lights.—The Lords of the Admiralty may from time to time make regulations requiring the exhibition of such lights by steam vessels in such manner, within such places, except the river Thames above Yantlett Creek, and under such circumstances as the said lords may think fit, and may from time to time make any other regulations revoking or altering any previous regulations.—§ 10.

Such Regulations to be published in the Gazette.—The said lords shall cause such regulations, as soon as convenient, after the same shall have been made, to be published in four successive London Gazettes, and the same shall be deemed to be in force from the date of the last of such publications until the same be altered or revoked, and such alteration or revocation shall have been twice published in manner as aforesaid.—§ 11.

Vessels, &c. within 20 Miles of the Coast to exhibit Lights at Night.—The master or other person having the charge of any steam vessel which shall be in any river or narrow channel in Great Britain or Ireland, or the adjacent islands, or upon the sea within 20 miles of any part of the coast of Great Britain or Ireland, shall, whether under weigh or at anchor, between sunset and sunrise exhibit such lights within such places, in such manner, and under such circumstances as by the said regulations herein-before authorized to be made by the said Lords of the Admiralty shall be required, and in default thereof shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 20*l.* for every night in which such default shall be made; and the owner of any such vessel in which such light shall be exhibited as aforesaid shall not be entitled to recover any recompense or damage whatsoever which may be sustained by such vessel in consequence of any other vessel running foul thereof during the night.—§ 12.

Penalty on Masters, &c. neglecting to observe Regulations.—If any damage to any person or property be sustained in consequence of the nonobservance as respects any steam vessel of the rules contained in the two enactments relative to the passing of steam vessels and to the exhibiting of lights herein-before contained, the same shall in all courts of justice be deemed in the absence of proof to the contrary to have been occasioned by the wilful default of the master or other person having the charge of such steam vessel, and such master or other person shall be subject in all proceedings, whether civil or criminal, to the legal consequences of such wilful default.—§ 13.

Before the 30th of April and 31st Oct. in every Year Owners to transmit Declarations to the Board of Trade.—On or before the 30th of April and the 31st of October in every year the owners of every steam vessel shall transmit to the Committee of the Privy Council for Trade (Board of Trade) the two following declarations in writing, viz.:

First, a declaration of the sufficiency and good condition of the hull of such steamer under the hand of a shipwright surveyor, to be approved by the said committee:—

Second, a declaration of the sufficiency and good condition of the machinery of such steam vessel under the hand of an engineer, to be approved in like manner by the Board of Trade; such declarations bearing date of some day in the said months of April or October respectively;—

And the Board of Trade shall register such declarations, and shall transmit to the owners of such steam vessels respectively certificates under the hand of one of the secretaries or assistant secretaries of the said committee of the registry of such declarations: provided always, that if the owners of any such vessel shall certify to the said board that such vessel has been, during the whole of such month of April or of October respectively, and still is, in foreign parts, so that it is impossible to obtain the above declarations, bearing date as is above prescribed, and shall at the same time transmit to the said board the required declarations, dated not more than 7 days before such vessel last sailed or departed from any part of the U. K., then and in every such case the said board shall register such declarations, and shall transmit to the owners of such last-mentioned steam vessels respectively certificates of the registry of such declarations: provided nevertheless, that this enactment shall not extend or apply to any steam vessel employed as herein-after mentioned during the continuance of such employment, (that is to say,) whilst employed in the royal mail service, or the conveyance of the royal public mails or despatches under contract with and under the superintendence of the Lords of the Admiralty.—§ 14.

Certificate may be granted though Declaration be not made in April or October.—Whereas it may happen that by reason of the steam vessel or the machinery thereof being under repair during either of the months of April or October it may be impracticable to make such declarations as are before required in either of the said months: be it enacted, that in such case it shall be lawful for the owners of such steam vessels at any time to make a representation to that effect to the Board of Trade, and to transmit therewith such declarations as are before required, and it shall be lawful thereupon for the said board, if they be satisfied of the truth of such representation, to register such declarations notwithstanding they shall not bear date in either of the months of April or October; and the said board shall transmit to the owners of such steam vessels certificates of the registry thereof in manner before provided, and such certificates shall have the like force and effect, and be used for all the same purposes and in the same manner as if the said certificates referred to declarations made in April or October.—§ 15.

Officers of Customs not to clear out Vessels except upon Production of Certificate of Registry.—From

876, 876	2,338,411
1,141,215	199,708
938,233	59,277
100,000	183,724
514,105	118,319
In 1849, 5,511,296 <i>tl.</i>	
In 1847, From this	
allowed as premiums	
is barred.	
This into the interior of	
Prods.	
	69,277
	183,724
	118,319
876, 876	
	49,127,105
	201,061
for the	244,670
7 <i>tl.</i>	938,233
	242,258
from	59,590
	31,290,148
64,998	
188,410	2,550,218
	28,869,930

ment was effected and placed on an having reciprocity guard-ship opportunities in the toll-bulky paper hid very bad reasons, English, but in illegible to 99 out translated them the less necessary ever, this arrange-ly bad. The toll being modified,

the 9 & 10 Viet. for, obliging sea-son on the 1st of

ditions.—All steam shall be divided by ed from the engine on from the engine

1847, no vessel, the whatsoever unless it ions set forth in the to vessels engaged

Length.	Breadth.
Feet.	Ft. In.
16	3 6
16	5 6
11	5 0
4	0 0

less, in addition to a life boat with all Every steamer built addition to the boats ed either with such ected in lieu thereof n or upwards shall re capable of being vessels shall be ascer-

and after the 1st of June, 1847, it shall not be lawful for any steam vessel, except as is herein-before excepted, to proceed to sea, unless the owner thereof shall have duly transmitted to the Board of Trade such declarations, and shall have received from the said board such certificates of the registry thereof as are before mentioned; and it shall not be lawful for any officer of customs to clear out any steam vessel carrying passengers for any voyage to parts beyond the seas, unless upon the production of the certificate of the registry of the declarations which shall most recently have been made in respect of such steam vessel, and unless such declarations have been so made within 6 calendar months of the application for clearance.—§ 16.

Penalty on Owners of Vessels for not transmitting Declarations.—If any steam vessel proceed to sea with passengers, the owner whereof has not duly transmitted to the Board of Trade such declarations, and received from the said board such certificates of the registry of such declarations as are before mentioned, the owner of such steam vessel shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 100*l.*—§ 17.

Persons forging Certificate or Declaration guilty of a Misdemeanour.—Any person who shall knowingly or wilfully make or assist in making a false or fraudulent declaration or certificate, or who shall knowingly or wilfully forge, counterfeit, or fraudulently alter, or shall aid and assist in forging, counterfeiting, or fraudulently altering, or who shall attempt to forge, counterfeit, or fraudulently alter, any declaration or certificate provided for by this act, or any words or figures in any such declaration or certificate, or the signature to any such declaration or certificate, shall be deemed to be guilty of a misdemeanour.—§ 18.

Accidents and Damages to be reported to the Board of Trade.—Whenever any steam vessel shall have sustained or caused any serious accident occasioning loss of life or property, or received any material damage affecting her sea-worthiness, either in her hull or her engine, by grounding or by collision with any other vessel, or by any other means, the master or other person having the charge of such vessel shall, as soon as conveniently may be, transmit, through the post office, by letter addressed to the Board of Trade, and signed by such master or other person, a report of such accident or damage, and the probable occasion thereof, stating therein the name of the vessel, the port to which she belongs, and the place where she is, in order that the said board may if they think fit investigate the matter; and should the owner or owners of any steam vessel, from her nonappearance or otherwise, have reason to apprehend that such steam vessel is wholly lost, he or they shall, as soon as conveniently may be, in like manner send notice thereof to the said board; and every owner, master, and every other person as aforesaid who shall neglect to send such notice as hereby is required within a reasonable time after any such accident shall have happened shall, for every such offence, forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding 50*l.*—§ 19.

In Cases of Accidents Board of Trade may appoint Inspectors to report.—Whenever any steam vessel shall have sustained or caused any serious accident occasioning loss of life and property, or received any material damage affecting her sea-worthiness, either in her hull or her engine, by grounding or by collision with any other vessel, or by any other means, it shall be lawful for the Board of Trade to appoint any proper person or persons as inspector or inspectors to inquire into and to report upon such accident; and it shall be lawful for every person so authorized at all reasonable times, upon producing his authority, if required, to go on board and inspect any such steam vessel and the machinery thereof, and every part thereof respectively, not detaining or delaying the vessel from proceeding on her voyage, and to make such inquiries as to the nature, circumstances, and causes of such accident as he or they may think fit.—§ 20.

Inspectors may call for the Production of Evidence.—The said inspectors or any of them shall be, and are hereby empowered, by summons under their or his hands or hand, to require the attendance of all such persons as they or he shall think fit to call before them or him upon any question or matter connected with or relating to the execution of any of the powers and duties vested by this act in the said inspectors, and also to make inquiries and to require answers or returns thereto in relation to any such matters, and for the purpose aforesaid to administer oaths, and to examine all persons upon oath, and to require and enforce the production upon oath of all log-books, accounts, agreements, or other papers or writings in anywise relating to every such matter as aforesaid; or, in lieu of requiring or administering an oath, the said inspector or inspectors may, if he or they think fit, require every such person to make and subscribe a declaration of the truth of the matters respecting which he shall be or shall have been examined or interrogated: provided always, that no such person shall be required, in obedience to any such summons, to travel more than 10 miles from his actual abode at the time of receiving such summons, unless tender shall be made him of such reasonable expences in respect of his attendance to give evidence, and his journey to and from the place where he shall be required to attend for that purpose, as would be allowed to any witness attending on subpoena to give evidence before any of H. M. Courts at Westminster, and in case of any dispute as to the amount of such expences, the same shall be referred by the inspectors to one of the masters of H. M. Court of Queen's Bench, who is hereby required to ascertain and certify the proper amount of such expences on a request made to him for that purpose under the hand or hands of such inspector or inspectors.—§ 21.

Clause 22. imposes a penalty of *l.*, or, in default of payment thereof, imprisonment for not more than 2 calendar months, on persons obstructing inspectors in the execution of their duty.

Clause 24. enacts that offences on the high seas shall be deemed to have been committed in the place into which the offender is brought, or in which he is found.

Clause 25. orders penalties to be levied by distress.

Clause 26. enacts that in default of distress justices may commit the offender to prison, there to remain without bail for any term not exceeding 3 months, unless the penalty or forfeiture, and costs, be sooner paid and satisfied.

Clause 27. directs how distress is to be levied.

Indictments to be preferred by direction of the Board of Trade or Commissioners of Customs.—No indictment shall be preferred for any offence against this act unless under the direction of the Board of Trade, or of the Commissioners of Customs, and no suit or proceeding shall be commenced for the recovery of any penalty or forfeiture for any such offence unless in the name of H. M.'s Attorney General for England or Ireland, or in the name of the Lord Advocate of Scotland, or in the name of some public officer under the direction of the Lords of the Board of Trade, or of the said Commissioners respectively.—§ 30.

The other clauses are of no public importance.

STREAMERS' LIGHTS.—In pursuance of the above act, the Lords of the Admiralty have ordered "that lights shall be exhibited by all steam vessels, except in the river Thames, above Yantlett Creek, between sunset and sunrise, as follows, viz:—

When under weigh—

1. Bright white light at the foremast head.
2. Green lights on the starboard side.
3. Red lights on the port side.

When at anchor.—A common bright light.

The following conditions are to be observed, viz.:—

1. The mast-head light to be visible at a distance of at least 5 m. In a clear dark night, and the lantern to be so constructed as to show a uniform and unbroken light over an arc of the horizon of 20 points of the compass, viz. from right ahead to 2 points abaft the beam on each side of the ship.

2. The coloured side-lights to be visible at a distance of at least 2 m. in a clear dark night, and the lanterns to be so constructed as to show a uniform and unbroken light over an arc of the horizon of 10 points of the compass, viz. from right ahead to 2 points abaft the beam on their respective sides.
3. The side-lights to be moreover fitted with inboard screens, of at least 2 feet in length, to prevent them from being seen across the bow. The screens to be placed in a fore and aft line with the inner edge of the side-lights.
4. The lantern used when at anchor to be so constructed as to show a good light all round the horizon.

SUGAR.— We have given in the Dictionary (p. 1242. and p. 1244.) statements exhibiting the production and consumption of sugar in the commercial world in 1848. But the subjoined statement, which is, we believe, nearly accurate, showing the production of sugar in 1828 and 1847, is not less interesting. It exhibits a wonderful increase, and, provided nothing be done to check the growth of sugar in Cuba and Brazil, it goes far to negative all expectation of any thing like a permanent or considerable rise in the price of sugar. The presumption, indeed, is quite the other way.

Comparative Account of Sugar produced for European, American, and Australian Consumption in 1828 and 1847.

	1828.	1847.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1. British Possessions.		
British India	7,800	70,000
Mauritius	18,000	60,000
West Indies	210,500	160,000
Total	236,300	290,000
2. Foreign Free Labour.		
Java	5,000	65,000
Manilla, Siam, and China	10,000	30,000
Europe Beet-root	7,000 ?	100,000
Total	22,000	215,000
3. Foreign Slave Labour.		
Cuba and Porto Rico	65,000	250,000
Brazil	28,000	100,000
French West Indies and Bourbon	50,000 ?	82,000
Danish and Swedish West Indies	10,000 ?	12,000
Dutch Guiana	10,000 ?	15,000
Louisiana	20,000	60,000
Total	183,000	549,000
Abstract.		
British Possessions	236,300	290,000
Foreign Free Labour	22,000	215,000
Slave Labour	183,000	549,000
Grand Total	441,300	1,054,000

Account of the Quantities of Sugar and Molasses Imported in 1848 and 1849, and of the Quantities entered for Consumption, with the Revenue, &c., in these Years.*

Descriptions of unrefined Sugar &c.	Imports in		Entries for Consumption, 1848.		Amount of Duty, 1848.	
	1848.	1849.	Cwts.	Cwts.	£	£
Of B. Possessions in America, equal to white clayed						
— not equal to white clayed	3,179	5,071	2,368	6,385	1,864	4,611
Of Mauritius, equal to white clayed	3,795,189	2,836,830	2,764,780	8,063,378	1,861,298	1,908,292
— not equal to white clayed	816	784	179	830	140	610
	886,068	891,762	812,049	996,738	551,294	684,881
Of B. Possessions in the East Indies, equal to white clayed	54,373	71,036	30,681	85,321	31,898	68,131
— not equal to white clayed	1,378,374	1,966,168	1,513,715	1,471,027	886,176	792,699
Foreign, equal to white clayed			4,384	5,221	4,940	5,223
— not equal to white clayed			1,211,165	470,590	1,172,241	414,868
— not equal to brown clayed (entered since 11 July 1848)	1,855,589	1,780,370	9,693	23,953	8,937	80,833
— without distinction of quality			14	-	-	-
Total of Sugar, unrefined	6,869,931	6,925,851	6,169,221	5,922,131	4,518,517	3,855,928
Sugar, refined, and Candy:—						
Of B. Possessions	31,114	56,683	20,933	60,090	18,785	48,686
Foreign	138,614	810,597	45,339	15,708	33,152	19,809
Molasses	517,231	1,069,061	637,050	812,330	183,411	314,695

* The figures in this Return are not precisely accurate; but the errors are inconsiderable.

The consumption of the U. Kingdom amounted in 1844, previously to the reduction of the duties, to about 207,000 tons; whereas, according to the above return, it amounted to 310,425 tons (inc. refined sugar) in 1848, and to 299,877 tons in 1849. This, however, is not a real but only an apparent diminution. In July, 1848, 26,274 tons of foreign sugar were entered for consumption to secure its admission at a duty of 18s. 6d. a cwt., 12,000 tons of which were in the warehouse at the commencement of

1849, and must, therefore, be included in the consumption of that year. And it is farther to be observed that while molasses equivalent to about 15,000 tons sugar were entered for consumption in 1848, the entries of the latter in 1849 were equivalent to about 21,000 tons. Hence it is plain that the consumption has been considerably greater in the last (1849) than in the previous year, though the increase has not been so great as might have been anticipated.

We may further state, in illustration of the beneficial influence of the reduction of the duties, that while, in London and other parts of the country, the sales of sugar by the grocers who supply the higher classes have been but little extended, the sales of those who principally deal with the lower classes have augmented from 40 to 50, and, in some cases, to 80 and 100 per cent. This is the best proof of the salutary as well as of the powerful influence of the reduction of the duties.

ACT 10 VICT. c. 5., ALLOWING THE USE OF SUGAR IN THE BREWING OF BEER, PASSED
13 FEBRUARY 1847.

Brewers of Beer for Sale may use Sugar in brewing.—From and after the passing of this act any brewer of beer for sale may use sugar in the brewing or making of beer, any thing in any act or acts of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding. — § 1.

Brewers not to use Molasses or Sugar except in the State in which it has been imported.—Nothing in this act shall extend or be deemed or construed to extend to allow any brewer of beer for sale to use any molasses in the brewing or making of beer, or any sugar other than sugar on which the full duties of customs have been paid, and in the state in which the same has been imported into this kingdom, and without the same having been previously diluted with water or other liquor, or having undergone any process or manufacture to alter the same, provided that nothing in this act contained shall extend or be deemed or construed to extend to prevent any such brewer from making use, in the brewing and making of beer, of beer colouring made from sugar under the regulations after mentioned, or of refined sugar, or of sugar candy, or of bastard sugar, on which the full duties of customs have been paid, or which have been manufactured in the U. K. from materials on which the duty of customs has been paid, and which are respectively entitled to the drawbacks thereon granted on exportation. — § 2.

Penalty on Brewers making use of Sugar other than aforesaid, or taking into his possession any Molasses, Honey, &c.—If any brewer of beer for sale after the passing of this act makes use of any molasses, sugar, honey, syrup, composition, or extract of sugar, except sugar on which the duty of customs has been paid as aforesaid, and made use of in the manner herein-before allowed, (except beer colouring made from sugar under the regulations after mentioned, or refined sugar, or sugar candy, or bastard sugar as aforesaid,) or if any such brewer receives or takes into his custody or possession any quantity of molasses, honey, syrup, composition, or extract of sugar (except as aforesaid), every such brewer shall forfeit and lose for every such offence respectively the sum of 200*l.* — § 3.

Brewers may make for sale any Beer Colouring from Sugar, and use it in brewing.—Every brewer of beer for sale may prepare and make for his own use some part of his brewery or entered premises, from any sugar allowed to be made use of by him in the brewing or making of beer as aforesaid, a liquor or other preparation for darkening the colour of worts or beer, and may have the same in his custody and possession and use it in brewing, by mixing with or putting the same into worts or beer, under such regulations as the commissioners of excise may direct, any thing in the act 56 G. 3. c. 58, or in the act 7 & 8 G. 4. c. 52., to the contrary notwithstanding; but if any such brewer prepares or makes any liquor or preparation for darkening the colour of worts or beer, from any other ingredient or ingredients than as aforesaid in whole or in part, or in any other manner than as aforesaid, or receives or has in his custody or possession, or uses in brewing, any liquor or preparation for darkening the colour of worts or beer, or under such regulations as the commissioners of excise may direct, any thing in the act 56 G. 3. c. 58, or in the act 7 & 8 G. 4. c. 52., or otherwise in any other respect than as aforesaid, every such brewer so offending shall incur the respective penalties and forfeitures in the said two first recited acts imposed on brewers receiving into or having in their custody or possession, or making or using in brewing, or mixing with worts or beer, any liquor, material, or preparation for darkening the colour of worts or beer; and the said recited acts, and the several clauses, provisions, penalties, and forfeitures therein contained, so far as the same are now in force and are not contrary to or expressly provided for by this act, shall remain and continue in force to all intents and purposes. — § 4.

Brewers using Sugar to enter in the Book delivered by the Excise the Quantity of Sugar intended to be used in the next Brewing.—Every brewer of beer for sale who uses sugar in the brewing or making of beer as aforesaid shall enter or cause to be entered in the book which by the respective laws now in force in Great Britain and Ireland is directed to be delivered to him by the proper officer of excise for the purpose of his entering therein, amongst other things, the quantity in bushels of malt which he uses in the brewing of beer, or intends to use in his next brewing, together with the day when such brewing is intended to be made, and such entry shall be so made before any part of such sugar is used, or any water or other liquor put to or mixed therewith; and every such brewer shall at the time of making such entry write or cause to be written in such book or paper the date when such entry is made; and if any such brewer refuses or neglects to make such entry as aforesaid, or cancels, obliterates, or alters any such entry, or uses or puts to or mixes any sugar with water or other liquor before such entry is made as aforesaid, he shall for every such offence forfeit and lose the sum of 200*l.* — § 5.

Brewers using Sugar to pay Licence Duty in proportion to Quantity of Beer brewed.—Every brewer of beer for sale who uses sugar in the brewing or making of beer as aforesaid shall, for the purpose of fixing and regulating the rate and amount of duty to be paid by such brewer for the licence to be taken on by him under the 6 G. 4. c. 81., be deemed to have brewed one barrel of beer for every 50 lbs. avoirdupois of sugar used by such brewer in brewing, and shall for every licence to be taken out by him as a brewer of beer for sale pay such amount of duty, according to the rate by the said act imposed on brewers of beer only for sale, as is correspondent to the quantity of beer which he shall be deemed to have brewed as aforesaid.

After passing of this Act Drawback granted by 11 G. 4. & 1 W. 4. c. 51. repealed, and new Drawbacks granted.—From and after the passing of this act the drawback granted on beer exported by the 11 Geo. 4. & 1 W. 4. c. 51. shall be repealed, and the same is hereby repealed accordingly, and in lieu thereof there shall be granted and paid for and upon every barrel of 36 gallons, and so in proportion for any greater quantity of beer brewed or made by any licensed brewer of beer for sale in the U. K. in the brewing of which beer the worts used before fermentation were of not less specific gravity than 1·081, and not greater specific gravity than 1·081, and which beer shall be duly exported from any part of the U. K. to foreign parts as merchantable, a drawback of 6*s.* and five per cent. thereon; and for and upon every barrel of 36 gallons, and so in proportion for any greater quantity of beer brewed or made by any entered and licensed brewer of beer for sale in the U. K., in the brewing of which beer the worts used before fermentation were of not less specific gravity than 1·081, and which beer shall be duly exported

year. And it is 50 tons sugar were were equivalent to considerably greater not been so great as

the reduction of the es of sugar by the sales of those 40 to 50, and in lutary as well, as f

BEER, BREWED

passing of his act any in any act or acts of

imported.—Nothing in of beer for sale to which the full duties ed into this kingdom, r, or having undergone shall extend to, in the brewing, entioned, or of refined have been paid, or customs has been paid, tion.—§ 2.

his possession any Mo- kes use of any molasses, he duty of customs is (except beer colouring, ular candy, or banded possession any quantity d), every such brewer

in brewing.—Every his brewer or entered ling of beer as aforesaid, he have the same in his ame into worts or beer, ing in the act 56 G. 3, r such brewer prepares r, from any other in- nanner than as aforesaid, preparation for dark- roasted malt prepared, or respect than as aforesaid- tures in the said two possession, or making or tion for darkening the tions, penalties, and for- ty to or expressly pro- ce.—§ 4.

ity of Sugar intended to the brewing or making respective laws now in per officer of excise for s of malt which he uses unda weight avoirdupois such brewing is intended used, or any water or ne of making such entry made; and if any such ntes, or alters any such such entry is made as

—Every brewer of beer the purpose of fixing licence to be taken out every 50 lbs. avoirdupois out by him as a brewer mposed on brewers of deemed to have brewed

d, and new Drawbacks exported by the 11 Geo. accordingly, and in the and so in proportion for sale in the U. K. In the specific gravity than 1004, ed from any part of the reon; and for and upon brewed or made by any h beer the worts used shall be duly exported

from any port of the U. K. to foreign parts as merchandise, a drawback of 7s. 6d. and five per cent. thereon.

After passing of this Act Beer may be exported on Drawback according to the Specific Gravity of the Worts used and specified in Notice of Shipment.—From and after the passing of this act any person may export and ship as merchandise from any port in the U. K. any beer brewed or made by any licensed brewer of beer for sale in the U. K., such beer being in not less quantity at one time than 36 gallons, and having been brewed or made from worts of not less specific gravity than 1004, or of not less specific gravity than 1001, according as the same shall be specified in the notice of shipment required to be given by the 1 Will. 4. c. 51., and upon such notice being duly certified as in in the said act mentioned a detenture expressing the quantity of beer so shipped, and the amount of drawback payable in respect thereof, shall be made out and delivered to the person exporting the said beer as directed by said act.

Clause 9. reports so much of the 11 G. 4. & 1 W. 4. c. 51. as requires oath to be taken on detenture for obtaining a drawback.

Declaration to be made by Exporter, &c. on Detenture for obtaining Drawback.—Before any detenture is made, the exporter of the beer therein mentioned, or his principal clerk or manager, together with the brewer thereof, or his foreman or manager, shall make and subscribe a declaration on the said detenture, before the excise export surveyor, or officer acting as such, that the quantity of beer therein mentioned was put on board the ship and exported therein as merchandise to be sent beyond the seas, and no part thereof for the ship's use, and that according to the best of his and their knowledge and belief the same had been brewed or made from malt or sugar, or malt and sugar, on which the full duties of excise and custom respectively had been charged or paid, and shall also specify in such declaration the time when and the place where, and the brewer, being an entered and licensed brewer of beer for sale, by whom such beer was made, and, if so, and per cent. per barrel or on every 36 gallons of the beer so exported be the drawback claimed, that the specific gravity of the worts before fermentation from which such beer was brewed was not less than 1004, and, if 7s. 6d. and per cent. per barrel or on every 36 gallons of the beer so exported be the drawback claimed, that the specific gravity of the worts from which such beer was brewed was not less than 1001, such specific gravities being for the purposes of this act taken and ascertained by the saccharometer, or such other instrument and by such means as the commissioners of excise may direct, water being taken for that purpose as 1000 at the temperature of 60° by Fahrenheit's thermometer; and if any such declaration is false or untrue in any particular or respects, the person making the same shall forfeit the sum of 2000 l. for the purposes of the statute in which the same has been made shall be null and void to all intents and purposes, and, if unpaid, payment thereof shall be withheld, or, if paid, the amount thereof may be recovered in the same manner, and by the same ways, means, and methods, as any duty of excise or penalty may be sued for and recovered under any laws of excise.

Clause 11. enacts that the drawbacks granted by this act shall be under the management of the commissioners of excise, and subject to the excise laws respecting exportation on drawback. And that all penalties imposed by this act may be sued for, mitigated, recovered, distributed, and applied as any other penalties under the laws of excise.

STAT. 11 & 12 VICT. c. 100., PERMITTING THE DISTILLATION OF SPIRITS FROM SUGARS, MOLASSES, AND TREACLE.

Clause 1. repeals the act 10 & 11 Vict. c. 83., and parts of the acts 4 Geo. 4. c. 94., and 5 Geo. 4. c. 80. Clause 2. enacts that licensed distillers may distil from sugar only, or from potatoes only, or from molasses only, or from treacle, or from any of these materials and malt or grain mixed.

Charge on annual Account when Sugar only is used, and when Sugar mixed with Grains, &c. is used in the brewing the Worts.—In the annual account on which a charge of duty may be made on a distiller, by the acts 4 Geo. 4. c. 94., and 5 Geo. 4. c. 80., when spirits are distilled from sugar only, he shall be chargeable and answerable with duty after the rate of one gallon of proof spirits for every 100 gallons of the worts or wash attenuated during the period of such annual account for every 4 degrees of the gravity specified in the notice or notices given by such distiller of the gravity of the worts intended to be made by him during such period in his distillery; and when the spirits are distilled from sugar and any mixture of such materials as before specified, he shall be chargeable and charged with duty after the rate aforesaid for and in respect of the worts made from sugar, and for and after the rate or proportion of one gallon of proof spirits for and in respect of every 100 gallons of the worts or wash attenuated during the period of such annual account for every 5 degrees of the gravity specified in such notice or notices as aforesaid in respect of the worts made from grain, molasses, and treacle; and for the purpose of ascertaining what proportion of the whole worts made during the period comprised in such annual account has been made from sugar, and what from grain, molasses, and treacle, it shall be calculated that the quantity of sugar necessary to make one gallon of worts at the gravity specified in such notice is the quantity in pounds weight avoirdupois of solid extract per Imperial gallon, as indicated by the saccharometer and such tables as are approved of by the commissioners of excise for that purpose, with 5 per cent. added for moisture and impurities in the sugar to such indicated weight, and the total number of gallons of worts made from sugar shall be so calculated from the quantity of sugar removed from the store-room in the presence of the proper officer to the mash tun or other vessel, as in this act after-mentioned, and actually used in brewing or making the worts distilled during the period of such annual account, and such quantity of worts being deducted from the whole quantity of worts made during the period comprised in such account, the residue shall be deemed and taken to have been made from grain, molasses, and treacle.—§ 3.

Clause 4. enacts, that no distiller shall distil from other materials than malt and grain, except as provided by this act and 3 W. 4. c. 74., under a penalty of 2000 l. and forfeiture of materials, spirits, &c.

Notice to be given by the Distiller of his Intention to use Sugar, &c.—Every distiller who is desirous of distilling spirits from worts or wash made or brewed from any of the materials as aforesaid, or from any mixture of the materials, as before specified, under the provisions of this act, shall, 6 days before he commences to brew any such worts or wash, give notice in writing to the proper officer surveying his distillery of his intention so to do, specifying in such notice which of the particular materials aforesaid, or what mixture of the materials, as before specified, he intends to use, and that the same are not mixed with any other materials whatever; and if at any time after such notice has taken effect any other materials for distillation than according to such notice are used in the distillery of such distiller, or are found in any place in or about such distillery, other than the rooms or places entered for keeping such materials, then and in every such case such distiller shall incur the penalty of 2000 l. and all materials found contrary hereto shall be forfeited.—§ 5.

Distiller may change his Materials, on Notice.—If any distiller who has given any such notice is desirous of commencing or recommencing to use any other of the materials aforesaid, or any other of the mixtures of materials in this act before specified, and other than as mentioned in the notice by him before given, such distiller may do so at any time (such time being at the close of a distilling period, and at least 7 days distant from the time when such distiller gave notice to use such materials under the notice last given by him), on giving 6 days previous notice in writing to the proper officer of his intention so to do.—§ 6.

No Sugar or Molasses to be received by Distillers except from the Customs Warehouse, &c.—No distiller of spirits using sugar or molasses for the distillation of spirits shall receive into his custody or possession any such sugar or molasses except from the warehouse in which the same was warehoused under the laws and regulations of the customs, and in the same state, and in the same hogsheads, puncheons,

casks, bags, or packages, with the same marks and numbers thereon, in which the same was cleared and delivered from such warehouse on payment of the duty; and all such sugar or molasses shall be accompanied with a certificate from the proper officer of customs, setting forth the name of the warehouse or place from which the sugar or molasses is removed, and the name of the distillery and distiller where and to whom the same is to be carried, and the quantity of such sugar or molasses, and the number of hogheads, puncheons, casks, bags, and packages in which the same is contained, together with the marks and numbers thereon respectively, with the tare and net weight of each, and the amount and rate of duty paid on such sugar or molasses, together with the date of such payment; and every distiller who receives into his custody or possession any sugar or molasses except as aforesaid, or without the same being accompanied with such certificate as aforesaid, shall for every such offence incur the penalty of 200*l.*, and all such sugar or molasses shall be forfeited. — § 7.

No Treacle to be received by Distillers except from the Refiner or Manufacturer. — No distiller of spirits using treacle for the distillation of spirits shall receive into his custody or possession any such treacle except from the warehouse of the sugar refiner or manufacturer of such treacle from sugar or molasses, and in the same state, and in the same hogheads, puncheons, or casks (none of them being less than of the content of 50 gallons), with the same marks and numbers thereon, in which the same was first prepared and packed in warehouse; and all such treacle shall be accompanied with a certificate from the sugar refiner or manufacturer by whom the same was made or prepared, setting forth the name of the warehouse or place where such treacle was made and from which the same was removed, and the name of the distillery and distiller where and to whom the same is to be carried, and the number of hogheads, puncheons, and casks, not being less than aforesaid, in which the same is contained, together with the marks and numbers thereon respectively, with the tare and net weight of each; and every distiller who receives into his custody or possession any treacle except as aforesaid, or without the same being accompanied with such certificate as aforesaid, shall for every such offence incur the penalty of 200*l.*, and all such treacle shall be forfeited. — § 8.

Distiller using Sugar, Molasses, or Treacle, to provide Storehouses, &c. — Every distiller intending to use sugar, or molasses, or treacle in the distillation of spirits, shall provide and keep a separate and convenient and secure storehouse or room for each (if so required by the commissioners of excise) at his distillery, to be approved of by the commissioners of excise, for the purpose of depositing, storing, and securing thereon the sugar, molasses, or treacle received by him for the distillation of spirits, in such storehouse or room, when so approved of, shall be especially entered by such distiller for the purpose aforesaid, and the proper collector or supervisor of the district shall provide and affix proper locks and fastenings thereto, at the expense of such distiller, who may, if he please, affix other locks and fastenings thereto, the keys of which last-mentioned locks he may keep; and in such separate storehouse or room every such sugar, molasses, or treacle received by him as aforesaid, shall be deposited therein in the presence of an officer of excise, and on such notice as after mentioned; and no such sugar, molasses, or treacle shall be delivered or removed out of any such storehouse or room except in the presence of an officer of excise, and on such notice as after mentioned, and except for the purpose of being conveyed immediately to the malth tun, or to such other vessel as with the approbation of the commissioners of excise is ordered for that purpose, to be there immediately dissolved and used in the manufacture of spirits; and if any such distiller refuses or neglects to provide and keep any such storehouse or room, or to make entry thereof as aforesaid, or refuses or neglects to pay for any lock, key, or fastening for securing the same provided and fixed by such collector or supervisor as aforesaid, or obtains admission or entrance into any such storehouse or room or has the means of so doing, or deposits any sugar, molasses, or treacle therein, or removes any sugar, molasses, or treacle therefrom, except in the presence of and upon due notice to the proper officer of excise, and except for such purpose as aforesaid, or does not deposit in a separate and secure storehouse or room as aforesaid all sugar, molasses, or treacle received by him, every such distiller shall for every such offence incur the penalty of 200*l.*, and all such sugar, molasses, and treacle deposited or removed contrary hereto shall be forfeited. — § 9.

Distiller to give 12 Hours Notice of receiving Sugar, &c., and produce the same in the same State with the Certificate, to be deposited in the Storehouse. — Every distiller using sugar, molasses, or treacle for the distillation of spirits, shall, before receiving any such sugar, molasses, or treacle, give 12 hours previous notice in writing to the officer surveying his distillery of the time of arrival of such sugar, molasses, or treacle; and every such distiller shall, on the attendance of the officer on such notice, produce to him all the sugar, molasses, or treacle, as the same have been received by him, in the same state, and in the same hogheads, puncheons, casks, bags, or packages, with the same marks and numbers thereon, as the same was cleared and delivered from the customs warehouse on payment of duty, if sugar or molasses (or as the same was prepared and packed in the warehouse of the sugar refiner or manufacturer thereof (if the same be treacle)), and such distiller shall at the same time deliver up to such officer the certificate which accompanied such sugar, molasses, or treacle, and on being required by the officer, such distiller shall weigh or cause to be weighed, and shall give the officer all necessary assistance in taking account of all such sugar, molasses, and treacle, in such manner as the commissioners of excise may direct; and such officer, after due examination, and on being satisfied therewith, shall permit such distiller to deposit the same in a separate locked-up storehouse or room, as before mentioned; and if any such distiller receives any such sugar, molasses, or treacle without having given such notice, or fails to produce such sugar, molasses, or treacle, or to deliver up such certificate as aforesaid, or makes any alteration in the quantity or quality of such sugar, molasses, or treacle, or in the hogheads, puncheons, casks, bags, or packages containing the same, or in the marks or numbers thereon, from that which the same respectively were when such sugar or molasses was cleared and delivered from the customs warehouse, or when such treacle was prepared and packed in the warehouse of the sugar refiner or manufacturer thereof, and before such officer as aforesaid has seen such sugar, molasses, or treacle weighed or taken account of and deposited as aforesaid, every such distiller so offending shall incur the penalty of 200*l.*, and all such sugar, molasses, and treacle shall be forfeited. — § 10.

Six Hours Notice before removing from the Storehouse to the Malth Tun. — When any distiller using sugar, molasses, or treacle in the distillation of spirits is about to take or remove any such sugar, molasses, or treacle out of such storehouse or room as aforesaid, for the purpose of the same being conveyed to the malth tun, or to such other vessel as, with the approbation of the commissioners of excise, is entered for that purpose, to be there dissolved and used in the manufacture of spirits, such distiller shall give 6 hours previous notice in writing to the officer surveying the distillery of the time when and the quantity of sugar, molasses, or treacle which he is desirous of removing as aforesaid, and every such officer receiving such notice shall attend in pursuance thereof at the time therein mentioned, and shall unlock the storehouse or room from which such sugar, molasses, or treacle is to be removed, and shall see weighed out therefrom the quantity of sugar, molasses, or treacle expressed in such notice, or such part thereof as the distiller may desire; and all such sugar, molasses, or treacle shall be delivered from such storehouse or room in the original package only; and all such sugar, molasses, or treacle shall be conveyed by the distiller directly from such storehouse or room to the malth tun, or to such other vessel as aforesaid in the distillery of such distiller, to be there dissolved and used in the manufacture of spirits, or shall forthwith be deposited again by such distiller in a separate storehouse or room as aforesaid, under the lock of the officer, until the same is again removed on like notice as aforesaid; and if any distiller removing any sugar, molasses, or treacle does not convey the same directly from the storehouse or room to the malth tun, or to such other vessel as aforesaid, and there dissolve or use the same in the manufacture of spirits, or does not forthwith deposit the same again as aforesaid, or removes or disposes of the same otherwise than as aforesaid, every such distiller so offending shall for every such offence forfeit and lose the sum of 200*l.*, and all such sugar, molasses, and treacle so removed, which are not conveyed,

SUGAR.—SYDNEY.

SCHEDULES to which the foregoing Act refers.

SCHEDULE (A.)

Articles.	From the passing of the Act to 10 July, 1849.	From 10 July, 1849, to 10 July, 1850.	From 10 July, 1850, to 10 July, 1851.	From and after 10 July, 1851.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Allowances to be paid to distillers for and in respect of sugar used in the distillation of spirits: viz.— For and in respect of every 112 lbs. of sugar actually used in the brewing or making of the worts or wash	0 11 10½	0 10 10½	0 9 10½	0 9 10½

SCHEDULE (B.)

Articles.	From the passing of the Act to 10 July, 1849.	From 10 July, 1849, to 10 July, 1850.	From 10 July, 1850, to 10 July, 1851.	From and after 10 July, 1851.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Allowances to be paid to distillers for and in respect of molasses used in the distillation of spirits: viz.— For and in respect of every 112 lbs. of molasses actually used in the brewing or making of the worts or wash	0 4 1	0 3 0	0 3 5	0 3 0

SYDNEY.— We subjoin the following official statements in relation to the trade of Sydney and N. S. Wales.

Account of the Quantities and Value of the Articles exported from the Colony of N. S. Wales (exc. of Port Phillip), during 1846.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
Butter and cheese	21 tons 17 cwt. 14 lbs.	£ 1,245
Candles, tallow	121,064 lbs.	1,294
Carts and waggons	117 No.	1,210
Coals and coke	5,247 tons.	3,622
Flour and bread	1,522 tons 19 cwt. 1 qr. 4 lbs.	10,077
Hoofs, horns, and bones	288,266 No.	1,711
Leather, unmanufactured	91 tons 6 cwt.	5,743
Live stock.—Horses	1,020	18,293
Horned cattle	1,127	2,297
Sheep	6,741	2,692
Oil, sperm	1,064½ tons	61,358
black	494½ do.	5,082
Provisions, salt beef	700 casks	5,123
skins, neat cattle	1,230 tons 3 cwt. 1 qr. 26 lbs.	23,098
Soap	211 tons 8 cwt.	3,375
Sugar, refined	95 tons 16 cwt. 3 qrs.	4,210
Tallow	905 tons 17 cwt. 1 qr. 7 lbs.	25,038
Timber, cedar	856, 512 feet	6,748
Whalebone	16 tons 3 cwt. 2 qrs. 17 lbs.	2,316
Wool	10,072,570 lbs.	668,544
Sundries		9,281
Total value of articles the produce or manufacture of N. S. Wales, including the fisheries of the U. Kingdom		860,697
of other British Dominions		119,271
of Foreign States		11,422
		75,947
Total exports in 1846		1,056,538

Account of the Value of Exports from the Colony of N. S. Wales (inc. Port Phillip), from 1840 to 1847 both inclusive.

Year.	To Great Britain.	To British Colonies.		To South Sea Islands.	To Fisheries.	To U. States.	To Foreign States.	Total.
		New Zealand.	Elsewhere.					
1840	792,494	216,180	504,724	3,621	27,864	27,985	24,618	1,366,692
1841	706,336	114,990	123,968	13,144	18,417	4,837	41,713	1,023,597
1842	885,705	131,784	186,239	3,000	22,862	17,101	40,715	1,067,411
1843	825,877	70,254	205,592	17,921	19,247	-	23,918	1,112,900
1844	854,905	70,799	165,553	14,106	11,025	-	11,131	1,118,415
1845	1,254,891	77,017	139,777	17,634	1,295	-	5,068	1,538,566
1846	1,130,179	105,877	222,045	15,441	490	-	8,407	1,481,839
1847	1,205,091	122,805	218,938	14,231	-	-	17,287	1,670,046

Account of the Value of the Imports into N.S. Wales (including Port Phillip), during each of the Eight Years, ending with 1847, distinguishing between the Value of those from the U. Kingdom, &c.

Year.	From Great Britain.	From British Colonies.		From South Sea Islands.	From Fisheries.	From United States.	From Foreign States.	Total.
		New Zealand.	Elsewhere.					
1840	2,200,365	54,192	276,054	1,548	104,895	24,164	953,331	5,014,199
1841	1,837,989	45,659	246,637	24,361	87,809	85,292	300,971	2,631,668
1842	354,777	37,948	260,355	10,293	84,999	20,117	306,548	1,435,089
1843	1,034,942	18,738	211,491	22,287	42,579	13,041	111,566	1,530,244
1844	965,419	39,795	133,199	10,624	29,507	17,197	75,000	1,380,660
1845	777,112	24,670	303,269	40,948	43,203	7,418	120,019	1,223,254
1846	1,116,501	23,507	239,276	21,799	66,491	4,659	184,252	1,630,222
1847	1,247,241	27,159	261,265	6,219	41,557	1,500	196,022	1,682,022

* These were years of overtrading.

Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels entered Inwards and cleared Outwards in the Colony of N. S. Wales (including Port Phillip) during each of the Eight Years, ending with 1847, distinguishing the Vessels from and to different countries.

Entered Inwards from

Year.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.						South Sea Islands.	Fishes.	United States.	Foreign States.	Total.			
		New Zealand.		Elsewhere.		No.	Tonn.					No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.
		No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.										
1840	190	89,808	68	15,183	347	35,635	6	250	37	8,887	83	90,017	125	128,938	
1841	231	106,338	45	17,091	323	43,959	6	338	41	10,774	84	106,419	129	140,200	
1842	157	55,144	81	14,085	892	45,263	19	3,908	30	6,840	7	110,48	83	148,321	
1843	97	35,214	43	6,909	323	45,534	11	4,194	16	3,418	8	110,48	86	110,48	
1844	78	34,783	94	7,189	828	31,193	13	1,831	37	7,888	7	110,48	87	110,48	
1845	80	29,554	69	6,437	364	47,532	24	2,612	37	11,900	1	110,48	87	110,48	
1846	84	36,761	101	10,485	173	45,433	27	5,003	10	24,373	1	110,48	87	110,48	
1847	88	37,511	73	10,316	563	69,614	25	1,143	78	49,538	1	110,48	87	110,48	

Cleared Outwards to

Year.	Great Britain.	British Colonies.						South Sea Islands.	Fishes.	United States.	Foreign States.	Total.			
		New Zealand.		Elsewhere.		No.	Tonn.					No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.
		No.	Tonn.	No.	Tonn.										
1840	34	16,774	83	17,111	350	66,131	6	737	28	8,199	4	140	149	163,032	
1841	54	16,418	60	11,670	323	68,449	10	3,009	12	5,033	4	140	149	163,032	
1842	54	16,338	76	13,080	329	56,891	13	3,749	9	3,749	4	140	149	163,032	
1843	70	24,124	54	10,018	322	43,474	48	9,783	9	5,703	-	140	149	163,032	
1844	67	21,163	56	10,900	327	52,551	31	6,781	6	3,749	-	140	149	163,032	
1845	67	23,921	62	8,781	309	49,392	23	3,993	41	11,723	-	140	149	163,032	
1846	37	23,515	77	16,033	489	59,528	28	3,538	73	21,878	-	140	149	163,032	
1847	73	30,991	102	15,371	591	74,333	27	3,383	81	20,719	-	140	149	163,032	

TARIFF OF SPAIN:—

Article I. The government will reform the existing Tariff of Importation into the Kingdom for foreign produce, fruits, and manufactures, and for the produce of our colonies, according to the annexed Basis No. 1.

Article II. The cotton manufactures specified in the aforesaid Tariff marked No. 9, are hereby allowed to be imported, paying at their importation, the duties fixed in the annexed Tariff.

The Government will point out the custom-houses through which the above-mentioned manufactures will only be allowed to be imported.

No. 1.

Basis for the Reform of the Tariff of Importation of Foreign Produce, Fruits, and Manufactures, and of the Produce of our Colonies.

First Basis.

Machinery and instruments for agricultural, mining, and manufacturing uses will form from 1 to 14 per cent. ad valorem. Raw materials, not growing abundantly in Spain, and necessary to national industry, whatever may be their form or increase of their value in future, will pay from 1 to 14 per cent. ad valorem.

Timber for ships' masts will be comprised in the preceding article. Raw materials similar to those abundantly produced in Spain, productive agents under equal circumstances, such as coal and coke, and foreign manufactures which may compete with equal ones now manufactured in Spain, will pay from 25 to 50 per cent.

Foreign articles required for home use, and which national industry does not produce, will pay up to 15 per cent. Only in a very exceptional case, this maximum will be carried up to 30 per cent.

The duties at present levied upon colonial articles produced in foreign countries will be opportunely abolished.

The produce of Spanish possessions will pay as follows: Cuba and Porto Rico sugar will pay 3 reals (1s. 7½d.) per arroba.

Asa sugar, 5 reals (16s.) per arroba.

Cuba and Porto Rico coffee, 8 reals (1s. 7½d.) per arroba.

Refined and half-refined sugar worked in the Peninsula, when exported to a foreign country, will have a drawback of 6 reals (1s. 7½d.) per arroba of refined sugar.

All other goods, proceeding from the Spanish possessions in Asia, will pay, as a general rule, only one-fifth part of the duties payable on similar foreign goods.

The differential flag duty will be 30 per cent. This proportion will be greater on those articles which efficaciously contribute to support our navigation.

The importation of the following articles will continue to be prohibited:—

Arms, projectiles, and ammunition for the purpose of war, including all sorts of gunpowder.

Quicksilver.

Hydrographic charts published by the Marine Depot and re-published abroad. Maps and plans of Spanish authors whose right of property should not have expired.

Cinabar.

Vegetable wood under 400 tons admeasurement, of 30 quintals to each ton.

Corn, flour, biscuit, bread, and paste for soup, provided their importation be not specially allowed by a corn-law.

Books and printings in the Castilian language, of Spanish authors, unless imported by the authors themselves having the right of property.

Mass-books, breviaries, and prayer-books, and books for daily devotions. The prohibition will not be applied to dictionaries and vocabularies which may not be detrimental to the right of property enjoyed by Spanish authors in conformity with the existing laws.

Military insignia, distinctions, and accoutrements.

Printings, figures, and other objects offensive to morals or ridiculing the Catholic religion.

Common salt.

Tobacco.

Shoes and boots.

Made-up clothes, excepting those imported by travellers for their private use.

Pharmaceutical preparations prohibited by sanitary regulations.

Second Basis.

The following articles will pay a moderate duty on their exportation from the Kingdom:—

Alcohol, or one not containing silver.

Bleed copper after having been once through the Furnace.

Libraze, containing less than one ounce of silver per quintal.

Lead in pigs.

Risk in pigs.

Timber for the construction of vessels: the government being authorized to adopt such measures as it may deem necessary to prevent any detriment to the building of the royal and merchant navies, or in the interest of fire-insurance.

The exportation from the Kingdom of the following articles will continue to be prohibited:—

Cork (preparations) from the province of Terrem.

Libraze, containing one ounce or more of silver per quintal.

Argentiferous ore.

Lead, containing twenty-four "alumbres" as more of silver per quintal.

Rags of cotton, hemp, or flax, and old clothes made from these articles.

Third Basis.

Foreign goods, and those of our colonies, after having paid the entry-duties, according to the tariff, become naturalized, and subject to the payment of the same export, consumption, import, or other duties, which, under whatever denomination, may be levied on similar goods, the produce of the country.

Fourth Basis.

Custom-houses and depots will be established in such parts of the coast and frontier as the government may consider most expedient for the wants of agriculture, industry and commerce, and subject to the payment of the same export, consumption, import, or other duties, which, under whatever denomination, may be levied on similar goods, the produce of the country.

One or more general depots may be established for the admission of every kind of produce, goods, and effects.

Fifth Basis.

No exception nor reduction of duties will be granted in favour of any industry, public establishment, company, nor person of any class whatever.

Sixth Basis.

In the custom-house regulations which will be drawn out by the government, the excise-duties, duties, and forms for the clearance of vessels and merchandise, will be specified, as also the fines and penalties which will be incurred by the infraction or non-observance of the same.

The incidental questions which may arise with regard to the regulations, will be resolved by the government, without occasioning any expense or leave to the parties interested.

Year.	From and after 10 July, 1851.	Total.
1850	0	0
1851	0	0

Year.	From and after 10 July, 1851.	Total.
1850	0	0
1851	0	0

ation to the trade of

of N. S. Wales (exc. of

Year.	Value.
1840	1,245
1841	1,284
1842	1,250
1843	1,268
1844	1,007
1845	1,271
1846	1,245
1847	1,293
1848	1,297
1849	1,299
1850	61,258
1851	2,058
1852	3,123
1853	23,098
1854	5,373
1855	4,430
1856	5,148
1857	6,316
1858	668,244
1859	9,291
1860	860,691
1861	110,273
1862	11,422
1863	75,247
1864	1,056,238

Port Phillip), from 1840 to

Year.	To Foreign States.	Total.
1840	24,618	1,360,692
1841	41,713	1,023,287
1842	40,713	1,067,411
1843	29,918	1,172,300
1844	11,431	1,198,113
1845	2,068	1,255,986
1846	1,461,339	1,461,339
1847	17,287	1,070,048

ship), during each of the Eight Years, from the U. Kingdom, &c.

Year.	From Foreign States.	Total.
1840	235,331	3,014,189
1841	200,871	2,297,383
1842	206,643	1,856,669
1843	31,686	1,560,644
1844	73,600	93,860
1845	148,418	1,335,234
1846	182,559	1,630,472
1847	196,032	1,984,293

No. 11.

The duties marked in this Tariff will be levied on the textures comprised in their respective classes, whether imported in pieces, dresses, alps, collars, capes, or in any other shape. The double stuffs generally used for trousers, jackets, and other men's clothes, or for other purposes, plain, serged, striped, or with other patterns, of cotton only, are prohibited.

The textures of silk, wool, and hemp, having a mixture of cotton in a greater quantity than one-third, will continue to be prohibited, unless they contain twenty threads in one-fourth of a Spanish inch; those having this or a greater number will be admissible, paying in their respective class as follows:

Plain or serged textures, in checks or other patterns, with a mixture of silk or wool, or of both, used generally for waist-coats, known generally as casimirs, goat's hair, or otherwise.

If the silk predominates visibly, or the wool, they will pay the duty marked for the stuffs of these respective articles.

If the cotton be the greatest proportion, having visibly the lesser part of silk or wool, the square yards 16 reals (2s. 3½d.) 35 per cent.

Plain textures serged, striped, and figured with a mixture of

thread or hemp, generally used for trousers and other summer clothing, known as drills, culies, or any other name, — 16 reals (2s. 3½d.) 35 per cent.

Ditto with a mixture of wool, called casimirs, patencours, &c., square yards 30 reals (3s.) 35 per cent.

Simple textures, plain or serged, painted, called muslin-dalies or otherwise.

If the wool be in greater proportion, they will pay as the textures of this article, and if cotton, square yards 8 reals (1s. 7½d.) 35 per cent.

If any texture of a new invention should be presented for importation which cannot be classed under any of the foregoing heads, it will pay an ad valorem duty of 40 per cent.

Therefore we command all tribunals, justices, aldermen, governors, and other authorities, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, of whatever class and dignity they may be, to keep and cause to be kept, fulfilled and executed, the present law in all its parts.

Given at San Ldefonso, this 17th of July, 1849.

	Weight.	Valued at.		Per Centage.
		Reals.	¢ s. d.	
Sewn Cotton.				
From No. 60 to 80	lb.	10	0 3 0	40
From No. 80 upwards	13	0 3 7½		35
Twisted Cotton.				
Twisted Cotton of two threads, for sewing and embroidery, from No. 60 upwards	15	0 5		40
Ditto of three threads, from No. 60	18	0 4 0		40
Cotton Textures.				
<i>First Class.</i>				
Raw or white, of 16 threads upwards, counted in the warp, in one-fourth of one Spanish inch	16	0 5 3½		35
Ditto ditto, dyed	18	0 3 7½		35
Ditto ditto, striped, worked pattern in the loom, or stamped	24	0 4 12		35
<i>Second Class.</i>				
Muslins and Scotch Cambrics, plain, white, striped, and stamped, from 15 to 25 threads, counted in the warp, in one-fourth of a Spanish inch	40	0 8 0		35
Ditto ditto, from 25 threads upwards, ditto	60	0 12 0		35
<i>Third Class.</i>				
Muslins, open worked, and figured in the loom, up to 15 threads, counted in the warp, in one-fourth of a Spanish inch	38	0 5 7½		35
Ditto ditto, from 15 to 25 ditto	36	7 7 0		35
Ditto ditto, from 26 upwards	60	0 10 0		35
<i>Fourth Class.</i>				
Muslins, embroidered by hand, up to 15 threads, counted in the warp, in one-fourth of a Spanish inch	60	0 12 0		35
Ditto ditto, from 15 to 25 ditto	100	1 0 0		35
Ditto ditto, from 25 upwards, ditto	160	1 12 0		35
<i>Fifth Class.</i>				
Clear textures, as lawns, book-muslin, muslin, jaconets, clear muslins, &c., plain or figured, white or stamped, to 15 threads, counted in the warp, in one-fourth of a Spanish inch	50	0 10 0		35
Ditto ditto, from 16 to 25	70	0 14 0		35
The same embroidered will pay as embroidered muslin.				
<i>Sixth Class.</i>				
Quillings and Pique's, white and coloured, of all classes	50	0 10 0		35
Ditto ditto, embroidered	100	1 0 0		35
<i>Seventh Class.</i>				
Velveteens, plain and figured	80	0 4 0		40
"Veludillos," ditto, ditto	32	0 6 41		40
<i>Eighth Class.</i>				
Plain Gazees	60	0 12 0		35
Figured ditto	80	0 16 0		35
<i>Ninth Class.</i>				
Nets, plain, stamped, open worked, figured, or flowered in the loom, in pieces, strips, handkerchiefs, capes, lengths, collars, or any other shape	100	1 0 0		35
Ditto, ditto, embroidered by hand	36	ad val.		35
<i>Tenth Class.</i>				
Laces, insertings, edges, plain and figured in the loom, embroidered, &c.	125	1 5 0		35
Ditto, ditto, embroidered by hand	36	2 10 0		35
<i>Eleventh Class.</i>				
Chintzes, lustrés, cristallines, and other stuffs which are used for making artificial flowers, of 30 threads upwards	70	0 14 5		35
Ditto, ditto, cut and prepared in leaves, seeds, &c. &c. for making flowers	140	1 8 0		35
<i>Twelfth Class.</i>				
White handkerchiefs, painted or stamped ditto, from 20 threads upwards	80	0 6 0		35
White embroidered handkerchiefs	ad val.			35

TARIFF OF UNITED STATES.—We regret to have to state that the doubts we expressed in the Dictionary (p. 917.), in regard to the continuance of the present liberal tariff (that of 1846) in the U. States, appear to be in a fair way of being realised. It was supposed that America had renounced the protective system, but such is not the case; and she still continues to be a "city of refuge," not merely to the poor and destitute population of the old world, but, also, to all the exploded errors and absurdities of the mercantile system. If the principles laid down in the late report of Mr. Meredith, the secretary to the Treasury of the U. States, were fully carried out, they would annihilate the whole foreign trade of the Union. Neither Mr. George Rose, nor Lord Bexley, nor their more modern successors in this and other European countries, ever promulgated such anti-commercial theories as this republican functionary. It would be an insult to the good sense of our readers to enter into any lengthened examination of Mr. Meredith's doctrines. They are, in fact, a mere variegated ten times refuted sophisms. Were they good for any thing they would not merely justify Congress in prohibiting all importation of foreign articles, but they would justify the legislatures of each of the different states comprised in the Union, in prohibiting all importation from the others.

Should the protectionists in Congress succeed, as is not unlikely, in imposing higher duties on iron, cotton goods, and other leading articles of importation, it is some satisfaction to know that this policy will be ten times more injurious to themselves than to any one else. The Americans may have prohibition; but they cannot have it except at a high price. Suppose that, in the event of their importation being free, cotton goods of the value of 2,000,000, or 3,000,000, were annually imported into the Union; and suppose that an *ad valorem* duty of 50 per cent. is laid on them when imported: a duty of this magnitude would, perhaps, satisfy Mr. Meredith and his party; but it may be doubted whether it would give the same satisfaction to the American people. Inasmuch as the Americans have to import large supplies of foreign cottons, it is plain that the price at which they are sold must determine the price at which the native fabrics are also sold. And it consequently follows, that the same addition of 50 per cent. made by the duty to the price of imported cottons will be made to those produced at home. Hence, if we estimate the entire consumption of cottons in the U. States, were there no duties, at 5,000,000, a year, a duty of 50 per cent. would raise their price or cost to the American public to 7,500,000. It is, therefore, evident that an individual who might, in the absence of duties, have bought a quantity of cotton for 20s., will not be able to buy the same quantity after the imposition of the duty for less than 30s. This is the way in which protective duties always operate. They may enrich A; but if they do, it must be at the expense of his fellow-citizens, B, C, D, &c. Jonathan will hardly, we think, be caught by such a worthless bait. If he be, he has less practical sagacity than he has got credit for.

The same reasoning applies to the case of iron and of all other products. But iron has this peculiarity, that it is not merely a manufactured article; it is, at the same time, the most indispensable of all the means and instruments of manufacturing industry. Mr. Meredith is not, however, aware of this. He says he is anxious to make America a great manufacturing country; and, to give effect to his wishes, he proposes to load the most essential of manufacturing agents with a duty that will nearly double its price. Will this specimen of Hibernian logic satisfy friend Jonathan? Had Mr. Meredith's zeal for the growth of manufactures been alloyed with even a homoeopathic dose of common sense, he would have proposed, not the increase, but the total repeal of the duties on all descriptions of iron. If he succeed in his *felo-de-se* attempt to add to the duties on it, he will do the most that can be done to retard the progress of manufacturing industry in the Union, and to disable it from withstanding the competition of foreigners.

These proposals of the government may be relished in the New England and other Northern States; but we hardly think they will meet with much favour in the Southern and Western parts of the Union. The Americans need not flatter themselves with the idea that they can export without, at the same time, importing. At all events, the cotton-planters of Carolina, Alabama, Louisiana, &c., are aware of this, and so, no doubt, are the corn-growers of the Western States. They know that such as are their imports from, so will be their exports to, England. We have, it is true, done all we could, by our raving and proceedings in regard to slavery, to disgust the free traders of the Southern States, and to make them join the protectionists of the north. But it is to be hoped that we may at length learn wisdom by experience, and rest satisfied with the irreparable injury we have done to our own sugar colonies without seeking to inflict a similar injury on the cotton-planters of the Union. We are more interested than the Americans in the growth of cotton; and are, therefore, more interested than they in the maintenance of that order of things in the Carolinas, Alabama, &c., which is necessary to the growth of a large supply of cotton at a cheap rate.

Though the injury which the Americans will inflict on themselves by agreeing to the anti-commercial measures now proposed be incomparably greater than any they will inflict on others, still it would be idle to deny that they will be injurious to us. The U. States is the most extensive market for our iron and cottons, and, by imposing high duties on their importation, the demand for them will, no doubt, be narrowed. This, it must be allowed, is rather a shabby return for the important advantage we have conferred on the Union by opening our ports to her corn and flour at a mere nominal duty. It is true that, in doing so, we consulted our own not her advantage. But whatever motives may be assigned for our conduct, the measure has been highly advantageous to the Americans; and might and should have made them pause in that course of policy on which they appear to be so much inclined to enter. But they had as well not trust too much to our forbearance. Freedom of importation is, speaking generally, the best rule to follow; but there are no absolute rules or principles in politics, or, indeed, in most other things. The Americans formerly compelled us, by their retaliatory proceedings, to make, greatly against our will, though greatly for our advantage, important changes in our navigation laws. And are they quite sure, since they will not follow our example, that we may not diverge a little from the course on which we have entered, to profit by their example? Suppose

trousers and other summer
or any other name, —
alled camlets, petticoats,
sweat
painted, called muslin-de-
tion, they will pay as the
on, square yars & reals (1s.
should be presented for im-
under any of the foregoing
duty of 10 per cent.
wools, justices, clerks, gover-
military, and ecclesiastical,
may be, to keep and cause
the present law in all its
th of July, 1849.

Valued at.	Per Centage.
10	0 2 0
15	0 3 0
20	0 4 0
25	0 5 0
30	0 6 0
35	0 7 0
40	0 8 0
45	0 9 0
50	1 0 0
55	1 1 0
60	1 2 0
65	1 3 0
70	1 4 0
75	1 5 0
80	1 6 0
85	1 7 0
90	1 8 0
95	1 9 0
100	2 0 0
100	2 10 0
125	1 5 0
150	2 10 0
70	0 14 0
140	1 8 0
50	0 8 0
ad val.	ad val.

state that the doubts we
pearance of the present
in a fair way of being
ective system, but such
not merely to the poor
he exploded errors and
rn in the late report of
were fully carried out.
Neither Mr. George
is and other European
s this republican funde-
aders to enter into any
e, in fact, a mere farrago
they would not merely
articles, but they would
d in the Union, in pro-

we laid a discriminating duty of 3s. or 4s. a quarter on corn and flour imported from America, to continue as long as the proposed new duties (if passed) on cotton goods, iron, &c., imported into the Union are to continue, what could the Americans say against such a duty? To be consistent, Mr. Meredith should write a report in its favour. And yet it would be far more severely felt in the States than the duties they propose to lay on imports will be felt here. The Americans must come to us for iron and cottons, and must, therefore, themselves pay the duties imposed on them. But we may supply ourselves with corn in fifty other places besides the Union; and hence the duty on it would fall entirely on the U. States grower and exporter, and not on the English consumer. Whether such a course on our part would or would not be expedient depends on considerations to which it is needless here to allude. But Jonathan had as well be cautious, and not go too far in the way of provocation. Retaliatory proceedings are not to be resorted to on trifling occasions. But they have been, and no doubt may again be, employed, with the best effect, to punish shortsighted selfishness, to procure increased facilities for commerce, and to accelerate the progress of universal opulence.

TOBACCO TRADE.—A few years ago, the American government, at the suggestion of the tobacco planters, sent an agent to Europe to make inquiries into the state of the tobacco trade, in the view of procuring increased facilities for the introduction of the tobacco of the U. States into this part of the world. Mr. Dodge, the agent, has since published an interesting and elaborate Report; a summary of which appeared, a few months ago, in a New Orleans paper. And we now take leave to lay this summary, with but little alteration, before our readers.

Holland.—By the Dutch tariff of 1845, the import duty on unmanufactured tobacco of the U. States is equal to 28 American cents per 100 kilos. (22½ lbs.), with a transit duty of 4 cents per 100 kilos. This transit duty is a matter of great consideration; for in consequence of the many facilities of intercommunication, a large portion of Germany obtains supplies through Holland, and, consequently, a low rate of transit duty is very desirable. The exports of unmanufactured tobacco from the U. States to Holland, from 1st October 1841, to 30th June, 1846, 4½ years, were 138,134 hhd., valued at 5,680,978 dol.—averaging annually 29,081 hhd., of the value of 1,195,994 dol. It is estimated, that the indirect imports of American tobacco into Holland, for the same period, was 5,000 hhd., annually,—making a total annual average import of 34,381 hhd., which is an increase since 1835 of 10,223 hhd. a year. This immense trade is carried on principally in American bottoms. The growth and manufacture of tobacco are very much encouraged.

Belgium.—The duty is 47 c. per 224 lbs. avoirdupois. For 4½ years, from 1841 to 1846, our exports, direct and indirect, to Belgium, amounted to 32,653 hhd., giving an annual average of 6,574 hhd., and showing an annual increase since 1835 of 4,811 hhd. These exports are made in American bottoms. The cultivation is free, and likewise the manufacture is open to any one upon payment of a small patent tax. The tobacco manufacturers are numerous, and the greater part of the manufactured tobacco is smuggled into France.

Denmark.—The duty is equal to 1 dol. 4 c. per 100 lbs. The export to Denmark averages 208 hhd. a year, which shows a diminution in the trade. The cultivation, manufacture, and sale of the article are free.

Sweden and Norway.—According to the tariff of 1835, which is still in force, the duty on tobacco is 12 c. per lb. This is an enormously high tax, yet the trade has slightly increased. For the period before mentioned, from 1841 to 1846, we exported direct to Sweden and Norway, 7,387 hhd., making an average of 1,585 hhd. Most of the imported tobacco is required for the consumption or manufacture of the country; very little is exported.

Russia.—At one time the consumption of tobacco in this country was capitally punished; but the use of it has been rapidly on the increase since the French invasion in 1815. The direct export of our tobacco to Russia for 4½ years, amounted to 801 hhd., being an annual average of 169 hhd.; the indirect importation into the country, by way of England, is considerable. The duty on tobacco is very severe, being 3 dols. 75 c. per 36 lbs.; but, notwithstanding this discouraging duty, the use of tobacco is annually increasing, and the manufacture of the article augmenting.

England.—During the 4½ years, from October 1, 1841, to June 30, 1846, the imports of tobacco into England, Scotland, and Ireland, from the U. States, were 161,293 hhd., making an annual average of 31,651 hhd. It is estimated, that about 12,000 hhd. are annually exported to the Continent, making the consumption in Great Britain about 20,000 hhd. a year, which is an increase of 2,000 hhd. over the average from 1830 to 1835. We give the following extract from Mr. Dodge's report upon the legislation of England upon this article:—

The net produce of the customs and excise was as follows:—

	Dollars.
Leaf tobacco (average of 1½ years, from 1840 to 1835)	15,465,684
Manufactured and cigars (average of 1½ years, from 1841 to 1835)	178,559
Brutt from 1824 to 1835, 10 years	31
Licences to manufacturers (1853)	29,179
Licences to retailers (1853)	199,158
	15,877,072

The total amount of net revenue to the British government from tobacco, not including the excise, was in 1836, 3,397,102 sterling; and in 1837, 3,417,663 sterling; 11-12ths of which is derived from the tobacco of the U. States.

The following statements are contained in an address made by a tobacco convention held in Washington in May 1840, to the tobacco planters of the Union:—

The annual average consumption of our tobacco in Great Britain for the said three years ending the 1st day of October 1838, was about 18,000 hhd., which cost here an average of 9 dols. per 100 lbs., and paid to the British crown a tax of 3s. sterling,—equal to 72½ cents per lb., or 800 cent. duty; that is to say, 1 hhd. of tobacco, weighing 1,200 lbs., for which you received 108 dols. for growing, preparing, and transporting to market, pays a direct tax to the British government of 873 dols. for the privilege of being sold to her citizens, besides other taxes which she exacts from her own citizens for manufacturing and retailing it to the consumers. And the official tables show the gross amount of revenue derived by the British government from 18,000 hhd. of our tobacco, imported in the year 1837, to have been

four imported (used) on cotton should write a States than Americans must the duties im- places besides rates grower and rse on our part h it is needless o far in the way rifting occasions. e best effect, to mmerce, and to ment, at the sug- nquiries into the for the intro- Mr. Dodge, the mmary of which take leave to lay

16,658,466 dols., which is about the sum derived by the U. States from import duties, on imports of every description, from the whole world.

Our diplomatic agents have since 1837 been sedulously endeavouring to urge upon England a reduction of her high duties upon tobacco, but as yet without success.

Mr. Dodge, in 1840, stated that the revenue which Great Britain obtained upon 18,000 hhd. of American tobacco, "was more than enough to pay seven important items in their civil and diplomatic lists," viz:—

1. Civil list	447,000	18
2. Salaries, and pensions for civil, naval, military, and judicial services	1,000,000	18
3. Salaries and allowances	1,000,000	18
4. Diplomatic salaries and pensions	1,000,000	18
5. Courts of Justice	1,000,000	18
6. Miscellaneous	1,000,000	18
7. Interest on exchequer bills	1,000,000	18
	5,868,144	18

which, at 4 dols. 85 c. the pound sterling, is equal to 16,288,500 dols.

France.—Our direct exports to France for the period before mentioned, 41 years, were 80,876 hhd., making an annual average of 18,856 hhd. She also obtains large supplies from depots at Gibraltar and London. The purchase of tobacco is monopolized by the government, under the operation of the system of the *regie*. In 1837 this monopoly produced to the French treasury a revenue of 11,013,338 dols. Tobacco is cultivated to a considerable extent in six of the departments. Airmones exciseurs have been made by our government to obtain some relaxation of this system, but without any avail.

Spain.—The same monopoly exists in this country; and the net product of the revenue from tobacco is estimated at 4,200,000 dol., being about half its gross amount all emtrata by individuals or companies, for supplies, are made with the *regie*. The quantity exported from the U. States to Spain, for 43 years, was 16,435 hhd., being 3,460 hhd. a year. Large quantities are smuggled into the country through Gibraltar.

Austria.—Tobacco is here also a government monopoly, which very seriously affects the trade. The quantity imported from us, for the period of time before mentioned, was 8,628 hhd., or 1,800 hhd. a year.

Sardinia.—Here, also, the same monopoly, so restrictive of consumption, prevails. The annual exports from the U. States amount to 223 hhd., besides large quantities imported indirectly and smuggled.

The Hanse Towns.—With these cities, Bremen and Hamburg, a large commerce is carried on, particularly the former, which engrosses nearly the whole tobacco trade. During the 41 years ending in 1846, the exports of tobacco from the U. States to the Hanse Towns amounted to 350,640 hhd., worth 8,489,378 dols., making a yearly average of 43,114 hhd., of the value of 1,787,388 dols.—The amount consumed in Bremen and Hamburg annually, is about 1,000 hhd., leaving 41,000 hhd. for the consumption of the interior of Germany (Austria excepted) of American tobacco.

Unremitting but unsuccessful efforts were made by Mr. Dodge to induce the Zollverein to modify their tariff of duties on our tobacco, which averages about 75 per cent. on their first cost.

We have some interesting facts, as the result of Mr. Dodge's investigations. The duty on tobacco in every country of Europe (except in the Hanse towns, where only 1,000 hhd. are consumed), is *specific*, being the same whether the tobacco costs 1 dol. or 5 dols. The exports of tobacco from the U. States to Europe in 1845, were 147,128 hhd., of the value of 7,500,000 dols., and the revenue derived from it by the several European States, was about 59,857,564 dols., being about 500 per cent. on the first cost of the article. The duties range from 75 to near 9000 per cent. upon the cost of the article in our ports, and furnish a commentary upon the theory of free trade as understood in Europe, showing that their professions of reciprocity mean, if anything, that they will obtain all they can from us, and grant us nothing in return.

In striking contrast with this enormous revenue from duties on tobacco, are our duties on imports from Europe. The whole amount of imports in 1845 was 117,954,564 dols., and the duties levied upon that amount were 26,653,809 dols. net.—not 20 per cent.

From a table compiled from the records of government, showing the exports of unmanufactured tobacco from 1821 to 1847, the value, number of hogheads, and average value per hoghead, we condense the following amount for periods of 7 years, beginning with 1821 and closing with 1847:—

	Average.	hhd.	Value.	Value per hhd.
First 7 years	81,003	8,804,897	78 08	
Second 7 years	83,982	9,113,924	63 92	
Third 7 years	107,375	11,600,000	53 95	
Fourth 7 years	127,484	13,600,000		

We have shown that the foreign duties on 7,500,000 dollars' value of tobacco, amount to 59,857,000 dols. According to Mr. Dodge, of the 36 States of Europe, there is in 34 freedom of competition in every species of industry exercised in the article of tobacco. The following States have adopted the system of monopoly or *regie*, viz.: France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, Roman States, and the Duchy of Parma. In Britain, Spain, Sardinia, and Parma, the cultivation is absolutely prohibited, in the other States it is only restrained. In the States subject to the *regie*, the manufacture, sale, and import, are absolutely interdicted to individual enterprise. Portugal, Naples, Tuscany, Poland, and a part of Switzerland, have adopted the *farming* system.

The effect of abolishing the monopolies, and reducing the duty to a moderate standard, would be, it is supposed, to increase the consumption fourfold. Mr. Dodge is of opinion, that 423,844 hogheads would be exported to and consumed in Europe, under a moderate system of duties.

Account of the Quantities of Tobacco Imported in 1845 to 1849, and of the Quantities entered for Consumption, and of the Revenue accruing thereon in these years:—

Tobacco.	Imports in 1845.	Imports in 1849.	Entered for Consumption, 1848.	Entered for Consumption, 1849.	Gross Duty in 1848.	Gross Duty in 1849.
	<i>Lhs.</i>	<i>Lhs.</i>	<i>Lhs.</i>	<i>Lhs.</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
Unmanufactured	34,000,560	416,848	87,000,114	87,450,081	4,487,479	4,208,217
Manufactured and snuff	1,212,714	1,905,308	808,820	808,088	67,855	56,214

co of the U. States per 100 kilog. This facilities of intercom- frequently, a low rate U. States to Holland, 80,973 dol.—average indirect imports of making a total annual ear. This immense ce of tobacco are very to 1846, our exports, ge of 6,874 hhd., and an American bottom, ment of a small patent r manufacturer' tobacco is k averages 208 hhd. and sale of the article the duty on tobacco is For the period before t, making an average r manufacture of nished; but the use export of our tobacco ; indirect impor- is very severe, being tobacco is annually ports of tobacco into an annual average of onment, making the 2,000 hhd. over the upon the legisla- Dollars. 15,409,684 178,659 513 26,179 192,158 15,877,072

ending the excise, derived from the on held in Washing- ree years ending the, per 100 lbs., and cent. duty; that is growing, preparing, for the privilege of as for manufacturing of revenue derived 1837, to have been

UNITED STATES.—

An Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of domestic Produce exported from the U. States during each of the 6 Years ending with 1848.

	1842.	1813.	1844.	1846.	1847.	1818.
Fish, dried	288,085	174,220	271,610	277,101	258,870	206,540
Oil, sperm	927,751	476,868	451,317	774,919	750,799	806,431
— whale	3,909,739	9,173,918	4,104,501	2,829,474	3,160,379	1,607,038
Whitehouse	914,989	808,773	1,110,607	1,627,492	2,031,137	1,024,575
Candles, sperm	985,010	985,073	1,069,548	1,083,339	799,550	594,150
— tallow	1,961,024	1,896,537	3,086,063	3,710,478	3,003,983	2,468,093
Staves	31,487	19,763	23,248	29,800	31,906	27,463
Tar and pitch	62,535	37,454	62,477	55,865	47,274	60,540
Turpentine and resin	277,787	184,922	264,666	351,914	310,590	371,738
Albes	6,012	6,438	18,271	9,800	1,735	4,483
Beef	48,481	37,912	106,474	149,223	111,172	103,718
Tallow	7,024,092	7,489,582	9,215,768	10,435,696	11,174,975	8,611,233
Hams	160,032	80,510	61,699	100,422	309,190	214,895
Tork	2,518,411	2,493,027	3,806,376	3,006,830	17,391,471	35,331,034
Lard	20,102,297	21,534,217	23,748,355	21,843,164	37,811,161	49,205,232
Butter	4,035,533	3,616,847	3,313,331	3,439,560	4,184,833	3,271,098
Cheese	3,136,607	2,440,144	7,211,145	8,675,290	10,871,600	14,311,303
Sheep	19,357	13,609	19,990	9,234	10,533	6,231
Wheat	817,578	816,645	636,017	1,013,795	4,399,951	2,874,711
Flour	1,983,692	411,474	1,438,275	1,613,795	4,399,951	2,119,595
Corn	6,001,308	672,608	825,282	1,786,068	18,262,680	5,817,634
Corn meal	309,189	17,334	917,982	286,190	914,060	384,323
Bread, ship	83,591	96,574	117,781	114,793	100,895	167,790
Potatoes	19,198	14,192	183,234	125,150	141,860	135,710
Apples	14,429	15,412	22,294	30,400	36,400	30,400
Rice	114,217	106,766	134,745	126,907	144,427	100,403
Cotton	284,710,077	792,497,190	603,633,830	347,333,830	347,333,830	807,271,511
Tobacco	331,866	475,547	665,901	614,255	1,227,013	1,309,611
Hops	15,970	14,451	163,012	14,399	15,729	130,665
Spirits	193,960	85,416	215,719	237,490	202,527	244,573
Molasses	994,402	491,917	281,225	850,102	850,778	605,701
Soap	2,854,036	3,168,634	4,778,731	3,161,010	3,618,842	3,618,842
Tobacco, manufactured	3,431,214	3,401,232	6,066,878	8,854,866	7,884,452	6,696,502
Lead	14,522,525	13,566,918	14,120,407	16,936,066	3,246,028	1,994,704
Nails	2,156,225	2,499,801	2,042,651	2,439,736	3,012,143	3,137,819
Sugar, refined	4,480,319	598,841	1,671,107	4,128,714	1,539,415	3,276,773
Gunpowder	1,529,281	636,569	1,207,634	1,138,885	789,000	1,161,738
Salt	110,400	40,678	327,329	117,627	99,214	319,119
Brown sugar	—	—	—	109,295	348,007	135,006
Coal	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wool	—	—	—	—	—	78,108

Account of the Value of the Exports to and of the Imports from Foreign Countries of each State and Territory of the United States during the Year ending the 30th June, 1848.

States.	Exports.						Imports.			
	Domestic Produce.			Foreign Produce.			Total of American and Foreign Produce.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	Total.				
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Maine	1,944,259	92,717	1,937,006	17,760	2,429	20,239	1,957,398	674,666	120,509	755,463
N. Hampshire	6,429	1,378	7,807	17,760	4,229	20,239	1,957,398	5,265	5,265	61,200
Vermont	999,869	—	999,869	231,633	—	231,633	541,102	—	—	541,102
Massachusetts	7,960,402	1,376,535	9,306,937	1,484,539	3,626,305	5,111,362	18,419,699	21,739,434	6,908,473	28,627,207
Rhode Island	211,408	1,424	212,832	5,711	5,711	11,425	212,832	338,143	35,113	353,266
Connecticut	601,061	—	601,061	41,464	—	41,464	642,525	9,890	9,890	652,415
New York	29,706,468	10,064,347	39,770,815	10,365,723	4,214,225	14,579,948	53,351,137	79,347,167	14,977,971	91,263,111
New Jersey	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	496	1,337	1,338
Pennsylvania	4,425,982	1,002,334	5,428,269	284,006	22,018	306,024	5,734,333	11,005,462	1,044,294	19,147,500
Delaware	43,029	—	43,029	—	—	—	43,029	402	—	43,431
Maryland	4,622,417	7,016,438	86,518	87,200	113,718	7,149,726	17,809,792	4,739,684	603,590	24,151,066
Dist. Columbia	5,666	—	5,666	—	—	—	83,666	—	—	83,666
Virginia	8,124,326	937,822	9,062,148	1,418	136	1,554	5,661,418	197,318	17,739	5,866,475
N. Carolina	298,624	43,574	342,198	—	—	—	342,198	180,338	3,073	183,411
S. Carolina	4,583,028	3,426,968	8,010,017	—	—	—	8,010,017	1,115,738	369,561	1,485,299
Georgia	1,619,818	2,050,209	3,670,115	—	—	—	3,670,115	138,111	—	3,808,226
Florida	1,247,189	649,194	1,896,383	—	—	—	1,896,383	40,081	18,433	2,024,897
Alabama	7,657,908	4,282,790	11,940,698	4,264	4,264	7,098	11,947,796	195,131	224,609	12,272,405
Louisiana	27,611,569	11,706,379	39,317,948	1,606,940	116,775	1,723,715	40,941,663	7,355,017	3,845,942	49,787,605
Mississippi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tennessee	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10,001	—	10,001
Missouri	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	144,566	—	144,566
Ohio	8,870	138,749	147,599	—	—	—	147,599	141,332	5,291	186,726
Kentucky	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25,971	—	25,971
Michigan	27,471	57,723	85,194	411	—	411	111,633	115,779	—	227,412
Illinois	41,835	41,835	83,670	—	—	—	83,670	1,425	3,090	4,515
Texas	254	11,835	12,089	131,509	212	131,721	132,000	2,561	91,463	93,964
Total	95,514,217	37,359,901	132,874,118	14,118,019	7,014,302	21,132,321	154,036,436	128,627,232	22,331,696	151,958,928

The following tables show the debt of the U. States, and also of each separate State, as far as it can be ascertained:—

Statement of the Debts of the United States on the 1st of October, 1848.	
Treasury Notes of 1812	\$130,928.00
Of the principal and interest of the old Funded and Unfunded Debt, and Mississippi Stock	127,894.68
Debt of the corporate cities of the district of Columbia	1,020,000.00
Outstanding Treasury Notes of issues of 1837 and 1843	167,389.31
Outstanding Treasury Notes of issues of 1837 and 1843, funded	199,728.00
Loan of 1842 at 6 per cent.	8,275,326.03
Loan of 1845 at 5 per cent.	6,044,231.35
Loan of 1846 at 6 per cent.	4,999,149.43
Loans of 1847 at 6 per cent. (including outstanding Treasury Notes and notes to be issued under that act, and exclusive of the amount of stock issued under that act for notes issued before 1846)	35,000,850.55
Five per Cent. Stock issued in payment of Mexican interest, including bounty scrip, at 8 per cent. per act of Feb. 11, 1817	147,200.00
Loan of March 31, 1818, including the amount to be paid in after Oct. 1, 1818	16,000,000.00
	\$65,776,450.41

* This includes the whole amount negotiated and authorized, to which may be added about \$26,000 for Mexican indemnity of bounty scrip.

The debt since 1810 has been as follows:—

1811	\$ 6,737,398	1843	—	18,801,617	
1842	—	15,028,495	1844	—	34,236,483
1843	—	26,908,083	1845	—	42,539,659
1844	—	26,143,996	1846	—	65,778,450

The following table exhibits the debts of the separate States, and the annual interest. It may not be strictly accurate, but it is as nearly so as possible. It will be seen that Pennsylvania occupies the most prominent place in this table, the gross amount of her debts being over \$40,000,000.

	Total Debt.	Ann. Interest on Debt.		Total Debt.	Ann. Interest on Debt.
Maine	\$979,000	\$65,000	Louisiana	16,288,131	74,914
New Hampshire	Nil.	Nil.	Texas	11,020,201	—
Vermont	Nil.	Nil.	Arkansas	3,696,173	153,870
Massachusetts	6,091,047	59,540	Tennessee	3,337,858	177,480
Rhode Island	Nil.	Nil.	Kentucky	4,331,013	171,979
Connecticut	35,812	—	Ohio	16,118,233	1,108,893
New York	33,637,349	1,835,584	Michigan	8,449,039	178,000
New Jersey	6,596,596	517,000	Illinois	6,556,437	241,230
Pennsylvania	40,484,737	3,139,643	Indiana	16,512,795	—
Delaware	Nil.	Nil.	Missouri	956,861	75,000
Maryland	15,800,000	825,000	Iowa	55,000	—
Virginia	14,400,507	931,540	Wisconsin	Nil.	—
North Carolina	877,000	—			
South Carolina	3,248,039	917,338	Total	811,349,438	7,884,085
Georgia	1,909,472	116,033			
Florida	Nil.	Nil.	Total, near Jan. 1, 1846	825,716,038	8,221,671
Alabama	10,385,378	648,501	1847	819,511,594	8,278,236
Mississippi	7,271,707	136,000	1848	821,025,327	9,330,005

COMMERCE OF THE LAKES AND WESTERN RIVERS.

1. *Commerce of the Lakes.*—By a report from the Bureau of Topographical Engineers, in November, 1843, it appeared that, in 1841, the moneyed value of the Lake commerce was,—

Of exports	—	—	—	\$32,342,541
Of imports	—	—	—	33,483,441
Floating value of Lake commerce in 1841	—	—	—	658,525,982

The enrolled and licensed Lake tonnage for the year 1841 was 56,252 tons, and the number of mariners then employed, 3,750.

In 1844, the moneyed value of the commerce of some of the Lake harbours—that of the others being unknown—was as follows, to wit:—

Harbour	Value	Harbour	Value
Oswegatchie (district)	\$180,558	Lake Erie.	
Lake Champlain.		Buffalo (port)	\$48,969,116
Whitehall	6,327,489	Coneaut (port)	380,475
Plattsburgh (district)	1,160,844	Ashtabula (port)	716,467
Burlington (district)	3,777,726	Fairport (Grand River)	819,884
Lake Ontario.		Cleveland (port)	12,359,110
Sackett's Harbour (district)	2,735,091	Sandusky (district)	5,943,127
Dexter (port)	484,575	Monroe (district), including Toledo	9,519,067
Salmon River or Port Ontario	423,724	Detroit	8,706,348
Oswego	9,892,980	Erie	915,040
Big Sodus	39,206	Black River (port)	6,378,246
Rochester	212,926	Vermilion (port)	137,770
Pultneyville	20,432	Lake Michigan.	
Niagara (district)	606,963	Chicago	3,927,150
		Total	\$123,829,821

The above table gives the consolidated returns of both exports and imports. It is supposed that half the amount would not be an exaggerated statement of the net moneyed value of the Lake commerce. The amount for 1846 would then be \$61,914,510; and for 1841, by the same computation, \$22,912,991. This shows an annual average increase of 17-62 per cent., and that the Lake commerce has nearly doubled itself in five years.

The registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage of the Lakes, by the official reports of the Treasury Department, was, for the year 1846, 106,836 tons; showing that in five years the tonnage of the Lakes was nearly doubled, and that during that period the annual average increase was 17-98 per cent.

The number of clearances and entries at ports on the Lakes in 1846 was 15,845, and the quantity of import and exports was 3,861,088 tons. In 1841, the imports and exports amounted to 2,071,802 tons. This shows an annual average increase of 17-27 per cent., and also that the amount was nearly doubled in five years.

There were 3,861,088 tons of merchandise carried on in the Lakes in 1846; and the American Lake tonnage, during the same year, was 106,836 tons. About 20,000 tons of British tonnage are supposed to be actively employed in the trade. There are, then, 136,836 tons of shipping employed in the transportation of 3,861,088 tons of merchandise, which will require each ton to make 28-21 trips the season. The total tonnage of the Lakes is estimated to be worth \$6,000,000; and the annual expenses for wages, wood, coal, repairs, &c. (exclusive of interest and insurance), are computed to amount to \$1,750,000.

The number of passengers on the Lakes, "in all directions," for the year 1846, is estimated to be not less than 250,000, and the average charge upon each passenger to be \$5-00; giving, for the value of the passenger trade of the Lakes, \$1,250,000. The number of mariners upon the Lakes in 1846 was, by returns of the Treasury Department, 6,972.

2. *Commerce of the Western Rivers.*—From official returns of the Treasury Department, it appears that the steamboat tonnage of the Western rivers in 1842 was 126,278 tons, and in 1846 was 249,056 tons. The value of this commerce in 1842 may be stated at \$30,566,903. In 1846, the official return is \$61,206,719; showing an increase in four years of \$11,639,816, or an annual average increase of 15-1 per cent. This is the direct river commerce.

The value of the "way commerce" was stated by the Cincinnati memorial to be, in 1842, \$70,000,000; which in 1846, at an increase of 5-2 per cent. per annum, would be \$86,100,000. The passenger trade of these rivers in 1846 is estimated at \$3,151,500. The total commerce, of all kinds, of the Western rivers may, then, be stated at (net value) \$151,438,701.

The total cost of all the river tonnage, including fat-boats, &c., in 1842, was \$10,922,240. In 1846, at 5-2 per cent. increase, it would have been \$12,942,355. The yearly expense of sustaining this tonnage in 1842 is stated to be \$16,033,719 for steam, and \$1,380,000 for all other tonnage, making a total of \$17,413,719. This, at an annual increase of 5-2 per cent., would give \$20,196,242 for the cost in 1846.

ed from the U. States

1847.	1818.
956,470	506,449
758,798	306,451
3,118,589	1,601,033
4,034,137	1,034,378
2,792,590	598,159
2,792,590	8,168,462
21,406	97,463
47,274	65,510
319,459	291,739
1,235	1,465
11,112	103,718
11,174,575	8,001,233
306,190	914,869
2,794,171	33,531,031
17,611,181	49,628,539
4,818,433	27,611,008
13,637,690	12,913,761
10,553	6,231
4,309,951	8,676,701
4,399,991	2,119,393
10,346,630	5,817,834
19,180,000	298,320
160,985	161,790
161,560	135,170
454,000	454,000
144,427	100,403
97,819,296	307,271,531
155,762	136,616
487,425	25,016
598,671	598,671
202,507	44,859
839,732	800,701
3,688,732	3,448,833
7,981,592	6,698,507
5,578,900	1,994,704
5,197,153	3,719,418
1,239,418	3,378,773
810,18	1,164,738
388,057	133,086
—	76,102

tries of each State and time, 1848.

Imports.		Total.
In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	

Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
674,606	140,959	735,565
560,000	3,425	369,000
506,012	—	—
21,739,131	5,916,473	28,517,000
338,143	13,416	353,559
919,120	9,990	729,310
79,517,167	14,977,271	91,525,111
17,006	1,571	1,028
11,105,469	1,044,123	12,147,591
172	308	480
4,757,684	603,389	5,351,613
32,538	17,738	49,038
197,515	17,738	215,661
186,236	9,273	195,611
1,115,738	369,261	1,485,999
130,160	83,098	213,116
40,051	14,233	54,283
195,131	824,268	419,296
7,535,017	1,845,494	9,380,659
10,001	—	10,001
145,260	—	145,260
181,538	5,301	167,736
25,071	—	25,071
115,729	—	115,729
1,485	3,080	4,563
9,561	91,165	91,001
128,617,132	26,521,696	151,999,828

as far as it

cr, 1848.	
payment of	147,000.00
leaving \$47,000.	
11, 1847	147,000.00
including the	
of 1. 1818	16,000,000.00
	\$65,178,430.41

unt negotiated and authorized, \$5,000 for Mexican indemnity

as follows:—	
1845	16,901,617
1816	2,626,948
1817	45,659,659
1818	65,778,430

In 1843, there were 20,418 persons employed on these boats, and in 1846, at the same rate of increase, there would be 26,114.

Colonel Abert considers the value of the trade of the Western rivers, as above stated, for 1846, too small; as the annual rate of increase is larger than 50 per cent. He makes two other estimates; one of which gives the value for 1846, \$190,824,988, and the other, \$176,884,468. The mean of these two estimates, \$183,854,728, he assumes as the net value of the commerce of the Western rivers; that is, the Mississippi and its direct and indirect tributaries, for the year 1846. The population depending upon these rivers, as a means of communication with a market, was in 1846 between six and seven millions, and that depending upon the Lakes in the same year was nearly three millions.

3. Probable Extent of Steam Navigation on the Western Waters, including the Rivers, Bayous, &c., connected with the Mississippi by Channels navigable for Steamers.

Mississippi and its Branches, Bayous, &c.

	Miles.		Miles.		Miles.
Mississippi proper	2,300	Big Muddy	5	Yalabusha	135
St. Croix	80	Oblon	60	Big Sunflower	80
St. Peter's	120	Forked Deer	195	Little Sunflower	70
Chippeway	70	Big Hatchee	75	Big Black	150
Black	60	St. Francis	300	Bayou De Glaze	90
Wisconsin	180	White	800	Bayou Care	140
Rock	250	Big Black	60	Bayou Rouge	40
Iowa	110	Spring	60	Bayou La Fourche	60
Cedar	60	Arkansas	600	Bayou Plaquemine	12
Des Moines	230	Canadian	60	Bayou Teche	96
Illinois	245	Neosho	60	Grand River	12
Maremee	60	Yasoo	300	Bayou Sorrele	12
Kaskaskia	100	Taliahatchie	300	Bayou Chien	8

Missouri and Branches.

Missouri proper	1,800	Platte River	40	Osage	275
Yellowstone	300	Kansas	150	Grand	90

Ohio and Branches.

Ohio proper	1,000	Big Sandy	50	Barran	30
Alleghany	200	Scioto	50	Wabash	400
Monongahela	60	Kentucky	62	Cumberland	400
Muskingum	70	Salt River	35	Tennessee	720
Kanawha	68	Green	180		

Red River and its Branches, Bayous, &c.

Red River proper	1,400	Bayou Macon	175	Kiamichi	40
Washita	375	Bayou Loula	30	Boggy	40
Saline	100	Texas River	150	Bayou Pierre	150
Little Missouri	60	Lake Bistenaw	60	Atchafalaya	360
Bayou De Arbonne	60	Lake Caddo	75		
Bayou Bartholomew	150	Sulphur Fork	100		16,674
Bayou Bour	150	Little River	65		

4. Length of Lake Coast.

The entire line of Lake coast extends about 8,000 miles, 2,000 of which are the coast of a foreign power. The following Table gives the dimensions of the Lakes.

Lake	Length.	Greatest Width.	Average Width.
Lake Champlain	105	12	8
— Ontario	180	52	40
— Erie	245	57	38
— St. Clair	18	35	12
— Huron (not including Bay of Georgian)	270	105	70
— Michigan	340	83	58
— Superior	420	135	100
Bay of Georgian	120		45

These lakes may be considered as connected throughout their whole extent. Lake Champlain connects with Lake Ontario by means of the River Richelieu, the lock and dam navigation of St. Lawrence River, the Ottawa River, the Rideau Canal through Canada, and the Champlain and Erie Canals of New York. Lake Ontario is connected with Lake Erie by means of the Welland Canal through Canada, and by means of the Oswego and Erie Canals through the State of New York. Lake Erie is connected with Lake St. Clair by the deep and navigable Strait of Detroit, 25 miles long. Lake St. Clair is connected with Lake Huron by the deep and navigable Strait of St. Clair, 32 miles long. Lake Huron is connected with Lake Michigan by the deep and wide Strait of Mackinaw, and with Lake Superior by the Strait of St. Mary's, 46 miles long. This strait is navigable throughout, except for about 1 mile of its length, immediately adjacent to Lake Superior, where, from rocks and the extreme rapidity of the current, navigation ceases. These difficulties can, however, be easily surmounted by a canal of not more than a mile long, with locks to overcome a fall of about 21 feet. The only additional obstruction to this immense extent of inland navigation is in St. Clair Lake, on approaching the St. Clair Strait. This obstruction consists of an extensive bar, but not of great width, over which not more than 7 feet water, in depressed conditions of the Lakes, can be counted upon. This shoal consists of an indurated marl, and there is but little doubt, that, if a channel were once dredged through, it would remain a durable improvement.

The tributaries of the Mississippi are connected with the Lakes by various continuous lines of canal or railroad. There are likewise, by canals and railroads, means of communication between the Lakes and the seaboard. The different lines of canals and railroads are given in detail by Colonel Abert, in his interesting and able report.

The amount expended for the improvement of Lake harbours and Western rivers from 1806 (when the first appropriation was made), to the last appropriation of 1845, inclusive, is,—

For the Lake harbours	\$2,750,000
For the Western rivers	2,758,800
	\$5,508,800

— (American Almanac for 1849.)

WHALE-FISHERY. — A project is now on foot for inspiring new energy into the British South Whale-fishery, by establishing a Joint-Stock Company for its prosecution, which is to carry on its operations from the Auckland Islands. These islands, which were discovered in 1806 by a ship belonging to the Messrs. Enderby, the enterprising founders of the Company, are situated in the S. Ocean, lat. 50° S., long. 160° 12' E., about 160 m. S. from South Island, N. Zealand. The group consists of one principal island, nearly the size of the Isle of Man, and of some smaller islands. They are of volcanic formation, are well watered, and are in most parts covered either with large timber trees or with luxuriant fern, being, in respect of soil and productions, very similar to N. Zealand, of which they may be regarded as an outlying portion. They contain several excellent harbours, and appear to be in all respects extremely well fitted for a station for the ships employed in the Whale-fishery in the Southern Ocean. The charter incorporating the Company has already received the royal signature, so that it may be presumed it will shortly commence operations. It would be premature to anticipate what may be its probable success; but the fact of the whale fishery carried on from Australia and New Zealand having latterly declined is not of very favourable augury.

We borrow from *Hunter's Commercial Magazine* the following details with regard to the Whale Fishery of the U. States in 1847, and previous years.

THE WHALE FISHERY OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1847.

The following Table exhibits the Quantity of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone imported into the several Ports of the U. States engaged in this branch of commercial enterprise during 1847:—

Ports.		Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.	Ports.		Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.
		Bbls.	Bbls.	Lbs.			Bbls.	Bbls.	Lbs.
New Bedford	56,437	98,755	1,559,800	Bristol	478	150			
Fairhaven	12,072	11,890	91,700	Warren	1,441	5,106	10,900		
Massachusetts	1,309	874	3,503	Providence	514	8,854	17,500		
Rippon	488	104		Newport	1,743	1,148			
Wareham	1,649	1,614	8,500	Rumington	705	18,480	166,900		
Westport	1,983	1,626	13,100	Mystic	810	11,814	59,500		
Holmes's Hole	699	3,803	33,700	New London	4,755	75,540	383,500		
Edgartown	3,460	5,539	39,000	Bridgeport	120	1,363	4,600		
Nantucket	23,287	2,021	8,000	Hag Harbor	3,257	81,999	379,800		
Harnstable	538	8		Greenport	633	9,880	80,478		
Provincetown	2,080	80		Cold Spring	801	9,767	31,488		
Boston	3,859	-	445,100	New York	68	1,742	2,600		
Lynn	178	-	8,000	Total	180,753	313,150	3,541,880		
Fall River	18	38							

We here annex a Table of the Imports, &c., for the Seven previous Years, for the purpose of comparison:—

Years.	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.	Years.	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.
1846	85,217	207,493	2,275,939	1842	155,637	191,941	1,600,000
1845	137,917	374,730	3,157,148	1841	135,504	207,548	2,000,000
1844	139,584	859,017	2,539,415	1840	157,781	207,908	2,000,000
1843	166,985	206,777	2,000,000				

Tonnage of Vessels employed to the Whale Fishery, January 1, 1848.

Ports.				Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Tons.	Ports.				Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Tons.
New Bedford	847	-	1	80,946	Frestown	-	1	-	985						
Fairhaven	50	-	-	15,377	Monroe	-	1	-	137						
Dartmouth	-	1	-	111	Bristol	1	-	-	302						
Westport	1	9	-	2,678	Warren	81	-	-	7,071						
North-polett	-	5	-	2,079	Providence	6	-	-	3,228						
Rippon	2	-	1	603	Rumington	85	-	-	1,896						
Wareham	4	-	-	804	Mystic	15	-	-	7,787						
Farmouth	4	-	-	1,470	New London	59	1	6	4,680						
Holmes's Hole	-	1	-	843	Bridgeport	2	-	-	25,354						
Edgartown	-	1	-	9,408	Hag Harbor	60	-	-	708						
Nantucket	68	1	3	24,070	Greenport	11	-	-	17,923						
Yarmouth	-	2	-	50	New York	1	-	-	3,522						
Provincetown	-	7	-	1,984	Cold Spring	8	-	-	2,387						
Plymouth	-	1	-	175	Total	1848	14	23	17	910,541					
Boston	-	-	1	729		1847	655	81	30	320,118					
Lynn	-	-	-	660											
Fall River	-	-	1	1,743		1846	59	1	3	19,677					

Exports of Whale Oil from the Port of New Bedford to Foreign Ports.

1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Bbls.						
34,478	26,003	17,301	30,433	22,354	31,989	10,144

The Exports of Whale Oil from the Port of New Bedford in 1847, were — to Prussia, 3,347 bbls. to Holland, 6,797 bbls. In 1846, the Exports of Oil from this Port were 3,841 bbls. of Sperm, and 31,894 bbls. of Whale.

same rate of increase, as stated for 1846, too other estimates; one of the mean of these two rivers; that is, the variation depending upon six and seven millions,

Rivers, Bayous, &c., rivers.

	Mils.
ha -	130
flower -	80
sunflower -	70
ck -	150
De Glass -	90
Care -	140
Rouge -	40
La Fourche -	60
Piacquemine -	13
Teche -	96
River -	13
Sourtre -	12
Chien -	8

-	275
-	90

h -	30
ah -	400
erland -	400
essee -	720

ichi -	40
y -	150
u Pierre -	180
Malays -	360
	16,874

are the coast of a foreign

Length.	Greatest Width.	Average Width.
10 1/2	12	6
18 1/2	52	40
24 1/2	57	38
18	35	12
240	105	70
320	83	58
470	135	100
120		45

ent. Lake Champlain connects navigation of St. Lawrence Champlain and Erie Canals of the Welland Canal through of New York. Lake Erie is 25 miles long. Lake St. Clair, 32 miles long. Lake Michigan, and with Lake Superior, except for about 1 miles and the extreme rapidly city surrounded by a canal of the St. Clair Strait, which is not more than 7 feet deep, consists of an indented through, it would remain a

us continuous lines of canal or navigation between the Lakes and Detroit by Colonel Abert, in the

ern rivers from 1806 (when five, 16, —

\$2,750,000
2,759,800
\$5,509,800

WINE AND SPIRITS.

Price of Whale Oil and Bone for Seven Years.—The following is a Statement of the Average Prices of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone for the Year 1847, together with the Average Price per Year for Seven Years past:—

Years.	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.	Years.	Sperm Oil.	Whale Oil.	Whalebone.
1847	Cents. 101	Cents. 38	Cents. 34	1848	Cents. 83	Cents. 34	Cents. 28
1848	77	35	34	1849	75	31	28
1845	84	35	33	1841	94	31	19
1846	90	36	30	1840	100	30	18

The Quantity of Sperm and Whale Oil and Whalebone on hand January 1, 1848, as far as known at the time of making up the Report, was—of Sperm Oil, 5,606 bbls.; Whale Oil, 18,001 bbls.; Whalebone, 843,900 lbs.

North-west Coast Fishery.

Years.	Ships.	Average.	Total.	Years.	Ships.	Average.	Total.
1836	No. 1	Bbls. 1,410	Bbls. 2,820	1845	No. 108	Bbls. 1,348	Bbls. 145,900
1840	3	587	1,760	1846	170	1,028	172,870
1841	20	1,418	28,360	1845	265	953	250,900
1845	29	1,557	47,200	1846	292	859	250,000

WINE AND SPIRITS.

Account of the Number of Gallons of Foreign Wine imported, of the Quantities upon which Duty has been paid for Home Consumption, and the Quantities exported; also the Quantities retained for Home Consumption, after deducting the Amount exported subsequently to the Payment of Duty, for the Year ended 6th January 1849, distinguishing the different Varieties of Wines, with the Quantities of each Sort remaining in Bond on the 6th January 1849.

Varieties of Wine.	Quantities Imported.	Quantities upon which Duty has been paid.	Quantities Exported.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption, after deducting Amount exported subsequently to Payment of Duty.	Quantities remaining in Warehouse under Bond, in U. Kingdom on 6th January, 1849.		
					At London.	At other Places.	Total.
Cape	Gallons. 318,051	Gallons. 268,453	Gallons. 278	Gallons. 287,975	Gallons. 175,721	Gallons. 161,218	Gallons. 336,939
French	840,925	578,455	214,705	326,220	245,319	185,214	506,533
Portugal	2,845,498	2,323,078	348,292	2,496,716	2,273,799	1,778,113	4,046,912
Spanish	5,656,056	5,359,285	820,071	5,435,487	5,191,467	1,465,383	5,647,450
Madaira	154,701	111,811	26,430	76,938	161,508	48,300	207,538
Rhenish	24,368	46,430	9,791	44,831	25,660	11,519	34,179
Canary	184,004	30,858	104,143	30,811	44,941	37,750	71,951
Fayal	1,507	433	-	423	793	5,038	2,763
Sicilian and other Sorts	609,728	501,285	310,709	488,200	153,814	237,900	391,574
Mixed, in Bond	-	-	-	30,758	1,260	1,267	2,518
Total	7,536,530	6,369,765	1,515,120	6,186,247	5,268,585	3,550,586	9,218,769

The Exports of Sherry from Cadiz and Port St. Mary's during the 10 years ending with 1840, have been as follows:—

Years.	Botts.	Years.	Botts.	Years.	Botts.
1839	26,341	1843	29,315	1847	31,529
1840	25,918	1844	31,165	1848	31,907
1841	29,683	1845	30,178	1849	39,398
1842	25,096	1846	34,692		

An Account of the Number of proof Gallons of Rum, distinguishing West India, East India, and Foreign; also, of Brandy, Geneva, and other Foreign, Colonial, or Jersey Spirits imported; of the Quantities upon which Duty has been paid for Home Consumption, the Quantities exported, and the Quantities shipped as Stores, and used by the Navy, for the Year ended 6th January 1849, with the Quantities of each Sort remaining in Bond on the 6th January 1849.

Varieties of Spirits.	Quantities Imported.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Quantities Exported.	Quantities shipped as Stores.	Quantities Delivered for Use of Navy.	Quantities remaining in Warehouse under Bond, in the U. Kingdom, on 6th Jan., 1849.		
						At London.	At other Places.	Total.
Rum: Of British Possessions; viz. —	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.	Gallons, inc. Over-proof.
West India and Mauritius	5,770,496	2,833,710	776,067	11,264	118,191	2,937,519	2,433,978	5,351,196
East India	689,484	300,807	101,862	38,674	-	248,021	158,251	706,417
West India, Mauritius, and East India vatted together	-	147,330	26,483	34,722	-	38,337	65,037	103,894
Foreign	306,091	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Of British and Foreign Possessions vatted together	-	148	283,878	1,907	-	59,290	15,566	65,296
All Sorts	6,856,981	3,088,979	1,963,990	207,867	287,547	3,524,105	2,693,199	6,111,237
Brandy	5,129,043	1,609,034	816,408	97,018	-	282,833	761,238	1,587,077
Geneva	265,727	25,730	390,865	16,308	-	14,017	49,298	63,295
Other Foreign and Colonial Spirits	91,748	3,240	63,890	13	-	42,299	29,261	66,135
Spirits mixed in Bond	-	-	231,225	-	-	285	40	325
Spirits of Halligland	7,431	7,431	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spirits of the Channel Islands (imported previously to the passing of the Act 5 & 9 Vict. c. 65.)	-	-	-	-	-	17,985	11,058	29,043
Total	9,738,966	4,601,701	2,738,906	320,606	297,777	4,429,549	3,537,359	7,967,201

WINE AND SPIRITS.

1501

Account of the Number of Gallons of Native Proof Spirits on which Duty was paid for Home Consumption, in the different portions of the U. Kingdom, with the Rate per Gallon, and Amount of Duty, in the Years 1843, 1844, 1845.

Ireland.			Scotland.			Ireland.			The U. Kingdom.	
Total Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Amount of Duty.	Total Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Amount of Duty.	Total Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Amount of Duty.	Total Gallons.	Amount of Duty.
s. d.	d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	s. d.	s. d.	d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
7,781,081	7 10	3,083,853 8	3,066,799	3 8	1,095,969 12	3,546,493	5 8	852,416 11	18,864,533	4,005,201 10 8
2,351,110	7 10	3,196,138 13	35,949,018	3 8	1,095,273 10	1,451,137	5 8	860,181 12	20,009,583	4,171,181 1 4
2,078,241	7 10	3,575,018 17	1,080,131,011	3 8	1,150,362 0	47,805,195	5 8	1,014,068 9	25,152,585	5,119,791 0 10

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Total.

Gallons,
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sumption
5,351,190
706,874
103,894

55,295

6,817,237
1,281,071
63,309
66,139
865

89,043

7,965,701

have been

Baths.
21,599
21,207
39,295

Foreign
quantities
quantities
quantities of

in Ware-
in the U.
Jan., 1845.

Total.

LONDON:
SPOTTISWOODS and SHAW,
New-street-Square.



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Low's
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Crew's
D'Agin
Dress
Easdale
Evans
Fergus
Gwill's
Havill
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Lond
Muscle
Porter
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Seoffe
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Twinkl
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Bell's
Collin
Dunbr
" "
Forster
Fos's
Gleig's
Grant's
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James
Kinder
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" "
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Taylor
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Acton
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" "

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